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Parsing in Indian Languages

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Foreword

Parsing in Indian Languages, edited by Kommaluri Vijayanand and L. Ramamoorthy, has a key goal of exhibiting and developing the widest promising range of new research in the field of Language Processing as it relates to Indian needs.

Parsing of Indian language texts requires an understanding of the diversity found in the grammatical structures of different languages spoken in India. This may sound to be a complex process, but this can be tackled if we have detailed analysis of natural language structures of these languages. Here is where a deeper and purposeful co-operation between computing experts and linguistics scholars is called for.

In *Parsing in Indian Languages*, academicians, researchers and other Language Processing professionals discuss and present their research and results. They share their discoveries and experiences for further research. This will certainly help impart the latest techniques in the field of Language Processing to the students as well. Ultimately this research will prove useful in many fields including communication.

Collaboration with the Central Institute of Indian Languages has opened ways to understand, describe and explain the varied structures actually used in major Indian languages. This volume is a product of this collaborative effort of the Department of Computer Science, Pondicherry University with the Central Institute of Indian Languages, Mysore.

This volume is an excellent source for the scientific community interested in Language Processing . I hope that our collaborative effort will bring out many more such research proceedings in the future as well.

We at the Department of Computer Science, Pondicherry University are committed to carry forward this work through excellent research based activities in a collaborative fashion. This collaborative platform will serve as a new medium for the scientific and research community, centers and agencies including the participating nodes.

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Preface

Ancient Indian grammarians excelled themselves in identifying the components of sentences and grouping them in terms of their structural meaning/s as well as contextual meaning/s in utterances. Their practices assumed certain language universals across human languages. At the same time, they were always aware of the specific features of individual languages. Sanskrit grammatical traditions influenced the development of grammars in several languages such as Telugu, Kannada and Malayalam. The Tamil ancient tradition followed its own course in most areas and developed its own descriptive technical terms and language-specific features of the Tamil language. However, in both the traditions, parsing played a very important role.

Parsing stands for the processes of analysis applied on sentences to identify its constituents. Generally speaking, parsing may be described as the process of identifying the parts of speech, analysis of sentence and sentence types and their constituents. Universal as well as language-specific features may be identified through parsing. An important requirement, often ignored after the introduction of the teaching of English grammar in Indian schools, is the emphasis on language-specific features that are often context-sensitive as well as based on semantic and lexical relations peculiar to a language. English school grammar began to dominate the thinking of the educated people in India. Native grammar traditions also focused more on the earlier stages of the language as exemplified in traditionally respected grammar books.

Modern structural linguistics enabled us to overcome these two limitations and to look at linguistic structures from descriptive and distributional points of views current usage. Further developments within linguistics such as the emergence of the generative grammar models, etc. along with the emergence of computer science and programming, have given us new insights into the processes and models of parsing. In addition, we now recognize that in order to take the benefits of computing, to a variety of languages, we need closer scrutiny and formalization of parsing of target languages.

India has many languages and a good number of these may be termed as major languages in terms of the expansive nature of their use in various fields. Use and development of a variety programmes for the efficient use of computer and computing in these languages will be better achieved if we do the parsing of the syntactic and semantic structures of these languages using well developed concepts and practices of parsing dealing with the universal and specific features of these languages.

The present volume of papers is an attempt to take up some important problems in the field of parsing and apply these techniques to some Indian languages. We do believe that this volume will help both teachers and students of Computer Science courses in Indian Universities. These papers will help Indian researchers and software engineers to continue to identify specific features of Indian languages and find solutions to solve them.

These papers were presented in the National Seminar on Lexical Resources and Computational Techniques on Indian Languages organized by the Department of Computer Science during 04th and 05th October 2010 in Pondicherry University.

Our grateful thanks are due to the following:

Prof. J.A.K. Tareen, Vice-Chancellor, Pondicherry University for his consistent support and encouragement extended to us for hosting this National Seminar on Lexical Resources and Computational Techniques on Indian Languages on the campus. Our gratitude is extended to our sponsors The Department of Information Technology under the Ministry of Information and Communications Technology, Government of India, Central Institute of Indian Languages, Mysore and Department of Science, Technology and Environment, Government of Puducherry. Prof. Rajesh Sachdeva, Director, Central Institute of Indian Languages, Mysore had inaugurated the Seminar and motivated the research community with his inspirational inaugural address stressing on mobilizing young scholars to become part of the mission of translation. We are thankful to Prof. Pushpak Bhattacharya, Department of Computer Science, Indian Institute of Technology-Bombay, Mumbai is instrumental in motivating the young research scholars towards contributing one's resources to the translation mission.

We extend our gratitude to Prof. Rajeev Sangal, Director, Indian Institute of Information Technology, Hyderabad, Prof. V. Prithviraj, Dean (i/c), School of Engineering and Technology, Pondicherry University, Prof. R. Subramanian, Prof. Kavi Narayana Murthy, Prof. Panchanan Mohanty, Prof. G. Umamaheswara Rao of University of Hyderabad and Thiru. S. Loganathan, Registrar, Thiru. S. Raghavan, Finance Officer of Pondicherry University.

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Special Volume: ***Parsing in Indian Languages***

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Statistical Machine Translation using Joshua: An approach to build “enTel” system

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1.0 Abstract

This paper addresses an approach to build “enTel” System – An English to Telugu Machine Translation (MT) System using Statistical Machine Translation (SMT) techniques and Johns Hopkins University Open Source Architecture (JOSHUA). It provides a heuristic approach - To train a probabilistic alignment model and use its predictions to align words and ensure the well form of the target language sentences - The tuning of weights of model to balance the contribution of each of the component parts to find the optimal weights among different models – Evaluation of the quality of machine translation with the Bilingual Evaluation Understudy (BLEU) that compares a system's output against reference human translations.

2.0 Introduction

Machine translation (MT), also known as “automatic translation” or “mechanical translation,” is the name for computerized methods that automate all or part of the process of translating from one human

language to another. Languages are challenging, because natural languages are highly complex, many words have various meanings and different possible translations, sentences might have various readings, and the relationships between linguistic entities are often vague. The major issues in MT involve ambiguity, structural differences between languages, and multiword units such as collocations and idioms. If sentences and words only had one interpretable meaning, the problem of interlingual translation would be much easier. However, languages can present ambiguity on several levels. If a word can have more than one meaning, it is classified as lexically ambiguous. An approach to solving this problem is statistical analysis.

3.0 Statistical Machine Translation

Statistical Machine Translation (SMT) is founded on the theory that every source language segment has any number of possible translations, and the most appropriate is the translation that is assigned the highest probability by the

system. It requires a bilingual corpus for each language pair, a monolingual corpus for each target language, a language modeler and a decoder. A language model analyses the monolingual TL corpus in order to 'learn' a sense of grammaticality (e.g. word order), based on n-gram statistics (usually trigrams), and then calculates the probabilities of word x following word y etc. in the TL. The probabilities are calculated during the preparation stage and stored. When presented with a new translation, the SL segments are segmented into smaller phrases. They are matched with source language equivalents in the corpus and their translations harvested by the decoder. As the search space is theoretically infinite, the decoder uses a heuristic search algorithm to harvest and select appropriate translations. The translation problem can be described as modeling the probability distribution $\Pr(E|T)$ Where E is the string in Source language and T is the string in Target Language.

$$\Pr(E|T) = \frac{\Pr(T|E)\Pr(E)}{\Pr(T)}$$

Where, $\Pr(E)$ is called Language Model (LM) and $\Pr(T|E)$ is called Translation Model (TM).

The use of statistical techniques in machine translation has led to dramatic improvements in the quality of research

systems in recent years. The statistical machine translation is rapidly progressing, and the quality of systems is getting better and better. An important factor in these improvements is definitely the availability of large amounts of data for training statistical models. Yet the modeling, training, and search methods have also improved since the field of statistical machine translation was pioneered by IBM in the late 1980s and early 1990s.

3.1 N-GRAM Modeling

An n-gram is a subsequence of n items from a given sequence. The items in question can be phonemes, syllables, letters, words or base pairs according to the application. An n-gram of size 1 is referred to as a "unigram"; size 2 is a "bigram" (or, less commonly, a "digram"); size 3 is a "trigram"; and size 4 or more is simply called an "n-gram". Some language models built from n-grams are "($n - 1$)-order Markov models". An n-gram model is a type of probabilistic model for predicting the next item in such a sequence. N-gram models are used in various areas of statistical natural language processing and genetic sequence analysis. The n-gram model, a special type of a Markov model, predicts the occurrence of the i th word v_i with the formula:

$$P(v_i) = [c(v_i - (n-1) \dots v_i)] / [c(v_i - (n-1) \dots v_{i-1})]$$

In this formula, $c(x)$ is the number of occurrences of event x . The most significant results in SBMT have been achieved using n-gram modeling and the most common approach is the trigram model, where $n = 3$.

3.2 SRILM

SRILM is a collection of C++ libraries, executable programs, and helper scripts designed to allow both production of and experimentation with statistical language models for speech recognition and other applications. The toolkit supports creation and evaluation of a variety of language model types based on N-gram statistics, as well as several related tasks, such as statistical tagging and manipulation of N-best lists and word lattices.

3.3 GIZA++

GIZA++ is the Statistical Machine Translation toolkit which was developed by Statistical Machine Translation Team during the summer workshop in 1999 at the Center for Language and Speech Processing at Johns-Hopkins University (CLSP/JHU). It is an extension of the program GIZA (part of the SMT toolkit EGYPT). GIZA ++ is used to train the IBM models 1-5 and HMM Word Alignment model and various smoothing techniques for fertility, distortion/alignment parameters. The

training of the fertility models is significantly more efficient.

3.4 Bilingual Evaluation Understudy

The primary programming task for a Bilingual Evaluation Understudy (BLEU) is to compare n-grams of the candidate with the n-grams of the reference translation and count the number of matches. These matches are position independent. The more the matches, the better the candidate translation is. BLEU's strength is that it correlates highly with human judgments by averaging out individual sentence judgment errors over a test corpus rather than attempting to divine the exact human judgment for every sentence: quantity leads to quality¹. Thus the BLEU method is used for evaluation of quality of machine translation systems.

4.0 Overview of JOSHUA Architecture

Joshua is an open-source toolkit for parsing-based machine translation that is written in Java. JOSHUA decoder assumes a probabilistic synchronous context-free grammar (SCFG)². During decoding, each time a rule is called to construct a new constituent, a number of feature functions are called in order to give a cost for that constituent.

4.1 Translation Grammars

There are a series of classes which define how grammars are created and used. Initially a Grammar Factory to be

constructed to handle the intricacies of parsing grammar files in order to produce a Grammar. This separation is used to decouple the file format from the in-memory representation with the same data structure but different file parsers. The Grammar mostly serves as a wrapper around TrieGrammar in order to give a holistic object representing the entire grammar, though it also gives a place to store global state which would be inappropriate to store in each TrieGrammar object. The TrieGrammar implements a trie-like interface for representing dotted rules for use in parsing charts. This abstract trie can also be viewed as an automaton. Each state of the automaton is represented by a TrieGrammar object³.

RuleCollection is a collection of individual Rule objects. If these states of TrieGrammar objects are "final" then there is a RuleCollection which could be applied at the current position in parsing. This RuleCollection gives the candidate set of rules which could be applied for the next step of the chart-parsing algorithm. Each of these rules is passed to the PhraseModelFF feature function which will produce the cost for applying that rule³.

4.2 Convolution

Sometimes for simple implementations this detailed separation of GrammarFactory, Grammar, TrieGrammar, and RuleCollection may seem like overkill. An important thing to keep in mind is that since these are all interfaces, a given implementation can have a smaller number of classes which implement more than one interface³.

4.3 Language Models

Similarly there are a number of classes that play into language modeling. The NGramLanguageModel interface defines what it means to be a language model. An object of that type is given to the LanguageModelFF feature function which handles all the dynamic programming and N-gram state maintenance³.

4.4 Minimum Error Rate Training

To balance the contribution of each of the component parts (language model probability, translation model probabilities, lexical translation probability, etc) of the model, the weights should tune to run Minimum Error Rate Training (MERT) for finding the optimal weights among different models³.

4.5 Evaluation of Translation Quality

The quality of machine translation is commonly measured using the BLEU metric, which automatically compares a system's output against reference human

translations. The BLUE metric can be computed using built-in function of “JoshuaEval”³. The translation quality can be further improved by varying the size and weights of training data.

5.0 Machine Translation Systems – Telugu Language – Scenario

Telugu is classified as a Dravidian language with heavy Indo-Aryan influence spoken in the Indian state of Andhra Pradesh. Telugu has the third largest number of native speakers in India (74 million according to the 2001 census) and is 15th in the Ethnologue list of most-spoken languages worldwide.

Sampark – Machine Translation among Indian Languages developed by the consortium of 11 Indian institutions led by International Institute of Information Technology-Hyderabad (IIIT-H) is slated for national launch⁴. It can also translate entire webpage with pictures and graphics intact. Anusaaraka - A machine Translation system has been built from Telugu, Kannada, Bengali, Punjabi and Marathi to Hindi⁵. It is domain free but the system has been applied mainly for translating children’s stories. Anubharti - A machine-aided-translation is a hybridized example-based machine translation approach that is a combination of example-based, corpus-based approaches and some elementary grammatical analysis. The example-based

approaches follow human-learning process for storing knowledge from past experiences to use it in future⁶. Anubharti II - the traditional EBMT approach has been modified to reduce the requirement of a large example-base. This is done primarily by generalizing the constituents and replacing them with abstracted form from the raw examples. Matching of the input sentence with abstracted examples is done based on the syntactic category and semantic tags of the source language structure⁷.

6.0 Development of “enTel” System

An “enTel” system using Joshua is developed and piloted to find the feasibility and effectiveness of statistical machine translation system between English- Telugu languages. A parallel corpus of south Asian languages called Enabling Minority Language Engineering (EMILLE) for Telugu Language developed by the Central Institute for Indian Languages, Mysore, India and “English to Telugu Dictionary” developed by Charles Philip Brown is considered for training of datasets. The language model is trained using SRILM and GIZA++ tools. The size and weights of training data are tuned to achieve the better quality of machine translation system. The quality of the machine translation system is assessed using BLUE metric.

7.0 Conclusion

The piloted “enTel” System is observed to be an efficient and feasible solution of open MT system for English to Telugu. The “enTel” system requires more enormous amounts of parallel text in the source and target text to achieve high quality translation. SMT gives better results as more and more training data is available. The future work of enTel system is proposed to develop the user interfaces that can retrieve the translated text from source language to targeted language with an ease of clicking a mouse.

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Layered Parts of Speech Tagging for Bangla

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Abstract-In Natural Language Processing, Parts-of-Speech tagging plays a vital role in text processing for any sort of language processing and understanding by machine. This paper proposes a rule based Parts-of-Speech tagger for Bangla with layered tagging. There are 4 levels of Tagging which also handles the tagging of Multi verb expressions.

I. Introduction

The significance of large annotated corpora is a widely known fact. It is an important tool for researchers in Machine Translation (MT), Information Retrieval (IR), Speech Processing and other related areas of Natural Language Processing (NLP). Parts-of-Speech (POS) tagging is the task of assigning each word in a sentence with its appropriate syntactic category called Parts-of-Speech. Annotated corpora are available for languages across the world, but the scenario for Indian languages is not the same.

In this paper I have discussed a rule based POS tagger for Bangla with different layer of tagging. The paper also shows how the layered tagging could help in achieving higher accuracy.

The rest of the paper is organized in the following way- Section 2 gives a brief overview of Bangla and the process of tagging with examples, Section 3 discusses layered POS Tagging and section 4 concludes the paper.

II. POS Tagging in Bangla

Bangla belongs to Eastern Indo-Aryan group, mainly spoken in West Bengal, parts of Tripura and Assam and Bangladesh. Bangla is the official language of West Bengal and Tripura and the national language of

Bangladesh. It is a morphologically rich language, having a well-defined classifier system and at times show partial agglutination. In this section I propose a rule-based POS tagging for Bangla using context and morphological cue. The tag set are both from the common tag set for Indian Languages (Bhaskaran et al.) and IIT Tag set guidelines (Akshar Bharti). For the top level following tags are taken as given in Table 1. This includes the 12 categories that are identified as the universal categories for the Indian languages from the common tag set framework.

Table 1

Top Level Tagging

	TAGSET	DESCRIPTION
1.	NN	Noun
2.	NNP	Proper Noun
3.	NUM	Number
4.	PRP	Pronoun
5.	VF	Verb finite
6.	VB	Verb Base
7.	VNF	Verb Nonfinite
8.	JJ	Adjective
9.	QF	Quantifier
10.	RB	Adverb
11.	PSP	Postposition
12.	PT	Particle
13.	NEG	Negative
14.	CC	Coordinating
15.	UH	Interjection
16.	UNK	unknown
17.	SYM	Symbol

After the top level annotation there is a second level of tagging. The tag sets are shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Second Level Tagging

	TAGSET	DESCRIPTION
1.	CM	Casemarker
2.	CL	Classifier
3.	CD	Cardinal
4.	CP	Complementizer
5.	DET	Determiner
6.	INTF	Intensifiers
7.	QW	Question Word
8.	SC	Subordinating Conjunction

A. Approaches to POS Tagging

POS tagging is typically achieved by rule-based systems, probabilistic data-driven systems, neural network systems or hybrid systems. For languages like English or French, hybrid taggers have been able to achieve success percentages above 98%. [Schulze et al, 1994]. The works available on Bangla POS Tagging are basically statistical based- Hidden Markov Model (HMM) [Ekbal et al.], Conditional Random Field (CRF) [Ekbal et al.], Maximum Entropy Model [Dandapat]. In this paper we talk about a Rule Based POS Tagger for Bangla. The aim is to proceed towards a hybrid POS Tagger for the language in future.

B. Steps to POS Tagging

The first step towards POS tagging is morphological analysis of the words. For this a Noun Analysis and a Verb Analysis had been done. Nouns are divided into three paradigms according to their endings, these three paradigms are further classified into two groups depending on the feature ± animate. The suffixes are then classified based on number, postposition and classifier information. Verbs are classified into 6 paradigms based on morphosyntactic alternation of the root. The suffixes are further analysed for person and honourofic information. Noun Analysis is shown in Table 1 and Verb Analysis is shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Noun Paradigm

Paradigm	No	Anim ate	Hon our ofic	Del Char	Classi fier	Case	Form
chele 'boy'	Sg	+	+	0	-	Direct	chele 'boy'
chele 'boy'	Sg	+	+	0	Ti	Oblique	cheleTi 'boy'
chele 'boy'	PL	+	+	0	rA	Direct	cheleraa 'boys'
chele 'boy'	PL	+	+	0	der	Oblique	cheleder 'boys'
chele 'boy'	PL	+	-	0	gulo	Oblique	chelegulo 'boys'
phuul 'flower'	Sg	-	-	0	-	Direct	phuul 'flower'
phuul 'flower'	Sg	-	-	0	TA	Oblique	phuulTA 'flower'
phuul 'flower'	Sg	-	-	0	Ti	Oblique	phuulTi 'flower'
phuul 'flower'	PL	-	-	0	gulo	Direct	phuulgulo 'flowers'
phuul 'flower'	PL	-	-	0	gulo	Oblique	phuulgulo 'flowers'

Verb analysis based on Tense, Aspect, Modality, Person and Honourificity (TAMPH) matrix is shown in Table 4.

Table 4
Verb Paradigm

Tense	Asp	Mod	Per	Hon	Eg.
Present	fct	-	1st	-	kor-i 'I do'
Present	fct	-	2nd	-	kar-o 'You do'
Present	fct	-	2nd	+	kar-un 'You (Hon) do'
Present	fct	-	3rd	-	kar-e 'He does'
Present	fct	-	3rd	+	kar-en 'He (Hon) does'
Past	Inf	-	2nd	-	kar-ar chilo 'was to be done'
Future	-	-	3rd	+	kor-be-n 'He (Hon) will do'
Present	Dur	-	3rd	-	kor-che 'He is doing'
Present	fct	Abl	3rd	-	kor-te pare 'He can do'

Based on this analysis a MA will return the following for the sentence '*ekjon chele boigulo diyechē*'

1. *ekjon* (NN,CD) *chēle* (NN) *boigulo* (NN) *diyechē* (VF) 'A boy gave the books'

These are the simple tags that a MA can give. To reduce the ambiguity we need linguistic rules. The ambiguity here is between a Cardinal and a Noun. *ekjon* 'one' can

be both- a Noun and a Cardinal. To resolve this sort of ambiguity following rule is given

Noun vs. Cardinal: if the following word is a noun without a suffix and the token to be processed can qualify the succeeding noun, then the processing token is a cardinal, otherwise it is a noun. [eg. in *ekjon chele*, *ekjon* can be a cardinal or noun, but as it can qualify *chēle*, and *chēle* is without a suffix it will be an cardinal, not a noun]

The POS tagger will go through 3 stages. At the first stage preliminary tags will be assigned with the help of MA and disambiguating rules. Stage 2 will do a deeper level analysis and provide information like Classifier, TAMPH, Postposition etc. Stage 3 or final stage will run a local word grouper and give the noun group and verb group information. Fig.1. shows stage by stage output of the POS Tagger of the sentence *ekTi shundori meye nodir dhare daNRiye ache* 'One beautiful girl is standing on the bank of the river'

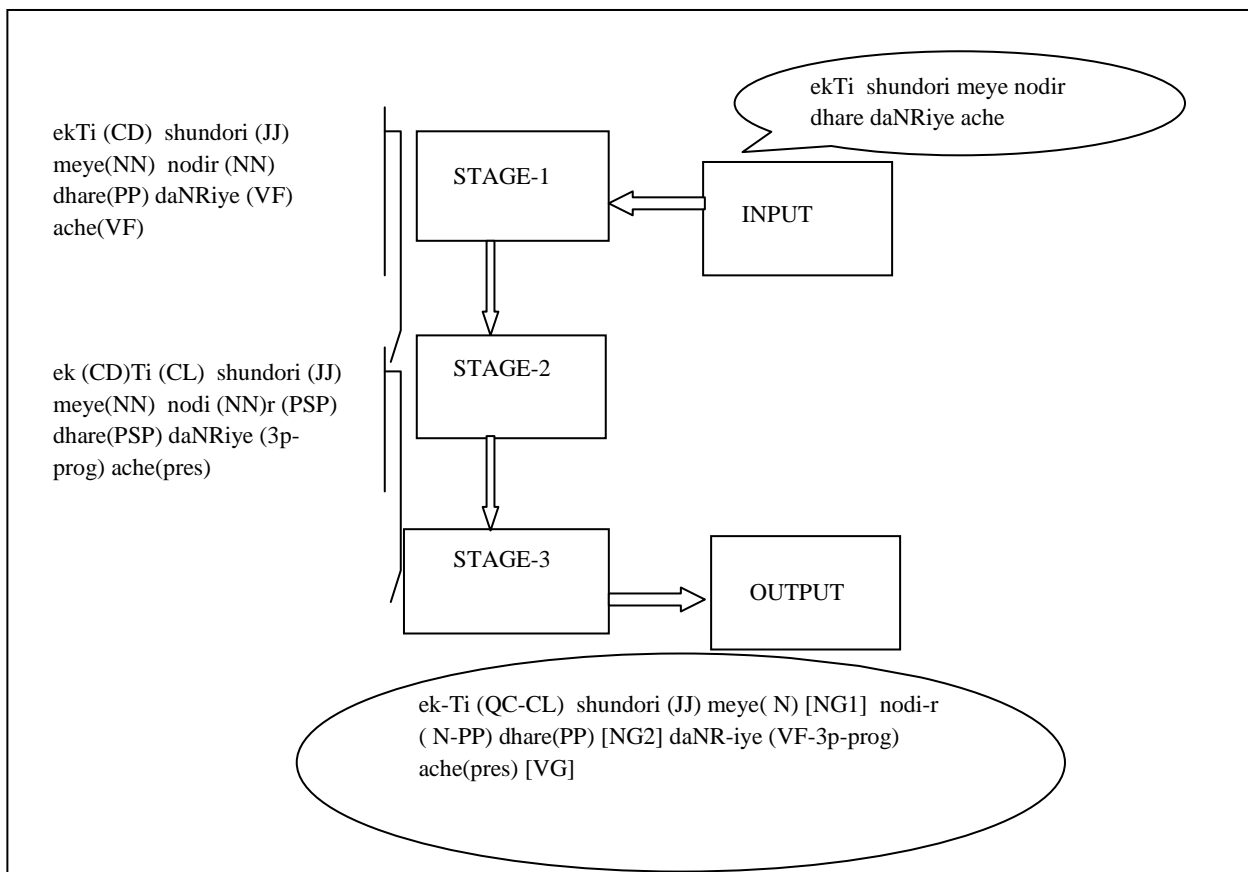


Fig. 1. Stages of POS Tagger

III. Handling Multi Verb Expressions

The POS Tagging process described in this paper till now will be able to tag and group simple verbs. Multi verb expressions (MVE) are not taken care here. MVEs are very frequent in South Asian Languages. These MVEs can be of two types-

- a. Noun+Verb Combination, e.g., aarambha karaa ‘to start’
- b. Verb+Verb Combination e.g., kore phæla ‘to do’

The former type of constructions is commonly known as Conjunct Verbs while the latter is called Compound Verb. The Tag set explained here does not include tags for this sort of combination. Therefore, examples like 2 and 3 will have the following tagging-

- 2. chelegulo kaajTaa aarambha koreche ‘The boys started the work’
 NN NN NN VF
 NN-CL NN-CL NN VF-3p-pt.
 [NG1] [NG2] [NG3] [VG]
- 3. kaajTaa bandho hoyeche ‘The work stopped’
 NN NN VF
 NN-CL NN VF-3p-pt.
 [NG1] [NG2] [VG]

Both in 2 and 3 *aarambha koreche* ‘started’ and *bandho hoyeche* ‘stopped’ are instances of conjunct verbs. The information of conjunct verb is missing from the tagged output which is leading to a wrong verb group and Noun group identification. As of now both *aarambha* ‘start’ and *bandho* ‘stop’ are considered as Nouns and *koreche* ‘do’ and *hoyeche* ‘happen’ as verbs. Due to this the local word grouper

has grouped both *aarambha* ‘start’ and *bandho* ‘stop’ as [NG]. This will lead to wrong syntax affecting the accuracy of the system. To handle this sort of situation I suggest here to add one more layer of tagging before word grouping. The third level of tagging is shown in Table 5.

Table 5.

Third Level Tagging

	TAGSET	DESCRIPTION
1.	CNVJ	Conjunct Verb
2.	CPDV	Compound Verb

IV. Conclusion and Future Work

In this paper I have discussed a rule based POS tagger for Bangla with layered tagging. There are four levels of Tagging. In the first level ambiguous basic category of a word is assigned. Disambiguation rules are applied in the second level with more detail morphological information. At the third level multi word verbs are tagged and the fourth or the final level is the level of local word grouping or chunking.

Fig. 2. shows the modified stage by stage output of the POS Tagger of the sentence *chelegulo kaajTaa aarambha koreche* ‘The boys started the work’

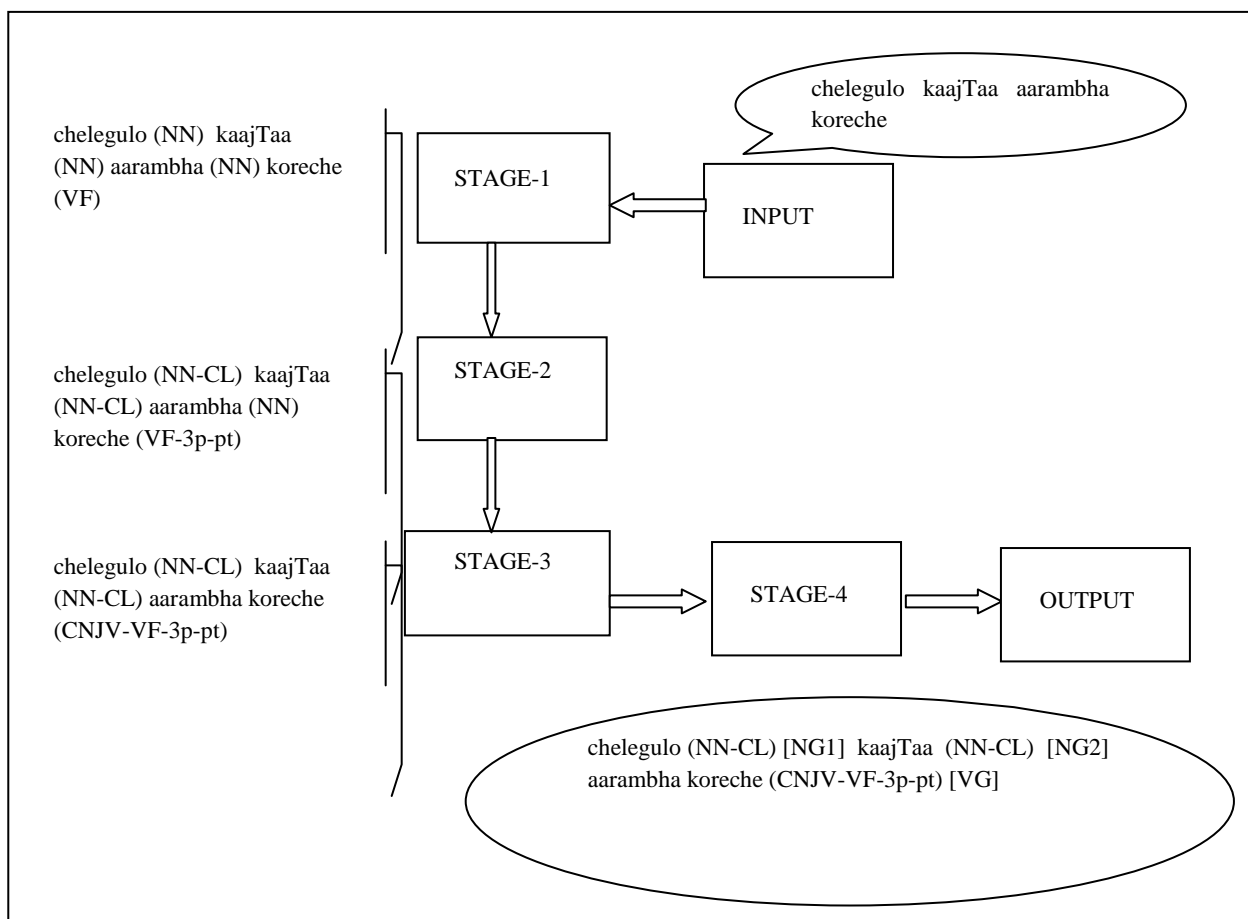


Fig. 2. Modified Stages of POS Tagger

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DEVELOPING MORPHOLOGICAL ANALYZERS FOR FOUR INDIAN LANGUAGES USING A RULE BASED AFFIX STRIPPING APPROACH

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Abstract - The present paper deals with the design and development of morphological analyzers for four Indian languages, viz., Assamese, Bengali, Bodo and Oriya. These analyzers are being developed using the Suffix Stripping Approach.

The results of the first version of the analyzers using this approach are fairly encouraging. The coverage of the system is directly related to the size of the dictionary. As this is an ongoing work, we hope to expand and make the system more robust, by increasing the dictionary size.

I. INTRODUCTION

Considering the extensive work that is being carried out in the area of Indian Language Technologies, towards building Language Applications for Major Indian Languages it is the need of the hour to develop and generate language resources for a large number of Indian languages, which are of high quality and with distinct standards.

In order to fulfill this long-pending need, the Central Institute of Indian Languages, Mysore and several other institutions working on Indian Languages technology have set up the Linguistic Data Consortium for Indian Languages (LDC-IL), whose main goal is to create and manage large Indian languages databases. One of the many resource building activities that LDC-IL is involved in includes developing Morphological Analyzers and Generators for major Indian languages.

There are two approaches used to build the Morphological Analyzers at LDC-IL, viz., the Word and Paradigm Approach [1] and the Rule Based Affix Stripping Approach. Morphological Analyzers for ten of the thirteen Indian languages mentioned above are being developed using the Apertium – Lttoolbox [2]. and [5]. For four of the languages, viz., Assamese, Bengali, Bodo and Oriya, analyzers are being developed using the suffix stripping approach. Some other research groups have developed analyzers using the Apertium-Lttoolbox for languages like Marathi [6], Telugu and Tamil [3].

The present paper reports the ongoing work of building Morphological Analyzers using the Suffix Stripping method for the four languages – Assamese, Bengali, Bodo and Oriya. Currently the system only handles inflectional suffixes though it will be further modified so as to handle derivation as well as prefixation, in each of these languages. The system

is at different stages of completion depending on the availability of the language resources and human resources for the respective languages.

II. RULE BASED SUFFIX STRIPPING APPROACH.

The Word and Paradigm Model (WPM) is unsuitable and inadequate to capture all morphological functions in case of Assamese, Bengali, Bodo and Oriya. The reason for this is that these languages are classifier based languages. Even though the classifiers are finite in number, they can occur in various combinations with nouns. This would increase the manual effort of paradigm creation immensely. Moreover, in these languages morpho-phonemics does not play much of a role. Hence, the Suffix Stripping Approach has been found to be suitable.

As the name suggests, this method involves identifying individual suffixes from a series of suffixes attached to a stem/root, using morpheme sequencing rules. This approach is highly efficient in case of agglutinative languages. However, in languages that display tendency for morpho-phonemic changes during affixation (such as Dravidian languages), this method will require an additional component of morpho-phonemic rules besides the morpheme sequencing rules.

A. ORGANIZATION OF DATA.

The analyzer based on this approach is so modeled that it analyses the inflected form of a word into suffixes and stems. It does so by making use of a root/stem dictionary (for identifying legitimate roots/stems), a list of suffixes, comprising of all possible suffixes that various categories can take (in order to identify a valid suffix), and the morpheme sequencing rules.

The Root Dictionary contains a list of roots, each with its lexical category and features. Following are samples of words from the Assamese, Bengali and Oriya root dictionaries:

1. Assamese
- (a) মাহীদেউগৰাকী\NN.sg.fem 'maternal aunt
- (b) পাগলী\ADJ.fem 'crazy'
- (c) কৰ\VM 'to do'

2. Bengali

- (a) স্টার্ট\NN.0 'start'
- (b) ওড়\ADJ.0 'old'
- (c) বলা\VM 'to say'

3. Oriya

- (a) ଗଛ\NN.0.0 'tree'
- (b) ଗାଡ଼\ADJ.0 'bold'
- (c) ଘ\VM 'go'

The Suffix List contains a list of suffixes with their morpho-syntactic feature values like gender, number, person and other relevant morphological information stored in the form of a dual field list. It deals only with inflectional suffixes not derivational. Following are samples of the Assamese, Bengali, Bodo and Oriya suffix lists.

TABLE 1: SAMPLE OF ASSAMESE SUFFIX LIST

Affix	Feature	Expansion of Abbreviations
ভ	CM.Loc	Case marker, Locative
ও	Prt	Particle
টো	Cl	Classifier

TABLE 2: SAMPLE OF BENGALI SUFFIX LIST

Affix	Feature	Expansion of Abbreviations
স	CM.loc	Case marker, Locative
টা	Prt.Def	Particle, Definite
য়ে	Pl	Plural suffix

TABLE 3: SAMPLE OF BODO SUFFIX LIST

Affix	Feature	Expansion of Abbreviations
আব	CM.loc	Case marker, Locative
নো	Prt.emph	Particle, Emphatic
দাঁ	Asp.prg	Aspect: Progressive

TABLE 4: SAMPLE OF ORIYA SUFFIX LIST

Affix	Feature	Expansion of Abbreviations
ର	CM.loc	Case marker, Locative
ଘା	pl	Plural suffix
ଟା	Prt.def.sg	Particle- definite, singular

The Rule List provides all the possible morpheme sequences for a given category, i.e., for each category, it provides the rules identifying the ordering of suffixes.

TABLE 5: SAMPLE OF MORPHEME SEQUENCING RULES

Rules	Expansion of abbreviations
NN+pl+CM.ins	Noun+plural+Case marker: Instrumental
CRD+PART.emp	Cardinal+Particle: Emphatic
ORD+PART.def.sg	Ordinal+Particle: Definite, Singular
PRP+CM.gen+CM.loc	Pronoun+Case marker: genitive+ Case marker: Locative
ADJ+CM.acc	Adjective+Case marker: Accusative
VM+neg+aux.pst+sg	Verb Main +Negative+Auxiliary: Past Tense, Singular

B. THE METHOD.

Following is a Flow Chart diagram of the Morphological Analyser.

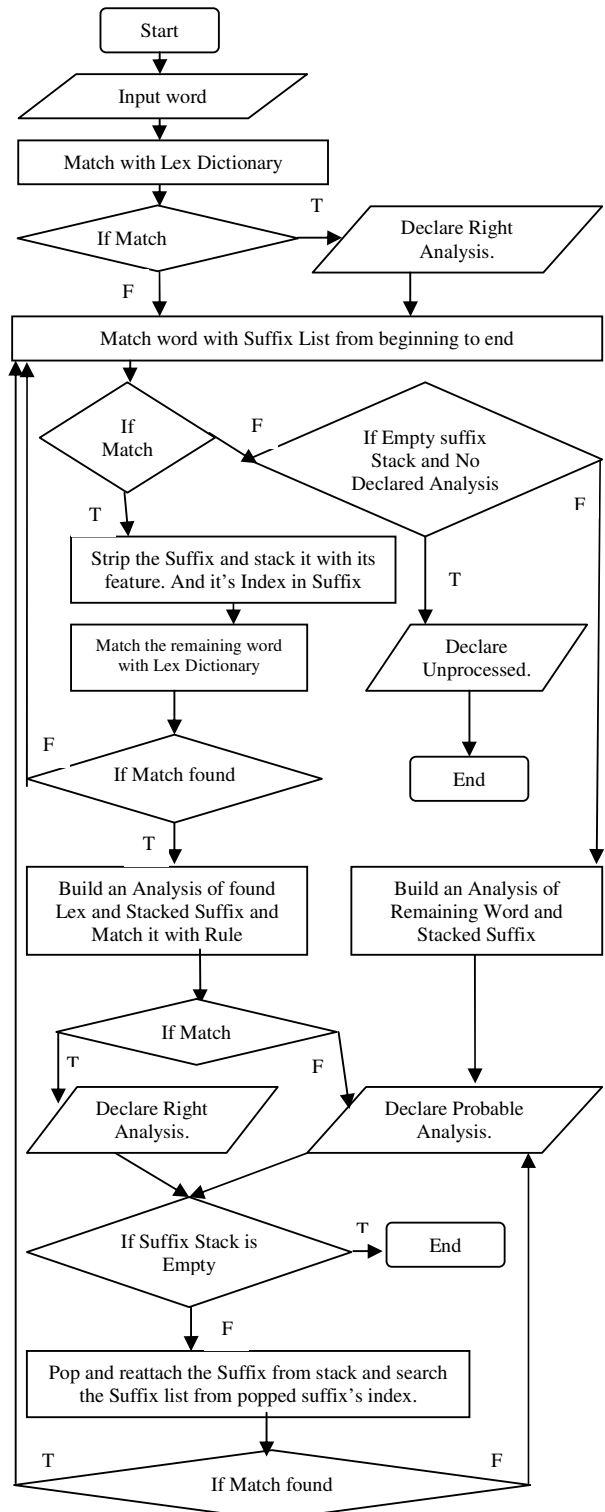


FIGURE 1: FLOW CHART DIAGRAM FOR MORPHOLOGICAL ANALYSER

The suffix stripping algorithm is a method of morphological analysis which makes use of a root/stem dictionary (for identifying legitimate roots/stems), a list of suffixes, comprising of all possible suffixes that various categories can take, and the morpheme sequencing rules. This method is economical. Once the suffixes are identified, removing the suffixes and applying proper morpheme sequencing rules can obtain the stem.

In order to identify the legitimate roots/stems, the dictionary of root/stem needs to be as exhaustive as possible. Considering this fact, the analyzer is designed to provide three types of outputs such as:

The Correct analysis: This is obtained on the basis of a complete match of suffixes, rules and the existence of the analyzed stem/root in the root dictionary.

Probable analysis: This is obtained on the basis of either a matching of the suffixes and rules, even if the root/stem is not found in the dictionary or a matching of the suffixes, but not any supporting rule or existing root in the dictionary.

Unprocessed words: These are the words which have remained unanalyzed due to either absence of the suffix in the suffix list or due to the absence of the rule in the list.

C. INCREASING THE COVERAGE (PHASE 1).

In order to increase the coverage of the system the root dictionary had to be made robust. To this end, a module has been introduced in the system, so that the roots of the probable analyses can be manually added to the root dictionary after validating them and automatically checking whether they already exist in the dictionary or not. Also, the list of unprocessed words, are manually checked and validated, after which they are added to the dictionary, with their corresponding feature values. In phase 1, this process was repeated over larger and random test corpora and with every repetition the dictionary size increased, thereby resulting in the increase in the number of correct analyses.

D. TOWARDS INCREASING THE COVERAGE (PHASE 2).

In the second phase a method has been devised to ensure that the coverage of the root/stem dictionary increases faster. Hence, the test data has been replaced by a frequency wise word list (FWL) generated from the entire available corpus of a given language. The FWL has been run on the system in blocks of 10,000 each, starting with the most frequent words to the less frequent ones in the descending order. The words which remain unanalyzed or fall under the probable analysis are first entered in the root/stem dictionary before the next block of 10,000 words are given to the system.

The logic here is simply that by first adding the most frequently occurring words in a language the overall coverage of the system shoots up manifold as compared to when entering words randomly from a corpus.

E: SUFFIX AND DICTIONARY COVERAGE FOR INDIAN LANGUAGES.

Details of the system coverage and the coverage of the rules and the root/stem dictionary for each of the above Languages are given below in table 6.

TABLE 6: LANGUAGE WISE COVERAGE OF THE SYSTEM

Language	Lex Dictionary Entries	Suffix-Feature pair	Rules	Coverage
Assamese	15452	216	1040	56.338 %
Bengali	12867	187	227	48.326 %
Bodo	16784	131	4379	65.82 %
Oriya	22532	127	536	70.39

CONCLUSION

The paper is about the design and development of morphological analyzers for four Indian Languages, using the suffix stripping approach. The results of the first phase of the suffix stripping approach have been fairly encouraging. It was observed, that with an average of 7000 to 8000 root entries, the affix stripping approach gives around 50% coverage. As is evident from the table 6, the coverage of the system is directly related to the size of the dictionary. We hope to expand and make the system more robust by increasing the dictionary size.

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Sentence Boundary Disambiguation in Kannada Texts

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Abstract - The proposed paper reports the work on developing a system for identifying valid sentence boundaries in Kannada texts and fragmenting the text into sentences. The task of sentence boundary identification is made challenging by the fact that the period, question marks and exclamation marks, do not always mark the sentence boundary. This paper particularly addresses the issue of disambiguating period which can be a sentence boundary marker as well as a marker of abbreviation in Kannada. This methodology is devised to fragment corpora into sentences without any intermediate tools and resources like NER or Abbreviation List.

I. INTRODUCTION

As an important and challenging task sentence boundary disambiguation (SBD) is the problem in natural language processing of deciding where sentences begin and end. Often natural language processing tools require their input to be divided into sentences for various purposes such as building bilingual parallel corpora. "A parallel corpus is a collection of texts in two languages, one of which is the translation equivalent of the other. Although parallel corpora are very useful resources for many natural languages processing applications such as building machine translation systems, multi-lingual dictionaries and word sense disambiguation, they are not yet available for many languages of the world" [2].

In order to process information from parallel text, it is first necessary to align the two texts at some level, typically at the level of paragraph or sentence. As in Reference [1], by 'align' is meant the association of chunks of text in the one document with their translation or equivalent text in the other document. In order to align text at the level of sentences, it is important to define and identify a sentence.

For the purpose of this work, we define a Sentence as a segment of text separated by delimiters such as Exclamation mark "!", Question Mark "?", Period "." and new line character. However, these symbols do not always function as sentence delimiters; they can be used for other purposes, thereby making sentence boundary identification a non-trivial task. Sentence boundary identification is challenging because punctuation marks are often ambiguous.

Among the Indian languages Devanagari based scripts have the unique sentence boundary marker "।" known as '*poorna viraam*' (full stop) which is different from the

abbreviation marker - period. Hence, in such languages segmenting sentences is a relatively trivial task. But languages like English use period as a sentence boundary maker as well as abbreviation marker. As per the English examples given in Reference [2], "a period can also be used as a decimal point in numbers, in ellipses, in abbreviations and in email-addresses. The exclamation mark in the name of a web site Yahoo! may not signify a sentence boundary and so is the question mark in Which? - the name of a magazine".

Like in English and many other languages even Kannada uses Period as a sentence boundary maker and for abbreviations. This paper attempts to handle this ambiguity of the Period in Kannada texts.

II. METHOD

Of the few papers that are available on work related to sentence boundary identification, Riley [4] uses a decision-tree based approach and claims a 99.8% performance on the Brown's Corpus. Reynar and Ratnaparkhi [3] use a maximum entropy approach to identify sentence boundaries. Some of the other common algorithms for sentence boundary identification store the Standard abbreviation as a check list; however the approach proposed in this paper assumes that since abbreviations do not form a closed set, one cannot list all possible abbreviations.

In handling the ambiguity of period in this paper, we are considering the word length as a feature. Based on the study of Kannada corpus we can safely claim that it is usually the longer words that occur at the end of sentences. If a short word occurs with a period then it is most likely either an Abbreviation or a Salutation. Based on the corpus study, a minimal threshold for word length was decided. A list was created of words having length below the threshold and which were not abbreviations. A fairly exhaustive list of some 436 such words was obtained from (approx 4.2 million words) corpus. But the list was kept open-ended in order to accommodate further additions. However, after implementing the algorithm only a few Abbreviations which were above the threshold caused over segmentation of sentences.

The detection of abbreviations is an important step in the process of sentence boundary detection. Drawing upon Reference [5] abbreviations can be categorized into three classes TRAB, ITRAB and AMAB.

- a) *TRAB*: These are transitive abbreviations, i.e., abbreviations that take an object and never end the sentence. To take an example from Kannada:

Kannada script: ಮಿ. ಹರೀಶ್.

Transliteration: mi. harIsh.

Translation: Mr. Harish.

- b) *ITRAB*: These are intransitive abbreviations that do not take an object. Even though Indian languages follow a relatively free word order in a sentence, normally Intransitive abbreviations do not come at the end of the sentence because, they are the subject of the sentence. Any intransitive abbreviation in the middle of a sentence will be handled by the algorithm. Following is an example from Kannada:

Kannada script: ತಮ್ಮ ಮೊಟ್ಟಮೊದಲಿನ ನಾಟಕವನ್ನು ಅ.ನ.ಕೃ. ೧೯೨೪ರಲ್ಲಿ ಬರೆದರು.

Transliteration: tamma moTTamodalina nATakavannu a.na.kx. 1924ralli baredaru.

Translation: A.Na.Kru. Wrote his first ever drama in 1924.

- c) *AMAB*: These refer to abbreviations which are ambiguous, where a word is homonymous to an abbreviation.

Kannada script: ಅದನ್ನಿಲ್ಲಿ ತಾ.

Transliteration: adannilli tA.

Translation: Bring that here.

Kannada script: ತಾ. ೧೫-೦೮-೧೯೪೭

Transliteration: tA. 15-08-1947

Translation: Date. 15-08-1947

In the above example the verb 'bring' is homonymous to the standard abbreviation for 'date'. "ತಾ."/tA., could be the verb meaning "bring" occurring at the end of the sentence with a period marker or "ತಾ."/tA., could be an abbreviation for "ತಾರೀಖು"/ tArIkhu meaning "date".

III. ALGORITHM DESIGN

Following is an algorithm devised to fragment the text into sentences by solving the ambiguity of period (".") as sentence marker and abbreviation in Kannada. The Algorithm uses two word lists as resource, viz. valid sentence ending word list (L1) and an ambiguous word list (L2) extracted from the corpus. This algorithm will disambiguate a period ending token as sentence ending word or abbreviation based on the token length. L1- has words having length below a threshold. L2- will have words with a length below a threshold and homonymous to an abbreviation of that language. Both L1 and L2 are extracted from corpus, and they make a small set of words. It should be noted that in this paper, the length of words refers to the length of Unicode characters and not the count of *aksharas*

ALGORITHM TO IDENTIFY PERIOD AS SENTENCE BOUNDARY

1. Preprocess the text in order to remove any space between a period (".") and its previous word.
2. Segment the text into sentences
 1. Preprocess the text in order to remove any space between a period (".") and its previous word.
 - 1.1 Open Text file
 - 1.2 Replace all "<space>." with "."
 2. Segment the text into Sentences
 - 2.1 find the position of the Next Sentence Marker in the text
 - 2.1.1 **WHILE** starting position is less then Text length
 - 2.1.2 **If** the Next Immediate sentence Marker is "?" or "!" or New Line **then** Segment the text from Starting position to Sentence Marker
 - 2.1.3 **If** the Next Immediate sentence Marker is a period and not a Number before dot **then**
 - 2.1.3.1 Get the length of text between last space of text to period (Get the length of last word)
 - 2.1.3.2 **If** the Last word Length is below 5 (Threshold) **then** Check the word with L1
 - 2.1.3.2.1 **If** the Last word is in L1 **then** check the word with L2
 - 2.1.3.2.1.1 **If** the Last word is not in L2 **then** Segment the text from Starting position to Sentence Marker.
 - 2.1.3.2.1.2 **If** the Last word length is Equal or above threshold **then** check for the other possible dots in the Last word
 - 2.1.3.2.1.2.1 **If** there is no other possible dots in word **then** Segment the text from Starting position to Sentence Marker.
 - 2.1.3.2.1.2.2 **If** there are other possible dots in word **then** check the Distance between the end dot and the dot end-but-one.
 - 2.1.3.2.1.2.2.1 **If** Distance between the end dot and the dot end-but-one is above 5 (Threshold) **then** Segment the text from Starting position to Sentence Marker
 - 2.1.4 **If** the Next Immediate sentence Marker is a period and a Number before dot **then** Segment the text from Starting position to Sentence Marker.
 - 2.1.5 **End while**
3. End

IV. EVALUATION

In order to test the efficiency of the algorithm, a corpus of 7330 sentences (approx. 69000 words) was taken. Sentence Identification errors manually corrected and checked revealed that without using the algorithm and by a plain pattern matching of delimiters, a baseline accuracy of 91.33% was obtained. However, the accuracy increased to 99.14% after implementing the algorithm on the same corpus.

Out of the 7330 sentences in the corpus, the blind pattern matching without the algorithm showed errors in 636 sentences whereas after implementing the algorithm only 63 sentences were wrongly recognized. An increase of 7.81% from the baseline was noted after implementing the algorithm. The main errors occurred due to unclear corpus. Also, only a few Abbreviations which were above the threshold caused the over segmentation of certain sentences. The corpus used for the testing purpose was mainly from two domains – newspaper and literature.

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper we have described an algorithm for sentence boundary determination for Kannada. This methodology will hopefully be useful to resolve the problems of ambiguity of Period “.” in case of text alignment tools, machine translation tools, KWIC KWOC Retrievers.

This method can be employed also for other languages. Since the check list used in the algorithm is open, it facilitates users to add more words to the list. However, depending on the language the length of the check lists may vary, as also the threshold.

Good performance has been obtained using this algorithm and it considerably increases the performance from the baseline.

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CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS: Politics and Verbal coding

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Abstract— Political discourse comprises all forms of communication in and by political institutions or actors and all communication with reference to political matters. Political public relations, both internal and external, news, commentary, film, talk shows, citizens' everyday talk about politics etc. are all sites of political discourse. A broad field of theoretical approaches originates in French philosophy and sociology that centre around social and political functions of discursive practices (termed Discourse Analysis). The present paper tries to discuss the close affinity shown between language and politics to work out the discursive practices apparent in public political discourses. The features of such writing/speech are taken from various political domains.

Keywords— Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), Discourse practice, Public language, representation

I. INTRODUCTION

The objective of the paper is to illustrate how the critical discourse analysis plays a crucial role in unlocking the myths that linger in the sphere of politics and how politicians make use of their language to ensnare people for their Political discourse comprises all forms of communication in and by political institutions or actors and all communication with reference to political matters. Political public relations, both internal and external, news, commentary, film, talk shows, citizens' everyday talk about politics etc. are all sites of political discourse. The shift from 'Fordist' economy to 'flexible accumulation' (both technological innovation in the diversification of production and flexibility of labour), transnational movement of production units, opening up of new experiences owing to information technology and media,

cultural transformation due to circulating signs liberated from fixed boundaries as represented in postmodernist theory, are in total a phase of late modernity. This phenomena encapsulates good, bad and the ugly i.e. this creates new possibilities and opportunities for many at the same time this can also cause considerable disruption and suffering. But the entire experience is communicated to be perceived as something inevitable. The relevance of CDA (Critical Discourse Analysis) is that it can expose the transformations in language and discourse favouring such trends. It can enlighten how the discourse shapes and reshapes the given reality. CDA has set out a dialectical view of the relationship between discourse and other facets of the social world.

II. A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Critical Discourse Analysis or CDA is an approach to discourse analysis in which two senses of the term discourse—the linguistic sense and the critical theorist's sense—are equally relevant. The 'critical' in CDA refers to a way of understanding the social world drawn from critical theory. Within that paradigm reality is understood as *constructed*, shaped by various social forces. These, however are frequently naturalized- in every day discourse, as opposed to critical discussions of it, reality is presented not as the outcome of social practices that might be questioned or challenged, but as simply "the way things are". Naturalization obscures the fact that 'the way things are' is not inevitable or unchangeable. It both results from particular actions and

serves particular interests. According to van Dijk, CDA “is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context. With such dissident research, critical discourse analysts take explicit position, and thus want to understand, expose, and ultimately to resist social inequality”[1]. The central claim of CDA is that the way certain realities get talked or written about- that is, the choices speakers and writers make in doing it-are not just random but ideologically patterned. Norman Fairclough uses discourse analysis techniques to provide a political critique of the social context- from a Marxist viewpoint. He defines what he calls critical language study thus: “Critical is used in the special sense of aiming to show up connections which may be hidden from people- such as the connections between language, power and ideology...critical language study analyses social interactions in a way which focuses upon their linguistic elements and which sets out to show up their generally hidden determinants in the system of social relationships, as well as hidden effects they may have upon that system” [2]. He is candid about his own starting point and about his own political purpose: “I write as a socialist with a genuinely low opinion of the social relationships in my society and a commitment to the emancipation of the people who are oppressed by them. This does not, I hope, mean that I am writing political propaganda. The scientific investigation of social matters is perfectly compatible with committed and ‘opinionated’ investigators (there are no others!) and being committed does not excuse you from arguing rationally or producing evidence for your statements.” (Ibid: 5) One sees “discourse” as an abstract noun denoting language in use as a social practice with particular emphasis on larger units such as paragraphs, utterances, whole texts or genres. The other identifiable meaning is “Discourse” as a countable noun denoting ‘a practice not just of representing the world, but of signifying the world, constituting and constructing the world in meaning’[3]. For some, discourse analysis is a very narrow

enterprise that concentrates on a single utterance, or at most a conversation between two people. Others see discourse as synonymous with the entire social system, in which discourses literally constitute the social and political world. As the concept of discourse has been employed in the social sciences, it has acquired greater technical and theoretical sophistication, while accruing additional meanings and connotations. Positivists and empiricists argue that discourses are best viewed as ‘frames’ or ‘cognitive schemata’ by which they mean ‘the conscious strategic efforts by groups of people to fashion shared understandings of the world and of themselves that legitimate and motivate collective action’[4]. By contrast, realist accounts of discourse place much greater emphasis on what they call the ontological dimensions of discourse theory and analysis. Discourses are regarded as particular objects with their own properties and powers, in which case it is necessary for realists ‘to focus on language as a structured system in its own right’, and the task of discourse analysis is to unravel ‘the conceptual elisions and confusions by which language enjoys its power’ [5]. Marxists stress the way in which discourses have to be explained by reference to the contradictory processes of economic production and reproduction. In this perspective, discourses are normally viewed as ideological systems of meaning that obfuscate and naturalize uneven distributions of power and resources. This means that discourse analysis has the critical task of exposing the mechanisms by which this deception operates and of proposing emancipatory alternatives (Althusser 1971; Pêcheux 1982). Giddens’s (1984) theory of society differs from positivist, realist and Marxist accounts in that he stresses the centrality of human meaning and understanding in explaining the social world. His explicitly ‘hermeneutically informed social theory’ thus places greater emphasis on the actions and reflexivity of human agents in reproducing and changing social relationships. Fairclough takes up this theme of ‘the duality of social structure and human agency’ by insisting that there is a mutually constituting relationship between discourses and the social systems in which they

function. The task of discourse analysis is thus to examine this dialectical relationship and to expose the way in which language and meaning are used by the powerful to deceive and oppress the dominated. Finally, post-structuralists and post-Marxists such as Jacques Derrida, Michel Foucault, Ernesto Laclau and Chantal Mouffe put forward much more comprehensive concepts of discourse. They go further than the hermeneutical emphasis on social meaning by regarding social structures as inherently ambiguous, incomplete and contingent systems of meaning. Derrida (1982) argues for a conception of discourse as text or writing, in which all human and social experience is structured according to the logic of *différance*; while Foucault (1981, 1991) intends to show the connection between 'discursive practices' and wider sets of 'non-discursive' activities and institution. Laclau and Mouffe (1985, 1987) deconstruct the Marxist theory of ideology and draw upon post-structuralist philosophy to develop a concept of discourse that includes all practices and meanings shaping a community of social actors. In these perspectives, discourses constitute symbolic systems and social orders, and the task of discourse analysis is to examine their historical and political construction and functioning.

Some of Foucault's ideas have been very influential on the different approaches to critical discourse analysis. The central task for Michel Foucault was to write a history of expounding problems as a critique and destruction of western thinking, which had always focused on what it means to be human being instead of how it is to be a human being. Although human beings are acting in their lives, they are not the subject of these actions, but products of discursive practices. Objects are not social facts, but how subjects bring things to presence through language (objectification). Therefore a relation between power and language can be stated and subjects must be seen as social constructions, produced through social discourses which position them in a field of power relations. While critical thinking focuses on our ability to gain access to language (through knowledge), Foucault focuses on how technologies of calculation produce calculable and

empowered subjects because of their inscription into force by technology. Therefore his attack of the central importance of the subject can be seen as his major interest. Foucault defines discourses as knowledge systems that inform social and governmental technologies. These technologies constitute power in society. Power does not come from outside, but is in us, the dead subjects, who are ruled by our own creations and constructions: the technologies and techniques of power in social institutions. Thus Michel Foucault opposes the concept of ideology because it is implicated in unacceptable universal truth claims and rests on a humanist understanding of the individual subjects [6]. Foucault saw power in contrast to Marxist theorists to whom power was an instrument of class dominance originated from economic interests, as something incorporated in numerous practices and technologies and not attached to certain agents or interests. In Foucault's concept of power the word "how" is the basic key word of analysis. Discourses are expressions of power relations and refer to all that can be thought, written or said about a particular topic or thing. They draw on historically prior texts and are generated by combination of and with other discourse and texts (interdiscursivity and intertextuality). Discourse analysis is concerned with the rules (practices, technologies), which make others not at particular times, places and institutional locations. Certain rules of formations of objects, subjects, concepts and strategies are constituted in a given discursive formation and can be seen as the basic rules of discursive order. Objects and subjects of discourses are organized in relation to particular concepts, which involve social and political experiences about the modalities relating subjects and objects to each other. These modalities of relating objects, subjects and concepts, Foucault label strategies. With strategies he does not mean particular intentions of goals of the subjects, but topical choices, which interrelate subjects, objects and concepts in discourses to each other and across different discourses. The analysis of rules of formations of objects, subjects, concepts and topical choices can be seen as a fundamental approach to discourse analysis. It illuminates

which objects, subjects, concepts or topics are banned from a particular discourse and how the relations between those elements are established in this discourse. The link between practice and speaking lies in his concept of ‘power/knowledge’. In the modern age, a great deal of power and social control is exercised not by brute physical force or even by economic coercion, but by the activities of ‘experts’ who are licensed to define, describe and classify things and people. As Deborah Cameron says, “Words can be powerful: the institutional authority to categorize people is frequently inseparable from the authority to do things to them” [7]

Fairclough and Wodak (1997) analyze an extract from a radio interview with former British Prime Minister, Margaret Thatcher, with reference to ‘eight principles of theory or method’ [8], which are:

1. CDA addresses social problems
2. Power relations are discursive
3. Discourse constitutes society and culture
4. Discourse does ideological work
5. Discourse is historical
6. The link between text and society is mediated
7. Discourse analysis is interpretative and explanatory
8. Discourse is a form of social action.

According to Wodak and Ludwig (1999) viewing language this way entails three things at least. First, discourse “always involves power and ideologies. No interaction exists where power relation do not prevail and where values and norms do not have a relevant role” [9]. Second, “discourse...is always historical, that is, it is connected synchronically and diachronically with other communicative events which are happening at the same time or which have happened before” [ibid]. The third feature of Wodak’s approach is that of interpretation. According to Wodak and Ludwig, “readers and listeners, depending on their background knowledge and information and their position, might have different interpretations of the same communicative event” [ibid]. Therefore, Wodak and Ludwig assert that “THE RIGHT

interpretation does not exist; a hermeneutic approach is necessary. Interpretations can be more or less plausible or adequate, but they cannot be true”[emphasis in original] (ibid). Chouliaraki and Fairclough [10] posit that CDA has a particular contribution to make. According to them, the recent economic and social changes “are to a significant degree...transformations in the language, and discourse”, thus CDA can help by theorizing transformations and creating an awareness “of what is, how it has come to be, and what it might become, on the basis of which people may be able to make and remake their lives”. In this approach of CDA, there are three analytical focuses in analyzing any communicative event (interaction). They are *text* (e.g. a news report), *discourse practice* (e.g. the process of production and consumption) and *sociocultural practice* (e.g. social and cultural structures, which give rise to the communicative event [11].

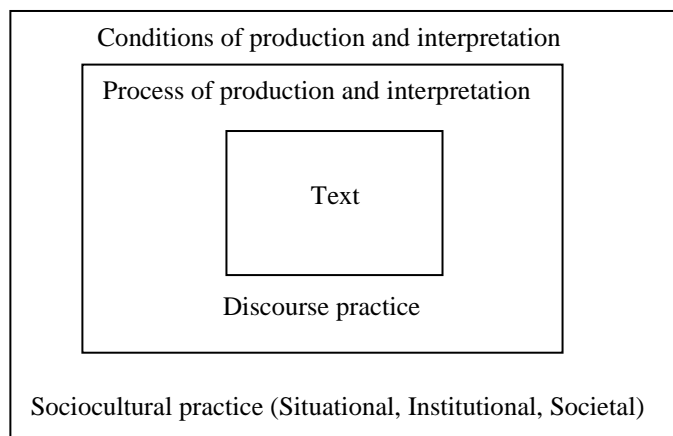


FIG. 1: COMMUNICATIVE EVENT

Fairclough has proposed a framework for analyzing a communicative event. The first analytical focus is on text. Analysis of text involves linguistic analysis in terms of vocabulary, grammar, semantics, the sound system and cohesion- organization above the sentence level. Following SFL, Fairclough also views text from a multifunctional perspective. According to him, any sentence in a text is analyzable in terms of the articulation of these functions,

which he has relabeled- *representations, relations and identities*:

- Particular representations and contextualisations of social practice (ideational function)- perhaps carrying particular ideologies.
- A particular construction of the relationship between writer and reader (as, for instance, formal or informal, close or distant)
- Particular constructions of writer and reader identities (for example, in terms of what is highlighted-whether status and role aspects of identity, or individual and personality aspects of identity) [*ibid*]

Linguists preferred to use the ‘discourse’ to refer to language in use. In studying discourse they focus on written text, on spoken utterance, and on the processes whereby individuals process texts and utterances. On the other hand, social scientists in the 1970 and 80s were influenced by the way the term ‘discourse’ is used in European literary and social criticism by writers such as the French philosopher Michel Foucault. Some linguists, as Fairclough, concerned with the critical analysis of language use in relation to politics have adopted these ideas.

Terry Locke [12] has summed up the ways in which CDA can be understood. According to him CDA:

- views a prevailing social order as historically situated and therefore relative, socially constructed and changeable.
- views a prevailing social order and social processes as constituted and sustained less by the will of individuals than by the pervasiveness of particular constructions or versions of reality-often referred to as discourses.
- views discourse as coloured by and productive of ideology (however ‘ideology’ is conceptualized)
- views power in society not so much as imposed on individual subjects as an inevitable *effect* of a way particular discursive configurations or arrangements

privilege the status and positions of some people over others.

- views human subjectivity as at least in part constructed or inscribed by discourse, and discourse as manifested in the various ways people are and enact the sorts of people they are.
- views reality as textually and intertextually mediated via verbal and non-verbal language systems and texts as sites for both the inculcation and the contestation of discourses.
- views the systematic analysis and interpretation of texts as potentially revelatory of ways in which discourses consolidate power and colonize human subjects through often covert position calls.

III. LANGUAGE AND POLITICS

The present paper tries to discuss the close affinity shown between language and politics to work out the discursive practices apparent in public political discourses. Politics is concerned with power- the power to make decisions, to control resources, to control other people’s behaviour and often to control their values. The acquisition of power, and the enforcement of ones belief systems can be achieved in a number of ways; one obvious method is through physical coercion or by indirect means of coercion through the legal system. However it is often much more effective to persuade people to act voluntarily in the way one wants, i.e., to exercise power through the manufacture of consent or at least acquiescence towards it. To achieve this an ideology needs to be established. One which make the beliefs which one wants people to hold appear to be “common sense”, thus making it difficult for them to question that dominant ideology. It was Louis Althusser who wondered how the vast majority of people had been persuaded to act against their own best interests, since they worked long hours at laborious task and lived in poverty while a very small number of people made enormous amounts of money from their labour and enjoyed lives of luxury. In order to explain why the impoverished

majority didn't just refuse to work in this system and overthrow the rich minority, Althusser reasoned that the poor had been persuaded that this state of affairs was 'natural' and nothing could be done to change it.

In the discussion that follows we consider the language of 'career' politicians who play a significant part in the political scenario of the state. The first comment that is to be made about political discourse is that it is not simply a genre, but a class of genres defined by a social domain, namely that of politics. However it is difficult to create a separation from other domains and in this case the boundaries are fuzzy. To make it simple, as a beginning, political discourse is the discourse of politicians. The range in this study has to be limited to the 'professional' realm of the activities of 'career' politicians. The activity considered must be in the public sphere and the discourse must be produced by the speaker in his / her professional role of a politician and it should be based in an institutional setting. Thus the discourse is political when it accomplishes a political act in a political institution, such as governing, legislation, electoral campaigning and so on.

Because political discourse is a broad category, studies on political language have included investigation into very different sub-genres such as electoral language, party political language, the language of diplomacy and international relations, the language of social conflict, the language of parliament and so on. Language is a means of communication, a means of presenting and shaping argument and political argument is ideological, in that it comes from a series of beliefs. Language is not something somehow separate from the ideas it contains, but the way language is used says a great deal about how the ideas have been shaped. When analyzing the language of a political text, therefore, it is important to look at the way the language reflects the ideological position of those who have created it, and how the ideological position of the readers will affect their response too.

Chilton. P. identifies two approaches viz., descriptive and critical, for dealing with this issue of politics and language. Descriptive approach relies on re-describing rhetorical

devices, the verbal behaviour of politicians and their ideology; whereas critical approaches incorporate social theories dealing with the relationship between language and power, control and dominance and orders of discourse. A detailed discussion on the above will be taken in due course. Chilton. P, while elaborating on the modern descriptive approaches, have recast the traditional rhetorical aspects like persuasive, deceptive and manipulative, in terms of phonological, syntactic, lexical, semantic, pragmatic and textual levels of description. Thus on the phonological level can be placed devices of alliteration, assonance and rhythm; on the syntactic level, the use of agent-less passive; on the lexical level, emphasis will be on 'jargon' words- that is words characteristic of some closed group of speakers, neologisms, acronyms and word formation; on the semantic level the interest is in semantic reconstruction and shifts arising from, for e.g., paraphrasing, and euphemism. On the textual and pragmatic levels, commentators have noted modes of argumentation. The descriptive strand of study tends to take an epistemological position that is close to positivism. It tends to treat the political language phenomena it is submitting to scrutiny as neutral independent facts. Whereas in a critical approach, it assumes a different conception of politics- a conception which emphasizes the importance of power from the point of view of the subject citizen and assumes connections between the macro structures of state institutions and the micro structures of everyday person to person relationships and interactions. Jurgen Habermas and Michel Foucault have been influential in the evolution of this thought. Habermas is associated with Frankfurt School 'Critical theory' and views the analysis of social practices, including linguistic ones as a rational enterprise whose purpose is emancipation. 'Distorted Communication' derives in the Habermasian view, from unequal access to the communication process, which itself is a function of the exercise of power. Linguists preferred to use the 'discourse' to refer to language in use. In studying discourse they focus on written text, on spoken utterance, and on the processes whereby individuals process texts and utterances. On the other

hand, social scientists in the 1970 and 80s were influenced by the way the term 'discourse' is used in European literary and social criticism by writers such as the French philosopher Michel Foucault. Some linguists, as Fairclough (1989), concerned with the critical analysis of language use in relation to politics have adopted these ideas. They emphasize prominently notions like;

1. The relationship between language and power: control and dominance, it is claimed, are exercised increasingly in the modern period by linguistic means.
2. The pervasiveness of power: control and dominance are everyday phenomena found in encounters of many kinds.
3. The relationship between linguistic and non-linguistic practices.
4. Orders of discourse: types of talking and writing play different parts in different institutions of a society.

Van Dijk (Ref 1) has noted that political discourse is not a genre, but a class of genres defined by a social domain, namely that of politics. Thus, government deliberations, parliamentary debates, party programmes and speeches by politicians are among the many genres that belong to the domain of politics. The discourse must be produced by the speaker in her/his professional role of a politician and in an institutional setting. While analyzing their topic and style, topics are usually about events in the public sphere and style incorporates many rhetorical features (metaphors, euphemism, hyperbole etc). It also allows inferences about the cognitive, social and especially political functions of such discourse.

The concept of ideology is crucial in political science and since ideologies are defined in terms of basic beliefs shared by the members of groups, this also means that political discourse is the site where politicians' multiple ideological identities are enacted. Political and ideological discourse analysis is usually based on individual discourses, so it will not be strange at all to find influence of various ideologies. The social identity of politicians will also be defined by such categories as membership devices, activities, aims and goals, norms and

values, relations to other groups and resources or 'capital'. Van Dijk (Ref 1) has roughly defined the ideological self-identity of politicians as professionals.

- a. Identity criterion: Election to political office.
- b. Activities: 'Doing' politics (represent citizens, legislate etc.)
- c. Aim: Govern country, state or city etc.
- d. Norms, values: Democratic values, honesty etc.
- e. Position, relation to other groups: relation with constituents etc.
- f. Resource: Political power.

Thus, if politicians regularly criticize other politicians for 'not listening to the voice of the people', as is often the case in populist political discourse, then we may assume that the basic activities and norms defining the ideology of politicians involve 'listening to the voice of the people'. If there are political ideologies, then they must specifically apply in the domain of politics, and organize political attitudes and political practices. If we focus on politicians, we shall usually have at least two ideologies as expressed in their text and talk: viz., firstly professional ideologies that underlie their functioning as politicians and secondly the socio-political ideologies they adhere to as members of political parties or social groups. Thus ideology, politics and discourse form a triangle that poses interesting theoretical and analytical questions. Defined as socially shared representations of groups, ideologies are the foundations of group attitudes and other beliefs, and thus also control the biased personal mental models that underlie the production of ideological discourse.

The point of ideological discourse analysis is not merely to discover underlying ideologies, but to systematically link structures of discourse with structures of ideologies. If ideologies are acquired, expressed, enacted and reproduced by discourse, this must happen through a number of discursive structures and strategies. In theory and depending on context, any variable structure of discourse may be ideologically 'marked'. It should be stressed that ideologies may only influence the contextually variable structures of discourse.

Obviously the obligatory, grammatical structure cannot be ideologically marked because they are the same for all speakers of the language and in that sense ideologically neutral. However, there may be some debate on whether some general grammatical rules are really ideologically innocent. Some variable structures are more ideologically 'sensitive' than others. Syntactic structures and rhetorical figures such as metaphors, hyperboles or euphemisms are used to emphasize or de-emphasize ideological meanings, but as formal structures they have no ideological meaning. A general tendency among the organization of ideological discourses is the strategy of positive self-presentation (boasting) and negative other-presentation (derogation). There are many discursive ways to enhance or mitigate our / their good / bad things, and hence to mark discourse ideologically.

The concept of "public language" [13] is significant in understanding political discourse. Public language validates established beliefs and strengthens the authority structures of the polity or organization in which it is used. It is therefore the language form supporter of regimes or organizations rely on to demonstrate to others and to themselves that they deserve support to minimize guilt, to evoke feelings in support of the guilt, to evoke feelings in support of the polity, and to engender suspicion of alternatives and of people identified as hostile. It can take many political forms. As Edelman says, "Exhortation to patriotism and to support for the leader and his/her regime" are obvious ones. Less obvious forms, according to him are;

1. Terms classifying people according to the level of their merit, competence, or authority.
 2. Terms that implicitly define an in-group whose interests conflict with those of other groups.
 3. Presentational forms that justify actions and policies.
- [14]

Jason Jones and Jean Peccei [15] have outlined some strategies employed by politicians to influence people's political and ideological views for their own advantage.

- Presupposition (background assumptions embedded within a sentence or phrase)
- Implicature (dependent more on shared knowledge between the speaker and hearer)
- Persuasive language (making use of metaphor, euphemism, three-part-statement, parallelism, pronouns for identification)

Marlene Caroselli [16] studied the language outstanding leaders use when they address their audiences and has identified the following elements.

1. Display a positive attitude toward the communication process.
2. Know how to tell a good story
3. They admit to human failures
4. Display emotion
5. Improve the status quo
6. Use challenging statements to inspire, motivate and direct energy toward the best possible outcomes
7. Use personal stories and anecdotes
8. Are forthright to declare what they stand for
9. Use parallelisms in sentence structure,
10. Use the appropriate style.

Heatherington [17] lists the sorts of language exploitation indulged by politicians.

- a. Good feelings- evocating feelings of patriotism (vote for Us is patriotic, good, while a vote for Them is non-patriotic, treacherous); direct flattering of audience ("the sensible voter"); reference to "the record" (his voting record, wisdom, skill and their benefits for his audience).
- b. Bad feelings- evocating emotions of fear, anger and scorn (against the values mooted by the opposition)
- c. Fog- use of buzz or fad words with a high fog index, that is, abstract, non-referential and often polysemous signs. This technique appears most often when a politician is in trouble and trying to justify his behaviour "to the folks back home"; the fog makes it nearly impossible to assign responsibility to anyone, least of all to the speaker.

Heatherington (*ibid*) also identifies three characteristics that often distinguish propaganda from ordinary persuasion.

1. A consistent choice of loaded language over more value-free language.
2. A heavy use of stock phrases.
3. A flavour of having the answers ready made.

IV. ANALYSIS OF ENCODING TECHNIQUES:
DISCURSIVE STRATEGIES AND PRACTICES

In this context, the word ‘practice’ requires some elaboration. All practices involve configurations of diverse elements of life and therefore diverse mechanisms. A practice can be understood both as a social action, what is done in a particular time and place, and as what has hardened into relative permanency- a practice in the sense of a habitual way of living. Chouliariki and Fairclough (Ref.10) have identified three main characteristics: “First, they are forms of production of social life, not only economic production but also in for instance, the cultural and political domain. Second, each practice is located within a network of relationship to other practices, and these ‘external’ relationships determine its ‘internal’ constitution. Third, practices always have a reflexive dimension: people always generate representations of what they do as part of what they do”. Here one has to consider the factor of power in the sense of domination at the level of particular practice, where, as Giddens (1984) and Bourdieu (1991) have pointed out, subjects are positioned in relation to others such that some are able to incorporate the agency of others into their own actions and so reduce the autonomous agentic capacity of the latter. Gramsci’s concept of hegemony is helpful in analyzing relations of power as domination. Hegemony is relations of domination based upon consent rather than force (coercion), involving the naturalization of practices and their social relations as well as relations between practices. Ideologies are constructions of practices from particular perspectives which help to level out the inner contradictions and antagonisms of practices in ways which accord with the interest and projects of domination. A

discourse is way of signifying a particular domain of social practice from a particular perspective. One can say that the discourse of one practice colonises that of another, or that the latter appropriates the former, depending on how power relations are expressed as relations between practices and discourses. So ideologies are domination-related constructions of a practice which are determined by specifically discursive relations between that practice and other practices. The figure given in Wodak and Meyer [18] gives the ‘Fields of action’ in the political area. This comprises of legislation, self-presentation, the manufacturing of public opinion, developing internal party consent, ad campaign, vote getting, governance and execution, control and expression of dissent.

Law making	Formation of public
political procedure	opinion and self presentation
laws	press releases
bills	conferences
amendments	interviews
speeches &	talk shows
contributions of MPs	lectures and
regulations	articles, books
recommendations	commemorative speeches
prescriptions	inaugural addresses
guidelines	etc
etc	

Fig: 2 Selected dimensions of discourse as social practice

FIELDS OF ACTION	
Party-internal development of an informed opinion	Political advertising, marketing and propaganda
party programmes, declarations, statements	election
speeches of principles	slogans
speeches on party	speeches in campaigns
conventions	announcements
etc	posters
	election brochure
	direct mailing
	fliers
	etc

Fig: 3 Selected dimensions of discourse as social practice

	FIELD OF CONTROL
Political executive and administration	Political executive and administration
decisions	decisions
inaugural speeches	inaugural speeches
coalition papers	coalition papers
speeches of ministers	speeches of ministers
heads	heads
governmental answers	governmental answers
p. q.	p. q.

Fig. 4 Selected dimensions of discourse as social practice

There are several discursive elements and strategies which deserve to receive special attention. They include questions such as (Ref.18);

1. How are persons named and referred to linguistically?
2. What traits, characteristics, qualities and features are attributed to them?
3. By means of what arguments and argumentation schemes do specific persons or social groups try to justify and legitimize the exclusion, discrimination, suppression and exploitation of others?
4. From what perspective or point of view are these labels, attributions and arguments expressed?
5. Are the respective utterances articulated overtly? Are they intensified or are they mitigated?

These help in identifying the positive *self* representation and negative *other* representation.

V. CONCLUSION

CDA is mainly interested in the role of discourse in the instantiation and reproduction of power and power abuse, and hence particularly interested in the detailed study of the interface between structures of discourse and the structures of power. Issues of politics and society are thus not merely

abstract systems of social inequality and dominance, but they actually ‘come’ down in the forms of everyday life, namely through the beliefs, actions and discourses of group members. CDA is specifically interested in the discursive dimensions of these abuses, and therefore must spell out the detailed conditions of the discursive violations of human rights, when newspapers publish biased accounts about the marginalized, when managers engage in or tolerate sexism in the company or organization, or when legislators enact neo-liberal policies that make the rich richer and the poor poorer.

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A First Step Towards Parsing of Assamese Text

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Abstract—Assamese is a relatively free word order, morphologically rich and agglutinative language and has a strong case marking system stronger than other Indic languages such as Hindi and Bengali. Parsing a free word order language is still an open problem, though many different approaches have been proposed for this. This paper presents an introduction to the practical analysis of Assamese sentences from a computational perspective rather than from linguistics perspective. We discuss some salient features of Assamese syntax and the issues that simple syntactic frameworks cannot tackle.

Keywords-Assamese, Indic, Parsing, Free word order.

I. INTRODUCTION

Like some other Indo-Iranian languages (a branch of Indo-European language group) such as Hindi, Bengali (from Indic group), Tamil (from Dardic group), Assamese is a morphologically rich, free word order language. Apart from possessing all characteristics of a free word order language, Assamese has some additional characteristics which make parsing a more difficult job. For example one or more than one suffixes are added with all relational constituents. Research on parsing model for Assamese language is purely a new field. Our literature survey reveals that there is no annotated work on Assamese till now.

In the next section we will present a brief overview of different parsing techniques. In section III we discuss related works. Section IV contains a brief relevant linguistic background of Assamese language. In section V we discuss our approach we want to report in this paper. Section VI conclude this paper.

II. OVERVIEW OF PARSING

The study of natural language grammar dates back at least to 400 BC, when Panini described Sanskrit grammar, but the formal computational study of grammar can be said to start in the 1950s with work on context free grammar(CFG). Parsing is a problem in many natural languages processing tasks such as machine translation, information extraction, question answering etc. It is the process of automatically building syntactic analysis of a sentence in terms of a given grammar and lexicon; and syntax is the name given to the study of the form, positioning, and grouping of the

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elements that go to make up sentences. The result may be used as input to a process of semantic interpretation. The output of parsing is something logically equivalent to a tree, displaying dominance and precedence relation between constituents of a sentence. Now-a-days there are several dimensions to characterize the behaviour of parsing technique, for example- depending on search strategy (such as Top-down, bottom-up parsing), statistical model used (such as Maximum Entropy model), Grammar formalism used (such as Paninian framework) etc. Among them most successful linguistically motivated formalisms are- Combinatory Categorial Grammar (CCG), Dependency Grammar(DG)[1], Lexical Functional Grammar (LFG) [2], Tree-Adjoining Grammar (TAG) [3], Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar (HPSG) [4], Paninian Grammar (PG) [5] and Maximum Entropy model (EM) [6].

III. EXISTING WORK

Reference [7], reported (Table I) word order variability that some language allow.

TABLE I
WORD ORDER VARIATION TABLE.

Almost no variation	English, Chinese, French
Some variation	Japanese, German, Finnish
Extensive variation	Russian, Korean, Latin
Maximum variation	Warlpiri

Our literature survey reveals that a majority of the parsing techniques are developed solely for the English language and might not work for other languages. Much work has been done in different languages in different aspect of parsing, but most of these approaches can not be applied to Indian language context. The main reason is most of the Indian languages are highly inflectional, relatively free word order and agglutinative. Unlike fixed word order language such as English, in morphologically rich free word order languages the preferable linguistics rule set is too large, which may not be handled using the approaches like PSG, LFG[2] etc. Among the reported formalisms, only CCG, PG and DG have literal evidence to apply on free word order languages.

An approach for Indian language parsing is Paninian framework which was developed in IIT, Kanpur. First it was designed only for free word order languages basically Hindi, afterward it was extended to other free word order language

such as Bangla, Tamil etc., but no attempt was made to build a parser for Assamese.

Among the more recent works [8], [9], [10] has focus on dependency parsing. Dependency grammar is an asymmetrical relation between a head and a dependent. Dependency grammar is a set of rules that describes the dependencies. Every word (dependent) depends on another word (head), except one word which is the root of the sentence. Thus a dependency structure is a collection of dependencies for a sentence and dependency parsing depends critically on predicting head-modifier relationship.

A classifier based dependency parser was proposed by Sagae and Lavie [11], that produces a constituent tree in linear time. The parser uses a basic bottom-up shift-reduce stack based parsing algorithm like Nivre and Scholz[12] but employs a classifier to determine parser actions instead of a grammar. Like other deterministic parsers (unlike other statistical parser), this parser considers the problem of syntactic analysis separately from part-of-speech (POS) tagging. Because the parser greedily builds trees bottom-up in a single pass, considering only one path at any point in the analysis, the task of assigning POS tags to word is done before other syntactic analysis. This classifier based dependency parser shares similarities with the dependency parser of Yamada and Matsumoto [13] that it uses a classifier to guide the parsing process in deterministic fashion, while Yamada and Matsumoto uses a quadratic run time algorithm with multiple passes over the input string.

A language-wise survey (Table II) shows that Nivre’s parser was implemented in a variety of languages, like relatively free word order language (Turkish), inflectionally rich language (Hindi), fixed word order language (English), and relatively case-less and less inflectional language (Swedish), whereas Paninian grammar framework was implemented only for Indian language context and CCG approach was implemented for Dutch, Turkish and English Language. Other mostly implemented parsers are Collin’s and Mc-Donald’s parser.

TABLE II
LANGUAGE-WISE SURVEY OF IMPLEMENTED PARSER.

Nivre’s Parser	English[12] Czech[14] Swedish[15] Chinese[16] Bulgarian[17] Turkish[18] Hindi[8]
Collin’s Parser	English[19] Czech[20] Spanish[21] Chinese[22] German[23]
Mc Donald’s Parser	English[24] Czech[24] Danish[25]
CCG Framework	English[26] Dutch[27] Turkish[28]

IV. ASSAMESE AS A FREE WORD ORDER LANGUAGE

For most languages that have a major class of nouns, it is possible to define a basic word order in terms of subject(S) verb(V) and object(O). There are six theoretically possible basic word orders: SVO, SOV, VSO, VOS, OVS, and OSV. Of these six, however, only the first three normally occur as dominant orders. If constituents of a sentence can occur in any order without affecting the gross meaning of the sentences (the emphasis may be affected) then that type of language is known as free word order language. Warlpiri, Russian, Tamil are the example of free word order language.

Typical Assamese sentences can be divided into two parts: Subject(S) and Predicate(P). Predicate may again be divided into following constituents- object(O), verb(V), extension(Ext) and connectives(Cv). A minimum sentence may consist of any one of S, O, V, Ex or even in a connected discourse. Table III shows some single constituent sentences of Assamese. Table IV shows, some two-constituent sentences that may also occur in any order.

TABLE III
SINGLE CONSTITUENT SENTENCES. (TF: TRANSLITERATED ASSAMESE FORM, ET: APPROXIMATE ENGLISH TRANSLATION)

N —	নমস্কাৰ ।	TF: <i>namoskaAr.</i>	
PN—	মই ।	TF: <i>mai</i>	ET: I.
V —	আহা ।	TF: <i>aha</i>	ET: come.
PP—	আৰু ।	TF: <i>aAru</i>	ET: and.

TABLE IV
TWO CONSTITUENT SENTENCES.

PN+V	মই আহিছো । TF: <i>mai aHiso</i> EF: I have come.	V+PN	আহিছো মই । TF: <i>aHiso mai</i>
N+V	কিতাপখন পঢ়িলো । TF: <i>kitApkhan parhilo</i> EF: (I) have read the book.	V+N	পঢ়িলো কিতাপখন । TF: <i>parhilo kitApkhan</i>
Adj+V	ভাল গাইছে । TF: <i>vAl gAIce</i> EF: Sang well.	V+Adj	গাইছে ভাল । TF: <i>gAIce vAl</i>
PP+V	যদি আহা ! TF: <i>yadi aAhA</i> EF: If (you) come?	V+PP	আহা যদি ! TF: <i>aAhA yadi</i>
PP+PN	তেনেহলে সি ! TF: <i>tenehle si</i> EF: Or else he!	PN+PP	সি তেনেহলে ! TF: <i>si tenehale</i>

Assamese has a number of morpho-syntactic characteristics which makes it different from other Indic language such as Hindi. Our study reveals that - word order at the clause level is free, and in some cases intra clause level ordering is also free that is elements which can be thought as a single semantics unit, can be reorder within the clause. The most favourite word order of Assamese is SOV. For example-

- 1) মই ভাত খালোঁ । (SOV)
TF: *mai bhAt khAlo.*

EF: I ate rice.

Now we can arrange these 3 constituents in 3! Ways.

Thus we get 6 possible combinations.

- ভাত মই খালোঁ। (OSV) *bhAt mai khAlo.*
- ভাত খালোঁ মই। (OVS) *bhAt khAlo mai.*
- মই খালোঁ ভাত। (SVO) *mai khAlo bhAt.*
- খালোঁ ভাত মই। (VOS) *khAlo bhAt mai.*
- খালোঁ মই ভাত। (VSO) *khAlo mai bhAt.*

It is not necessary that all sentences have subject verb and object. For example in the following sentence verb is absent.

- 2) মই তেজপুৰ বিশ্ববিদ্যালয়ৰ ছাত্ৰ। (PN-N-N)

TF: *mal Tezpur-Viswavidyalayor chAtra.*

ET: I am student of Tezpur University

In this case the verb হয় (equivalent to “ is ” in English) is absent and is a meaningful sentence. Though there are 4 words, তেজপুৰ বিশ্ববিদ্যালয় (ৰ) is a single constituent, a name of an university so number of constituent will be 3 and hence total of 3! grammatically correct combinations are possible. Let us consider another sentence-

- 3) মানুহজনে কুকুৰটো ৰাস্তাত দেখিছে।

TF: *mAnuhjane kukurTo rAstAt dekhise.*

ET: The man has seen the dog on the road.

NP—মানুহজনে (the man) (Man + Qnt: Single + Gender: Male + Vibhakti)

NP—কুকুৰটো (the dog) (dog + Qnt:Single + Gender: Neuter)

NP—ৰাস্তাত (on road) (road + Vibhakti)

VP—দেখিছে (saw) (see + past ind.)

Interesting property of such type of sentence is that we can simply exchange the position of noun phrase (NP) without changing the emphasis.

- কুকুৰটো মানুহজনে ৰাস্তাত দেখিছে।
TF: *kukurTo mAnuhjane rAstAt dekhise*
- ৰাস্তাত মানুহজনে কুকুৰটো দেখিছে।
TF: *rAstAt mAnuhjane kukurTo dekhise*

If we put a numeral classifier এটা before NP কুকুৰ then total number of constituent will be increased to 5, and the sentence will be-

- 4) মানুহজনে এটা কুকুৰ ৰাস্তাত দেখিছে।

TF: *mAnuhjane etA kukur rastat dekhise.*

EF: The man saw a dog on road.

In this case we will not get 5! numbers of grammatically correct combination. Because the count noun এটা(*etA*) modifies only কুকুৰ(*kukur*), not the others. Therefore during reordering of a sentence এটা কুকুৰ(*etA kukur*) is considered as a single constituent. Sometime within the constituent reordering of words are also possible. For example- এটা কুকুৰ(*etA kukur*) can be written as কুকুৰ এটা(*kukur etA*) without changing he meaning of the phrase. But from the sentence it will not be clear whether “The man saw a dog on road” or “The man saw dog on a road”.

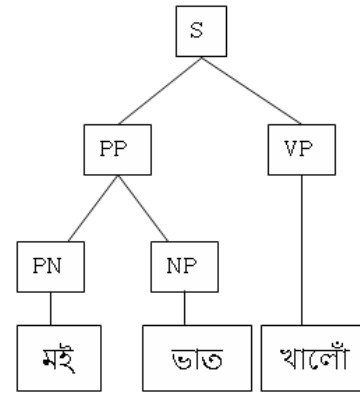


Fig. 1. Parse tree for sentence 1

- a) মানুহজনে কুকুৰ এটা ৰাস্তাত দেখিছে।

TF: *mAnuhjane kukur etA rAstAt dekhise.*

- 5) আম মিঠা ফল।(N-ADJ-N)

TF: *aAm mithA phal.*

EF: Mango is fruit.

Here in this simple 3 constituent sentence if we try to exchange the position of noun(like example sentence 4) then we will get structurally correct but semantically wrong sentence.

- a) ফল মিঠা আম.

TF: *phal mitha aAm*

Another important rule in this context is that the extension (Ext.) or the clauses as Ext. are always preceded by or followed by the constituent qualified. That is if element A is extension of B then B must be followed by A (in other words A does not occur after B). Consider the following example-

- 6) প্রধান শিক্ষকে আমাক সুন্দৰকৈ নতুন ব্যাকৰণ শিকাইছে।

TF: *pradhAn sikhyake aAmak sundarkoi natun vyAkaran sikAIse*

EF: Head sir teaches us new grammar nicely.

প্রধান_Adj শিক্ষকে_N আমাক_PN সুন্দৰকৈ_Adv নতুন_Adj ব্যাকৰণ_N শিকাইছে_V

V. PARSING ASSAMESE SENTENCES

As an initial exercise in parsing Assamese sentences, we present an approach for parsing simple sentences. We define a CFG grammar through which we can parse simple sentences like sentence (1) or any types of simple sentence where object is prior to verb. The parse tree of sentence (1) using the defined CFG grammar is shown in figure 1. In case of sentences 1(d) and 1(e) it generates a cross parse tree (Figure 2).

But unfortunately it can also generate a parse tree for sentence 5(a), which is semantically wrong. From sentence number 4 and 5 we can draw a conclusion that if the noun is attached with any type suffix, then it is easy for the defined CFG grammar to generate syntactically and semantically correct parse tree.

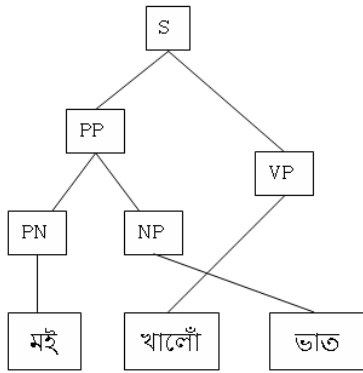


Fig. 2. Parse tree for sentence 1(d)

In Assamese two basic types of groupings of words are possible in a sentence. One is grouping adverb with verb and other is grouping adjective with noun. In general adverb or adjective occurs before the verb or noun respectively. Since Assamese is a relatively free word order language so these modifiers may occur anywhere in the sentence prior to verb or noun. It means that some constituent may occur in between adverb and verb or adjective and noun. In example sentence number 6, three types of grouping are possible- one verb group and two noun groups. Adjectives are adjacent to nouns but adverb occur prior to verb with a noun group in between. So after grouping we will get total 4 groups (Figure 3).

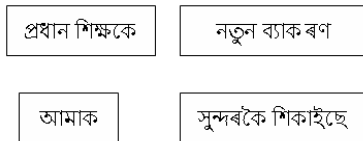


Fig. 3. Grouping of words of sentence 6

So we will get 4! grammatically correct sentences. But interestingly the main sentence from which the groups are formed is not included in this 4! combination. That is reordering the adverb again we can get another 6 new combinations. Though we mentioned above that adverb always occurs prior to verb, it is not always true. For example we can change the position of adverb and verb within the group. That is 'সুন্দৰকৈ শিকাইছে' can be reordered as 'শিকাইছে সুন্দৰকৈ'. We can exchange the position of main object and subordinate object also. The constituent 'প্রধান শিক্ষক' can be changed to 'শিক্ষক প্রধান'. But here symbol of *Prathama Vibhakti* (Nominative case marker) এ is removed from S শিক্ষকে, and to be added to the Ext. of S. That is the new group will become শিক্ষক প্রধান.

From figure 3 we can draw a complete graph considering each group as a vertex or node (Figure 4). A complete graph is a graph with all nodes are connected to each other. Now applying Chu-Liu-Edmond's maximum spanning tree algorithm we will obtain the parse tree for sentences which can not be obtained using our CFG grammar.

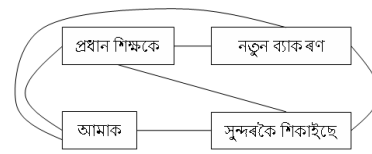


Fig. 4. Complete word graph

VI. CONCLUSION

Here we present the first step toward parsing of Assamese language. Our work is significant since Assamese has not received much attention of computational linguistic investigation. Using our approach we can handle simple sentences with multiple noun, adjective and adverb clauses. Handling of conjunction has been tackled to a limited extent. It needs to be improved for complex sentences with different form. Also, there are other issues that we did not address in this paper.

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Named Entity Recognition: A Survey for the Indian Languages

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Abstract—Named Entity Recognition(NER) is the process of identifying and classifying all proper noun into pre-defined classes such as persons, locations, organization and others. Work on NER in Indian languages is a difficult and challenging task and also limited due to scarcity of resources, but it has started to appear recently. In this paper we present a brief overview of NER and its issues in the Indian languages. We also describe the different approaches used in NER and also the work in NER in different Indian languages like Bengali, Telugu, Hindi, Oriya and Urdu along with the methodologies used. Lastly we presented the results obtained for the different Indian languages in terms of F-measure.

I. INTRODUCTION

Natural Language Processing (NLP) is the computerized approach for analyzing text that is based on both a set of theories and a set of technologies. Named Entity Recognition (NER) is an important task in almost all NLP areas such as Machine Translation (MT), Question Answering (QA), Automatic Summarization (AS), Information Retrieval(IR), Information Extraction(IE), etc.

NER can be defined as a two stage problem - Identification of the proper noun and the classification of these proper noun into a set of classes such as person names, location names (cities, countries etc), organization names (companies, government organizations, committees, etc.), miscellaneous names (date, time, number, percentage, monetary expressions, number expressions and measurement expressions). Thus NER can be said as the process of identifying and classifying the tokens into the above predefined classes.

II. BASIC PROBLEMS IN NAMED ENTITY RECOGNITION

The basic problems of NER are-

- 1) Common noun Vs proper noun- Common noun sometimes occurs as a person name such as “Suraj” which means sun, thus creating ambiguities between common noun and proper noun.
- 2) Organization Vs person name- “Amulya” as a person name as well as an organization, that creates ambiguity between proper noun and group indicative noun.
- 3) Organization Vs place name- “Tezpur” which act both as an organization and place name.

- 4) Person name Vs place name- When is the word “Kashi” being used as a person name and when as the name of a place.

Two broadly used approaches in NER are:

- 1) Rule-based NER
- 2) Statistics-based NER

Statistical methods such as Hidden Markov Model (HMM) [1], Conditional Random Field (CRF) [2], Support Vector Machine (SVM) [3], Maximum Entropy (ME) [4], Decision Tree (DT) [5] are the most widely used approaches. Besides the above two approaches, NER also make use of the Hybrid model which combines the strongest point from both the Rule based and statistical methods. This method is particularly used when data is less and complex Named Entities (NE) classes are used. Sirhari et.al [6] introduce a Hybrid system by combination of HMM, ME and handcrafted grammatical rules to build an NER system.

III. PROBLEM FACED IN INDIAN LANGUAGES(ILS)

While significant work has been done in English NER, with a good level of accuracy, work in IL has started to appear only very recently. Some issues faced in Indian languages-

- 1) There is no concept of capitalization of leading characters of names in Indian Languages unlike English and other European languages which plays an important role in identifying NE’s.
- 2) Indian languages are relatively free-order languages.
- 3) Unavailability of resources such as Parts of speech (POS) tagger, good morphological analyzer, etc for ILS. Name lists are found available in web which are in English but no such lists for Indian Languages can be seen.
- 4) Some of the Indian languages like Assamese, Telugu are agglutinative in nature.
- 5) Indian languages are highly inflectional and morphologically rich in nature.

IV. METHODOLOGIES/APPROACHES

NER system can either be Rule-based or Statistics based. Machine Learning techniques(MLT)/Statistics based methods described below are successfully used for NER .

A. Hidden Markov Model (HMM):

HMM is a statistical model in which the system being modeled is assumed to be a Markov process with unobserved state. In this approach the state is not directly visible, but output depends on the state and is visible. Instead of single independent decisions, the model considers a sequence of decisions. Following are the assumptions of HMM-

- Each state depends on its immediate predecessor.
- Each observation value depends on the current state.
- Need to enumerate all observations.

The equation for HMM is given as-

$$P(X) = \sum \prod_{i=0}^n P(y_i(y_{i-1})p(x_i|y_i))$$

where,

$$X = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

$$Y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$$

B. Conditional Random Field (CRF):

CRF are undirected graphical models a special case of which corresponds to conditionally trained finite state machines. They can incorporate a large number of arbitrary, non independent features and is used to calculate the conditional probability of values on designated output nodes given values on other designated input nodes. The conditional probability of a state sequence $S = (s_1, s_2, \dots, s_T)$ given an observation sequence $O = (o_1, o_2, o_3, \dots, o_t)$ is calculated as

$$P(s|o) = \frac{1}{Z_o} \exp\left(\sum_{t=1}^T \sum_k \lambda_k f_k(S_{t-1}, S_t, o, t)\right)$$

Where Z_o is a normalization factor overall state sequence.

$$Z_o = \sum \exp\left(\sum_{t=1}^T \sum_k \lambda_k f_k(S_{t-1}, S_t, o, t)\right)$$

and $f_k(S_{t-1}, S_t, o, t)$ is a feature function whose weight λ_k is to be learned via training.

C. Support Vector Machine(SVM):

SVM first introduced by Vapnik are relatively new machine learning approaches for solving two-class pattern recognition problem. In the field of NLP, SVM is applied to text categorization and are reported to have high accuracy. It is a supervised machine learning algorithm for binary classification.

D. Maximum Entropy (ME):

The Maximum Entropy framework estimates probabilities based on the principle of making as few assumptions as possible other than the constraints imposed. Such constraints are derived from training data, expressing some relationship between features and outcomes. The probability distribution that satisfies the above property is the one with the highest entropy and has the exponential form

$$P(o|h) = \frac{1}{z(h)} \prod_{j=1}^k \alpha_j f_j(h, o)$$

where o refers to the outcome, h the history(or context) and $z(h)$ is a normalization function. In addition each feature function $f_j(h, o)$ is a binary function. The parameter α_j are estimated by a procedure called Generalized Iterative Scaling(GIS) [7]. This is an iterative method that improves the estimation of the parameter at each iteration.

E. Decision Tree (DT):

DT is a powerful and popular tool for classification and prediction. The attractiveness of DT is due to the fact that in contrast to neural network, it represents rules. Rules can readily be expressed so that human can understand them or even directly use them in a database access language like SQL so that records falling into a particular category may be tree.

Decision Tree is a classifier in the form of a tree structure where each node is either a leaf node-indicates the value of the target attributes(class)of expressions, or a decision node that specifies some test to be carried out on a single attribute value with one branch and sub-tree for each possible outcome of the text. It is an inductive approach to acquire knowledge on classification.

V. EXISTING WORK ON DIFFERENT INDIAN LANGUAGES IN NER

A. Hindi

Saha et.al(2008) [8] describes the development of Hindi NER using ME approach. The training data consists about 234 k words, collected from the newspaper "Dainik Jagaran" and is manually tagged with 17 classes including one class for not name and consists of 16,482 NEs. The paper also reports the development of a module for semi-automatic learning of context pattern. The system was evaluated using a blind test corpus of 25K words having 4 classes and achieved an F-measure of 81.52%.

Goyal(2008) [9] focuses on building a NER for Hindi using CRF. This method was evaluated on test set1 and test set 2 and attains a maximum F1-measure around 49.2% and nested F1-measure around 50.1% for test set1 maximum F1-measure around 44.97% and nested F1-measure around 43.70% for test set2 and F-measure of 58.85% on development set.

Saha et.al(2008) [10] has identified suitable features for Hindi NER task that are used to develop an ME based Hindi NER system. Two-phase transliteration methodology was used to make the English lists useful in the Hindi NER task. The system showed a considerable performance after using the transliteration based gazetteer lists. This transliteration approach is also applied to Bengali besides Hindi NER task and is seen to be effective. The highest F-measure achieved by ME based system is 75.89% which is then increased 81.2% by using the transliteration based gazetteer list.

Li and McCallum(2004) [11] describes the application of CRF with feature induction to a Hindi NER. They discover

relevant features by providing a large array of lexical test and using feature induction to construct the features that increases the conditional likelihood. Combination of Gaussian prior and early-stopping based on the results of 10-fold cross validation is used to reduce over fitting.

Gupta and Arora(2009) [12] describes the observation made from the experiment conducted on CRF model for developing Hindi NER. It shows some features which makes the development of NER system complex. It also describes the different approaches for NER. The data used for the training of the model was taken from Tourism domain and it is manually tagged in IOB format.

B. Bengali

It is the seventh popular language in the world, second in India and the national language of Bangladesh. Ekbal and Bandyopadhyay(2009) [13] reports about the development of NER in Bengali by combining the output of the classifier like ME, CRF and SVM. The training set consists of 150k word form to detect the four Named Entity tags namely person, location, organization and miscellaneous names. Lexical context pattern generated from an unlabeled Bengali corpus containing 3 million wordform have been used to improve the performance of the classifier. Evaluation results of 30K wordforms have found the overall recall, precision and f-score values of 87.11%, 83.61% and 85.32%, which shows an improvement of 4.66% in f-score over the best performing SVM based system and an improvement of 9.5% in f-score over the least performing ME based system.

On the other hand work by Ekbal et.al [14] shows the development of Bengali NER system using the statistical CRF. The system make use of different contextual information of the words along with the variety of features for identifying Named Entity classes. The training set comprises of 150k wordform which is manually annotated with 17 tags. Experimental results of the 10-fold cross validation test shows the effectiveness of proposed CRF based NER system with an overall average recall, precision and f-score values of 93.8%, 87.8% and 90.7%.

Ekbal and Bandyopadhyay(2010) [15] developed NER system for Hindi and Bengali using SVM. An annotated corpora of 122,467 tokens of Bengali and 502,974 tokens of Hindi has been used tagged with 12 NE classes. The NER system has been tested with the gold standard test sets of 35K, and 60K tokens for Bengali and Hindi. Evaluation results have demonstrated the recall, precision and f-score of 88.61%, 80.12% and 84.15% for Bengali whereas 80.23%, 74.34% and 77.17% for Hindi.

Hasan et.al(2009) [16] presented a learning-based named entity recognizer for Bengali that donot rely on manually-constructed gazetteers in which they developed two architectures for the NER system. The corpus consisting of 77942 words is tagged with one of 26 tags in the tagset defined by IIT Hyderabad where they used CRF++ to train the POS tagging model. Evaluation results shows that the

recognizer achieved an improvement of 7.5% in F-measure over a baseline recognizer.

Chaudhuri and Bhattacharya(2008) [17] has made an experiment on automatic detection of Named Entities in Bangla. Three-stage approach has been used namely-dictionary based for named entity, rules for named entity and left-right co-occurrences statistics. Corpus of Anandabazar Patrika has been used from the year 2001-2004. The manual tagging was done by the linguistic based on the global knowledge. Experimental results has shown the average recall, precision and f-measure to be 85.50%,94.24% and 89.51%.

Ekbal and Bandyopadhyay(2008) [18] developed NER system for Bengali using SVM. The system makes use of the different contextual information of the words along with the variety of features that are helpful in predicting the Named entities. A partially NE tagged Bengali news corpus has been used to create the training set for the experiment and the training set consists of 150K wordforms that is manually tagged with 17 tags. Experimental results of the 10 fold cross validation test shows the effectiveness of the proposed SVM based NER system with the overall average recall, precision and F-score values of 94.3%, 89.4% and 91.8%.

Ekbal and Bandyopadhyay(2008) [19] reports about the development of Bengali news corpus from the web consisting of 34 million wordforms. A part of this corpus of 150K wordforms is manually tagged with 16 NE and one non NE tag and additionally 30 K wordforms is tagged with a tagset of 12 NE tags defined for the IJCNLP-08 NER shared task for SSEAL. A tag conversion routine has been developed to convert the 16 NE tagged corpus of 150 K wordforms to the corpus tagged with IJCNLP-08 12 NE tags where the former has been used to develop the Bengali NER system using HMM, ME,CRF, SVM. Evaluation results of the 10 fold cross validation tests gives the F-score of 84.5% for HMM, 87.4% for ME, 90.7% for CRF and 91.8% for SVM.

Ekbal and Bandyopadhyay(2008) [20]describes the development of a web-based Bengali news corpus consisting of 34 million wordforms.The performance of the system is compared for two system- one is by using the lexical contextual patterns and the other using linguistic features along with the same set of lexical contextual pattern and came with the conclusion that the use of linguistic knowledge yields an highest F-value of 75.40%, 72.30%, 71.37% and 70.13% for person, location, organization and miscellaneous names.

Ekbal and Bandyopadhyay(2009) [21] describes a voted NER system by using Appropriate Unlabeled Data. This method is based on supervised classifier namely ME, SVM, CRF where SVM uses two different system known as forward parsing and backward parsing. The system has been tested for Bengali containing 35,143 news document and 10 million wordforms and makes use of language independent features along with different contextual information of the words. Finally the models have been combined together into a final system by a weighted voting technique and the experimental

results show the effectiveness of the proposed approach with the overall recall precision and f-score values of 93.81%, 92.18% and 92.98%.

Ekbal and Bandyopadhyay(2008) [22] reports about the development of NER system in Bengali by combining the outputs of the classifier like ME, CRF, SVM. The corpus consisting of 250K wordforms is manually tagged with four NE namely person, location, organization and miscellaneous. The system makes use of different contextual information of the words along with the variety of features that helps in identifying the NEs. Experimental results shows the effectiveness of the proposed approach with the overall average recall, precision and f-score values of 90.78%, 87.35% and 89.03% respectively. This shows an improvement of 11.8% in f-score over the best performing SVM based baseline system and an improvement of 15.11% in f-score over the least performing ME based baseline system.

Hasanuzzaman et.al(2009) [23] describes the development of NER system in Bengali and Hindi using ME framework with 12 NE tags. A tag conversion routine has been developed in order to convert the fine-grained NE tagset of 12 tags to a coarse-grained NE tagset of 4 tags namely person name, location name, organization name and miscellaneous name. The system makes use of different contextual information of the words along with the variety of orthographic word - level features that helps in predicting the four NE classes. Ten fold cross validation test results the average recall, precision and f-measure of 88.01%, 82.63%, 85.22% for Bengali and 86.4%, 79.23% and 82.66% for Hindi.

Ekbal and Bandyopadhyay(2007) [24] reported the development of HMM based NER system. For Bengali it was tested manually over a corpus containing 34 million wordforms developed from the online Bengali newspaper. A portion of the tagged news corpus containing 150,000 wordforms is used to train the NER system through HMM-based parts of speech tagger with 26 different POS tags and the training set thus obtained is a corpus tagged with 16 NE tags and one non NE tag and the experimental results of the 10-fold cross validation yields an average Recall, Precision and F-score values of 90.2%, 79.48% and 84.5% respectively. After this the HMM-based NER system is also trained and tested with Hindi data to show the effectiveness for the language independent features. The results for Hindi NER shows an average Recall, Precision and F-score values of 82.5%, 74.6% and 78.35% respectively.

C. Telugu

Telugu being a language of the Dravidian family, is the third most spoken language in India and official language of Andhra Pradesh.

Srikanth and Murthy (2008) [25] have used part of the LERC-UoH Telugu corpus where CRF based Noun Tagger is built using 13,425 words manually tagged data and tested on a test data set of 6,223 words and came out with an F-measure of 91.95%. Then they develop a rule-based NER

system consisting of 72,152 words including 6,268 Named Entities where they identified some issues related to Telegu NER and later develop a CRF based NER system for telegu and obtained an overall F-measures between 80% and 97% in various experiments.

Shishtla et.al(2008) [26] conducted an experiment on the development data released as a part of NER for South and South East Asian Languages (NERSSEAL) Competition. The Corpus consisting of 64026 tokens was tagged using the IOB format (Ramshaw and Marcus, 1995). The author have showed experiments with various features for Telugu. The best performing model gave an F-1 measure of 44.91%.

Raju et.al [27] have developed a Telugu NER system by using ME approach. The corpus was collected from the iinaadu, vaarta news papers and Telugu Wikipedia. Manually tagged test data is prepared to evaluate the system. The system makes use of the different contextual information of the words and Gazetteer list was also prepared manually or semi-automatically from the corpus and came out with an F-measure of 72.07% for person, 6.76%, 68.40% and 45.28% for organization, location and others respectively.

D. Tamil

VijayKrishna and Sobha(2008) [28] developed a domain specific Tamil NER for tourism by using CRF. It handles morphological inflection and nested tagging of named entities with a heirarchical tageset consisting of 106 tags. A corpus of 94k is manually tagged for POS, NP chunking, and NE annotations. The corpus is divided into training data and the test data where CRF is trained with the former one and CRF models for each of the levels in the hierarchy are obtained. The system comes out with a F-measure of 80.44%.

Pandian et.al(2008) [29] presented a hybrid three-stage approach for Tamil NER. The E-M(HMM) algorithm is used to identify the best sequence for the first two phases and then modified to resolve the free-word order problem. Both NER tags and POS tags are used as the hidden variables in the algorithm. Finally the system comes out with an F-measure of about 72.72% for various entity types.

E. Oriya

Biswas et.al [30] presented a hybrid system for Oriya NER that applies both ME and HMM and some handcrafted rules to recognize NEs. Firstly the ME model is used to identify the named entities from the corpus and then this tagged corpus is regarded as training data for HMM which is used for the final tagging. Different features have been considered and linguistic rules help a lot for identification of named entities. The annotated data used in the system is in IOB format. Finally the system comes with an F-measure between 75% to 90%.

VI. ANALYSIS

From the above survey we have seen that though the work in NER in IL is limited, still considerable work has been done for the Bengali language. The level of accuracy obtained for these languages are described in the (Table 1, 2) along with the approaches used. We can see that CRF is the most widely used approach which shows an effective results for the Indian Languages in comparison to the other approaches. Our survey reveals that Ekbal and Bandyopadhyay [18] achieved highest accuracy using CRF 90.7%, using SVM 91.8, using ME 87.4% and using HMM 84.5% for Bengali.

VII. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this survey we have studied the different techniques employed for NER, and have identified the various problems in the task particularly for ILs. In addition to these approaches researchers can also try using other approaches like DT, Genetic algorithm, Artificial and Neural Network etc that which already showed an excellent performance in the other languages like English, Germany etc. Also NER should be attempted for other IL in which no such work has been attempted so far.

TABLE I

COMPARISON OF THE APPROACHES WITH THEIR ACCURACY FOR THE DIFFERENT INDIAN LANGUAGES. FM : MAXIMAL F-MEASURE, FN : NESTED F-MEASURE, FL: LEXICAL F-MEASURE, BIA : BASELINE INDUCED AFFIXES, BIAW : BASELINE INDUCED AFFIXES WIKI: CLASSIFIER- OUTPUTS OF ME, CRF,SVM.

Language	Author	Approach	Accuracy(%)
Telugu	[25]	CRF	80.97
	[26]	CRF	44.91
	[27]	ME	P-72.07
			O-60.76
L-68.40			
Tamil	[28]	CRF	80.44
	[29]	HMM	72.72
Hindi	[10]	ME	75.89
	[8]	ME	81.52
	[9]	CRF	58.85
Bengali	[18]	SVM	91.8
	[17]	n-gram	89.51
	[14]	CRF	90.7
	[13]	Classifiers	85.32
	[19]	MLT	HMM- 84.5
			ME -87.4
			CRF -90.7
			SVM -91.8
	[21]	Classifier	92.98
	[22]	Classifier	89.03
	[20]	MLT	P-75.40
			L-72.30
			O-71.37
Others-70.13			
[16]	CRF	Baseline-65.57	
		BIA-69.32	
		BIAW-71.99	
Bengali+Hindi	[15]	SVM	Bengali-84.15
			Hindi-77.17
Bengali+Hindi	[23]	ME	Bengali-85.22
			Hindi-82.66
Bengali+Hindi	[24]	HMM	Bengali-84.5
			Hindi-78.35

TABLE II

COMPARISON OF THE APPROACHES WITH THEIR ACCURACY FOR SOUTH AND SOUTH EAST ASIAN LANGUAGES

Author	Approach	Language	Fm	Fn	Fl	F measure
[31]	CRF	Bengali	53.36	53.46	59.39	-
[32]	ME	Hindi	-	-	-	65.13
		Bengali	-	-	-	65.96
		Oriya	-	-	-	44.65
		Telugu	-	-	-	18.74
		Urdu	-	-	-	35.47
[33]	CRF	Bengali	35.65	33.94	40.63	-
		Hindi	48.71	50.47	50.06	-
		Oriya	29.29	26.06	39.04	-
		Telugu	8.19	43.19	40.94	-
		Urdu	39.86	39.01	43.46	-
[34]	ME	Bengali	12.50	11.97	12.30	-
		Hindi	29.24	28.48	25.68	-
		Oriya	13.94	11.91	19.44	-
		Telugu	00.32	01.08	08.75	-
		Urdu	26.41	24.39	27.73	-
[35]	CRF	Bengali	31.48	30.79	35.71	-
		Hindi	42.27	41.56	40.49	-
		Oriya	25.66	22.82	36.76	-
		Telugu	21.56	17.02	45.62	-
		Urdu	33.17	31.78	38.25	-
	HMM	Bengali	33.50	32.83	39.77	-
		Hindi	48.30	47.16	46.84	-
		Oriya	28.24	25.86	45.84	-
		Telugu	13.33	32.37	46.58	-
		Urdu	34.48	36.83	44.73	-
[36]	N-gram	Telugu	-	-	-	49.62
		Hindi	-	-	-	45.07

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An Implementation of APERTIUM Morphological Analyzer and Generator for Tamil

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Abstract— A Morphological Analyzer and Generator are two crucial tools involving any Natural Language Processing of Dravidian Languages. The present paper discusses the improvization of the existing Morphological Analyzer and Generator for Tamil by defining and describing the relevant linguistic database required for the purpose of developing them. The implementation of an open source platform called Apertium to handle inflection as well as derivation for word level analysis and generation of Tamil is also discussed. The paper also presents the efficacy, coverage and speed of the module against the large corpora. The paper also draws inferences of the morphological categories in their inflection and problems in analysing them.

I. INTRODUCTION

A language like Tamil is regarded as morphologically rich wherein the words are formed of one or more stems/roots plus one or more suffixes. So the complexity of morphology requires a more sophisticated morphological analyzer and generator. A morphological analyzer is a computational tool to analyze word forms into their roots along with their constituent functional elements. The morphological generator is the reverse process of an analyzer i.e. from a given root and functional elements, it generates the well-formed word forms.

The present attempt involves a practical adoption of Lttoolbox for the Modern Standard Written Tamil in order to develop an improvised open source morphological analyzer and generator. The tool uses the computational algorithm called Finite State Transducers for one-pass analysis and generation, and the database is based on the morphological model called Word and Paradigm.

II. IMPLEMENTATION OF APERTIUM (LTTOOLBOX¹)

Apertium is an open source machine translation platform developed by the Transducens research group at the *Department de Llenguatges i Sistemes Inform`atics of the Universitat d'Alacant* in Spain. The Lttoolbox is a toolbox for lexical processing such as morphological analysis and generation of words. The Document Type Definition (DTD) format is used in XML file for creating the lexical database in order to convert it into FST. The present attempt uses LINUX

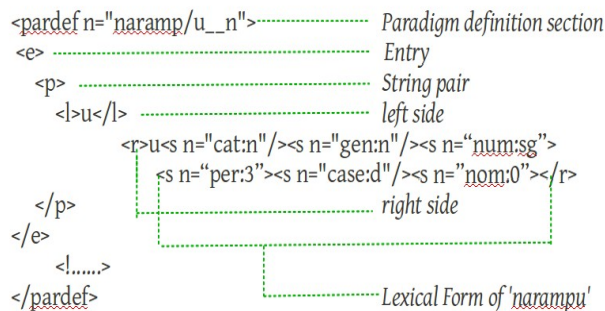
operating system with *fedora 10* platform for implementing the tool.

The analyzer as well as generator is obtained from a single morphological database, depending on the direction in which it is read by the system: read from left to right, we obtain the analyzer, and read from right to left, the generator.

The module requires the following database to build a Morphological Analyzer.

A. PARADIGMS AND THEIR DEFINITIONS. A Paradigm here is referred to a complete set of related inflectional and productive derivational word forms of a given category. The database comprises of six distinct lexical categories viz., Noun, Verb, Adjective as open class and Pronoun, Number words and Locative Nouns as closed class. The Tamil Morphological Database available at the Centre for Applied Linguistics and Translation Studies (University of Hyderabad) Language Laboratory is extracted and improvised involving six distinct lexical inflectional categories for the purpose.

The Definition refers to the features and feature values of the root such as category, gender, number, person and case marking in the case of nouns and tense, aspect and modal category information in the case of verbs so on and so forth. The WX-notation² of transliteration is followed in this paper.



THE XML FORMAT OF INFLECTION PARADIGM FOR TAMIL 'narampu'

B. LINKED PARADIGMS FOR DERIVATION. Derivational forms need the dynamic analysis rather than putting in the Dictionary. It is an alternative lexico-semantic modal which operates along

with inflection. There is a layer that introduces the lexemes into derivation and concurrently follows the inflection of the derived lexeme. For instance, *patikkirYavanY* 'one who(he) is reading' is a derived pronominal of the verb *pati* 'read'. It further takes all the inflections of the pronoun 'avanY'. Here the derived pronoun is linked with the pronoun paradigm *avanY*.

```
<pardef n="pati_v">
  <e>
    <p>
      <l>kirYavanY</l>
      <r><s n="v"/><s n="m"/><s n="sg"/><s n="3"/><s n="0"/>
      <s n="kirY_a"/></r>
      </p><i>kirYavanY</i><par n="avanY__p"/> ..... Linking paradigm for derivation
    </e>
    <l.....>
  </pardef>
```

THE XML FORMAT OF PARADIGM TO HANDLE DERIVATION

C. LEXICON. A root word dictionary in Morphological Analyzer differs from a conventional dictionary. The dictionary for Morphological Analysis which is built for Word and Paradigm Model contains roots, categories and their corresponding paradigm. The present Morphological analyzer-generator lexicon contains the root/lemma, the part of the lemma which is common to all the inflected forms, that is, it contains the lemma cut at the point in which the paradigm regularity begins along with the appropriate paradigm and the paradigm name.

```
<e lm="maram"> ..... Element for Lemma
  <i>mara</i> ..... The part of the Lemma
  <par n="mara/m__n"/> ..... Paradigm name
</e>
```

A DICTIONARY ENTRY OF THE LEXEME 'MARAM'

D. COMPILING AND PROCESSING. The data is compiled and processed by using the applications used in the lexical processing modules and tools (Ittoolbox). The applications are responsible for compiling dictionaries into a compact and efficient representation (a class of finite-state transducers called augmented letter transducers) and processing the compiled data for the real time text.

The 'lt-comp' is the application responsible for compiling dictionaries used by Apertium into a compact and efficient representation.

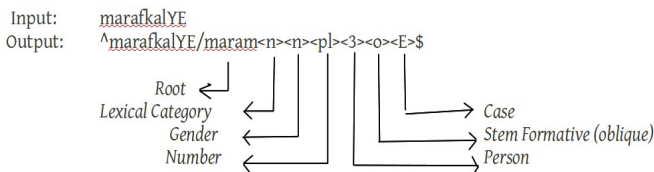
Synopsis : lt-comp [lr | rl] dictionary_file output_file

The dictionary which is compiled is processed by the application 'lt-proc' that is responsible for processing the data.

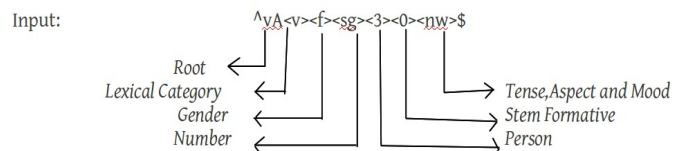
Synopsis : lt-proc [-c] [-a|-g] fst_file [input_file [output_file]]

The 'lt-proc' processes the stream with the letter transducers. Here 'fst_file' refers to the compilation file which is in FST format.

E. THE INPUT AND OUTPUT SPECIFICATION.



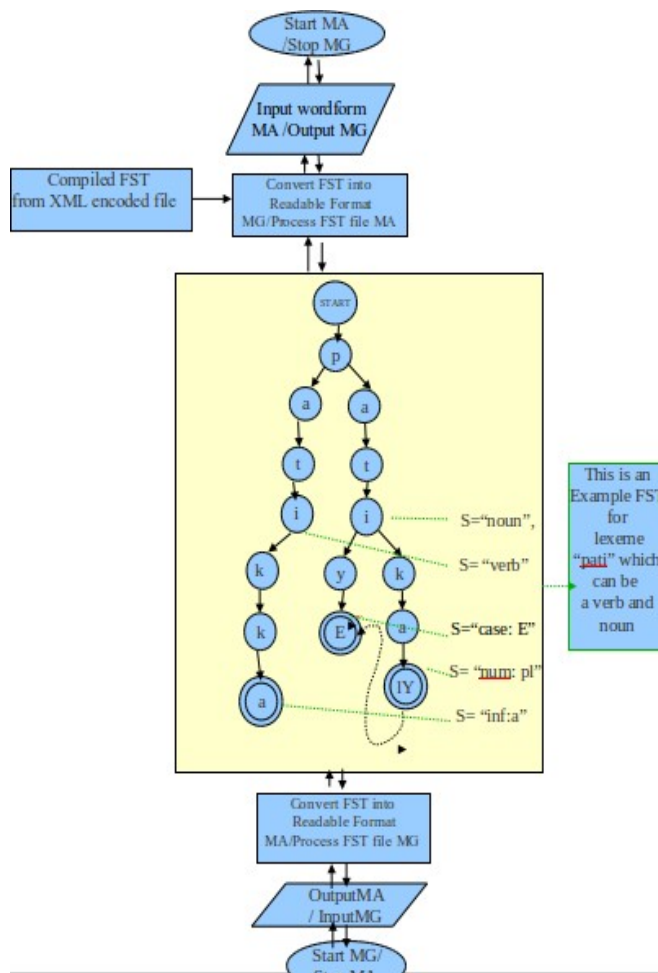
MORPHOLOGICAL ANALYZER



Output: vanwALY

MORPHOLOGICAL GENERATOR

F. DATA FLOW IN MORPHOLOGICAL ANALYZER. The below figure is a flowchart that describes the data flow in the Morphological Analysis (MA) and Generation (MG).



G. DATABASE. The following table shows the database of the Morphological module.

Paradigm			Dictionary Size (lemma) Number of Words	
Category	Number of Inflectional Classes	Number of Inflections per class	Category wise	Total
Noun	20	743	57,322	68,060
Verb	29	934	10,114	
Adjective	2	372	209	
Pronoun	11	654	18	
Numeral	14	370	129	
NST	7	67	62	
Avy	-	-	206	

TABLE 1 : DATABASE

III. TESTING AND EVALUATION

The Morphological analyzer tool was tested with the corpus (CALTS corpus of 4.4 million words and EMILLI CIIL corpus of 4.8 million words) in order to find out its coverage of the corpus. The coverage of the analyzer is calculated by dividing the analyzed word with the total number of words.

Corpus	Total words	Recognized words	Coverage	Speed
CALTS Corpus	4,45,130	3,75,891	84.44%	0m0.289s
EMILLI CIIL Corpus	4,85,543	4,05,898	83.59%	0m0.297s

The speed is an indication that CALTS-Apertium consumes less time to analyze a large number of data.

IV. ANALYSIS

In the course of testing the tool, it has been found certain inconsistencies and lapses in recognizing certain words. The lapses are due to the lexical items with orthographic variation, inflectional variation, dialectal variation, naturalized loan words particularly from English into Tamil, proper nouns.

Type	Word From	Frequency in the Corpus
Orthographic Variation	<i>koyil</i> 'temple'	885 occurrences
	<i>kovil</i> 'temple'	204 occurrences
Inflectional Variation	<i>eVYYiwwu-kkaLY</i> 'letters'	57 occurrences
	<i>eVYYiwwu-kalY</i> 'letters'	171 occurrences
Dialectal Variation	<i>vanwAy</i> 'You came'(standard)	765 occurrences
	<i>vanweV</i> 'You came'(dialect)	6 occurrences
Naturalized English loans	<i>pollS</i> 'police'	20070 occurrences
Proper nouns	<i>kaNnanY</i> 'male name'	211 occurrences
	<i>wamiYYnAtu</i> 'Tamil Nadu'	364 occurrences

The careful appraisal and study on the unrecognized words is conducted to identify and overcome the lapses by incorporating certain amount of data into the morphological database to enhance the coverage and the overall performance of the morphological tools. Other than these, the following problems are also well noted.

A. EXTERNAL SANDHI. In Tamil, the obstruents (k,c,t,w,p) in the word initial position when preceded by a word form ending in a short vowel (a ,i, u, e, o), the diphthong (E), optionally glide y, ending in IYY and r appear as geminated and the first segment of which is always written as the final segment of the first word as shown below.

Examples for External Sandhi involves in Tamil.
anwac cattam 'that law', *yAnYEK kutti* 'small elephant',
curYrYulAp payaNi 'tourists', *wAyp pAcam* 'motherly love',
peVyarp palakE 'naming board', *wamiYYw wAy* 'Mother of Tamil Nadu'.

However, the first words in each of these pairs is unrecognized because the additional word final consonant is the result of external sandhi. This requires the deletion of the consonants before they are passed on to the Morphological Analyzer.

B. NEED FOR SANDHI SPLITTER. The words that are joined together require to be analyzed by Sandhi splitter beforehand. Or else, it will be a hectic task to add all the conjoined word forms in the database, since any subsequent words can be written together. The requirement of Sandhi Splitter is necessary to identify words which are combined together not due to inflectional rule. The sandhi splitter can separate these kinds of words which can be further forwarded to Morphological Analyzer. For instance,

nAteVfkum, nAtu + eVfkum 'nation+whole'
ifkuYIYa, ifku + uYIYa 'here+being'
veNtumAnYAlum, veNtum+AnYAlum 'need+though'

C. NATURALIZED ENGLISH WORDS. The words that are naturalized as Tamil especially from English need to be analyzed. The problem in identifying these words are a single word may have more than two orthographical and spelling variations. It differs according to the person how they pronounce. Therefore, it has to be studied through corpus that can reveal the different forms and their distributions.

For instance, for 'engineer'
inYginlr / eVnYginiyar / inYginYiyar

D. COLLOQUIAL FORMS. In Tamil, the influence of colloquial forms can be normally seen in the written due to its nature of possessing two forms in Modern days as spoken and written. It is unavoidable to restrict the spoken, though it is informal. The problem may have been solved by providing the variant forms in the paradigmatic tables.

For instance,
porYanY is used in spoken instead of *pokirYanY* 'he is going'
paticcu for *patiwu* 'having studied'

After implementing the above said suggestions, the analyzers may be expected to provide a more efficient and effective analysis.

V. CONCLUSION

The Apertium tool for Tamil is efficient in terms of time for processing a large number of words. The combination of Finite State Transducers (letter transducer) and the paradigm approach is more efficient and helps in faster parsing. The other advantage of the Apertium is that the current morphological database can be used to create a parallel morphological generator for Tamil.

¹ A finite state toolkit in Apertium to perform lexical processing

² Transliteration Scheme using wx-notation:

Tamil Orthography :

a A i I u U eV e E oV o O H

k f c F t N w n p m y r l v IYY IY rY nY j s h R

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ADVANCEMENT OF CLINICAL STEMMER

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Abstract:

Word Stemming is common form of language processing in most Information Retrieval (IR) systems. Word stemming is an important feature supported by present day indexing and search systems. Idea is to improve by automatic handling of word endings by reducing the words to their word roots, at the time of indexing and searching. Stemming is usually done by removing any attached suffixes, and prefixes from index terms before the assignment of the term. Since the stem of a term represents a broader concept than the original term, the stemming process eventually increases the number of retrieved documents. Texts from the medical domain are an important task for natural language processing. This paper investigates the usefulness of a large medical database for the translation of medical documents using a rule based machine translation system. We are able to show that the extraction of affixes from the words.

Keywords: Stemming, Information Retrieval, Suffix, Prefix, Natural Language Processing.

Introduction:

Stemming is the procedure of finding the root word, by stripping away the affix attached to the word. In many languages words are often obtained by affixing existing words or roots. Stemming is a widespread form of language processing in most information retrieval systems [1]. It is similar to the morphological process used in natural language processing, but has somewhat different aims. In an Information retrieval system, stemming is used to reduce different word forms to common roots, and thereby improve the aptitude of the system to match query and document vocabulary. It also helps in clinical language to knob the clinical terms, names of deceases and symptoms of patient. Although stemming has been studied mainly for English, there is evidence that it is useful for a number of languages. Stemming in English is usually done during document indexing by removing word endings or suffixes using tables of common endings and heuristics about when it is appropriate to remove them. Thus using a stemmer improves the number of documents retrieved in response to translate the clinical data. Also, since many terms are mapped to one, stemming serves to decrease the size of the index files in the information retrieval system. Many stemming algorithms have been proposed, and there have been many experimental evaluations of these. But, very few work on stemming has been reported for clinical language. This paper investigates the usefulness of a large medical database for the translation of documents; we present a stemmer for clinical language. This conflates¹ terms by stripping off word endings from a suffix list maintained in a database.

¹The term conflates is used to denote the act of mapping variants of a word to a single term or 'stem'.

English Stemming Word curriculum

The first step while developing a stemmer is to define the word curriculum and the grammatical information that will be required for words of these word classes natural language processing application for that language. After significant of word classes for English and the grammatical information that is required from the words of these word classes, various paradigms for these word classes were developed. Paradigm for a root word gives information about its achievable word forms in a particular word class, and their relevant grammatical information. All the words of a word class may not follow the same paradigm, like; it is not that all nouns will follow the same inflectional pattern. So, the first assignment was to find out the various paradigms for a word class and then group the words of that word class according to those paradigms. Proceeding this way paradigms were developed for the word classes which show inflection. For developing the paradigms the inflectional patterns of the root words of a word class were studied. And, then on their basis, the root words which inflect in the similar way were grouped. The inflection patterns for those groups constitute the set of paradigms for that word classes. Following is the list of word classes along with their grammatical information that are being used for English.

Noun	Grammatical information required for English is –Number, gender, type, and syntactic features. Nouns have singular and plural forms. Many plural forms have -s or -es endings (dog/dogs, referee/referees), in English, nouns do not have grammatical gender. However, many nouns can refer to masculine or feminine animate objects (mother/father, tiger/tigress, male/female). Nouns have several syntactic features that can aid in their identification. The natural language English has noun which indicates the name of the persons, things, etc.	Nouns (example: common noun "cat") may be modified by adjectives ("the beautiful Angora cat"), preceded by determiners ("the beautiful Angora cat"), or pre-modified by other nouns ("the beautiful Angora cat").
Verb	Verb form the second largest word class after nouns. According to Carter and McCarthy, verbs denote "actions, events, processes, and states." Consequently, "smile," "stab," "climb," "confront," "liquefy," "wake," "reflect" are all verbs. verb is used to describe the action or activity of noun.	Some examples of verb endings, which while not dead giveaways, are often associated, include: "-ate" ("formulate"), "-iate" ("inebriate"), "-ify" ("electrify"), and "-ize" ("sermonize"). There are exceptions, of course: "chocolate" is a noun, "immediate" is an adjective, "prize" can be a noun, and "maize" is a noun. Prefixes can also be used to create new verbs. Examples are: "un-" ("unmask"), "out-" ("outlast"), "over-" ("overtake"), and "under-" ("undervalue"). Just as nouns can be formed from verbs by conversion, the reverse is also possible.
Adjectives	Adjectives describe properties, qualities, and states attributed to a noun or a pronoun. As was the case with nouns and verbs, the class of adjectives cannot be identified by the forms of its constituents. However, adjectives are commonly formed by adding the some suffixes to nouns.	Examples: "-al" ("habitual," "multidimensional," "visceral"), "-ful" ("blissful," "pitiful," "woeful"), "-ic" ("atomic," "gigantic," "pedantic"), "-ish" ("impish," "peckish," "youngish"), "-ous" ("fabulous," "hazardous"). Adjectives can also be formed from other adjectives through the addition of a suffix or more commonly a prefix: weakish, implacable, disloyal, irredeemable, and unforeseen. A number of adjectives are formed by adding "a" as a prefix to a verb: "adrift," "astride," "awry."
Adverb	Adverbs are a class of words "which perform a wide range of functions. Adverbs are especially important for indicating time, manner, place, degree, and frequency of an event, action, or process." They typically modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. Adjectives and adverbs are often derived from the same word. A majority of adverbs are formed by adding to "-ly" ending to their corresponding adjective form. Recall the adjectives, "habitual", "pitiful", "impish".	Some suffixes that are commonly found in adverbs are "-ward(s)" and "-wise": "homeward": "The ploughman homeward plods his weary way." "downward": "In tumbling turning, clustering loops, straight downward falling, ..." "lengthwise": 2 to 3 medium carrots, peeled, halved lengthwise, and cut into 1-inch pieces.

Table 1. Delineate of Grammatical segment

Stemmers are used to convert inflected words into their root or stem. Stem does not necessarily correspond to linguistic root of a word. Stemming improve performance by reducing morphologically variants into same words. There are few rules when using medical roots, “o” always acts as a joint-stem to connect two consonantal roots, e.g. *arthr+o+logy= arthrology*. But generally, the “o” is dropped when connecting to a vowel stem, e.g. *arthr+itis=arthritis, instead of arthr-o-itis*.

The list of some roots, suffixes and prefixes used in medical terminology are shown below in table 1.

Words	Prefix	Suffix	Stem/Root Words
Treatment	-----	-ment	Treat
Illness	-----	-ness	Ill
Stitching	St	-ing	Itch
Hypogastric	Hypo	-tria	Gas
Abortion	-----	-tion	Abort
Abscesses	-----	-es	Abscess
Hypertension	Hyper	-sion	Tense

Table 1. Root words of Clinical Terminology.

Rules for Suffix

There are certain rules for suffix of the words ending with ‘able’, ‘ment’, ‘ing’, etc... the rules are as follows

1. Rules for suffix ‘able’ are as follows

- a) If in a word before ‘able’, ‘b’ comes with vowel ‘i’ then replace ‘able’ by ‘e’

Example, describable → descri**b**+able → describe
 ascribable → ascri**b**+able → ascribe

- b) If in a word before ‘able’, ‘b’ comes with any consonant or vowel (except ‘b’) then remove ‘able’.

Example, absorbable → absor**b**+able → absorb
 climbable → clim**b**+able → climb

- c) If in a word before ‘able’, ‘h’ comes with any consonant or vowel then remove ‘able’

Example, abolishable → abol**ish**+able → abolish
 accomplishable → accompl**ish**+able → accomplish

2. Rules for suffix ‘ment’ are as follows

- a) If in a word suffix ‘ment’ comes then remove ‘ment’.

Example, abandonment → abandon+ment → abandon
 establishment → establish+ment → establish

3. Rules for suffix ‘ly’ are as follows

- a) If in a word suffix ‘ly’ comes then remove ‘ly’.

Example, kindly → kind+ly → kind
 softly → soft+ly → soft

4. Rules for suffix ‘ness’ are as follows

- a) If in a word suffix ‘ness’ comes then remove ‘ness’.

Example, cleverness → clever+ness → clever
 darkness → dark+ness → dark

Rules for Prefix

There are certain prefixes such as dis, im, in, mis, pre, re, un, ...etc rules for prefix is shown below

- a) If in a word prefix ‘dis’ comes then remove ‘dis’ from the word

Examples, disagree —————>dis+agree —————>agree
 disorder —————>dis+order —————>order

b) If in a word prefix 'im' comes then remove 'im' from the word.

Example, impatient—————>im+patient—————>patient
 Impossible—————>im+possible—————>possible

Existing work on stemmer

Documents are generally represented in terms of the words they contain, as in the vector-space model [2]. Many of these words are similar to each other in the sense that they denote the same concept(s), i.e., they are semantically similar. Generally, morphologically similar words have similar semantic interpretations, although there are several exceptions to this, and may be considered equivalent. The construction of such equivalence classes is known as stemming. A number of stemming algorithms or stemmers, which attempt to reduce a word to its stem or root form, have been developed. Thus, the document may now be represented by the stems rather than by the original words. As the variants of a term are now conflated to a single representative form, it also reduces the dictionary size, which is the number of distinct terms needed for representing a set of documents. A smaller dictionary size results in savings in storage space and processing time.

Stemming is often used in information retrieval because of the various advantages it provides [3]. The literature is divided on this aspect, with some authors finding stemming helpful for retrieval tasks [3], while others did not find any advantage [4]. However, they are all unanimous regarding the other advantages of stemming. Not only is the storage space for the corpus and retrieval times reduced but recall is also increased without much loss of precision. Moreover, the system has the option for query expansion to help a user refine his/her query.

Different Stemming Algorithms

Various stemmers are available for several languages, including English. The most prominent ones are those introduced by Lovins, Dawson, Porter, Krovetz, Paice/Husk and Xu, and Croft. We now provide a brief description of some of these algorithms.

1. Truncate(n): This is a trivial stemmer that stems any word to the first n letters. It is also referred to as n-gram stemmer [5]. This is a very strong stemmer. However, when n is small, e.g., one or two, the number of overstemming errors is huge. For this reason, it is mainly of academic interest only. In this paper, we have chosen n to be 3, 4, and 5 and refer to them as trunc3, trunc4 and trunc5, respectively.

2. Lovins Stemmer: The Lovins stemmer [6] was developed by Lovins and is a single-pass longest match stemmer. It performs a lookup on a table of 294 endings, which have been arranged on a longest match principle. The Lovins stemmer removes the longest suffix from a word. Once the ending is removed, the word is recoded using a different table that makes various adjustments to convert these stems into valid words. However, it is highly unreliable and frequently fails to form words from the stems or to match the stems of like-meaning words.

3. Dawson Stemmer: The Dawson stemmer [7], which was developed by Dawson, extends the Lovins stemmer. This is also a single-pass longest match algorithm, but it uses a much more comprehensive list of around 1200 suffixes, which were organized as a set of branched character trees for rapid access. In this case, there is no recoding stage, which had been found to be unreliable.

4. Porter Stemmer: Porter proposed the Porter stemmer [8], which is based on the idea that the suffixes in the English language (approximately 1200) are mostly made up of a combination of smaller and simpler suffixes. It has five steps, and within each step, rules are applied until one of them passes the conditions. If a rule is accepted, the suffix is removed accordingly, and the next step is performed. The resultant stem at the end of the fifth step is returned.

5. Paice/Husk Stemmer: The Paice/Husk stemmer [9] is a simple iterative stemmer and uses just one table of rules; each rule may specify either deletion or replacement of an ending. The rules are grouped

into sections that correspond to the final letter of the suffix, making the access to the rule table quicker. Within each section, the order of the rules is significant. Some rules are restricted to words from which no ending has yet been removed. After a rule has been applied, processing may be allowed to continue iteratively or may be terminated.

6. **Krovetz Stemmer:** The Krovetz stemmer [10] was developed by Krovetz and makes use of inflectional linguistic morphology. It effectively and accurately removes inflectional suffixes in three steps: the conversion of a plural to its singular form, the conversion of past to present tense, and the removal of -ing. The conversion process first removes the suffix and then through the process of checking in a dictionary for any recoding, returns the stem to a word. It is a light stemmer in comparison to the Porter and Paice/Husk stemmers.

7. **Co-Occurrence-Based Stemmer by Xu and Croft:** Xu and Croft [5] observed that most stemmers perform understemming or overstemming, or even both. Strong stemmers generally perform overstemming only. Xu and Croft came up with an algorithm that would refine the stemming performed by a strong stemmer. To this end, they computed the co-occurrences of pairs of words that belong to the same equivalence class. For each pair, they also computed the expected number of co-occurrences, which would account for words that occur together randomly. Thus, they obtained a measure that is similar to the mutual information measure

8. **Dictionary-Based Stemmers:** There have also been dictionary-based stemmers [3], [11], [12] that improve on an existing stemmer by employing knowledge obtained from a dictionary. Word co-occurrences in a dictionary are considered to imply the relations between words.

9. **Probabilistic Stemmers:** Given a word in a corpus, the most likely suffix–prefix pair that constitutes the word is computed [13]. Each word is assumed to be made up of a stem (suffix) and a derivation (prefix), and the joint probability of the (stem, derivation) pair is maximized over all possible pairs constituting the word. The suffix and prefix are chosen to be nonempty substrings of the given word, and it is not clear what should be done in the case when a word should be stemmed to itself.

10. **Refinement of an Existing Stemmer:** In some cases, errors produced by a stemmer are manually rectified by providing an exception list [10]. The stemmer would first look up the exception list, and if the word is found there, it returns the stem found there. Otherwise, it uses the usual stemmer. The aforementioned co-occurrence-based stemmer is also one such algorithm where the exceptions are obtained automatically.

11. **Distributional Clustering as Stemming:** Distributional clustering [14], [15]–[16] joins (distributionally) similar words into a group if the words have similar probability distributions among the target features that co-occur with them. In the distributions are estimated by observing the grammatical relationships between words and their contexts, whereas, the distributions are obtained from the frequency of words in each category of the corpus. In their work on document classification, Baker and McCallum had chosen the class labels as the target features. The root forms of the words are not taken into consideration while grouping them. This algorithm described is given as follows. The mutual information of each word in the corpus with the class variable is computed, and the words are sorted in descending order. The number of desired clusters is fixed beforehand, e.g., to M . The first M words are initialized to form M singleton clusters. The two most similar (of the M) clusters are merged. This similarity is measured in terms of the Kullback–Leibler divergence of the distributions of the two clusters. The next word in the sorted list forms a new singleton cluster. Thus, the number of clusters remains M each time. In this paper, we refer to Baker and McCallum’s method as baker. In our implementation, we have fixed M to the number of stems obtained by refining the trunc3 stemmer using our model.

Features of Proposed Stemmer

Stemmer for clinical language has windows platform. It has unproblematic to use GUI (Graphical User Interface) for the user to operate and need not to have much knowledge about computers, platforms and any programming language. Users just need some essential computer operation knowledge for software installation and manoeuvre. If we confer from the technical point of view, it has been developed using Visual Basic as Front End and Oracle10g as Back End. It is easy to use and give accurate root words. The

proposed stemmer may be useful in medical field which is usually done during document indexing by removing word endings or suffixes using tables of common endings and heuristics about when it is appropriate to eliminate them. Following stature shows the stream of words in database.

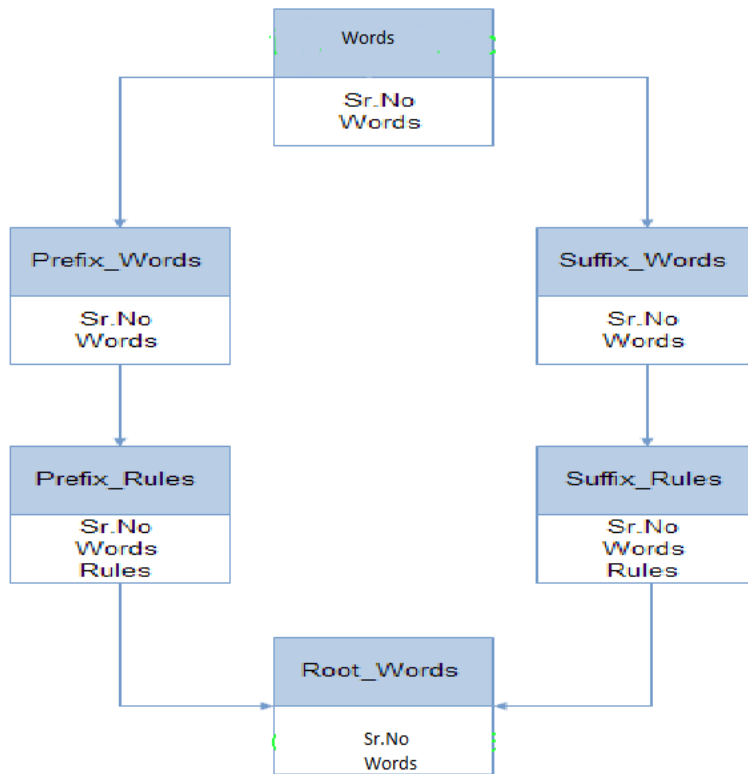


Figure 2. UML diagram of database

We need to develop a new stemmer because the active stemmers which are Algorithm based are not able to give correct root words in some of the words The stemmers are completely based on general languages (regional, communicative), but the clinical terminology is somewhat diverse from the wide-ranging languages, and the stemmers which are database based are not equipped to give the proper root words of clinical terminology. Consequently we have urbanized the new stemmer based on database which will bestow the appropriate output.

Conclusion

The English clinical stemmer discussed in this paper stores all the commonly used suffix and prefix for all clinical root words in its database. This approach prefers time and accuracy to memory space. We confer some of the rules used to remove suffix and prefix from the clinical words to get the root word. Advantage of this approach is that the user will get the precise results. As sometimes suffix trimming approach in active stemmer provide possible root can result in some extra and indifferent result also. Therefore, this approach is suggested at least for the clinical language in which the number of possible inflections for a word is not infinite.

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Lexipedia: A Multilingual Digital Linguistic Database

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Abstract: Lexipedia, a multilingual digital linguistic database aims to provide all types and kinds of information that a linguistic item carries in a language, and its cross-linguistic morphemic equivalent in other languages. It provides a wide range of information from graphemic to idiomatic expressions and beyond. In this paper, Lexipedia is conceptualised as a model of human knowledge of language, and its description and architecture is an effort towards modelling such linguistic knowledge.

I. LEXICAL DATABASE: ISSUES AND LIMITATIONS

For more than 2000 years, paper dictionaries are compiled with a view to provide specific information that it aims to provide. Hence, there are several types of dictionaries providing specific information depending upon the type of dictionary. Similarly, electronic/digital dictionary does the same by replacing the format. An electronic dictionary, though primarily designed to provide basic information such as grammatical category, meaning, usage, frequency, etc., has also got its usage in various other ancillary tasks in the newer domains of language use. Such electronic dictionary, however, has a major shortcoming as it provides specific information considering the scope, usage, and storage for which it is developed. In other words, other different kinds of information that the language users require are often not featured but are readily available in another dictionary specifically created for it. In another aspect, such dictionary is a mere list of lexical items with its specific information, and does not reflect how human beings store and process such lexical items.

With the advent of newer domains of language use, however, different kinds of resources are conceptualised and designed to store information which serve as database for different kinds of applications and processes. One such electronic lexical database is WordNet, which organises words into sets of cognitively synonymous sets (often called synsets [1] and [2].) It stores lexical items of a language hierarchically and the conceptual-semantic and lexical semantic relationships between these items are determined cognitively. In other words, it is a hybrid of dictionary and thesaurus providing information of the both. However, the major concern for which Princeton cognitive psychologist George A. Miller developed WordNet is to model a database that is consistent with the knowledge acquired about how human beings process language. In addition to it, WordNet is interpreted and used as ontology. Despite its wider use in

several applications like Word Sense Disambiguation (WSD), Information Retrieval (IR), automatic text classification, automatic text summarization, etc., WordNet like other lexical databases too has its own limitations.

These databases are designed with certain specific objectives, hence, to access the detailed information about a particular linguistic item one has to access several different kinds of databases specifically meant to provide the required specific information. For example, to access detailed information about a word 'किताब' in Nepali, one has to access WordNet for conceptual-semantic and lexical-semantic relations, pronunciation dictionary, or even separate databases for usage, idioms, proverbial usage, etc. Similarly, if one has to find its equivalent in other languages, one has to scan bi/multilingual dictionary. As it is known, accessing different databases often lead to inconsistency since each database is constructed to fulfill certain objective. Moreover, such databases are primarily not designed to provide different kinds of information that a Natural Language Process system requires. In other words, it is imperative to build a consistent, uniform, dedicated database which serves NLP applications.

In section 2, the paper explores conceptual design and organisation of different fields, which are modularised with respect to specific information. A principled basis of comparing various linguistic phenomenon across languages and to achieve such an objective to avoid miss-comparison, and in creating typological databases are the subject matter of the following section. Section 4 deals with the computational aspect along with the design of the back-end and algorithms to execute various information. One of the input interfaces is also highlighted in building such database. The final section is a summary.

II. LEXIPEDIA: CONCEPT AND ORGANISATION

In view of the above shortcomings of the lexical databases, Lexipedia is conceptualised to provide all and every kind of information that a particular linguistic item in a particular language embeds, and its cross-linguistic morphemic equivalent in other languages. Here, it is imperative to mention that linguistic item includes free forms as well as bound forms. The latter is the result of grammaticalisation, a historical processes resulting various forms, functions and constructions (see [3] and [4]).

Lexipedia is designed to model how humans organise these linguistic items, and in turn how these items are related with each other as well as with its linguistic usage in various other forms, functions and constructions in a language. In other words, it is designed to reflect all kinds of information that a user of a language carries overtly/covertly over the synchronic/diachronic dimension about a particular item in a language, and its morphemic equivalent across languages. Lexipedia, hence, provides wide ranging information on a linguistic item which is organised in modules.

Since, information that Lexipedia provides is wide and vast, it is organised into different modules, where each module provides specific information regarding an item. Having such a modular architecture for information organisation has an advantage as each module can be customised according to the need of the application/users as well as for resource building. These modules are designed as follows:

A. Graphemic

An item's scriptal graphemic information is provided following the script used for a particular language like Devanagari for Hindi, Nepali, Marathi, Bodo, etc.; Srijanga script for Lepcha, etc. It also provides spelling variations if an item has in a particular language. Along with it, transliteration of the item following the LDCIL transliteration scheme and the (broad) IPA transcription are also provided.

B. Audio-video

Audio-video information about a linguistic item is provided at another module. In this module, pronunciation in audio file, and in cases, image/video files are also supplemented. This module is handy in the study of sub-lexical structure of a language as well as for developing pronunciation dictionary, and other speech related applications.

C. Grammatical

Grammatical information forms the basis of various NLP applications. The grammatical categories are noun, pronouns, verb, adjectives, adverbs, adposition, and particles, which subsumes a larger number of other traditionally defined categories like conjunction, interjection, clitics, etc. In Lexipedia, the grammatical information for each category is provided in hierarchical layers. For example, nouns are organised with respect to the categorising device that language employs (gender, classifier, number, honorificity, etc.). To illustrate such a noun categorisation, Hindi and Assamese employ gender and classifier, respectively. Among the Tibeto-Burman languages, Khasi and Lepcha are other two languages which extensively organise nouns on the basis of classifiers. Similarly, verbs are typologised and organised on the basis of their syntactic behavior into types following [5] To cite an example, Hindi verbs can be typologised following [6] In

the case of adjectives, the Cinque Hierarchy (see [7]) can be explored for Indian languages.

In addition to this information about the categories, Lexipedia also provides information on different grammatical categories like tense, aspect, mood, aktionsart, case markers, voice, classifier, gender, person, number, clusivity, etc.

D. Semantic

In this module, multiple semantic information is provided for which Lexipedia employs corpora to ascertain meaning both in its synchronic and diachronic dimensions. Such semantic variation is supplemented by the citation of the actual usage from the corpora.

E. Other

Lexipedia also records proverbial, idiomatic, register, domain specific and various other usages of an entry. Hence, it provides information on various uses of the entry in a language also. At the same time, it also provides information on root, lexical stock and etymology of an entry. Similarly, lexical semantic relations are also presented forming ontology of organisation of items in a particular language.

III. CROSS-LINGUISTIC TYPOLOGY

One of the major decisions regarding providing cross-linguistic information is about the uniformity of phenomenon in question, and to handle various gradient linguistic phenomena in a principled way. Since Lexipedia provides cross-linguistic information across Indian languages, it is imperative to follow a uniform definition of grammatical category across these languages to arrive at true cross-linguistic information on Indian languages. In pursuit of such cross-linguistic uniformity, it is essential to adopt standards that can be applied uniformly across languages and which allow to compare like with like. Moreover, such standard should also ensure that the cross-linguistic study of the phenomenon is not missed out either due to the different labels or we compare different phenomena due to the same label.

In order to achieve such criteria, Canonical approach, which is put forward to account typology of possible words in the realm of typology, and is widely used in the realm of morphology and syntax is best suited. Canonical approach takes definitions to their logical end point and builds theoretical spaces of possibilities, and creates theoretical spaces, to populate them while the languages are still there to be investigated. Moreover, it is also useful to study both what is frequent and what is rare, and in the construction of typological databases.

IV. AT THE BACK-END

Since Lexipedia is a multilingual database, and has many-to-many relations across languages, scripts, orthography, fields and entries, it throws an enormous challenge for computational and programming aspects. To accomplish

such linkages, we have basically adopted a model which is based on concept related to the linguistic item. In this model, concept refers to a description of an item in a link language. For our present purpose, owing to pragmatic factors, we have identified it to be English. To cite an example, a linguistic item in Kannada 'kEsarI' (ಕೆಸರಿ) has three set of concepts.

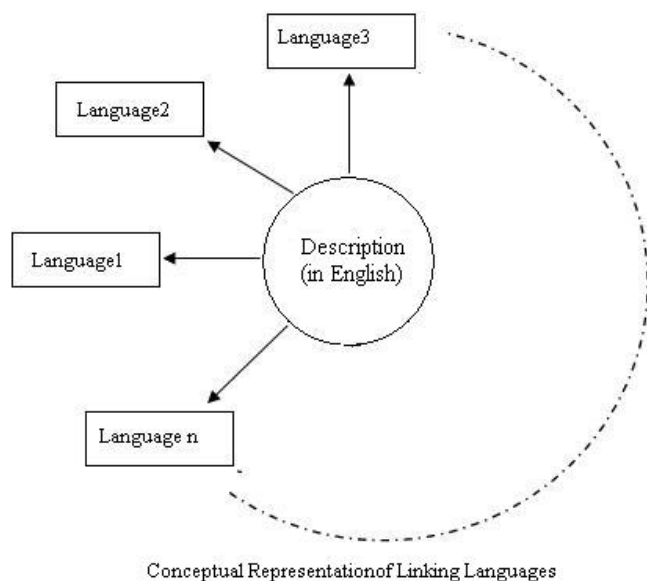
A shade of yellow tinged with orange (SAFFRON).

A flavoring agent (SAFFRON).

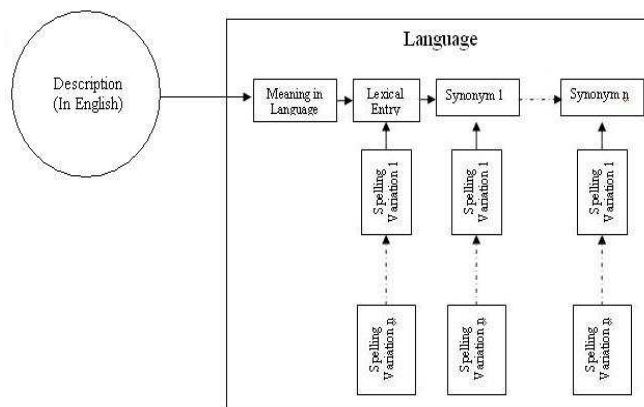
A large tawny flesh-eating wild cat of Africa and South Asia (LION).

In Lexipedia, rather than following the equivalent items across languages, the descriptive meaning of the item in question is followed. In other words, based on equivalent meaning, items are interrelated, and iterated over different languages. Under such approach, however, it is a known fact that lexical under-specification across languages is encountered. To account such issue, the descriptive meaning of the item in the question will be considered for providing linkages across languages.

Based on the 'descriptive meaning (in English)', the process is iterated in other languages. In other words, we are following indexation of 'descriptive meaning (in English)'.



In Lexipedia, we have adopted a 'description set model' i.e. based on description (descriptive meaning in English), we provide the entry, meaning (in the language), spelling variation of the entry, and synonyms of the entry. In other words description set consists of description in English, its spelling variations, and synonyms and their respective spelling variations, and meaning in the language where all these items share among each other.



Graphical Representation of Description Set

Other lexical semantic relations are entered manually. IPA, pronunciation, and transliteration (following the LDCIL scheme v0.1) are embedded in the system. To expedite the data entry, we have developed graphical user interface (GUI) which automatically picks 'description set model's' synonyms and spelling variations as an entry and other fields are provided manually.

For the management of Lexipedia, we have devised a methodology that only one language should add fresh concepts (Description in English) at a given point of time. Such language will be called as Primary Language (PL). All other languages will add the entries and other respective fields in their language in correspondence with the concepts given by the PL. We have developed two text data input interfaces for Lexipedia [snapshots are in Annexure I] for both PL and Secondary Language (SL) entry.

V. SUMMARY

Lexipedia attempts to provide wide ranging information, and caters the needs of a user about a specific linguistic item in a language, and its morphemic equivalent across languages. Unlike other lexical databases, it provides information at different levels from graphemic to idiomatic expressions and beyond. Its architecture is modular; hence, it can be customised according to the needs of the specific applications/users.

In its conceptualisation and design, Lexipedia provides specific information of an item at the strata called levels that can be customised according to the requirements. Each level provides specific information.

Lexipedia serves as a linguistic resource hub for Indian languages (at this level of development), however, it can be enriched with other languages, drawing cross-linguistic morphemic similarities and differences between languages. On the other hand, it is conceptualised as a model of what a native speaker of a language knows about an item in his/her language synchronically/diachronically. Lexipedia is an effort towards modeling such linguistic knowledge.

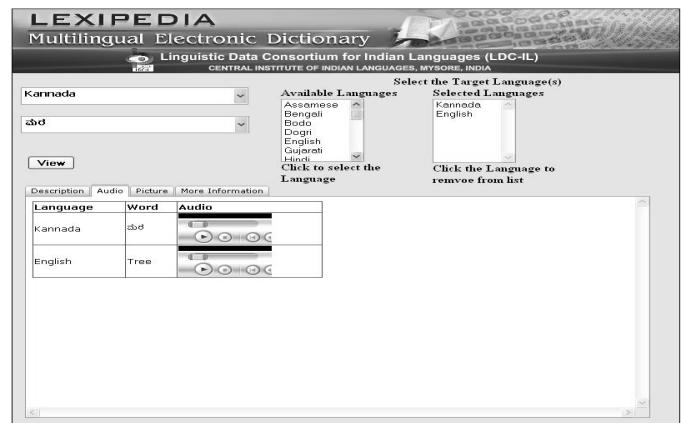
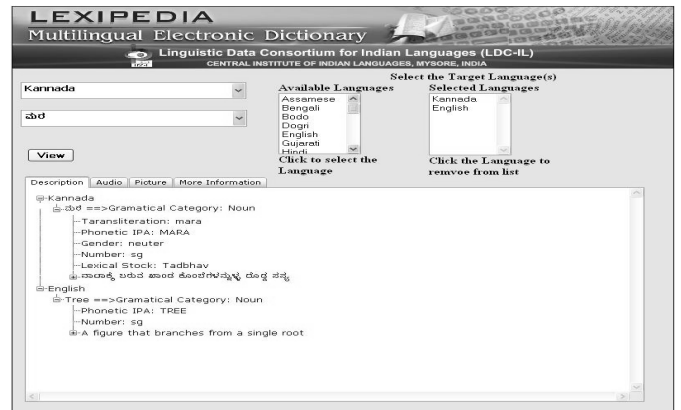
ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We would like to thank Dr. B. Mallikarjun, who initially floated the idea of creating multilingual dictionary of Indian languages - a precursor to Lexipedia, and contributed valuable inputs into Lexipedia. We are grateful to Prof. Kavi Narayana Murthy (CIS, UoH, Hyderabad; currently CIIL fellow) for his guidance, help, insightful comments and suggestions on the different issues. We are heartily thankful to our Project Head, Dr. L. Ramamoorthy, whose encouragement, guidance and support enabled us to sum up our efforts so far into words, and other members of the Team LDC-IL for their comments and relevant help.

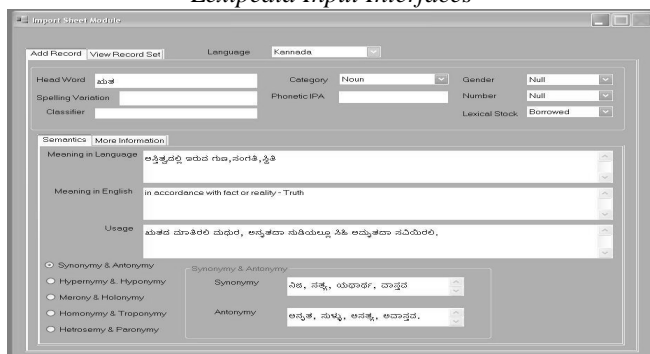
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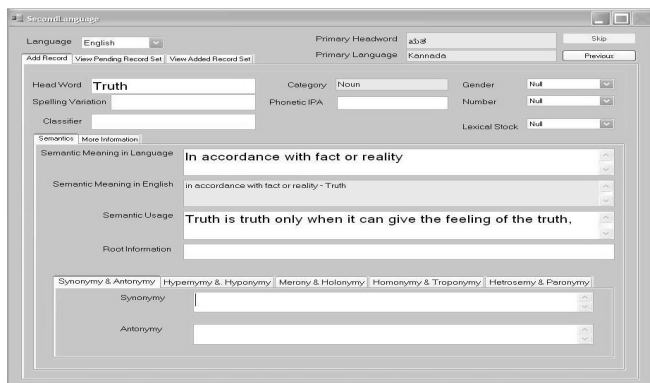
Output Interfaces developed in First Version.



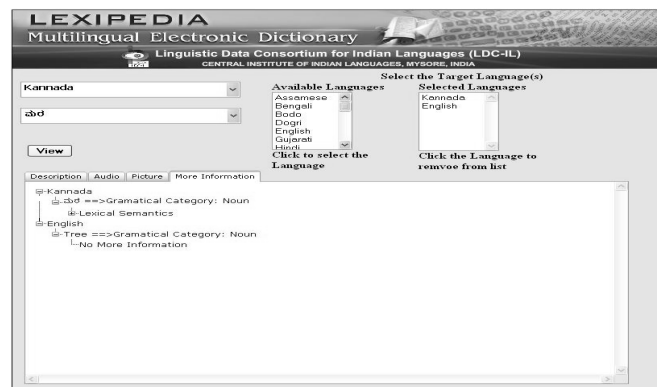
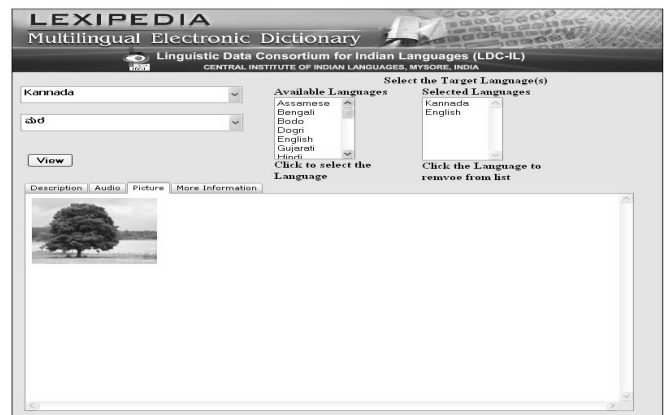
Annexure I
Lexipedia Input Interfaces



Primary Language Input Interface



Secondary Language Input Interface



Text Extraction for an Agglutinative Language

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Abstract- The paper proposes an efficient algorithm for sentence ranking based on a graph theoretic ranking model applied to text summarization task. Our approach employs word frequency statistics and a word positional and string pattern based weight calculation for weighing the sentence and to rank the sentences. Here we have worked for a highly agglutinative and morphologically rich language, Tamil.

I. INTRODUCTION

The enormous and on-going increase of digital data in internet, pressurize the NLP community to come up with a highly efficient automated text summarization tools. The research on text summarization is boosted by the various shared tasks such as TIPSTER SUMMAC Text Summarization Evaluation task, Document Understanding conference (DUC 2001 to 2007) and Text Analysis conferences.

A variety of automated summarization schemes have been proposed recently. NeATS [4] is a sentence position, term frequency, topic signature and term clustering based approach and MEAD [10] is a centroid based approach. Iterative graph based Ranking algorithms, such as Kleinberg’s HITS algorithm [3] and Google’s PageRank [1] have been successfully used in web-link analysis, social networks and more recently in text processing applications [8], [7], [2] and [9]. These iterative approaches have a high time complexity and are practically slow in dynamic summarization. The works done in Text Extraction for Indian languages is comparatively less.

In this paper we have discussed a novel automatic and unsupervised graph based ranking algorithm, which gives improved results compared to other ranking algorithms in the context of the text summarization task. Here we have worked for Tamil.

II. TEXT SUMMARIZATION AND TEXT RANKING

Text summarization is process of distilling the most important information from the set of source to provide a abridge version for particular user and tasks. The text summarization is also done by ranking in the sentences in the given source test. Here we have proposed a graph based text ranking approach.

Graph based algorithm is essentially a way of deciding the importance of a vertex within a graph, based on global information recursively drawn from the entire graph. The basic idea here is that of ‘voting’ or ‘recommendation’. When one vertex links to the other vertex, it is like casting a vote for

that vertex. The vertex becomes important when it links with more number of vertices. The importance of vertex casting the vote determines how important the vote itself is [10].

The proposed graph based text ranking algorithm consists of two types of measure (1) Word Frequency Analysis; (2) A word positional and string pattern based weight calculation. Based on the above two scores, the ranking of sentences is done.

The algorithm is carried out in two phases. The weight metric obtained at the end of each phase is averaged to obtain the final weight metric. Sentences are sorted in descending order of weight.

A. Graph

Let $G(V, E)$ be a weighted undirected complete graph, where V is set of vertices and E is set of weighted edges.

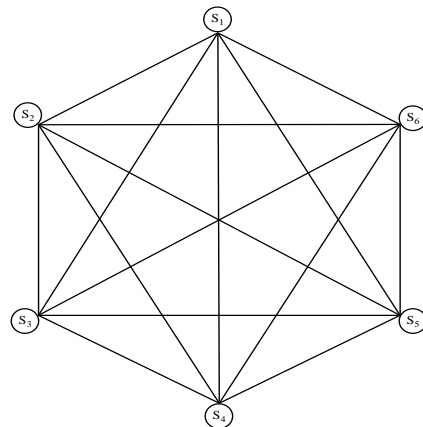


Fig. 1. A complete undirected graph

In figure 1, the vertices in graph G represent the set of all sentences in the given document. Each sentence in G is related to every other sentence through the set of weighted edges in the complete graph.

B. Phase 1 : Word Frequency Analysis

In Word Frequency Analysis, we find the affinity weight (AW) for each word in the sentence by using the formula 1. The sentence weight (SW) is calculated by averaging the AW of all words in the sentence.

The affinity weight for each word is calculated by frequency of the given word in the sentence divided by number of words in the sentence.

Word Frequency in Tamil:

As Tamil is a morphologically rich and a highly agglutinative language, getting the frequency of the words is not straight forward. The text has to be preprocessed with a morph-analyser to collect the corresponding root words, as all the words in the sentences will be in inflected form (root + suffixes). Given a word to the morph-analyser, it will split the word into root and its suffix and return the valid root word alone. Example

மரங்களை -> மரம் + கள் + ஐ -> மரம்
 marangkaLai -> maram + kaL + ai -> maram
 (tree + plural +acc) tree plural acc tree

Let the set of all sentences in document $S = \{s_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$, where n is the number of sentences in S . For a sentence $s_i = \{w_j \mid 1 \leq j \leq m_i\}$ where m_i is the number of words in sentence s_i , ($1 \leq i \leq n$) the affinity weight AW of a word w_j is calculated as follows:

$$AW(w_j) = \frac{\sum_{w_k \in S} IsEqual(w_j, w_k)}{WC(S)} \quad (1)$$

where S is the set of all sentences in the given document, w_k is a word in S , $WC(S)$ is the total number of words in S and function $IsEqual(x, y)$ returns an integer count 1 if x and y are equal else integer count 0 is returned by the function.

Then, we find the sentence weight $SW(s_i)$ for each sentence s_i ($1 \leq i \leq n$) as follows:

$$SW(s_i) = \frac{1}{m_i} \sum_{w_j \in s_i} AW(w_j) \quad (2)$$

At the end of phase 1, the graph vertices hold the sentence weight as shown in figure 3 for graph constructed using the following sentences.

[1] தாஜ் மகால், இந்தியாவிலுள்ள நினைவுச்சின்னங்களுள், உலக அளவில் பலருக்குத் தெரிந்த ஒன்றாகும்.

Taj Mahal, among the memorials in India, is known word wide.

[2] இது ஆக்ராவில் அமைந்துள்ளது.

This is located in Agra.

[3] முழுவதும் பளிங்குக் கற்களாலான இக்கட்டிடம், ஆக்ரா நகரில் யமுனை ஆற்றின் கரையில் கட்டப்பட்டுள்ளது.

This building fully made of marbles is built on the shores Yamuna river in Agra.

[4] இது காதலின் சின்னமாக உலகப் புகழ் பெற்றது.

This is world famous as a symbol of love.

[5] ஏழு உலக அதிசயங்களின் புதிய பட்டியலில் தாஜ் மகாலும் சேர்க்கப்பட்டுள்ளது.

In the new seven wonders of the world Taj Mahal is also included.

[6] இக்கட்டிடம் முகலாய மன்னான ஷாஜகானால், இறந்து போன அவனது இளம் மனைவி மும்தாஜ் நினைவாக 22,000 பணியாட்களைக் கொண்டு 1631 முதல் 1654 ஆம் ஆண்டுக்கு இடையில் கட்டிமுடிக்கப்பட்டது.

Mughal emperor Sharjahan built this building using 22,000 workers, from 1631 to mid of 1654, in memory of young wife Mumthaz .

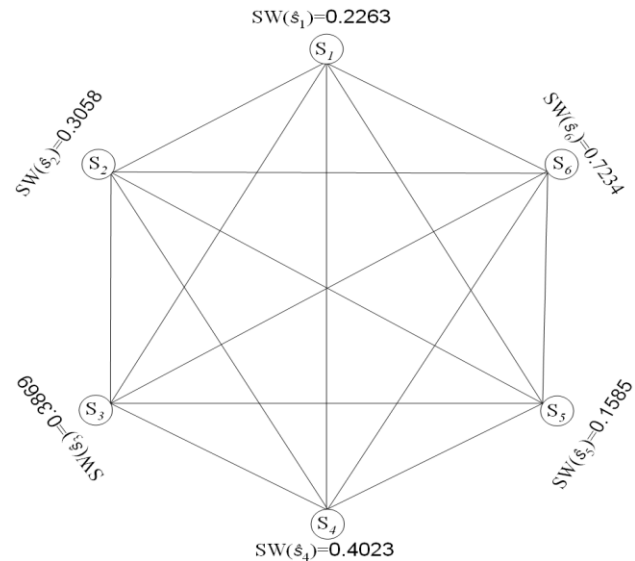


Fig. 3. Sample graph of Sentence weight calculation in phase 1.

C. Phase 2 : A Word Positional and String Pattern Based Weight Calculation

In phase 2, a word positional and string pattern based weight in all the vertices is calculated using Levenshtein Similarity measure (LSW), which uses Levenshtein Distance for calculating the weight.

The vertex weight is calculated by summing all the LSW and dividing it with number of sentences.

Levenshtein Distance

Levenshtein distance (LD) is a measure of the similarity between two strings source (s) and target (t). The distance is the minimum number of deletions, insertions, or substitutions required to transform s into t.

The LD algorithm is illustrated by the following example

LD (RAIL, MAIL) is 1

LD (WATER,METER) is 2

Similarly, the LD calculation is same for words in Tamil, but there are three and two character letters in Tamil which we have to consider as single character while calculating the distance, as shown below.

LD(சொல்,வால்) is 1

LD(வரும்படி,என்னப்படி) is 4

Levenshtein Similarity Weight

Levenshtein Similarity Weight is calculated between the sentences, considering two sentences at an instance. This is calculated by dividing the difference of maximum length between two sentences and LD between the two sentences by maximum length between two sentences as shown in formula 6.

Consider two sentences, *sentence1* and *sentence2* where ls_1 is the length of *sentence1* and ls_2 be the length of *sentence2*. Compute $MaxLen = \text{maximum}(ls_1, ls_2)$. Then LSW between *sentence1* and *sentence2* is the difference between $MaxLen$ and LD , divided by $MaxLen$. Clearly, LSW lies in the interval 0 to 1. In case of a perfect match between two words, its LSW is 1 and in case of a total mismatch, its LSW is 0. In all other cases, $0 < LSW < 1$. The LSW metric is illustrated by the following example.

Considering these strings as sentences,

$$LSW(ABC, ABC) = 1$$

$$LSW(ABC, XYZ) = 0$$

$$LSW(ABCD, EFD) = 0.25$$

Similarly

$$LSW(\text{என்னப்படி, வரும்படி}) = (6-4)/6 = 0.3334$$

Levenshtein similarity weight is calculated by the equation

$$LSW(s_i, s_j) = \frac{MaxLen(s_i, s_j) - LD(s_i, s_j)}{MaxLen(\hat{s}_i, s_j)} \quad (6)$$

where, s_i and s_j are the sentences.

Hence before finding the LSW , we have to calculate the LD between each sentence.

Let $S = \{s_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ be the set of all sentences in the given document; where n is the number of sentences in S . Further, $s_i = \{w_j \mid 1 \leq j \leq m\}$, where m is the number of words in sentence s_i .

Each sentence s_i ; $1 \leq i \leq n$ is represented as the vertex of the complete graph as in figure 4 and $S = \{s_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$. For the graph in figure 4, find the Levenshtein similarity weight LSW between every vertex using equation 6. Find vertex weight (VW) for each string s_i ; $1 \leq i \leq n$ by

$$VW(s_i) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\forall s_i \neq s_l \in S} LSW(s_i, s_l) \quad (7)$$

3. TEXT RANKING

Obtaining the sentence weight ($SW(s_i)$) and the vertex weight $VW(s_i)$, the ranking score is calculated is the formula 8, where the average of the two scores are found.

The rank of sentence s_i ; $1 \leq i \leq n$ is computed as

$$Rank(s_i) = \frac{SW(s_i) + VW(\hat{s}_i)}{2}; 1 \leq i \leq n \quad (8)$$

where, $SW(s_i)$ is calculated by equation 2 of phase 1 and $VW(\hat{s}_i)$ is found using equation 7 of phase 2. The ranking scores for the sentences (s_i ; $1 \leq i \leq n$) are arranged in descending order of their ranks.

$SW(s_i)$ in phase 1 holds the sentence affinity in terms of word frequency and is used to determine the significance of the sentence in the overall ranking scheme. $VW(\hat{s}_i)$ in phase 2 helps in the overall ranking by determining largest common subsequences and other smaller subsequences then assigning weights to it using LSW . Further, since named entities are represented as strings, repeated occurrences are weighed efficiently by LSW , thereby giving it a relevant ranking position.

4. EVALUATION AND DISCUSSION

We have used the ROUGE evaluation toolkit to evaluate the proposed algorithm. ROUGE, an automated summarization evaluation package based on N-gram statistics, is found to be highly correlated with human evaluations [4].

The evaluations are reported in ROUGE-1 metrics, which seeks unigram matches between the generated and the reference summaries. The ROUGE-1 metric is found to have high correlation with human judgments at a 95% confidence level, so this is used for evaluation. The present Graph-based Ranking Algorithms for Text Extraction works with Rouge score of 0.4723.

We manually created the reference summaries for 150 documents taken from online news articles. The reference summaries and the summaries obtained by our algorithm are compared using the ROUGE evaluation toolkit, which is presented in Table 1. For each article, our proposed algorithm generates a 100-words summary.

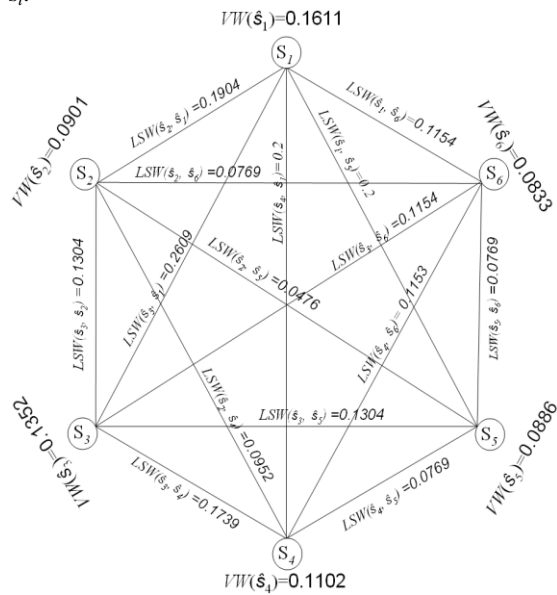


Fig. 4. Sample graph for Sentence weight calculation in phase 2

TABLE I
ROUGE SCORE

	Score
ROUGE-1	0.4723

The methodology performs well even for the agglutinative languages. For the word frequency calculation we feed only the root words instead of the agglutinative words to get proper frequency count. In the phase 2 where the Levenshtein Similarity Weight, the distance varies more as the all the sentences have different inflected and agglutinative words. Again in word frequency, the pronouns occurring in the same sentence, which actual reference to one of the noun phrase (occurs instead of a noun phrase), cannot to be counted.

Conclusions

In this paper, we introduced Graph Based Ranking algorithm for text ranking. Here we have worked for Tamil, a south Dravidian language. Here we have shown the necessity of getting the root words for Text ranking. The architecture of the algorithm helps the ranking process to be done in a time efficient way. This text ranking algorithm is not a domain specific and also does not require any annotated corpora. This approach succeeds in grabbing the most important sentences based on the information exclusively from the text itself; whereas other supervised ranking systems do this process by training on summary collection.

5. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we introduced Graph Based Ranking algorithm for text ranking. Here we have worked for Tamil, a south Dravidian language. Here we have shown the necessity of getting the root words for Text ranking. The architecture of the algorithm helps the ranking process to be done in a time efficient way. This text ranking algorithm is not a domain specific and also does not require any annotated corpora. This approach succeeds in grabbing the most important sentences based on the information exclusively from the text itself; whereas other supervised ranking systems do this process by training on summary collection.

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Semantic Representation of Causality

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Abstract—This is an attempt to study the semantic relation of Causality or Cause-Effect, how it is marked in Tamil, how the causal markers in Tamil manifest in texts, their syntactic and semantic properties and how this information can be represented so as to handle causal information and reasoning.

Keywords- causality; Tami; semantic relation; cause-effect.

I. INTRODUCTION

Causality or Cause-Effect relation is a complex semantic relation. It refers to the relation between two events. If an event E2 is caused by another event E1, then a causative relation exists between event E1 and event E2. E1 is the cause of E2 and E2 is the consequence of E1.

I bought a new pen because I lost the old one. - (1)

Here the event E1 is “I lost the old one” and the event E2 is “I bought a new pen”. The causality marker “because” connects the two events E1 and E2, thus establishing a Cause-Effect relationship between the two events.

I bought a new pen after I lost the old one. - (2)

In example (2), the events remain the same. But the marker “after” simply specifies a temporal relationship between the two events. Here, there is no Cause-Effect relation. Also, it may be noted that the relationship is asymmetric, i.e, E1 causes E2 does not imply E2 causes E1.

An attempt has been made to study this Cause-Effect relation in Tamil and the various markers which serve to express this semantic relation. The Attribute Value Matrix (henceforth AVM) representations for some of the markers have been drawn for some examples of expressions of cause. This has given an insight into the causal markers in Tamil.

II. PREVIOUS WORK

Several philosophers have studied the semantic relation of causality like (Ehring 1997), Mellor (1995), Owens (1992) and Sosa and Tooley (1993). Though extensive work has been done in the analysis of causality in English, there has not been much work done on causality in Tamil.

From a natural language understanding(NLP) perspective, Khoo (1995) analyzed the verb entries in the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (1987) and came up with a total of 2082 causative verbs (verbs with a causal component in their meaning). In subsequent works (Khoo et al, 2001, Khoo and Myaeng, 2002 and Khoo et al 2002), attempts at automatic recognition of cause-effect relations have been made for information retrieval purposes. Nazarenko-Perrin (1993) has attempted to represent causality using conceptual graphs. Girju (2003) has also attempted the automatic recognition of causal relation in English texts. But, there has not been any attempt to study causal relation in Tamil, especially from a computational perspective.

III. ANALYSIS OF CAUSALITY IN TAMIL

Causality or the semantic relation of Cause-Effect in Tamil is expressed in many ways. It can be syntactic (a suffix) or lexical. It can be within a clause, inter-clausal or inter-sentential. The various causal markers and their features are studied and discussed below.

A. Arguments of the Causal marker

The semantic relation of cause holds between two arguments – the cause or the reason and the effect. Consider the following example.

He died of drowning. - (3)
He drowned due to heavy flood. - (4)
He died due to heavy flood. - (5)

In example (3), it may be noted that the Cause is “drowning” and the Effect is “he died”.

In example (4), the Cause is “heavy flood” and the Effect is “he drowned”.

In example (5), the Cause is “heavy flood”, but the effect is “he died”.

In other words, “he died because of drowning due to heavy flood”. Here we see that the Cause-Effect event chain. Hence we see that for a particular result or effect, we have two causes – a direct Cause and an indirect Cause. Similarly, for a particular cause, we have two effects – an intermediate Effect and an ultimate Effect.

In the above examples, “heavy flood” is the indirect Cause and “he drowned” is the intermediate effect and the direct Cause. The ultimate Effect is “he died”.

B. The Markers of Causality

The causal markers in Tamil may be divided into two categories – those markers which have a noun as their Cause argument and those which take a verb as their Cause Arguments.

1) -aal

The predominantly used marker of cause is *-aal*. When it takes a noun as the cause, it manifests as below.

avar maaraTaipp-aal kaalamaanaar.
he heartattack-CAUSE expired.
“He died of heart attack.”

But this marker is polysemous. Sometimes, it denotes instrumentality, as below.

avan katti-y-aal kutt-in-aan.
he knife--INS stab-PST-3SM
“He stabbed with a knife.”

This marker may add to the verbal stems in the past or future tense to denote cause. But, it is to be noted that the verbal stem is first nominalized with *atu* and then this marker is added with or without the euphonic markers *an* or *in*.

kaaRRu aTi-tt-a-at-aal mazai pey-t-atu.
Wind blow-PST-RP-3SN-CAUSE rain rain-PST-3SN
“It rained because of the wind.”

takka neerattil maruttuvamanai-kku ce-nR-a-at-an-aal
avar uyir pizai-tt-aar.
correct time hospital-DAT go-PST-RP-3SN--
CAUSE he life save-PST-3SH
“His life was saved because he went to the hospital at the right time.”

It may be noted that the marker *-aal* attaches to verbal roots without nominalization to form the conditional form and this is different from Causality.

avan paTi-tt-aal veRRi peRu-v-aan.
he study--COND success get-FUT-3SM
“If he studies, he will succeed”.

2) kaaraNattaal

This marker literally means “because of the reason”. We may note that the causal marker *-aal* is present in this marker.

avan paTikk-aat-a kaaraNattaal tooRRaan.
He study-NEG-RP CAUSE fail-PST-3SM.

“He failed because he did not study.”

3) kaaraNamaaka

This marker also literally means “because of the reason”. *kaaraNam* means reason.

iRaiccal-in kaaraNamaaka enakku onRumee keeTkavillai.
Noise-GEN CAUSE I-DAT anything hear-INF-
NEG
“I cannot hear anything because of the noise”.

4) kaaraNam

This marker means “reason”. The peculiarity of this marker is that this is the only marker where the Cause follows and the Effect precedes the causal marker.

ivvaLavuv piraccinaikaL-ukk-um kaaraNam un aRiyaamai.
these-many problems-DAT-INC reason your ignorance.
“Your ignorance is the reason for all these problems.”

5) toTarnthu

This marker literally means “following which”. So, this marker denotes consequence/cause.

*uuraTañku uttarav-ai toTarnthu terukkaL veRiccooTi iru-
nt-ana.*
Curfew order-ACC CAUSE streets empty be-
PST-3PN.
“The streets were empty following the curfew order.”

But this marker is polysemous. It can mean “regularly” or “continuously” or even “follow”.

mantiravaati puñkuzaliyai toTarnthu oot-in-aan.
Sorcerer Poonkulali-ACC follow-VBP run-PST-3SM.
“The sorcerer ran behind Poonkulali, following her”

6) atanaal/itanaal/aanapatiyaal/aakaiyaal/aatalaal

These markers are inter-clausal or inter-sentential markers meaning “so”. They literally mean “because of that/this”. Though they directly denote consequence, cause can be inferred.

*ciRuvan tavaRu cey-t-aan. atanaal ammaa koopam-
uR-R-aal.*
boy mistake do-PST-3SM. so mother anger-get-
PST-3SF.
“The boy did a mistake. So, the mother got angry”.

*ciRuvan tavaRu cey-t-aan. itanaal ammaa
avan-ai aTi-tt-aal.*
Boy mistake do-PST-3SM. because-of-this mother he-
ACC beat-PST-3SF
“The boy did a mistake. So the mother beat him.”

naaṅkaL pattirikkaL vaaṅkuvat-illai. aanapatiyaal inta ceyti enakku teri-yaa-tu.
 we newspaper buy-NEG. so this news I-DAT know-NEG-3SN.
 “We don’t buy newspapers. So, I don’t know of this news.”

en tantai-kku tamiz teri-yum. aakaiyaal avar-iTamiruntu tamiz kaR-kalaam.
 my father-DAT Tamil know-3SN. so he-ABL Tamil learn-PERM
 “My father knows Tamil. So, one can learn Tamil from him.”

en aluvalaka neeram kaalai 11 maNi. aatalaal naan coompeeRi aaneen.
 my office time morning 11o'clock. so I lazy become-PST-1S.
 “My office time is at 11 a.m. So, I became lazy.”

7) *Verb in infinitive*

This is a particular case of unmarked expressions of cause which is quite frequently found. The verb in the infinitive(morphologically) is used to chain a sequence of events, thus implicitly showing cause.

ciRuvan tavaRu cey-ya ammaa koopam-uR-R-aaL.
 boy mistake do-INF mother anger-get-PAST-3SF.
 “As the boy did a mistake, the mother got angry”.

8) *Verbs that denote cause*

The following verbs may denote a causal relation in the sentence - *eeRpaTu, uNtaaku, viLai*.

cuuRaavaLi-y-aal peRum naacam viLai-nt-atu.
 storm--CAUSE big damage lead-PST-3SN.
 “The storm led to heavy damages.”

9) *Causative verbs*

The causative verbs are a special class of verbs, where the additions of a marker (-*vi, -pi*) or an auxiliary verb (*vai, cey, aTi*) to the main verb produces another verb with the meaning “make to/cause to” added to the original meaning. The following examples show the use of auxiliary verbs to include causative meaning in the verb.

naan anta ceyti-y-ai aRi-nt-eeen.
 I that news--ACC know-PST-1S.
 “I knew that news.”

naan anta ceyti-y-ai aRivi-tt-eeen.
 I that news--ACC make know-PST-1S.
 “I announced that news.”

Here the causal interpretation is that “I am the cause for the news to be known.”

naan anta paaTatt-ai avan-ukku puriya-vai-tt-eeen.
 I that lesson-ACC he-DAT understand-make-PST-1S.
 “I made him understand the lesson.”

naan avan-ai caak-aTi-tt-eeen.
 I he-ACC die-make-PST-1S.
 “I caused him to die.”

naan avaLai paaTa-c-cey-t-eeen.
 I she-ACC sing--make-PST-1S.
 “I made her sing.”

IV. COMPUTATIONAL REPRESENTATIONS

Computationally the above markers and examples can be expressed as Attribute Value Matrix (AVM) representations, which capture the arguments and features of the markers. The AVM representations for some of the examples are given in Figure 1.

1. *avar maaraTaippaal kaalamaanaar.*
 He died of heart attack

$$PP_{(CAUSE+aal)} \text{ Arg}(2) \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Arg}_1 \left[\text{NP, -living, -concrete} \right] \\ \text{Arg}_2 \left[\text{S} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{V} \text{ kaalamaaku arg}(1) \\ \text{arg}_1 \left[\text{NP, +Sub, +Nom, +human, } \pm \text{ male} \right] \end{array} \right] \right] \end{array} \right]$$

2. *kaaRRu aTittataal mazai peytatu.*
 It rained because of the wind.

$$PP_{(CAUSE+aal)} \text{ Arg}(2) \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Arg}_1 \left[\text{S} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{V} \text{ aTi arg}(1) \\ \text{arg}_1 \left[\text{NP, +Sub, +Nom, -living, -concrete} \right] \end{array} \right] \right] \\ \text{Arg}_2 \left[\text{S} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{V} \text{ pey arg}(1) \\ \text{arg}_1 \left[\text{NP, +Sub, +Nom, -living, +concrete} \right] \end{array} \right] \right] \end{array} \right]$$

3. *takka neerattil maruttuvamanaikku cenRatanaal avar uyir pizaittaar.*
 He was saved because he went to the hospital at the right time.

$$PP_{(CAUSE+aal)} \text{ Arg}(2) \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Arg}_1 \left[\text{S} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{V} \text{ cel arg}(2) \\ \text{arg}_1 \left[\text{PRO, +Sub, +Nom, +living, } \pm \text{ human} \right] \\ \text{arg}_2 \left[\text{NP, +Obj, +Dat, -living, +concrete} \right] \end{array} \right] \right] \\ \text{Arg}_2 \left[\text{S} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{V} \text{ pizai arg}(2) \\ \text{arg}_1 \left[\text{NP, +Sub, +Nom, +human, } \pm \text{ male} \right] \\ \text{arg}_2 \left[\text{NP, +Obj, +Nom, +part_of_body} \right] \end{array} \right] \right] \end{array} \right]$$

4. iRaiccalin kaaraNamaaka enakku onRumeee keetkavillai
I cannot hear anything because of the noise.

$$ADV_{(CAUSE+kaaraNamaaka)} \text{ Arg}(2)$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Arg}_1 \left[\text{NP, +Gen, -concrete} \right] \\ \text{Arg}_2 \left[\text{S} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{V keeL arg}(1) \\ \text{arg}_1 \left[\text{NP, +Sub, +Dat, +human, } \pm \text{ male} \right] \end{array} \right] \right] \end{array} \right]$$

5. ivvaLavu piraccinaikaLukkum kaaraNam un aRiyaamai.
The reason for all these problems is your ignorance.

$$NP_{(CAUSE+kaaraNam)} \text{ Arg}(2)$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Arg}_1 \left[\text{NP, +Sub, Dat, -concrete} \right] \\ \text{Arg}_2 \left[\text{NP, +Obj, +Nom, -concrete} \right] \end{array} \right]$$

6. uuraTanku uttaravai toTarntu terukkaL veRiccOOti iruntana.
The streets were empty following the curfew order.

$$PP_{(CAUSE+toTarntu)} \text{ Arg}(2)$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Arg}_1 \left[\text{NP, +Acc, -concrete} \right] \\ \text{Arg}_2 \left[\text{S} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{V iru arg}(1) \\ \text{arg}_1 \left[\text{NP, +Sub, +Nom, -living, +concrete} \right] \end{array} \right] \right] \end{array} \right]$$

Figure 1. Some example AVMS

V. CONCLUSION

This attempt at the analysis of the cause-effect semantic relation in Tamil and the AVMS can be used in automatic

identification of causal relations in text. This, in turn, would be useful in information retrieval systems and reasoning or question-answering systems.

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Named Entity Recognition and Transliteration for Telugu Language

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1. Introduction

The concept of transliteration is a wonderful art in Machine Translation. The translation of named entities is said to be transliteration. Transliteration should not be confused with translation, which involves a change in language while preserving meaning. Transliteration performs a mapping from one alphabet into another. In a broader sense, the word transliteration is used to include both transliteration at the micro level and transcription.

Transliteration is a process in which words in one alphabet are represented in another alphabet. There are a number of rules which govern transliteration between different alphabets, designed to ensure that it is uniform, allowing readers to clearly understand transliterations. Transliteration is not quite the same thing as transcription, although the two are very similar; in transcription, people represent sounds with letters from another alphabet, while in transliteration, people attempt to map letters over each other, sometimes with accent marks or other clues to suggest particular sounds.

As we say technically the transliteration is the process of transforming the text in one writing system (Source language) to another writing system (Target Language) without changing its pronunciation. Transliteration is a very good asset for machine translation. Machine translation cannot translate some of the text. Because, there could not be correspond translation word in the bilingual dictionary. Those words are called out of vocabulary words (OOV). To overcome this OOV problem transliteration came into being. The transliteration involves the process of converting the character sequence in the source language to target language on the basis of how the characters are pronounced in source language.

Transliteration needs knowledge of characters in source and target language. Since the pronunciation is the aim goal of transliteration it is difficult to give exact transliteration. Because, the pronunciation of single character of the source language can have multiple character in the target language as the transliteration is done by character wise. In transliteration so far we can give possible transliterations and yet it is the great challenge to the researchers to give exact transliteration in target language.

People try to use standardized trends when they transliterate so that transliterations are uniform, but this does not always happen. Muhammad, for example, is spelled in a variety of ways, including Mohammad and Mahomet. This can be confusing, as changes in transliteration change the way that a word sounds when it is spoken out loud. A good transliteration also employs accent markings to guide people, and it may have unusual combinations of letters in an attempt to convey unique sounds. Transliteration is not the same thing as translation, a process in which

words are made meaningful to speakers of other languages. Translation requires knowledge of languages, where transliteration is more about alphabets.

2. The Origin of the System

Advances information technology leads to the discovery of transliteration. Today transliteration plays a major role in all aspects of the society. There are a number of reasons to use transliteration, but most of them involve conveying information across cultures. Transliteration is needed in our day – to- day life. Even translation cannot be fulfilled without this translation. The translation of named entities cannot be possible in machine translation. In every writings named entities play a major role. So without named entities a text cannot be fulfilled. The named entities can be transliterated and cannot be translated. So the translation system also needs transliteration.

We can explain the use of transliteration using an example. For example when a Telugu man who don't know to read English going to restaurant, if he see menu card which is in English he can't order anything because of his lack of English reading knowledge. Suppose the menu card consists of Telugu transliteration of those menus he can order the food items without knowing what it is.

In literature also transliteration plays a role. When the translator translates the novels or stories they need transliteration in case names of persons and places. Transliteration is also used in language education, so that people can understand how words are pronounced without needing to learn the alphabet as well. Academic papers may also use transliteration to discuss words in various languages without forcing their readers to learn an assortment of alphabets.

In the Internet also the transliteration is applied. Usually the web news is all in English. When we need it in any other language the websites has the facility to display it in that particular language. In that translated web page out of vocabulary words are transliterated.

In the natural language processing applications such as machine translation, cross language information retrieval, question answering system etc., the transliteration is used.

Initially there is a technical motivation of building intelligent computer system such as Machine Translation (MT) systems, natural language (NL) interfaces to database, man-machine interfaces to computers in general, speech understanding system, text analysis and understanding systems, computer aided instruction systems, system that read and understand printed or hand written text. Second, there is a cognitive and linguistic motivation to gain a better insight into how humans communicate using natural language.

For development of any natural language processing system, there are several sources of knowledge that are used in decoding the information from an input. These can be classified as follows:-

- Language knowledge
 - (a) Grammar
 - (b) Lexicon
 - (c) Pragmatic and discourse. Etc.
- Background Knowledge

- (a) General world knowledge (including common sense knowledge)
- (b) Domain specific knowledge (includes specialized knowledge of the area about which communication is taking place)
- (c) Context (Verbal or non-verbal situation in which communication is to take place)
- (d) Cultural knowledge

From the various sources of knowledge mentioned above, a hearer (or a reader) can extract information conveyed from a given source (a speaker or writer).

3. The Methodology

In Grapheme-Based method, source words are transcribed to the target words based on grapheme units directly without making use of their phonetic representations. The grapheme based method is called direct method. The grapheme based technique is direct orthographical mapping from source graphemes to target graphemes.

The methods based on the source-channel model deal with English-Telugu transliteration. They use a chunk of graphemes that can correspond to a source phoneme. First, English words are segmented into a chunk of English graphemes. Next, all possible chunks of Telugu graphemes corresponding to the chunk of English graphemes are produced. Finally, the most relevant sequence of Telugu graphemes is identified by using the source-channel model. The advantage of this approach is that it considers a chunk of graphemes representing a phonetic property of the source language word. However, errors in the first step (segmenting the English words) propagate to the subsequent steps, making it difficult to produce correct transliterations in those steps. Moreover, there is high time complexity because all possible chunks of graphemes are generated in both languages. In the method based on a decision tree, decision trees that transform each source grapheme into target graphemes are learned and then directly applied to machine transliteration. The advantage of this approach is that it considers a wide range of contextual information, say, the left three and right three contexts.

Furthermore, they segment a chunk of graphemes and identify the most relevant sequence of target graphemes in one step. This means that errors are not propagated from one step to the next, as in the methods based on the source-channel model. The method based on the joint source-channel model simultaneously considers the source language and target language contexts (bigram and trigram) for machine transliteration. Its main advantage is the use of bilingual contexts.

3.1. The Algorithm

The present transliteration system is implemented using the algorithm narrated step wise as follows:

1. The input for this system is an xml file.
2. This xml file consists of only names in source language.
3. The xml file is read and the source names are extracted and stored in the array list.
4. Source names are retrieved from the array list one by one for the further process.
5. Then the source name is rewritten using rewriting Techniques.

6. The next step is segmentation
7. After segmentation the chunks retrieved from the array list where they are stored one by one for target grapheme retrieval
8. In the target grapheme collection process the source grapheme is compared with the database and all the relevant graphemes are collected and stored it in the array list
9. The target graphemes of first grapheme is stored in one array list and that target graphemes of other source graphemes are stored in one array list.
10. After generation of target names for the source names and it is stored in the xml file.

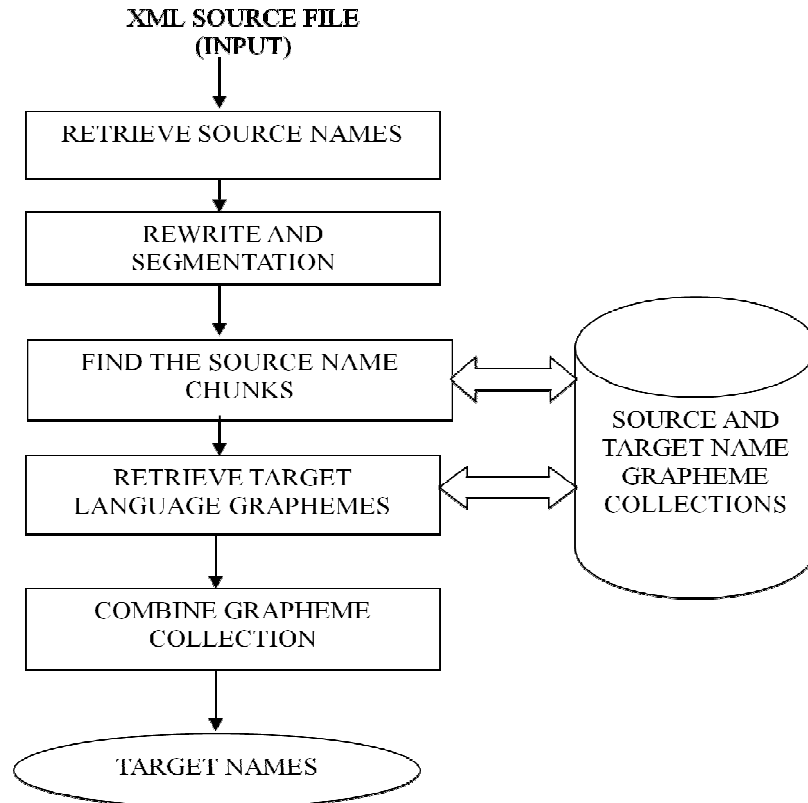


Figure 1: Block Diagram of the Machine Transliteration System

4. Implementation details

The System has been designed and implemented in java using swings for interface that takes various input queries from user and outputs the translated query in Telugu. The internal interaction and working of the system has been implemented using Java. The coding phase aims at translating the design of the system into code. The code has then been executed and tested. The goal is to implement the design in the best possible manner.

Rule-Based method

It requires analysis and representation of the meaning of source language texts and the generation of equivalent target language texts. Representation should be unambiguous lexically and structurally. There are two major approaches:

- The transfer approach in which translation process operates in three stage-analysis into abstract source language representations, transfer into abstract target language representations and generation or synthesis into target language text.
- The two stage 'interlingua' model where analysis into some language-neutral representation starts from this Interlingua representation.

Source Name Retrieval

The input for this system is an xml file. This xml file consists of only names in source language. The xml file is read and the source names are extracted and stored in the array list. Source names are retrieved from the array list one by one for the further process.

Rewrite and Segmentation

There are several rules and methods for rewriting and segmentation. Some of such rules are listed as follows:

- If the second index to the current index of the word is 'a' or 'e' or 'I' or 'o' or 'u' then it is considered as one segment.
- If the second index to the current index of the word is 'h' and the third index to the current index of the word is 'a' or 'e' or 'I' or 'o' or 'u' then it is considered as one segment.
- If the second and third index to the current index of the word is 'a' or 'e' or 'I' or 'o' or 'u' and it is same character i.e. 'aa', 'ee', 'oo' then is considered as one segment.
- If the second index to the current index of the word the word 'a', 'o' and the third index to the current index of word is 'e', 'u' then it is considered as one segment.
- If the second and third index to the current index of the word does not satisfy the above four conditions then the current index of the word is considered as one segment.
- After segmentation, the graphemes of source name (English) are compared with the database and target graphemes are collected.

After collecting target graphemes those graphemes merged to generate transliterations in target language (Telugu).

Source Name Chunks

This method was applied with the rule based algorithm. This algorithm is based on translating the linguistic rules into machine readable form. These rules are hand-crafted.

- The first step in the implementation is to rewrite the name.
- This step is used to reduce the unnecessary occurrence of 'h', repeated characters, and replace the characters having the same sound.

Retrieval of Target Language Graphemes

There are several handcrafted rules for rewriting process of named entities. They are:

- The next step in the algorithm is Segmentation.
- The segmentation is also done on the basis of handcrafted rules.

Segmentation is done with the rules as said before. In the segmentation process the names are segmented in to chunks using those rules and are stored in an array list. After segmentation the chunks retrieved from the array list where they are stored one by one for target grapheme retrieval. In the target grapheme collection process the source grapheme is compared with the database and all the relevant graphemes are collected and stored it in the array list. The target graphemes of first grapheme is stored in one array list and that target graphemes of other source graphemes are stored in one array list. The value of second array list is merged with first array list. The value of second array list changed dynamically. After generation of target names from the source names it will is stored in the xml file.

Conclusion

Based on the techniques and methods used to transliterate the named entities from English to Telugu language, we had found that for writing system comprises of the graphemes and phonemes that play major role in transliteration. The writing system for both the Tamil and Telugu languages is same and share common properties during transliteration system development. Thus application of Machine Learning would help in developing a common generator with different production algorithms based on the South Indian Languages like Kannada, Malayalam, Telugu and Tamil.

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Identification of Different Feature Sets for NER tagging using CRFs and its impact

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Abstract- This paper presents a study of the impact of different types of language modeling by selecting different feature matrices in the Conditional Random Fields (CRFs) learning algorithm for Named Entity tagging. We have come up with four different feature matrices and identified features at word, phrase and sentence level. It is identified that the language model which has the structural feature is better than the models with other features.

I. INTRODUCTION

In this paper, we present a study on how the performance of the Named Entity Recognition (NER) using Conditional Random Fields (CRFs) varies according to different features and feature matrices. Named Entity tagging is a labeling task. Given a text document, named entities such as Person names, Organization names, Location names, Product names are identified and tagged. Identification of named entities is important in several higher language technology systems such as information extraction, machine translation systems.

Named Entity Recognition was one of the tasks defined in MUC 6. Several techniques have been used for Named Entity tagging. A survey on Named Entity Recognition was done by David Nadaeu[6]. The techniques used include rule based technique by Krupka [9], using maximum entropy by Borthwick [4], using Hidden Markov Model by Bikel [3] and hybrid approaches such as rule based tagging for certain entities such as date, time, percentage and maximum entropy based approach for entities like location and organization [16]. There was also a bootstrapping approach using concept based seeds [14] and using maximum entropy markov model [7]. Alegria et al, [1], have developed NER for Basque, where NER was handled as classification task. In their study, they have used several classification techniques based on linguistic information and machine learning algorithms. They observe that different feature sets having linguistic information give better performance.

Lafferty [11] came up with Conditional Random Fields (CRFs), a probabilistic model for segmenting and labeling sequence data and showed it to be successful with POS tagging experiment. Sha and Pereira [17] used CRFs for shallow parsing tasks such as noun phrase chunking. McCallum and Li [12] did named entity tagging using CRFs, feature induction and web enhanced lexicons. CRFs based Named Entity tagging was done for Chinese by Wenliang Chen [21]. CRFs are widely used in biological and medical domain named entity tagging such as work by Settles [18] in

biomedical named entity recognition task and Klinger's [8] named entity tagging using a combination of CRFs. The Stanford NER software [10], uses linear chain CRFs in their NER engine. Here they identify three classes of NERs viz., Person, Organization and Location. Here they have used distributional similarity features in their engine, but this utilizes large amount of system memory. This paper discusses different feature sets used and their impacts in CRFs for NER.

The paper is further organized as follows. In Section 2 we have described our approach for identifying the suitable feature matrix. Section 3 presents the different experiments, results obtained and discussion on the performance of each experiment. Section 4 concludes the paper.

II. OUR APPROACH

In this work we have used a machine learning technique for identification of named entities. Here we did four different experiments by varying the feature matrix given to the training algorithm of the machine learning approach to study the performance and to choose the best feature set for identifying the named entities.

We have used Conditional Random Fields (CRFs) for the task of identifying the named entities. CRFs is undirected graphical model, where the conditional probabilities of the output are maximized for a given input sequence. CRFs is one of the techniques best suited for sequence labeling task. Hidden Markov Model (HMM), Maximum Entropy Markov Model (MEMM) and CRFs are well suited for sequence labeling task. MEMM and CRFs allows linguistic rules or conditions to be incorporated into machine learning algorithm. HMM [15] does not allow the words in the input sentence to show dependency among each other. MEMM [2] shows a label bias problem because of its stochastic state transition nature. CRFs, overcomes these problems and performs better than the other two.

A. Conditional Random Fields

CRFs make a first order Markov independence assumption and can be viewed as conditionally trained probabilistic finite state automata.

Now let $\mathcal{O}=(q_1, \dots, q_T)$ be some observed input data sequence, such as a sequence of words in a text document, (the values on T input nodes of the graphical model). Let S be a set of FSM states, each of which is associated with a

label, $l \in L$, (such as PERSON). Let $s = (s_1, \dots, s_T)$ be some sequence of states, (the values on T output nodes).

Linear-chain CRFs thus define the conditional probability of a state sequence given as follows

$$P_{\Lambda}(s|o) = \frac{1}{Z_o} \exp \left(\sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{k=1}^K \lambda_k f_k(s_{t-1}, s_t, o, t) \right),$$

where Z_o a normalization factor over all state sequences, $f_k(s_{t-1}, s_t, o, t)$ is an arbitrary feature function over its arguments, and λ_k (ranging from $-\infty$ to ∞) is a learned weight for each feature function. A feature function may, for example, be defined to have value 0 in most cases, and have value 1 if and only if s_{t-1} is state #1 (which may have label OTHER), and s_t is state #2 (which may have PERSON or PRODUCT or TITLE label), and the observation at position t in o is a proper noun or an adjective. Higher λ weights make their corresponding FSM transitions more likely, so the weight λ_k in the above example should be positive since the word appearing is any NE category (such as LOCATION or PRODUCT-COMPONENT) and it is likely to be the starting of a named entity.

We have used an open source toolkit for linear chain CRFs called as CRF++ [19].

B. Feature Matrix

The training of the CRFs requires iterative scaling techniques, where a quasi-Newton method such as L-BFGs is used. The input data for the task is processed with part-of-speech tagging (POS) and chunking. Part-of-Speech tagging is done using the Brill's Tagger [5] and text chunking is done using fn-TBL [13]. In the shallow processed text, named entities are manually annotated using a NE tagset, containing Person, Organization, Location, Facility, Product, Product Component, Output, and Output Quality as tags. This processed data is used as the training data.

The choice of features is as important as the choice of technique for obtaining a good Named Entity Recognizer [20]. The selection of the set of feature can improve the results. Here we have presented the NE annotated input in four different forms of feature matrix.

Type1

The complete sentence is represented in the feature matrix. Consider the sentence in the example 1.

(1) "I love point-and-shoots and have no desire at this point to get DSLR".

The feature matrix for this type 1 would be as shown below.

Feature Matrix of Type 1, for example 1

I	PRP	B-NP	B-PERSON
---	-----	------	----------

love	VBP	B-VP_act	o
point-and-shoots	NNS	B-NP	o
and	CC	o	o
.	.	.	.
.	.	.	.
get	VB	I-VP	o
DSLR	NN	B-NP	B-PRODUCT
.	.	o	o

Type 2

The feature matrix for the second type is built by taking only the Noun Phrases (NPs) from the training data. From the example 1, we obtain six sequences, because there are six noun phrases in this sentence. A sample of the feature matrix of type 2 is shown below.

Feature Matrix of Type 2, for example 1

I	PRP	B-NP	B-PERSON
point-and-shoots	NNS	B-NP	o
no	DT	B-NP	o
desire	NN	I-NP	o
this	DT	B-NP	o
desire	NN	I-NP	o
this	DT	B-NP	o
point	NN	I-NP	o
DSLR	NN	B-NP	B-PRODUCT

Type 3

Named Entities (NEs) with one preceding word and one following word, is considered from the processed input text to build the feature matrix for the third type. A window of size three is taken. Considering the example 1, we have two named entities, 'I', which has PERSON, NE tag and 'DSLR', having PRODUCT, NE tag. Here for this example we obtain two sequences in the feature matrix as shown below.

Feature Matrix of Type 3, for example 1

:	:	o	o
I	PRP	B-NP	B-PERSON
love	VBP	B-VP_act	o
get	VB	I-VP_act	o
DSLR	NN	B-NP	B-PRODUCT
,	,	o	o

Type 4

In this type, a window of size five is considered. NEs is taken along with two preceding and two following words. Here we provide more contextual information by increasing the size of the window to five. Considering the sentence in example 1, the feature matrix consists of two sequences, where each sequence has one more word added to the left and right of the NE, comparing to the feature matrix of type 3. The sample of feature matrix of type 4 is shown below.

Feature Matrix of Type 4, for example 1

```

camera NN    B-NP  I-TITLE
:         :    o    o
I        PRP   B-NP  B-PERSON
love    VBP   B-VP_act  o
point-and-shoots NNS  B-NP  o
to      TO    B-VP_act  o
get     VB    I-VP_act  o
DSLR    NN    B-NP  B-PRODUCT
,       ,    o    o
and     CC    o    o
    
```

C. Features of CRFs

The set of features used are word, phrase and structure level. The word level features are words or tokens that occur in the first column of the feature matrix. The word level features are current word, previous to previous word, previous word, next word, next to next word.

Phrase level features include words, POS tags and chunk or phrase information. Phrase level or chunk level features are

- (a) current word’s POS and chunk information,
- (b) current word’s POS,
- (c) previous word’s POS and next word’s POS.

The following are sample rules learnt by CRF from phrase level features

Rule P1:

```

-1 w1 DT
0 w2 NNP  PRODUCT
    
```

This rule describes if the previous word’s POS is determiner (DT) and current word has POS tag as ‘NNP’ then the current word is tagged as PRODUCT

Rule P2:

```

-1 w1 JJ    NP    OUTPUT-QUALITY
0 w2 NN    NP    OUTPUT-QUALITY
    
```

The above rule describes if the previous word’s POS is adjective (JJ) and current word’s POS is ‘NN’ then both current word and the previous word will be tagged as ‘OUTPUT-QUALITY’.

Structure level features includes features such as

- i) Current word given the Current word’s POS tag
- ii) and Previous word,
- iii) Current word given the previous word and its chunk information
- iv) Current word given the next word and its POS tag,
- v) Current word’s chunk information given previous word and its chunk information.
- vi) Current word’s POS tag given the previous word’s NE tag and the next word’s NE tag.

Here we consider these to be dependent on each other and find the conditional probabilities. The sample rules learned by CRF engine from the structural features are described below.

Rule S1:

```

-1 consumes  VP
0 w1        NP    OUTPUT-QUALITY
    
```

The above rule describes if the previous word is ‘consumes’ which is a verb phrase (VP) then the current word which is a noun phrase (NP) will be tagged as OUTPUT-QUALITY.

Rule S2:

```

-2 rate/rates/rated  VP
-1                   w1  NP    PROD-COMP
0                    w2  NP    OUTPUT-QUALITY
    
```

The above rule describes if the previous to previous word is ‘rate’ or ‘rates’ or ‘rated’, which is a VP and if the previous word is a NP having the NE tag as Product Component (PROD-COMP) then the current word which is a NP will be tagged as OUTPUT-QUALITY

Rule S3:

```

-2 w1        NP    PERSON
-1 purchased  VP
0 w2        NP    PRODUCT
    
```

If the previous to previous word is a NP with NE tag as PERSON and the previous word is ‘purchased’ which is a VP then the current word which is a NP will be tagged as PRODUCT.

Using the feature matrices built from input training sentences. The different language models are built by CRFs training algorithm.

Thus the language model LM1 is built from feature matrix of Type1. Here the model learns the structure of the complete sentence, both the structures, where NEs and non- NEs occur. The occurrence of non NEs is more. The language model LM2 is built by training the feature matrix formed by type 2. Here the NEs occurring inside the NPs are learned and rest are not seen by the CRF engine. Using the feature matrix built by type 3, which contains a sequence of window of size three, language model LM3 is formed. This has contextual information of the NEs. The language model LM4 is built using the feature matrix of type 4, which is formed using NE, with a window of size five.

We have performed four different experiments, to study how the performance of the named entity recognizer varies when different language models and different features are used. The experiments and their results are described in the following section.

III. EXPERIMENTS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The training data consists of 1000 documents describing user reviews on different electronic goods such as mobiles, camcorders, notebooks. These documents were obtained from

online trading websites such as Amazon, eBay. The training data consisted of 3107 unique NEs and the number of occurrence of NEs is 24345. The test data consists of similar type of documents. This consists of 456 non-unique NEs. This test data consisted of 94 NEs which were not in the training data. This constitutes 20.6% out-of-vocabulary words (OOV words). The test data consisted of 300 unique NEs. The 94 not seen NEs had no repetition, they were unique. Here we have performed CRFs training using the four different feature matrices to build different language models. In the first experiment, language model LM1, is built using CRFs by taking the full sentences in the training data as sequences. The LM1 is taken as the baseline language model. The second experiment, language model LM2 is built by taking the Noun Phrases (NPs) as sequences. In the third experiment, language model LM3 is built by taking NE, with a window of three. In the fourth experiment, language model LM4 is built by NE, with a window of five. The table 1 below, show the results obtained, by doing NE identification on test data using the four different language models.

As we observe the results, in the LM1 model, the learning algorithm learns many rules, from the training data, this makes an overfit, due to which false positives is more and hence the precision is less. In the LM2 model, even though the number of false positives is reduced, and the precision increases slightly, the recall does not increase significantly. In this model, the disambiguation of the NE tags is poor, the learning algorithm does not get any context information, since only NPs are presented to the learning algorithm during training. This does not handle the OOV words. In the LM3 model, we observe that the precision and recall increase significantly. Since in this model the NEs and the preceding and following words are presented to the learning algorithm during training, this gives contextual information, and this learns only the structure of the sentence, where NE can occur. This reduces the number of irrelevant rules, which confuses the learning algorithm. So we obtain better results compared to the first two models. In LM4, we introduce more contextual information to the feature matrix, by considering a window of size five. This helps in learning the structure of the sentence, where the NEs occur more precisely, which increases the recall. Since the feature matrix has the NE with a window of five, more relevant rules are learnt by the system. This reduces the false positives and increases the true positives. The precision increases. As in this model, the structure of sentence, where NE occurs, OOV words also identified. The recall in this model also increases. Hence we obtain a Precision of

96.4% and Recall of 90.1%. The F-measure for this LM4 model is 93.14%.

A. Role of Different Features in Learning

In the table 2 below, the results obtained on using different set of features while learning for the LM4 model are shown.

The word level features and chunk level features help in obtaining rules based on the syntactic information in sentence. The structural features help in learning the sentence structures, where the NEs can occur in a sentence. As this task of NE identification does not require learning of the complete structural information of the sentence.

As we observe in the table 2, when word level features alone are used, the precision is high, but not the recall, because, here the algorithm does not learn sentence structures, and is completely dependent on the words. Hence does not handle out-of-vocabulary (OOV) words. In practice, the real time data consists of OOV words. When we use chunk level features along with the word level features, it is observed that the precision decrease, but the recall increases significantly. This can be explained by the fact that, using chunk level feature, makes the learning algorithm to infer from the POS tags and chunk information, and not just the words alone.

When the structural features are used along with the word and chunk level features, we find that the recall increase significantly, without deteriorating the precision. When the structural features are used, the conditional probabilities calculated are considering the context of the NE, hence this creates a context based model, and makes the CRFs learn the sentence structure well. This in turn helps in handling the 60% of the OOV words.

In the table 3, we find that two NE classes Output and OutputQuality have less recall compared to other NE classes. The occurrence of the NE tags 'Product components', 'Output' and 'OutputQuality' are more ambiguous. For example Nokia N73 is a product NE and its feature such as wifi, 4 mega pixel. mp3 player are tagged as the 'Output' and in the case of a camera, 4 mega pixel is tagged as a Product component. This creates ambiguity, while building the training model. Also these NEs, does not occur enough number of times for the CRFs to learn well. This affects the recall. It was also observed that for the tags Product-Component and Output, the inter annotator agreement is low. This resulted in recall and precision to be lower for both these NE classes. This shows how the inter annotator agreement affects the performance of named entity recognizer.

TABLE I
RESULTS ON USING DIFFERENT LANGUAGE MODELS

Models	Total NEs	NEs Identified	NEs Identified correct	Precision (%)	Recall (%)	F-Measure (%)
LM1	456	388	348	89.7	76.3	82.46
LM2	456	397	362	91.2	79.3	84.83
LM3	456	402	375	93.3	82.2	87.39
LM4	456	426	411	96.4	90.1	93.14

TABLE II
ROLE OF DIFFERENT SET OF FEATURES

Features taken	Total NEs	NEs identified	Correct NEs	Precision (%)	Recall (%)	F-Measure (%)
Word Level	456	320	315	98.4	69.1	81.19
+Chunk level	456	380	352	92.6	77.2	84.20
+Structural Features	456	426	411	96.4	90.1	93.14

TABLE III
NE TAG WISE RESULT BY USING LM4 MODEL

NE Tag	Total NEs	NEs Identified	Correct NEs	Precision (%)	Recall (%)
Person	77	75	73	97.3	94.8
Product	122	115	111	96.5	90.9
Product Component	143	137	133	97.1	93.0
Output	54	48	45	93.7	83.3
Output Quality	60	51	49	96.1	81.7

IV. CONCLUSION

In this work we study the performance of the NE identification task using CRFs by building four different language models by varying the feature matrix constructed from the NE annotated and preprocessed input sentences. The language model, LM4, NEs with a window of five, performs the best of all four. We obtain an F-measure of 93.14%.

We have performed experiments to study the impact of various features on the performance of the NER. Here we have selected three different types of features, word level, chunk or phrase level and structural level. We identify that the best performance is obtained when all the three types of features are used together in learning. If only word level features are used, NER does not handle OOV words, when both chunk level and word level features are used, the learning algorithm does not learn the sentence structures effectively.

We also observe the how the inter annotator agreement plays a vital role in the performance of the NERs using CRFs. It is observed that when the inter annotator agreement is low, the training data consists of ambiguous tagging and this creates ambiguity for the learning algorithm. Hence the performance gets negatively affected.

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A Contrastive Analysis of Inflectional Affixes in English and Arabic

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A. R. Fatihi, Ph.D.

Abstract

This paper is an attempt to contribute to the field of Arabic-English comparative studies. It compares the two languages, English and Arabic, at the morphological level. The scope of the paper has been restricted to the comparison of the two systems of the inflectional affixes in English and Arabic.

A Brief Review of Contrastive Linguistics and Contrastive Analysis

Comparative Linguistics is one of the broad subdivisions of General Linguistics the second and third of which are Descriptive Linguistics and Historical Linguistics. In Comparative Linguistics, one may compare various stages in the development of a language or compare the history of two or more languages in order to find out a proto-language.

Contrastive Linguistics or Contrastive Analysis is a practice-oriented approach that is concerned with comparing two or more languages to explore the similarities and dissimilarities between them. Both Comparative Typological Linguistics and Contrastive Linguistics compare languages synchronically. So, Contrastive Linguistics is the synchronic comparison of two or more languages, but the diachronic comparison of two or more languages to find out a proto-language is Comparative or Historical Linguistics. Contrastive Linguistics is “only a predictive technique” (Verma and Krishnaswamy, 1989) by which we compare the structures of two or more languages to explore the similarities and dissimilarities

between them and thus we can “predict the difficulties the learner is likely to encounter” (Verma and Krishnaswamy, 1989).

Fisiak (1981) distinguishes two main types of contrastive linguistics:

- Theoretical contrastive linguistics which contributes in establishing linguistic universals and increasing detailed knowledge of particular languages. It seeks to systematically compare two or more languages with the aim of offering an exhaustive account of the differences and similarities between them, providing an adequate model for their comparison, and defining how and which elements are comparable.

- Applied contrastive linguistics which has aims related to language teaching and the development of teaching materials. Drawing on the findings of theoretical contrastive analysis and providing a framework for the comparisons, applied contrastive linguistics selects information pertinent to the purpose and presents it adequately.

Language comparison is of great interest in theoretical as well as applied perspectives. It reveals what is general and what is language specific.

James (1980) lists the following properties of contrastive linguistics:

- it is synchronic rather than diachronic;
- it is interlingual or cross-linguistic rather than intralingual;
- it involves two different languages rather than varieties of one language;
- it is unidirectional, taking one of the two languages as frame of reference; and
- it focuses on the differences rather than the similarities between languages.

Contrastive linguistics is not recent; its roots go back at least to last decade of the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth century but it has received its present name after 1941. Contrastive analysis was originally developed by Charles Fries (1945), expanded and clarified by Robert Lado (1957), and demonstrated by innumerable dissertations and, at its best, in a still widely used series of studies under the editorship of Charles Ferguson. Then, it was used extensively in the field of Second Language Acquisition in the 1960s and early 1970s as a method of explaining why some features of a Target Language were more difficult to acquire than others.

Contrastive linguistics' and 'contrastive analysis' are often used indiscriminately, but the former is the more general term and may be used to include developments from applied contrastive analysis. Contrastive Analysis has some pedagogical roles in prediction and diagnosis of errors made by the learners in the process of learning a second or foreign language. Contrastive analysis helps the teachers to know what to test and to what degree to test different items of the second language. It helps the course designers in selecting and grading the teaching materials.

In his book *Discovering Interlanguage*, L. Selinker (1992) identifies some models of contrastive analysis. He mentions 'a structural model' which concentrates on “the syntactic structures as the basis of the comparison between the languages compared” (Selinker, 1992), 'a functional model' which gives a great consideration to the comparison of the semantic and functional elements of linguistic systems after comparing forms of the languages being

compared, 'a pragmatic model' which deals with utterances and 'Semanto-grammatical model' which describes specific grammatical systems semantically, comparing them accordingly. He also mentions 'a transformational model', 'a diglossic model', 'an eclectic generative model', 'a cognate syntactic model', and 'an intonational model'.

There are two types of contrastive analysis. (i) Microlinguistic contrastive analysis is code-oriented in practice. It is concerned with three levels of language, namely, phonology, lexis and grammar. (ii) Macrolinguistic contrastive analysis tries to achieve a scientific understanding of how a group of people communicate. It describes linguistic events within their extralinguistic settings.

Contrastive analysis has relationships with other fields of applied linguistics. As Fisiak (1981) puts it; "drawing on the findings of theoretical contrastive studies [applied contrastive studies] provide a framework for the comparison of languages, selecting whatever information is necessary for a specific purpose, e.g. teaching, bilingual analysis, translation, etc" (Fisiak, 1981).

Contrastive analysis and error analysis deal with the errors of the L2 learner. Contrastive analysis tries to predict the areas of errors the L2 learner may commit and the areas of difficulties that the L2 learner may encounter in the process of learning L2. Error analysis is concerned with the description and analysis of errors made by second language learners. Each has a different emphasis: contrastive analysis is most concerned with language description (general or autonomous linguistics), and error analysis with language acquisition and learning (psycholinguistics).

Contrastive analysis also provides the research of bilingualism with certain views, assumptions, explanations of some phenomena, like creolisation and pidginisation of languages which may lead to better understanding of bilingualism. Contrastive analysis helps the translator and the L2 learner in avoiding errors and passing the difficulties and minimizing interference. By virtue of their object of study, the fields of contrastive analysis and translation studies share a great deal of common ground: they are interested in seeing how 'the same thing' can be said in other ways.

What is an affix?

Affix is an element (morpheme) added to a word, base or root to produce an inflected or derived form, such as '-s' added to *cat* to form *cats* and 're-' added to *read* to form *reread*. Affixes are traditionally divided into prefixes, which come before the form to which they are joined; suffixes, which come after it; and infixes, which are inserted within it.

Inflectional affixes Vs. Derivational affixes

The suffix '-s/-es' in the words *dogs*, *buses*, *stories* and *potatoes* is an inflectional morpheme. So, the inflectional morphemes like '-s/-es' are "productive across an entire category ... not all inflectional morphemes are productive across an entire category," (Napoli, 1996) because the plural morpheme '-s/-es' cannot be attached to some nouns like *deer*, *man*, *child* and *sheep*.

“Derivational morphemes can range from adding very little meaning to quite a bit of meaning, and the meaning they contribute is at least somewhat unstable ...Quite often inflectional morphemes add either a minimal or delicate sense distinction or a very specific sense that is invariable” (Napoli, 1996). The inflectional morpheme ‘-s’ in *dogs*, for example, adds plurality. So the specific sense that this inflectional morpheme can add is plurality.

Inflectional Affixes in English and Arabic

An inflection means a change in the form of a word according to the job it is doing. English is not highly inflected, especially compared to several European languages and Semitic like Arabic, but there are still many times when inflection is required.

1. Inflectional affixes in English

In English, inflectional affixes are only suffixes.

1.1. Inflectional suffixes in verbs

In English, there are regular verbs and irregular verbs. A regular verb is one whose forms are determined by rules and is thus predictable. If we take the three verbs *play*, *listen* and *open*, we find they behave alike when changes are required:

1. The suffix ‘-s’ is added to form the third person present singular, as in the sentences: “*He plays football*”, “*She listens to Arabic music*” and “*John opens the door*”.
2. The past participle and simple past tense are formed by adding ‘-ed’, as in the sentences: “*He played football*”, “*She listened to Arabic music*” and “*John opened the door*”.
3. The present participle is formed by adding ‘-ing’, as in the sentences: “*He is playing football*”, “*She is listening to Arabic music*” and “*John is opening the door*”.

1.2. Inflectional suffixes in the plural nouns

Most English nouns have a singular and a plural form. The ‘-s/-es’ in the nouns *books* and *boxes*, for example, is the inflectional suffix of the plural form.

There are many nouns that take zero suffixes in the plural form. In the sentences “*there is a fish in the water*” and “*there are fish in the water*”, the word *fish* in the first sentence is singular and it is plural in the second sentence.

There are some English nouns, like *John*, *London*, *music*, and *honesty*, that do not take a plural suffix, i.e. they are always singular.

1.3. Inflectional suffixes in the genitive of nouns

The inflectional suffix ‘-s’ can be added to nouns to form the genitive form as in the phrases *the man's car*, *the children's toys*, and *Jack's book*.

1.4. Inflectional suffixes in the adjectives

In English, there are also inflectional suffixes that attach to adjectives. These inflectional suffixes are the comparative ‘-er’ and the superlative ‘-est’ as in the sentences "He is shorter than his father", and "He is the shortest one in the family".

2. Inflectional affixes in Arabic

In Arabic inflectional affixes can be suffixes, prefixes or infixes. The type of account of Arabic morphology that is generally accepted by (computational) linguists is that proposed by McCarthy (1979, 1981). In his proposal, stems are formed by a derivational combination of a root morpheme and a vowel melody. McCarthy’s analysis differs from Harris’ (1941) in abstracting out or autosegmentalizing the vowels from the pattern and placing them on a separate tier of the analysis. Rules of association then match consonants and vowels to form the abstract stem.

Harris’ segmental analysis is shown below:

Root:	k t b	“notion of writing”
Pattern	<u> </u> a <u> </u> a <u> </u>	
Stem	katab	“wrote”

McCarthy autosegmentalizes the vowels from the pattern, as it is shown below:

Root Tier	k	t	b
Pattern Tier	C	V	C
Vocalization Tier		a	

2.1. Inflectional affixes in verbs

A fully inflected form of an Arabic verb may consist of prefixes, a stem and suffixes. Verbs in Arabic are formed from roots consisting of three or four letters (known as radical letters). From these roots, verbal stems are constructed using a number of canonical forms known as measures. Measures are sequences of consonants and vowels that represent word structure. “Verbs in Arabic are either trilateral (having three radical letters) or quadrilateral (having four letters)” (Soudi, A. et al, 2007).

Table (1) shows the inflectional affixes that can attach to the verbs in the past tense. The verb ‘كتب’ /katab/ (to write) that consists of three radical letters is taken as an example:

Table (1) Arabic inflectional suffixes in the past verbs

Person	Number	Masculine	Suffix	Feminine	Suffix
1 st	Singular	Katabtu	-tu	katabat	-at
	Dual	katabna:	-na:	katabna:	-na:
	Plural				

2 nd	Singular	Katabta	-ta	katabti	-ti
	Dual	katabuma:	-tuma:	katabtuma:	-tuma:
	Plural	Katabtum	-tum	katabuna	-tuna
3 rd	Singular	Kataba	-a	katabat	-(a)t
	Dual	kataba:	-a:	katabata:	-ata:
	Plural	Katabu	-u	katabna	-na

Table (2) shows the inflectional affixes that can attach to the verbs in the present form and the exceptions are not shown in the table because they are rare in Arabic language. Notice that the stem of the Arabic verb is changed in pronunciation or transliteration when it is affixed with affixes of present and imperative forms, as shown in Tables (2) and (3).

Table (2) Arabic inflectional affixes in the present verb

Person	Number	Masculine	Prefix	Suffix	Feminine	Prefix	Suffix
1 st	Singular	aktub	a-	-	aktub	a-	-
	Dual	naktub	na-	-	naktub	na-	-
	Plural						
2 nd	Singular	taktub	ta-	-	taktubi(:n)	ta-	-i(:n)
	Dual	taktuba:n	ta-	-a:n	taktuba:n	ta-	-a:n
	Plural	taktubu:n	ta-	-u:n	taktubna	ta-	-na
3 rd	Singular	yaktub	ya-	-	taktub	ta-	-
	Dual	yaktuba:n	ya-	-a:n	yaktuba:n	ya-	-a:n
	Plural	yaktubu:n	ya-	-u:n	yaktubna	ya-	-na

Table (3) shows the inflectional affixes that can attach to the verbs in the imperative form and the exceptions are not shown in the table because they are rare in Arabic language.

Table (3) Arabic inflectional affixes in the imperative form

Person	Number	Masculine	Prefix	Suffix	Feminine	Prefix	Suffix
2 nd	Singular	iktub	i-	-	iktubi	i-	-i
	Dual	iktuba:	i-	-a:	iktuba:	i-	-a:
	Plural	iktubu	i-	-u	iktubna	i-	-na

From the above tables we can notice the following:

- the prefixes determine the tense in the present and imperative forms
- there is no prefix in the past form of the verb
- the suffixes determine the number and the gender
- all present forms have prefixes.

Exceptional cases:

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Ghazwan Mohammed Saeed, Ph.D. Scholar and A. R. Fatihi, Ph.D.

A Contrastive Analysis of Inflectional Affixes in English and Arabic

- some past verbs can be prefixed but they are rare in Arabic;
- the imperative forms of some verbs cannot be prefixed but they are rare in Arabic
- when the verb comes before a noun subject, the suffixes '-a:', '-u', '-ata:' and '-na' that are attached to the past form in the case of the third person masculine dual, third person masculine plural, third person feminine dual and third person feminine plural, respectively, are changed into '-a' for the third person masculine dual and plural and '(a)t' for the third person feminine dual and plural; and
- when the verb comes before a noun subject, the suffixes '-a:n', '-u:n', '-a:n' and '-na' that are attached to the present form in the case of the third person masculine dual, third person masculine plural, third person feminine dual and third person feminine plural, respectively, are deleted.

The inflectional affixes in Arabic can be suffixes, prefixes or infixes. In Arabic the inflectional affixes of the verb determine the person, number, tense and gender. Arabic has three persons and three numbers (singular, dual and plural). Arabic makes a morphological distinction among singular, dual and plural on nouns, verbs, and adjectives, i.e. it has the singular, dual and plural distinction in the nouns, verbs and adjectives agreement. In Arabic there is the prefix 'ا' /i/ that determines the imperative form. In Arabic, there is no progressive tense; there is only simple tense, so that there is no affix that determines the progressive tense. In Arabic there are infixes; there is the infix 'ت' /t/ that can be inserted in some verbs as shown in the table (4). The verb 'حفل' /ḥafal/ (to celebrate) in the past tense will be taken as an example. The third person pronouns will be used as an example:

Table (4) Inflectional infix in Arabic

Person	Number	Masculine	Prefix	Infix	Suffix	Feminine	Prefix	Infix	Suffix
3 rd	Singular	aḥtafala	a-	-t-	-a	aḥtafalat	a-	-t-	-at
	Dual	aḥtafala:	a-	-t-	-a:	aḥtafalata:	a-	-t-	-ata:
	Plural	aḥtafalu	a-	-t-	-u	aḥtafalna	a-	-t-	na-

2.2. Inflectional affixes in nouns

In Arabic language, every noun has a gender (masculine or feminine) and the adjectives that modify the noun(s) will agree for gender as well as number and there is one exception. Arabic makes use much of gender than some European languages like English. There are three number categories for Arabic nouns (including adjectives); singular, dual, and plural. The plural is further divided into three subcategories: the regular masculine plural, the regular feminine plural, and the broken plural.

2.2.1. Inflectional affixes of gender

Some nouns can be changed from masculine into feminine nouns by adding the suffix 'ة' /ah/ (this suffix is pronounced /ah/ if the reader or speaker wants to stop/pause reading or speaking after the word that is attached with that suffix and it is pronounced /at/ if the reader or speaker continues reading or speaking). Here we will deal with this suffix as it is attached

to a separate word, i.e. to a word that is pronounced or read alone not in a combination of words. The following are some examples:

Table (5) Inflectional suffix of gender in singular nouns

Masculine	Feminine	Suffix	Gloss
talib	talibah	-ah	Student
modi:r	modi:rah	-ah	Manager

The suffix ‘-ah’ is the suffix of the feminine noun. Most feminine nouns in Arabic end in ‘-ah’, but this ‘-ah’ is not always a suffix; it can be a part of the basic feminine form. The noun *daʒaʒah* (hen), for example, is feminine and the ‘-ah’ is not a suffix and the masculine noun is *di:k* (cock).

So, it is not a rule that every masculine noun can be changed into feminine by adding the suffix ‘-ah’ and not every feminine noun can be changed into masculine noun by deleting the ‘-ah’. There are also some feminine nouns that do not end in ‘-ah’. The noun *bent* (a girl) is a feminine noun and it does not end in ‘-ah’.

Most of the nouns are either masculine or feminine in their nature (forms) not by their suffix, i.e. the gender in Arabic is arbitrary in most cases. In Arabic, there are also some nouns that are only masculine and refer to the jobs of men and cannot be changed into feminine. But in modern Arabic, those masculine nouns are used as masculine and feminine as they can refer to the jobs of men and women. And if we add the feminine suffix ‘-ah’ to the masculine form, we will create another word.

For example, the noun *taja:r* (pilot) is a masculine noun but it refers to someone (a man or a woman) whose job is flying an aircraft and if we add the suffix ‘-ah’ to it, we will create the new word *taja:rah* that means ‘an aircraft’.

There are also some nouns that are only feminine and cannot be changed into masculine. For example, the noun *samakah* (a fish) is only feminine and it cannot be changed into masculine. If we delete the ‘-ah’, it will become plural. So, we can say “*akalat al-samakah al- tʒa:m*” (the fish ate the food).

Also there are some nouns that are only masculine and refer to a man and cannot be changed to feminine or used to refer to a woman even in the modern Arabic. For example, the noun ‘*insa:n*’ (a human-being) is masculine and refers to a man and not to a woman. We can say; “*qa:baltu insa:n tawi:l*” (I met a tall human-being) and we cannot say; “**qa:baltu insa:n tawi:lah*” or “**qa:baltu insa:nah tawi:lah*”.

The adjectives that modify the nouns should agree with the gender. We say “*qaru:rah kabi:rah*” (a big bottle) and we cannot say; “**qaru:rah kabi:r*” because the noun *qaru:rah* is feminine, so the adjective *kabi:r* that modifies the noun should agree with the noun gender and should be feminine. Arabic has a suffix that determines the gender, but English does not have this characteristic. Even if there are some nouns that can be either masculine or feminine, they are still rare in English.

2.2.2. Inflectional affixes of dual and plural nouns

In Arabic, the dual can be formed by adding the suffix 'ان/ان' /a:n/ to the masculine singular noun and by adding '-a:n' to the feminine noun after changing the '-ah' into '-at' if the '-ah' is in the singular form of the feminine noun. But there is a difference between the suffix of the dual form when it is a subject and the suffix of the dual form when it is an object or after a preposition.

The plural in Arabic is further divided into three subcategories: the regular masculine plural, the regular feminine plural, and the broken plural. The regular masculine plural is formed by adding the suffix 'ون/ون' /u:n/ to the singular form when it is a subject and by adding the suffix 'ين/ين' /i:n/ to the singular if it is an object or after a preposition. In Arabic, the dual and plural noun, when it is a subject, has a different suffix from that of the dual and plural noun, when it is an object or after a preposition. But in English, the form of the plural noun is the same in both cases (subject and object).

In Arabic, the regular feminine plural is formed by adding the suffix 'ات/ات' /a:t/ to the singular form after deleting the feminine suffix '-ah' if it is in the singular form or if it is a part of the feminine singular noun. Unlike the suffix of the regular masculine plural, the suffix of the regular feminine plural is the same whether it is a subject or an object or after a preposition. Table (6) shows the suffix of the dual and plural forms. The nouns *mudaris* and *mudarisah* (teacher), masculine and feminine respectively, will be taken as an example.

Table (5) Inflectional suffixes of dual and plural nouns

Noun	Gender	Number	Suffixed noun	Suffix
Subject	Masculine	Dual	mudarisa:n	-a:n
		Plural	mudarisu:n	-u:n
	Feminine	Dual	Mudarisata:n	-a:n
		Plural	Mudarisa:t	-a:t
Object/after a preposition	Masculine	Dual	Mudarisein	-ein
		Plural	Mudarisi:n	-i:n
	Feminine	Dual	mudarisatein	-ein
		Plural	Mudarisa:t	-a:t

2.2.3. The broken plural

In Arabic there are a large number of broken plurals. Broken plural is formed by changing some letters in the spelling and pronunciation of the singular form. There is no specific rule for adding a particular affix(es) to form the broken plural. The broken plurals in Arabic are semi-arbitrary; they are not absolutely arbitrary because some of them have one of the patterns 'aCCa:C' or 'CaCa:Ca:C' (C stands for consonant) and some of them do not have any particular pattern. The following are examples of the broken plurals that have such patterns.

<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
- qalam	aqla:m (aCCa:C)	pen

- wazn	awza:n (aCCa:C)	measure
- na:fiḏah	nawa:fiḏ (CaCa:CaC)	window
- marwahah	mara:wih (CaCa:CaC)	fan

The following are examples of the broken plurals that do not have any particular pattern.

<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
- kalb	kila:b	dog
- ḥima:r	ḥami:r	donkey
- Šahn	Šohu:n	plate
- qaru:rah	qawa:ri:r	bottle
- rezl	arzul	leg

“The Arabic broken plural system is highly allomorphic” (Souidi, A. et al, 2007). Notice that the broken plurals are different from the irregular plurals because the spelling of the irregular plural is absolutely different from the spelling of its singular form. The noun 'imraʔah' (woman) is singular and 'nisa:' (women) is plural. The irregular plurals are very rare in Arabic.

2.4. Inflectional affixes of adjectives

(a) Affixes of Adjectives that modify nouns

In Arabic, adjectives that modify nouns will agree for gender as well as number of the nouns they modify.

In the sentence “qa:baltu Šahafi ṭawi:l” (I met a tall (male) journalist), the noun ‘Šahafi’ (journalist) is masculine and the adjective ‘ṭawi:l’ (tall) is masculine. But in the sentence “qa:baltu Šahafiah ṭawi:lah” (I met a tall (female) journalist), the noun ‘Šahafiah’ (a female journalist) is feminine and the adjective ‘ṭawi:lah’ (tall) is feminine.

So, the feminine suffix ‘-ah’ is attached to the noun ‘Šahafiah’ and to the adjective ‘ṭawi:lah’. Also if the noun the adjective modifies is singular, the adjective must be singular and if the noun is dual, the adjective must have dual affix(es) and if the noun is plural, the adjective must have plural affix(es). But there is one exception. If the noun is a feminine broken plural, the adjective that modifies must be feminine singular.

(b) Affixes of Comparative and Superlative adjectives

In Arabic, the prefix ‘l’ /a-/ is used as an affix of the comparative and superlative forms of the adjectives that are bi-syllabic. The comparative and superlative forms of the bi-syllabic adjectives are formed by adding the prefix ‘l’ /a-/ with some changes in the spelling and pronunciation of the adjectives. The following are some examples.

<u>Adjective</u>	<u>Comparative</u>	<u>Superlative</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
- kabi:r	akbar	al-akbar	big/large
- ḏaki	aḏka	al-aḏka	clever

The comparative form and the superlative form of the adjective affixed with the prefix ‘l’ /a-/ can be used to refer to both masculine and feminine.

The comparative and superlative forms of the adjectives that consist of more than two syllables are not affixed. Such adjectives can be changed into comparative forms and superlative forms by changing them into nouns and adding the words ‘akθar’ (more) and 'al-akθar’ (the most) before them respectively.

Conclusion and Findings

In this paper, a brief review of contrastive linguistics and contrastive analysis has been presented. The relationship between contrastive analysis and other fields of theoretical and applied linguistics – error analysis, translation, and bilingualism – was also presented. Inflectional affixes and derivational affixes were briefly discussed.

The inflectional affixes in English were discussed and it was found that there are many inflectional affixes in English; verbal inflectional suffixes, plural inflectional suffixes, the genitive suffixes and adjectival inflectional suffixes. Then, the inflectional affixes in Arabic were discussed. Inflectional affixes in Arabic are verbal affixes, nouns suffixes, and adjectival affixes. Table (6) shows the verbal affixes of both English and Arabic and table (7) shows the noun affixes of both English and Arabic.

Table (6) Verbal affixes in English and Arabic

Person	Number	Gender	Present Simple			Past and past participle		Present participle		Imperative			
			English Suffix	Arabic		English suffix	Arabic suffix	English Suffix	Arabic Affix	English Affix	Arabic		
				Prefix	Suffix						Prefix	Suffix	
1 st	S	M											
		F	-	a-	-	-ed	-tu	-ing	-	-	-	-	
	D	M											
		F	-	na-	-		-na		-	-	-	-	
	P	M											
		F	-			-ed		-ing					
2 nd	S	M		ta-	-		-ta		-	-	i-	-	
		F		ta-	-i(:n)		-ti		-	-	i-	-i	
	D	M		ta-	-a:n		-		-	-	i-	-a:	
		F		ta-	-a:n	-ed	-	tuma:	-ing	-	-	i-	-a:
	P	M		ta-	-u:n		-tum		-	-	i-	-u	
		F		ta-	-na		-tuna		-	-	i-	-ein	
	3 rd	S	M	-s	ya-	-	-ed	-a	-ing	-	-	-	-
			F	-s	ta-	-	-ed	-at	-ing	-	-	-	-
		M		ya-	-a:n		-a:		-	-	-	-	

	D	F		ya-	-a:n		-ata:		-	-	-	-
	P	M		ya-	-u:n	-ed	-u	-ing	-	-	-	-
		F	-	ya-	-na		-na		-	-	-	-

Abbreviations used in the table:

S: Singular D: Dual P: Plural M: Masculine F: Feminine

(Notice that the English inflectional suffix ‘-s’ of the third person singular of the present simple is also used for the non-personal ‘it’.)

Table (7); noun affixes in English and Arabic

Number	Gender	Subjective case		Objective case	
		English	Arabic	English	Arabic
Singular	Masculine	-	-	-	-
	Feminine		-		-
Dual	Masculine	-	-a:n	-	-ein
	Feminine		-a:n		-ein
Plural	Masculine	-s	-u:n	-s	-i:n
	Feminine		-a:t		-a:t

(Note: the noun affixes in English and Arabic are only suffixes)

(Notice that in the above table the plurals in Arabic are only the regular masculine and the regular feminine.)

In Arabic, the adjectives that modify the nouns behave as the nouns they modify. But in English, there is no affix attached to the adjectives that modify nouns. In Arabic, the suffix of the feminine noun is ‘-ah’ but there is no gender distinction in English.

The findings of the study and comparison of inflectional affixes in English and Arabic can be summarized as follows:

- In English the inflectional affixes can be suffixes only, whereas the inflectional affixes in Arabic can be suffixes, prefixes or infixes.
- In English the inflectional suffixes of the verb determine the person and tense and there are suffixes that determine the number in the case of the present simple tense and there are no suffixes that determine the gender, whereas in Arabic the inflectional affixes of the verb determine the person, number, tense and gender.
- In English there is no dual suffix, whereas in Arabic there are dual affixes.
- In English there is no gender suffix, whereas in Arabic there is.
- In English, there is no affix that determines the imperative form of the verb but in Arabic there is the prefix ‘l’ ‘i’ that determines the imperative form.
- In English, the suffix ‘-ing’ determines the progressive tense (form) but in Arabic there is no suffix that determines the progressive tense (form).
- In English there is a genitive suffix, whereas in Arabic there is no genitive suffix.

- There is a zero inflectional plural suffix in English but in Arabic there is no zero inflectional plural affix.
- In English the suffix of the subject plural form is the same of the suffix of the object plural form but in Arabic the subject plural/dual form is different from the object plural/dual form.
- It was found that the inflectional system of nouns of Arabic is more complex than that of English.
- In Arabic, the adjectival affixes agree for the gender and number of the nouns the adjectives modify, but in English there is no noun-adjective agreement.
- The inflectional affixes of the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives in English are suffixes and these suffixes do not make any essential change in the spelling of the adjectives, but in Arabic the only inflectional affix of the comparative and superlative forms is a prefix.
- The proper names, abstract names and some collective nouns cannot be changed into plural in both languages (English and Arabic). So, there are no inflectional affixes for such kind of nouns.
- In English and Arabic, the affixes of the nouns are always suffixes.

Depending on the findings of the comparison stated above, it can be concluded that the two systems of inflection in English and Arabic are different rather than similar and the system of inflection of English is structurally simpler than that of Arabic. And finally, pedagogically speaking, the Arabic learners will find it easy to learn the system of inflectional affixes of English. Moreover, no difficulties can be faced during learning English inflectional affixes.

Appendix

A list of phonetic symbols of the Arabic consonants

S. no.	Phonetic symbol	Arabic letter	Three-term label	Example
1	b	ب/ب	Voiced bilabial plosive	ba:b (door)
2	t	ت/ت	Voiceless denti-alveolar plosive	ti:n (fags)
3	d	د/د	Voiced denti-alveolar plosive	di:n (religion)
4	k	ك/ك	Voiceless velar plosive	kita:b (book)
5	ʒ	ج/ج	Voiced palate-alveolar affricate	daʒaʒah (hen)
6	q	ق/ق	Voiceless uvular plosive	qamar (moon)
7	l	ل/ل	Voiced alveolar lateral	la: (no)
8	m	م/م	Voiced bilabial nasal	matar (rain)
9	n	ن/ن	Voiced alveolar nasal	nu:r (light)
10	f	ف/ف	Voiceless labio-dental	fan (art)
11	θ	ث/ث	Voiceless inter-dental fricative	θalaθah (three)
12	ð	ذ/ذ	Voiced inter-dental fricative	ðamb (sin)
13	s	س/س	Voiceless alveolar fricative	su:q (market)
14	ʃ	ص/ص	Voiceless velarised alveolar fricative	ʃabah (morning)
15	z	ز/ز	Voiced alveolar fricative	ruz (rice)
16	ʃ	ش/ش	Voiceless palate-alveolar fricative	ʃams (sun)

17	x	خ/خ	Semi-Voiced uvular fricative	xubz (bread)
18	ɣ	غ/غ	Voiced uvular fricative	ɣuba:r (dust)
19	ħ	ح/ح	Voiceless pharyngeal fricative	ħima:r (donkey)
20	h	ه/ه/ه	Voiceless glottal fricative	hawa:& (air)
21	r	ر/ر	Voiced alveolar trill	rab (lord)
22	ʕ	ع/ع	Voiced pharyngeal frictionless continuant	ʕaql (mind)
23	j	ي/ي	Voiced palatal semi-vowel	jawu:m (day)
24	w	و/و	Voiced labio-velar semi-vowel	wa:hid (one)
25	t̪	ط	Voiceless velarised denti-alveolar plosive	t̪i:n (soil)
26	d̪	ض/ض	Voiced velarised denti-alveolar plosive	d̪aɕi:f (weak)
27	ð	ظ	Voiced velarised alveolar fricative	ðarf (envelope)
28	ʔ	أ	Voiceless epiglottal plosive	faʔr (rat)

A list of phonetic symbols of the Arabic vowels

s. no.	Phonetic symbol	Label	Example
1	i	Front unrounded vowel between close and half-close (short)	kita:b (book)
2	i:	Front close unrounded vowel (long)	di:n (religion)
3	a	Front open unrounded vowel (short)	qalam(pen)
4	a:	Front open unrounded vowel (long)	ba:b (door)
5	u	Back rounded vowel between close and half close (short)	ruz (rice)
6	u:	Back close rounded vowel (long)	su:q (market)

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Effects of Teaching Chemistry through Concept Formation Teaching Model on Students' Achievement

Aamna Saleem Khan, Ph.D. Scholar

Abstract

The study was aimed to investigate the effectiveness of concept formation teaching model over traditional method on Class IX students' achievement. It was an experimental study in which concept formation teaching model was compared with traditional method.

For experiment, sample size was 290. One hundred and forty three students in experimental groups and one hundred and forty seven students in the controlled groups were selected because the classes were taken "as is". Pre-test-Post-test Nonequivalent-Groups Design was used. Experimental groups were taught through concept formation teaching model and controlled groups were taught through traditional method for three months. Pre-test and post-test were administered to experimental and controlled groups at the beginning and end of the experiment. 31 lesson plans were made on the format of direct instruction from chapter No. 7 to 10 of Chemistry textbook for Class IX published by Punjab Textbook Board.

To determine the effects of teaching Chemistry through concept formation teaching model on achievement of Class IX students in the subject of Chemistry, the significance

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of difference between the mean achievement scores of experimental and controlled groups was tested at .05 level by applying t Test (Paired Samples Test). Data analysis reveals that the girls of experimental groups were better in pre-test at the beginning of the experiment than boys. The results of the study indicated that concept formation teaching model was more effective as compared to traditional method. Furthermore, concept formation teaching model appeared to be favorable for both boys and girls for the understanding of Chemistry concepts.

Key Words: Concept Formation Teaching Model, Traditional Method, Direct Instruction, Principles

1.1 Introduction

Teaching is not merely reduced to telling or transferring the subject matter to students; it is planning and guiding a student for maximum learning. Teaching is a dynamic and well-planned process whose objective is to acquire maximum learning outcomes. For this, a variety of teaching methods are present. A large number of methods are devised from time to time to make the teaching of science real and effective. However, if a teacher wants to produce desirable outcomes to improve the quality of instruction, appropriate teaching method that place more emphasis on thinking, understanding and learning should be used.

Drills, repetition, recall of memory, fixed curriculum, strict classroom discipline, formalized instructional patterns, recognition of facts, rote memorization for habit formation, reproduction of learned concepts and fixed standards to be achieved by all pupils are the criteria to assess the students after giving the logically organized subject matter. The process of compulsion, rigid control, formality, fear and tension are the bases of classroom activities. Generally preparation of adult life, mental discipline, transfer of training, acquiring knowledge for its sake, seeking truth and perfection, and habit formation is done by education.

To address the present situation of teaching, there is a need to explore such teaching methods which facilitates students' maximum learning. The responsibility of the teacher is to use students' time in an effective way and it is only possible when students' learning is based on thinking, understanding and learning. For maximum learning and personality development, proper stimulation, direction and guidance is necessary. The principle aim of teaching is the total growth and development of the child and this may be possible by are informality, freedom, encouragement on creative expression, life like situations in the classroom and provision of opportunities for developing initiative and curiosity among students.

This is the responsibility of science teachers to teach their subject as effectively as possible for achieving the pre-determined objectives of teaching science. One of the basic purposes of teaching Chemistry is to provide a base on which students to explore new

things and this is possible when they have clear concepts. The appropriate teaching method is a tool to clarify the concepts. A method is not merely a device used for transferring and communicating subject matter to students but it actually links the teachers and pupils in an organic relationship with the constant mutual interaction. The students' concepts may clear by applying good methods and bad methods may debase it. Good methods play a great role in the development of concepts.

Concepts can be thought of as information about objects, events and process that allows us to:

- a) differentiate various things or classes;
- b) know relationship between objects; and
- c) generate ideas about events, things and processes (Siddiqui, 1991).

1.1.2 Promoting Conceptual Change Cognitive Development and Science Learning

Nersessian (2008) stated that from childhood through adulthood, ordinary and scientific reasoning and representation processes lie on a continuum, because they originate in modes of learning which evolution has equipped the human child with for survival into adulthood. The cognitive activity of scientists is potentially quite relevant to learning. But again, there are quite difficult questions that need to be addressed in exploring and testing this hypothesis, such as how maturation might complicate learning. Further, in addition to the similarities, there are significant differences that need to be addressed. For example, in cognitive development, change seems just to happen but in education it requires explicit teaching and in science it requires explicit and active investigation. In the scientific case conceptual change is truly creative. Exploring the fundamental questions about the nature and processes of conceptual change in science, cognitive development and learning in a collaborative undertaking promises to yield richer, possibly unified accounts of this aspect of human cognition.

Promoting Conceptual Change

Zirbel (2008) said that if we wish the student go beyond the conceptual change, then we are requiring the student not only to willingly change his opinion but also to integrate the newly acquired knowledge into his neural thinking network to the degree that it can readily be used to construct further concepts upon that whole knowledge.

During the process of conceptual change what happens in the student's mind is a reorganization of his thoughts, the creation of new ideas and the rewiring of old ones. This process is difficult to provoke and requires the student to work hard at this. It is suggested that a good instructor can help with the process of conceptual change. But his task goes beyond clearly explaining the new theory; ideally he plays the role of a facilitator. He might confront the student with the problem (so that the student becomes

dissatisfied with his prior belief), prompt the student to not only to regurgitate the new theory but also explain it in his own words and provide further examples of where to apply the new theory. Throughout this process, a good instructor would also be understanding and supportive to the student and challenge the student at the right moment (Zirbel, 2008).

Concept Teaching

Conceptual change learning results in better conceptual understanding by the students. Consistent evaluation and clarification of conceptions helps students develop metaconceptual awareness; that is, they come to understand how they develop their beliefs. The unique features of conceptual change instruction are as follows.

1. Students make their conceptions explicit so that they become aware of their own ideas and thinking; and,
2. Students are constantly engaged in evaluating and revising their conceptions.

The goal of teaching for conceptual change is for students to adopt more fruitful conceptions while discarding the misconceptions they bring to the learning environment. Students are more likely to rid themselves of conceptions that they have evaluated than those that they have not examined at all (Davis, 2001).

Tennyson and Cocchiarella (1986) suggested a model for concept teaching that has three stages: establishing a connection in memory between the concept to be learned and existing knowledge; improving the formation of concepts in terms of relations; and facilitating the development of classification rules. The declarative and procedural aspects of cognition are acknowledged by this method.

1.1.3 Concept Formation

Concept formation is the process of integrating features to form ideas by the recognition that some objects or events belong together while others do not. Once the objects or events have been grouped according to a particular categorization scheme, a label is given to the group. The end result of concept formation activities is the connections among the common characteristics of a concept. (http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/docs/policy/ince/section_3.html#concept_formation)

The concept formation is based on stimulation, direction and guidance. In it, more emphasis is on thinking and less upon memorizing, more on understanding and less on merely accumulating facts and more on learning through genuine interest and less on learning through coercion (Edutechwiki, n.d.).

The concept formation is done through definition and word. Definition is a tool for specification and categorization of important characteristics of the concept and this is the basis of integration. It also specifies the method of differentiation, which means that everything is not encompassed by the concept. The word is a cognitive trigger for the concept by which the concept is stored and referenced later when there is a need. (http://www.solohq.com/Objectivism101/Epistemology_Fundamentals.shtm)

There are numerous approaches to form concepts but only one direct teaching approach has been selected for developing concept formation teaching model.

1.1.4 Direct Teaching and Concept Formation

“What” to teach (i.e., the design of the curriculum) and “how” to teach (i.e., specific teaching techniques) is the focusing are of direct teaching. Specifically, it gives the due weight age to teaching behaviors and organizational factors (i.e., the “how” to teach) (Gagnon and Maccini, 2007).

Direct instruction is a highly structured approach to teaching procedural skills, characterized by teacher modeling and student practice. Direct instruction is particularly effective for teaching procedural skills, which are forms of content that have three essential characteristics:

1. They have a specific set of identifiable operations or procedures;
2. They can be illustrated with a large and varied number of examples; and
3. They are developed through practice (Eggen and Kauchak, 1997).

According to Sadker and Sadker (2003), direct teaching emphasizes the importance of a structured lesson in which presentation of new information is followed by guided discovery, elaboration, inductive and deductive reasoning, experiential learning, student practice, weekly and monthly reviews, and teacher feedback. In it, the teacher acts as the strong leader and facilitator who structures the classroom and sequences subject matter to achieve the pre-determined goals.

1.1.5 Principles of Concept Formation

Use of Advance Organizer

An advance organizer is an introductory statement of a relationship to encompass all the information that will follow (Woolfolk, 1998).

The teachers can use advance organizers as a tool to convey large amount of meaningful material in an efficient manner. This is a bridge technique that utilizes the student’s prior knowledge to introduce a new concept. The strength of advance organizers is that they give a preview of what is to come. The big picture is presented before details are

explored. The student then has a “hook” upon which to hang new concepts. A structure is also established to show how ideas and concepts fit together (Phoenix, 2006).

Use of Guided Discovery

By this, students personalize the concepts under study; create an understanding that cannot be matched by other method of instruction. The teacher must guide the students toward the discovery by providing appropriate materials, conducive environment and allotting time for students to discover (Labush, 2005).

Use of Elaboration

Elaboration is the addition of meaning to new information through its connection with already existing knowledge (Woolfolk, 1998). It is a process whereby the learner expands upon the information given to them during a lecture, reading assignment etc. It is an act of empowerment, addition of extra material, refinement and expansion of previous knowledge. (<http://web.ics.purdue.edu/~rallrich/learn/elab.html>)

Use of Guided Practice

The guided practice is related to the teaching and overt behaviour in which student's first attempts with new learning are guided for accuracy and successful learning. Teachers must closely monitor the student performance during the instruction. Mistakes need to be corrected if seen by the teacher (Combs, 2008).

Use of Inductive Reasoning

Generalizations are drawn from particulars, principles are framed from observations and rules are made from instances or examples (Sharma, 1988).

Use of Deductive Reasoning

In deductive method, rules, principles and conclusions are applied to particular cases (Sharma, 1988).

Use of Experiential Learning

The experiential learning is based on the notion that understanding is not a fixed or unchangeable element of thought but is formed and re-formed through experiences (Fry, Ketteridge and Marshal, 2004).

1.1.6 Concept Formation Teaching Model

Researcher adopted direct teaching (Sadker and Sadker, 2003) for developing concept formation teaching model and extracted these steps by reviewing the literature.

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Effects of Teaching Chemistry through Concept Formation Teaching Model on Students' Achievement

Researcher modified direct teaching, principles of concept formation (Huitt, 2003), books and lesson plan format used in different schools, colleges and universities. The researcher has identified instructional objectives, previous knowledge, introduction, presentation, closure/conclusion, generalization, evaluation, management of classroom and home task in lesson planning for effective teaching:

1.2 Methodology

1.2.1 Sample for Experiment

A sample of 290 students of Class IX from three selected Government High Schools for Boys and Girls of Rawalpindi city studying Chemistry subject were selected for experiment. Out of 290 students of these three selected schools, 143 students of experimental groups were taught through concept formation teaching model and 147 students of control groups were taught through traditional method (Table I).

1.2.2 Design of the Study

“Pretest-Posttest Nonequivalent-Groups Design” was selected for study consisting of two groups: namely experimental group and control group. An achievement test was administered to experimental and control groups before and after teaching as pre-test and post-test respectively. The experimental and control groups were taught through concept formation teaching model and traditional method respectively.

The researcher repeated the experiment at the same time in three different schools of Rawalpindi city with the time difference of one hour to find out the effects of concept formation teaching model on Chemistry to Class IX.

1.2.3 Research Instruments

An achievement test was designed in the subject of Chemistry on the basis of Bloom’s Taxonomy of Educational Objectives for measuring the knowledge, understanding and application level. It contained 80 multiple-choice items from the content of chapter No. 7 to 10 of the Chemistry textbook for Class IX recommended by the Punjab Textbook Board.

In order to teach the experimental groups by concept formation teaching model, the lesson plans of chapter No. 7 to 10 of Chemistry textbook for Class IX of the Punjab Textbook Board were developed on the format of direct instruction. The lesson plans were checked and approved by the experts.

1.2.4 Analysis of Data

Mean, standard deviation and *t*-test (Paired Samples Test) were used for data analysis (Table II). Significance was tested at .05 level as the criterion for the rejection of null hypotheses. Predictive Analytics Software (PASW) was used for statistical analyses.

1.3 Discussion

This study supports the other research studies i.e. Unlu, 2000; Yavuz, 2005; Baser, 2006 and Salami, 2007. Their results showed that interaction between gender difference and treatment did not make a significant contribution in the variation of academic achievement. The findings of the present study also proved that there was no significant mean difference between male and female students with respect to understanding Chemistry concepts.

1.4 Conclusion

1. In experimental groups and control groups of all the three schools, girls showed better performance on pre-test than boys.
2. In experimental and control groups of all the three schools, boys and girls showed same performance on post-test.

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TABLE I**Sample for Experiment**

For conducting experiment			
Schools	Groups		
	Experimental Group	Control Group	
School I	53	55	
School II	48	50	
School III	42	42	
Total	143	147	290

TABLE II

Significance of difference between mean achievement scores of boys and girls on pre-test and post-test

Group	<i>t</i>	df
Boys and Girls (pre-test)	-4.42	288
Boys and Girls (post-test)	-.01	288

df=288

Table Value of $t = 1.97$

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Arabic-English Code-Switching among Arab Students at UUM, Malaysia

Loae Fakhri Ahmad Jdetawy, Ph.D. Candidate

Abstract

The main purpose of this study is to elaborate some aspects regarding the use of code-switching. The objectives of this study were to investigate, a) whether Arab students at Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM) code-switch to English in their daily conversations or not, b) why Arab students at UUM code switch to English, c) the relationship between familiarity with interlocutors and code-switching, and d) the type/s of code-switching used by Arab students at UUM.

This study was conducted on the 29th of September, 2007. It investigated 155 Arab students of different ages and nationalities who are enrolled at 3 levels of education, i.e., Bachelors, Masters, and Ph.D. at UUM.

The instrument used in this study was a questionnaire. The findings have shown that the majority of Arab students at UUM do code-switch to English in their daily conversations and that there is no relationship between familiarity with interlocutors and code-switching.

Another finding shows that tag switching is the most frequent type used by Arab students at UUM. Finally, the results show that the highest percent regarding the reasons Arab students at UUM code-switch to English was recorded for the lack of equivalents of many English words in Arabic.

Introduction

When speakers of different speech varieties interact, it will result in languages in contact. According to Hammers and Blanc (2000), languages in contact describe a situation where two or more codes are used in interactions between persons. Further, when two languages are in contact, it will lead to the notion of bilingualism which refers to:

the state of a linguistic community in which two languages are in contact with the result that two codes can be used in the same interaction and that a number of individuals are bilinguals (social bilingualism); but it also includes the concepts of bilinguality (or individual bilingualism). Bilinguality is the psychological state of an individual who has access to more than one linguistic code as a means of social communication; the degree of access will vary along a number of dimensions which are psychological, cognitive, psycholinguistic, social psychological, social, sociological, sociolinguistic, sociocultural and linguistic (Hammers, 1981 cited in Hammers and Blanc, 2000: 6).

The interest in language contact phenomena such as bilingualism and code-switching has increased during the last decades. The term 'language contact phenomena' was established to denote different types of language contact phenomena such as code-switching, code-mixing, and borrowings. The term also covers phenomena that are not counted as code-switching, for example, loans and interference (Jonsson, 2005).

The study of language contact focuses more on various types of language contact situations and various forms of bilingualism. However, the main issue in bilingualism research is code-switching, the alternative use of two or more languages in the same conversation by bilingual speakers (Lesley and Muysken, 1995).

Code-switching can be seen as a natural product of the bilinguals' interaction in two or more languages in multilingual and multicultural communities. Haugen (1956 cited in Romaine, 1995: 52) distinguishes between: "switching, the alternate use of two languages; interference, the overlapping of two languages, or application of two systems to the same item; and integration, the use of words or phrases from one language that have become so much a part of the other that it cannot be called either switching or overlapping."

Chung (2006) indicates that meeting the complex communicative demands requires the speakers of a community where two or more languages are used to switch from one language to another.

According to Haugen (1956), bilinguals tend to use or form sentences that have elements from both languages especially in the first stages of the language development. It is natural for a speaker who speaks two or more languages fluently to

switch between them occasionally or frequently when talking to other people who speak the same languages. It also seems that if a speaker spends a lot of time in a bilingual or multilingual environment, he/she will start to switch from one language to another.

The question of why a person who is competent in two or more languages code switch between these languages is one of the main questions which is investigated in sociolinguistic studies (e.g. Poplack, 1980; Reyes, 2004).

The aim of this exploratory study is to investigate the phenomenon of code-switching among Arab students at Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM). The study attempts to determine whether Arab students at UUM code switch to English and the reasons they code-switch to English in daily conversations. It also attempts to find out whether knowing the interlocutors would affect code-switching. Furthermore, the study aims to determine the type/s of code-switching used by the Arab students.

Problem Statement

Bilinguals are known for their ability to code-switch between the languages they speak during their conversations by substituting words or phrases from one language with words or phrases from another language. The phenomenon of code-switching is demonstrated in the conversations among Arabic bilingual speakers of English where they use hundreds of English loanwords and expressions.

Many studies have been conducted on code-switching (e.g. Bentahila and Davies, 1983, on Arabic/French bilinguals in Morocco; Backus, 1993, on Turkish/Dutch code-switching among Turkish immigrants in Tilburg, the Netherlands). However, few studies have been done on Arabic bilingual speakers of English. Thus, there is a lack of information about the way Arabic speakers of English code-switch between the two languages in daily conversations.

Previous studies on code-switching focused on the reasons why Arab bilinguals code switch to English (e.g. Othman, 2006; Hazaymeh, 2004; Dashti, 2007) in such settings as the home setting, and school setting, etc. Previous studies did not focus on the types of code-switching used by Arab bilinguals.

Not many studies have been conducted at the university setting to examine the phenomenon of code-switching among Arab bilinguals. Thus, this study will investigate code-switching in a university setting, i.e., UUM. The study will focus on the reasons why Arab students at UUM code-switch to English in their daily life. It will also investigate the types of code-switching used by Arab students at UUM.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study are:

1. To determine whether Arab students at UUM code-switch to English or not.

2. To determine the relationship between familiarity with interlocutors and code-switching.
3. To determine the reasons Arab students at UUM code-switch to English in their daily conversations.
4. To determine the types of code-switching used by Arab students at UUM.

Research Questions

The research questions of this study are:

1. Do Arab students at UUM code-switch to English?
2. Is there a relationship between familiarity with interlocutors and code-switching?
3. What are the reasons Arab students at UUM code-switch to English in their daily conversations?
4. What are the types of code-switching used by Arab students at UUM?

Significance of the Study

1. The findings of this study would be particularly significant for their potential in creating a better understanding of the code switching phenomenon among Arabic bilinguals.
2. The researcher, further, believes this study will make a modest contribution in bridging the gap of the noted lack of studies in the area of bilingualism, particularly in code-switching of Arabic bilinguals of English.
3. The findings would contribute to both L1 and ESL/EFL teachers' understanding of language use and communication among Arabs.
4. Finally, it is hoped that the findings of this study will contribute to second language acquisition research on the use of the second language. Hopefully, this study will contribute to the SLA literature on the issue of code-switching.

Definition of Concepts

Code-switching

The term *code-switching* is one of the most frequently used terms in the field of language contact. Grosjean (1982) defines code-switching as the alternate use of two or more languages in the same utterance, and this can be in a form of a single word, or a phrase, or a sentence/s. Spolsky (1998) defines code-switching as the phenomenon which occurs when bilinguals switch between two common languages they share in the middle of a conversation, and the switch takes place between or within sentences, involving phrases, words, or even parts of words.

In Skiba's (1997) definition, code-switching refers to the alternation between two languages or dialects in the conversations between people who share these particular languages and dialects. Skiba further adds that code-switching can take on multi forms including single word switches, phrase switches, and clause switches. Gumperz, (1982: 59) defines code-switching as “the juxtaposition within the same

speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems”.

There are many similarities among the definitions:

1. Code-switching is the alternate use of two or more languages.
2. Code-switching occurs between bilinguals.
3. Code-switching can be in a form of a single word, or a phrase, or a sentence/s.

Code-switching, in this research, is defined as the phenomenon in which bilinguals alternate words, phrases, and sentences between two or more common languages.

Bilingualism

The concept of bilingualism refers to "the state of a linguistic community in which two languages are in contact with the result that two codes can be used in the same interaction and that a number of individuals are bilinguals" (Hammers and Blanc, 2000: 6). Mohanty (1994: 13) defines the concept bilingualism through defining the bilingual person, who is the one with an ability to meet the communicative demands of him/herself and of the society by interacting with the other speakers in normal circumstances in two or more languages.

In defining the term bilingualism, the question of proficiency/ competence is often at the core of the discussion. Some linguists suggest that being bilingual is being able to speak two languages perfectly. For example, Bloomfield (1935: 56 cited in Jonsson 2005) defines bilingualism as "the native-like control of two languages". In contrast to this definition, McNamara, (1967 cited in Hammers and Blanc, 2000) proposes that a bilingual is anyone who possesses a minimal competence in one of the four language skills: listening, reading, speaking, and writing, in a language beside his/her mother tongue. A broader definition, on the other hand, makes clear that it is enough for the speakers to be able to "produce complete, meaningful utterances in the other language" to be called bilingual (Haugen, 1953: 7 cited in Jonsson 2005).

Literature Review

This chapter reviews the various literatures relevant to this study. It describes bilingualism and code-switching as well as discusses the findings of the previous studies that investigated the social motivations for code-switching and the types of code-switching.

Bilingualism

The literature on bilingualism provides evidence that proficient bilingual speakers employ code-switching in their speeches for different purposes and at different levels, such as discourse, sentence, and words. As a point to start the discussion, Weinreich (1953: 73) argues that "the ideal bilingual switches from one language to another according to appropriate changes in the speech situation (interlocutors, topics, etc.), but not in an unchanged speech situation and certainly not within a single sentence”.

Bloomfield (1933) defines bilingualism as having the control of two languages equivalent to the native and Haugen (1953:7) asserts that bilinguals are able to produce “complete meaningful utterances in the other language”. In discussing the effects of bilingualism on individuals, Haugen (1953) and Suleiman (1981) assert that bilingualism usually occurs within some particular social setting.

Bilingual speakers are different in terms of their degree of competence in their two languages, in the degree of cultural duality involved, in the linguistic relationship between the two speech varieties, and in the socio-cultural function of the two languages involved Mackey (1967 cited in Romaine 1995). Mackey argues that, since bilingualism is not a clear-cut phenomenon, any attempts to define bilingualism needs to suit the variations in degree, alternation, function, and interference.

The variation in degree of bilingualism concerns proficiency. "How well does the bilingual know each of the languages? Function focuses on the uses a bilingual speaker has for the languages, and the different roles they have in the individual's total repertoire. Alternation treats the extent to which the individual alternates between the languages. Interference has to do with the extent to which the individual manages to keep the languages separate, or whether they are fused" (Mackey, 1967 cited in Romaine 1995: 21).

Mackey (1968) contends that bilingualism is entirely relative because the point at which the speaker of a SL becomes bilingual is either arbitrary or inconceivable to determine. Mackey, therefore, considers bilingualism as the alternate use of two or more languages, which may include multilingualism. Haugen (1953 cited in Romaine 1995: 11) argues that "bilingualism begins when the speaker of one language can produce complete meaningful utterances in the other language."

Bilingualism among Arabs

There are many Arabs who live outside Arabic native countries. Those Arabs are mostly bilinguals, but their language choice varies from the first generation who came to those countries at an early age after they acquired the preliminary basics of Arabic, and the second generation who were born outside Arabic native countries and did not acquire the Arabic basics. This reflects to some extent the status of Arabic maintenance/shift as a minority language in the immigrant Arabs situation in these nonnative countries (Othman, 2006).

Among Arab Immigrants in England

Othman (2006) investigated the language choice among first generation Arabic-English bilinguals in Manchester city in Britain i.e. the Arabic bilinguals' choice which represents the status of Arabic maintenance/shift as a minority language in Manchester.

Othman's questionnaire survey of 16 families originally from different Arab countries, including Egypt, Libya, Jordan, and Syria, show signs of Arabic maintenance in the

informant families. Code-switching was observed in the informants' speech in settings such as home, friendship, work, and university.

The study found that code-switching is used among the informants as a strategy in communication. However, "the motivations for switching in the informants' speech are restricted to a specific set, e.g., activating association with other domains, reporting speech, reiterating, accommodating to the addressee, being used to saying certain words in English, etc" (ibid: 68). Finally, within these motivations, the informants rely on Arabic, which means that "Arabic is functional in their life, which reflects Arabic maintenance" (ibid: 69).

In Jordan

The phenomenon of bilingualism in Jordan is represented by the use of hundreds of English loanwords and expressions (Hazaymeh, 2004; Kailani, 1994). "Loanwords are relevant to bilingualism, in that the original transfer is usually effected by someone who knows the donor as well as the receiving language" Adams (2003: 29).

Since many Jordanians are bilingual in English, they prefer to code switch towards English in domains such as work and education. Hazaymeh also contends that recent cultural contacts with the English-speaking countries have introduced many aspects of English culture and English loanwords into Arabic in the Jordanian society. Cultural contacts have been established by various means such as education, technology, trade, sports, media, and communications.

Thus, many Jordanians have been encouraged to learn English and become bilinguals. Hazaymeh also found that Jordanians of different social backgrounds and ages like to code switch to English, using English words and expressions in their daily interactions because of many reasons, for example as a sign of knowing English and as a symbol of social prestige.

Among Palestinians

Smooha (1989) has observed language contact among Palestinians who dwell together with the Jewish people in the same society. They are known as *Israeli Palestinian Arabs*. According to Smooha, the Palestinians in Israel are undergoing a process of developing Arabic-Hebrew bilingualism as Arabic is being influenced by Hebrew, which is the dominant language. As a result, code-switching to Hebrew is found in the speech of Israeli Palestinian Arabs.

In Kuwait

In Kuwait, bilingualism is reflected by the fact that although English is considered as a foreign language, English has played a significant role in the country and its use is spreading in various social settings (Dashti, 2007). Dashti contends that Kuwaitis tend to employ English/Kuwaiti Arabic code-switching when speaking to different interlocutors and in different interactions. For example, Kuwaiti mothers and their

children employ English/Kuwait Arabic code-switching both in and outside the home settings as one strategy of language choice.

This is only one indication that the use of English is not confined to the four walls of the classroom environment in Kuwait. Dashti analyzed the code-switching patterns used by Kuwaitis and illustrated how these patterns may be influenced by the type of interlocutors and the kind of interaction that takes place, since code-switching is used as a language choice strategy to ensure successful communication between the interlocutors.

In United Arab Emirates

The English language has also established itself in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) as a language of communication in both academic and nonacademic contexts even though Arabic is the mother tongue and the official language of the UAE. Due to the huge presence of expatriates, the domination of English in the UAE, and the presence of many other foreign languages such as the languages of the Indian, Pakistani, Chinese and the Filipinos have led to many communicative problems, thus producing misunderstanding and the violation of conventional communication rules. The blending of ethnics has resulted in a rather strange multilingual code switching practiced in the country (Khuwaileh, 2002).

Code-switching

One of the phenomena within the field of bilingualism is code-switching, in which bilingual speakers perform switching from one language to another during the conversation. Researchers have focused on many aspects of this phenomenon, such as the different types of code-switching, and the reasons bilingual speakers code-switch using different language/s (Malmkjær, 1991).

How does it happen, for example, that among bilinguals, the ancestral language will be used on one occasion and English on another and that on certain occasions bilinguals will alternate, without apparent cause, from one language to another? George Barker (1947:185-86).

Study of Code-switching

Code-switching was introduced in the literature of bilingualism when Espinosa (1917) wrote about the speech mixture in New Mexico, particularly about the influence of the English language on New Mexican Spanish (Macías and Quintero, 1992). Since then, the research in the area of bilingualism has started to investigate different aspects of code-switching.

The studies conducted have focused on the social functions of code-switching (e.g. McClure & Wentz, 1975; Poplack, 1981 cited in Macías and Quintero, 1992); on the role of code-switching in young children developing their bilingualism (e.g. Huerta,

1980; Genishi, 1981; Fantini, 1985 cited in Macías and Quintero, 1992); on the use of code-switching in classrooms among bilingual students (e.g. Hudelson, 1983; Olmedo-Williams, 1983; Aguirre, 1988 cited in Macías and Quintero, 1992).

Focus on the Reasons for Code-switching

For decades, code-switching researchers have continued to find a sound reasoning for code-switching. Some scholars like Gumperz (1982) and Auer (1984) have considered code-switching as one of a number of discourse cues (both verbal and nonverbal) that help signal and interpret interlocutors' intentions. Whereas the focus of other scholars, like Poplack (1980, 1981), Bentahila and Davies (1983) and Nishimura (1989) was to characterize the morpho-syntactical constraints in inter-sentential switching focusing on the position or location in a sentence where code-switching would be allowed.

In the 1990s, the focus was on the social motivations for code-switching and the differences in the structural characteristics of code-switching due to the social or psycholinguistics characteristics of different groups in the community (e.g. Wei, 1994, on code-switching patterns of Cantonese-speaking Chinese immigrants in Tyneside in Britain), or the interaction between bilinguals proficiency and attitudes (e.g. Bentahila & Davies, 1992, on Arabic/French bilinguals in Morocco) (Coulmas, 1997: 219-220).

Recent Studies on Code-switching

More recent studies continue to focus on the social motivations of code-switching (e.g. Lipski, 2005; Ncoko et al., 2000; Wong, 2000; Othman, 2006) and what functions it serves in the conversation (e.g. Reyes, 2004; Don, 2003; Al-Khatib, 2003). This study is an attempt to investigate the reasons Arab students at UUM code-switch to English in their daily conversations.

Types of Code-switching

Three types of code-switching have been identified (Poplack, 1980: 581-616):

- Tag switching – where tag parts of sentences occur in a different variety from the main part of the sentence;
- Inter-sentential switching – where a code switch occurs at a sentence or clause boundary;
- Intra-sentential switching – where a code switch occurs within a single sentence.

1. Tag Switching

Tag-switching involves the insertion of a word or phrasal tag in one language into an utterance in another language. Tags are used as they bring about the least fear in the

speaker since the use is only subjected to a minimal syntactic adjustment (Poplack, 1980).

Example 1. Finnish/English tag switching: (The tag here is English)
Mutta en mä viittinyt, no way.
'But I'm not bothered, no way!'

Example 2. English/Serbian tag-switching: (The tag here is Serbian *znas#* for 'you know')
So he asked me for money, *znas#*, and I had to say no, *znas#*.

2. Inter-sentential switching

Inter-sentential switch occurs between sentences at the sentence boundaries, which serves to emphasize a particular point uttered in the other language. The switch helps to indicate to whom the speech is addressed and provides a direct quote from another conversation (Poplack, 1980). Inter-sentential switching that can even occur between speaker turns requires the speakers' greater fluency in both languages since a larger portion of the utterance must conform to the linguistics rules of both languages as compared to the minimal adjustment needed in tag-switching.

Example: French/English inter-sentential code-switching
Y luego me dijo "don't worry about it."
And then he told me "**don't worry about it.**"

Example: Inter-sentential switching between English/Spanish.
Sometimes I'll start a sentence in y terminó in español.
Sometimes I'll start a sentence in **English and finish it in Spanish.**

3. Intra-sentential switching

The type of code switching with the greatest syntactic risk is intra-sentential switching, which happens at the clause, phrase level, or at word level, specifically in the middle of a sentence, with no interruptions, hesitations, or pauses indicating a shift if no morpho-phonological adaptation occurs (Poplack, 1980). Here, switching of different types occurs within the clause or sentence boundary.

Example : Tok Pisin/English intra-sentential code-switching
What's so funny? Come, be good. Otherwise, yu bai go long kot. –
'What's so funny? Come, be good. Otherwise, you'll go to court.'

It may also include mixing within word boundaries, for example, English words used in India with Panjabi inflectional morphology. e.g. *shppa~* 'shops.' This type of code-switching happens within a single sentence or even a single phrase.

Example: English/Greek intra-sentential code-switching
You have to find a *kalo pedi* and marry him.
You have to find a good guy and marry him.

Example: Spanish/English intra-sentential code-switching
*Abelardo tiene los **movie tickets**.*
Abelardo has the movie tickets.

In his study about language choice among first generation Arabic-English bilinguals in Manchester city in Britain, Othman (2006) contends that among the first generation, two types of intra-sentential code-switching were observed.

The first type includes the insertion of lexical items or entire constituents from Arabic into the structure English, which is the most common type. Such insertion of Arabic items in the English discourse reflects Arabic maintenance since it indicates that the informants are more proficient in Arabic than in English and that is true because they are recent immigrants.

The second type includes the insertion of English lexical items or constituents in the Arabic utterance. This type is the most frequent since it does not require much proficiency in English.

Methodology

Samples

One hundred and fifty-five Arab students, 51 males and 4 females, were chosen through random sampling, using a list of all Arab students' names obtained from the Postgraduate Programme Department (PPS). The sample included Arab students of different ages and nationalities, i.e. 6 Iraqis, 53 Jordanians, 61 Libyans, 20 Palestinians, 2 Syrians, and 13 Yemenis, who are enrolled at 3 levels of education, i.e., Bachelors, Masters, and Ph.D. at Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM).

The students were Arab bilinguals of English; they speak Arabic as their mother tongue, including any of its varieties, and English as a second language. They are enrolled in different programmes at UUM.

A total of 180 questionnaires were distributed of which 162 were returned; the return rate was 90%. However, only 155 of them were analyzed. The actual sample, i.e. 155, represents 57.62% of the total population, i.e. 269. The sampling size is close to Sekaran's (2003) sampling guide of 159 respondents for a population of 270.

Instrumentation

The literature reviewed shows that researchers employed different kinds of instruments for their studies on code-switching. The instrument developed to collect the data for this study is a questionnaire. The questionnaire was developed based on the findings of previous studies such as Ayeomoni (2006), Hazaymeh (2004), Skiba (1987), and Sert (2005).

Conclusion

It has been recognized in the literature of code-switching that this phenomenon is universal in the multilingual communities; however, the reasons for this phenomenon vary between communities. Code-switching has been observed in the daily conversations of Arab students at UUM. Those students are bilingual and they prefer to code switch towards English in their speech. This study has found that the majority of Arab students at UUM do code-switch to English in their daily conversations. It has also been found that there is no relationship between familiarity with interlocutors and code-switching. Further findings show that tag switching is the most frequent type used by Arab students at UUM followed by intra-sentential switching and inter-sentential switching.

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Comparison of PMLU in Kannada speaking Down's syndrome and Typically Developing Children

Archana .G. MASLP, Sunila John, MASLP

Veena K. D. Ph.D, Supriya Mohite, BASLP Candidate and

B. Rajashekhar, Ph.D.

Abstract

Phonological Mean Length of Utterance, (PMLU) is a whole word measure for determining phonological proficiency and is one of the new tools for quantifying development of word forms in both normal and clinical population. Even though PMLU measures phonological proficiency, its utility in clinical populations like Down's syndrome is not clearly understood. Since there is a scarcity of information on PMLU measures, the present study focuses on comparing PMLU scores in Kannada speaking Down's syndrome and language age matched normal children.

Two groups of Kannada speaking children were included in the study: Group1 composed of normal children (n = 60 and chronological age of 3-4 years) matching the language age of group 2. Group 2 comprised of children with Down's syndrome (n = 35 and chronological age of 6-15 years) with mild to moderate mental retardation and expressive language age of 3-4 years. Picture naming task using Kannada Articulation test was done and 25 words were randomly selected for PMLU analysis. Samples were recorded using digital professional voice recorder and the children's utterances were calculated for PMLU measures.

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Obtained scores were analysed using SPSS 16.0 version by Independent t- test with p value kept at 0.05. The results revealed statistically significant difference in PMLU scores between Down's syndrome population and typically developing children. These reduced scores are indicative of poor whole word complexity in children with Down's syndrome. Findings of the study indicate that PMLU measure could be a benchmark in assessing the phonological skills in disordered population.

Keywords: *Phonology, PMLU, Down's syndrome*

Introduction

The evaluation of children's phonological skills has been an area of interest for both researchers and clinicians. The area of understanding the phonological development has now shifted from describing sound inventory to detailed analysis of children's production in terms of phonological processes, error patterns.

According to Stoel-Gammon and Stone, 1991 (cited in Saaristo-Helin, 2009) a thorough phonological assessment of young children always makes use of both independent and relational analyses, since it is well known that substantial variation is present in their productions. Phonological skills can be analyzed by using both qualitative and quantitative measures. However, in clinical practice, a simple and practical method is being sought as a reliable assessment tool of a child's phonological skills. So far, the methods of analyzing children's early phonological skills have made extensive use of formal articulation tests, and the focus has been on segments and measures of correctness. Only, recently researchers have begun to believe that word is the basic unit of analysis (Ingram & Ingram, 2001) and focussed on the whole word correctness during a single production of a given word (Bankson & Bernthal, 1990).

Ingram and Ingram (2001) have introduced a new method of evaluating children's words: the Phonological Mean Length of Utterance (PMLU). This measure utilizes spontaneous speech samples and draws attention from the segments to the word as a whole. The central assessment tool of the PMLU method measures whole-word complexity for both child and target words. Words are assigned points for both segments in the word (one point per segment) and the number of correct consonants in the word (one point per correct consonant).

A few studies have been reported on word complexity measures. Ingram and Ingram (2001) proposed five stages of PMLU which range from I-V reflecting the possible level of development in English speaking children. Saaristo-Helin, Makkonen and Kunnari (2006) while studying the phonological development of 17 children acquiring Finnish, found relatively high PMLU values for the Finnish children at earlier stages of phonological development as compared to children acquiring English. They further reported that there is an immense need for more language-specific research in order to develop the PMLU method suitable for clinical use in various language environment. A recent study done by Hase, Ingram and Buntam (2010) compared two phonological assessment tools for use with 27 one-

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three year-old monolingual Spanish-speaking children on the complexity of children's production and reported difference in age.

PMLU measures have also been studied among the Indian population. The study by Radish and Jayashree (2009) in 400 Kannada speaking normal children of age 3 to 7 years revealed a developmental trend in PMLU acquisition with effect on gender. They further reported that Kannada speaking children are superior to English speaking children ascribing the fact that the phonologies of some languages are acquired earlier than others and also differences in the syllable structure and word shape of the different languages (Saaristo-Helin, et al, 2006). Similar research done in the disordered population has reported of lower PMLU scores in children with Specific Language Impairment, very-low-birth weight as well as in children with cochlear implants in comparison with age matched typically developing peers (Van Noort-Van Der Spek, Franken, Wieringa & Weisglas-Kuperus, 2010, Polite & Leonard, 2006; Schauwers, Taelman, Gillis & Govier, 2005).

Even though PMLU, a whole word measure proposed to measure the complexity of word attempted by children of different ages has been studied in typically developing, limited research has focused on clinical population like Down's syndrome. Down's syndrome (DS) is a genetic disorder in which there is a trisomy of 21st chromosome, which occurs in 1 in 800 births. There is considerable variability in cognitive skills in this population from close to normal intelligence to severely retarded.

The speech of children with Down's syndrome is often difficult to understand. Speech errors are common among children with Down's syndrome, with characteristic delay compared to other typically developing normal children. Down's syndrome exhibits a large number of phonological processes compared to any other phonological disordered population. Since there is a scarcity of information on PMLU measures, the present study focused on comparing PMLU scores in Kannada speaking Down's syndrome and language age matched normal children, on the premise that this information can serve as a baseline for assessment of phonological development in clinical populations and form the basis of a developmental scale in phonology.

The present study, thus aimed at comparing the PMLU scores in Kannada speaking Down's syndrome and language age matched normal children. The objectives of the study were to explore the PMLU in typically developing Kannada speaking normal children as well as Down's syndrome children and to compare the phonological mean length of utterance (PMLU) scores across these two groups.

Material and Methods

Two groups of Kannada speaking children were included in the study: Group 1 composed of normal children (n = 60), who passed the checklist for normal hearing, speech, language, social and cognitive development (chronological age 3-4 year) which matched the language age of Group 2. Group 2 comprised of children with Down's syndrome (n = 35), of chronological age 6-15 years with mild to moderate mental retardation and Expressive

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Language Age of 3-4 year (as per Assessment of Language Development by Lakkhana, Venkatesh & Bhat, 2008) were selected for the study. Children exhibiting associated problems (co- morbid disorder & sensory problems) were excluded from the study.

Kannada Articulation Test (Babu, Ratna & Betagiri, 1972) was administered. Picture naming task was considered for eliciting the response and the samples were recorded using a digital professional voice recorder (Sony Digital Editor 2.4, ID-P series). This data was collected as a part of the Master's dissertation (Archana, 2010) on phonological development in children with Down's syndrome, wherein, children were administered picture naming task of 108 stimulus words. From the 108 words, 25 words were selected randomly from each sample for the PMLU analysis.

Analysis

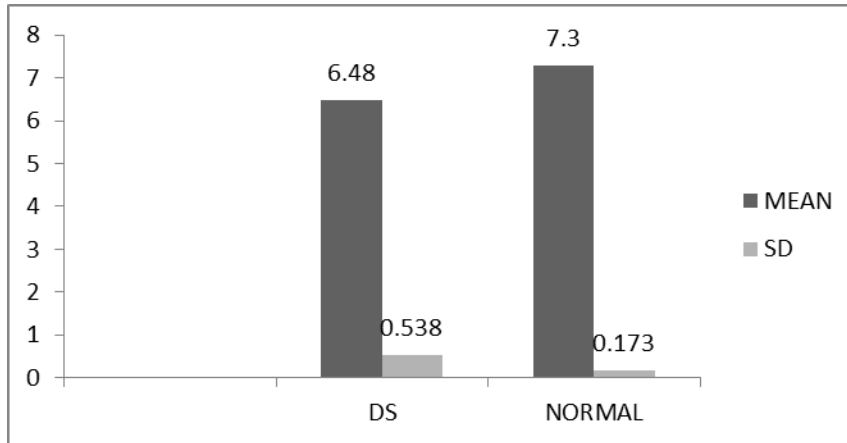
Children's production of utterance was narrow transcribed and the PMLU calculated (as per Ingram's rules, 2001) for each child. For each word, the number of segments (consonant and vowel) as produced by the child was counted and summed with the number of correct consonants in a word. The sum of each word in all the utterances of a single subject was summed and divided by the number of words produced by the child to obtain the PMLU. Obtained scores were analysed using SPSS 16.0 version and Independent t- test was applied on the data with p value kept at 0.05.

Results

The objectives of the present study were to obtain phonological mean length of utterance scores in Down's syndrome and language age matched normal and to compare the PMLU scores between these two groups.

Samples of 35 children with Down's syndrome were considered, out of whom 5 samples were discarded due to them being highly unintelligible. The remaining 30 samples were considered for further analysis. In the normal group, all 60 samples were analyzed.

Graph 1: Showing mean and SD scores for Down's syndrome and normal children



MEASURE (PMLU)	DOWN'S SYNDROME	NORMAL
MEAN	6.48	7.3
SD	0.538	0.173

Table 1: Mean & SD of PMLU scores in Group1 (DS children) & Group2 (normal children).

PMLU stages	No. of normal children	No. of Down's syndrome
I	0	0
II	0	0
III	0	1
IV	0	10
V	55	17
Above V	5	2

Table 2: Number of normal and Down's syndrome children corresponding to each PLMU stages

As shown in Table 1 and Graph 1 the mean values of PMLU were 6.48 and 7.3 (Confidence interval=0.67 -0.97) respectively in children with Down's syndrome and normals whereas their respective SD values were 0.534 and 0.173. There was a significant difference between Down's syndrome and normal children with respect to PMLU measures ($p < 0.05$)

As shown in Table 2 the number of normal children in PMLU stage V and above V were 55 and 5 respectively. As shown in Table 2, the number of Down's syndrome children in PMLU stage III, IV, V and Above V were 1, 10, 17 and 2 respectively.

Discussion

The present study aimed at comparing PMLU scores between normal and Down's syndrome children and found statistically significant differences between the groups. It was also found that children with Down's syndrome scored consistently low compared to language age matched normal children. This can be attributed to factors such as cognition and intelligence along with defective anatomical profile (Miller & Leddy, 1998) which includes small oral cavity, hypotonia of oral muscles, fusion of lip muscles, extra lip musculature. Standard deviation values in Down syndrome are higher than in normals indicating greater variability in them.

PMLU scores obtained in the present study when compared with Ingram's (2001) PMLU revealed that normal children were found to be in the V and above stage whereas Down's syndrome came to levels of III, IV, V and above V. This again indicates higher variability in the Down's syndrome group and could be hypothesized that word correctness is indicative of a disordered rather than delayed. Radish et al (2009) reported PMLU scores of 7 to 9 for the 3-4 year normal Kannada speaking children group. Their scores were slightly different from that of the present study where PMLU scores of normal children were 7 to 8 with a mean of 7.3. This slight difference in scores can be attributed to variations in task, sample size and listener bias.

Conclusion

From the present study, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in PMLU stages & mean PMLU scores between normal and children with Down syndrome. Down's syndrome children had poorer PMLU scores compared to age matched normal children. Poorer scores in Down's syndrome group indicate that whole word complexity and correctness are reduced in Down's syndrome group than language age matched normal children. This significant difference between the groups indicates that PMLU could be a suitable method for assessment of phonology.

This further endorses that assessment of phonology not only should include the segmental analysis but also the analysis of whole word complexity. Henceforth, in addition to segmental measures, whole word measures should also be seen to provide better information on phonological development in both disordered and typically developing children population.

Focusing on both the aspects in intervention could improve the child's overall language ability with better speech intelligibility. However, further research is warranted to understand its usefulness in clinical use.

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English Language Teaching Conditions in Assam - A Case of Secondary Schools

ATAUR RAHMAN

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Introduction

Assam is one of the seven states of North East India. Dispur is the capital of Assam. The official language of the state is Assamese. Like all states in India, Assam is a multilingual state. Apart from the Assamese language, Bengali, Hindi, Bhojpuri, Nepali, and Rajasthani languages are also used by different communities. There are also schools teaching several languages spoken by the members of the Scheduled Tribes.

The state has introduced the *Three Language Formula* in its educational system. English is introduced in the Assamese medium schools at class V; recently it is being introduced in standard 1. English is studied as a compulsory subject up to the Matriculation (HSLC) level. Thereafter, English is studied for two years in the +2 stage and three years at the under-graduate level. In other words, English is studied as a core subject for eleven years. The time allotted for English class is same as to other subjects, i.e., five/six periods of forty/forty five minute's duration per week.

In this paper an attempt is made to depict the English teaching conditions of the Provincialised secondary schools of Assam. The Provincialised schools are the aided schools of the state. The state government sanctions grants to these schools. The teaching and the non-teaching staff are provided with salary by the state government. Management responsibility rests with that of the administration of the school. The students are not required to pay fees.

The Board of Secondary Education, Assam (SEBA) is the academic authority of the secondary schools of Assam. It also conducts the final examination (HSLC) of class X. The curriculum and textbooks of English followed in the secondary level are prepared by SCERT (State Council of Education Research and Training). It also conducts English teaching trainings to teachers of secondary level. The Sarva Shiksha Aabhijan (SSA) Assam, too, prepares textbooks and these are prescribed for use up to class VIII since the introduction of the Bill of Compulsory Education for all children up to 14 years of age.

There is a general belief among the people that most of the Provincialised and non-provincialised Assamese medium schools fail to provide quality education; especially the English language attainment level is very low. The students from Assamese medium schools are 'scared' of English. A good number of students from Assamese medium schools every year pass the HSLC examination at the mercy of the policy holders in the form of 'grace marks'. It is believed that even the most brilliant students from the Assamese medium schools may fail to achieve the standard in achieved in the English medium schools. Because of their inability to speak fluent English, a good number of students from the Assamese medium show poor performance in interviews for in job recruitment drive. They are not able to communicate well in day-to-day transactions where English is required.

Parents give first preference to the English medium schools for their children. If they cannot afford to pay the high tuition fees charged by the English medium schools, they seem to send their children to the privately managed Assamese medium schools. Only the poor students and students from the rural areas would go to the Provincialised and non-provincialised Assamese medium schools.

2. Objectives

The main objectives of this paper are as follows.

- (a) Examine the efficiency of the English teachers teaching in the secondary level Assamese medium schools of Assam.
- (b) Examine the role of the government in facilitating students in the teaching-learning of English as a subject in the Secondary level Assamese medium schools of Assam.
- (c) Examine the role of the school as an institution in facilitating students in the teaching-learning of English as a subject in the Secondary level Assamese medium schools of Assam.

3. Methodology:

Descriptive field survey method was used in this study.

4. Sample

(1) A sample of **five hundred students**, both boys and girls studying in provincialised secondary level Assamese medium schools in five districts, viz., Dhemaji, Dibrugarh Golaghat,, Jorhat, and Sibsagarh of Upper Assam in class VIII, IX and X have been taken as the sample for the study.

(2) **Twenty five teachers** were randomly selected from secondary level Assamese medium schools to examine the role played by the teachers in the teaching-learning of English.

(3) **Twenty Heads** of the Institution were interviewed to know the facilities available for teaching-learning of English.

(4) **Eleven schools** were selected on purposive sampling basis situated in rural and urban areas.

5. Parameters used:

- (a) a self prepared questionnaire for students
- (b) a self prepared questionnaire for the teachers
- (c) an interview schedule for interviewing the Heads of the Institution

6. Analysis of responses

6.1 Role of Teacher

6.1.1 Use of Assamese language in class

Teachers were asked how often they used Assamese language in class, 20% teachers said they often used Assamese language in class, 56% said they used Assamese language sometimes and for the rest 24% said always used Assamese language in English classes. None of the teachers said that they never used Assamese language which was also one of the options in the questionnaire.

On the question of for what purpose the teachers use Assamese language in class, 14 (56%) said they used Assamese language to facilitate learning. 11 teachers (44%) said that they used it to explain certain concepts.

Outside the classroom, all the 25 teachers (100%) said they used the regional / local language to talk with their students.

6.1.2 Use of Media

Regarding use of media like print media and audio-visual media as teaching aids in the classroom, 11 teachers (44%) said they never used any media in the classroom, while the rest answered in the affirmative. However, almost all the students responded that no audio-visual aids were used in their English classes.

The teachers could have made use of audio-visual aids for better teaching-learning. Audio-visual aids could help generate many language activities in the class. Absence of the use of audio-visual aids in English classes might have been due to the teachers' lack of training in the use of audio-visual aids or their lack of interest in using the aids. In any case, lack of audio-visual aids could be a reason for the lack of motivation in getting involved in learning English.

6.1.3 Exposure to English in Classroom

Do the teacher speaks English in class was another question the students were asked to answer. This was intended to see the amount of exposure to English the students get in the classroom. The responses received are given in Table 1 below.

Table 1

<i>Sex</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>
Boys	23	106	116
Girls	30	124	101
Total	53	230	217

Thus the table shows a total of 230 (47.2%) students responded that the teachers did not speak English in class and 217 (43.4%) students said the teachers sometimes used English in class. Only 53 (10.6%) students responded that the teachers used English in class. Thus, it is revealed that the teachers, who could work as one of agents to improve the listening skill among the students, have failed to do so, probably because they did not have well developed skills.

6.1.4 Methods Adopted by the Teachers

In order to make teaching effective, appropriate methods that suit the cognitive level of the students are very important. The students were asked to respond to questions whether the teachers organized group discussion, pair work, and group activities, and used audio-visual aids in order to supplement learning, whether they encouraged loud reading, and whether

they gave practice, home assignments, class tasks, etc. The responses obtained are given in Tables 2 (A) and 2 (B).

Table 2 (A)

<i>Sex</i>	<i>Organise Group / Pair Work</i>			<i>Use of audio-Visual aids</i>		
	Yes	No	Sometimes	Yes	No	Sometimes
Boys	0	242	3	0	233	12
Girls	0	255	0	0	236	19
Total	0	497	3	0	469	31

Table 2 (B)

<i>Sex</i>	<i>Loud Reading</i>			<i>Home Assignment/Class Work</i>		
	Yes	No	Sometimes	Yes	No	Sometimes
Boys	193	11	41	56	10	179
Girls	191	18	46	81	22	152
Total	384	29	87	137	32	331

These tables reveal that the students were never given any pair/group activity in English classes. The teachers probably did not want to take any extra pain or may not be aware of such techniques of teaching. The only method the teachers were aware of was the Grammar Translation Method. Every word, every sentence is translated into Assamese. The practice of giving Home Work and class task is also not a regular phenomenon in these schools. 331 (66.2%) said teachers 'sometimes' gave Home assignments and class work. But one commendable point that could be seen from the table was that 384 (76.8%) students answered in affirmative that loud reading in class was a regular practice.

6.1.5 Lesson Planning

Regarding the preparation of Lesson Plans, 15 (60%) teachers said they prepared Lesson Plans for every class and 10 (40%) said they prepared Plans sometimes. Somehow these responses were not absolutely convincing, because even the teachers who have not received any training responded that they prepared Lesson Plans for every English class. Moreover, while interviewing the Principals/Headmasters said that the teachers did not prepare LP in spite of repeated instructions given to them.

6.1.6 Motivation

Teachers were asked if they considered that the English teachers had a great role to play in motivating the students to learn English. All the 25 teachers (100%) agreed to this view but none of them could comment how and what the teachers should do to motivate their learners. This clearly showed the lack of clear objectives on the part of the teachers in teaching English. Unless and until our teachers know how to motivate the learners to learn English the student performance may not change for the better.

6.1.7 Use of Audio Visual Aids

The teachers were asked whether the use of newspapers, magazines, and audio-visual aids were necessary for the students, all the 25 (100%) said they fully agreed with this view. This response of the teachers was quite paradoxical because none of the students in their response talked about the teachers using audio-visual aids in English classes. While informally talking, most of the teachers said they were given only the textbook, a blackboard (which in most cases was not in good condition) and chalk to teach English. They did not know how to operate Over Head Projectors, Tape Recorders and other teaching aids.

6.1.8 Peer Consultations to Develop Activities

Next, the teachers were asked whether they consulted with their colleagues in preparing and planning activities to fulfill different objectives in English classes. 23 (92%) teachers answered in the affirmative, 01 (4%) teacher in the negative and 01 (4%) teacher did not make any comment on it. The teacher who answered in the negative commented that there is no other language teacher to offer suggestion to his planning for English classes. But it appears that none of the teachers actually does so. English teaching has remained the job of the English teacher alone; no other teacher is consulted.

6.1.9 Teaching Training

The training received by the teachers working in the secondary level Assamese medium schools of Assam proves hardly adequate. Moreover, the teachers seem to be not qualified enough to handle the subject smoothly.

Table 3

<i>Sl No</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>BA/ Bsc/ Bcom</i>	<i>MA/ Msc/ M com</i>	<i>B.Ed./ BT/ M.Ed</i>	<i>Training in teaching Eng</i>	<i>Teaching exp. (in years)</i>	<i>Mother tongue</i>
1	48	√	-	-	5 days training by SSA	10	Assamese
2	57	√	-	√	5 days training by SSA	24	Assamese
3	52	√	-	-	Nil	03	Assamese
4	50		√	-	5 days training by SEBA	28	Assamese

5	54	√	-	-	Nil	18	Assamese
6	31		√	√	Nil	02	Mishing
7	37	√	-	-	7 days workshop by SSA	05	Assamese
8	52	√	-	√	18 days Winter training by SSA	26	Assamese
9	34		√	-	Nil	06	Assamese
10	48	√	-	√	7 days each by ELTI, GU and SSA	15	Deori
11	38	√	-	-	Nil	11	Deori
12	56	√	-	-	10 days by SSA	03	Assamese
13	48	√	-	-	10 days by SSA	09	Assamese
14	42		√	√	3 days by Academic Council, Golaghat	15	Assamese
15	35		√	-	7 days by SSA	02	Assamese
16	46	√	-	√	18 days NCERT, DIET, SSA	23	Assamese
17	39	√	-	-	3 days Normal School, Jorhat, 5 days Academic Council, Sibsagarh	09	Assamese
18	50	√	-	√	10 days by SSA and SEBA	27	Assamese
19	43	√	-	-	3 Days by SEBA	17	Assamese
20	57	√	-	-	7 days by SSA	25	Assamese
21	51	√	-	-	3 Days Dibrugarh. University.	23	Assamese
22	46	√	-	-	NIL	26	Assamese
23	44	√	-	-	NIL	09	BODO
24	30	√	-	-	3 days by SEBA	15	BODO
25	54	√	-	-	7 days by SSA, & days by SEBA	28	Assamese

N.B. 1.*S.S.A.*(Sarva Shiksha Abhijan) 2.*SEBA* (Board of Secondary Education, Assam) 3.*ELTI* (English Language Training Institute, Assam) 4.*NCERT* (National Council of Education Research and Training) 5. *DIET* (District Institute of Education and Training) 6. *G.U.* (Gauhati University)

Out of the twenty-five teachers who responded to the questionnaire, only 7 (28%) possessed teacher training degrees (B. Ed.), 20 (80%) teachers had Bachelors Degree and only 5 (20%) teachers had Masters Degree. 18 (72%) teachers have received short-term training in teaching English and 7 (28%) were teaching without any English teaching training. They have not received any short-term in-service training. Assamese is the mother tongue of 20 (80%) teachers.

Regarding teaching experience,

Table 4

<i>2-5 years</i>	<i>5-10 years</i>	<i>10-15 years</i>	<i>15-20 years</i>	<i>more than 20 years</i>
5 teachers	5 teachers	3 teachers	3 teachers	9 teachers
20%	20%	12%	12%	36%

5 (20%) of the teachers had 2-5 years of teaching experience, 11 (44%) of the teachers had experience ranging from 5 to 20 years, and 9 (36%) had more than 20 years of teaching experience. Despite having long years of teaching experience, the performance of the teachers have not resulted in better student performance.

6.2 Role of School – General Observations

6.2.1 Class time

The school authorities did not allot more time to the study of English. English is taught like other subjects for 40/45 minutes duration of five/six days a week in almost all secondary level Assamese medium schools.

6.2.2 Class Tutorials

The provincialised secondary level Assamese medium schools of Assam rarely organized tutorials or after-school study sessions.

6.2.3 Classes split into sections: Even schools which have sufficient infrastructure do not split the class into smaller sections.

6.2.4 Lesson Plan and Teaching aids: Teachers working in these schools do not prepare Lesson Plans and teaching aids for English classes. The teaching aids are essential for better teaching-learning. The Lesson Plans are essential for the mastery of language skills. The school authorities do not take any encouraging step or organize training programmes to prepare teaching aids and Lesson Plans at low cost.

6.2.5 No computer training to English teachers

Schools which possess computers do not make it available to the teachers of English. They are prevented from using it.

Use of CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) is conspicuous by its absence. Teachers need to get trained in the use of computers.

6.2.6 Evaluation Technique

The ways students are evaluated are far from being satisfactory. There are only two–examinations, Half Yearly and Annual. Basically the performance in the Annual examination determines the students' promotion to the next higher class. Written examinations are held. Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation (CCE) is not followed in these schools. Moreover, there is no evaluation to test the spoken skill of students. The practice of giving the mark sheet is followed only in a few schools.

6.3 Role of the State Government

The Heads of the schools under survey were interviewed to identify the infrastructural facilities available in the school, library facilities, how classes were managed in the absence of the English teacher, availability of teaching aids, Teaching Learning Materials like Over Head Projector (OHP), Liquid Crystal Display (LCD), Tape recorder etc.

1. It was found that out of 11 schools, 9 schools were run with only one English teacher, for the classes at the secondary level. When the English teacher was absent for various reasons, English classes were not held. In some schools, the Headmaster/Principal took the classes at this time, if he or she was free from administrative work. Very often the Heads of the Institutions did not have any English teaching training.
2. In all the 11 schools there is no Liquid Crystal Display (LCD), Over Head Projector (OHP), Tape recorder or Radio for students. However, a TV with satellite connectivity supplied by the state government could be found running in 05 schools and in another 06 rural schools these could not be put to use for want of electricity connection.
3. 05 schools, which offered Higher Secondary courses, had Computer sets and a teacher. But the use of these computers was restricted to students taking computer courses at the Higher Secondary level. Other students and teachers were not allowed to use these.
4. Regarding infrastructural facilities, 09 of the school buildings were not well furnished and in 04 the partition walls were made of bamboo, and so the voice of the teacher and students could be heard in the next room.
5. The Library in the Higher Secondary Schools had only a few books which were not suitable to the cognitive level of the students. There was no practice of issuing books to students. There were no Reference books to help the teacher to prepare any additional materials for their classes based on recent developments in language teaching methodology. For example, dictionaries were not made available. The only material that was available in the schools was the Anglo Assamese Dictionary but these were kept on the Headmaster's/Principal's table.
6. The class size is too large for the teacher to do anything worthwhile. In 04 schools classes were divided into two sections while in the others each class consisted of students in between 65-82 in a single room, seating at least six to seven students against each desk-bench. This overcrowding of classroom made teaching-learning totally unproductive since the teachers could not extend any individual attention to all the students.

Suggestions

1. A six month pre-service training should be made compulsory. The training period should be considered as probationary period. End term examination should be conducted to assess the trainees' level of attainment at the end of the training programme. The training should include micro and macro teaching, CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) basics, Lesson Planning, Methods of Teaching, Discussion, Group/Pair activity, Basics of Phonetics, Question paper-setting, Use of Audio-visual aids, Preparation of Teaching aids and Evaluation techniques.
2. In-service training after five years should be made compulsory. This training should be made a criterion for promotion and annual increment.
3. The English textbooks prescribed by SCERT should have a teacher's handbook and a workbook, the former containing guidelines for the teachers and the latter containing exercises in primary, secondary and advanced skills for the students. The textbooks should help develop language skills and practical application of English in day to day activities.
4. Grants should be allotted to schools for the purchase and use of Audio Visual aids in English classes.
5. School library should be provided with English language learning materials like books, magazines, audio cassettes, CDs on singing, grammar, Phonetics, Word drill etc. Teachers Resource books, Guides, Dictionary, Pronouncing dictionaries should be made available to all English teachers.
6. Schools situated in rural areas not yet provided with electricity connection should be given electricity connection early so that these schools are not left out from the use of modern technology in language learning.
7. A secondary level class which has more than forty students in should be split into two sections to provide better practice in language learning.
8. The lessons in English should be prepared with the quality of internal consistency and logical development and should leave possibilities of interlinking themselves with the preceding as well as succeeding lessons. Students must have the feeling that there is definite joy and gain in each lesson.
9. Summer classes should be organized which should help students who have little opportunity to use English or learn it at home.

10. At present, the only assessment that matters is the year end examination administered by the district Boards or SEBA and students study for it cramming answers to likely questions. Assessment should be made a continuous process with Unit tests, Assignments and oral examination.
11. Since the exposure to English for the students is restricted to their practice within the classroom, special classes for spoken English may be arranged after school.

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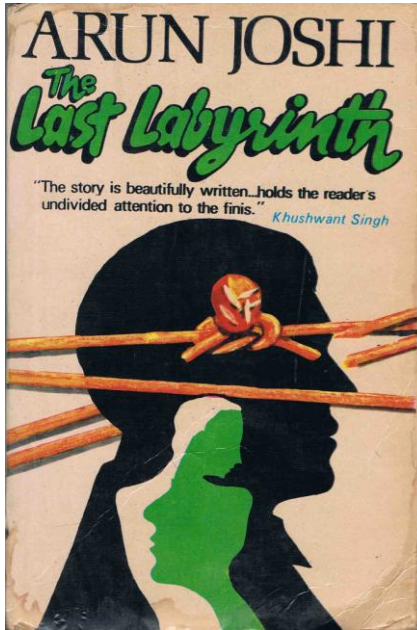
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The Narrative Construct of Joshi's *The Last Labyrinth*

P. Bala Shanmuga Devi, Ph.D.



Reality Blended with Artistic Manoeuver

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P. Bala Shanmuga Devi, Ph.D.

The Narrative Construct of Joshi's *The Last Labyrinth*

Arun Joshi portrays reality blended with a judicious artistic manoeuvre beyond the mere phenomenal world, but of actual experience. He gives a beautiful shape to his theme hidden in the actuality of his life in traditional social construct and the modern metro livelihood. His genius in depicting the world of human struggle in the novel *The Last Labyrinth* in a varied, spectacular motley mode is simply superb.

The acute trying situations in human life craving for solutions at any cost is described in a precise style interspersed with hints of Indian mythology such as age-old customs, faith, dreams, oracles, cycle of life and death, in a bewitching style.

***The Last Labyrinth* – The Flashbacks**

The story is told in a series of flash backs with a clever ordering of past events, throwing together the past and the present, the real and the remembered, the world of imagination and the reality to maximize the suspense, “a poetic exploration of the past with a naturalistic sense of the presence – corporal, narcissistic, rebellious, and despairing” (Mohan *The Fiction of Joshi* 28).

Joshi’s satire and irony aiming at economic disparity, moral lapses, corruption, despotism of the Government as well by the trading community engulfed in hoarding and tax evading are quite admirable. Flashbacks are accompanied by progressive events running simultaneously. This structural layout is surely a technical ingenuity and Joshi’s special gift as a novelist. The flow of the narrative more than the theme of alienation keeps up our undivided interest. The monotonous tedium of introspection and inner life receives kaleidoscopic flavour through his deft handling. The restrained narrative design and the techniques of suggestiveness are simply overwhelming with parallelisms, juxtaposition and overlapping of dialogue sequences.

The Narrative Structure

The narrative structure in *The Last Labyrinth*, allows the real conflict to be projected in a dramatized form providing both a ritual enactment and a magical relief, for the society in question. Day to day activities of all types of human beings is imprinted on a wide canvas of fiction with adept use of allegoric mode and legends. A spectroscopic effect is lent by the pen of Joshi, imparting to the tales a universal and eternal significance. A number of literary devices are employed deliberately to highlight his cause.

More an Indian Novel

Joshi’s *The Last Labyrinth* is more Indian, than the other novels and more rich, deep and unfathomable. Suitably the recipient of the prestigious Sahitya Akademi Award, it is the protagonist Som Bhaskar’s search not alone for money but for the joy of life. It is an abstract search and hence the target as well the means of achieving it is traversing through a complex maze. He suffers from spiritual hollowness for he had become a

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spokesperson for Westernized Indians, who have lost their spiritual roots. It is the failure of science and reason, which Som Bhaskar suffers from. His intellectual rationalism leads him nowhere. Neither could his wife Geetha, whom he claims to be a special person, nor Leela Sabnis nor Anuradha balm his tattered soul. Life to him is dark and the antiquity, which Anuradha and the haveli represent, lures him and seems to provide comfort, whatsoever.

Spiritual Clamour and the Suffering of Rational Believers

Som Bhaskars are a common sight in the postcolonial arena as well as in the postmodern trend. In this novel, spiritual clamour evokes deep feelings and stirs the remotest part of one's psyche. Pathos arises from the fact that Som is in want of something but is unable to identify what it is. A man of rich caliber, who knows how to make things happen and a person who, if required can push himself to any extent finds this vacuum of spirit exasperating. The novel itself is based on the exasperation something which the postcolonial man commonly faces.

Hence, *The Last Labyrinth* is the sufferings of a rationalist, a believer in intelligence and expediency, which prevent him from sublimating his desires from the animalistic instinct to the spiritual, for he is not ready to surrender completely to a transcendental wisdom propitiated by seers of yesteryears.

Image and Imagination

In common usage, imagination does not merit much value. However, as soon as it is associated with any form of art, it becomes associated with the highest value. Joshi has a sparkling imagination, which enables him to convey to the reader the various forms of nature, incidents of life and energies of passion. Metaphors and similes add boundless charm and rhetoric to a literary work.

A. Ramakrishna Rao in *The Literary Endeavour* states that, "The image of 'indefatigable surgeon', reminding us of Eliot's "Wounded Surgeon", concretises the process" (12) of metamorphosis. Som feels "like a hare chased by unseen hounds" (*Labyrinth* 63) and "God is like having a third king in a game of chess" (*Labyrinth* 166). Ramakrishna Rao further adds that in "Joshi's *oeuvre* is the subtle juxtaposition of "void" and "labyrinth" as two modes of making sense of life...Labyrinth is a total explanation. Wastelands and voids are, at best, only half truths" (16-17).

Exploration of Indian Mind

The Last Labyrinth is unmistakably a novel about an Indian mind explored by another Indian. Hedonism, cynicism, loss of faith, confusion of values, which are very typical of the upper crust Indian society, finds a say in the novel. The search for the core of life is obviously revealed through symbols like labyrinth, haveli and so on: "The word 'labyrinth' and its analogues like 'maze' and 'impasse' recur in all of Joshi's novels. But

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it is only in *The Last Labyrinth* that the word comes to acquire “a thematic resonance and a metaphoric inclusiveness. It is associated with the protagonist’s attempt to unravel the mysteries of life, love, death, and divinity...” (Ghosh 121).

Labyrinths and Mazes

To begin with, the labyrinth in Lal Haveli is the starting point of Som Bhaskar’s awareness about labyrinths and mazes. The word acquires a complexity and a multiplicity of meanings and functions. The following excerpt from the text throws light on many such mysteries:

“My ancestors baffled their enemies this way. There are rooms within rooms, corridors that only bring you back to where you started....There are rooms where you could lock a man up and he would never be found. No one would hear his cry.”

“And, what is in the last labyrinth?”....

“Why, death, of course.”

I looked at him puzzled. (*Last Labyrinth* 36 -37)

The ‘I’ character serves its purpose well, bringing out the protagonist’s psychical contact with society and environment that induce a disturbed psychological development which finally enable him to solve his turmoil of alienation. The structure of the novel is extremely complicated and labyrinthine. It has a very intricate technique of narration with introspection and flashbacks interspersed here and there. On one level, it is the story of a businessman trying to grab all that he can set his hands on, who tries to take away the plastic manufacturing company of the Benaras *Zamindar* Aftab and his female accomplice Anuradha also.

Conflict of Twin Culture

On another level, it is the story of the deep-rooted yearnings of love, spiritual mortification and gratification and the pathetic narration of a lost soul, groping to grasp the meaning of life and death. The conflict of twin culture is obvious in this novel also. He is a product of Indian and western culture on one hand and the son of a very religious and pious mother and a scientist cum spiritualist father who is in search of the First Cause until his death.

The strain generated out of such upbringing is obvious. The real pathos lies in the fact that he does not know what he wants. The desire to know is itself the ‘labyrinth’. He says, “If only one knew what one wanted. Or, maybe, *to know* was what I wanted. To know. Just that. No more. No less. This, then, was a labyrinth, too, this going forward and backward and sideways of the mind” (*Last Labyrinth* 53).

This uncertainty, this ultimate existential unknowable, is the perennial problem he faces. But, as is typical of all Joshian protagonists Som Bhaskar also finds the solution to his problem. S. Radhakrishnan says that this is because, “in human nature itself there is a polarity, there is a dichotomy” (*Towards a New World* 141).

Anuradha has a very powerful influence on Som but towards the end, her characterization seems to be a bit shadowy. She stands as a concept of sacrifice, a supreme personification of *Shakti*. Gargi, the deaf-mute priestess is also a deliberate and delicate symbolic portrayal, as symbolic as the labyrinth.

The Dreams

Dreams are also used with inherent implications. They act as reflective insiders, which voices his desires and yearnings crying for fulfillment. Each dream shows him as a distorted and deformed person. The language of the dreams becomes the language of the inner Som and has a pictorial quality, hallucinatory, disconnected and surrealistic mood. Various unrelated images are juxtaposed. People who are in no way connected to Som appear in the dreams, which heighten the pathos experienced. Freud questions: “how can we know of the existence of the unknowable? We know of it, Freud contends, in three ways: through dream; through Para praxes, principally slips of the tongue; and through the technique of analysis and its main tool, free association” (Fowler 193). Joshi has applied this aptly in the novel.

Krishna, Krishna and the Simple Lexis

The recurrent mention of Krishna is also a symbol. Krishna is called *sampoorna purush*, the complete man. *The Upanishads* define wholeness as “From wholeness emerges wholeness and if you take away wholeness from wholeness, wholeness still remains!” (Osho *The Krishna: The Man and his Philosophy* 6). The concept of wholeness is what the quest is about and Som’s incessant futile search targeted at.

The simple lexis is an indication of simple style. The sentences are short and simple with obvious syntactic simplicity. The greatness of Joshi’s narration lies in his description of Lal Haveli, the central motif of the novel which is picturised vividly. The description of the labyrinthine building is done as the protagonist sees it and not in architectural precision.

This is also the pattern of narration which Joshi follows in all his novels wherein incidents of importance appear in order of priority. Joshi’s birth place Benares “was the famous city that had been famous before Rome was known or Cyrus had built the Persian empire; whose craftsmen had provided silks for king Solomon’s palaces and gold for his temples.” (*Last Labyrinth*, 34) In the description of Benares, Joshi’s authorial silence has relented a bit to show the deep rooted native pride of Joshi over the ancient glorious Benares by referring to its connection with the Biblical wise king Solomon.

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The Narrative Construct of Joshi’s *The Last Labyrinth*

The Realistic Expressionism

Yet in his realistic mood of expressionism, the pathetic other side of Benares is also made bare. The depravity and squalor prevalent in almost all the downtrodden slum dwellers who are yet religion-oriented in many parts of India vividly gets revealed by Joshi. In the alley of Benares, where one of the most venerated god women Gargi resides, one finds, “enormous hoardings one advertising a movie, the other aphrodisiacs. Around them sprouted other hoardings, small and big, offering bulbs, hotels, saris, typing schools, sweet shops, hair oils, surrounding the hoardings like a fisherman’s net, lay a maze of narrow lanes. The lanes were crowded with people and with holy bulls.” (*Last Labyrinth*, 37).

These few lines bring out a complete picture of Benares, with all its antiquity, sensuality, spiritual ambience abiding side by side with the avocations of common folks engaged in fishing as their main source of livelihood and running petty shops on the pavements, during Joshi’s contemporary period and before. Just juxtaposed with the squalor of Benares stands Bombay’s business tycoons living in concrete jungles involved in blunt bracing of give and take of commerce.

The Perplexity of the Elite

The perplexity felt as a whole by the elite as well as the men belonging to the lowest rungs of the ladder of communities residing in India and abroad in their search for one’s true identity, in the world, quite characteristic of the period in which Joshi happens to live in, is summarised by Som’s well-learned yet melancholic father, through a verse in Rig Veda whose indecisive answer of subtle nature still confuses the mind of rational outlook.

Who knows the truth? Who can tell whence and how arose the universe? The Gods are later than its beginning: who knows, therefore, whence comes this creation? Only that God who sees in highest heaven; He only knows. Or, perhaps, He knows not.”(*Last Labyrinth*, 155).

Thus *The Last Labyrinth* is undoubtedly a masterpiece wherein the authorial voice and the structure are as enticing as the theme and the title.

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A Comparative Study on the Availability of Physical Facilities in Public and Private Sector Schools of Islamabad

Ghazala Shaheen, Ph.D., Sajid Rehman, Ph.D., Aijaz Ahmed Gujjar, Ph.D. Candidate, Naeemullah Bajwa, Ph.D. and Umbreen Ishfaq, Ph.D.

Abstract

This study was designed to compare the availability of physical facilities in public and private sector secondary schools of Islamabad. All the heads of institutions and teachers of secondary schools in Islamabad constituted the population of the study. Sixty heads of institutions, one from each institution (30 public and 30 private sector schools) and 300 teachers, five from each secondary school (150 public sector and 150 private sector) from sixty institutions (30 public and 30 private sector) were selected as a sample of the study. Two questionnaires (one each for heads of institutions and other for teachers) were developed and validated through pilot testing and administered to the sample for collection of data. Researcher personally visited respondents and thus 100% data were collected. Collected data were tabulated and analyzed by using chi square.

Introduction

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A Comparative Study on the Availability of Physical Facilities in Public and Private Sector Schools of Islamabad

Both public and private secondary schools are imparting education. Now the ratio of private sector in education is increasing day by day. The government is also encouraging private sector to lesson its responsibilities due to limited resources. Government provides resources and facilities to public sector secondary schools while private sector institutions generate resources themselves. The present study is aimed to provide a comparison of resources and facilities in both public and private secondary schools.

Private sector plays an important role in the development of education in a country. It helps both in qualitative improvement and quantitative expansion. Private sector bears a good deal of burden of expenditure on this important social cause even in the most advanced countries.

The Need for Private Sector Schools

In a country like Pakistan where the population growth rate is 3% annually and only about 50% of the existing primary group children are in schools, the support of private sector is most needed to share this huge burden. Government alone cannot build and run all schools required for this purpose (Govt. of Pakistan, 1979 p.23).

Shami and Hussain (2005) observed in their study that availability of physical facilities in a school had a significant impact on student performance. The availability of drinking water, electricity, boundary wall, toilets, furniture, playground and dispensary were determining factors and had positive impact on student's performance.

Importance of Physical Facilities for Effective Instruction

The quality of education and research assumes the existence of an adequate physical infrastructure that fulfills the needs. It also assumes, however, that such infrastructure is maintained and managed in the best possible way in the institution, and not mainly for the convenience of the managers (UNESCO, 1998 and Rehman, 2007).

In any society the position of secondary education is generally paradoxical. It is expected to play a transitional role between basic education and further education as well as to play a terminal role by providing necessary manpower for the development of the country. (Quddus, 1990)

Types of Institutions

In Pakistan the institutions are of various styles which can broadly classified into government institutions, semi-government institutions, institutions of broad trust or anjumans and registered private educational institutions (Raja, 2000).

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A Comparative Study on the Availability of Physical Facilities in Public and Private Sector
Schools of Islamabad

Private schools are defined as formal schools that are not public and may be founded, managed and financed by actors, other than the state even in cases when the state provides most of the funding and has considerable control over these schools (UNESCO, 1998).

As contrast with public sector schools, private schools are characterized by their decentralized management, better facilities and teaching and learning aids, lower pupil teacher ratio and generally more conducive learning environment. Private schools have also the advantages of accessibility of nearness to the homes of students minimizing the social security and transportation problems of school attendance (Govt. of Pakistan, 1998).

Being community based the private schools are much more closely accountable to the immediate clientele. Private schools offered a superior standard of education but were inaccessible to the poor sections of the society. The government spent much more money on public schools than on the other typical schools (Shami, 2007).

Inadequate Facilities in Private Schools

The financial position of some of the private sector schools is not good. A private school had some endowments and few donations, had unfortunately either to charge high tuition fees or to keep its expenses down, the teachers received less salaries, and the libraries bought fewer books. Undeniably, the large majority of new private schools are housed in buildings which were originally designed as private houses, with all the disadvantages of inappropriate design and lack of surrounding space (Yasmeen, 2003).

Private sector plays vital role in the development of education. According to National Education Census (2005) out of a 245,682 institutions, 81,103(33 percent) were found to be in the private sector. It was stated in National Education Policy (1998-2010) that the effort would be made to increase the ratio of private sector upto 50:50. However, at present this ratio is 33% (Shami and Hussain, 2007).

Effective science education programme is directly linked with the establishment of infrastructure for research in science education, training of science teachers and science educators, mobilization of local resources for the production of indigenous equipment, and strengthening of the science laboratories and libraries (Govt. of Pakistan, 1979 p.35).

Recently, there has been a mushroom emergence of private institutions. Private entrepreneurs have done well in providing high quality education to high income groups in urban areas, but there is an urgent need to extend these facilities to the poor and disadvantaged population (Govt. of Pakistan, 1998 pp. 107-108).

Method of the Study

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All the heads of institutions and science teachers of secondary schools in Islamabad constituted the population of the study. Sixty heads of institutions (30 public and 30 private sector schools) and 300 science teachers (150 public sector and 150 private sector schools) from sixty institutions (30 public and 30 private sector schools) were selected as a sample of the study. Two questionnaires were used at three points rating scale in order to collect the views of heads of institutions and science teachers. These questionnaires were validated through pilot testing and administered to the sample for collection of data. Researcher personally visited respondents and thus 100% data were collected. Collected data were tabulated and analyzed by using chi square.

Results

In Table 1, opinions of science teachers are analyzed while in table 2 the opinions of heads of institutions are analyzed.

Table 1. Comparison of physical facilities in public and private schools in Islamabad as viewed by the teachers of institutions

	Statement	Sector	Yes	No	To some extent	Total	χ^2
1.	Playground is available for co-curricular activities	Public	150	-	-	150	24.45*
		Private	15	125	10	150	
2.	Drinking water is available in the school	Public	126	13	11	150	9.12*
		Private	105	19	26	150	
3.	Electricity is available in the school	Public	128	12	10	150	6.98*
		Private	112	14	24	150	
4.	Furniture is available in the school	Public	139	5	6	150	4.64
		Private	128	7	15	150	
5.	Classrooms are available for each class	Public	142	3	5	150	59.92*
		Private	85	44	21	150	
6.	Your school have any library	Public	150	-	-	150	145.54*
		Private	50	80	20	150	
7.	Your school provide a student first Aid facilities	Public	100	25	25	150	9.74*
		Private	75	45	30	150	
8.	The Audio visual aids are available in your school	Public	105	17	28	150	34.82*
		Private	54	35	61	150	
9.	Individual runs the school	Public	-	150	-	150	248.78*
		Private	98	14	38	150	

10.	Community participate to provide facilities in the school	Public	16	98	36	150	3.96
		Private	13	84	51	150	
11.	Government Finances the school	Public	122	11	17	150	115.02*
		Private	35	95	20	150	
12.	NGO Finances the school	Public	-	118	32	150	52.76*
		Private	46	89	20	150	

* Significant df = 2 Table value at 0.05 = 5.991

Table 1 indicates that the obtained χ^2 values of statement No.1 to 12 are significantly differed except statements 4 and 10 which are non-significant at 0.05 level. Private sector teachers perceived that availability of play grounds for co-curricular activities was negligible. Both public and private sector teachers perceived that water, electricity, furniture, classrooms were available in the schools.

As far as provision of first Aid facility for students was concerned, private sector teachers perceived that this facility was not available for the majority of the students. There was a great difference between the opinions of public and private sector teachers about the management of the school run by individual. Private sector teachers intended that majority of individuals run the private schools. About the availability of A.V. aids private teachers intentions showed that A.V. aids were not available up to the mark comparatively public sector institutions were better as far as A.V. aids were concerned. Intentions of the both public and private sector teachers showed that community participation to provide facilities in the school was minor.

As far as financial position in the school is concerned, government fully financed the public sector schools while private schools were also financed by the government on small scale. On the other hand, NGOs finances private schools rather than public sector schools.

Table 2. Comparison of physical facilities in public and private schools in Islamabad as viewed by the Heads of institutions

Statement		Sector	Yes	No	To some extent	Total	χ^2
1.	Playground is available for co-curricular activities	Public	30	-	-	30	42.85*
		Private	5	21	4	30	
2.	Drinking water is available in the school	Public	24	3	3	30	0.84
		Private	21	4	5	30	
3.	Electricity is available in the school	Public	30	-	-	30	0.00
		Private	30	-	-	30	
4.	Furniture is available in the school	Public	26	-	4	30	2.15
		Private	23	-	7	30	
5.	Classrooms are available for each class	Public	30	-	-	30	6.66*
		Private	24	3	3	30	
6.	Your school have any library	Public	27	-	3	30	13.89*
		Private	14	6	10	30	
7.	Your school provide a student first Aid facilities	Public	5	23	2	30	0.58
		Private	3	25	2	30	
8.	The Audio visual aids are available in your school	Public	23	2	5	30	8.33*
		Private	12	6	12	30	
9.	Individual runs the school	Public	-	30	-	30	42.86*
		Private	21	5	4	30	
10.	Community participate to provide facilities in the school	Public	3	21	6	30	4.23
		Private	9	18	3	30	
11.	Government Finances the school	Public	30	-	-	30	42.85*
		Private	5	23	2	30	
12.	NGO Finances the school	Public	-	30	-	30	13.47*
		Private	4	19	7	30	

* Significant df = 2

Table value at 0.05 = 5.991

Table 2 indicates that the obtained χ^2 values of statement No.1 to 12 are significantly differed except statements 2, 3, 4, 7 and 10 which are non-significant at 0.05 level. Private sector heads of institutions perceived that availability of play grounds for co-curricular activities was negligible. Both public and private sector heads of institutions perceived that water, electricity, furniture, classrooms were available in the schools.

As far as provision of First Aid facility for students was concerned, private sector heads of institutions perceived that this facility was not available for the majority of the students. There

was a great difference between the opinions of public and private sector heads of institutions about the management of the school run by individual. Private sector heads of institutions intended that majority of individuals run the private schools. About the availability of A.V. aids private heads of institutions intentions showed that A.V. aids were not available up to the mark comparatively public sector institutions were better as far as A.V. aids were concerned. Intentions of the both public and private sector heads of institutions showed that community participation to provide facilities in the school was minor. As far as finances in the school are concerned, government fully financed the public sector schools while private schools were also financed by the government on small scale. On the other hand, NGOs finances private schools rather than public sector schools.

Conclusions

Majority of teachers and heads of private sector secondary schools perceived that playgrounds for co-curricular activities were not available in private schools while public sector teachers and heads of institutions confirmed the availability of playgrounds in public schools.

Respondents of both public and private schools held that water, electricity, furniture and classrooms were available in the schools.

On the other hand, respondents of private sector schools intended that first aid facility was not present for the majority of the students while public sector respondents intended that first aid facility for students was present in the public sector schools. Respondents of both public and private sector schools perceived that availability of A/V aid was better in public sector schools than in private sector schools. Majority of teachers and heads of institutions of both public and private sector schools viewed that a large number of private sector schools were financed and managed by individual and some schools were financed by NGOs while all the public sector school's management and financier were government.

Recommendations

The study indicated that playgrounds were not available for co-curricular activities in private schools. These schools were not providing facilities like A/V aids and First aid to their students adequately. It is, therefore, recommended that the physical facilities like A/V aids, playground and First aid be provided in private schools. The study also indicated that the financial aid to private schools was non-existence; only the public sector schools were fully financed and managed by government. It is, therefore, recommended that private sector schools be provided finance so that this sector be able to increase the quality of education. Moreover, public sector school's management be made answerable for the improvement of education in public schools.

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The Syntax of Deixis in Khasi

George Bedell, Ph. D.

Khasi is a Mon-Khmer language spoken primarily in eastern Meghalaya State, India and adjoining areas in Assam and Bangladesh. The speaking population in India is 865,000, according to *Ethnologue* (Lewis 2009). The examples in this discussion are taken from *Ka Khubor jong ka Jingieit* (The Message of Love: the New Testament in Khasi, 2000) and cited in the orthography used there, unless otherwise noted. The numbers following examples indicate chapter and verse in Ka Gospel U Mathaios (The Gospel according to Matthew). Although the edition cited is recent, the translation was done from the Authorized (King James) English version, sometime in the nineteenth century. Thus the Khasi investigated here differs from Khasi as either spoken or written at the present time. It is difficult for some modern Khasis to fully understand, but it remains in common use. An earlier version of this paper was presented to the nineteenth meeting of the Southeast Asian Linguistics Society (SEALS), hosted by the University of Social Sciences and Humanities, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam, May 2009.

Gender/Number Particles

Khasi nouns are categorized according to gender (masculine or feminine) and number (singular or plural). These categories are marked by particles which precede a noun, called in traditional Khasi grammar 'articles'.

(1) *u khynnah*
'boy'

(2) *ka kynthei*

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'woman'

- (3) *ki sngi*
'days'

In (1), *u* indicates that the noun *khynnah* is masculine singular; in (2), *ka* indicates that the noun *kynthei* is feminine singular; and in (3), *ki* indicates that the noun *sngi* is plural. Gender is sometimes a lexical property of the noun: *kynthei* is inherently feminine, as is *sngi*. But other nouns are not inherently masculine or feminine: *khynnah* 'child' can be marked masculine or feminine by *u* or *ka*. Gender is not distinguished for plurals, which are marked by *ki*. The Khasi system of gender/number particles is shown in (a).

(a)

	Masc	Fem
Sing	<i>u</i>	<i>ka</i>
Pl	<i>ki</i>	

Comparison with French

Peculiarities such as gender agreement in the singular but not the plural are not uncommon. The Khasi system in (a) is reminiscent of the system of articles in Standard French, shown in (b).

(b)

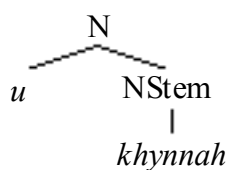
	Masc	Fem
Sing	<i>le</i>	<i>la</i>
Pl	<i>les</i>	

Like the Khasi particles in (a), French articles distinguish gender only in the singular. But French differs from Khasi in at least two important respects. First, the French articles in (b) are definite articles and are used only when the noun they accompany has definite reference. The Khasi particles in (a) are not necessarily definite and are used regardless of whether the reference of the noun they accompany is definite. Second, the gender and number of a French noun are sometimes marked by affixes attached to it, though this is less extensive in spoken French than in written French. Khasi nouns lack any marking of gender or number in the noun itself. Thus it seems that the Khasi particles correspond not to the French articles, but rather to the morphological markers of gender and number in French nouns. It is appropriate to say that in French, the definite articles agree with the nouns they modify; but in Khasi, the particles do not agree with the nouns they modify, since they do not function as modifiers but rather as markers of noun categories.

Structures 1

We will assume that the internal structure of phrases like (1) to (3) is as shown in (i).

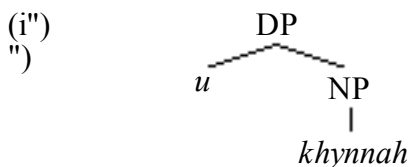
(i)



That is, the gender/number marker is a kind of prefix which serves as the morphological head of a noun (N). It is attached to a following noun stem (NStem). This structure takes the combination of prefix and stem to be an independent lexical item. Khasi gender/number particles are homophonous with third person pronouns; the masculine singular pronoun *u* 'he, it' will have the structure in (i').



Here DP stands for 'deictic phrase'; Khasi third person pronouns are always definite. In this paper, Khasi pronouns are glossed using English pronouns, while (homophonous) gender/number particles and agreement markers accompanying verbs are glossed with person, gender and number features. See Bedell (2011) for details. Structure (i') suggests that a syntactic analysis of the gender/number particles as in (i'') would allow a more direct relationship with the pronouns: they would be identical in their external syntax, differing only in that the pronouns lack an overt noun phrase complement.



This alternative analysis is rejected for several reasons: first, noun stems are virtually always used with gender/number markers (Khasi noun stems are occasionally used as adjectives, as classifiers, or in compounds; in these cases they are not accompanied by gender/number particles). Second, virtually nothing can come between the two. Third, to accept a syntactic structure like (i'') would entail a distinct syntactic category for deictics as exemplified below. Finally, it would fail to account for the semantic/pragmatic difference between pronouns and gender/number markers.

Deixis

Khasi deictic modifiers appear preceding the gender/number marker as shown in (4), (5) and (6).

(4) *uta* *u* *khynnah* (17:18)
 3SM-that 3SM child
 'that boy'

(5) *kata* *ka* *kynthei* (9:22)
 3SF-that 3SF woman
 'that woman'

(6) *kita* *ki* *sngi* (3: 1)
 3PL-that 3PL day
 'those days'

The words *uta*, *kata* and *kita* consist of a deictic stem *-ta* preceded by a prefix *u-*, *ka-* or *ki-* which shows agreement in gender and number with the modified noun. The agreement prefixes are iden-

tical with the gender/number particles in (a). There is a fourth gender/number particle, *i*. It is singular and diminutive, often expressing either intimacy or contempt. Since it is rare in our text, it is not regularly included in the examples; see (39) below for one instance. A parallel set of words with a different deictic stem *-ne* are shown in (7) to (9).

(7) *une* *u* *briew* (12:24)
 3SM-this 3SM man
 'this man'

(8) *kane* *ka* *ktien* (15:12)
 3SF-this 3SF saying
 'this saying'

(9) *kine* *ki* *ktien* (7:28)
 3PL-this 3PL saying
 'these sayings'

The noun *briew* 'person' in (7), like *khynnah* 'child' in (1) and (4), can be either masculine or feminine; while *ktien* 'mouth, word' in (8) and (9), like *kynthei* 'woman' in (2) and (5), is inherently feminine.

The Khasi deictic modifiers in (4) through (7) may be arranged in paradigms parallel to the markers in (a), as shown in (c) and (d).

(c)

	Masc	Fem
Sing	<i>uta</i>	<i>kata</i>
Pl	<i>kita</i>	

(d)

	Masc	Fem
Sing	<i>une</i>	<i>kane</i>
Pl	<i>kine</i>	

In addition to *-ta* and *-ne*, Khasi has a number of other deictic stems, including *-tai*, *-to*, *-tei* and *-thie*. According to Nagaraja (1985, p. 11), *-ne* is 'proximate' and the rest 'remote'. *-ta* is in addition 'invisible'; *-tai* is in addition 'far'; *-to* is in addition 'not very far', *-tei* is in addition 'up'; and *-thie* is in addition 'down'. There are few examples in our text of *-tai*, *-to*, *-tei* or *-thie*. (10) and (11) illustrate *-tai* and *-to*, but *-tei* and *-thie* are not found. This may in part be due to the fact that our text is a translation from English.

(10) *katai* *ka* *shnong* (21: 2)
 3SF-that 3SF village
 'that village (over there)'

(11) *kato* *ka* *diengphna* (27:40)
 3SF-that 3SF cross
 'that cross (there)'

These are reminiscent of the corresponding deictic modifiers in Standard French, shown in (e). In both languages these modifiers agree in gender and number with the modified noun, but gender agreement appears only in the singular.

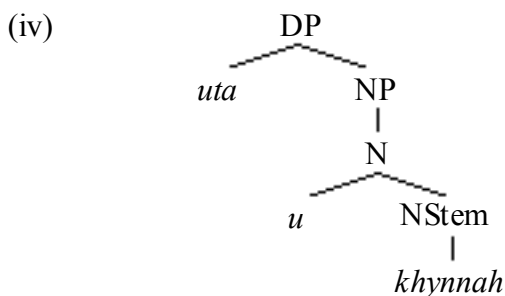
(e)

	Masc	Fem
Sing	<i>ce(t)</i>	<i>cette</i>
Pl	<i>ces</i>	

The French system also differs from Khasi in at least two respects. First, it does not distinguish distance directly as Khasi (and English) do: *-ta* 'that' versus *-ne* 'this'. Rather, it uses locative pronouns suffixed to the modified noun: *-ci* 'here' and *-là* 'there'. And second, though the French deictic modifiers in (e) agree in the same pattern as Khasi modifiers in (c) and (d), the morphology of the agreement resembles that in the articles in (b) less closely than in Khasi.

Structures 2

The internal structure of noun phrases like (4) to (9) which contain deictic modifiers will then be as in (iv).



In French (or in English) articles and deictic modifiers belong to the same syntactic category and cannot therefore co-occur in the same noun phrase. In Khasi the gender/number markers are not syntactically present; the deictic modifiers belong to the category D (deictic or demonstrative); and the phrase headed by them which takes a noun phrase (NP) complement is DP (deictic phrase). Since Khasi lacks definite articles, deictic modifiers may be used as an equivalent, and are so glossed. Khasi deictic modifiers also commonly occur without complements as shown in (iv').



This is parallel to what are called 'demonstrative pronouns' in French (or English).

Deictic Pronouns

Examples of such Khasi deictic pronouns are shown in (10) through (15). In (10) and (11), *uta* and *kine* serve as subjects with which the verb agrees (as marked by *u* and *ki*, respectively). For details on Khasi subject-verb agreement, see Bedell (2011).

(10) *uta* *kein* *un* *pynbaptis* *ia* *phi* (3:11)
 3SM-that EMPH 3SM-FUT baptize OBJ you
 'he will baptize you'

(11) *Kine* *kin* *leit* *noh* *te* *sha* *ka* *shitom* *bymjukut*. (25:46)
 3PL-this 3PL-FUT go away and to 3SF trouble eternal
 'they will go off to eternal punishment'

In (12) and (13), they serve as objects of the verb as shown by the preposition (or case marker) *ia*.

(12) *ia* *uta* *te* *yn* *khot* *uba* *khraw* *ha* *ka* *hima* *ki*
 OBJ 3SM-that and FUT call 3SM-C great in 3SF kingdom 3PL
bneng (5:19)
 heaven
 'and he will be called great in the kingdom of heaven'

(13) *ka* *la* *dei* *kein* *ia* *phi* *ban* *leh* *ia* *kine* (23:23)
 3SF PAST right EMPH OBJ you C-FUTperform OBJ 3PL-this
 'it was right for you to perform them'

In (14), *uta* is a genitive modifier of the noun *ïing* 'house'; and in (15), *kine* is a predicate nominal.

(14) *ha* *ka* *ïing* *uta*, (9:10)
 in 3SF house 3SM-that
 'in his house'

(15) *Ki* *kyrteng* *jong* *kita* *ki* *khadar* *ngut* *ki* *apostol* *te*
 3PL name of 3PL-that 3PL twelve CLASS 3PL apostle and
ki *la* *long* *kine*: (10: 2)
 3PL PAST be 3PL-this
 'and the names of the twelve apostles were these.'

Numeral Modifiers

In addition to the head noun, Khasi noun phrases may contain various types of modifiers. Of some interest are numerals, which are most often found between the deictic modifier and the head noun. Some examples are (16) through (20). In (16) and (17), the position of *arngut* 'two (people)' and *khadar ngut* 'twelve (people)' is clear.

(16) *kine* *arngut* *ki* *khun* *jong* *nga* (20:21)
 3PL-this two-CLASS 3PL son of me
 'these two sons of mine'

(17) *kita* *ki* *khadar* *ngut* *ki* *apostol* (10: 2)
 3PL-that 3PL twelve CLASS 3PL apostle
 'the twelve apostles'

The position of the modifier preceding the gender/number particle is evidence which favors our morphological analysis of such particles. Numeral modifiers may also be preceded by gender/number particles, which must agree with the head noun. In (18) to (20), no overt head noun appears.

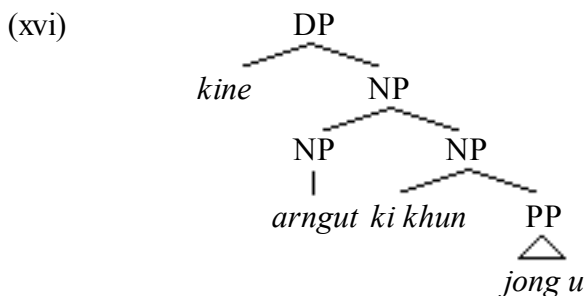
(18) *Uno na kine arngut uba la leh ia ka mon u*
 3SM-which from 3PL-this two-CLASS 3SM-C PAST do OBJ 3SF will 3SM
kpa? (21:31)
 father
 'which of the two did the will of the father?'

(19) *Ia kine ki khadar ngut U Jisu u la phah noh* (10: 5)
 OBJ 3PL-this 3PL twelve CLASS 3SM Jesus 3SM PAST send away
 'Jesus sent these twelve out'

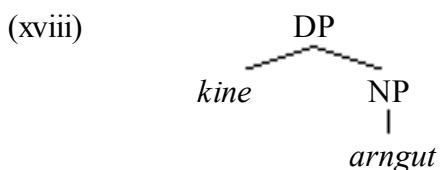
(20) *kan long ka tnga jongno na kine ki hynñiew ngut?*
 3SF-FUT be 3SF wife of-which from 3PL-this 3PL seven CLASS
 (22:28)
 'whose wife of these seven will she be?'

Structures 3

An example like (16) will have a structure as in (xvi).

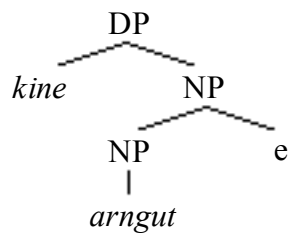


The numeral *arngut* 'two (people)' is itself a kind of noun. If the head noun is absent, the structure will be something like (xviii).



It would also be possible to analyze (18) with an empty head position as in (xviii').

(xviii')



Clause Modifiers

In addition to numeral modifiers as in (16) to (20), Khasi noun phrases may contain clause modifiers as in (21) to (23).

(21) *kata* *ka* *lyer* *ba* *ka* *jur* (14:30)
 3SF-that 3SF wind C 3SF strong
 'the strong wind'

(22) *kata* *ka* *sngi* *ba* *U Noah* *u* *la* *leit* *hapoh* *kata* *ka*
 3SF-that 3SF day C Noah 3SM PAST go in 3SF-that 3SF
ïing *lieng* (24:38)
 house boat
 'the day that Noah went into the ark'

(23) *kita* *ki* *symbai* *babha* (13:38)
 3PL-that 3PL seed C-good
 'the good seeds'

Clause modifiers begin with the particle *ba*, which we take to be a subordinating conjunction or 'complementizer' parallel to English *that* as in the gloss for (22). Under certain circumstances, *ba* is prefixed to a stative verb, as in (23). In our examples, *ba* is glossed as C to avoid confusion with the deictic *that*. Like numeral modifiers, clause modifiers may agree with the modified head noun, as in (24) to (26).

(24) *kata* *ka* *lynti* *kaba* *lam* *sha* *kaban* *im* (7:14)
 3SF-that 3SF path 3SF-C lead to 3SF-C-FUT live
 'the path which leads to life'

(25) *kata* *ka* *dohkha* *kaba* *la* *ngat* *nyngkong* (17:27)
 3SF-that 3SF fish 3SF-C PAST catch first
 'the fish which was caught first'

(26) *kita* *ki* *langbrot* *kiba* *la* *jah* *noh* *na* *ka* *ïing* *Israel*
 3PL-that 3PL sheep 3SF-C PAST loose away from 3SF house Israel
 (10: 6)
 'those strayed sheep from the house of Israel'

Also like numeral modifiers, clause modifiers may appear as complements to deictic modifiers without an overt head noun, as in (27) to (32).

(27) *Naba* *une* *u* *long* *uta* *ba* *la* *thoh* *shaphang* *jong* *u:* (11:10)

for 3SM-this 3SM be 3SM-that C PAST write about of him
 'for he is the (one) that it was written about him:'

- (28) *phim shymla pule ia kata ba la ong UBlei ha phi, ...?*
 you-NEG NEG PAST read OBJ that C PAST say God to you
 (22:31)
 'didn't you read what God said to you, ...?'

In (27) and (28) the clause modifier does not agree, but does in (29) to (32).

- (29) *bad leit sha lum ban wad ia kata kaba la*
 and go to mountain C-FUTlook-for OBJ 3SF-that 3SF-that PAST
sakma (18:12)
 go-astroy
 'and go to the mountains to look for the (one) that went astray'

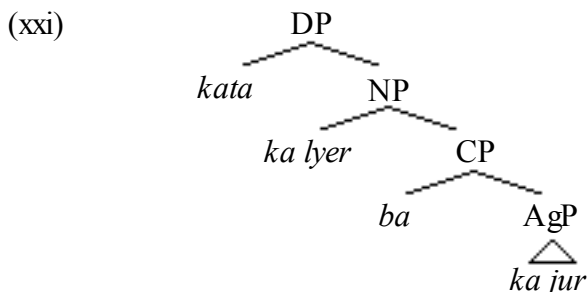
- (30) *Ngam don jingrem na ka snam une uba hok*
 I-NEG have guilt from 3SF blood 3SM-this 3SM-C righteous
 (27:24)
 'I am innocent of the blood of this righteous (one)'

- (31) *yn iathuh ruh ia kane kaba ka la leh* (26:13)
 FUT tell also OBJ 3SF-this 3SF-C 3SF PAST do
 'and what she did will be told'

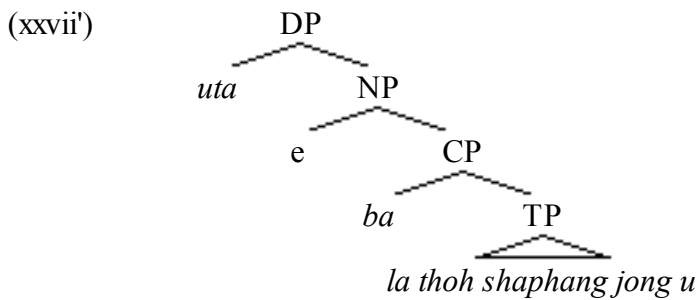
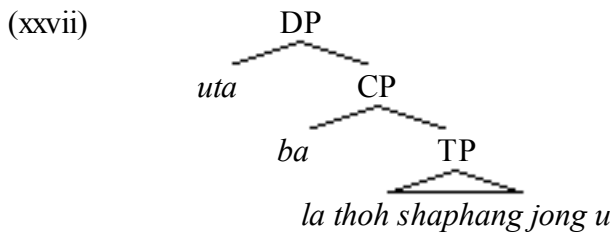
- (32) *ia uwei na kine kiba rit* (10:42)
 OBJ 3SM-one from 3PL-this 3PL-C little
 'to one of these little (ones)'

Structures 4

An example like (21) will have a structure as in (xxi).



The modifier here is *ba ka jur* 'which is strong'. Unlike numeral modifiers, clause modifiers are not noun phrases; if the head noun is absent, the structure may be as in (xxvii) or alternatively as in (xxvii').



Loose Ends

There are a variety of other deictic phrases without a headed noun phrase complement. (33) shows a deictic pronoun which has been incorporated into an adverb (written as a single word by Singh 1904).

- (33) *namar* *kata*
 because 3SF-that
 'therefore'

(34) illustrates the quantifier *baroh* 'all, every' which (unlike numerals) follows the head noun in a noun phrase.

- (34) *kata* *ka* *ri* *baroh*. (9:31)
 3SF-that 3SF country all
 'all that country'

- (35) *Kata* *baroh* *te* *ka* *la* *long*, (21: 4)
 3SF-that all and 3SF PAST become
 'and all of that happened'

(35) shows *baroh* in a headless noun phrase.

In (36) the numeral *kawei* 'one' contains a gender/number particle, and occupies the position of other numeral modifiers.

- (36) *kata* *kawei* *Ka* *Mari* (28: 1)
 3SF-that 3SF-one 3SF Mary

'the other Mary'

- (37) *kum kata kawei* (12:13)
like 3SF-that 3SF-one
'just like the other'

In (37) it appears without a noun phrase complement.

- (38) *bad ban ym iehnoh ia kita kiwei.* (23:23)
and C-FUTNEG abandon OBJ 3PL-that 3PL-one
'and not neglect the others'

In (38) in addition it shows plural agreement. In all three cases, its meaning corresponds to English 'other'.

(39) shows a deictic phrase with two clause modifiers.

- (39) *ia iwei na kine kiba rit kiba ngeit ha nga,*
OBJ 3D-one from 3PL-this 3PL-C small 3PL-C believe in me
(18: 6)
'one of these little (ones) who believe in me'

(40) to (42) illustrate a special type of head noun, composed of a reduplicated interrogative *kiei* 'what'.

- (40) *u sei noh ia kiei kiei kiba bha* (12:35)
3SM bring-out away OBJ 3PL-what 3PL-what 3PL-C good
'he brings out good things'
- (41) *haba u dang puson ia kine kiei kiei ruh* (1:20)
when 3SM still ponder OBJ 3PL-this 3PL-what 3PL-what even
'while he was thinking about these things'
- (42) *te ia kine kiei kiei baroh yn sa ai lang*
and OBJ 3PL-this 3PL-what 3PL-what all FUT PROX give together
tam ha phi. (6:33)
gather to you
'all these things will be given to you'

When within a deictic phrase as in (41) or (42), *kiei kiei* is usually modified by *ruh* 'even' or *baroh* 'all'.

Abbreviations

1S	first person singular
1PL	first person plural
2SM	second person masculine singular

2SF	second person feminine singular
2PL	second person plural
3D	third person diminutive
3SM	third person masculine singular
3SF	third person feminine singular
3PL	third person plural
C	complementizer
CLASS	classifier
DIM	diminutive
FUT	future tense
IMP	imperative
NEG	negative
OBJ	object
PAST	past tense
PROX	proximate
SUBJ	subjunctive
youSM	you (singular masculine)
youSF	you (singular feminine)
youPL	you (plural)

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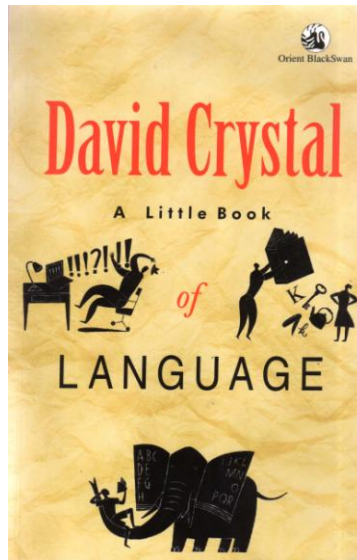
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A Little Book of Language by David Crystal (New Delhi: Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd., 2010)

A Review by Dr. Arun K Behera, Ph.D.



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11 : 5 May 2011

Dr. Arun K Behera, Ph.D.

A Little Book of Language by David Crystal (New Delhi: Orient Blackswan Pvt. Ltd., 2010) - A Review

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David Crystal is a colossus of a linguist. He has authored, co authored or edited more than 120 books on varied subjects, including his monumental work *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. His recent book *A Little Book of Language*, however, is a manual sort of a thing. It can be of as much relevance for a layman who does not know what linguistics is all about as for a specialist studying languages.

One of the most striking features of the book is the chapter-wise dealing of aspects - from a very ordinary, mundane, simple topic to the more specific, complex, specialized areas. It is, in fact this kind of a dealing that makes the reading of the book absorbing and engrossing.

The Structure of the Book

The book containing 260 pages is divided in to 40 chapters, each dealing with one specific issue, e.g., words, pronunciation, grammar, languages, language in literature, linguistics, applied linguistics, etc. Such an organization not only makes the reading enjoyable and comprehension easy, it also frees the reader of being taxed and burdened.

One can pick up a lot of things about language in general and also a number of other aspects without being aware of a learning process. Only writers of such great eminence as Crystal can achieve this with his little book of language, which is not really little from any considerations!

In the Beginning ...

David Crystal starts with baby-talk and has cited three occasions when we use it: i) when we talk to babies, ii) when we talk to animals, and iii) when we tease our friends. Similarly, Crystal gives us information on how we graduate from crying to pronouncing words. We start listening even before we are born- we listen inside the womb!

He also talks about Adam's first job which was to name all the animals. So the first human was a wordsmith, and his descendants have been at it ever since. He discloses how many words we know- it is around a million!

Crystal doesn't stop with Adam as his only example, of course. He in fact talks about how Adam's apple got the name. He goes on to point out that while we don't know exactly when humans first began to speak, we know they began writing things down tens of thousands of years ago. Language is our species' most distinctive characteristic. But since it's something we learn practically in the cradle, we take word-making more or less for granted. It is heartening to note how Crystal asks us not to do that. He also mentions how each one of us is capable of speaking many languages. It is only the language that we grow up with becomes the primary language.

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Young and Old Will Benefit from a Reading of This Book!

This book, *A Little Book of Language* is apparently meant for young readers. But, in reality it can be read and enjoyed by all age group. In effect, the concise, lucid and humorous way Crystal explains his subject makes the reading of this particular book a pleasure for readers of any age who want a good introduction or just a refresher course in the basics of linguistics—speech, grammar, etymology, dialects, slang and the myriad other *-ologies* and *-isms* that fall under the broad rubric of language.

Deals Also With More Complex Aspects

Prof. Crystal then moves on to more complex aspects such as spelling rules, grammar rules, origin of speech, pronunciation, the vocal folds, accents, sign language, language change etc. He discusses these phenomena in such simple and crisp manner that even a lay man - who does not have any idea on how a language works - can follow it and enjoy it.

One of the most striking features of this book is that it contains a lot of illustrations which not only substantiate Crystal's arguments but also supplements our knowledge of a certain thing.

Facts and Interesting Stories

It appears that a lot of what Crystal has to say in the book may sound familiar. For example, adult learners don't feel the real need of the etymology of words or what vocal chords are or how they function etc. But it is a fact that we can't shy away from.

Did you know that that at nine months, babies begin sounding like their parents—that is, French babies begin making French language sounds, Chinese babies start sounding Chinese, and so on? Or that in the Middle Ages, the word *meat*—or *mete* in the original spelling—meant not merely the flesh of animals but all food, a meaning that survives like a ghost hovering over a word such as sweetmeat, which has nothing to do with meat? Or, that there are more than 6,000 languages in the world, and that one goes extinct every couple of weeks?

Prof. Crystal goes on to tell us that languages also go on dying - in fact one language dies almost every two weeks. How much of research and studies have gone in to concluding this!

Language – An Ever Changing Institution

Crystal demonstrates, in innumerable ways, that language is an ever-changing thing. Words and usages come and go. Buy a new dictionary every five years or so, he recommends, since 'to have only an old one in the house is bit like having an ancient mobile phone.' But while he decries the

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death of some languages and wishes that more of us were multilingual, he is staunchly optimistic where you might expect him to be a scold. He's all for texting, for example, since he believes that to know how to corrupt the alphabet, you first have to know how to spell.

An Invaluable Book

Good-humored and erudite, Crystal has produced an invaluable book. This is a must read book for all, irrespective of whether one is a linguist or a layman. It enlightens everybody about the complicated and specialized concepts from a commonplace perspective. It is really not an easy job to achieve so much in a book of this size and shape. It is possible only with great human beings like David Crystal.

Covering the Spectrum

How does David Crystal do it? Given that this comes so soon after his last book, readers might legitimately have feared a potboiler. But it is nothing of the sort. He grabs our attention by starting close to home with some intriguing chapters on the development of language in babies and young children. After that he widens his lens to range deftly across the entire spectrum of language studies: linguistic variation, bilingualism, dialects, grammar, meaning, spelling, recent developments encouraged by the Internet, nonverbal language, dying languages, and much more.

Encouraging Conversational Tone

With clarity and wit, he draws on his own experience as a human being and a linguist to illustrate his points. And, in the short space of 260 pages, elegantly punctuated with anecdotes at the end of each chapter. Also, the sketches at the beginning of each chapter add specialty to the book. Internal evidence indicates that his main aim is to get teenagers enthusiastic about language. But no one, of any age, should be put off by the conversational tone. Prof. Crystal shows that it is possible to present a huge body of knowledge in a readable and entertaining way. It's a tour de force, and anyone interested in language will enjoy eavesdropping on the conversation.

A Better Place for Our Language to Live in!

What a manner to close the book? It shows how passionate Crystal is about language. He suggests 'six big things I care about, and I hope you'll care about them too, and may be, one day, do something to help make your language world a better place to live in'. These six big things are:

- i) Half the languages are going to die out during this century. But we can do so by making our politicians and leaders realize the importance of language diversity.

- ii) We need to show respect for the dozens of minority languages existing around us. We should show our interest in their languages so that they also grow.
- iii) We should cultivate as many languages as we can or need thereby attempting to develop as a multilingual personality. It will also make the other language users happy.
- iv) We should try to identify the accents and dialects existing in our languages and also appreciate the uniqueness of each one.
- v) We should also care about the range of styles existing in our own languages. We need to learn to handle all kinds of styles.
- vi) We should always be prepared to help out people having speech difficulty, e.g. stammering, etc.

A wonderful little book - not really *little* - to drive us through a maze of several issues relating to language with all its aspects.

I would strongly recommend the book for everybody. You need not be a linguist or a polyglot to read this book. This is not a rocket science either. It is written in so simple and crisp manner and gives you an encyclopedia of information about language that you will regret if you don't read.

=====
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The Need of Communicative Approach (in ELT) in Teacher Training Programmes in Pakistan

Muhammad Akram and Anser Mahmood

Abstract

Teacher education and teacher training are matters of hot discussion in Pakistan. The present study discusses that communicative approach in English language teaching is suffering from neglect in training programmes in Pakistan. Most of the teachers cling to the age-old Grammar Translation method. They do not adopt different classroom activities in ELT. The trainees do not take any interest in communicative approach in ELT and sometimes even the trainers also take no interest in training through communicative approach.

The neglect of communicative approach in the training programmes will lead to non-professionalism and it will only perpetuate the weaknesses of traditional way of teaching. It will definitely be a great hindrance to effective communication using English on the part of the learners. It has been commonly observed that students fail to write even a single page in English language even after completing their graduation. There is an urgent need to teach English language through communicative approach both in language classrooms and training programmes.

This study is an attempt to highlight the significant role of communicative approach in ELT and particularly in training programmes.

1 Introduction

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Muhammad Akram and Anser Mahmood

The Need of Communicative Approach (in ELT) in Teacher Training Programmes in Pakistan

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Communicative Language Teaching is the most prevalent framework used in EFL/ELT classes through out the world in modern time. The fundamental goal of teaching through CLT is to develop communicative competence. Communicative competence refers to the ability to exchange information in a foreign language with the native speakers of the language (Weiping & Juan 2005). CLT is considered to be a “learner-centred and experienced based view of second language teaching” (Richards & Rodgers 2006). Communication is among the most important skills for educators to possess. “The communication is lifeblood of the school; it is a process that links the individual, the group and the organisation” Lunenburg & Ornstein (1996:76).

According to Ghani (2003:105):

English in Pakistan serves as a gateway to success, to further education and to white collar jobs. It is the language of higher education and wider education and not the home language of the population except in the upper strata of society where it is spoken as a status symbol.

English is taught as the compulsory subject from the first grade in our curricula. English language teachers in Pakistan must approach teaching English as a Second Language from the perspective of applied linguistics (Akram & Mahmood 2007). We should realize the importance of CLT.

According to Wilkins (1972) and Canale and Swain (1980), functional definitions of language were viewed as the alternative units that could be used to create communicative syllabi for language teaching in the earlier version of CLT. In relation to the system of meanings that lay behind the communicative uses of language, Wilkins (1972) describes two types of meanings: notional categories (time, location etc.) and functional categories (requests, denials etc). In this earlier version, the terms ‘functional’ approach and ‘notional’ approach were used interchangeably with ‘communicative’ approach, and those functions and notions were the basic units used in organising the syllabus.

2 Teachers and Teacher Trainers in CLT

The teacher’s role was reorganised and redefined as that of ‘facilitator of learning’ and ‘synthesizer’ in the early years of 1970s when Communicative Language Teaching was introduced in the field of language teaching. According to Bhushan (2010), in CLT the teacher has two main roles:

- (i) To facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom;
- (ii) The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning teaching group.

Martin and Balla (1991) say that teacher trainees enter a teacher education course with a belief that teaching involved imparting knowledge to a class. While some of the teacher trainees were aware that they may need to do this in different ways, they did not give clear explanations about how they might do this.

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Teaching English in Pakistan

The present state of teaching English in Pakistan is very poor. The government of Pakistan offers different professional educational programmes in teacher training institutes or through distance education programmes from Allama Iqbal Open University (AIOU) which are mainly theoretical and rely on lectures delivered by the trainers or dictation.

To obtain the credential required for school teaching, candidates usually complete a nine-month programme (B.Ed. and/or M.Ed.) at a training institute or the equivalent through distance education from AIOU. In Pakistan the current system of professional education for teachers cannot be called up to the mark. It has a little or no effect on the quality of teaching in primary and middle schools particularly in rural areas.

The newly appointed/recruited teachers show little enthusiasm for the teaching profession and poor orientation to study during training with special reference to language teaching. The teachers must also become knowledgeable about the importance of language in the learning process which gives a vital role to language teachers (Akpinar 2009).

It has been observed that the grammatical syllabus does not help that much to develop learners' communicative competence in language classes particularly in Pakistan. By replacing grammar by communicative functions the learners' communicative competence can be developed more effectively. The present study is an attempt to show the teachers' attitude towards the use of CLT in language classrooms in Pakistan.

3 Method

3.1 Participants

The participants of this study were 200 primary teachers (75 male and 125 female) of Sargodha district, who were attending the training programmes by different professional organisations. They were aged 22-27.

Table 1: Description of Gender and Location

		Gender		Total
		female	Male	
Location	Rural	48	25	73
	Urban	77	50	127
Total		125	75	200

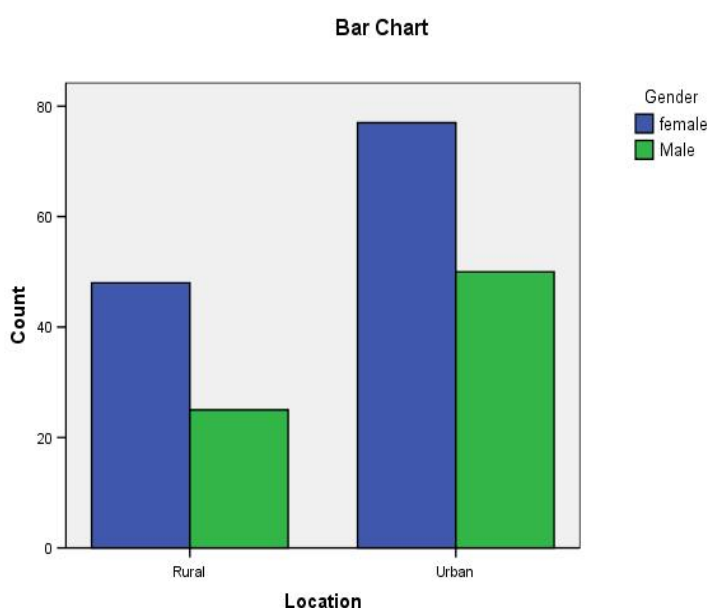


Figure 1: Gender and Location

3.2 Instrument

In order to measure the attitudes of the participants towards ELT, a questionnaire was administered to two hundred participants. The questionnaire consisted of 20 items on five point liker scale (from strongly agree to strongly disagree) and the Cronbach's Alpha was calculated as .860. The data was collected from the above mentioned participants and was analysed.

4 Result and discussion

An effective communication skills course in training programmes would be more beneficial if it is given for the immediate adaptation of these skills into trainees teaching practices. The result of the present study clearly indicates that communicative approach is a key factor in language learning and teaching. But it has been observed that in our training programmes the communicative or the functional purpose of the language is totally neglected and the fresh teachers also do not pay any heed towards this phenomenon.

The results also make it clear that communicative approach is better than all the other methods of language teaching in general and Grammar Translation Method GTM in particular because the GTM is more concerned about teaching about language rather than language itself whereas Communicative approach establishes a direct bond between the experience and the expression.

The findings show that CLT is the easy and effective way of teaching. CLT enhances the learners' confidence and it gives a sense of satisfaction to the teacher as well in the sense that he is successful in making the student use the foreign language in his conversation. The study

shows that the learners find it as an interesting method of learning and take active participation in this method of language teaching. CLT gives clarity to the expression and it gives the learners power to communicate.

5 Conclusion

A teacher's lack of use of CLT is manifested in the poor standard and the performance of the students. It has been observed that teachers' lack of knowledge and their lack of use of CLT are due to the fact that teaching is not their first choice. They have picked up the prophetic profession just to avoid unemployment and starvation. The policy makers should frame and chalk out the use of CLT in training programmes where by a teacher can improve on his existing capabilities. There are following recommendations on the basis of the present study:

- Pre-service training in language teaching is required because the teacher is not well equipped with the required training to teach a foreign language and particularly the use of CLT should be given special attention in training programmes.
- In-service training in language teaching should also be overhauled with the use of new teaching techniques including the use of CLT as necessary part of the training programmes.
- The functional or communicative aspect of language is totally ignored. The master trainers and the teacher educators should pay a special attention to this aspect.
- The recent versions of CLT assume that communicative language use can not be learned through individual sentences isolated from broader communicative contexts, so the communication practices should be there in the training programmes and the syllabi contents.

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Appendix Mean Score and Std. Deviation

No.	Statements	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	Communication is a key factor in language teaching	4.83	.485
2	Communicative approach is a better method of language teaching	4.53	.501
3	Communicative competence is an essential part of communicative approach	4.58	.496
4	Communicative approach is better than Grammar Translation Method	4.45	.498
5	Communication skill is basic need of language teacher	4.47	.500
6	Communicative approach provides better opportunities to teach English language	4.45	.498
7	Communicative approach provides better opportunities to learn English language	4.46	.500
8	Communicative approach is an easy way to teach English	4.49	.501
9	Communicative approach lends better comprehension to the learners	4.47	.500
10	I find this approach very interesting	4.55	.499
11	I get more through communicative approach than other methods	4.47	.500
12	I feel confident in communicating ideas to others	4.47	.500

13	The learners find active participation in this method of language teaching	4.47	.500
14	I think communicative approach is a difficult task to comprehend	2.06	.598
15	Communicative approach is dull and boring	2.07	.443
16	Communicative approach lends clarity to the expression	4.16	.653
17	Communicative approach is wastage of time and effort	1.76	.514
18	Better learning is possible only through better communication skill	4.28	.666
19	Communicative approach is a monotonous activity	1.72	.485
20	Communicative approach enhances the communicative power of the learners	4.17	.502

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**Substitution as a Feature of
Syntactic Nominalization in Bengali**

Champa Kar, Ph.D.

- 1.0 Introduction
- 1.1. Basic Features of Syntactical Nominalization
- 1.2. Noun Phrase
 - 1.2.1. Structure of Noun Phrase
 - 1.2.2. Features of Noun Phrase
- 1.3. Noun Clause
 - 1.3.1. Structure of Noun Clause
 - 1.3.2. Features of Noun Clause
- 1.4. Relative Clause

1.0. Introduction

Regarding the syntactic analysis of nominalization grammarians are of different opinions. In generative grammar it is held that syntactically the process of nominalization have the internal structure of sentences¹ this is also the view of Lees who commented the nominals generated by the nominalization rules are not themselves sentences, but rather they are noun-like version of sentences. These nominals must occur as nominals within other sentences.²Whereas, Vendler defines nominalization as a means of joining sentences by applying a transformation which turns a sentence into a nominal embedded in an appropriate matrix sentence.³ These discussions are very much relevant in the present discussion.

The discussion on ‘Nominalization in Bengali’ requires syntactical approaches along with some lexical approaches. Thus far, in this section a study has been attempted to give a brief account of the syntactic nature of Bengali nominalization. It is true that a study on syntactic nominalization has been attempted but here the focus is mainly on the substitution feature of the noun.

1.1 Basic features of syntactical nominalization

1. Due to syntactical nominalization, the most noticeable change occurs to the verb because the verb takes the most important role in nominalizing a sentence. Generally the subject and the verb of a nominalized sentence change, the other parts of the sentence remain unchanged. It is also found that after nominalization, the nominalized verb show no tense distinction, i.e., they are without tense marker⁴.

E.g., se jaY
He goes.

Se jabe
He will go.

But after nominalization

- a. tar **jaWa** (deverbal nominalization)
his going.
- b. tar kOtha **bolte para**
his words speak can
‘His ability to speak.’

In these cases the nature and structure of the verbs change, as well as the pronominal subject takes the possessive genitive suffix ‘-r/-er’ after nominalization.

2. It is true that the nominalized verb cannot differentiate between tense but the noticeable fact is that if the nominalized sentence is embedded within another sentence then the embedding sentence show the tense distinction, i.e., the nominalized sentence depends on the head sentence.

e.g., tomar **jaWaTa** bhalo dEkhaba na.
your going good look not
‘Your going will not be liked.’

In the sentence the nominalized part is ‘tomar jaWaTa’ is embedded under the main clause ‘bhalo dEkha na’, where the main verb ‘dEkha’ conveys the tense distinction, which is here a future tense.

tomar thakaTa amar bhalo lagche na.
your stay my like not
‘I don’t like your staying over there.’

Here the nominalized verb **thakaTa** is embedded under the head sentence **amar bhalo lagche na**, which conveys the sense of present continuous tense. So the deverbal nominal **thakaTa** is in present continuous tense.

3. Syntactical analysis of nominalization requires the pattern of the sentence i.e., whether it is assertive or negative, whether it is descriptive, interrogative, or exclamatory. So in the discussion of nominalization at syntactical level it is important to know the sentence structure. Regarding the descriptive sentence, exclamatory sentence and interrogative sentence the treatment of nominalization is same. No major distinction is found in case of the difference in sentence type.

The most remarkable change is found in case of negative sentences. Negative sentences always play a vital role in the syntactical analysis at any level. Generally the negative element is placed after the verb in a Bengali sentence.

ami khabo na.
I eat not
‘I shall not eat.’

In few cases the negative element is also placed before a verb, in most cases it is found in case of emphatic sentences.

eTa na **khaWai** bhalo.
This not eat good
‘It is better not to eat this.’

In a nominalized sentence the negative element is placed before a verb and the negative verb is placed before a noun. The nominalized verb behaves similarly as in an assertive sentence. The position of the negative element changes after nominalization takes place, where as in case of emphatic sentences the ordering remains unchanged.

amar na **jaWa** ucit.
My not go should
‘I should not go there.’

In case of reduplicated verbs, both the verbs are nominalized and the negative element is inserted in between the two reduplicated verbs.

amar **jaWa na jaWa** Eki bEpar.
My go not go same thing
'It is the same thing whether I go or not.'

Now a deeper analysis is needed for the study of the nature of nominalized sentences. For this purpose and the proper analysis of the study we have sub-divided the chapter under two broad categories, namely:

1. Noun Phrase
2. Noun Clause and relative clause.

1.2. Noun Phrase

Noun phrase can be defined as a construction, which has a head noun. The noun with the help of some pre-nominal adjectives, or verbal bases form a unit which can be used and can be replaced by a single noun, with certain pre modifiers the whole chunk form a unit. Such phrases are called nominal phrases, as it can be replaced by a single noun and possesses the qualities of being a noun. Certain syntactical tests will prove them as a single unit of noun. Before going into the proper discussion of noun phrases, the structure of the noun phrases should be analyzed.

1.2.1. Structure of Noun phrase

1. A nominal phrase or nominal expression is analyzed in its smallest form as an obligatory stem optionally preceded or followed by suffixes including the case marker. The case markers are attached to the words.

E.g. lokTake khaTe bOsao
 Man bed sit
 'Let the man be sited on the bed.'

Here two nouns (lokTa and khaT) are placed side by side, both having different case markers, one is accusative (-ke) and another one is locative (-e) respectively. The case markers indicate the relationship of the nouns with other words in a sentence. Here these two case markers '-ke' and '-e' indicate the relationship between the nouns and the verb 'bOsao'. These nominal suffixes are the characteristics of a noun phrase.

2. A complex unit may consist of one, two or more nouns with or without immediate modifiers, where one noun acts as the head and others stand in some sort of relationship to the head noun. The markers indicate plurality. This is a broad category. According to the nature of intermediate words it can be sub-divided in the following way:

- a) Two or more nouns, (among which one is head) can be preceded by a possessive pronoun or noun in a nominal process. Many intermediate nouns can be inserted in between the initial pronoun and final noun or the head noun.

- E.g. i) tomar **ruper Ohonkari** tomaY Dobabe.
Your beauty pride you destroy
'Your proud sense of beauty will let you down.'
- ii) jotiner meyer **iskuler boigulo** Tebile ache.
Jatin daughter school book Table has
'The books of Jatin's daughter have been kept on the table.'
- iii) prothom jiboner **chobi tolbar nesa** Ekhon tar jibika.
First life picture take desire now his profession.
'The eagerness for taking picture has become his profession.'

In all the above mentioned cases, the head nouns like **Ohonkar**, **boigulo**, **nesa** are preceded by a possessive noun, pronoun and verbal noun respectively. The type of nominal expression formation is very productive in nature. Noun phrase is formed with the preceding words ended in "possessive" genitive marker '-er/ -r'. Both the subjects and the objects can become a nominal process. In example 2(i) '**ruper Ohonkar**' is the head phrase and it is preceded by a pronoun with a possessive marker '**tomar**', in case of 2(ii) the head phrase 'iskuler boigulo' is in close relation with the preceding adjunct 'jotiner meyer' again in example 2(iii) the head chunk 'chobi tolbar nesa' is preceded by a succession of pronoun and a noun i.e., 'prothom jiboner' and the possessive marker is attached to the noun jiboner, so the fact is that the possessive marker is attached to the immediately preceding noun or pronoun of the head phrase.

Some other cases are:

- (iv) tomar **dEkha paWa** bhar.
Your see get difficult.
'It is not easy to get your view.'
- (v) babar **gan gaWar nesa**Ta ajo ache.
Father song sing desire today has
'My father's desire for singing is still present.'

b. Between the initial possessive pronoun or noun and the head noun (i.e., the noun around which constitutes the phrase), adjectives or other modifiers can be inserted. They can be multiple in numbers. There is no limit to the insertion.

- i) tar **akossik bhaggo biporjOY** sotti-i dukkher.
his sudden fortune disaster really pathetic
'The sudden disaster of his fortune is really pathetic.'
- ii) gupto-juger **silpo kOla-sOmriiddho, saronath theke paWa belepathorer**
Gupta dynasty culture depicted Saronath from get alluvial stone .
buddho mOstok Sokese nei
Buddha Statue showcase not.
The beautifully depicted Buddha statue from Saronath is not in the show case.

3. If a head noun is preceded by multiple words belonging to similar or different parts of speeches then the ordering may be as follows:

- a. If multiple nouns precede the head noun like (2.a.ii) then the closely related noun i.e. the complements are placed side by side, like:

somirer jiboner **itihaser patagulo** pORa dOrkar.
Samir life history leaves read necessary.
'It is necessary to read the pages of history of Samir's life.'

- b. All the preceding nouns take possessive genitive marker and more closely related nouns are placed side by side as above. Case marker is added to each noun separately.
- c. On the other hand, if the head noun is preceded by words belonging to different parts of speeches, then the head noun is immediately preceded by a noun or by a verbal noun, which is again preceded by a noun or an adjective, or vice versa. A noun or pronoun can precede the adjective. The ordering continues.

kajol tar jiboner mulloban dhulo-poRe-jawa **chobir sOngroho** khuNje bERacche.
Kajol her life valuable dust ridden picture Collection looking for.
'Kajol is looking for her old and valuable dust covered collection of pictures.'

- In the above mentioned example the noun phrase **chobi-r sOngroho** is preceded by a group of words 'Kajol tar jiboner mulloban dhulo-poRe-jawa', so the phrase is immediately preceded by a verbal noun 'dhulo-poRe-jawa' which is again compound in nature. Other example of this kind:

chelebElar sei phele asa **dingulo** pichu Dake.
Childhood that left behind days back call
'Those old days of childhood call back.'

4. Negative element can also be inserted within the phrasal construction. This is a very productive process of forming negative sentences in Bengali. Generally the verbal noun

precedes the head noun and the negative element is placed before the verbal noun.

e.g. i) tini nirdes na mana **cheleder** marchen

he sales not obey boy beat
'He is beating the disobedient boys.'

ii) se tar jabotio na- parar **bojha** amar upor capiYe dilo.

He his all not can burden my on put on.
'To me he has given his entire burden which he can't do.'

- In the above mentioned two examples the negative element 'na' is placed before the verbal nouns 'mana' and 'para' respectively. These two verbal nouns immediately precede the head nouns 'cheleder' and 'bojha' respectively. Other instances are available under this category.

khuNje na paWa jiniser jonno mon kharap kOre

find not get object for mind bad do
'Our minds feel depressed for the lost things.'

- In case of compound verbs the negative element is inserted in between the two verbs i.e., pole and vector (generally in case of compound and composite verbs the first component is called pole and the second component is called a vector). Here the negative element 'na' is inserted within the compound verb 'khuNje paWa'.

na paWar bEtha monke aghat kOre.

Not get pain mind beat do
'The pain of unavailability beats our heart.'

- The negative element can be placed sentence initially in a nominalized sentence. The deverbal word immediately follows it.

1.2.2. Features of Noun Phrase

For being a nominalized phrase or noun phrase a phrase must possess some typical nominal features. There are also some special characteristics of Bengali nominalization.

Substitution feature: The whole unit should possess the quality of having replaced by a single noun, i.e. there is the feature of substitution. This can be clear from the following examples.

A) **amar mulloban pathorer sOngroho** sara bharot bOrse poricito.

My valuable stone collection all India known.
'My collection of valuable stones is known to all over the India.'

- In (A) the constructions **amar mulloban pathorer sOngroho** acts as single construction and can be replaced by a single name like '**Rabindranath**' and the sentence may be written thus **Rabindronath sara bharot bOrse poricito**. This is a case of nominalization.

B) ei **praibheTe chele pORanoi** take baNcabe.

This private.loc boys teach him save
'This private tuition will save him from poverty.'

- Again, in e.g. (B) the phrase 'praibheT-e chele pORanoi' is a noun phrase, because the head word is 'chele pORano', acts as a specifier of the phrase. So it is an incident of nominalization. Generally, the specifier help to form noun phrase. Usually such constructions include verbal nouns.

c) **amar beNce thakar rOsod hariYe gEche**.

My live stay resource lost
'The resource of living has lost from me.'

Here the whole nominal construction can be replaced by a simple pronoun 'se' (se hariye gEche 'he is lost'). So the construction is an instance of noun phrase.

Anaphoric relation: It should be noted that whether there is an anaphoric relation in the construction or not. Generally it has been found that a nominal anaphora in Bengali has either a covert or overt manifestation in the surface structure⁵. There may be complete deletion of the pronominal head with its pre-positioned modifier or a substitution in terms or overt 'pro-form' replacing the noun or the nominal group (which we have already discussed in 1.) So an elliptical test can be made in this context.

maer **ghum paRani ganer** sOnge karurTar tulona cOle na.
mother sleep to help song with other compare go not
'There cannot be any comparison of mother's lullaby with that of the others.'

- In this example, the whole phrase 'ghum paRani ganer' is ellipted with the help of a determiner '-Ta-r'. So the whole unit can be called a noun phrase, which has been nominalized. Such anaphoric expressions prove the nature of such phrases.

amar **babar rager sOnge** kichur tulona cOle na
my father anger with something comparison go not
'Nothing can be compared with the anger of my father.'

- Here the phrase **babar rager sOnge** is replaced by the determiner **kichu**. We know that only a noun phrase is replaced by a determiner. So again this is an instance of noun phrase.

Addition of classifiers: Another test can be made that whether the phrase is able to take the classifiers like ‘-Ta, -gulo, -khana’ etc; because such classifiers are directly added to the noun in the context of Bengali. In sec 1.2 it has already been discussed under lexical nominalization, now it is the syntactical nominalization, i.e., words will be analyzed at syntactical level.

i) **amader gramer bisal baRiTā** emnii poRe ache.
our village big house purposeless left
‘Our big village house is left deserted.’

ii) **choTobElar sei din-gulo** kothaY hariYe gEche.
childhood those day where lost gone.
‘Those days of childhood are gone forever.’

- In the above mentioned examples(i, ii) the constructions like **amader gramer bisal baRiTā** and **choTobElar sei dingulo** can take classifiers like –Ta, -gulo respectively. So, again they are noun phrases.

Addition of case Marker: Like the classifiers, case markers are also directly added to the nominal expressions. So, a test can also be made in this respect, i.e. whether the construction is able to take case markers or not. The similar scenario has already been presented in case of lexical nominalization in sec 1.2. Syntactically they can be analyzed thus.

iii) **haranoke phire paWar** uddom jagche.
Lost get back interest grow.
‘The interest is growing to get back the lost one.’

iv) **dirgho ei pOth cOlaY** amar anondo hOY.
Long that road walk my enjoyment he.
‘I enjoy overcoming a long distance.’

- In examples (iii) and (iv) we see that the phrases like **haranoke phire paWa** and **dirgho ei-pOth cOlaY** are able to take the case marker like a noun. They take the genitive case marker ‘-r’ and dative case marker ‘-y’ respectively. This only reinforces the qualities of a noun phrase.

Post-Position : It has been found that in a Bengali sentence postpositions are placed after a noun or a pronoun. So, it is a general assumption that they will also be placed after a noun phrases. The conclusion can be cleared from the following examples.

v) **oitijhoke bhule jaWar jonno** aj amader ei Obostha.
Tradition forget for today our this situation.
'Today we are in this situation just for forgetting our tradition.'

vi) **bidesider hate dhOra deWar theke** more jaWa bhalo.
Foreigner hand surrender from die go better.
'It is better to die than to surrender to the foreigners.'

- In example (v) and (vi) we see that post –position 'jonno' is placed after the phrase **oitijhoke bhule jaWa** and 'theke' is placed after **bidesider hate dhOra dewa**. This is only possible in case of noun.

Nature of Noun Phrase

Generally this kind of phrase ended in a genitive marker '-r'. Such markers can also be added with a pronoun. The units, which act as pre-nominal modifier, may be an adjective or a verbal noun, often the verbal noun acts as an adjective or itself as a noun.

sObkichu **bodle jaWa** bhalo nOY.
All change go good not.
'Changing everything is not always good.'

Here the unit **bodle jaWa** acts as a noun, there is no pre-modifier adjective. A quantifier 'sObkichu' is used to measure the unit 'bodle jaWa'

cupcap bose thaka amar EkdOm bhalo lage na.
still sit stay my at all like not
'I don't like sitting standstill by doing nothing.'

Here the word **cupcap** acts as a pre-modifier adjective of the verbal noun **bose thaka** and the unit **cupcap bose thaka** as a whole acts as a noun phrase.

NP – Movement

- (i) NP-Movement is the most important thing in the analysis of syntactic nominalization. In case of Bengali grammar it has been found that the movement is restricted in certain environment. If the noun phrase occupies the subject position then generally it is not moved. There the position of the phrase, rather than its function, is important.

amar jiboner itihis tomar Ojana nOY.
My life history your unknown not.
'The history of my life is not unknown to you.'

Generally it is not written as:

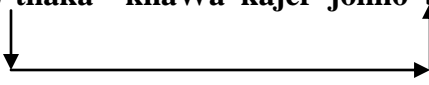
tomar Ojana nOY **amar jibOner itihās** (only Passive use)

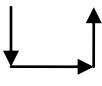
- Such movement is possible during focusing a particular segment for a particular purpose. Especially such situations are dramatic in nature.

(ii) On the other hand if we consider the sentences where it plays the role of a subject, but has not occupied the initial position then the phrase can be moved to some extent.

e.g.) barite **thaka – khaWa kajer jonno** EkTa lok dOrkar.
house be stay eat work for one person need.
'A whole – timer servant is needed at home.'

It can be moved to the sentence initial position:

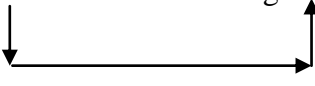
(a) **thaka – khaWa kajer jonno** barite EkTa lok dOrkar.

Movement

(b) barite EkTa **thaka- khaWa kajer jonno** lok dOrkar.

Movement

- Here the phrase **thaka- khaWa kajer jonno** moved after the quantifier 'EkTa'. So if a deverbal noun phrase initiates a sentence then it can be moved sentence initially, medially and finally.

maer lal rOnger daeriTa amar khub bhālo lage.
Mother red colour diary my very like
'My mother's red coloured diary is very liked by me.'

The whole phrase **maer lal rOnger daeriTa** can be moved to some extent depending on the position of the subject.

amar khub bhālo lage **maer lal rOnger daeriTa**.

Movement

amar maer lal rOnger daeriTa khub bhalo lage

Movement

So the noun phrase can be moved to a certain degree

1.3. Noun clause

Noun clause is a construction, where there is a head noun and the unit acts as a small sentence with the presence of a finite verb. The construction can act as subject, object, complement, predicate etc. The expression is complete within itself. This is a case of nominalization as the whole unit acts as a noun and the process of forming new noun construction is called nominalization.

1.3.1. Structure of Noun Clause

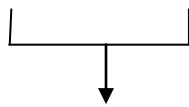
1. In the smallest expression it can be consisted of a subject and a verb.

e.g. (i) **se asbe** amar jana chilo na.
 he come my known had not.
 'It was not known to me that he would come.'

- In the above mentioned example the unit **se asbe** is a case of noun clause, it is replaced by a pronoun 'ta' (that) which is ellipited here (**se asbe ta** amar jana chilo na.). Due to the presence of a finite verb 'asbe' the unit is complete in itself.

Some immediate modifiers can be inserted between the subject and the verb under the construction of noun phrase.

ii) **Se amar kache asbe** jana chilo na.



(Insertion of words)

he my near come known had not.
 It was not known to me that he would come to me.

Here the noun clause has been expanded by the insertion of words like **amar kache** (to me).

2. Negative elements can also be inserted within a noun clause as stated in example (iii). Due to the presence of such element, the clause becomes a negative noun clause which is another important feature of noun clause.

iii) Se *kichu na bhebe ebhabe* asbe jana chilo na.

↓
(Insertion of words)

he some not think this way come known had not.
It was not known that without thinking anything he would come in this way.

1.3.2. Features of Noun Clause

Like a phrase a noun clause possesses the same features and undergoes same syntactical test like substitution, movement.

Substitution Feature:

tumi amake manus bole bhabo na ami jani.
You me human being consider think not I know.
'I know that you don't consider me as a human being.'

Here the sentence **tumi amake manus bole bhabo na** can be replaced by a single word 'kOthaTa', i.e., kOthaTa ami jani (I know the fact). It is a feature of noun class so the example comes under noun clause.

tumi sotti-i kichu jano na ami bissas kori na.
you really anything know not I believe do not
'I don't believe that you know nothing.'

Here again the whole unit **tumi sotti-i kichu jano na** can be substituted by a single expression like **bhut** (ghost), then the sentence may be written thus:

bhut ami bissas kori na.
ghost I believe do not
'I do not believe in ghosts or supernaturalism.'

- Due to the presence of a finite verb sentence finally (Bengali is a SOV language) addition of classifiers and case markers is not possible in case of a noun clause. Some other tests are possible.

Pronominal Replacement:

porikkhaY fel korbe eTa se janto.
Examination fail do that he know
'He knew that he would fail in the examination.'

Here the phrase **porikkha-e fel korbe** is replaced by a pronoun 'eTa'. It is a known fact that only a noun is replaced by a pronoun, so the whole unit is a case of noun clause.

tumi kothaY jaccho seTa amar jana dOrkar
you where go that my know need
'I should know that where are you going.'

In a similar way in the above mentioned example the expression **tumi kothae jaccho** is replaced by a simple pronoun **seTa**.

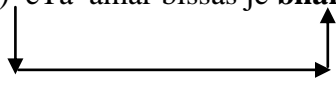
This feature of pronominal replacement can be well presented with the introduction of a discussion on relative clause (see sec. 1.4.).

Movement:

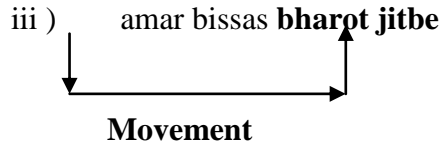
Like that of the noun phrase movement is an important feature of noun clause, there is no rigid or fixed rule for the movement of different elements within a noun clause. It is found that after the movement the presence of linkers can be omitted or inserted as Bengali does not support the presence of linkers always. It will be clear from the examples.

1 i) **bharot jitbe** eTa amar bissas
India win that my belief
'I believe that India will win.'

Here the noun clause **bharot jitbe** occupies the sentence initial position now it can be moved to a certain degree and can be placed sentence medially or sentence finally.

ii) eTa amar bissas je **bharot jitbe**.

Movement

Here the phrase is moved to the sentence final position and a linker 'je' is inserted before the phrase.

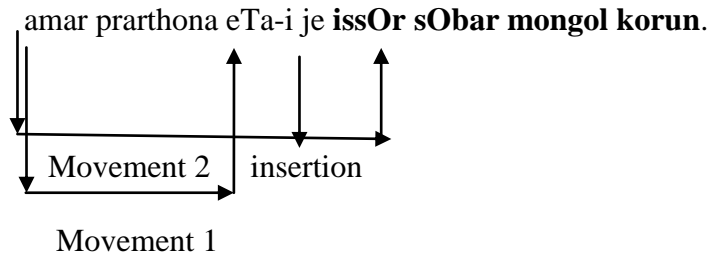


All the linkers (eTa, je) are ellipited here.

Another example can be cited thus:

issOr sObar mongol korun eTai amar prarthona.
 God all bless do that my prayer
 'I only pray that God blesses all.'

It can be moved like:



eTa-i amar prarthona je **issOr sObar mongol korun.**



Thus the elements can be moved.

1.4. Relative Clause

In some cases a linker may inserted and in between the two clauses. It is used to link between the two main clauses. If it replaces a noun then it is used in place of noun phrase. The clauses after which such linker is used are called relative clause.

1. In Bengali a relative clause is indicated by the use of the linkers like **je, se, seTa, jeTa, ja, ta** (who, which, that etc.) etc. Bengali is such a language where ellipsis is often found. So, the linkers are omitted frequently and the relative clauses take the shape of a simple noun clause. In case of a relative clause, one is principal clause and

the other one is a dependent clause. The relative clause can occur in the subject or in the predicate position.

From the following examples, the scenario will be clearer.

(i) **tumi je okhane jabe** eTa ami jani.
you that there go that I know.
'I know that you will go there.'

- Here the clause **tumi je okhane jabe** is replaced by a pronoun or a linker 'ta'. It is a well-known fact that pronoun replaces a noun. So the unit acts as noun, and consequently the process is included under the broad heading of nominalization.

Other examples are as follows:

etodur rel bhromon kOra se ei protham.
so far rail journey that this first.
'This is the first long distance rail journey.'

- Here the part of the sentence **etodur rel bhromon kOra** is replaced by the pronoun **se**. So again it is a noun clause.

2. As it has already been mentioned that there are certain cases, where the linker may be omitted or ellipted.

(i) **e laThite jadu nei** kew mantey caY na.
This stick magic not none believe want not.
No one wants to believe that this stick has no magical power.

Here there is no linker between the two clauses, namely **e laThite jadu nei** and **kew mantey caY na**, but still it is a relative clause.

Relative clause is only a part of nominal clause so the other features are similar that of a noun clause. The most important point is the pronominal replacement.

So, throughout the discussions on noun phrases and clauses, it is clear that they are part of the process of nominalization. And substitution is a major part in the discussion on syntactic nominalization. In Bengali, the aspects of syntactical nominalization has been presented thus through the characterization of noun phrase and noun clause. For this purpose the substitution feature has been highlighted.

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English Language Teaching as Door to Communication

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Teacher's Attitude to Speech Forms, etc.

A teacher well conversant with and inclined towards conservative and traditional approach of teaching English as a target language or Second language will lay emphasis on formality of style and the literary classics. As far as spoken English is concerned, the conservatively inclined teacher will also advise the students to avoid as far as possible lazy forms of speech, slang expressions, undesirable dialect and accent. Such teacher will recommend the prestigious form of English written and spoken by middle class people in society.

On the other hand, a teacher of radical temperament does not find any virtue and feels no necessity in propagating and recommending a middle class prestige form of English. He may not feel shy in introducing and recommending all sorts of informal expressions, colloquial and slang terms and phrases, and he may also avoid strict adherence to the rules of grammar.

Communicative Fluency as an Important Focus

Main concern and objective of radically inclined teacher will be to prepare students to communicate in the target language with or without strict rules of grammar. Historically speaking, rigidly rule bound languages cannot keep pace with the forces of progress and transformation in society. Such languages lose their practical value.

For example, rigidly rule based Sanskrit language is, for all practical purposes no more a living language. There was a time, when Sanskrit was a living language in India.

Constraints of English Teaching and Learning in India

In fact, neither rigid adherence to the rules of grammar nor deliberate neglect of these rules is good for the health of a living language. English is being taught as the Second language in almost all the countries of the world simply because it has shown rare flexibility in accommodating non rigid views regarding teaching of this language as a Second language.

According to some people good English means acquaintance with all sorts of speech forms which are not formal and literary – in this way we may avoid the charge of speaking like a book. In the light of the above discussion, we may recommend a balanced and consensual approach and suggest that it is the duty of the teacher to tell the students to pay proper heed to both conservative position and radical position, and thus prepare the students to communicate with ease and comfort with the reality of life which is the mixture of both conservative and radical views regarding the teaching and learning of English as a target language.

Students' Errors

While learning English as a Second language, the student is bound to make mistakes. Attitude of the teacher to this mistake making on the part of the student is of crucial importance, as far as the element of motivation is concerned. Teacher's attitude may prove an encouraging or discouraging factor for a student of Second language. His attitude may make or mar the career of a Second language learner in the sense that the learner may develop self confidence and overcome the mistake making syndrome or due to frustration give up the idea of learning the Second language.

Tom McArthur observes:

Remove the lines you've inserted. I have difficulty in deleting them.

If a teacher constantly burdens students and self alike with red ink corrections of written work or the constant stopping and checking of spoken words, then frustration can reach high levels for all concerned. The teacher is signaling strongly that the student is a failure, as opposed to the fact that it takes time and practice to learn Second language. On the other hand, however, the constant avoidance of criticism may create a relaxed approach that one can put almost anything together as long as some sense emerges. Neither of these is particularly useful in real life. (McArthur 1983: 106-107)

A Mid-way Approach and Attitude

Instead of adopting a conservatively rigid and highly punitive attitude, a teacher should perform his duty in a liberal, sympathetic, friendly and encouragingly corrective manner which may exhort the student to put in a lot of labour and effort to learn English as a Second language. In fact, a teacher should neither be too rigid nor too liberal. He/She should develop a middle path between the two extremes of rigidity and liberality so as to maintain the good points of both the extremes and ignore the bad points of these extremes.

Again to quote McArthur who makes a very significant observation when he says:

The student should not be allowed to blunder unnecessarily into mistake making: nor, however, should the path be made too easy and therefore too dull. Additionally life does not work in an entirely behaviourist or an entirely cognitive way. There are times when simple repetitive habit forming is refreshing and useful, and times when it is deadly dull. There are times when problem solving is exciting and informative, but there are also times when it leads to anger and frustration, because the problem too hard to solve. Balance here, as elsewhere seems to be essential, and also incidentally allows for variety in the class room. (McArthur 1983: 107)

Categories of Mistakes – Competence and Performance

Mistakes can be divided into two categories: competence mistakes and performance mistakes. It is generally seen that a student of Second language may make mistake which arises from a genuine failure to understand and master a systemic element in the Second language.

For example, if a student does not know that the phrase “small toys” does not exist in English language and he uses this phrase, we will call it a competence mistake – this mistake shows that the student lacks the knowledge of a particular systemic element in English language. In this case, singular phrase “small toy” and plural phrase “small toys” exhibit change in respect of noun words, that is, ‘toy’ in singular phrase and ‘toys’ in plural phrase, but the adjective word, that is, ‘small’ remains the same in both the cases.

Thus, it is a kind of competence mistake which the teacher is supposed to bring to the notice of the student. The teacher should also explain that in English a phrase may be in singular or plural form, but the adjective word remains the same in both the phrases. This mistake should not be ignored by the teacher.

But if a student knows that the phrase “small toys” does not exist in English language, and due to tiredness, nervousness, pressure of the moment, or some other reasons, such as, a kind of interference from the home language, the student makes mistake of using the phrase “small toys”, we may call it a performance mistake and not a competence mistake.

The Role of the Teacher in Helping to Eliminate Errors

At this moment, the role of the teacher is of crucial importance, because if a teacher harshly rebukes the Second language learner, the latter may get frustrated and a sort of self disgust engulfs his whole being – the student feels angry because it was not a competence mistake; it was a performance mistake, and that too under certain phenomenon of unavoidable nature. At this moment, the teacher’s attitude should not be negative and rudely critical; on the other hand, the teacher should sympathise with the genuine pressure of the moment and help the student in overcoming the nervousness during the act of performance.

Performance and Competence May Not Be Identical/Equal in the Target Language

Perhaps performance and competence may never be identical or equal even in one’s own language of early childhood experience, mother tongue. But this is certainly true when it comes to comparing these features as applied to the target language.

From the above discussion, we may safely infer that, in general, performance of foreign learner may not equal his competence in the target language. While studying a Second language the students learn certain usages in their study material. They learn the right use of these usages through the practice in formal exercises. They also read these usages in books, magazines, newspapers etc. But sometimes, under certain pressure, they fail to produce flawless performance; therefore, a lot of practice and exposure in real life situations is must so that the learners are able to cross mistake barrier in performance that faces everybody while acquiring flawless performance ability in a Second language.

While judging the competence and performance of a Second language learner we have also to keep this fact in mind that certain mental and articulatory sets and aspects of the home language, sometimes do assert themselves, and due to this natural and unavoidable phenomenon of interference, Second language learner may commit either competence or performance mistakes.

Under these circumstances, a Second language learner should not get disheartened. He should never become a victim of self disgust and inferiority complex.

Example from Target and Home Languages

For the benefit of both teachers and learners, we may give a few examples of both Second language, that is, English and home language, that is, Hindi in the case of Haryana students so as to highlight the difficulties of the Second language learners. While learning English as a Second language, a Hindi speaking student has to face numerous difficulties in attaining competence and proficiency in the use of Second language.

Language systems of Hindi and English differ in many respects. For example, in Hindi, for the act of going, we say, “Mein jata hun, hum jate hain”; and in English for the same action we say, “I go, we go.” As far as subject is concerned, ‘I’ stands for ‘Mein’ and ‘We’ stands for ‘Hum’, and the Hindi speaking learner faces no difficulty in grasping the language system of English because the systems of both Hindi and English concur in respect of ‘Subject’ of the of the sentence.

In both languages, while writing and speaking, ‘Subject’ is placed at the beginning of a sentence or speech. But as far as the verb is concerned, there is difference of a peculiar nature. In English ‘go’ stands for both ‘I’ and ‘We’, but in Hindi ‘jata hun’ is the verb form for ‘mein’, that is, ‘I’, and ‘jate hain’ for ‘hum’, that is, ‘We’. Again in Hindi we say, “Mein hockey khelta hun, hum hockey khelte hain”; and in English for the same action we say, “I play hockey, we play hockey.” In these sentences ‘Subject’ is placed at the beginning in both the languages but as far as object of the verb is concerned, it is placed after ‘Subject’ in Hindi, and after ‘Verb’ in English.

In Hindi ‘Verb’ is placed at the end of the sentence after the Object of the Verb, but in English ‘Verb’ is placed in the middle of the sentence, before the Object of the Verb. Thus the learner faces difficulty in grasping the pattern in English which has both similarity and dissimilarity with corresponding pattern in Hindi.

As far as adjective is concerned, in English we say in singular form “big building” and in plural form “big buildings”, but in Hindi we say in singular form “burra bhavan” and in plural form “burre bhavan”. In English it is the noun form which denotes difference between singular and plural, that is, ‘building’ and ‘buildings’ respectively – ‘s’ added to ‘building’ causes the plural form of the same, but in Hindi it is the adjectival form, that is, ‘burra’ and ‘burre’ which denotes the sense of singular noun and plural noun in the sentences given above. Thus, ‘bhavan’ stands for both singular and plural nouns, but its singularity and plurality depends on the adjectival forms ‘burra’ and ‘burre’ preceding it. In fact, a learner of English belonging to Hindi speaking

areas faces numerous difficulties because, as the above examples show, there are numerous dissimilarities between the language systems of English and Hindi.

It is also important to note that in Hindi we write what we speak, and vice versa, that is, vowel and consonant sounds during the act of speech find definite shape in written form of Hindi – speech sounds and their written forms coincide with each other but, in English written form is different from the speech form that is vowel and consonant sounds used in speech form of English do not have definite shape in written form of English.

No Two Language Systems are Ever Alike

We have to keep in mind that the language systems of any two languages are never alike and a Second language learner has to face numerous difficulties while mastering the target language. Level of proficiency in competence and performance depends on the ratio of similarities and dissimilarities between the language systems of home language and target language; thus, more similarities lead to more proficiency level in competence and performance.

Role of Individual and Group Experience

Both individual and group experience of teachers and learners while teaching and learning target language in class room in controlled situations will enable us to know, analyze and investigate the difficulties in teaching and learning the Second language. At the same time, exposure of learners to outside the classroom surroundings and interaction with the native speakers of English will prove highly useful for learners as far as their performance is concerned.

Ample amount of interaction with native speakers, and if native speakers are not available, interaction with groups of people as proficient as native speakers who are well conversant with the formal, informal, oral, written, slang, colloquial, literary, and idiomatic aspects of the target language, will prove beneficial because the main purpose of any language is to enable a person to interact with other people of the same language.

Level of Teachers' Competence and Performance in the Target Language

It is also important that the teacher should be competent enough to make use of all those approaches and methods which are relevant, required, useful, contemporary and in vogue, in the best interests of the learners of target language. A teacher should prepare his teaching material and plan his strategy from among the contemporary approaches and methods of Second language teaching. A teacher should avoid the dogmatic approach of sticking to one approach and method only and avoiding other approaches and methods. A teacher should never forget that every

approach and method, howsoever old and ancient it may be, contains some precious gems and pearls for the benefit of Second language learners.

Advantages to Native Speakers!

It is also generally seen that no one minds very much if a native speaker makes mistakes in writing or speech simply because the native speaker is generally treated as infallible in the use of home language, but if the mistake, howsoever minor and negligible, is detected in the speaker of a non-native language, he is laughed at, snubbed, ridiculed as if the fellow had committed a serious blunder in the use of Second language. This type of double standard on the part of native speakers while judging the competence and performance of native and non-native speakers is highly injurious to the morale of the non-native speaker and dampens his enthusiasm for learning the Second language.

Pressure on Foreign Language Learners from Extra-linguistic Forces

With the advent of the age of globalization towards the last quarter of the twentieth century, English language teaching in developing countries of Asia and Africa as Second language has become of paramount importance, because scientific and technological teaching in these countries has been spreading at a very fast pace. Scientific and technological subjects require proficiency not only in grammatical aspects but also communicative aspects of English. Proficiency in the communicative properties of language enables the students to comprehend how the language system is used to express scientific facts and concepts.

Regarding the sad plight of language learners H. G. Widdowson argues:

Students and especially, in developing countries, who have received several years of formal English teaching, frequently remain deficient in the ability to actually use the language, and to understand its use, in normal communication, whether in the spoken or written mode.(Widdowson 1987: 117).

Pressures within India

As far as India is concerned, as a result of globalization since recent past, enormous increase in educational opportunities has taken place, and quite a large number of students are entering universities and technical institutions to take up technical and engineering subjects which can only be studied satisfactorily if the students are able to read text books in English efficiently – only then they will be able to communicate in the spoken or written mode successfully. They must attain competence in sentence making, and at the same time they should attain proficiency

in performance, that is, they should be competent enough to communicate effectively and logically.

Situational English Clubbed with Structural Practice

While teaching English as Second language, the general approach is to combine situational presentation with structural practice. It is argued that situational presentation of language items in the classroom proves helpful in making the meaning of these items clear and easy to learn for the students. After situational presentation these language items are practised as formal structures by means of exercises. With the help of quite a large number of formal structures and exercises, the students are able to retain the formal structures of language in their memory. In this way, it is argued that the learner attains competence in Second language by means of controlled performance.

The Need to Perform Communicatively

But this approach simply imparts only the ability to make correct sentences. In fact, there are two different kinds of meaning language items stand for. One kind of meaning is that which language items have as elements of the language system, and the other kind of meaning is that which they convey when they are actually used in acts of communication.

Present approach of teaching students, how sentences are formed, should also include the systematic teaching of communicative functions of language. For example, affirmative sentences are not always used as statements and interrogative sentences are not always used as questions. One language item or linguistic form is, generally, prone to fulfill quite a large number of communicative functions. It is also significant to note that one communicative function can be fulfilled or performed by a variety of linguistic items or linguistic forms.

Systematic teaching of communicative value of a language is of paramount importance for communicating successfully and logically the thing we want to place before other people. Let us take science stream. While dealing with the students of the science stream, we teach them linguistic form like the present tense and the passive forms, but it will be better if we go by the Communicative Approach and concentrate on communicative acts which a scientist generally performs: they are definition, classification, generalization, deduction, and so on.

Grading for Communicative Competence and Performance

To form large communicative units, grading can be done like this: first generalization, then observation and so on. Generalization stands for definition; observation stands for illustration;

and next we reach the stage of a unit of communication. This type of grading forms a very common unit of communication in scientific discourse. For example:

Generalisation: Metals expand when heated.

Observation: Railway lines get longer in hot weather.

Unit of Communication: Metals expand when heated. Railway lines, for example get longer in hot weather.

Here is an example of Syllogism:

Generalisation: Smoking is injurious to health.

Observation: Mohan should stop smoking.

Unit of Communication: Smoking is injurious to health, therefore, Mohan should stop smoking.

Or

Metals expand when heated.

Copper is a metal.

Therefore Copper expands when heated.

Presentation

Presentation of science items through the method of Syllogism is the proper and appropriate way of combining sentences into communicative units of scientific discourse. On the other hand, action chain sequence sentences do not combine to create a communicative unit. For example:

1. I am going to eat an apple.
2. I am eating an apple.
3. I have eaten an apple.

Sentences given above do not perform the act of deductive reasoning. At the most they simply teach us sentence making. They don't combine to create a communicative unit.

Pay Attention to Various Instruction Types

In India, we are teaching English as a Second language. We suggest that our teachers should pay great attention to Content Based Instruction (CBI) and Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

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English Language Teaching as Door to Communication

which are actually based on the principles of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). While teaching English in schools and colleges and universities, we should focus on real communication and the exchange of information.

Ideal situation of Second language learning should be like this: subject matter of language teaching should be content rather than grammar or function or some other language based unit of organization. Content here means subject matter from outside the domain of language.

Highlighting the communicative value of language teaching Widdowson remarks:

I would argue . . . that a foreign language can be associated with those areas of use which are represented by the other subjects on the school curriculum and that this not only helps to ensure the link with reality and the pupil's own experience but also provides us with the most certain means we have of teaching the language as communication, as use, rather than simply as usage. (Widdowson 1978: 16)

TBLT

Notion of task is the core of TBLT. Purposeful activities and tasks are performed through emphasis on communication and meaning. Tasks may be: reading a map and giving directions, writing a letter or report or reading a set of instructions and directions, conducting a telephone conversation, discussing and solving a complicated problem or puzzle or riddle. In other words, we may say that TBLT promotes the concept of Communicative Language Teaching. Skehan makes a significant observation in this regard:

Success in tasks is evaluated in terms of achievement of an outcome; tasks generally bear some resemblance to real life language use. So, task-based instruction takes a fairly strong view of communicative language. (Skehan 1996b: 20)

CBI

As regards Content Based Instruction it means that we should shift our focus from merely teaching language system to Content Based Instruction. In other words, syllabus for Second language teaching should be organized around content. Krahnke defines it as follows:

It is the teaching of content or information in the language being learned with little or no direct or explicit effort to teach the language itself separately from the content being taught. (Krahnke 1987: 65)

Aspects of TBLT

Willis rightly remarks that TBLT is a logical development of communicative language teaching (Willis 1996). Quite a large number of principles of CLT Approach have been incorporated in TBLT, such as activities that involve real communication are essential for language learning; activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks to promote learning; language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process.

TBLT provides a lot of opportunities for language learning through the syllabus based on various tasks and activities. According to Jack C. Richards:

Engaging learner in task work provides a better context for the activation of learning processes than form-focused activities, and hence ultimately provides better opportunities for language learning to take place. Language learning is believed to depend on immersing students not merely in “comprehensible input” but in tasks that require them to negotiate meaning and engage in naturalistic and meaningful communication. (Richards 2001: 223-224)

The Omnipresent Home Language

While teaching a Second language, one must keep in mind the learner’s home language system, that is, structures and patterns and grammatical items, and the way the home language system works in a variety of communicative actions. Teacher should also find out similarities and dissimilarities between the system of home language and the system of Second language.

First, the teacher should lay emphasis on the similarities between the systems of the home language and the Second language. For example, we should take the following similarity between the language system of Hindi as the first language and the language system of English as the Second language.

For example: in Hindi we say: “Mein khelta hun.” In this sentence first there is subject ‘Mein’, and then there is verb “khelta hun.” Now in English for this act of speech we say: “I play.” First there is subject ‘I’, and then there is verb ‘play’. Thus the above example shows total and complete similarity between the structure of the type of sentences which take subject first and then immediately take the verb. Now, let us move further and find out dissimilarity in the same structure when it expands. In Hindi for example, we say: “Mein hockey khelta hun.” Structure is: Subject- ‘Mein’, Object of the Verb- ‘hockey,’ Verb- ‘khelta hun’. But in English we say: “I play hockey.” The structure is Subject- I, Verb- ‘play’, Object of the Verb- ‘hockey’. Thus, dissimilarity is obvious, that is, the structure in Hindi is Subject+ Object of the Verb+ Verb; but in English the structure is Subject+ Verb+ Object of the Verb. The teacher should move from similarities to dissimilarities in the home language and the target language because it is very easy

to absorb the similarities between the language systems of two languages, but it takes more time and motivation in absorbing the dissimilarities between the language system of two languages.

How About Efficient Reading and Appropriate Reading Pronunciation?

As far as efficient reading of the text of the target language is concerned, it has to be kept in mind that the correct pronunciation of the vowel and consonant sounds of the target language is of paramount importance, particularly in spoken form of the target language. For example, standard form of pronunciation of the British English is the Q.P. or R.P.

We also come across difficulties in respect of pronouncing or uttering vowel sounds and consonant sounds of the target language, particularly when we find that certain vowel and consonant sounds do not exist in the vowel and consonant system of the home language.

For example, a learner from North India has to face a lot of difficulty in mastering the vowel and consonant sounds of English, that is, Second language. When a person comes across consonant sound /z/ in English, he is taken aback because the consonant sound /z/ does not exist in Hindi, that is, the home language of the learner. Again consonant sound /f/ exists in English but it does not exist in Hindi. A Hindi speaker will pronounce the word zoo /zu:/ as /दु:/ which is the wrong pronunciation of the word. Again a Hindi speaker will pronounce the initial sound of the word flower or fruit as /fh /which is a wrong pronunciation of the word. It is the responsibility of the teacher to help the student in making correct pronunciation of the target language. It is generally seen that the teachers do not pay heed to the correct pronunciation of the words of target language which makes the learners a laughing stock in society. It is also imperative that the teachers themselves should be well trained in the written, spoken and communicative aspects of the target language; only then they will be able to do the justice to the learners.

People living in urban areas and metropolitan cities are economically well off, and they can afford costly education by sending their children to well established, well equipped, reputed schools, colleges and universities, but people living in rural areas in India are generally poor; the economic status of these rural people is far-far below the status of the urban people. Barring a few rich landlords and peasants who can afford to send their sons and daughters to the reputed colleges and universities in urban areas, the village folk, in general, have to depend on schools and colleges being run in rural areas.

Generally speaking the schools and colleges situated in rural areas are deficient in proper infrastructure, adequate premises, library facilities and audio-visual apparatus for Second language learners. Moreover, teachers prefer to teach in schools, colleges and universities situated in cities and metropolitan centers. Generally, on one pretext or the other, they try to avoid posting in rural area schools and colleges. And those who are posted in rural areas perform

their job reluctantly. By hook or by crook, they manage their retransfer in cities, as early as possible. Sometimes, through their connections they get their posting orders cancelled, on one pretext or the other. Thus, this situation is highly detrimental to the progress and development of the rural students – that is, first, lack of infrastructure facilities cum modern teaching aids for Second language teaching, second, unwillingness on the part of teachers to be posted in rural area schools and colleges.

An Imperative Condition

It is imperative that highly efficient and competent and experienced teachers, well-versed in linguistics and phonetics, and well acquainted with methods and approaches of teaching and able to establish rapport with the rural students, are posted in rural areas. We should not and cannot forget and ignore the harsh fact that we are living in an age of globalization, technological and scientific advancement and bitter competition; therefore, in the light of these circumstances, it is must that the rural students are brought at par with the urban students so that the Indian society as a whole, without disparities, registers progress in all fields of life including the field of Second language teaching and learning.

It will be far better if the teachers with rural background are assigned the task of imparting knowledge of English language to the rural students in the rural area colleges. Naturally, these teachers and rural students will be able to communicate with each other in a more friendly and natural way.

These teachers will be able to understand and appreciate the problems and difficulties of the rural learners in a far more sympathetic manner than the teachers with urban background. However, this opinion does not mean that urban teachers should be debarred from posting in rural colleges. Those who are really interested in teaching the rural students must be encouraged to work in rural areas – special incentives in the form of special pay etc. should also be provided to the teachers who volunteer to work in rural areas and show good results in making the rural students proficient in English language.

In short, as far as English language teaching in India is concerned, competence in language system and proficiency in communication is the need of the hour.

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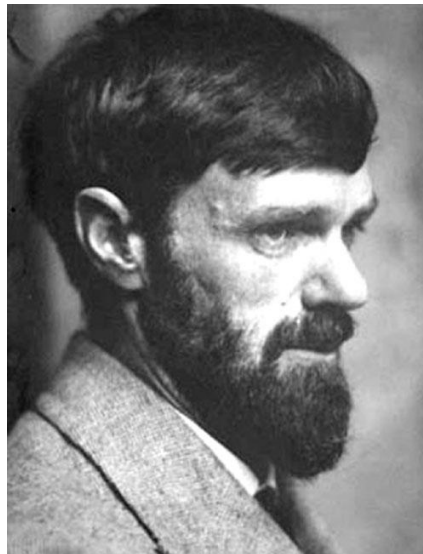
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Industrialization and the Disintegration of Family Relationship in David Herbert Lawrence's *Sons and Lovers*

Fariha Ishrat Chowdhury, M.A.

Sohel Mahmud, M.A.



D. H. Lawrence

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Abstract

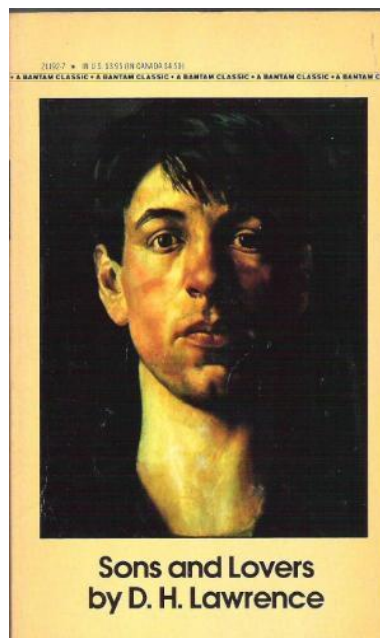
Industrialization has endowed the modern civilization with rapid and much progress but at the same time it has snatched away the vitality of life. As England is the home ground of industrialization, she suffers much the sweet agony of it.

David Herbert Lawrence's *Sons and Lovers* is an authentic document of the English lower class life in the beginning of the twentieth century. In this novel the mining people, their mental attitude, modes of life, habits and the yells of their domestic joys and cares are depicted in an industrialized society.

Industrialization and its rigid moral codes enslave nature and evaporate the sensual and aesthetic needs of man. Factory life with its enforced confinement and long working hours isolate man from the natural world, the true source of life force. Modern industrial life perverts people. Under the impact of industrialism and rapid urbanization human mind loses its fertility, becomes barren as a desert. It profoundly affects the family life of the lower class working people who work in coal mines. With the process of industrialization and urbanization, extended families are breaking down and kinship is declining.

This paper aims at demonstrating how industrialization is becoming a tool in the disintegration of family bonds as depicted in David Herbert Lawrence's *Sons and Lovers*.

Coal Miners



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Sons and Lovers begins with the description of the residential area of the coal miners. All over the country side around the village of Bestwood there were gin-pits and gin-pits. Lawrence's disgust with industrialization is depicted in his descriptions of the mining pits that dot the countryside and the hardships and humiliation that working families had to endure to survive. The coal miners who worked in these pits lived in 'Hell Row'. Mining activities had been going on in these tiny mines in their crude and old fashioned way even from the regime of Charles II.

Emergence of Big Industrialists

But long before the close of the nineteenth century came the big industrialists. The coal and iron fields of Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire were discovered. The gin-pits were elbowed aside by the large mines. New mines were implanted where Carston, Waite and Co., a big industrial group invested huge amount in the mining sector. The erstwhile British prime minister, Palmerston, inaugurated the company's first mine at Spinney Park, on the edge of Sherwood Forest. In this new set up, Carston, Waite and Co. built a new colony 'The Bottoms', on the site of 'Hell Row' to accommodate the regiments of miners.

Hell Row and The Bottoms

The name of the housing of the miners has symbolical significance. 'The Bottoms' refers to the bottom level of the human experience in the mean lives of the coal miners and their families and the 'Hell Row' indicates the awful impact of industrialization on civilization. All the pains and agonies of hell are available in the life of these people because of industrialization. 'Hell Row' was burnt down to give place to 'The Bottoms'. Though 'Hell Row' was burnt down and the dirt was cleansed away, the filth of industrialization has still there and it is such a stigma that is never to be erased.

Walter Morel and His Family

Mr. Walter Morel, a coal miner and the representative of the working class people in this novel, lives with his family in 'The Bottoms', one of the complexes built for the thriving coal mining business and linked by railroads running through Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire.

For Gertrude Morel, the wife of Walter Morel, 'The Bottoms' is a kind of nightmare from which she cannot escape. Her refinement is in constant contrast to the crude lives of the miners. She despises the dreary and tedious life she leads as a poor miner's wife. For Gertrude, her marriage is a progress of disillusionment that eventually leads to despair. After the first six months of their marriage the true nature of Walter Morel begins to appear. He neither understands his wife nor gives her the companionship she longs for.

Since he is a coal miner, he is a captive of industrialism that makes him harsh and indifferent to family affairs.

Impact of Industrial Work

Before the marriage of Mr. and Mrs. Morel, they met each other in a Christmas party. Gertrude asks Morel about his profession. Then he replied that he is a miner. Morel had been working in mine field since he was ten. The delicate children are engaged in brutal mining activities. Mr. Morel is seen brute throughout the whole novel. It is because of his hard toil from the very childhood in the mine field that vanishes his delicacy and makes him heartless. Later, it causes the breakdown of their conjugal life.

Mrs. Morel feels the inhuman atmosphere of the pit. She also inspects closely from her husband's life that indelicate miners are callous to their family life. So she does not want her children to be engaged in their father's profession. She persuades William, her elder son, to find a job in an office in stead of going to pits. At last he gets a job with decent salary in London. She expects her second son, Paul also to be in a job. Since Paul has fondness for art, he does not like any bondage. But in an industrial society he has no other choice to flourish. As a rising artist Paul Morel searches for identity and meaning in his life but he must find his answers from his background of the mining community, industrial England. So Lawrence labels him as "Already he was a prisoner of industrialism" (page 114).

Behavior that Denies God in Heart

Morel has 'denied God in him' and has a habit of drinking. When he receives his wages, so much of it goes for drinking. There is scarcely enough left for the necessities for his wife and family. This is the picture of the lower class people. They drink with their small income and it disturbs the peace of their family: "On Friday night, Saturday and Sunday, he spent royally, getting rid of his sovereign or thereabouts. And out of so much, he scarcely spared the children an extra penny, or bought them a pound of apples. It all went in drink" (page 26).

Walter and Gertrude – A Contrasting Picture

In many ways Walter Morel is opposite to his wife. Walter is from a lower class mining community but his wife has an aristocratic family background. He speaks the local dialect like the unsophisticated workers in contrast to his wife's refined English. He loves to drink and dance while Mrs. Morel is a rigid puritan. Morel fails to be a good husband, a good father and family breadwinner because he is a man broken by an uncaring, brutal industrial system. He also degrades himself through heavy drinking. So, there was a constant conflict between husband and wife: "There began a battle between the husband and wife, a fearful, bloody battle that ended only with the death of one" (Page 22).

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Mrs. Morel has almost no sympathy for her husband. She always tries to make her husband cultured and modest. But Morel is not a person to be modified easily. There are frequent quarrels between them. It is one of the main causes for the distortion of their family life. Both husband and wife are alien to their own house. They have no emotional attachment. For example, when once Walter Morel becomes seriously ill, his wife feels dreary:

When all her woman's pity was roused to its full extent, when she would have slaved herself to death to nurse him and to save him, when she would have taken the pain herself, if she could, somewhere far away inside her she felt indifferent to him and to his suffering. It hurt her most of all, this failure to love him, even when he roused her strong emotions (Page 111).

Effect on the Children

The children of Morel family are no less affected by the mechanical life gifted by industrialization. Arthur, the youngest son of the Morels, is also imprisoned by industrialization. He got a job in the electrical plant at Minton pit after finishing his apprenticeship but later joined in army. His emotional and physical ties to the whole family are the weakest of all the children. In the end, his levity and easy-going ways lead him to the marriage with Beatrice Wyld. After his marriage he is estranged from the family and lives separately with his wife.

Women Coming Out of Their Cocoons

In the industrialized England the women came out from their cocoons and engaged themselves in outdoor activities but separated themselves from their traditional role of a caretaker for husband, children and other family members. This job opportunity of women is recognized as reason of breaking the divine law of women's mission on this universe. As a result no peaceful relationship could happen as in the case of marriage in their family life.

Clara Dawes and Paul

We find the same thing happening in Clara Dawes' life. She represents the modern emancipated woman having the courage to walk out of an unhappy marriage with Baxter Dawes. She supports herself by working at Jordan's factory. Baxter also works at the same factory as the smith. Both of them are trapped in the cage of industrialization. So, their conjugal life does not last long and they are separated from one another. But at the

end of the novel Clara goes back to Sheffield with her husband and Paul is left alone with his father.

Paul is somehow lost without his mother. He can no longer paint, and he puts all of his energy into his work at the factory but his soul seems to be vacillating between light and darkness, between life and death. He thinks off suicide to join with his mother but ultimately leaves off thinking about suicide, and instead walks toward the 'city's gold phosphorescence' which refers to industrialization: "Turning sharply, he walked towards the city's gold phosphorescence. His fists were shut, his mouth set fast. He would not take that direction, to the darkness, to follow her. He walked towards the faintly humming, glowing town, quickly" (P 464). Apparently this is an optimistic ending but it symbolizes that now Paul has to survive in a world where he is devoid of any family tie.

Humans Losing Their Significance

In *Sons and Lovers*, human beings are less significant because they are introduced after six paragraphs. It is done only to highlight the overwhelming influence of industrialization on civilization. In this novel, Mr. Morel's family represents the lower class working people of the then England. The ominous impact of industrialization has intermingled with each sphere of their life.

We see that at the end of the novel Mrs. Morel dies of tumor. Symbolically, this tumor refers to industrialization. Industrialization is the tumor of human civilization. Tumor gradually weakens one and leads one to death.

Likewise industrialization gradually makes the working class people's life hell and takes away their life force. They never become happy. They work hard to make the industrialists rich and happy but in their life, contentment never comes. Industrialization absorbs all good things but leaves dust and darkness for them. They struggle for survival throughout their life.

Moving to Cities for Better Life

While Lawrence was criticizing industrialization and the loss of humanity's bond with the country life, rural people were rushing towards cities throughout the nineteenth century for a better life. The agricultural depression of the 1870s further depleted the number of farmers, and by the turn of the century more than 80 percent of Britain's population lived in cities. The "faintly humming, glowing town" toward which Paul walks at the end of the novel is full of telephones and buses, trams, automobiles, and subway trains- all are the specimen of industrialization.

Problems in Family Caused by Industrial Structure of Civilization

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Regarding the themes in *Sons and Lovers*, Edward Garnett comments on the ‘mining people, their mental outlook, ways of life and habits’ at the backdrop of a newly industrialized community:

Mr. Lawrence silenced...critics [of *The White Peacock* and *The Trespasser*] by his third novel, *Sons and Lovers*, an epic of family life in a colliery district, a piece of social history on a large canvas painted with a patient thoroughness and bold veracity. The central theme, an unhappy working-class marriage, a woman’s struggle to rear her children while sustained by her strong puritanical spirit, develops later into a study of her maternal aversion to surrendering her son to another woman’s arms. The theme is dissected in its innermost spiritual fibers with an unflinching and loving exactitude, while the family drama is seen against an impressive background of the harsh, driving realities of life in a colliery district” (Garnett 1922).

An unhappy working class marriage between Mr. and Mrs. Morel leads to many problems in their family. Walter and Gertrude could not get rid of their incompatibility that annihilated all the possibilities of their conjugal happiness. This inability vitiates the mental and psychological development of the children as well. They gradually learnt to hate their father and feel attracted to mother.

In his personal life Lawrence experienced the bitter relationship between his worker father and his sophisticated mother. He also noticed how the industrialization disturbed the peace of their family life. So, about the importance of a peaceful family life Lawrence himself comments: “No man can live unless his life is rooted in some woman: unless some woman believes in him, and so fixes his belief in himself. Otherwise he is like a water plant, whose root is detached: floating still, and apparently flourishing, upon the river of life, but really decaying slowly.” (P xlii)

Complete Disintegration of the Family

Eventually, we find that with the death of Gertrude Morel, the ill matched matrimonial union of the Morels ends in complete disintegration of the Morels’ family. The first Son, William died earlier; another son, Arthur leads a separate life with his wife and the only daughter of the family, Annie was married off. And now after the death of Mrs. Morel, Mr. Morel goes to one of his friends’ house for living and Paul becomes somewhat a vagabond, unable to choose a life partner which indicates his unwillingness to enter into new relationships further. They all are about to take the taste of essential loneliness of modern life. Industrialization has expedited the speed of human life towards modernity but simultaneously it has taken away the freshness and enormity of family bondage.

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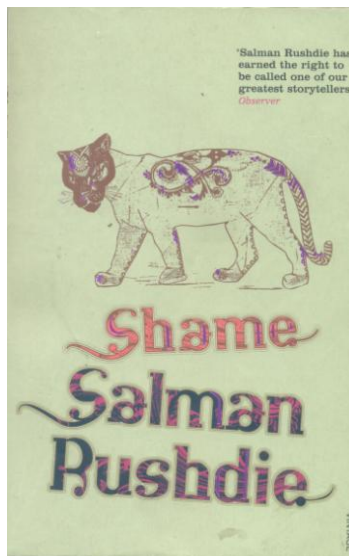
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Authorial Intrusion in Salman Rushdie's *Shame*

Evelynn Sheen Divakar, M.Phil., PGDELT



Authorial Intrusion

Vickie Britton describes authorial intrusion as "... literary device where the author inserts his own thoughts and opinions into the story". Authorial intrusion was a common device in

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Victorian literature. Writers like Jane Austen, John Fowles, William Makepeace Thackeray, Charlotte Bronte, Charles Dickens and others were found to often stop in between their narratives and address the reader directly.

This literary device provided the writer a propitious opportunity digress from the main narrative and furnish the reader with the writer's opinions. More often in Victorian literature the writer used this brass ring to influence the reader's own opinion. Gothic literature utilized this device for foreshadowing and to build an aura of suspense in the plot.

Showing and Telling – Implications of Authorial Intrusion

This trend in writing can be directly linked to “showing and telling”. The mantra for contemporary writing is to show and not tell. A work that is replete with authorial intrusion would naturally end up “telling”. However, authorial intrusion does not imply that the writer exerts overriding authority on the perspective of the reader. The intrusion of the writer may also be a consequence of the desire of the writer to present an objective and multi-dimensional view of the event or character. It may also be a recourse, to present the story, when the narrator is unreliable and instable.

Salman Rushdie and Authorial Intrusion

Though authorial intrusion is generally frowned upon in contemporary literature since it is believed that the reader's understanding and interpretation of the work is limited when the writer breaks in and provides opinions, it can be an effective tool in the hands of a skilled writer. Salman Rushdie is one such writer who often uses authorial intrusion to create a myriad of effects. Rushdie is a writer who cannot be boxed easily. He is a writer who has achieved international recognition as a postmodern writer. One of the significant features of his style is his tendency towards ‘reflexivity’. Reflexivity is the inclination of the writer to raise issues regarding the “...their own nature, status, and role” (Barry).

Replete with Authorial Intrusions

Rushdie's novel *Shame* is replete with instances where the writer speaks directly to the reader. However the authorial intrusion in *Shame* is different from what we find in the Victorian novels and the Gothic novels. Rushdie does not use authorial intrusion to build an atmosphere of suspense neither to foreshadow nor does he use it to impose his ideology on the reader. Authorial intrusion in the hands of Rushdie is used for several purposes.

Readers' Active Participation and Authorial Intrusion

The postmodern writer is very conscious of involving the reader in the narrative. The reader is an active participant in the flow of the events because he leaves the acceptance of the credibility of the story in the hands of the reader.

***Shame*, a Myth of the Political History of Pakistan**

Shame is a novel that deals with the politically turbulent history of Pakistan. Rushdie is in the process of making a myth of the political history of Pakistan. He is fully aware of what he is doing and wants the reader to be fully involved in the process.

When Rushdie interrupts his own narrative with a personal voice and addresses a reader or throws a question at the reader, he is actually vesting the reader with some of the responsibility that the storyteller bears on his shoulders. For example the instance when the writer is describing the commencement of Omar Khayyam's insomnia he talks about his midnight adventures in the book and leaves a decision in the hands of the reader in the following sentence: "...but as to whether he grew up into a caped crusader or cloaked bloodsucker, into Batman or Dracula, I leave it to the reader to decide" (22).

Reflexivity and Authorial Intrusion

Rushdie's authorial intrusion is closely linked to reflexivity. At times the writer would question the very validity of his narrative and the skill with which his own work is crafted. For instance he questions the effectiveness of Omar as a hero: "Dizzy, peripheral, inverted, infatuated, insomniac, stargazing, fat: what manner of hero is this?" The reader is also left with a lingering doubt if such a hero would be able to shoulder his responsibility and wear the robe of a protagonist with ease.

Chapter two "Necklace of Shoes" begins with a long intrusion which to a careless reader might appear as a digression. Rushdie opens this chapter with a little snippet of information about his family and their house he thus takes the reader into confidence by sharing information about his family. However the purpose of this form of authorial intrusion is not confined to taking the reader into confidence. The location of Rushdie's house in the "Defence" provides Rushdie a chance to throw a glaring spotlight on the corrupt practices of those who held authority when it comes to land dealings.

The Method of Reflexivity

Rushdie relates a similar incident when he wanted to eagerly initiate a conversation on the recent execution of Zulfikar Ali Bhutto but he was silently reprimanded for this, "But only half the question got past my lips; the other half joined the ranks of the area's many unasked queries..." (27). Through this incident Rushdie very subtly hinted that censorship had not just extended its grip to the realm of freedom of speech but also the realm of thought. Throughout the novel Rushdie affirms that the country in the book, the country which is the wing without the bird, is not Pakistan. However by drawing the reader's attention to the very conspicuous parallels between the events that were sending seismic tremors across Pakistan and the fictitious country in the book, Rushdie is giving this magical realist book a touch of reality. The events in the book thus can claim to have their roots in real events that happened during the most turbulent days in Pakistani history.

Creating Dramatic Effect through Authorial Intrusion

Rushdie also uses authorial intrusion to create a certain dramatic effect on the readers. It also serves as a jolt to startle and wake the reader who has gently slipped into a stupor mellifluous linguistic flow that the writer is adept at creating.

For example, “Shame, dear reader, is not the exclusive property of the East” (29). In contrast to the above example Rushdie easily slips into an easy conversational tone in the narrative. He draws the reader into what Toni Morrison calls a “co-conspiracy” by demanding the reader’s acknowledgement and approval of the story that he is telling.

The reader is enchanted into a world of secrets (secrets that everybody is aware of but nobody dares to acknowledge), of half whispered truths, of pasts that have been neatly swept under the carpet, and of a present that is stranger than reality. The writer thus treats the reader as a comrade in the quest for the real story. Thus reader cannot remain a passive spectator of events, he is drawn into the story, the struggle and the ideology of the characters.

Authorial Intrusion and Magical Realism

Rushdie’s *Shame* also presents an interesting study on how authorial intrusion works in a magical realist work. The reader hears the author’s premonitory voice foreshadowing some of the most “magical” elements. Though the reader is shocked into realization of the veiled truth behind the fantastic truth it is the authorial voice that gently guides the reader to the reality.

Foregrounding

The writer also uses authorial intrusion to foreground certain issues which would otherwise be lost in the background. For instance when uses the allusion to the Norse mythological tree of Yggdrasil to foreground the dual identity of a migrant experience. Thus Rushdie has been successful in blending authorial intrusion with his postmodernist and magical realist works.

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Authorial Intrusion in Salman Rushdie’s *Shame*

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Foundations of Curriculum in Education

Amtul Hafeez Chaudhry, Ph.D., Aijaz Ahmed Gujjar, Ph.D. Candidate
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Introduction

Curriculum development not an easy task it require technical competence, ability to understand curriculum problems and also understanding curriculum development process prevailing all over globe. Curriculum developers should ensure that they are working in accordance with national goals, ideas and aspirations.

Curriculum development is a process which has relies on certain basis or foundations. These foundations are very important. These foundations are built on certain factors and theoretical aspects.

Curriculum developers have knowledge of theoretical aspect of their work which in other words refers to foundations of curriculum. The curriculum foundation may be defined as those basic forces that influence and shapes of minds of curriculum developers and enhance the content and structure of the subsequent curriculum. Ideas about curriculum do not arise automatically in vacuum. Such ideas are actually based upon views about nature, source of values, worthwhile, knowledge and the role of teachers and the school. Therefore the development of curriculum depends largely on the ideas that grow out of the fields of philosophy, psychology and sociology.

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- a. The literature in this area generally distinguishes three categories of sources for curriculum foundations. [Tyler1949; Lawton 1973; Tanner & tanner 1930; Taba 1962; Saylor, Alexander & Lewis 1981;Eisner 1979; Brady 1992]
- a. Studies of learners and learning theory [psychology].
- b. Studies if life [sociology and culture].
- c. Study of nature and value of knowledge. [Philosophy]

These sources of curriculum foundations constitute the principal area of the curriculum development and effect the ways the developers think and conceive about curricula. Philosophical work can help curriculum developers to understand the

- . Nature of objectives
- . Structure and interrelationship of objectives.
- . Nature of curriculum activities.
- . The structure of curriculum plan and the contents and method.

Philosophical Foundations of Curriculum

Philosophy is the quest of wisdom and facts. It is the study of realities and principles. It concerns with the research of inner truths. Philosophy provides organized procedure for clarifying issues, problems and making decisions on critical points of curriculum development.

Philosophy and philosophical assumptions are basic to all curriculum foundations as they are concerned with making sense of what we encounter in our lives.

Philosophical foundation of curriculum is always search for truth and realities. It can better inform what comprise a good curriculum. Philosophy can be developed by involving all concerned. For example to develop school system philosophy we can involve persons, teachers, students and parents and the community. (Golen, 1982)

Curriculum development is a continuous process in which aims, goals and objectives are derived from philosophy of education, then according to those content will be selected, then learning experiences are organized and at last but not least evaluation will be made, to check whether our objectives have been achieved or not. So philosophy is extremely important in the process of curriculum development.

Philosophical Categories

Major philosophies of life and education have traditionally been defined by three criteria: What is good? What is true? What is real? (Hass, 1987) Every body perceives these criteria differently.

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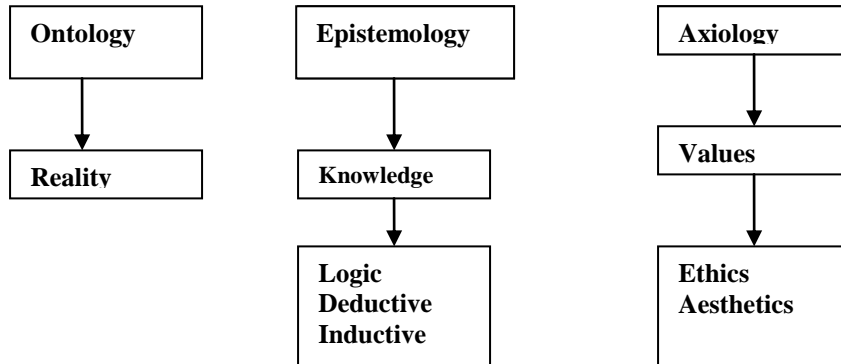
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There are four categories that have particular relevance for curriculum development.

- i. Ontology [the nature of reality]
- ii. Epistemology [the nature of knowledge]
- iii. Axiology [the nature of value]
- iv. logic



Ontology

In philosophical language, the study of reality is called as ontology (Hass, 1987).

Ontology is concerned with the nature of reality and by asking the questions ‘what is real’. A number of curiosities become clear. While this question may appear simple at the first glance, it deserves greater consideration. Different societies, i.e.; perceive reality in quite different ways, as do the individuals, who constitute these societies, it was accepted as real that the earth was flat, yet today we would regard this as nonsense. Similarly one society may regard the use of the chemical fertilizers as essential, while other may consider biological waste more useful than the chemical. (Shahid, 2002)

Thus, what is real to a society is very important and must be taken into account while constructing curriculum indeed, some curriculum developers see their role as a vehicle for change (Shahid, 2002)

In our curriculum main task is that we expose students to nature of reality. Students can acquire the reality of natural world through science, the reality of the social world through social studies, and the reality of communication through reading and language arts. (Schubert, 1980)

Epistemology

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In philosophical language, study of truth is called epistemology. (Hass, 1987) Epistemology is probably the branch of philosophy that most directly speaks to education. It deals with nature of knowledge and knowledge process. (Schubert, 1980) For walkers and walkers epistemology is the study of the nature, scope and applicability of knowledge.

In curriculum, where what we advocate becomes the basis for student learning, we all are centrally concerned with the nature of knowledge, how we know and how we know what we know. (Print, 1993) When posing epistemological questions in curriculum we ask; what is true? How do we know the truth? How do we know that we know? These are obviously vital questions for curriculum development. To consider particularly in a society which purportedly values truth and seeks to pass on truth to subsequent generations' reference to how do we know if that is true? How do we know that we know?

To answer these questions, it is important to examine the several different ways of knowing and their implications.

Authority

This is the oldest ways of acquiring knowledge. If we analyze the history of human beings, we will find out many authority figures e.g. tribal leaders, the poet, the priest, the ruler etc.

In school settings knowledge can be acquire through authority figures which are textbook, the encyclopedia, the teacher, the administrator.

Revelation

It was considered as major source of knowledge in early human evolution. Then in every era religious beliefs are considered as truth.

Empiricism

This is a source of knowledge which is older than authority and revelation. Senses plays main role in acquiring knowledge about truth.

According to Schubert “through the senses we experience. And experience is the best teacher”.

Reason

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In this way of acquiring knowledge rationality and logical analysis has special consideration. In educational setting through mathematics logical reasoning is addressed.

The Scientific Method

This way on knowing is practical and more related to problem solving. This is related with formal way of knowledge. It has certain steps to be followed to acquire knowledge of truth as summarized by John Dewey, 1938 and cited by Schubert.

- a. identification of problem
- b. stating problem
- c. gathering data
- d. formulate hypotheses
- e. Selecting and applying a course of action and anticipating its consequences.

Intuition

It refers to a variety of means of immediate apprehension of knowledge. It is given less considerations in academic settings.

Thus, in any curriculum development activity, but particularly related to schools, the epistemological stance taken by those developers involved is of vital importance. Will they include the accepted truth? What does that constitute? To what degree is there a consensus accepting that truth or is that “consensus” a fallacy too? And so the epistemological questions continue. (Print, 1993) At the very least, curriculum developers should be aware of epistemology and be prepared to pose the fundamental questions involved in such a study. (Print, 1993)

Axiology

In the language of philosophy, the study of goodness is referred to as axiology. (Hass, 1987)

Is that aspect of philosophy that is concerned with the nature of value? Axiological questions are a fundamental feature of our life in that the resulting decisions have a profound effect upon our behavior. (Shahid, 2002)

Questions such as: what is good? What is desirable to humans? What is valuable?

Thus axiological considerations are important in one’s development of a curriculum for future generations. It provides frame of reference to curriculum developers.

Zais (1976:119) contends that axiological questions are usually divided into two main categories: ethics and aesthetics.

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a) Ethics

It is concerned with concepts of good and bad, right and wrong as they apply to human behavior. When constructing curricula, developers need to be aware of both their own ethical positions and ethical basis (hopefully not bias) that they are integrating into the curriculum.

Thus, developers will select objectives and contents that, in their mind are more ethical both in terms of knowledge and process.

Curriculum will acquire certain ethical knowledge (what is right and wrong) as well as the skills required for making future ethical decisions. Robert Zia's summarized the situation succinctly: "education after all, is a process of deliberately influencing children and youth in such a way that they become what they would not otherwise become. And the curriculum is the master plan by which this purpose is accomplished. (1976:119)

b) Aesthetics

It is concerned with such value issues as beauty and enjoyment of human experience. Aesthetics questions include:

- What is beautiful?
- What aspects of the senses produce enjoyment?
- And what aesthetic experiences yield "higher-order enjoyment?"

These issues involving aesthetics produce particular difficulties for curriculum developers because individuals answer the above questions in very different ways. What is beautiful to one person may be ugly to another, particularly if they come from different cultures. The curriculum developers face enormous problems over what to include and what to exclude from the curriculum.

Some of the problems face by curriculum developers may be expressed in the following questions.

- a. To what degree are aesthetics learnt naturally and therefore not required to be taught at school
- b. What aesthetics should be taught?
- c. Should schools emphasize the process of aesthetics judgment-making or knowledge about what is aesthetically prized
- d. Strong consensus has emerged within schooling that a curriculum should include elements of aesthetical appreciation and skill acquisition. Thus,

art, music, theater, dance, craft and so forth are commonly found in school curricula.

- e. How much of each should be included in a school curriculum.

Logic

This branch of philosophy deals with the nature of reason. It also focuses on relationship among ideas. How we differentiate, by implying rules of logic, between correct thinking from false thinking.

It educates us that how we can think precisely and evidently. There are two main types of logic: deductive logic and inductive logic.

Teachers design his/her instruction by using deductive logic or inductive logic. In deductive teaching, teacher begins with presentation of any topic then gives examples related to that particular topic to broaden students understanding.

In inductive teaching, teacher begins with examples, students understand examples and then they are encouraged to formulate their own examples.

Many curriculum developers employ the method of logic as a process in their decision making. Clearly logic-the systematic treatment of ideas-is of immeasurable value to a curriculum developer and it is recommended that all curriculum developers employ it.

According to Armstrong selection of deductive and inductive logic has important implications for curriculum workers who make content selection and content sequencing decisions.

Above mentioned all sources represent the different aspects of philosophy that influence and are in need of consideration by curriculum developers. They raise fundamental questions that require thoughtful examination by curriculum developers both for their curricula directly and for themselves.

For the curriculum developers the value of philosophical considerations is abundantly clear. Ontology, epistemology and axiology provide a useful structure for examining one's own philosophical position as well as how philosophical stances affect the development of curricula. In these considerations, one might pose some typical philosophical questions that are useful to the curriculum developers:

On what grounds should content be selected or rejected.

- a. How different is instruction from conditioning
- b. Are there distinct forms of knowledge

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- c. How can specific curricula be justified
- d. Why certain goals and objectives are considered worthwhile
- e. How should content be structured within a curriculum?
- f. Should a curriculum be differentiated for different students?
- g. What is fact?
- h. To what degree should “new” reality included within the curriculum (Print, 1993)

Answers to questions of above mentioned philosophical categories lead to major philosophies of education.

Five Educational Philosophies

Five educational philosophies are as under:

- i. Perennialism**
- ii. Idealism**
- iii. Realism**
- iv. Experimentalism**
- v. Existentialism**

Perennialism

This philosophy is the traditional one which is not liberal rather it is more conservative and it is also not flexible as compare to other philosophies.

According to the proponents of Perennialism, education and human nature are similar in a sense that both are constant. Humans are superior from other creatures because they are having the ability to reason. Main focus of education is to develop rationality. So education is important and main task of education is to prepare for life.

For the perennialists, reality is a world of reason. Such truths are revealed to us through study and sometimes through divine acts. Perennialists would favor a curriculum of subjects which are taught through discipline drill and behavior control. (Hass, 1987)

According to them main task of school is to reveal reason by teaching eternal truths. The teacher interprets and tells, student is a passive recipient because truth is eternal. (Hass, 1987)

Idealism

Truth cannot reveal through basic human senses. Truth can be found in the world of mind (world of ideas). This is the process of development of insights. According to them

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reality is a world within person's mind. We can find out the reality (truth) through the consistency of ideas.

Where have we come from? Where we have to go? These questions are central in life. Idealism has its beginnings with the writings of Plato. Who views world of ideas, which is more real than existing world.

The idealists claim that "the heart of reality" is found in thought or reason, and reason is absolute.(Golen, 1982)

John Marshall, in his writings concerning the teacher and his philosophy, states that the idealists view the teacher in the educative process as having the most important role. The student moves nearer to the ideal through the emulation of his teacher and through following his teacher in the discussion of ideas. Thus the preferred methods of teaching are based on lecture and discussion. So as the teachers are role le model they have to show ideal behavior. Teacher has to mould the mind of learner. Main task of the school is to polish and enhance intellectual processes.

To the idealist, the subject matter is concerned with the ideal man and ideal society. Books are the sources of the subject matter ideas. Therefore to understand society and life one must study history, and to understand man one must study literature and the humanities. Other subjects like Philosophy, theology, literature and other liberal arts suitable to enhance mind capacity, in finding truth.

Dupis and Nordberg cite Herman H. Horne in which he contends that

Curriculum building should start by the character of an ideal man and that of an ideal society. Then teach whatever contribute to these goals.....intellect, emotion and will must be developed-some science, some art and some volition.

Van Cleve Morris states that in most high schools the subject matter of ideas is considered to be more important and rank higher than the subject matter of physical things. He also suggests that there is a kind of hierarchy of subjects throughout the curriculum which are as follows:

i. Ideas and concepts

These subject matters are generally speaking mathematics, the languages and history.

ii. Sciences

Though they search for certainty and permanent truth, never seem to reach it because all science by definition is inextricably embedded in the physical world of indeterminacy and change.

iii. Technical and manual subjects

These are home economics, woodshop, arts, crafts, and driver training. They are relatively less concerned with the theoretical and conceptual stressing primarily tactics and techniques.

Realism

For realists' world exists. Its focus is on existing world and knowledge. Realists emphasize on the validity of senses to interpret the existing world, they promote the skill development which is necessary to gain factual knowledge. Its origin traced back to Aristotle then revived during the enlightenment by John Locke, who argued that "all knowledge is provided by experience".

According to them important task of educators is to adjust learners to the realities of existing world. Main task of education and schooling is to teach about world which exists. In curriculum emphasis is on mathematics and science, factual information is taught to students for mastery. Truth can be revealed through observation.

This philosophy was developed as reaction of idealism, the notion that the real and true world existed only in the minds of man. To idealists, according to John Marshall, "primary educational aim is to teach those things and values which will lead to the good life. But for the realist, the good life is equated with one which is in tune with the overarching order of natural law".

These laws are not learned in literature and history, but are learned through the direct study of nature. This is associated with the subject matters.

Experimentalism

According to experimentalism world is kept on changing. It is not static. Reality can be explored through experience or whatever you experience is reality.

Perennialists, idealist and realists' don't accept change but experimentalism welcomes change openly and continuously working to find out ways to improve society.

The experimentalist would favor a school with heavy emphasis on social subjects and experiences. (Hass, 1987)

Individual learner acquires learning through problem solving and inquiry format. Teacher role is as facilitator, who helps students to discover the world around them.

Existentialism

They view the world in terms of their own way, personal liking and disliking is there. Truth and reality is defined individually. Reality is a world of existing, truth subjectively chosen and goodness is a matter of freedom. (Hass, 1987)

According to (Armstrong, 1990) “a general theme of existentialism is that human beings face one fundamental problem-coming to terms with the inevitability of their own death”.

Every individual face this reality by himself, alone. That’s why, existentialists give major value to individual choice, freedom, and personal responsibility. It will help curriculum developers to design elective subjects opportunities provided to students for free choice.

Dupis and Nordberg cite Herman H. Horne stated that in the curriculum

Great freedom of choice would be encouraged. After all, “man is freedom”, he is granted freedom by some authority. Therefore, the students should select those areas of knowledge with which he feels personally involved and through which he can best develop his own potentialities, his own being or existence.

Specific subject matter in the arts, which include music, painting, poetry, and creative writing and ethics, philosophy and religion, would get preferential treatment in the curriculum.

Curricular changes such as “free school movement” and the open class room are examples of innovations which emphasize the student choice and self-activity.

If schools exist, then schools are such type of place in which help and assistance provided to students, So that they can better understand themselves and find out their role in society. The subject matter, if exist; it would be arts, ethics and philosophy.

Philosophy and Curriculum

Every society is held together by a common faith or “philosophy”, which serves its members as a guide for living a good life. It is therefore, quite natural for the adults of the society to pass on this philosophy or “knowledge of good” to their children.

In primitive societies knowledge of good life was passed on informally, from father to son and from mother to daughter. But in developing and developed societies, schools are

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established to induct the young into the ways of living that adults consider well. Thus the curriculum of the schools, whatever else it may do, is first and foremost designed to win the hearts and minds of the young to those principles and ideals that will direct them to wise decisions.

According to Smith, Stanley and Shores moral authority is one of the chief guides of curriculum building. They say that moral authority is derived from fundamental principles of right and wrong. Evidently, the problem is philosophical.

According to Spencer, the building of a curriculum should be based on the main human activities. He fixes the relative value of subjects in order of their importance; he gives first place to subjects that relate to self preservation. According to the naturalists, the present experiences, activities and interests should be the guiding factor. To idealists, the child's present and future activities are not at all important in the curriculum construction.

The Experiences of Humans

Philosophical work can assist curriculum developers in many ways, but it is particularly useful in helping us to understand: The nature of educational objectives, the structure and interrelatedness of the objectives, the nature of curriculum activities, the structure of curriculum plans dependent upon both the content and the methods we wish to employ.

Psychological Foundations of Curriculum

The word psychology is derived from two Greek words psyche means soul and logos mean study, which means the study of soul. Psychology is the scientific study of human behavior.

The Need of Psychological Foundations

When we explored the history of teaching and learning, we find following practices:

- Teachers were not aware about learner psychology.
- Teaching methodologies proceed from known to unknown, from simple to difficult. Traditional methods of teaching were used.
- Individual differences were not taken into account; all students were treated in same manner.
- Attention is not given to student adjust mental and other personal and academic problems.
- Teachers were not aware about student personality, his attitudes, aptitude, interests and his developmental needs.
- Curriculum was rigid, not up-dated.

According to Chaube et. al, (1994)

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Teacher views mind as only “a ‘bundle of faculties’, and the instruction was only to be directed to train these independent faculties. Observation was nothing but an instrument to train the senses. He thought memory could be best strengthening by drill and repetition. Setting difficult problems to students was regarded as a very suitable method to sharpen their reason.

With the emergence of psychological researches, old ways of thinking has been changed. Old concepts and ideas are replaced with new concepts of psychology. Role of teacher is redefined. Teacher is now better aware about new methodologies of teaching, individual differences, intelligence, growth and development of learners, learner personality, their attitude and aptitude. Teacher can take guidance from learning theories for the effectiveness of his instruction.

Contributions of Psychology

Through the analysis of the some of the contributions of psychology, the need of psychological foundation of curriculum will be understand. Some contributions are as follows:

- It aware us about individual differences
- It helps in understanding and solving students problems in more effective manner
- Knowledge about the process of growth and development of children at different stages of life and aspects and factors influencing children growth and development
- It gives us insight to learning process through different learning theories e.g. behaviorism, cognitivism, humanism, constructivism and their classroom implications
- It well equipped us with assessment tool and assessment procedures which are appropriate for evaluating learning of children
- It helps in construction, use and application of psychological tests e.g. achievement test. Aptitude test, intelligence tests etc.
- It gives information about learning disabilities of learners.

So main aim of psychology is all round of learners. Our curriculum are not so planned and organized as to develop critical thinking skills and imagination, satisfy student curiosity and interests.

Role of Psychology in Curriculum Development

Psychology attempts to describe, explain and predict human behavior. Psychology gives us an insight into the child’s development and learning and provides various techniques of inquiry for use in the curriculum area.

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The contribution of psychological basis to curriculum is significant and is growing. As this is a relatively young discipline, the scope for applying its concepts, principles, processes and values to curriculum development is gradually increasing.

Psychological Sources

The purpose of psychology is the study of human behavior. The psychologists are concerned with: Describing, Explaining, Predicting, Evaluating (investigating) the behavior of human beings.

Psychology through its understanding of learning and learning procedures does indirectly influence the selection of specific content for student as well as the selection of learning activities for students to acquire content. Curriculum, therefore, can draw upon psychology, particularly educational psychology for at least five areas of information.

- 1) Educational objectives
- 2) Student characteristics
- 3) Learning process
- 4) Teaching methods
- 5) Evaluation procedures

The study of psychology does not provide a source of contents in a school curriculum. Let us briefly examine the psychological sources that the curriculum developers can employ.

Educational Objectives

Knowledge of the psychology of learning helps the curriculum developers to devise and phrase appropriate goals and objectives. The curriculum developers can determine whether goals and objectives are suitable for various developmental levels and ages of learners and that whether they are attainable or not. Subsequently, the formulation of curriculum goals and objectives has profound influence upon the selection of contents for the curriculum.

Student/Learner Characteristics

An understanding of the nature of learners particularly of individual differences and personalities will assist the curriculum developers to make more choices in curriculum decision-making. The study of personality can tell us whether different personalities respond to learning experiences in different ways. Indeed, this is something the experienced teacher has long known and some teachers have endeavored to accommodate these differences within their classrooms. Similarly, an understanding of individual

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differences is most useful to the curriculum developers. An effective curriculum is able to accommodate differences in student skills and abilities.

Learning Processes

Perhaps the greatest contribution that psychology makes to curriculum is an understanding of how people learn. The curriculum developers, who have a sound grasp of learning and learning theory, are in a commanding position to devise an appropriate curriculum for learners. In particular, an understanding of learning is essential to the effective selection of appropriate learning/ teaching strategies.

Whether or not one supports a theory of operant conditioning such as that of B.F. Skinner, some forms of gestalt theory, Jean Piaget's approach to growth and development, or some other form of explaining how learning occurs, the final outcomes speaks how the curriculum is shaped. Indeed, one of the difficulties encountered by curriculum developers is the vast array of theories, paradigms and algorithms that support to explain the process of learning.

Teaching Methods

Psychology makes a significant contribution to both the selection of learning experiences and the way teaching is conducted in the classroom. In the school curriculum an understanding of psychology is essential to the curriculum developers in devising appropriate learning experiences and conditions for learning. In selecting learning experiences, the curriculum developers should take an account of

- Learning theories
- Individual differences amongst students
- Motivational strategies
- Personality
- Cognitive and affective development
- Teaching style
- Group dynamics
- Teaching methodology and
- Learning styles

This extensive list of psychological factors suggests that the curriculum developers can make substantial use of psychological principles and sources,

Evaluation Procedures

Psychology can also provide curriculum developers with directions for undertaking the evaluation of students and teachers performance. Educational psychologists have Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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developed a vast array of techniques for measuring the degree of students learning, student attitude towards learning/ teaching and so forth, as well as the extent of teacher's effectiveness.

Educational psychologists, as well as other educators, have been concerned with such evaluation issues as

- Norm-referenced assessment or criterion referenced assessment
- The role of formative evaluation
- Appropriate instruments to measure students' performance
- Determination of teacher's effectiveness

These aspects of psychology indicate the range of influence that psychology has upon the development of curriculum.

Human Growth and Development

Knowledge about growth and development of the child has a great bearing on what to teach at a given level. Learning outcomes have to be determined with reference to the characteristics thought forms at the various age-levels with a view to orienting curriculum to child learners' needs and capacities.

The processes of human development and nature of learning have special significance for curriculum development.

The relationship between psychological foundations and curriculum are given below
Curriculum to be child-centered must take into account the psychological make-up the learners i.e. nervous system has a great bearing on the curriculum development for different age groups.

Learning experiences should be provided according to the mental development of then learner. On this account learners are divided into ability grouping.

The effectiveness of the curriculum depends on the interests of the learners. So the curriculum planning

Curriculum decisions are not to be made arbitrarily but on the factors determining individual's growth and development. A fixed and rigid curriculum is hardly suitable as it fails to accommodate the needs of slow learners, late starters' as well fast learner.

School curriculum on the whole, should aim at enabling the learners to acquire knowledge, develop concepts and inculcate skills, attitudes, values and habits conducive

to the all round development of their personality and commensurate with the social, cultural economic and environmental realities at national and international levels.

Philosophy determines the aim of education, but psychology can determine the practicability of a certain aim. Psychology has revolutionized our educational practices.

Sociological Foundations of Curriculum

Sociology is the study of society, its origins, development and constitution. it deals with the fundamental laws of social relations and institutions, involving the examination of laws and principles underlying human reactions and the interpretation of the phenomena of group life. The subject includes such topics as social structures and organizations, the interaction of social groups, the means of social control and the processes of social change.

Individual live in society and society has taken upon itself the function of educating them. Therefore, neither the individual nor the judgments are made as to what aspects of culture are to be included and why.

In order to examine the social foundations of the curriculum in Pakistan we need to keep in mind the following factors

- Our values and beliefs
- The nature of our culture
- Social changes and problems in our country.

Keeping in view the society in Pakistani context the sociological foundation will be helpful in the following considerations.

- 1) The curriculum should be based on the nature of society as it exists today and will emerge in the future.
- 2) Our society is changing very rapidly. Keeping in view the current situation, one could argue more emphasis needs to be placed on vocational and professional education.
- 3) Changes make it necessary for curriculum builders to-appraise the role of instruction in home and family living and community responsibilities.
- 4) The curriculum should always be relevant to pupil's lives.
- 5) Curriculum developers should take care that we don't aggravate old problems or create new ones. Our people have to learn to be fairing, honest, tolerant, and well disciplined. The curriculum builders have an important part to play in developing these attitudes in our student.

Curriculum must take into account the sociological considerations otherwise it will remain bookish and divorced from life. A curriculum that ignores sociological foundations does not serve any purpose. It results in waste of time, energy and resources. It will produce individuals, who cannot play their role effectively as enlightened members of a society.

A sound curriculum must be based on the needs and aspirations of a society. An unrelated curriculum may lead to individuals, who can neither find employment nor engage themselves in fruitful occupations and consequently remain dissatisfied, maladjusted and frustrated.

Etymological Meaning of Sociology

Sociological as defined in dictionaries is “the science or study of society”.

The term was coined by Comte (1830) linking the Latin ‘socius’ (originally a people, tribe or city allied to Rome, but later a society) to Greek ‘logos’ (study). The term spread rapidly and is now used in virtually all languages to denote any real rigorous, reasoned study of society.

Definitions of Sociology

‘Sociology is the systematic study of the groups and societies, human beings build and the way these alliances affects our behavior’.

Sociology is the study of social life and social causes and consequences of human behavior. It is more related with the study of society, its origin, development and constitution.

Social life encompasses all interpersonal relationships. The causes and consequences of human behavior encompass how these relationships, groups and organizations influence personal and interpersonal behavior.

Sociology is the study of social relationships, social institutions and society’.

Role of Sociology in Curriculum Development

According to sociologists, schools are social institutions specially setup for the preservation of culture and transmission of culture by society. School seeks to discharge this function through the curriculum. The curriculum, therefore, includes learning experiences based on the ways of, kinds of knowledge, attitudes and beliefs that are considered important by the society. Some kinds of selection are needed; as all the

aspects of culture cannot be included in the curriculum planning thus becomes a way for the selection of various elements.

Sociology has contributed principally to the determine aims while framing the curriculum. It also promotes an understanding of the curriculum as a social system. A continuous examination of the goals and demands of the society and the forces operating in it is necessary in order to keep education reality oriented: to examine what knowledge is most worthwhile, which skills must be mastered and which values are relevant. These are very important issues which must be considered if education is an active agent of social change.

There are various sociological foundations like cultural, economic and political that deeply influence the school curriculum, its conception, content and organization. Among the most important sociological considerations that should guide those engaged in the task of curriculum development, may be listed as below

- Core values of society
- Changing values of the people
- Demands of modernization
- Criterion of a good family life
- New forms of cooperation
- Media explosion
- Population explosion
- Regional and national imbalances
- Economic efficiency
- Education for fellowship and leadership creative and purposeful activities.(Shahid, 2002)

Society affects curriculum in four major ways:

- 1) by inhibiting change through the power of tradition
- 2) by speeding change which stems in turn from broader social and cultural changes
- 3) by creating problem which result from value conflicts within our society
- 4) By applying pressures that originate in major segments of society and culture.

In any society traditional values are considered very important. In school settings there are some set traditions which have been followed. Society is kept on changing with emerging needs of world. There are social and cultural changes, these changes effect curriculum. Conflicts in values are certain in society. Schools face different sort of social and cultural pressures in every era.

Curriculum for the Modernization of the Society

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Amtul Hafeez Chaudhry, Ph.D., Aijaz Ahmed Gujjar, Ph.D. Candidate and
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Foundations of Curriculum in Education

The curriculum for modernizing the society stressed the following:

- Restructuring contents of the various subjects in the light of modern development in science and technology.
- Adopting new methods of teaching.
- Encouraging activities for awaking curiosity and developmental interest, attitude and values and building up of such essential skills as independent study and capacity to think and judge for oneself.

1. Culture

Culture defines an accepted way of life. One implication of this statement of course, is that the accepted way of life is the preferred way that is the accepted way of life has more value than other alternative ways.

We can see that culture is a valued loaded enterprise, so to speak. It provides the members of society with the good and the bad the beautiful and the ugly

2. Society and Culture

A society is a collection of individuals, who have organized themselves into a distinct group. To be a society, however, a distinct group and not just a collection of individuals, the members of the group must perceive themselves as having things in common, which enable them to belong. These things in common are the stuff of which culture is made.

Culture then, may roughly be viewed as a kind of social cement that consists of characteristics, habits, ideals, attitudes, beliefs and ways of thinking of a particular group of people. Even from these sketchy definitions, it is clear that while society and culture is certainly not the same thing, without a culture there could be no society, and without a society there could be no culture. (Smith, Stanley and Shores 1957)

3. Complexity of the Concept “Culture”

Culture is a highly complex concept that requires a great deal of considerations and study then we are able to allow here; it is similar to such concepts as “democracy”, “morality” and “love”, which have a multiplicity of meanings.

In relatively broad term we might say that culture defines an accepted way of life. It includes a vast array of easily observed facets of living such as material products, political and social organizations, characteristic vacations, modes of dress, fads, foods, games and music.

4. The Structure of Culture

A structural framework was proposed for the purpose of facilitating the study of curriculum. This theoretical model was based upon a classification of the total curriculum phenomenon into a complex of eight internal factors, which are

- Epistemology
- Society / Culture
- The individual
- Learning Theory
- Aims
- Contents
- Learning Activities
- Evaluation

In much the same way, the study of culture will be facilitated if we are able to proceed upon the basis of hypothetical structural framework. One useful framework, proposed by Ralph Linton (1936), is presented here because of its simplicity and its congruence with the theoretical constituents of society and culture that we have been developing.

Linton has proposed that all elements of culture can be classified into three principal categories.

- The universals
- The specialties
- The alternatives

The Universals

The universals comprise those values, beliefs and customs that are generally held by the entire adult population. For example, in a wide variety of instances, behavior in such areas as language, food, religion and economics tends rather circumscribed in our society.

The Specialties

The second category identified by Linton, includes those elements of the culture to be found only within sub-groups of the society. Among the most common of these are the vocational subgroups; in our society certain behavior is expected of professors, for example, that be quite different from those expected of businessmen.

The Alternatives

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The alternatives are those beliefs and practices that violate culturally accepted norms in their attempt to fulfill a need, solve a problem, or simply to allow a more congruent perception of reality. Alternatives are like specialties; however, all members of the society may not share them.

The social and cultural influences that curriculum. Education manifests through the curriculum and reflects society and culture, that reflection is a result of curriculum developers being an integral part of that society and culture in both of the above ways. In this way the curriculum more 'reflects' society and than society leads to change. (Shahid, 2002)

Indirectly society and culture influence curriculum developers simply because they are members of a particular society, culture values, attitudes and beliefs are acquired by individuals unaware of that process yet, once acquired, these cultural traits become consolidated and affect our social behavior. And when the process of curriculum development take place, the cultural traits within developers influence the very selection of objectives, contents, methods and evaluation that constitute the curriculum they are devising.(Shahid, 2002)

Take, for example, a group of primary school teachers, who decide to enhance the literacy component of an exiting curriculum on completion one could analyze the result of determine why they undertook the task, what objectives were formulated. What content was employed, how it was taught and how it was evaluated. In many instances, when probed deeply enough, the teachers would be unaware of the basis of their decisions. If story reading were a component of the revised curriculum, what proportion would be oral reading? Why? And how would that is assessed? What stories were selected for students? Why? These are typical of questions that should be asked of curriculum developers when they construct curricula, and which reveal indirect influences of society and culture.

Alternatively, curriculum developers may be well aware of social and cultural influences and have the deliberate intention in mind (or not) of reproducing aspects of that culture in the curriculum. (Shahid, 2002)

In order to examine social foundations in Pakistan, we need to keep in mind the following factors:

- Our values and beliefs
- The nature of our culture
- Social changes and problems in our country

Values and Beliefs in Our Society

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Pakistan is an ideological society; it came into being on the basis of two-nation theory. This country came into being in the name of Islam. Therefore Islam and its values are the basis of this country. Islam is the common binding factor of the various regions of Pakistan. Islam is not a religion but a complete code of life.

The Nature of Pakistani Culture

Pakistan is a land of rich cultural heritage, land of different linguistic regions and races. People living in different parts of Pakistan may be different in their respective languages, historical back ground and traditions, yet they are linked by the unbreakable ties of one common religion which binds them together.

Social Changes and Problems

Curriculum developers, planners should also consider the societal changes, problems and the overall situation prevailing in the country. Among the most important developments to consider are

- a) Population increase
- b) Urbanization
- c) Terrorism

So, curriculum workers should consider the current demands of society and highlight those in curriculum. We can say curriculum should be the reflection of society.

Conclusion

In the planning of curriculum, the curriculum developer should use what he knows about philosophy, psychology, sociology of the particular area. This multi-dimensional approach to planning will distinguish a curriculum developer from other professionals in education such as specialists in human development, learning, and the areas of social structure, group sensitivity, knowledge or educational philosophy.

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Dealing with Gender Bias inside Bangladeshi Classrooms An Overview of Teachers' Perspectives

Syeda Farzana Sultana, M.A.

Abstract

In this paper, the author investigates to what extent the English language teachers in different private universities in Bangladesh are aware of gender bias, how it influences their teaching and how they react and respond to it. To find answers to these questions, a questionnaire was used to be completed by teachers from different private universities in Bangladesh. Question papers designed by a few teachers were studied, some classes were observed and a few teachers were interviewed.

The findings are discussed in the paper and, consequently, some suggestions are also made. The findings show that the Bangladeshi private university teachers are not much aware of gender bias; more initiatives should be taken to make them cognizant of it.

Key Words: Gender Bias, non-sexist language, gender inclusive language.

1.0 Introduction

We all carry cultural images of men and women. Did we ever notice if the way we talk depends on the listener's gender or on the speaker's gender? These are very simple questions to ask and answer, but when it comes to the question of teaching a language in class, these simple questions turn out to be momentous.

Kernberger (1990) points out that "transmitting cultural values and definitions of reality is integral with language teaching." Language is one of the most powerful components of a culture. The social practices, values, norms are reflected through languages.

A lot has been done in the field of gender bias in language teaching in the recent years. Yet Sunderland (2000) holds the view that "Research into gender and language education is still less self-reflexive and self-critical than it should be." In Bangladesh, reasonably, there is still a lot to do in this field. The language teachers need to be more concerned about their practices in classrooms.

Focus of this paper

This paper aims at finding out how this critical issue influences classroom teaching as Grayson (2006) points out, "actions, instructional practice and interactions between teacher and students, and between students and students, need to be examined." This paper tries to find out how far the English language teachers in different private universities in Bangladesh are aware of gender bias and how they react and respond to issues related to gender bias. To find out the answers, a questionnaire was used, a few question papers were studied, some teachers were interviewed, and a few classes were observed. The findings are discussed in the paper and a few suggestions are made at the end.

2.0 Background

"Until 1980, Ivy League schools like Columbia University would not even admit women," Sadker (1999). This is a fact astounding enough to find out how we the private university teachers of English language are gender biased in teaching. Without any hesitation, I admit that I myself was never aware of gender bias in classroom practices, until I started reading about it in articles online. Immediately it proved to be an area to explore. The more I learned about it, the more I started asking questions to myself about how I am gender biased in my language classes.

Though not intentionally, I realized, unconsciously I am very much gender biased. I started observing myself and wanted to know how people respond to this critical issue. Gradually many unknown doors were opened and I learned that there are things to know, to be aware of and to make other teachers aware of. Consequently I write this paper but not from a feminist perspective.

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While I was exploring this issue, the title of an article by Christie (n.d.) “Recognizing (Almost) Invisible Gender Bias in Teacher-Student Interactions,” or I should say, the very word “invisible” caught my attention. As I went on reading this article and many more on the same topic, I realized that this “invisibility” is the most significant characteristic of gender bias, the one which is most treacherous also. Therefore, we should first unmask gender bias in our classroom practices.

3.0 What is gender bias?

A basic question that comes to mind in the beginning is: what is nonsexist language? According to Kernberger (1990), “Nonsexist language can be defined as that which does not show prejudice on the basis of gender or that which does not suggest traditional stereotypes of appropriateness by gender.” Socially we have accepted that man dominates the world and Kernberger goes on to observe, “To purport to a class learning English as a second language that when the gender of someone being referred to is unknown, they should use the masculine, is an assertion of male precedence in our value system.”

Sunderland (2000) holds the view that “gender bias is simultaneously everywhere and nowhere.” She continues that it is so wide ranging, it spreads into every corner of the language classroom. She goes on to say that people have “two outdated, theoretically unsophisticated concepts of gender:

- (a) that gender is a simple masculine/feminine binary opposition; and
- (b) that gender is something ‘determined’ in a one-way process for or on the individual by a range of experiences.”

But in reality, gender bias is not as simple as we consider it to be. Chapman (2002) points out that “the socialization of gender within our schools assures that girls are made aware that they are unequal to boys” and this leads to gender bias in classroom practices also. And on the other hand, “sexism is reinforced by the use of sexist language,” Kernberger (1990).

3.1 Forms of gender bias

Gender bias can come in different shapes in the classrooms:

1. Giving more attention to males, and making them the focus of the lecture, asking more questions to boys and taking answers more from them than from the girls.
2. Giving better grades to males.
3. Using sexist language in class lectures, question papers, etc.
4. Giving more and more examples of achievements of males in classrooms.
5. Understanding or relating problems, schoolwork and exercises to boys' lives only (Davidson 2002).

6. Stereotypical treatment of boys and girls, such as socializing girls towards a feminine ideal, praising them for being neat, quiet, and calm, whereas, encouraging boys to think independently, to be active and to speak up (Chapman, 2002).
7. Choosing materials written in gender exclusive language.
8. Choosing materials written by male authors only.

Chapman (2002) says that “gender bias is also taught implicitly through the resources chosen for classroom use.” She points out that the use of texts which ‘omit contributions of women and tokenize the experiences of women,’ or stereotype gender roles, further add to the existing gender bias in school curriculum. She adds that “clearly the socialization of gender roles and the use of gender bias hidden in curriculum lead to an inequitable education for boys and girls.”

4.0 Why should we be aware of gender bias?

Case Study-1

The father of a family died. It was time to perform the rituals that are performed forty days after a person’s death. The eldest daughter was supposed to visit her child abroad, which was pre-scheduled and there were multiple reasons why she should go there at that time. On the other hand, the eldest son was supposed to be in his workplace. All said that the daughter should be at home for the rituals, she should not go abroad and the son should be in his workplace. When one of the four daughters of the family said it was not right that the daughter should be there only because she was a daughter (woman), the other two sisters and the other family members said that this daughter was talking unusual and stupid.

This is a very simple case of gender bias in our society; we experience different kinds of gender bias of which we are not even aware. As Grayson (2006) points out, “language is a component of the society; gender bias exists in the society, so it does in language teaching atmospheres. It is almost inherent.”

Case Study -2

In one of my question papers for English Reading Skills, I used an interview of an American which was a real interview. The gender of the person was not mentioned anywhere in the interview. The students - irrespective of female and male - while answering the questions, referred to the interviewee as ‘he.’ I found it interesting as only one student referred to the interviewee as ‘she.’ And in reality it was the interview of one of my female students taken by my friend.

Case Study-3

While proctoring an exam, once I asked my students “Is there anybody who didn’t sign his name?” Instantly I realized that I asked a question that was gender biased. To my shame I discovered that the person who missed to sign the exam script happened to be a girl! It was not done deliberately, it came so spontaneously that it made me realize how “naturally” gender biased we are. It is so much ingrained in our society, in our mind that it has become invisible, we have accepted it as natural.

On several occasions I have seen myself being gender biased, now I can recognize these, previously I was not able to. The same thing happens to many of us. But the question burning in my mind is, what will I tell my students, if any of them questions these practices? Maybe we are lucky or unlucky that our students also seem unaware of the issue of gender bias and it is so much embedded in our culture that they are unable to identify these. But can we think that we are safe and can we keep silence? The answer, I think is we should not and in reality we cannot do that.

Why should we study the issue?

One may ask, why should we be more conscious and should study the issue? We may take the issue of gender bias in language teaching as very trivial. But Sadker (1999) confirms that it is not simple at all. He said that when in the beginning he and Myra started their research on gender bias, they thought they would document the bias, if any and they would find some solutions. They thought that people with education and knowledge would like to change, but eventually they discovered that it was not so simple. Is it so easy to get out of our beliefs, our tendency to conform to social and cultural norms? We should be concerned about gender bias as language “is also the effective weapon of destruction. There are times when people use the language to validate whatever prejudices they may harbor” (Gender Bias in Language, 2008).

Some Studies on Gender Bias

Christie (n.d.) made a study on gender biases and gender stereotypes within an elementary school context. Her analysis of the data showed that gender biases are more invisible and more difficult to eliminate than expected. She was a feminist, and though her classroom was firmly grounded in feminist pedagogy, to her surprise, she discovered that gender bias was almost impossible to eliminate. She calls bias “a double-edged sword” and says that “the beguiling nature of this pervasive beast renders it invisible.” She concludes by saying that “because I was in the perceived position of power (teacher), my unequal treatment of boys and girls perpetuated and validated the reality of gender bias in the classroom.”

Gibbs (quoted in Davidson. 2002)) says that gender bias and inequality “promote hostility, alienation, poor school performance, failure and despair,” whereas Redfern (n.d.) observes that

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“gender fair language minimizes unnecessary concern about gender in your subject matter, allowing both you and your reader to focus on what people do rather than on which sex they happen to be.” Wolfe (n.d.) says that “there is a growing body of research indicating that teachers provide variable access to academic discourse on the basis of gender.” She quotes Ong (1981) who has argued that traditional classroom structures are designed to prefer male learning styles. Boys are given expanded access to classroom language and are allowed to fulfill different roles in the classrooms (Ong quoted in Wolfe, n.d.).

Victor Forrester of Hong Kong Institute of Education (Forrester, 1997) writes a report describing a failed attempt at gender-bias reform among two groups of teacher-trainers of EFL and other subjects in Hong Kong Government Schools. Interestingly, he observes, “their classroom observations indicate that urban Asian classroom interactions are gender-biased and that females appear to be both the object and the main perpetrators of such bias.” Importantly, he says that gender bias is dynamic, not passive. This is why we should be more conscious about gender bias.

Forrester (1997) records an interesting finding, “there is a high consistency in female lecturer’s classroom interactions being gender-biased against their own gender.” This is a truth which seems ironical. The trainees in the study said that they “teach trainees, not gender.” But their gender perception and classroom behavior were clearly at a variance. Forrester observes that “no trainee wished to challenge the background to their community of practice, nor wished to be seen as questioning the gatekeepers to a position as a certificated Hong Kong school teacher.” He concludes that “gender bias reform falters, when recipients perceive it as an emotional rather than a practical concern.”

5.0 Methodology

I used a questionnaire consisting of eleven questions on gender bias and how it is dealt with in the classrooms and sent it to different private universities. Twenty-six English language teachers from different private universities responded. Eighty-one percent of them were in the age group of 25-35, 12% were of the age group of 36-45 and 4% were in the age group of 46-55 and another 4% were of the age group of 56-65. Two of the teachers had Ph.D.s, one had an M.Phil. and the rest of the 23 teachers had M.A. degrees. 73% of the respondents were female and 27% were male.

I also observed 7 classes by 4 different teachers. The duration of the classes was 90 minutes each and the students were all undergraduate students. The classes were on the courses “Remedial English” and “English Reading Skills and Public Speaking, English Writing Skills and Communication and Phonetics and Phonology.” I studied 12 question papers prepared by 7 teachers.

I also interviewed five teachers; the interview was informal and intimate. I gave a small piece of writing which was gender exclusive to six teachers and asked them to rewrite it in gender inclusive language.

6.0 Limitations

I agree with Cameron (1997) when she says that “Analysis is never done without preconceptions, we can never be absolutely non-selective in our observations and where the object of observation and analysis has to do with gender it is extra-ordinarily difficult to subdue certain expectations.” It is difficult to say with how much sincerity the respondents answered my questionnaire. Again it is not always possible to understand with what ideas and thoughts the teachers set the question papers and used the materials. More time was needed actually for the study I made. Moreover, due to time constraints I could not observe many classes. It is very difficult to comment on teachers’ practices inside the classroom just after observing a few classes.

7.0 Findings

The issue of gender bias is really confusing. When I was doing my survey, I found that there were teachers who thought that gender means gender in grammar, i.e., masculine and feminine gender. It gives an idea about how much the teachers know about the issue.

7.1 Findings from the Questionnaire

The respondents were asked eleven questions related to their knowledge and practices of gender bias in classrooms. Fifty-four percent of teachers said that they studied fairly enough about gender bias in their academic course of studies, 23% said they did not study enough, 8% said they studied well enough and 19% said that they never studied about gender bias in their academic course of studies. It shows that there are quite a huge number of teachers who never studied about gender bias in language or had not studied enough about the gender bias issues.

About 42% of teachers said that they are fairly enough aware of gender bias in language teaching, 31% said that they are not aware enough of the issues of gender bias, 19% said that they are aware well enough. Two teachers comprising 8% said that they are not at all aware of gender bias in language teaching. It seems the teachers need to give conscious effort to be aware of gender bias in language teaching to avoid problems related to it.

Around 42% of teachers said that they never give more attention to a particular gender. Another 42% said that they sometimes give more attention to a particular gender, while nearly 16% said that they often give more attention to a particular gender. It shows that 58% of teachers confess that they sometimes give more importance to a particular gender, which is harmful for the teaching learning atmosphere and cannot be neglected at all.

Seventy-seven percent of teachers said that they never faced any problem related to gender bias in their classrooms whereas 23% said they faced problems. In answering the question how they solved those problems one teacher said that he is often biased to male students and his female students complain that he is biased towards boys in grading. To solve this problem he tries to make his grading unbiased. Another teacher said he solves the problem through counseling and motivation. A female teacher said the similar thing; she solves the problems through open discussion with the students. A teacher said in her class the students themselves were biased against each other, so she called them and had a lively discussion to make them understand that minimizing these gaps can accelerate learning. One of the teachers said she tried to make her students understand the consequences and the psychological effects of gender bias. Another teacher said that her female students are reluctant to participate in class discussions, but she didn't mention how she solves the problem.

Around 69% percent of teachers said that they try to make their class lectures and class notes free of gender bias; 23% said they sometimes try to do so and 8% said that they never try to make those free of gender bias which, no doubt is not expected.

Around 38% of teachers said that they sometimes keep the possibility of getting gender biased in their mind while choosing texts and course materials. 35% teachers said that they never think of gender bias while choosing texts and materials. 15% said that they rarely think of gender bias while choosing texts and materials and only 12% said that they always keep the issues of gender bias in mind while choosing texts and materials.

Highest 54% teachers said that they always try to make their students aware of gender bias in their classes while 27% said that they sometimes try to do so. 12% teachers said that they rarely try to make students aware of the issues of gender bias. 4% said that they never try to make the students aware of gender bias.

Eighty one percent teachers said that they always try to make their questions free of gender bias, 15% said they sometimes try to do so and 4% said that they never try to do so.

Fifty four percent teachers strongly agreed that language should be free of any kind of bias, 46% agreed to that.

Highest 58% teachers strongly agreed that they should be more aware of gender bias, 38% said that they agree to this and 4% said they disagree.

7.2 Findings from the Study of Question papers

I studied twelve question papers prepared by seven teachers. Six of the question papers were of the course "English Reading Skills," four of "Business Communication," one of "Writing for Arts and Social Sciences" and one of "English Writing Skills."

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In the six question papers of “English Reading Skills” 21 reading passages were used. In one of the question papers, the teacher (a female) used four passages, three of which were written by male authors and in one of the passages the name of the writer was not mentioned. In most of the passages, the characters were mostly males and also the authors were mostly males. In the six question papers, surprisingly I didn’t see any passage used that was written by a female author; though I must mention that there were a few passages where the name of the authors were not mentioned. The passages talked about famous people like, Robert Louis Stevenson, Barack Obama, Benjamin Franklin, Mahatma Gandhi, Thomas Alva Edison, and Roberto Clemente. Surprisingly there were no passages on any famous female personality except a small passage of less than six lines on the Mexican painter Frida Kahlo.

In one question paper, there was a short passage which was severely gender biased. It started like this, “A student working for his first degree at a university is called undergraduate.” The passage went on with the use of only ‘he’ while talking about university students.

In one of the question papers of “Business Communication” a case study had been used; here are a few lines from it (Italics added by the author):

The Japanese think it is sensible, as well as polite for *a person* to be discreet until *he* is sure that a business acquaintance will keep sensitive information confidential. An American who boasts “I’m my own *man*” can expect to find *his* Japanese hosts anxiously counting the chopsticks after a business lunch. As the Japanese see it, individualists are anti-social.

In one of the question papers, a male name was used for the Senior Marketing Director of a company. In another, a case study was used where all the characters were male.

In the question paper for “English Writing Skills,” the pronoun ‘he’ was used for the students and teachers of a university. The obvious question that comes to mind reading this passage is that are all the teachers and students in a university male?

In the question paper of “Writing for Arts and Social Sciences” a song by Sir Elton John, a poem by Maulana Rumi, and a newspaper article by a male writer were used. The teacher could have considered a piece of writing by a female writer. This teacher used he/she in the question paper where needed.

The study shows that the teachers should be more careful while preparing the question papers so that they can avoid using gender biased language. They should choose materials that are gender inclusive; for the courses like “English Reading Skills” they should choose passages written by female authors also and there should be a practice of bringing famous female personalities in their question papers to encourage female students and to make the male students also realize

that women are equally important. The teachers should recognize female achievements and should also make the students recognize them.

7.3 Findings from the passage to be made gender inclusive

Six teachers were given a piece of writing and were requested to make it gender inclusive. One of them could not find anything wrong with the passage. She thought there was no problem in using 'he' in the second line of the passage though the first line did not specify any gender. Three of the teachers made the passage gender inclusive by using 'he/she,' one used both 'he/she' and plurals. Only one teacher used only plurals to make it gender inclusive. Interestingly he wrote his opinion at the bottom of the page; he said that in that particular passage "male perspective is more advantageous --- I mean the IMAGE displayed in this write-up should stay masculine in nature." He said it would be a torture for the readers to make it gender-inclusive.

It seems there is a natural tendency among our teachers of using he/she whenever they want to use gender inclusive language. But Redfern (n.d.) holds the view that "replacing every *he* with *he or she* attracts even more attention to gender and defeats your purpose." Using 'he/she' is one way of making English language gender inclusive, but sometimes it is better to use plurals and where necessary to replace a few words. In this particular piece of writing, it seems better to use plurals to make it gender inclusive. As for the advantage of using male perspective, it is true that there are people who believe that using male perspective is advantageous. That is why they use sexist language.

7.4 Findings from the Interview

A teacher during the interview told me that she was teaching memo writing to her students, when she did activities on memo writing and writing letters, for the addressee of the memo or letter, for example Manager or MD, she never thought of a female. It was always a portrait of a man that came to her mind. Several teachers confirmed me that they never refer to a female in such cases. Another teacher said, his experience showed that irrespective of male or female students, all think that the person to whom they are writing letters, memos or whenever it comes to positions or establishments, students think of only men. This teacher said that if the students were doing some exercise where they were supposed to write names of people they wrote eight male names out of ten. He said he gave conscious effort to make his lecture gender inclusive and he acknowledged that if he does not remain conscious, his language gets gender biased.

Another teacher said that gender bias comes from the social practices and it is so much ingrained in our own selves that it is not possible to make language free of gender bias unless the society and its practices change. We cannot make it happen by force. We need to change the society first. He said that he tries to use gender inclusive language in his classes, he gives conscious effort. He agreed that it is difficult to get out of this practice but not impossible and also agreed

that more than anyone else, English language teachers should always try to be gender bias free in their classroom practices.

Surprisingly one of the teachers I interviewed said that she sometimes does not make students aware of gender bias in language deliberately as she thinks that this will make them more conscious about gender discrimination leading them to practice gender discrimination more.

Now the question comes, what attitudes and practices do we term as gender bias and what not? One of my students while talking about his experience of gender bias told me that once it happened that a few male students went to a male teacher about some problem, the teacher said, he didn't have time; he didn't show much interest in helping them. Just as they were getting out of the room, a few female students came to the teacher, and the teacher with great enthusiasm talked to them for a long time. Can we call it gender bias? Or is it simply an attraction to the opposite gender? Again, there are teachers who do not talk to the opposite gender because they feel shy or sometimes, think that it is not right which is very much true in a Muslim country like Bangladesh.

7.5 Findings from the classroom observations

I observed 7 classes by 4 teachers, but I would like to continue this study in future to find out more about how far our teachers are aware of gender bias in their classroom practices. Based on five points I made the classroom observations:

- a) Teachers' interaction and eye-contact with the students.
- b) Ratio of the questions asked by teachers to male or female students.
- c) Ratio of taking questions from male and female students.
- d) Use of language, and
- e) The materials used.

In one of the classes (English Reading Skills and Public Speaking) the number of boys was 13 while the number of girls was 6. A worksheet was given to the students; it was a newspaper article by a female author. The teacher was moving around the class and she was going to the boys more than the girls to check out how they were doing.

In another class (Remedial English) there were 18 boys and 9 girls. Interestingly, most of the girls were sitting in a separate row where there were no boys. The boys were responding more than the girls. The teacher gave a lecture on subject verb agreement. To check out the students' understanding the teacher asked questions to them- he chose 8 boys and 3 girls to answer; the ratio was not equal considering the number of boys and girls. The examples were mostly male oriented. Examples came of Alfred Nobel, Sherlock Holmes and Mitnick. A few female names were used but not anyone famous came as an example.

I observed two classes of Phonetics and Phonology by the same teacher. There were 21 girls and 10 boys present in one of the two classes. Interestingly, the teacher had eye-contact predominantly with the boys and he asked most of the questions to the boys, though the girls seemed more enthusiastic in the class.

In the English Writing Skills and Communication class I observed, there were 20 students present, among them, five were girls. The teacher was using short paragraphs to teach Topic Sentences and Supporting Details. The teacher was using the pronoun 'he' to refer to the writer/s of the short paragraphs whose gender was/were unknown.

In another class of English Reading Skills and Public Speaking that I observed, there were 30 students present and among them, 16 were girls. The teacher while teaching 'skimming' used three readings texts. Interestingly, two of the texts were about achievements of girls and one was the story of a boy. After the class I asked the teacher, if she had made a conscious choice of the texts keeping gender issues in her mind. Her reply was 'no.' She was moving around the class, but stopping to the boys more often than to the girls.

It is visible that the English language teachers in Bangladesh are gender biased more or less, and no doubt, they are biased unconsciously and unintentionally. There are many reasons why teachers remain gender biased. The issue is so much implanted in the society, that it becomes difficult to recognize these reasons, and consequently becomes all the more difficult to give effort to get rid of them. Moreover, there are people who do not want to challenge the social norms. They want to go on with the society, the social stereotypes, and accepted values. Thus the issue of gender bias becomes dynamic. But it is time for our teachers to realize that we must not keep our eyes closed to this issue- there is no way left to do this. We should study more and more about the issue of gender bias and we should give conscious effort to get out of this.

We must realize that "while educators cannot magically erase all gender inequities or resolve all of the problems created as traditional gender roles disintegrate, they can achieve significant results by making a conscious and concerted effort to not only avoid gender inequities in the classroom, but to actively encourage the reverse of such inequities" (Davidson 2002).

8.0 Things we teachers can do

Christie (n.d.) holds the view, "gender bias is difficult, but not impossible, to overcome." Our strong will and conscious effort can help us come out of this. After all "we qualify language. It is up to us to decide what we will allow to be used and made proper in the area of language" (Gender Bias in Language, 2006). We teachers can be aware of the following things to deal with gender bias in classrooms (c.f. Christie (n.d.), Redfern (n.d.):

1. Study and know more about gender bias and how it influences classroom practices in a language class.

2. See ourselves as a part of the problem and solution.
3. Increase our awareness of our interactions with students (we can video tape our own teaching) and
 - Categorize and count our interaction with boys and girls
 - Time our interactions with boys and girls
 - Look for stereotypical ways that we treat our students
 - Examine our expectations for males and females
4. Increase students' awareness.
5. Use students' ideas for creating gender inclusive classroom.
6. Ask students to locate gender inequalities in what they read, view, hear, say and write.
7. Choose gender inclusive texts, materials.
8. Give effort to make our question papers gender inclusive.
9. Make our class-lecture gender inclusive.
10. Discuss gender equity with our colleagues to know more about the problems, solutions, new practices, etc.
11. Write sentences without pronouns. We can try to avoid conditional structures, generally introduced by "if" or "when," which often require the use of pronouns.
12. Use gender-specific pronouns only to identify a specific gender or a specific person.
13. Use plural nouns and pronouns if they do not change the meaning of the sentence.
14. Use a first or second person perspective.
15. Use a double pronoun, i.e. s/he, he or she, him and her.
16. Use an article instead of a possessive pronoun as a modifier.
17. Use human, person, mortal and their variations: humankind, humanity, human beings, human race and people.
18. Use a more descriptive or inclusive compound word: workmen's= workers', man-sized= sizable, adult-sized, chairman= chair, chairperson, presider, convener.
19. Use passive voice.
20. Be aware of our voice, gestures, and body language and the attitudes that may convey gender bias. (Gender Inequities, n.d.)
21. Avoid perpetuating gender bias in our treatment of academic subjects, skills, daily living tasks, careers, colors, group names and so forth. (Gender Inequities, n.d.)

To avoid practicing gender bias in classrooms, Chapman (2002) suggests that "Beyond changing their own teaching behaviors, teachers should be aware of the gender bias imbedded in many educational materials and texts and need to take steps to combat this bias." And moreover, "it is important to observe the physical setting, curriculum, and instruction, and the interaction and behaviors that occur within the setting" (Grayson, 2006).

9.0 A few questions

One of my colleagues says that she gives more importance to girls in her language classes, she professed that she is biased towards girls. Are we supposed to do that? Now there comes a very

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crucial question- can we be biased towards either gender? The answer should be “no.” We want to promote a language that is free of any gender bias- any bias at all.

One of my interviewees said he thinks that English language sometimes loses creativity and spontaneity if we make it gender inclusive. But, which one is more important- to be gender biased in the name of creativity and spontaneity, or to be gender inclusive?

10.0 Conclusion

Language, the most prized and compelling means of communication, is not as innocent, impartial and undemanding as it seems to be. Thus, we have to be very watchful when we teach a language so that it does not create any controversy. It seems incorrect to restrict a language to a particular gender, be it men or be it women. It should be inclusive of all genders, should be equally expressive of all humans. It should not be another instrument for exploitation. The language one speaks reflects their identity; the language one uses for others also reflects that identity. At least it should be meant for a human, it should not be biased towards a gender.

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Appendix 1

The teachers who responded to the questionnaire are from the following Private Universities:

1. American International University-Bangladesh
2. ASA University
3. Daffodils International University
4. Ibais University
5. Presidency University
6. Stamford University
7. United International University

Appendix 2

Following is the passage that was given to the teachers to make gender inclusive (Available at <http://www.ricw.ri.gov/publications/GEH/lessons/371.htm>):

Three people, a lumberjack, an artist, and a tree surgeon, are examining a large tree in the forest. Since the tree itself is a complicated object, the number of particulars or facts about it that one could observe would be very great indeed. Which of these facts a particular observer will notice will be a matter of selection, a selection that is determined by his interests and purposes? A lumberjack might be interested in the best way to cut the tree down, cut it up, and transport it to the mill. His interest would then determine his principle of selection in observing and thinking about the tree. The artist might consider painting a picture of the tree, and his purpose would furnish his principle of selection. The tree surgeon's professional interest in the physical health of the tree might establish a principle of selection for him. If each man were now required to write an exhaustive, detailed report on everything he observed about the tree, the facts supplied by each would differ, for each would report those facts that his particular principle of selection led him to notice.

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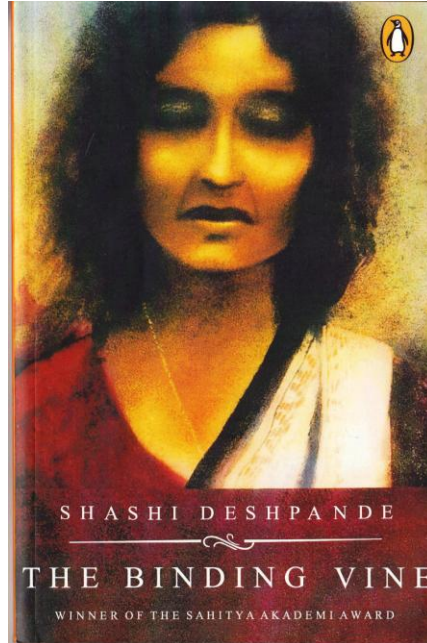
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The Plight of Women in Shashi Deshpande's Novel *The Binding Vine*

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The Plight of Women in Shashi Deshpande's Novel - *The Binding Vine*

The Binding Vine: Three Running Strands

Shashi Deshpande studies the issues and problems of contemporary middle class women. Her heroines are sensitive, intelligent and career-oriented. Through her novels, she expresses the frustrations and disappointments of women who experience social and cultural oppression in the society.

The novel *The Binding Vine* has three strands running parallel. These are the stories of three suffering women; they are different in age and time. They are Kalpana, who is unconscious; Mira, who is dead, and Urmi who discovers the meaning of life through the stories of Kalpana and Mira.

The journey starts with Urmi and many characters join with her. The main plot is about Urmi and her grief at her daughter Anu's death. The stories of Kalpana and Mira are the sub-plots. They join with the main plot.

Individual Dreams

In this novel both Mira and Kalpana have their own dreams, aspirations and demands. But the society does not honour these. Mira has secret dreams to be a poet. She aspires to write and she does write. But she cannot make them public. Her poems are hidden in a trunk. Her voice is muted by the social norms. Her demands to get her individuality are not recognized.

In the case of Kalpana, she aspires to her individual freedom to dress well, to earn and to marry a person of her choice. This freedom is crushed before it takes shape.

Feminist Ideas in Sub-plots

These two sub-plots have strong feminist ideas. Mira tries to speak through her poetry, Kalpana openly rebels. They have choices they couldn't exercise. That is however, not the end Urmi, Vanna, and others have many choices open to them.

Here the plot shows social progress. Urmi has a verbal attack on Inni and Vanna. She is angry and imitated; the reason is her inability to bear her grief of the death of her daughter. During this period she engages herself in reading Mira's unpublished poems. She finds them interesting because they reveal the innermost secrets of a woman life. Then she meets Kalpana, the young rape victim, she discovers similarities in the two cases Kalpana is raped by her own relative whereas Mira is by her own husband.

Meeting Other Sufferers

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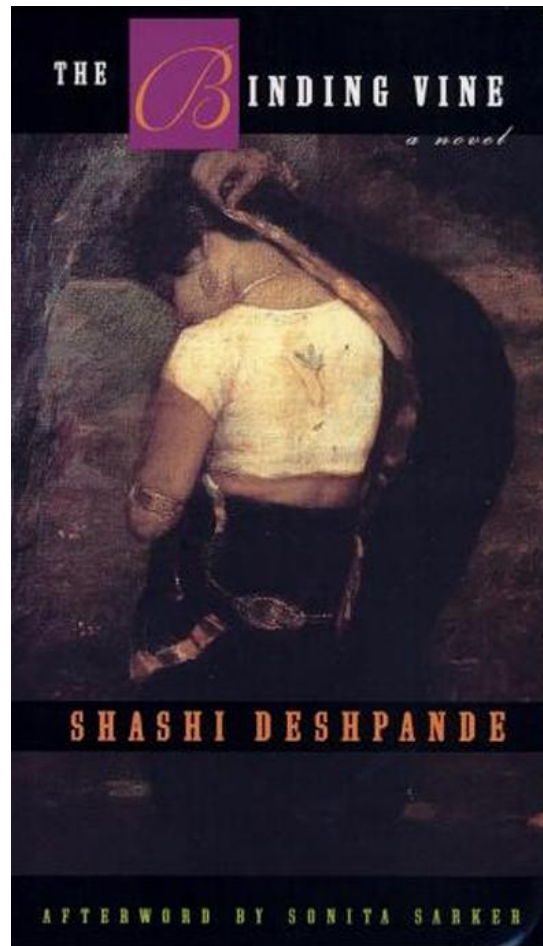
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During this period of her visits to the hospital Urmi meets Kalpana, Shakutai, and other sufferers whose grief is as real as her own. She decides to help the people those who are in sufferings. In the end she learns the secrets life and gets over her grief. She understands that life has small happy moments of affection, sympathy and understandings these memories make it worth living.

Different Perceptions and Different Opinions



The novel is a stock of women characters, having different perceptions causing difference of opinions among themselves. It caused misery and unhappiness to them in their families. There are five pairs of mother-daughters, Inni-Urmi, Mira's mother-Mira, Shakutai-Kalpana, Akka-Vanna and Vanna-Mandira. Their relationship between them is based on some sort of misapprehension.

Urmi's displeasure with her mother is deep-rooted in her separation latter at an early age, right from her childhood days. She is always puzzled as to why her parents had sent her away while her brother stayed with them. She bore a kind of grudge against her mother

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Inni. While trying to vindicate herself, Inni explains her daughter “I was frightened of you Urmi, I was too young, I was not prepared to have a child and you were not easy, you used to cry all the time. I didn’t know how to soothe you... then he (papu) decided he would take you to his mother, He didn’t say anything to me, I cried, nothing could make him change his mind” (p. 200).

It is only in the end of the novel that Inni reveals the incident. Long back, Urmi was a child; Inni had gone out leaving Urmi in the care of a trusted male servant. Urmi’s father knew that the girl was left with a male servant and had angry. After that he sent Urmi to his mother. He made this decision without even consulting his wife Inni. At this point Urmi understands the sinister power of male dominance that rendered her mother a helpless victim. Now Urmi realizes how Inni must have suffered the pain of separation and how bravely she bore it over the years without complaining. She feels extremely sorry for her mother.

Looking Back

When Urmi is in the grief of the death of her child daughter, Vanna talks of a small incident of their girlhood days. When Urmi was learning cycling in Ranidurg , one day she had fallen of the bicycle and hurt her knees. At this Urmi angrily asked her “What are you trying to say Vanna? Why don’t you say it straight off” (p.8). Actually, Vanna is trying to shift her mind from her grief, but Urmi is not in the mood to be soothed by such remarks. She refuses to let go of her pain. She replies to Vanna, that the fell off from the cycle was a small hurt compared to the agony of losing her daughter. ”This pain is all that’s left to me of Anu. Without it, there will be nothing left to me of her; I will lose her entirely (p.9).

Revealing Records

One day Akka, Urmi’s mother in-law brings out an old trunk. It contains some yellowing papers, diaries and notes and tells her that these papers belong to Mira. Urmi gets interested in reading them to find what they contain. Intact Mira is Kishore’s real mother, i.e., Urmi’s mother-in-law. She had died when Kishore was just one day old and Kishore’s father was married to Akka so that the infant Kishore could get a mother. So Akka is Urmi’s step mother-in-law. Thus Urmi realizes that Akka was brought as a bride only to be a mother to Kishore. Urmi now can understand the loveless married life of Akka and feels extremely sorry for her.

By reading the diaries and notes, Urmi understands the pain of one more woman-Mira. From the letters and poems Urmi re-creates Mira’s life, her aspirations, failures, fears and desires. Mira’s problem is the obsessive love for her husband he loves her not for her sake but for his own lust. Mira frankly records her intimate feelings in her diaries. Her poems are also confessional to her sex becomes “Sting of scorpion to be borne by women” (p.19).

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Wants Love, Not Lust

She wants love, not lust. Love means mutual understanding and caring for his or her needs. Lust means selfish and it looks for personal satisfaction. Mira is afraid of her husband's lustful love. Mira's mother remains a mute spectator of her daughter's drab existence and did nothing for Mira's life. As a traditional mother, she had her own world of dreams about her daughter and hence, she remains content with seeing Mira married and pregnant. Generally the daughter shares her sorrows with her near and dear one, particularly mother, to unburden the grief-sicken heart. But she did not want to share her feelings with her mother. She felt alienated from her. The house in which Mira lived was utterly lonely. Its inmates treated her as a mad woman. The anguish in Mira burst out thus "they called me mad, they who cocooned themselves in bristly blankets and though themselves warm when I spoke my soul that boiled and seethed (P.99). Despite her despair, Mira feels happy when she is with child. As an expectant mother, she starts loving life. Unfortunately, she dies in childbirth. Urmila is confident that she understands Mira, her plight, her suffering and every flicker of her emotion she confesses.

Urmila understands that right from the childhood days Mira hated her mother who always surrendered herself to her husband. Hence, she opposes every inch of her mother's advice who says ... never utter a no, submit and your life will be a paradise" (p.83).

According to Urmi, Mira is not a common woman. She wonders how Mira could survive a life denied of choices and freedom and how she was living with a man whom she had nothing in common to share. She thinks that" perhaps it was her writings that kept her going that kept her alive" (p.127).

Through Mira's poems, Urmila learns a lot of things about her and Urmi felt the burden of her feminism.

Story within Story

Here Despande gives us one more story. Kalpana is a young girl from a lower class background. She is Shakutai's daughter. Shakutai has one more daughter Sandhya and a son. Shakutai is the breadwinner for her family because her husband doesn't stay with them. She has a sister, Sulu. Sulu is childless and is afraid that her husband, Prabhakar, may marry another woman and shunt her out of his house. So her husband wishes to marry Kalpana. Both Shakutai and Sulu approve the proposal. Sulu likes it because if Kalpana comes as the co-wife, Sulu will not be driven out. But, Kalpana however, has her own aspirations. She likes to marry a young man of her own choice and rejects Prabhakar's offer.

One day, Urmi goes to the hospital to meet Vanna (her sister's in-law and friend) who is a medical social worker. Here Urmi learns of the rape-case of Kalpana. While Kalpana

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The Plight of Women in Shashi Despande's Novel - *The Binding Vine*

admits in the hospital, the outside world moves around her. Shakutai does not want the case to be reported to the police. She is afraid that it will spoil their name and it will affect the marriage of her second daughter. The police officer wants to project it as an accident case because rape cases are complicated. It is clear that nobody wants to make it as a rape case. Priti, Inni, Vanna, all offer only lip-sympathy on Kalpana. But Urmi would like to help Kalpana and she decided to fight for the justice of Kalpana.

Shakutai blames her daughter for crossing the limits of a woman's life and attracting attention by the modern ways of dressing up. She feels that it would unnecessarily attract male attention "If you paint and flaunt yourself, do you think they'll leave you alone?"(p.67).But Kalpana's ideas of life are different from those of her mother's. She was on the threshold of her youth and had her own income. She loved to dress well and move around freely. Her mother's fears came true now, because Kalpana becomes the victim of Lust and she is brutally beaten and raped.

Urmi is shocked to find everyone wants to hush up a rape case, and in the process the rapist is able to get away scot-free. Shakutai doesn't like the case to be registered and given publicity. "Even if it is true, keep it to yourself, doctor, don't let anyone of it" (p.59). At last Urmi gives out Kalpana's story to her journalist friend and it is published. Shakutai gets social attention. Questions are raised in the Assembly and the hospital authorities are instructed to let Kalpana remain in the hospital.

Urmila is unable to do anything for Kalpana, though she is filled with all sympathies. She is forced to remain as a mute spectator. Shakutai is also much hurt and troubled. Even she wishes for her daughter's death. She says to Urmila, "But sometimes I think the only thing, that can help Kalpana now is death." (p.178)

Tender Vine of Empathy and Sympathy Binds Us All

Thus, Urmi breaks the silence and manages to get justice for the suffering family. The police have to investigate the case, and when Sulu realizes that her husband Prabhakar is the culprit, she commits suicide. In the course of the events Urmi understands how the tender vine of human understanding, empathy and sympathy binds us all. Life goes on with ups and downs. The novel ends on a note of optimism.

Longing for Recognition

The women characters in the novel long for their recognition from the male dominated society. They need their freedom and fight for their individualities. They wish mutual love from their men but not their mere lust. The need to express one's feeling and to be heard by the society is the urge for the present day women. Urmila draws society's attention to her protest and sees less pain in attempting to change the societal roles and attitudes.

The novel has an implied expression that the women's harassment in the society overcomes even the mother's grief on the death of the daughter. At the end of the novel, Urmila is seen recollecting the bonds of love that provide "the spring of life" for human survival.

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Impact of Emotional Intelligence on Academic Achievement of Prospective Teachers in the Subject of English

Muhammad Ramzan, Ph.D., Aijaz Ahmad Gujjar, Ph.D. Candidate, and Saira Ijaz Ahmad, Ph.D. Candidate

Abstract

Emotional intelligence is one of the new and emerging trends in education. Researches have approved it as one of the most significant variable for the expression of a person's inner feelings, thoughts and way of thinking.

The main objective of the current study was to test the association between emotional intelligence and academic achievements of prospective teachers. The participants of the study were included two hundred randomly selected prospective teachers at B.Ed. level as the sample of the study. Wong & Law emotional intelligence scale (WLIS) was used for the purpose of data collection. Data analysis was done by using Pearson correlation coefficient on SPSS version 15. Findings of the study showed that overall emotional intelligence score was positively correlated with the academic results of the prospective teachers.

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Impact of Emotional Intelligence on Academic Achievement of Prospective Teachers in the Subject of English

Key Words: Self-awareness, Self Management, Self management, Relationship Management

Introduction

Emotions are an important tool for expressing one's inner feelings. These are of different kinds such as joy, detestation, anger etc. Fredrickson (1998) and Isen (1999) have highlighted that emotions have a vital possession on the thinking of a person. Any type of pleasing and gratifying emotions can enhance and activate a person's Imaginative, artistic and creative sense. Persons who have a full control on his/her emotions can be a constructive and productive citizen of a society. This ability in a person is simply called **emotional intelligence**.

Mayer & Salovey (1993) defined the term *emotional intelligence* by saying it a "traditional and standard intelligence." Bar-On (1996) has defined this term of emotional intelligence as an ability which helps a person in dealing effectively with his/her own feelings and the feelings of the people around. Geula (2004) wrote that integrated education having sound bases of religious education helps in a person's emotional and spiritual development.

Emotions Play a Fundamental Role

Emotions can play a fundamental role in education as Scheff and Retzinger (1991) wrote that the emotions and sentiment of pride and shame are well connected to achievement and failure of a student in education and are helpful in upholding and development of personality. Beard (2005) claimed that students go through different emotional state of minds during each one of their academic year. These emotional mind situations make their influence on whole of their personality and their temperament towards learning.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) have stated emotional intelligence as a significant concept for the representation, understanding and controlling of one's own emotions and the emotions of others.

The Concept

The concept of emotional intelligence is quite recent in educational psychology. This idea is well-linked with the concept of intelligence quotient but these are not reciprocal terms but have two different meanings, applications and have their varied relevant areas in the field of education. The concept of emotional intelligence has sound basis in theory.

The famous publication "Emotional Intelligence" by Daniel Goleman (1995) has made the term emotional intelligence a distinguished concept. He wrote that emotional intelligence is the most powerful and influential factor of success as compared to intelligence quotient.

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Adeyemo & Adeleye (2008), Abdullah (2006), Nasir & Masrur (2010), Fennin (2000), Marquez, Martin and Brackett (2006), Rozell, Pettijohn, and Parker, (2002), Parker, et al. (2004), Wong, Wong & Chau, (2001), Mayer and Salovey (1997) and Amendolai (2003) have explored that Emotional intelligence is one of the significant and prominent forecaster of students' academic achievements.

Nasir & Masrur (2010) have observed no significant association between emotional intelligence and age of a student whereas Naoreen and Gujjar (2009) have explored the age as one of the factors which are positively and significantly related to the emotional intelligence of the students.

Qualter, et al. (2007) highlighted that higher degree of emotional intelligence helps the students to make adjust in new learning environment when they shifted or promoted to secondary level from primary level.

Emotional Intelligence and Prospective Teachers' Training

In this regard, the importance for the training of emotions for prospective teachers cannot be neglected. Emotional intelligence helps them to adjust in their work places after the completion of necessary training of their profession.

Sy and Cote (2003) argued that emotional intelligence have a significant impact on leadership style and social relations at work places.

Justice and Espinoza (2007) have surveyed one-sixty beginner teachers by using Emotional Skills Assessment Process and they have concluded that these teachers needs to develop their emotional intelligence skills such as sympathy, empathy, self esteem, decision making, and stress management. In this way the beginner teachers will be able to meet the demands of varied classroom atmosphere and can be assured a longer teaching career.

Salami (2010) have explored three variables of emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and psychological well-being as the predictors of behaviors and attitudes of the students. Elias et. al. (1991) have highlighted the need for the teaching of emotional and social skills in the institution and also declared that emotional and social training helps to stimulate learning and have positive effect on a student's learning during the academic year and his/her future life.

Finnegan (1998) said that educational institutions should assist students to develop essential components of emotional intelligence in their personalities. These abilities can help them in their academic progress as well as enhance their proficiencies as a worker. Gerts, Deren &

Verbruggen (2003) and Modupe (2010) have explored two variables, emotional intelligence and self-esteem as forecasters for success in teachers training programmes.

Research Methodology

The objective of this study is to identify the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievements of Prospective teachers in Pakistan.

Population and Sampling

Population of the study included all the Prospective teachers at pre-service level in teacher training institutions of Pakistan. 200 Prospective teachers at B.Ed level was randomly selected as the sample of the study.

Research Tool

The study was basically co-relational in nature. Wong & Law emotional intelligence scale (WLIS) was used for the purpose of emotional intelligence testing of the participants of the study after some amendments and modifications according to the local cultural and traditional values. After these amendments pilot testing was made to ensure the reliability of the tool and the value of reliability 0.856 was observed through Cronbach's Alpha.

25 items were included in the scale. Four variables and skills (Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness, and Relationship Management) were identify by computing items, as were presented by Goleman (1998). The record of students' academic result in graduation degree (B.A, B.Sc.) was collected from students admission forms filled and submitted at the time of admission with the evidence of documentation (result cards).

Data Analysis, Results and Discussion

Table 1: Examination score and Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers

Pairs	N	Pearson Correlation	p-value
Marks vs. Self-awareness	200	-.013	.858
Marks vs. Self Management	200	-.087	.223
Marks vs. Social Awareness	200	.057	.424
Marks vs. Relationship Management	200	.072	.314
Marks vs. Overall Emotional Intelligence Score	200	.006	.931

N= Number of Respondents

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Impact of Emotional Intelligence on Academic Achievement of Prospective Teachers in the Subject of English

Table 1 shows the relationship between examination score and variables of emotional intelligence for Prospective teachers. The results in the table 1 are not significant at $\alpha=0.05$. Variables of self-awareness and self management shows negative correlation with the examination scores whereas the variable of social awareness and relationship management shows positive correlation with the examination marks of the Prospective teachers. The overall emotional intelligence score was positively correlated with the examination marks of the prospective teacher.

Table 2: Examination score and Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers (Age wise Analysis)

Pairs	Age	N	Pearson Correlation	p-value
Marks vs. Self-awareness	20-23 Years	108	.117	.227
	24-26 Years	65	-.178	.157
	27-29 Years	18	-.177	.481
	30 and Above Years	9	-.305	.425
Marks vs. Self Management	20-23 Years	108	-.065	.506
	24-26 Years	65	-.100	.429
	27-29 Years	18	-.103	.685
	30 and Above Years	9	-.392	.297
Marks vs. Social Awareness	20-23 Years	108	.201	.037*
	24-26 Years	65	-.053	.675
	27-29 Years	18	-.347	.158
	30 and Above Years	9	.530	.142
Marks vs. Relationship Management	20-23 Years	108	.221	.021*
	24-26 Years	65	.042	.738
	27-29 Years	18	-.382	.118
	30 and Above Years	9	-.417	.264
Marks vs. Overall Emotional Intelligence Score	20-23 Years	108	.151	.119
	24-26 Years	65	-.105	.405
	27-29 Years	18	-.312	.207
	30 and Above Years	9	-.321	.400

* $p < .05$

Table 2 shows the age wise analysis of examination score and emotional intelligence of Prospective teachers. Data presented in the table shows that the variable of Self-awareness is positively correlated with the marks in graduation degree in case of 20-23 years of age group of prospective teachers.

Age groups from 24-30 and above showed negative correlation when the variable of Self-awareness was compared with the examination score of prospective teachers.

The variable of self management showed negative correlation with examination marks in case of all the four age groups from 20- 30 and above and showed non-significant results. Variable of social awareness was positively correlated with the marks in case of 20-23 year of age group and shows significant results (p-value .037). Results were not significant and showed negatively correlated with marks in case on age groups ranging from 24-29 years, whereas the results showed positive degree of correlation with marks in case of 30 and above age group.

The variable of relationship management was passively correlated with examination marks for the age groups ranging from 20-26. Results were significant (.021) in case of 20-23 years of age group and were negatively correlated for the age groups ranging from 27-30 and above. The overall emotional intelligence score of Prospective teachers was positively correlated with the examination score for the age group of 20-23 years and showed negative correlation in case of age groups ranging from 24-30 and above.

Table 3: Examination score and Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers (Gender Based Analysis)

Pairs	Gender	N	Pearson Correlation	p-value
Marks vs. Self-awareness	Male	80	-.186	.099
	Female	120	.091	.321
Marks vs. Self Management	Male	80	-.160	.157
	Female	120	-.040	.668
Marks vs. Social Awareness	Male	80	.049	.666
	Female	120	.061	.509
Marks vs. Relationship Management	Male	80	.072	.528
	Female	120	.073	.431
Marks vs. Overall Emotional Intelligence Score	Male	80	-.098	.387
	Female	120	.062	.499

Table 3 shows gender based analysis of examination score and emotional intelligence of prospective teachers. Examination score were negatively correlation with the variable of self-awareness in case of male participants and was positively correlated in case of female participants.

The variable of self management showed negative correlation with examination score in case of both genders (male and female). The variables of social awareness and relationship management were positively correlated with examination score in case of both of the genders (male and female). The overall degree emotional intelligence of male participants' negative degree of correlation with examination marks whereas it showed positive degree of correlation with marks in case of female participants.

Table 4: Examination score and Emotional Intelligence of Prospective Teachers (Qualification Based Analysis)

Pairs	Qualification	N	Pearson Correlation	p-value
Marks vs. Self-awareness	B.A	98	-.004	.972
	B.Sc	27	-.121	.547
	M.A	50	-.058	.692
	M.Sc	25	.114	.588
Marks vs. Self Management	B.A	98	-.129	.204
	B.Sc	27	-.019	.924
	M.A	50	.018	.901
	M.Sc	25	-.079	.708
Marks vs. Social Awareness	B.A	98	.103	.312
	B.Sc	27	.227	.254
	M.A	50	-.176	.220
	M.Sc	25	.448	.025*
Marks vs. Relationship Management	B.A	98	.270	.007**
	B.Sc	27	-.153	.446
	M.A	50	-.291	.040*
	M.Sc	25	.290	.160
Marks vs. Overall Emotional Intelligence Score	B.A	98	.059	.561
	B.Sc	27	-.016	.938
	M.A	50	-.149	.303
	M.Sc	25	.238	.253

*p<.05, **p<.01

Table 4 shows qualification based correlation analysis of examination score and emotional intelligence of Prospective teachers. The results shows negative correlation between the variable of self-awareness and examination score in case of B.A., B.Sc. and M.A. participants whereas the degree was correlation was positive in case of M.Sc. participants.

The variable of self management showed negative correlation with examination score in case of B.A, B.Sc and M.Sc participants whereas it was positively correlated in case of M.A participants of the study.

The variable of social awareness was positively correlated in case of B.A, B.Sc. and M.Sc. participants and showed negative degree of correlation in case of M.A participants.

The variable relationship management was positively correlated with examination score in case of B.A and M.Sc. participants and showed negative degree of correlation in case of B.Sc. and M.A. participants. The overall degree of emotional intelligence showed positive correlating with examination score in case of B.A and M.Sc. participants and showed negative correlation in case of B.Sc. and M.A participants.

Conclusions

Emotional intelligence was tested as the predictor of academic achievement of the prospective teachers. There was no significance observed between academic achievement and the variables of Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness, Relationship Management and the overall emotional intelligence of the prospective teachers. These findings of the study are quite opposite to the research findings presented by Adeyemo & Adeleye (2008), Abdullah (2006), Nasir & Masrur (2010), Fennin (2000), Marquez, Martin and Brackett (2006), Rozell, Pettijohn, and Parker (2002), Parker, et. al. (2004), Wong, Wong & Chau (2001), Mayer and Salovey (1997), Gerts, Deren & Verbruggen (2003), Modupe (2010) and Amendolai (2003).

The variable of Social Awareness and Relationship Management showed significant association with the academic achievements of the prospective teachers within the age break of 20-23. Other than that, all of the variables as well as overall emotional intelligence showed no association with the academic achievement of prospective teachers under all of the break ups of age (20-23, 24-26, 27-29, 30 and above years). These conclusions are in line with Nasir & Masrur (2010) and are quite opposite from the conclusions presented by Naoreen and Gujjar (2009).

Gender was also observed as one of the dispassionate variable and showed no significant association with emotional intelligence and academic achievements of the prospective teachers. Under qualification based analysis of the variable of social awareness showed significant association with last degree marks in case of M.Sc. participants and the variable of relationship management showed significant association with last degree marks in case of B.A. and M.A. participants. Other than that, all the variables Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness, Relationship Management and the overall emotional intelligence of the prospective

teachers showed no significant results with the last degree marks in case of qualification based analysis.

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Brechtian Theories and Practices in the Theatre of Hill Jaatra

D. R. Purohit and Hemant Kumar Shukla

Abstract

The present investigation focuses on the theatre of Hill Jaatra of Kumaon region of Uttarakhand from the view point of Brechtian idiom. Hill Jaatra is the festival of pastoralists and agriculturists which provides ample opportunity of entertainment and enjoyment to the agriculturists, pastoralists, laborers, and workers.

The present paper tries to assess and establish theatrical paradigms and structures which are similar to Brecht's theory or depart from it. In the same process, it has attempted to highlight the profound aesthetic content and value of the Uttarakhand's theatre of Hill Jaatra.

Key Words: Hill Jaatra, epic actor, 'Indra Jaatra', Mahar, Athaun, episodic, empathy, complete transformation.

Hill Jaatra

Hill Jaatra is made of two words - 'Hill' and 'Jaatra'. In local dialect, 'Hill' means 'mud', 'wet' and 'Jaatra' means 'procession'. 'Hill Jaatra', some people think, is a distortion of

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Brechtian Theories and Practices in the Theatre of Hill Jaatra

‘*Hal* (plough) Jaatra’. According to them, it simply means the adoration of plough which is the fundamental agricultural instrument used to furrow the land. Dev Singh Pokharia¹ writes, “The word ‘Hill’ is related to Sanskrit word ‘Ilah’ which means the Earth. ‘Hill’ and ‘Jaatra’ denote ‘mud’ and ‘procession’ respectively in Kumaoni language. Thus, ‘Hill Jaatra’ stands for the procession held when the earth is mud-spattered and damp.”

The Ritual

‘Hill Jaatra’ is a unique processional theatre enacted at the time of rainy season when the Earth is mud-spattered and soggy. It acquires its name thus because this annual processional festival is celebrated with a pomp and show in the month of ‘*Bhadrapad*’ which is essentially a rainy season in Uttarakhand. This is basically a ritual exercise in the form of processional theatre.

This festival-ritual-theatrical exercise reflects the folk’s passionate urge to bring about immense prosperity in their agriculture centered economic activities. The folks of dozens of villages of the ‘*SoreValley*’ wait enthusiastically for this dearly loved festival to be held.

Even the wedded daughters of the region, presently residing in far-off places, report to their parental homes to take part in this much-awaited festival. The aforementioned ‘Sore Valley’ is a part of district-Pithoragarh of Uttarakhand, located in very panoramic ‘**Kumaon region**’ and adjoining Nepal-Tibbet border. This valley is one of the beautiful valleys, not only of Uttarakhand but of India as well. In this valley is located a small village ‘*Kumaur*’, known for being the original habitat of chivalrous, courageous, valorous and gracious feudal lords of the bygone days called ‘*Mahar*’. Their inherent chivalrous instinct fetched them the title-‘*Bharh*’.

Celebration of the Festival – the Story

The festival is celebrated in the memory of four ‘Mahar’ brothers-Kunwar Singh (Kumaur village), Chihaj Singh (Chauchal), Beda Singh and Jakh Singh. D.R.Purohit², Prabhat Kumar Upreti³, and Yogesh Khanna⁴ have carried pilot research to find out the details of ‘Hill Jaatra’. The legend has it that these four ‘*Mahar*’ brothers succeeded in killing a man-eater leopard. The Chand King of Nepal had already announced a fat reward on the head of this voracious man-eater. The mahar brothers killed the leopard cutting off one of its legs; they showed to the King as an evidence of their chivalrous feat. The King, being immensely delighted on the gallant feat, granted to them a vast area of land. Kunwar Singh got *Kumaur*, Chihaj Singh-*Chaihaj*, Beda Singh-*Vin*, and Jakh Singh received *Jakhani*. These villages still exist in the ‘Sore Valley’ and are known after these heroes.

As the King was greatly impressed by the heroism of these courageous brothers, he invited them to take part in ‘**Indra Jaatra**’ festival which is celebrated during the

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Dushera festival in Nepal. The rituals of ‘Indra Jaatra’ festival were to begin with a sacrifice of a he-buffalo at the outset. But heching the he-buffalo became impossible owing to its long horns curled upon its neck and the beginning of the festival was held up until the He-buffalo was hacked in a single stroke. The situation grew critical with the passing of each second. The fleeting emotions of uncertainties and doubts crept up in the minds of the assembled people, making them absolutely restless.

It so happened that the ‘*Mahar*’ brothers were present there on the invitation of the King. Eventually, they took up the challenge. They made the use of an intelligent trick. One of the ‘Mahar’ brothers reached to the elevated place and tempted the He-buffalo towards soft green grass held by the former. As the he-buffalo raised his head to eat the green grass, his horns slanted below the neck. Instantly, another ‘*Mahar*’ brother grabbed the opportunity and in no time cut the neck in a single stroke, much to the relief of worried people including the King himself. Already overwhelmed, the King became ecstatic to watch valor coupled with intelligence of the ‘Mahar’ brothers and asked them for the reward.

The ‘Mahar’ brothers had become very impressed by the way the mask dance drama of Nepal ‘Indra Jaatra’ had brought the spirit of enthusiasm, cheerfulness and brotherhood among the people of Nepal. They wanted the same for their people as well. They requested the King to grant them certain masks, chiefly that of *Lakhe* (*Lakhiya*) to celebrate the same festival in their respective villages. The King was more than happy not only to grant them permission but also generously provided them masks essential for the festival like ‘*Hiran-Cheetal*’, ‘*Bear*’, ‘*Galya Bald*’ (Sleeping lazy ox), ‘*Badi Haul*’ (grown up pair of oxen), and the central mask ‘*Lakhiya Bhoot*’. ‘Lakhiya Bhoot’ is known as ‘Lakhe’ in the Indra Jaatra festival of Kathmandu, Nepal. Anne Vergati⁵ says that the word means ‘demon’. But in ‘Hill Jaatra’, ‘Lakhiya Bhoot is supposed to be twelfth incarnation of god ‘Shiva’, says Yogesh Khanna⁶.

The Starting Point

Consequently, Kunwar Singh’s village ‘Kumaur’ was the first to initiate the celebration under the changed name of ‘Hill Jaatra’ instead of ‘Indra Jaatra’ of Nepal. As it was wisely decided to celebrate it during the rainy season when the fields are muddy, wet symbolizing the agricultural activities necessary to the livelihood of the farmers. It so got its name. Apart from ‘Kumaur’, this festival is also celebrated in the adjoining villages like-‘Bajeti’, ‘Paun’, ‘Pagatra’, ‘Seri Chanali’, ‘Puran’, ‘Dewal Thal’, ‘Palkot’ etc.

Yogesh Khanna⁷ refers to some of the people who suppose that ‘*Mahar*’ brothers learnt ‘Hill Jaatra’ from ‘Baldia’ (One who makes the bull dance) to whom the credit goes to organize the ‘Hill Jaatra’ for the first time in ‘Sore Valley’. But all of them are agree on one point that it was ‘*Mahar*’ brothers who initiated and consolidated the celebration.

When It is Celebrated

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The festival is celebrated during '*Aathaun*' which continues incessantly for a period of eight days. During this period, women and men, irrespective of their financial condition, wear colorful traditional dresses and perform the ritual exercises. The '*Athaun*' ends with '**Hill Jaatra**', a mask-dance-processional play.

During '*Athaun*', the people worship '**Gora-Mahesh**' deities and present ritual enactment of sending *Gaura* to '*Kailash*' (a mountain) under the escort of her husband Maheshwar. For the purpose women hoist the image of *Gaura* made up of a pitcher and leaves of cons fixed inside it. They take out a procession around the village, a symbolic journey of *Gaura* Maheshwar, and end it by distributing the shoots of leaves as '*Prasad*' (divine blessings). Eventually, before sending off '*Mahesh*', an auspicious day is selected for the enactment of the play '*Hill Jaatra*'. On the day of the enactment of the play, the artists cleanse and paint their respective wooden masks right from the morning till noon as the masks are regarded to be very divine, sacred and sanctimonious.

Brecht's Episodic Way of Presentation

Brecht liked the idea of presenting the story in 'episodic' way. He was of the opinion that each episode should stand for itself.⁸ He centered his emphasis on making his plays to be episodic, each scene to be independent and complete in itself.

Hill Jaatra is basically a ritual exercise dramatized and enacted. It consists of many '**episodes**' which portray a variety of characters. It is 'episodic' in its character. Not a single episode relies on any other episode for its completion. Each scene is self-regulating and complete.

The episodes of '*The Horse-rider*', '*Burhiya*', '*Dahiwallah*', '*Hukkawallah*', '*Hiran-cheetal*', '*Lakhiya Bhoot*' etc come one after another and the characters enact their respective parts to the accompaniment of musical instruments.

The pamphlet⁹ of Navodaya Parvateeya Kala Kendra, Pithoragarh says that Lakhiya bhoot is also known as '*Jateshwar*' or '*Lateshwar*'. Each episode has its individuality without any dependence of preceding or succeeding events. The articles of D.R.Purohit¹⁰, Prabhat Kumar Upreti¹¹ and Yogesh Khanna¹² throw light on the sequence of these episodes in '*Hill Jaatra*'.

1. **First act of the event** is the procession of *sayana* heads and senior citizens of the village who go to *Kot* (the place where Lakhiya is housed) and move from *Kot* building to the arena of Hil Jaatra holding red flags and ensigns in their hands.

2. **The Jharuwallah:** ‘Jharuwallh’ makes the appearance in the arena, sweeps and cleanses the place displaying ‘gestures’ and ‘mime’. He also applies his *Jharu* (broom) on some of the spectators to produce spastic comedy.
3. **The Horse-rider:** When every one is silent in curiosity, suddenly there is in distance a sound of neighing of the horses, and sound of their neck bells. It sends a commotion in the crowd of the spectators. A character sitting on a horse made of twigs and grass runs around as a horse rider showing different kinds of acrobatics. Then follows the series of the ‘*Swaangs*’.
4. **The Burhiya (Old Woman):** An artist comes dressed as a village woman, with a wooden hammer (used for breaking clay blocks in the field) in one hand and a doll on the other, symbolizing her grand children. The woman plays as cutting the shrubs and bushes and breaking the clay blocks showing that hill women can never be relieved of their hard duties even in the old age. She is free to improvise her role.
5. **The Dahiwallah:** A boy actor enters with a wooden pot containing curd in his hand and shouting all around “*Dahi Le Lo!, Dahi Le Lo!*” (Buy Curd! Buy Curd!). In fact it is white lime paste in his container and not the curd. As a part of traditional fun making, he pastes the lime on the faces of his acquaintances or an innocuous stranger. The prank is taken as an act of giving *Prasaad* (divine blessings) of the festival. None takes offence to that. People rather incite him to paste lime on them. Some spectators even give a hot chase to Dahiwallah and running behind him slip into the mud of the field. The character also takes liberty with men and women for pasting the lime.
6. **The Bear:** Suddenly the mask of the bear enters and the horse rider, the old woman and the Dahiwallah run for their safety. The bear acts as giving a fright to children, women and old men, and thus present a comedy of farce.
7. **The Barber:** Then enters a barber with one foot long shaving- knife, forcibly attempting to shave any man standing there and improvising a rich comic script for him. He would poke fun at the audience whose beard is hypotrophic or hypertrophic in growth.
8. **The Hukkawallah:** Then enters the Hukka wallah with farcical devices to be followed by a fisherman who carries a jute bag as fishing net. He throws the net at his will upon any man or woman of his choice and thus produces rocking laughter.
9. **A Harnessed Oxen Pair’ and ‘The Ploughman’:** The next group of characters is a harnessed oxen pair being driven by a ploughman stamping the

ground with their hoops. The oxen pairs are of three varieties: *Nani Haul* (a pair of calves), *Thuli Haul* (a pair of mature oxen), and *Galiya Bald* (the lazy sleeping ox). This ox is also known as Aduwa ox. The ploughman tries to harness another oxen but the sleeping ox either refuses to move forward or just lies down on the ground. The ploughman is free to improvise a scintillating script on the ox. He may compare the ox with the District Magistrate, or with an MLA of the region or with a local boy. Galiya Bald is a very popular character next only to Lakhiya Bhoot. A hefty and energetic artiste is selected for the role because he has not only to create comedy but also to roar a lot terrifying the imps standing around. The ox wears sharp bells around his neck, roars and stamps his hoops on the ground. He tears through the crowd although tied to the tether by his master. He even drags his master behind him all the time he runs on the periphery of the arena.

10. **Hiran-Cheetal:** Then enters a colorful and beautiful figure. It is the two characters sometimes four wearing the hide colored dress of as deer and *cheetal*. The characters strut through the arena. The dance is looked upon with a sense of devotion. The Hiran carries the codified meaning of the divine origin of sexuality. The villagers therefore try to beautify the character as much as possible and give him the best kind of choreography.
11. They are followed by a group of '**Bhajan chorus**' singing to the accompaniment of *dholak*, cymbals, *hurka*, percussions etc. The chorus has in it female characters, young men brandishing swords and sticks. The scene glides into the play of women dances singing and planting seedlings in the fields. Their songs are very melancholy and nostalgic. This scene also gives space for singing '**Malushahi**' or '**Hurkiya Bol**'.
12. **The Lakhiya Bhoot:** Then suddenly a long tattoo of *Nagaras* (Drums) is heard in the distance which is a sure signal to other characters to vacate the space. All the characters except for the *Putari* women leave the arena. The women have to play their role of singing in the field. The rattle of drums reaches its crescendo, a huge bodied character waving yak whisks with both his hand, along a weird tuft of hair on his head, a black cloak on his body, a garland of *rudraksa* beads on his neck, red shot eyes and large canines –enters the arena. He is Lakhiya Bhoot. Lakhiya is controlled by two thick ropes held by two stout men called "Cheer Baitaal". The role of the terror striking form of the twelfth incarnation of Lord Shiva is brought alive. All the devotees stand bowed to their presiding deity, i.e., Lakhiya and pray for the safety and wellbeing of their homes, families, village and town. With the same *tandava* posture, Lakhiya moves through the arena and blesses each devotee.
13. The mela ends, people move to their houses, so does Lakhiya to the '*Kot*' where a goat sacrifice is made to propitiate him. '*Gaura*' and '*Maheshwar*' are

also given a send off to the tune of 'Aathaun song' and drums and trumpets. The effigies of 'Gaura' and 'Maheshwar' are immersed at a sight near the Gulu Devta temple of the village.

Music in Jaatra

Music plays predominant role in this enactment. Just like epic theatre, music in 'Hill Jaatra' moves the story forward. Musicians, to the accompaniment of local musical instruments like *Dhol-damaun*, trumpet, *Hurka* etc, sing the songs which are enacted by various actors in very impressive way. In this performance, music directly addresses the audiences and shares their concerns, aspirations, pressures and above all philosophy. The music is utilized effectively as the narrator/singer, on the basis of his memory, recites the story. Clear and direct message is imparted to the audience through equally direct, matter-of-fact music. The music is instructive and communicative. Just before the entrance of 'Lakhiya Bhoot', a long tattoo of Nagaras is a sure signal for the audiences to vacate the space. The music communicates the same thing before the entrances of 'Horse-rider' and 'Hiran-Cheetal'.

Direct Speech Addressed to the Audience

While enacting their parts, the actors are often seen directly speaking to the audience. The actors' indulgence in conversing with the audiences is very interesting characteristics of this enactment. The actors' direct address and conversation with the audiences break any illusion of reality and unwanted hypnotic tension. Actors' communication with the audience provides a great deal of opportunity to the actors to establish the lively relationship with the audience sharing their views with them.

Epic Actor Forbidden from Complete Transformation

Brecht tried various technical devices to discourage the actor's natural tendency to create empathy. In case of 'Hill Jaatra, the actors wearing various masks of different character except for Ladhiya Bhoot never actually have the illusion of becoming their respective characters. The movement and verbal patterns are developed to the highest levels of abstraction.

It is essential for **epic actor** to forbid himself to 'complete transformation' in the character he is showing. He should not become the character he is portraying but show that, by putting forward character's way of behaviour to the best of his abilities. Once the idea of total transformation is abandoned, the actor speaks his part as if he is improvising a character like a story-teller.¹³

The actor playing 'Dahiwallah' has scope for improvising his acting. 'Dahiwallah' is often found indulging in exchanging comments with the audience. There are no ready-made dialogues to deliver. The people from the audience and the character playing

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‘Dahiwallah’ exchange their comments instinctively, much to the enjoyment of the rest of the audience. They have to respond quickly in the extempore way. In this way, ‘Dahiwallah’ has the prerogative to improvise himself. The actor just shows the character of ‘Dahiwallah’. His ‘complete transformation’ is impossible. Sometimes, some of the audiences unknowingly start to act while talking to the actor enacting his part. The spoken words without any preparation add a distinct flavor to the atmosphere. This spontaneity leaves no room for any kind of ‘empathy’.

Comic Elements in the Jaatra

The episodes in which ‘Dahiwallah’ and ‘Galya Bald’ are portrayed, offers huge amount of entertainment. The most hilarious character is ‘Galya Bald’. It is a sure symbol of laziness, inactiveness, giddiness and irresponsibility. The ploughman makes fun of it. The amount of the laughter keeps increasing with the Ploughman’s consistent comparison of ‘Galya Bald’ with famous political personalities, office-bearers, government officials, and even a local doctor.

Brecht deliberately preferred comedies over tragedies. The tragedies are prone to create ‘empathy’ among the audience. In these episodes, there is no place for ‘empathy’ at all. The audiences aren’t carried with the actors’ performance. Most of the characters are performed in a humorous way.

Prose and Poetry Mixed

Brecht mixed prose and poetry, regular rhythmic poetry with irregular rhythm, the regular prose with heightened prose and standard German with native dialects. The actors playing their respective characters are bound to deliver their dialogues with changing vocal pitch in this enactment. The mixture of poetical singing with entertaining prose dialogues is the characteristics of this enactment. Constant mingling of Kumaoni dialect with Hindi language makes the spoken words non-realistic. The dialogues often are abounding in pithy sayings, folk adages, and proverbs spoken in native dialect Kumaoni as well as Hindi language.

Ample Opportunity for Entertainment

So, this festival of pastoralists and agriculturists called ‘Hill Jaatra’ provides ample opportunity of entertainment and enjoyment to the agriculturists, pastoralists, laborers, and workers. It is associated with the painstaking exercise of paddy-plantation and other pastoral and agricultural labor of the rainy season. This festival is marked by enthusiastic procession of the villagers, enchanting folk dances, melodious singing, ardent worship of gods and goddesses, and dramatic performances.

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Teachers' Perception Regarding the Effect of Homework on Students' Academic Achievement

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Zahir Ullah Khan and Tahir Shah

Abstract

Purpose of this paper was to know the teachers' perceptions regarding the effect of homework on students' academic achievement. Population of the study consisted teacher of government primary, middle and high schools. Using multi stage sampling technique researcher selected a total of three hundred teachers out of which hundred were primary school teachers (PST), hundred CT teachers and hundred senior English teachers SET as a sample of the study.

Data was collected through a self-made questionnaire. For statistical analysis percentage was applied.

Results of the study showed that majority of teachers were found strongly agree on, that homework is helpful in students' cognitive, affective, psychomotor development, most of the teachers were strongly agree that homework compels students to study at home, they perceived that homework provides opportunity for revision, practice; enriches memorization and vocabulary and thus helps them to explore subjects more fully than time permits in the

classroom, they were agree that homework enables students to learn organize and manage their time properly, motivates sense of responsibility and self learning. Thus, they develop confidence to deal with frustration and solve problems themselves. It was suggested by the researcher that reasonable amount of homework should be regularly given to the students because it discourages cheating, develops the habit of hard work and provides feedback to the teachers about students' strengths and weaknesses.

Key words: Home work, academic achievement, development, cognitive, affective, psychomotor.

Introduction

According to Cooper (1998) homework, or homework assignment is “tasks assigned to students by school teachers that are meant to be carried out during non-school hours”. Common homework assignments may include some or at least one task e.g. some reading to be performed, writing to be completed, problems to be solved, a project to be built, or other skills to be practiced. Alanne and Macgregor (2007) define homework as the time students spend outside the classroom in assigned activities to practice, reinforce or apply newly acquired skills and knowledge and to learn necessary skills of independent study. More simply, Meyer (2005) defines homework as “acts of researching, studying or completing assignments”. The Queensland Government (2004) in Australia defines homework as, “any activities that school students are asked to complete outside of lesson time”. Finally, Keith (2004) states “Homework may be defined as work assigned for completion outside of the normal class period whether completed at home or at school”.

History of Home work

The impact of homework on students is a contested and polarizing issue. Gill and Schlossman (2004) examined the history of homework in the United States and found that a homework debate had begun as early as the 19th century. The dominant influence of the progressive political movement upon education between 1890 and 1940 meant that homework was harshly criticized and discouraged by educators. Not only was it deemed harmful to health, character and family, it was also considered an ineffective instructional tool.

By the 1930s, measurement experts used evidence to confirm that in the pre-high school grades, homework had no beneficial effect on student achievement. This reinforced the pervasive discourse in education circles that homework represented a serious problem and “the less of it the better”. Harris Cooper (1989) charted the movement of the homework debate since the middle of the last century.

During the 1950s, the USSR's launch of Sputnik generated striking changes to North American education policies and attitudes in general. Part of Sputnik's legacy was an increased call for students to focus more, and perform better, in school, particularly in science and

mathematics. Homework was seen as a necessary condition of guaranteeing learning, achievement, and future national accomplishments.

During the 1960s and 1970s however, opposition to homework grew, possibly as part of a greater backlash against the authority and rigidity of institutional structures. Some perceived homework as simply an added pressure on students. Opponents began to question the value of homework and its strong link to an ideological focus on achievement and production. The attention to global economic competition in the 1980s and 1990s once again made the argument for homework's necessity fashionable. Currently though, anti-homework sentiment in the United States appears to be on the rise.

Aims and Objectives of Homework

According to Epstein, (1988) and Van Voorhis, (2004) regarding the general purposes of homework assignment, some teachers and researchers identify three main purposes of homework assignment which are as under:

- (a) The instructional purposes (practice, preparation, participation, personal development),
 - (b) The communicative purposes (peer interactions, parent-child relations and parent-teacher communications),
 - (c) The political purposes (policy, public relations) and punishment.
 - (d) To enable pupils to achieve their full potential
 - (e) To help pupils develop the skills of an independent learner
 - (f) To promote a partnership between home and school
 - (g) To consolidate and reinforce learning done in school and allow children to practice skills taught in lessons
 - (h) To help pupils to develop good work habits for the future.
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Types of Homework Assignments

Types of homework assignments traditionally assigned in schools tend to fall into one of four categories identified by Professors Jackson Lee and Wayne Pruitt (1979). Each type of homework has individual characteristics and has a specific objective. The four types are: practice homework, preparation homework, extension homework and creativity homework.

Practice homework assignments

According to Professors Jackson Lee and Wayne Pruitt (1979), this is the sort of assignment that allows the student additional opportunities to complete a task or apply knowledge learned in class. It is the most common type of homework assigned, and has a history reaching back to the earliest days of pioneer schools. Practice assignments reinforce newly acquired skills. For example, students who have just learned a new method of solving a

mathematical problem should be given sample problems to complete on their own. Moreover, Practice homework assignment is what a child or student is getting when the teacher assigns a worksheet of division problems after teaching long division that day in class. Similarly, if a child or student is sent home to memorize additional facts or times tables or verb conjugations that is also practice homework. Practice homework may also consist of doing numbered grammar exercises from a textbook or learning a dictation or a list of spelling or vocabulary words.

Ronald Laconte, (2007) says that the most effective kind of practice homework is to ask students to apply recently learned skills in "a direct and personal way." He gives the examples of having students who have been taught about different kinds of clouds identify them in pictures from old magazines. Other examples of such practice include playing games, having a child teach the newly learned skill to a parent or sibling, and asking the student to write a story that incorporates newly learned facts or vocabulary.

Preparation homework assignments

Preparation homework assignments is most often reading, but it can also consist of library or internet research, completing a pretest, watching a news report, gathering a number of items from home to bring to class, or answering questions designed to get the student thinking about a specific topic. In other words, such assignments help students get ready for activities that will occur in the classroom. Students may, for example, be required to do background research on a topic to be discussed later in class. Ronald T. Laconte, "Homework as a learning experience" NEA Professional Library <http://www.kidsource.com>

Extension homework assignments

Extension homework assignments are frequently long-term continuing projects that parallel class work. Students are required to apply previous learning to complete such assignments, which include science fair projects and term papers.

In addition, extension homework is exactly what it sounds like: assigned work that asks students to go beyond the straightforward skills or facts they have learned in class and practiced at home. Extension homework may take longer than preparation or practice assignments, or it may be completed in a single evening. The most important distinction between extension homework and practice homework is that it applies what has been learned in a new way. It is aimed at production of something new, rather than at the kind of reproduction that is the focus of much practice homework.

Creative homework assignments

Book reports, term papers and research projects are good examples of creative homework. This type of homework typically requires a number of days or even weeks to complete, and allows the student an avenue for creative self-expression. Creative homework is a

good opportunity for teachers to evaluate cross-curricular skills, as it may ask students to bring together learning from more than one academic field. The resultant work will be highly individualized, and while students may not receive marks for preparation or practice homework, creative homework may represent a large part of a term or course mark. (Ronald T. Laconte, 2007).

The Seven Hidden Values of Homework

Responsibility

The ability to assume “ownership” rightly belongs to the student, to fulfill their obligations, not to hesitate to pick up their responsibility and to hold themselves fully accountable for both their mistakes as well as their successes. Homework is a responsibility that rightfully belongs to the child/student, not the parents. When parents get too involved, they set the process on its head. The “lessons” get done, but the real lesson doesn’t get learned.

Autonomy

Homework helps students in self-governing and standing on their own two feet. Homework is the first time someone other than a parent has assigned tasks to the child/student on a consistent basis. In that sense, homework breaks new ground. The child/student is now accountable outside the family. The manner in which this golden opportunity is managed will either enhance or obstruct the child’s gradual emancipation. (Cooper, Harris. *The Battle over Homework: Common Ground for Administrators, Teachers and Parents*” Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press).

Perseverance

Homework contributes in confronting challenges with determination and striving in spite of difficulties. There’s no point to a child doing homework if every time he becomes frustrated, parents absorb that frustration and make it all better. They seem to believe that standing aside and letting a child fight with frustration, especially when the grappling could have been prevented, is neglectful, and perhaps even abusive. Little do they realize that more often than not, making a child’s life easier in the present will only make it harder in the future. (Cooper, Harris. *The Battle over Homework: Common Ground for Administrators, Teachers and Parents*” Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press).

Time Management

Homework helps in developing the ability to recognize time in an effective, productive manner, to complete tasks on schedule without compromising quality. In this regard, it’s most unfortunate that most parents tell children when to start their homework, but not when it must be finished. This sets the stage for a nightly homework marathon. Instead of learning to manage

time, the child learns to waste it. (Cooper, Harris. *The Battle over Homework: Common Ground for Administrators, Teachers and Parents*". Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press).

Initiative

Homework enables students to be self-motivated and assertive, to be decisive in defining and pursuing personal goals. It boils down to this - Who decides when it's time for the child to begin his homework? Initiative is like a muscle. If it's exercised, it strengthens. If, on the other hand, other people are assuming initiative for the child, he will not ever develop the strength to exercise it on his own. (Cooper, Harris. *The Battle over Homework: Common Ground for Administrators, Teachers and Parents*" Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press).

Self-Reliance

Homework assists students to boast trust and self-confidence in their abilities. Managed properly, homework empowers, affirms, enlarges, fulfills, actualizes, and enables the child's capacity for competence. Mismanaged, it diminishes, deflates, and disables. And there is no in-between. (Cooper, Harris. *The Battle over Homework: Common Ground for Administrators, Teachers and Parents* "Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press).

Resourcefulness

Homework strengthens the capacity to find, invent or adapt creative means of solving problems. This is the business, the very stuff of being human. Homework provides the child with a great deal of material.

In short, the manner in which the issue of homework is negotiated, managed, and otherwise handled within a family sets certain precedents that impact greatly the child's/students response to future challenges and problems. Most importantly, through homework assignments the child/student develops skills that help him in developing and enjoying a successful adulthood. (Cooper, Harris. *The Battle over Homework: Common Ground for Administrators, Teachers and Parents*" Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press).

According to Hallam (2004) homework has become an issue of research and media attention all over the world. In the United Kingdom, the news media follow this issue closely and new research continues to be conducted. According to Alanne & Macgregor, 2007, in Australia, both governments and independent researchers have analyzed homework. In the United States, the issue of homework has been dealt by various researchers such as Cooper et al. systematic reviews on homework, (1989 & 2006), United States Department of Education, (2007), and advocates of homework such as Kohn, (2006). All of them pronounce upon the issue of homework. According to Cameron & Bartel, (2008) in Canada, there has been substantial media attention over the past few years and new research has been published by the Canadian Council

on Learning in (2007). In short, homework is an important issue both inside and outside the academic world. (Walker, J., & Hoover-Dempsey, 2008).

Statement of the Problem

The problem under study was to investigate the teachers' perception regarding the effect of homework on students' academic achievement.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were:

- 1 To know the teachers' views regarding the effect of homework on students' academic achievement.
- 2 To give suggestions and recommendation in the light of the study.

Research guiding question

- 1 Does homework effect students' academic achievement?

Delimitation of the study

The study was delimited to:

- a) Teachers teaching at Government Primary Schools at District Bannu.
Teachers teaching at Government Middle Schools at District Bannu.
- b) Teachers teaching at Government High Schools at District Bannu.

Research Methodology

Population

Population of the study consisted teacher of government primary, middle and high schools at district Bannu.

Sample

The sample of the study was drawn as under.

Sample of schools

The researcher randomly selected using cluster sampling technique a total of sixty schools out of which twenty were Government Primary, twenty Middle and twenty High Schools.

Sample of teachers

The researcher conveniently selected a total of three hundred teachers out of which hundred were Primary School Teachers (PST), hundred CT and hundred Senior English Teachers (SET) from the sampled schools at district Bannu.

Research instrument

A questionnaire was developed in the light of review of literature and with the help of research and language experts.

Pilot Testing

The questionnaire was tried out by administering it to fifty respondents of government boys' primary, middle and high schools. They were asked to point out those terms and statements, which they could not understand properly. Keeping in view their responses and comments the questionnaire was modified. The questionnaire was again tried out. The respondents showed their satisfaction and reported that all question were understandable and clear.

Data Collection

The researcher personally visited all the sampled schools for collection of data. The questionnaire was distributed among the teachers of Primary, Middle and High Schools in order to know their perception about the effect of homework on students' academic achievement. They were requested to fill and return the questionnaires within a week. Thus, more than three hundred filled questionnaires were collected from target teachers.

Analysis & Interpretation of Data

Data collected through questionnaire was arranged, tabulated and it was analyzed and interpreted in the light of objectives of the study. For statistical analysis percentage was applied.

Table No: 1 Homework contributes to students' intellectual development.

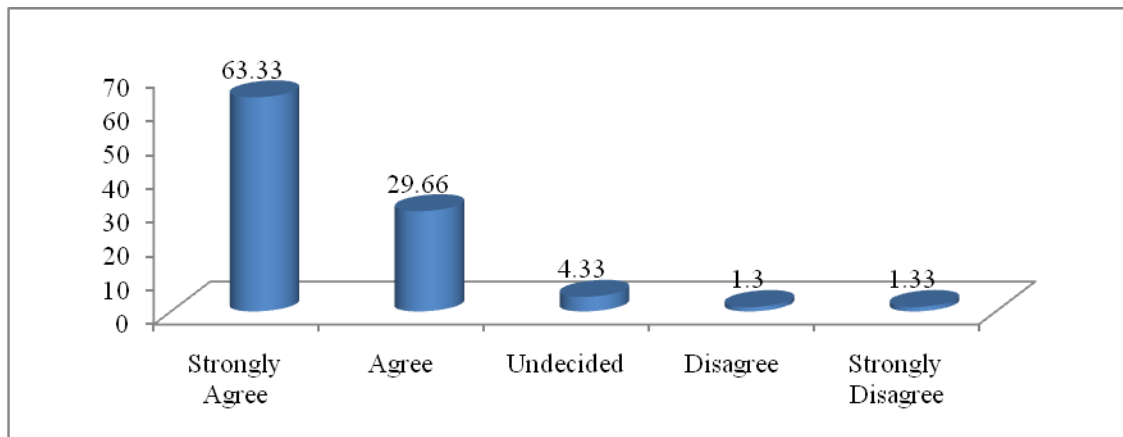


Table N: 2 Homework enriches students' affective capabilities.

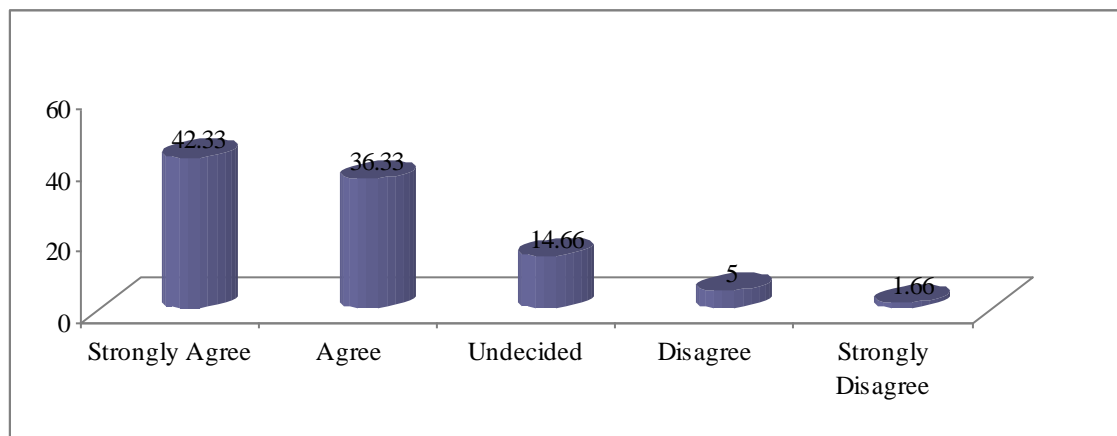


Table No: 3 Homework helps students in psychomotor development.

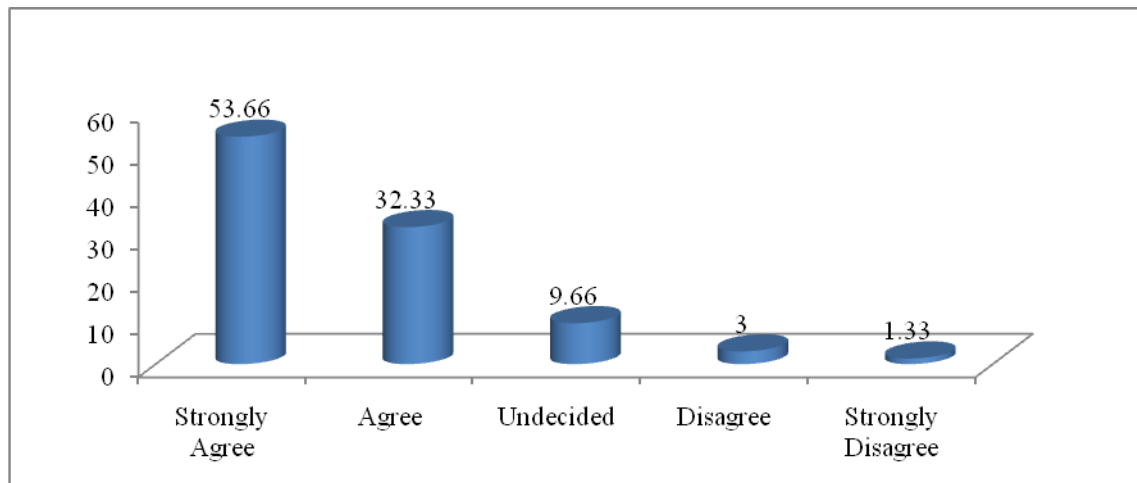


Table No: 4 Homework improves students' individual development.

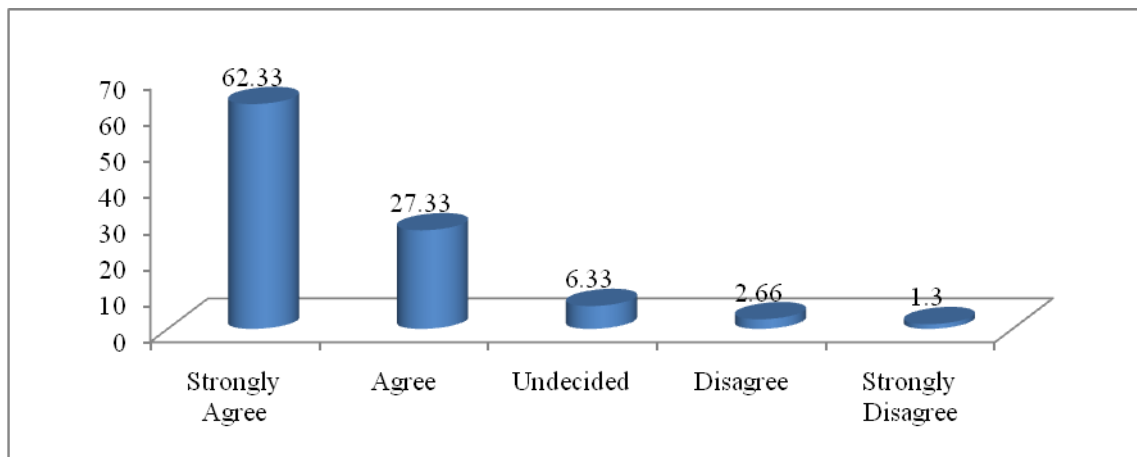


Table No: 5 Homework compels students' to study at home.

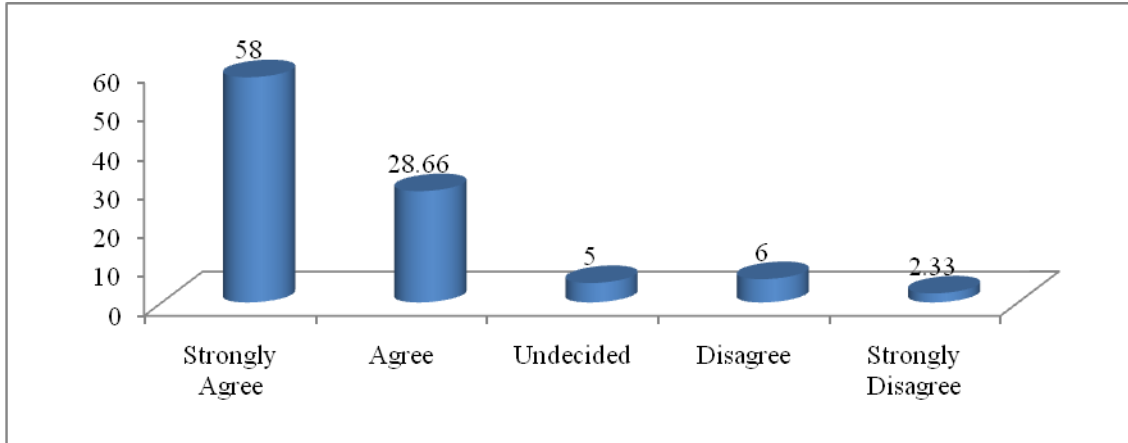


Table No: 6 Homework develops students' habit of study.

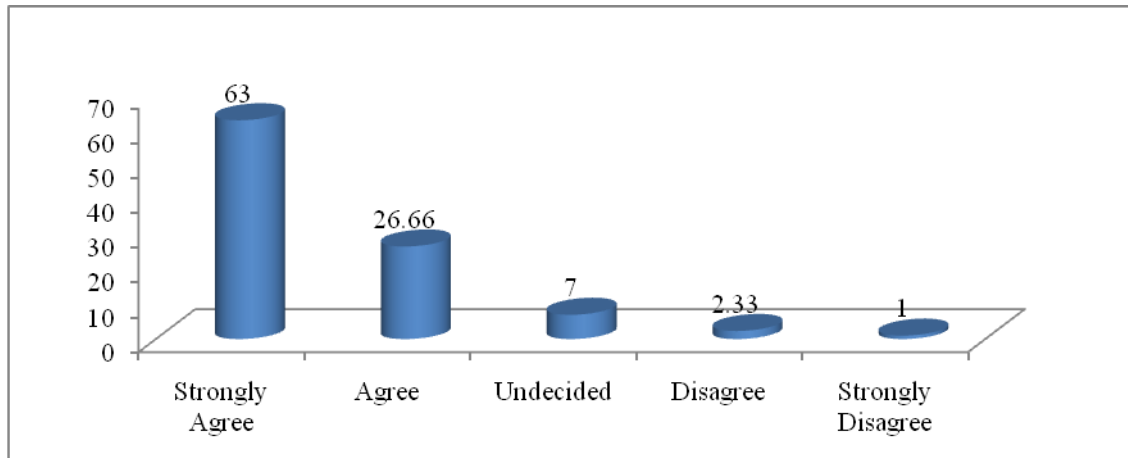


Table No: 7 Homework improves students' spelling, reading and writing.

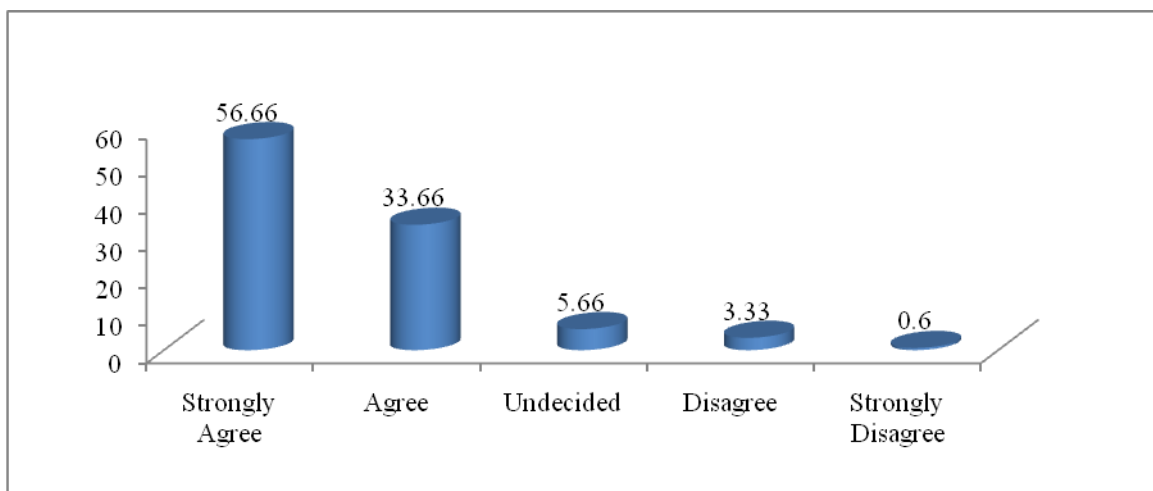


Table No: 8 Homework provides opportunity for revision and practice.

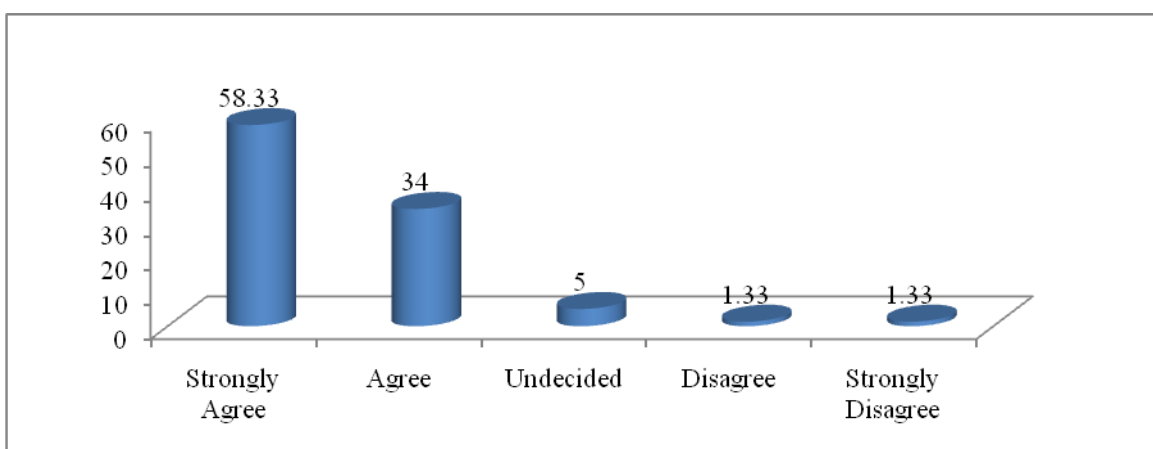


Table No: 9 Homework helps students' to explore subjects more fully than time permits in the classroom.

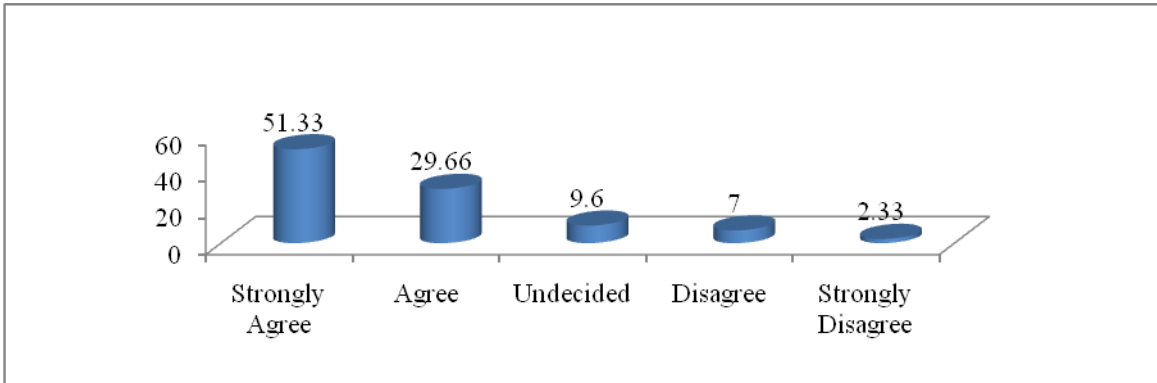


Table No: 10 Homework inhibits students in using resources such as library.

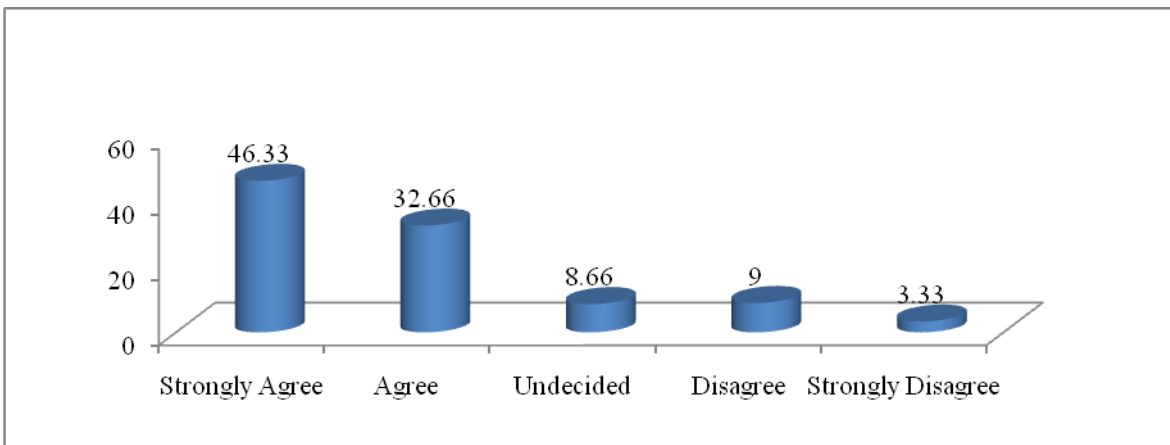


Table No: 11 Homework enables students' to learn, organize and manage their time properly.

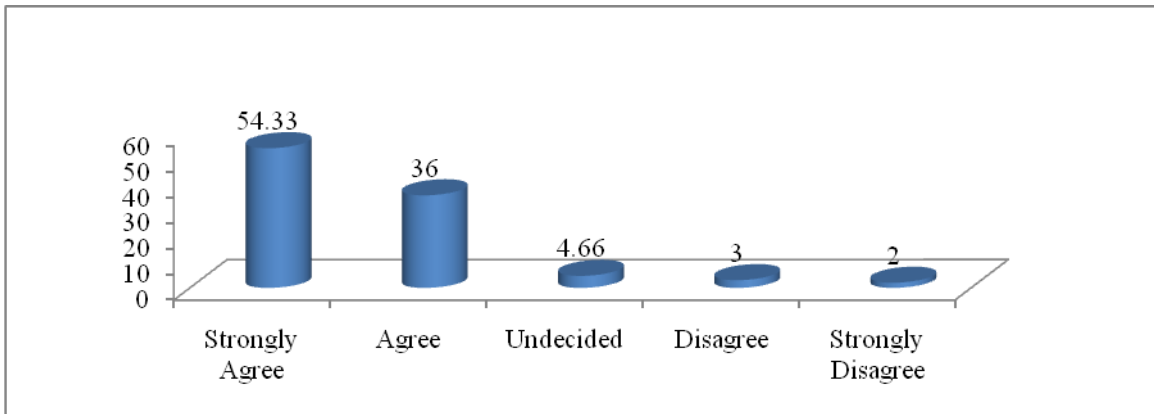


Table No: 12 Homework motivates sense of responsibility and self-learning.

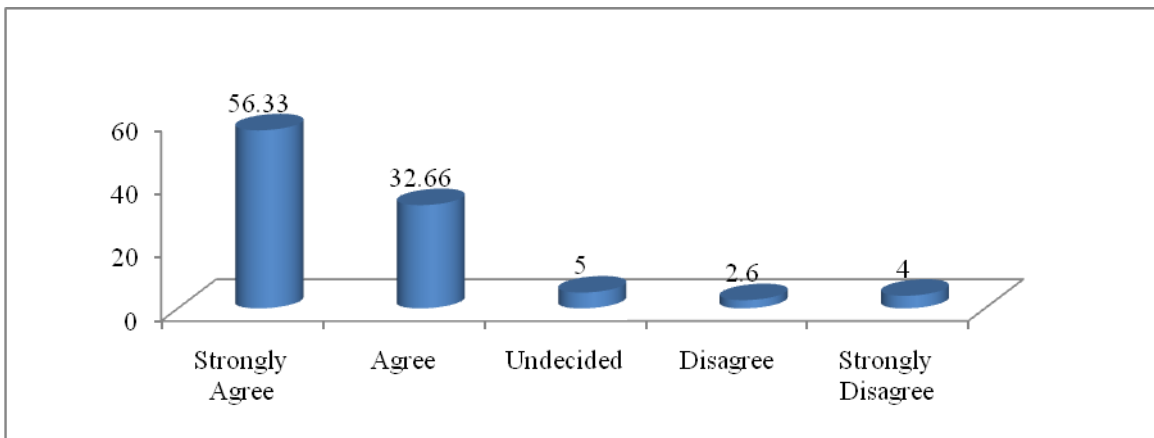


Table No: 13 Homework helps in better learning of different subjects especially English, Math and Science as they need much time.

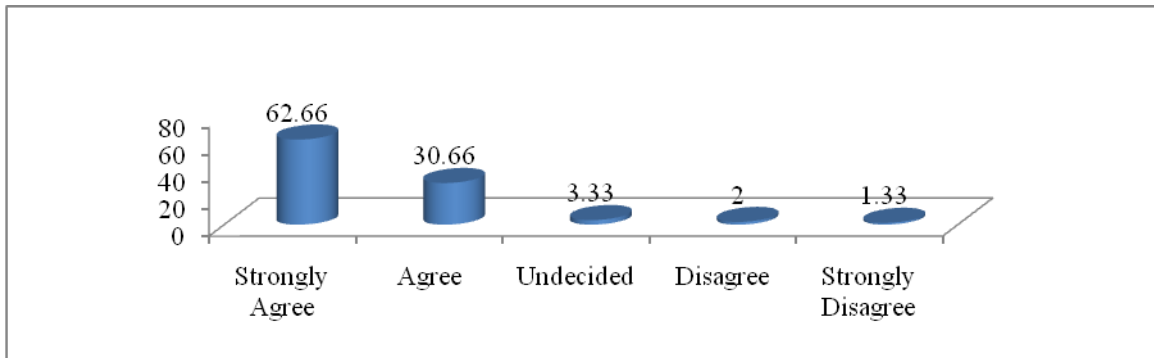


Table No: 14 Homework enables students to learn and work independently.

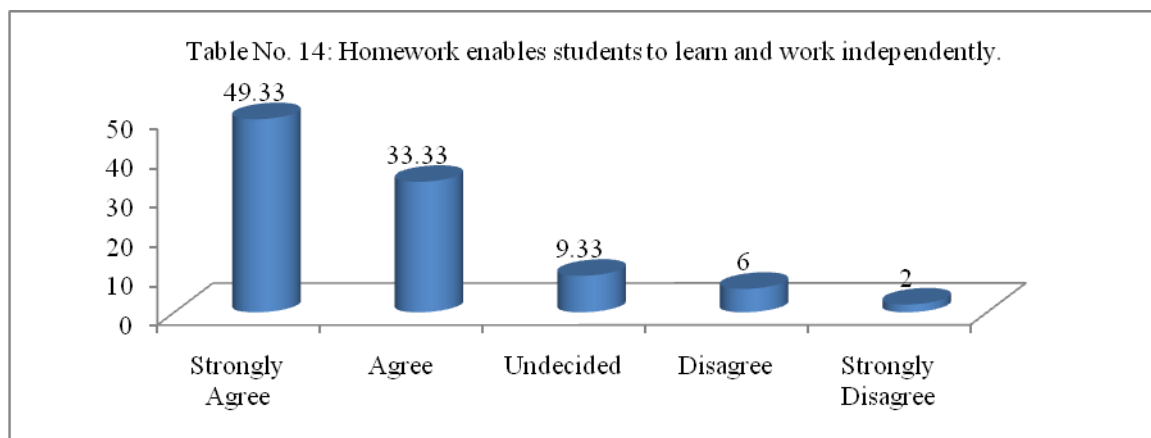


Table No: 15 Homework develops confidence to deal with frustrations and solve problems themselves.

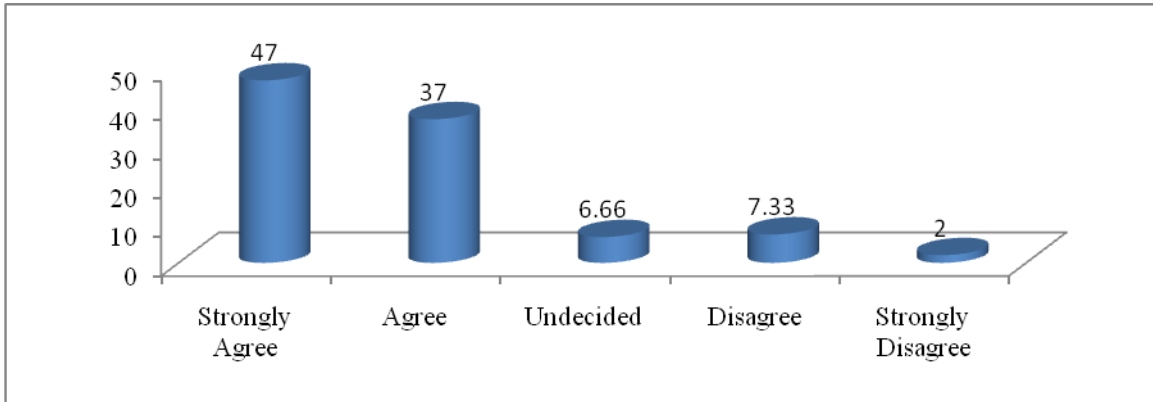


Table No: 16 Homework enriches memorization.

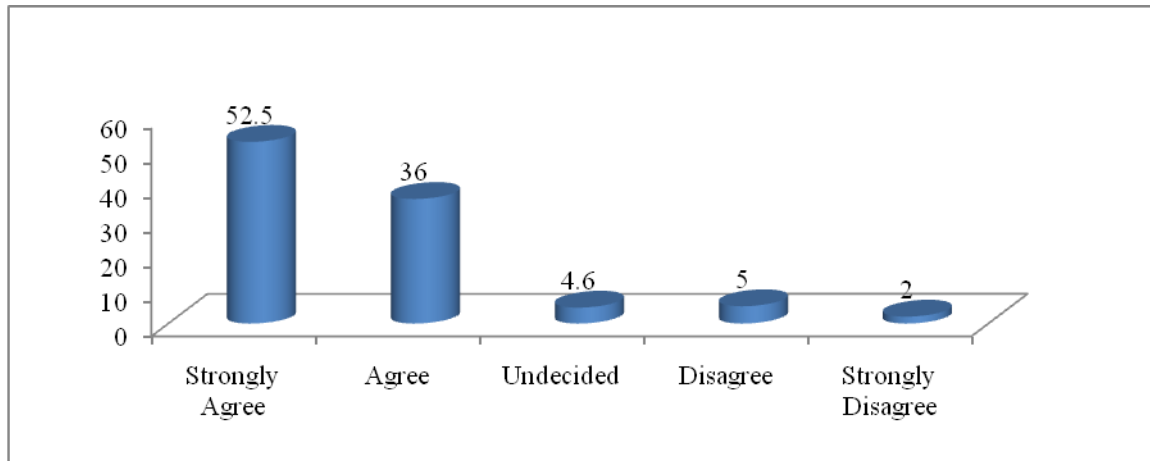


Table No: 17 Home work enriches vocabulary.

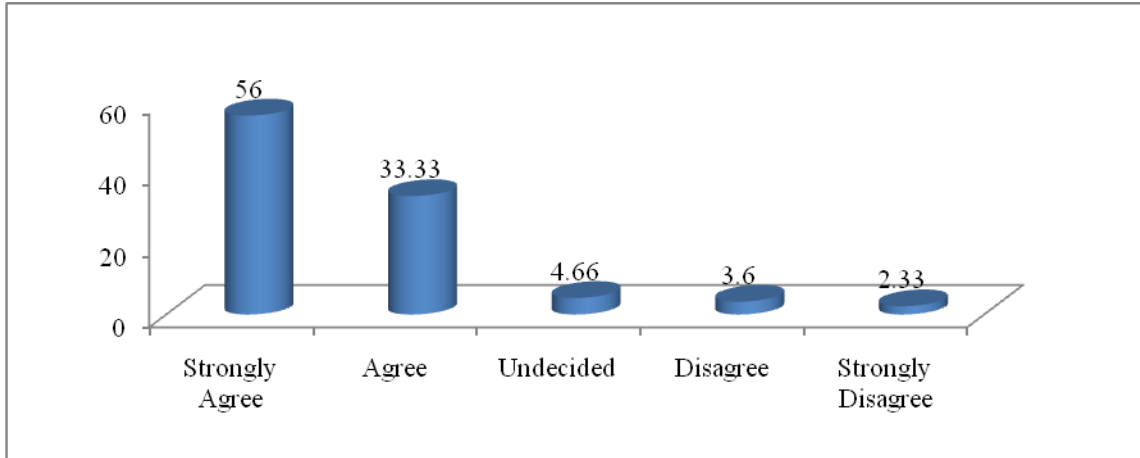


Table No: 18 Homework discourages cheating and develops the habit of hard work.

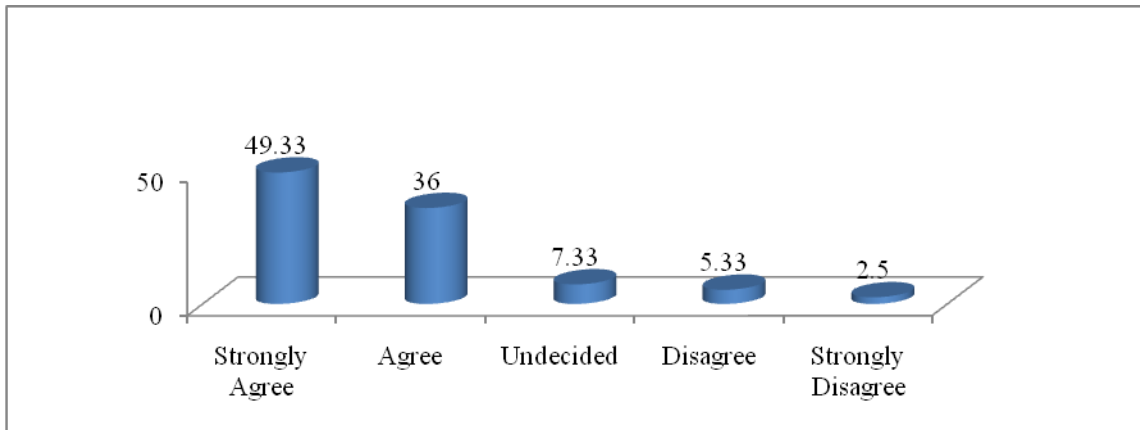


Table No: 19 Homework provides feedback to the teacher about students' strengths and weaknesses.

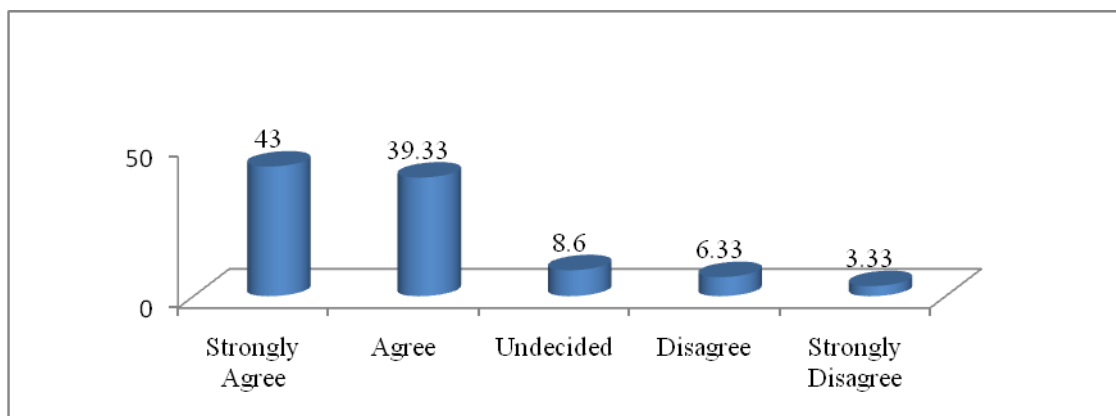


Table No: 20 Homework helps the teacher in grouping students.

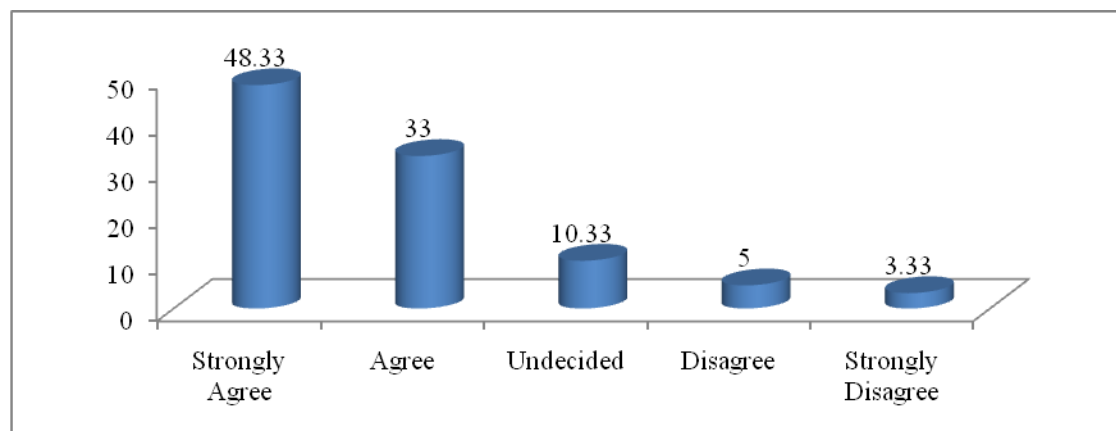


Table No: 21 Homework prepares students for the next day's class.

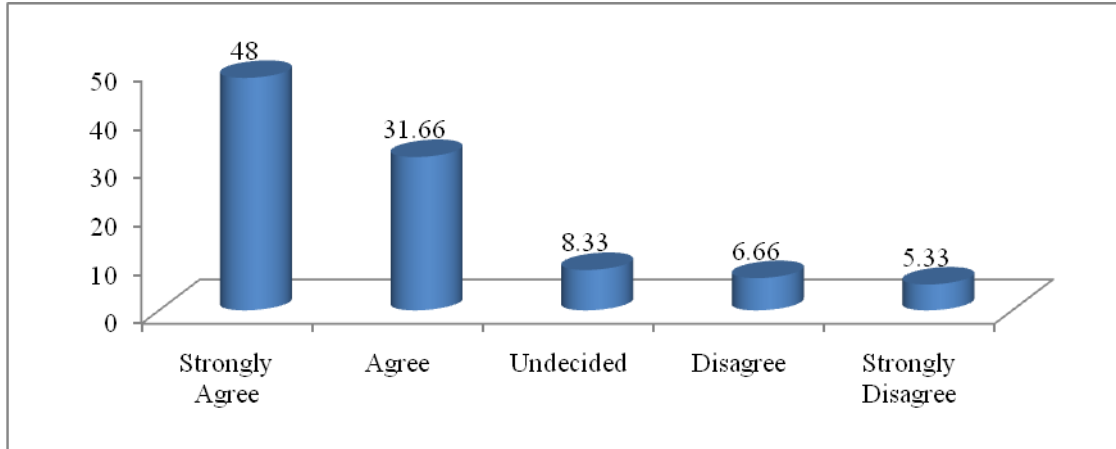


Table No: 22 Homework facilitates teacher in teaching.

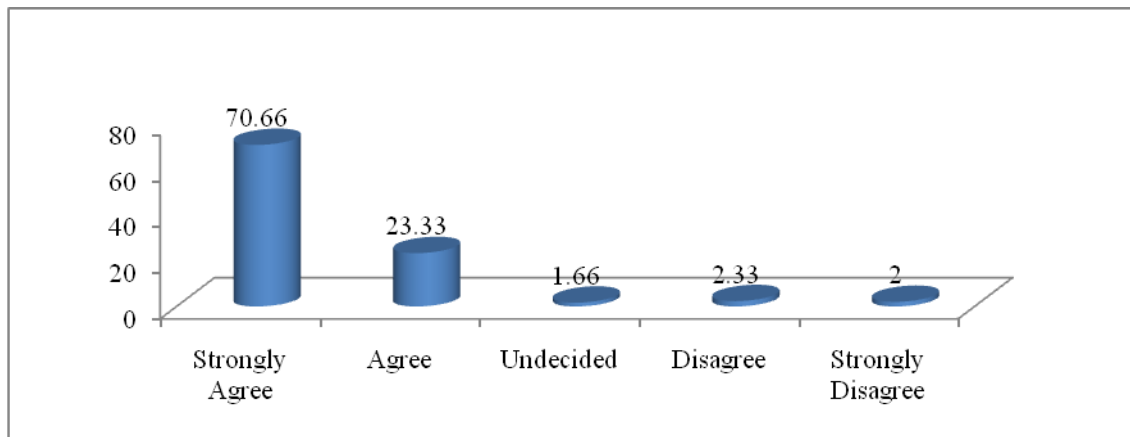


Table No: 23 Homework enables the teacher to complete the syllabus in time.

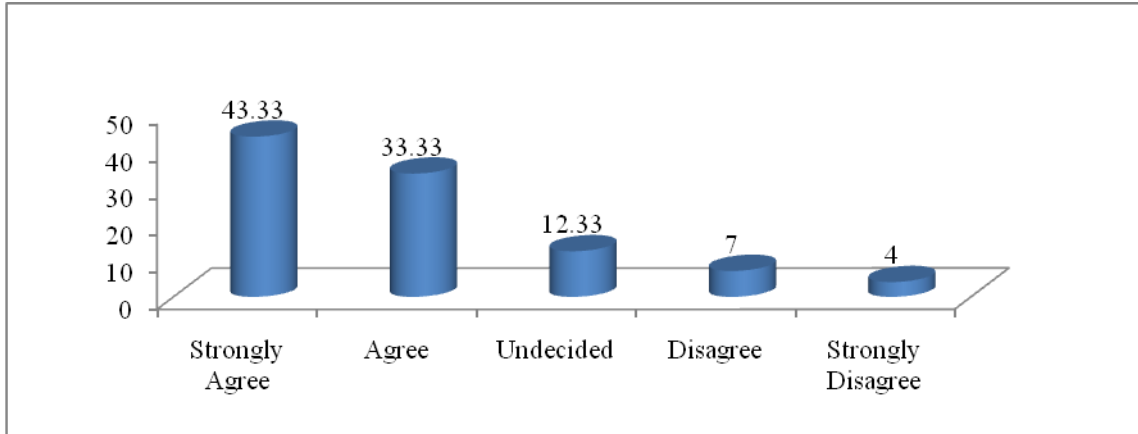


Table No: 24 Homework helps students in good preparation for examination.

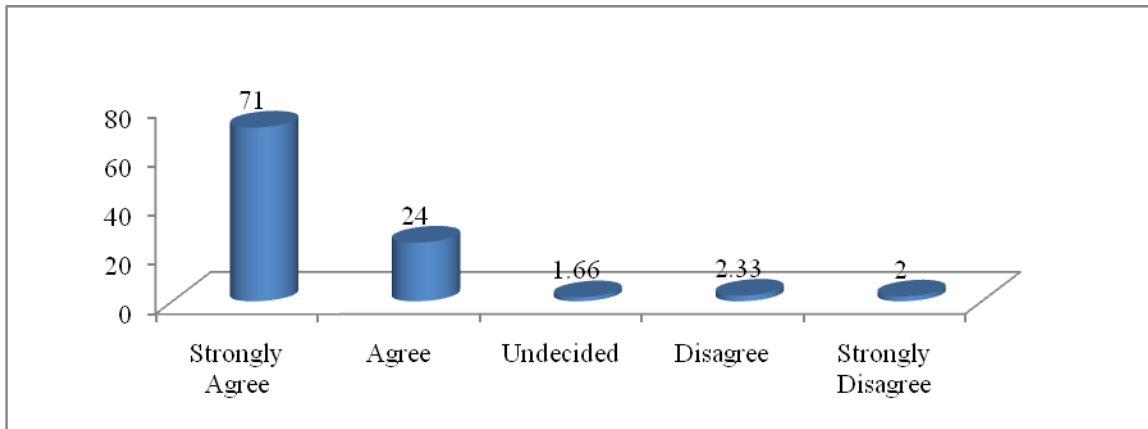
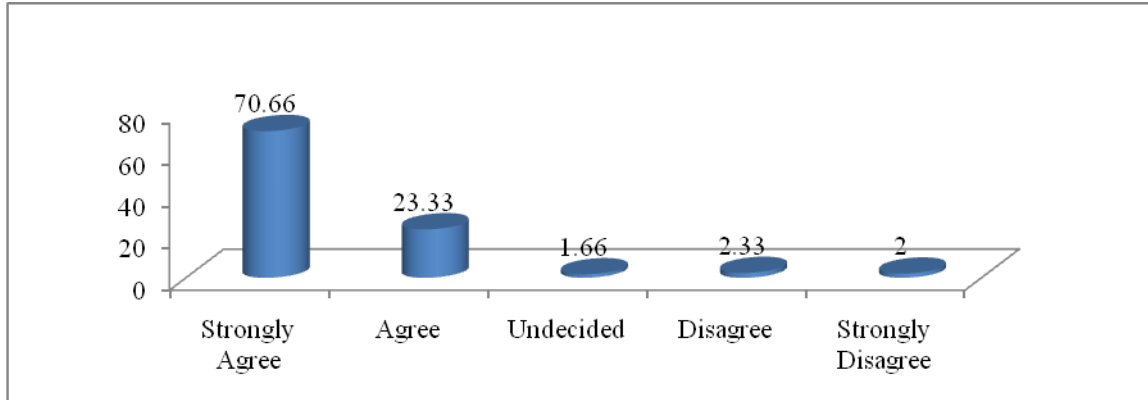


Table No: 25 Homework improves students' academic achievement.



Findings

1. Majority of teachers were strongly agreed that homework contributes to students' intellectual development.
2. A large number of teachers were strongly agreed that homework enhances affective capabilities.
3. Most of teachers were strongly agreed that homework helps in psychomotor development.
4. Most of the teachers were strongly agreed that homework compels students to study at home and improves their spelling, reading and writing.
5. Most of the teachers were strongly agreed that homework provides opportunity for revision and practice and helps them to explore subjects more fully than time permits in the classroom.
6. Most of the teachers were strongly agreed that homework enables students to learn organize and manage their time properly and motivates sense of responsibility and self learning in them.
7. Most of the teachers were strongly agreed that homework helps in learning subjects such as English, Mathematics and Science as they need much time.
8. Most of the teachers were strongly agreed that homework enables students to work independently and develops confidence to deal with frustration and solve problems themselves and thus discourages cheating and develops the habit of hard work.
9. Most of the teachers were strongly agreed that homework enriches memorization and vocabulary.
10. Most of the teachers were strongly agreed that homework provides feedback to the teacher about students' strengths and weaknesses and helps him grouping them.
11. Most of the teachers were strongly agreed that homework prepares students for the next day class.
12. Most of the teachers were strongly agreed that homework facilitates teacher in teaching and completing the syllabus in time.

13. Most of the teachers were strongly agreed that homework helps students in good preparation for examination and consequently improves their academic achievement.

Conclusions

Based on findings the following conclusions were drawn.

1. Majority of teachers were found agreed and strongly agreed that homework is helpful in students' intellectual, affective, psychomotor development.
2. Majority of the teachers perceived strongly that homework improves students' individual development.
3. Majority of the teachers perceived that homework provides opportunity for revision, practice; enriches memorization and vocabulary and thus helps them to explore subjects more fully than time permits in the classroom.
4. They were agreed that homework enables students to learn organize and manage their time properly, motivates sense of responsibility and self learning. Thus, they develop confidence to deal with frustration and solve problems themselves.
5. Majority of the teachers were strongly agreed that homework helps students in learning subjects such as English, Mathematics and Science as they need much time, homework provides feedback to them about students' strengths and weaknesses, homework facilitates teacher in teaching and completing the syllabus in time as regular homework prepares students for the next day class and homework helps in good preparation for examination and as a result improves students' academic achievement.

Recommendations

1. There is a dire need for raising awareness about the assignment, amount and proper check up of homework.
2. Teachers should be trained properly regarding the assignment, amount and proper check up of homework.
3. A reasonable amount of homework should be assigned to students.
4. Teachers should explain the purpose of homework assignments and ensure that the assignment is understood.
5. Teachers should use a homework planner. It should also be used to communicate with parents
6. Teachers should compare the amount of time students require to complete homework assignments with an anticipated completion time, and modify assignments as needed.
7. Teachers should communicate parents for suggestions about homework assistance, appropriate involvement and provision of congenial environment for homework.
8. Teachers should review homework promptly and provide students with feedback and additional instruction as appropriate.
9. Teachers should assign homework to students while keeping in view the learning disabilities of students.

10. A proper homework policy regarding homework should be devised and implemented in primary, middle and high schools.
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Teachers' Perception Regarding the Effect of Homework on Students' Academic Achievement

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Role and Significance of Black Community in Toni Morrison's Fiction

Jyoti Deswal, Ph. D. Scholar



<http://www.afrobella.com/2011/02/18/toni-morrison/>

Nature and Scope of Toni Morrison's Works

Toni Morrison, a Nobel Laureate, is considered one of the foremost figures in contemporary American fiction whose award-winning novels have won her international acclaim. In her fiction, Morrison addresses the issues related to the lives of Afro-Americans and explores the impact of socio-historic forces pitted against them. No doubt, Toni Morrison has received a good deal of critical attention and her novels have evoked wide and divergent critical response. A brief overview of Morrison's criticism would reveal the nature and scope of various approaches to her work.

Use of Black Cultural Tradition and Issues

Critics of African-American literature have demonstrated Morrison's aesthetic and thematic use of black cultural tradition. According to Trudier-Harris, the Afro-American history of tales, legends, beliefs and structure of folk-tradition form the basis of Morrison's novels.

Susan Willis analyses Morrison's novels from historical perspective and sees the process of history at work in Morrison's novels. Melissa Walker examines Morrison's novels against the background of the Civil Rights Movement.

The feminist critics have focused on how gender shapes Morrison's texts. Karla Holloway and Stephanie Demetrakopoulos study Morrison's portrayal of the black American women enduring life-long catastrophe. Barbara Smith finds both lesbian and feminist questions about black women's destiny in Morrison's class consciousness and cultural redefinitions.

There is yet another set of critics who have focused on the relationship between whites and blacks in Morrison's novels. James Berger finds Morrison depicting a pervasive system of racism in her fiction.

Some critics have delineated universal paradigms in Morrison's fiction. Terry Otten traces the pervasiveness of horrific love while Keith E. Byerman finds a nihilistic and black vision in Morrison's work. Critics like Denise Heinze and Gray Straff analyze the role of family in Morrison's novel.

Attention on Core Issue of Role and Significance of Community

This broad overview of various critical responses to Morrison's fiction reveals that most critics have ignored the core issue of role and significance of community in Morrison's fiction. There are, however, critics like Wendy Harding and Jacky Martin, Patrick Bryce Bjork, Dorothy H. Lee, Roberta Rubenstein, Valerie Smith and Barbara Christian who take up the analysis of this vital concern of the author.

Wendy Harding and Martin observe that Morrison's concern in her novels centers around the black people and their community because her "creative imagination centers on the position of a community buffeted in the tug of war between two cultures" (Wendy & Martin:171).

According to the critics, “Morrison’s characters barely seem to exist outside the collectivity,” because “when they embark on self-defining quests that take them beyond the borders of their community, they generally disappear from the narrative framework” (Wendy & Martin:88).

Emphasis on Communal Consciousness

Patrick Bryce Bjork notes Morrison’s emphasis on “communal consciousness” in her fiction. According to her, Morrison’s black community “instead of defining itself in relation to external ideology or to the dominant group, emphasizes its own past, its own forms” (Bjork:14). Bjork says that Morrison does not merely point to the all-pervading presence of fears, frustration and fury in her community, she also “wishes to expose the psychic causes for social distortions within a black community.” (Bjork:38).

Roberta Rubenstein interprets Morrison’s black community as a vehicle through which behavior is expressed or reinforced; it is a “kind of collective conscience,” that “fictions as a moral arbiter, the source of both individual and group norms.”(Rubenstein:148). The critic further notes that the community “either includes or excludes its members on the basis of their accordance with its implicit-though frequently contradictory values.”

Valerie Smith also underscores the importance of the black community in Morrison’s fiction. The critic says that Morrison “does not provide her people with the option of living underground in isolation, beyond community” (Smith:274).

Dorothy H. Lee notes Morrison’s preoccupation “with the effect of community on the individual’s achievement and the retention of an integrated, acceptable self”(Lee:346). Barbara Christian, on the other hand, recognizes the use of community in Morrison’s fiction as “place or setting” (Christian:65).

Community – A Motivating and Organizing Device in Morrison’s Fiction

The studies of these critics however, fail to bring out the role and significance of community in Morrison’s novel fully. A careful study of Morrison’s fictional writings shows that the role of community in nurturing or challenging the individual is a motivating and organizing device in Morrison’s fiction. Morrison revivifies the meaning of community in her works. Each of her novels continually focuses beyond the isolated, dystopian self toward the potentialities of a desired, collective self. Various socio-historic forces such as Slavery, Civil War, Migration, Depression and Racism have had deep impact on the black community life, an aspect which Morrison fully deals with in her novels.

What is the Community?

The community, in Morrison’s fiction, means the actual or abstracted villages, compounds or enclaves in which black Americans used to live. Defined by personal rather than political relationships, it is made up of family and neighbors.

One finds that there exists a strong symbiotic relationship between family and community in Morrison’s fiction. It was in her own family that Morrison was schooled about the

importance of a coherent community. For Morrison, community's involvement in anchoring the lives and experiences of the blacks can hardly be underestimated. Morrison learned early what it meant to live in an economically cooperative neighborhood. Her foundation and sense of self were strengthened by the cohesiveness of the small black Lorain community that parented and nurtured her for seventeen years.

In an interview with Robert Stepto, Morrison asserts that her "tendency is to focus on neighborhoods and communities. And the community unity, the black community----was always there, only we called it 'neighborhood' that gave people life-giving, very very strong sustenance." She describes it as a place that cared if someone was 'put out' or 'put outdoors' where "people were taken care of ----if they were sick----if they were old----if they were mad" (Stepto:11).

Lives of Black Characters

In her fiction, Morrison shows the role that the black community plays in the lives of her characters. The community's values and beliefs shape the background against which the individual behavior is defined. Morrison reiterates that community and social organization for blacks is not a matter of convenience but of dire economic and spiritual necessity. She also validates the therapeutic role community plays to raise, protect and preserve a familial unit.

Morrison's praise for the community is, however, not unmixed; she castigates it severely when she finds that it has failed to play its cherished role. Her fictive world presents both the positive and negative ramifications of community's role in the lives of black Americans. The community both fosters and restricts its members. In the author's words, community is "both a support system and a hammer at the same time" (Smith:50).

Individual's Place in the Larger Community

Through her novels, Morrison is concerned with the individual's place in the larger community, concentrating on the relation between the pressures of the community, patterns established within families and the developing sense of self. She has, beginning with *The Bluest Eye*, been interested in the effect of community's acceptance or rejection of the individual. Her fiction expresses the complex dynamics of experience through which individuals are formed, or deformed by the often conflicting values of their respective communities.

The emotional reality of her characters may be understood as both a response to and a reflection of benign or destructive boundaries of community. In her early novels, *The Bluest Eye* and *Sula*, Morrison examines the complex economic, historical, cultural and geographic factors that problematize her characters' relation within the black community and the world beyond.

The Bluest Eye

In *The Bluest Eye*, Lorain represents one of the northern urban communities reeling under the influx of southern migrants. Pauline and Cholly are immigrants from South, and are met with

ridicule and scorn by northerners who see their ignorant and unsophisticated ways as a threat to the tenuous racial stability. Their daughter, Pecola Breedlove, on whom the novel centers, typifies Morrison's outsiders because of her unattractiveness and color. Her story illustrates the destructive potential of a culture that recognizes only one standard of physical beauty and equates that standard with virtue.

Morrison shows how every segment of the black community in the novel is smitten by the aesthetics and beliefs they have adopted from an alien culture. The community continues to reject and avoid Pecola. Although the primary function of the black community is that of protecting its members Pecola's community fails her. In the end, Pecola is driven mad by her inability to possess blue eyes. But her insanity really results from the fact that she serves as the communal scapegoat, bearing not only her own self-loathing, but that of her neighbors and family as well.

Morrison concludes *The Bluest Eye* with Claudia's indictment of the society which "cleaned itself on Pecola". As the girl searches the garbage for "the things we assassinated," Claudia reflects that "this soil is bad for certain kind of flowers. Certain seeds it will not nurture, certain fruit it will not bear, and when the land kills of its volition, we acquiesce and say the victim had no right to live" (*The Bluest Eye*:164).

***Sula* – Failure to Commit Oneself to Communal Responsibility**

In *Sula*, Morrison retrospectively presents the Bottom, a northern black community, geographically and socially isolated from the dominant culture. Here, time progression does not equate with social progression. Morrison recognizes the rich folk culture of the community but she is also keenly aware of the suffocating vacuum that keeps its people poor, neglected and loveless. Its member can unite only to make Sula, the protagonist of the novel, the convenient personification of evil, and thus, the focal point of a community in need of a common enemy.

Sula is again a scapegoat figure, a person shunned by the community, unable to connect fruitfully with the external world. She wants total freedom to live vitally, gratifying and observing her own impulses as she believes that she can create for herself an identity that exists beyond community and social expectations. Sula uses life as her medium, "exploring her own thoughts and emotions, giving them full reign, feeling no obligation to please anybody unless their pleasure pleased her" (*Sula* : 118).

Worst of all in her neighbors' judgment, she discards men, black and white as rapidly as she sleeps with them, even the husband of her best friend, Nel. Moreover, Sula's lack of consideration for her grandmother, a neighborhood caretaker and the prototype of Morrison's nurturing mother figure, is underscored when she institutionalizes her in a nursing home.

Thus, Sula is unable to commit herself to a communal responsibility larger than her own concern, displacing herself—not only from her mother and her grandmother but also from the community" (Mori: 94) as is pointed out by Mori. Sula's parallel withdrawal from the community in her selfish quest for self-fulfillment culminates negatively in her death.

Song of Solomon

The protagonist of Morrison's *Song of Solomon* completes a heroic quest for an identity and place within the community. His story follows a cohesive of miraculous birth, youth, alienation, quest, confrontation, and reintegration into community.

The novel is Morrison's most positive depiction of the values of community as a crucial balance between individual liberation and reciprocal obligation. Milkman's conservative, middle class family which, like himself and his black community in Michigan, is fractured by the absence of a historical or cultural identity. But his journey to the rural south forces him to begin taking a more realistic view of the world around him. In the solitary wilderness of the woods in Shalimar, Milkman feels compelled to confront his essential identity, and his epiphany is the impetus for personal change and transcendence. He is suddenly awakened to his essential connection to other people.

In this spirit of collective identity, Milkman feels "a sudden rush of affection" and connection toward everyone he has known because like him, he realizes that in being forced to live unnatural lives, they, too, have been "maimed" and "scarred" (*Song of Solomon*:278). They all have been conditioned to live in isolation, alienation and denial. As his initiation signifies, it is the myth of brotherhood and belonging which ultimately springs from and illuminates reality. According to Patrick Bryce Bjork, Milkman's "reintegration into community depends upon his acceptance of individual relationships" (Bjork:109).

Tar Baby

Morrison's *Tar Baby* is set in the tropical Caribbean, Isle des Chevaliers, which is a microcosm of modern society. Each character in the novel remains disconnected from identity, place and community. Jadine, the heroine of the novel, represents the Americanized brand of black youth who is far removed from her own family and community ties. Son, on the other hand, represents a typical African, full of community feelings. Son desperately tries to imbibe Jadine's community and family bonding by taking her to Eloë. Even though Son clearly claims Eloë as the source and roots of his being, there does not seem to be enough attraction in the community to maintain Son's sense of belonging. Like Jadine, he finds his people "stupid, backwoodsy, dumb dead" (*Tar Baby*:275).

The black community of Eloë that should have played a pivotal role in bringing the American black youth to the indigenous culture and heritage is unable to rise to the occasion since it is found to be parochial, backward and blindfolded. Morrison severely criticizes the black community for its failure to keep pace with the outside jet-set world. She concludes that Eloë is "rotten and more boring in –A burnt out place" (*Tar Baby*:262). The community finally fails to cement the bond between Son and Jadine.

Beloved

In *Beloved*, community underscores a radical redefinition of the emancipated blacks. In spite of suffering every indignity, the black community slowly coalesces.

A kind of linchpin in the Cincinnati community of the novel, Baby Suggs is the healer of the body collective who, by gathering her people at an isolated place by the river, can reconcile everyone with their individual hurts and, collective grievances. But the frailty of bonds forged among the members of this community is made apparent when they refuse to warn Baby Suggs of the arrival of slave catchers. They are envious of Baby Sugg's relative affluence and her position as the spiritual leader of the community. It was after all the local community's refusal to help Sethe that led to her act of infanticide.

Even Baby Sugg's iron will and faith in God are annihilated, not so much by the murder or by the white people, but by the community's lack of compassion and understanding. Communal solidarity was withheld from Sethe for nineteen years.

When Paul D seeks out Sethe, he takes Sethe and Denver out of isolation into society represented by the carnival. But Sethe and Denver are soon isolated again by Beloved, the ghost of Sethe's daughter. In the end, it is Denver who steps beyond the confines of 124 Bluestone Road and reaches out to the black community for help. She finds herself the recipient of communal love and kindness. The women of the town, with their powerful presence, save Sethe's life by exorcising the ghost of Beloved at the climatic conclusion of the novel. The exorcism saves the family from dissolution and initiates its members into the community.

Underlying Current - Potential for Cultural Regeneration

Thus, it is evident that Morrison's characters like Pecola, Sula, Pilate, and Jadine are unable to find and make a fully realized self in their communities because each has been in some way or the other, warped by communal circumstances. Yet, for each circumstance comes a measure of affirmation that points to the potential for cultural regeneration.

These characters acknowledge, however, vaguely, that they must search for identity by returning to the neighborhood and to the communal experience. They must do so in order as Morrison has said. "to survive whole in a world where (they) are all---victims of something" (Bakesman : 40). Thus, the community, for better or worse has the power to become the site of removal for its members. Their response to the call of communal experience determines forever their course in life.

It, however, goes to the credit of Morrison that she presents both the positive and negative aspects of the black community, which, in her opinion, has withheld itself from the outer world by its exclusive and backward nature. But, she, at the same time, reaffirms the significance of cultural heritage of the black community in the lives of black individuals and families.

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Colophon:

My grateful thanks are due to Dr. Gulab Singh, Dean, Faculty of Arts and Languages, BPS Mahila Vishwavidyalaya for his guidance and supervision in preparing this article.

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The Status of Female Education in Pakistan

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Rabia Tabbssum, Ph.D.

Abstract

The study was aimed at investigating the status of female education in Pakistan. Education is a process of socialization according to the social needs of the society. Education brings change in the behaviour of individuals and empowers them to live with dignity and freedom.

Education of women is regarded as a key element in their quest for equality. The impact of education on women themselves, their family and society cannot be overemphasized. The contribution the women can make towards economic development of families and the economic system need to be monetarily assessed to see how much is best if they are involved in productive behaviour.

The main objective of the study was to study the status of female education in Pakistan. The minimum level of education for inclusion in the sample was at least secondary school certificate. The study was limited to Punjab. The cluster random sampling technique was used for administering the instrument of this study.

The conclusions of the study were: (1) Salary of majority of the respondent's was in the range of Rs. 5,001-10,000 per month. However, a few respondents had other sources of income up to Rs. 5000; (2) Majority of the respondents claimed importance of educated female because education solves the financial problems and enhancement of personality and awareness.

Female education should be encouraged and expanded in all regions of the country. Proper arrangements for female education can secure them and make them able to earn and live full life.

Keywords: Female Education, Family, Society, Personality, Freedom of Women.

Illiteracy and the Backwardness of a Country

Ahmed (1996) describes that the backwardness of a country continues mainly because of the large percentage of illiterates. This percentage is very high among men in the world, but alarmingly higher in the case of women. Women form almost half of the population of a country. If such a large portion is denied the privilege of education, the country is found to lag behind.

There was a time when it was said that educated women are apt to neglect their domestic duties and lose their tender grace and feminine virtue. An educated woman was expected to be self-conceited, good only for novel reading, playing on the organ and disobeying her parents. But those days are gone. It is now pretty difficult to procure a good match for a girl who does not know how to read and write. The importance of education for women is now admitted on all hands (Philippines, 1994).

In spite of the overwhelming significance of their role in maintaining a social system women have struggled for centuries to win recognition of their rights.

UN Charter of Human Rights

Practically in every modern society, feminist movements are fighting against numerous built-in male prejudices. It is in view of these facts that the United Nations had made improvement in the status of women an integral part of the Charter of Human Rights. Removal of sex discrimination is one of the top priorities of UN in its agenda for national development.

Dehumanization of Women

Khalid (1990) describes that the women in general are dehumanized and they exercise little control over either themselves or on affairs affecting their well being. They are treated as possessions rather than as self-reliant and self-regulating humans. They are dispossessed and disinherited in spite of legal safe guards.

The vast majority of rural females are made to work as long as sixteen to eighteen hours a day without any payment. Their status is based mostly on local customs irrespective of Quranic precepts. Islam has given women fundamental rights in matters relating to marriage, divorce and inheritance. Her participation in society and her dignity are recognized. But, in Muslim countries, the Islamic provisions may receive lip service but the provisions of Islam may be greatly masked by country's cultural patterns.

The Qur'an does not place any economic responsibilities on women and ensures that all women are to be provided for by men related to them by blood or marriage. At the same time, women are given the right to earn and retain their personal earnings. Muslim women are free to use their financial resources in whatever way they like. They can buy and sell property or invest their money in any trade or business. They can give the mandate of their property to any person of their choice without even the consultation of their consorts. In economic matters, the juridical status of women is the same as that of men. The law allows them to make use of their material assets in whatever way they please. Despite strong family ties, Muslim women can maintain their independence in various walks of life (Sudha, K.D. 2000).

In practice, like the rest of the Muslim world, the Pakistani women are denied due social prestige and economic equality. They are mostly confined to only monotonous affairs, without opportunities for intellectual growth.

Also in practice, women were degraded in social prestige and economic equality. They were mostly confined to domestic drudgery and draped in purdah. They were completely debarred from public life (Hasan 1982).

In Arabia, the birth place of Islam, the position of woman was in no way better and elevated. Patriarchal form of social structure made women a part of men's property.

Custom and Environment – Status of Women in the Muslim World Now

Female education is a sociological investment which can result in a lot of social good. No one would question that a woman should be a good wife and a devoted mother but to confine her merely to a narrow world of domesticity is a gross miscalculation of her abilities. She should be given a chance to fight, shoulder to shoulder with men the battle of existence on various fronts, so that her aptitude and abilities can be purposefully canalized (Shah, 1989).

Statement and Objectives

The study was aimed at exploring the status of female education in Pakistan. The objectives of the study were the status of female education in Pakistan, to evaluate the role of female education as a daughter, mother and a wife and to explore the legal status and political rights.

Method and Procedure

Data collected through questionnaire were tabulated, analyzed and interpreted by applying percentages descriptive and inferential statistics in the light of the objectives of the study.

Table 1 Distribution of monthly salary of the respondents

Responses	Up to 5,000	5,001-10,000	10,001-15,000	15,001-20,000	Above 20,000	Total
Number	294	458	140	72	36	1000

Percentage	29.4	45.8	14.00	7.2	.36	100
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Table 1 reflects that per month salary of 45.08 percent respondents was found between Rs. 5,001 and Rs. 10,000, followed by 29.04 percent who claimed their salary Rs. 5,000 or below. The salary of 14.00 percent was found in the range of Rs. 10,001-15,000. Only 7.02 percent fell in the range of Rs. 15,001-20,000.

Table 2 Distribution of respondents about effects of female education

Responses	Social	Financial	Importance of Educated Females	Enhancing the personality and awareness	Total
Number	194	327	465	214	1200
Percentage	16.17	27.25	38.75	17.83	100

Table 2 depicts that 27.25 percent respondents claimed financial effect of female education, followed by 38.75 percent who claimed importance of educated female. Enhancement of personality and social effect was claimed by 17.83 percent and 16.17 percent respectively.

Table 3

Distribution of responses regarding qualification of mothers' socio-economic status

I	Qualificati	Illiterate	Prima	Middle	Matri	F.A	B.A	M.A	Total	
	on									
	Number	564	284	151	111	53	28	9	1200	
	Percentage	47.00	23.67	12.58	9.25	4.42	2.33	0.75	100	
II	Occupatio	Unemploy	Busin	Heal	Teach	Banki	Army	P.T.C.	Agricultu	Total
	n									
	Number	765	198	75	90	25	15	24	8	1200
	Percentage	63.75	16.50	6.25	7.5	2.08	1.25	2	0.67	100
III	Income	0-5,000	5,011-1,0000	10,001-15000	15,001-20,000	Above	20,000	Total		
	Numbers									
	Numbers	773	175	125	90	37	1200			
	Percentage	64.42	14.58	10.42	7.5	3.08	100			

1. Table 3 indicates that 45.5 percent of the respondent's mothers were found with qualification from primary to matric. Whereas, 47.00 percent of them were illiterate. None had higher qualification.
2. 63.75 percent of the respondent's mothers were found unemployed. However, 36.25 percent were found employed in variety of occupations.
3. 89.42 percent of the respondent's mothers were found with income up to Rs:150,000. Only 3.08 percent were earning more than Rs:20,000.

Findings

The analysis of the data revealed that financial effect of female education was claimed by 27.25 percent respondents, followed by 38.75 percent who claimed importance of education for female. Enhancement of personality and social effect was claimed by 17.83 percent and 16.17 percent respectively. So for salary analysis to concerned 7.02 percent fell in the range of Rs 15,001-20,000 per month. Mothers of 62.25 percent of the respondents were found with qualification from primary to B.A, 36.25 percent of the respondents mother were employed in a variety of occupations and 3.08 percent of the respondents were earning more than Rs.20,000.

Conclusions

In the light of the analysis of data and findings of the study it was concluded that most of the respondent's mothers were educated but only a few of them reported that their mothers earned more than Rs. 20,000 per month. Salary of majority of the respondents was in the range of Rs: 5,001-10,000 per month and majority of the respondents claimed importance of educated females because education solves the financial problems and enhances their personality and awareness. Education of women is regarded as a key element in their quest for equality. The impact of education on women themselves, their family and society cannot be overemphasized.

The contribution the women can make towards the economic development of families and the economic system need to be monetarily assessed to see how much is lost if they are not involved in productive labour. Education and training alone can narrow the difference in competency and achieving empowerment of women and their social position and placement of the talent where it can be most productive.

Recommendations

After the analysis of the data, findings and conclusions, it was observed that majority of the respondents were found doing some job to overcome the financial problems, for which education is an essential element. Further research is recommended to obtain more relevant reliable and applicable results by taking a larger sample from all the provinces and the society as a whole.

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Inter-Province Comparison of Private Sector in Primary Education

Maqsooda Hussain Ph.D.

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Muhammad Naseer Ud Din Ph.D.

Abstract

The purpose of the study is to investigate the nature and extent of the contribution of private sector in the development of primary education in Pakistan. A main objective of the study is to prioritize the problems faced by the private sector in Primary Education.

The data was gathered from all provinces of Pakistan. Three districts from Punjab, two each from Sindh and Khyber PK and Baluchistan along with one town from each sample district. In Total 399 schools were, thus, selected as sample from all provinces.

Three questionnaires were designed to collect data from respondents. One was for the heads of private sample schools. They were asked to state the problems and give suggestions for the improvement of the system. Another was for the Directors of Primary Education from the public sector to have their opinions regarding their dealing with the private sector and suggest measures for improvement. Another questionnaire was prepared for structured interviews with the experts.

Data collected through questionnaires, interviews and formal discussions from sample places was tabulated, statistically analyzed and interpreted in the light of the objectives of the study. Suggestions obtained from respondents were analyzed and presented.

Keywords: Private Sector, Primary Education, Quality education, Inter Province.

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Inter-Province Comparison of Private Sector in Primary Education

1. Introduction

Education is the right of every child and it is the responsibility of the State to provide educational facilities to each and every child. "Every one has the right to education", states the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), cited in the (Pakistan's) National Education Policy 1998-2010. This fundamental right has been recognized in the Convention on the Rights of the Child 1989 stressing that the child has a right to education and it is the duty of the State to ensure that Primary education is free and compulsory.

The National Education Policy 1998-2010 further indicates: "The ideology of Pakistan lays down two important obligations on the government. Firstly, education will be accessible to all citizens. Secondly, it shall enable them to prepare enlightened and civilized individuals committed to the cause of Islam; these two obligations are in accordance with the teachings of the Holy Quran, which recognize the provision of education as a right of the individual".

Being a signatory of the Universal Declaration of "Education for All" during the Jomtien World Conference on Education held in 1990, Pakistan is bound to obtain universal primary education.

1.1 Primary Education

Primary education in Pakistan usually comprises from class 1 to class V. Early childhood education is a new concept that has been expanded in especially private sector. In public sector classes are still mostly start from class 1.

Importance of primary education has always been highlighted in every education policy and plan. Pakistan is struggling to achieve universal primary education since its creation. Providing education to the masses is the responsibility of the State. The State of Pakistan has religious obligation also for this provision. Islam has strongly stressed the need for education by making it the duty of every faithful man and woman to seek knowledge.

A strong role for education was recognized by the founding father of independent Pakistan, and UPE was established as a goal at the first National Education Conference in 1947. Unfortunately the goal of UPE, over the years has been repeated by a number of national policy papers, shifting the goal further into the future, and it is presently set for 2015.

There are many factors responsible for this failure. Political instability and military government are probably the most important of all. Population expansion, social taboos and various pressure groups are other factors that are also responsible.

Quality provided to the children at the level of primary education is also questionable. The low retention rate due to high dropout rate is a big question mark before the policy makers and planners of education. The great number of students who are still out of school is yet another problem.

In present circumstances the governments alone cannot provide educational services to the whole population because of their limited resources. The private sector therefore, has to be involved.

1.2 Private sector

Private Sector, according to the *Oxford Concise Dictionary*, is the part of a country's economy that consists of privately owned enterprises. The private schools, according to the same dictionary, is a school under the financial and managerial control of a private body or charitable trust accepting mostly fee-paying students. Private Sector has always played a significant role in providing educational facilities to a large number of pupils since independence.

At the time of creation of Pakistan in 1947, the private sector had a major share in providing education through schools at various levels. These private schools were run both by societies motivated by the cause of promoting education as well as by individuals making their living through education and teaching. Baqir (1998) has stated that, "The government owned 4 percent of primary schools, the private sector owned 43 percent of these schools and various local bodies ran rest of the schools".

This importance was well recognized soon after independence in the Education Conference held in Karachi. Mr. Fazal-ur-Rahman, education minister, said that, "It is significant that in all countries, which have developed national system of education, private initiatives have borne a major share of the cost involved".

2. Participation of Private Sector in Primary Education in Pakistan

This study was conducted to investigate the nature and extent of contribution of private sector in the development of primary education in Pakistan. It revealed some very interesting findings of private sector in the development of primary education in Pakistan.

As the study was envisioned to cover the entire nation, sample cities and towns were selected from all four provinces of Pakistan. Three districts from Punjab, two districts each from Sind, Khyber PK and Balochistan were selected as sample. Twenty towns from Punjab, ten towns each from Sindh and Khyber PK were selected as sample. Total 399 sample schools were selected as sample from all over Pakistan.

Following are some of the findings of that study. These findings can provide a base for inter-province comparison and can be useful for planners at national level.

2.1 School Management

This section comprises information that was collected in connection with the year of establishment, ownership of the institution and management of private schools.

Table 1: Year of Establishment of Private Schools

Province	Less than 5 years (1996-2000)	Less than 5 years (1991-95)	More than 5 years (1991-95)
Punjab	112	53	65

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Sindh	32	20	23
Khyber Pakhtunkhwa	23	27	20
Balochistan	09	04	11
Total	176	104	119
Per-cent ratio	44	26	30

The above table shows that private schools flourished rapidly than ever before. This trend was upset during the less than five years period from 1991-95, as only 26 percent of schools were established during this period while during the more than five years period from 1991-95 thirty percent schools were established during 1991-95. It is interesting to note that two governments run by political parties were dismissed during this period and an overall agitation culture prevailed in the country. So, it can be assumed that fewer people were interested in investing in new projects like the opening of new schools.

2.2 Ownership of Private Schools

Table 2 Ownership of Private Schools

Province	Own	Employee	Honorary
Punjab	196	33	01
Sindh	50	25	-
Khyber Pakhtunkhwa	54	16	-
Balochistan	14	10	-
Total	314	84	01
Percent ratio	79	21	-

The owners ran 79 % percent sample private schools themselves. The people employed by the owners managed 21 percent of the sample institutions. It is a clear indication of the commercial element that exists in private sector. Government of Pakistan (2001) also confirms this as it shows that 81 percent private schools were self-owned in private sector. Interestingly a respondent from private sector itself had stated that a license is required to drive even a motorbike, but there is no restriction on opening a school. He proposed that a license must be made compulsory for the owners before declaring them eligible to open a school in which minimum educational qualification must be fixed.

2.3 Overall Management of Private Schools

Out of 399 sample schools, 266 schools were run by individuals, 40 schools by Board of Governors, 66 schools by NGO's and 66 schools were managed by associations. The proportion of schools managed by individuals is highly significant. The province wise situation is in the following table.

Table 3 Management of Private School

Province	Individual	BOG	NGO	Association
Punjab	180	19	06	25

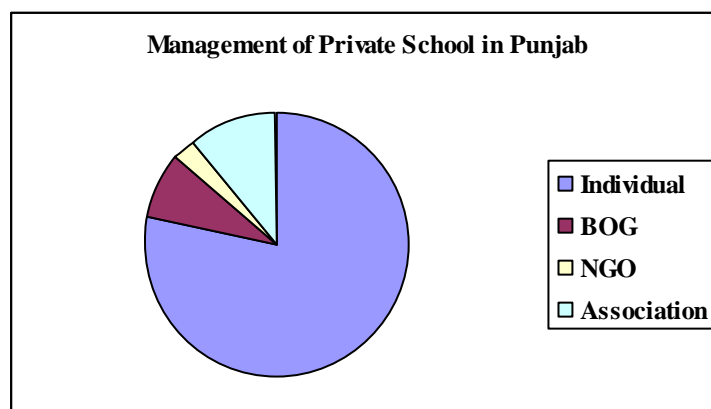
Sindh	27	08	05	35
Khyber Pakhtunkhwa	54	08	03	05
Balochistan	05	05	13	01
Total	266	40	27	66
Percent ratio	67	10	07	16

The above table shows that individuals manage 67 % sample schools, associations manage 16 %, and BOG's manage 10 % whereas 7 % schools were managed by NGO's. Government of Pakistan (1998) has also supported this finding. It revealed that as contrast to public sector, private schools characterized by their decentralized management as majority of their owners run their schools themselves.

In Balochistan, most of the schools were managed by NGO's and Associations managed maximum number of schools in Sindh. In Punjab and Khyber PK, majority of private schools are run by individuals. According to the Government of Pakistan (2001), 34 % schools were managed by NGO's in Balochistan. It also supported the finding of the study. In a meeting the Director Elementary Education Balochistan, Mr. Muhammad Anwar, informed that no individual can get registration of school independently, unless he is associated with any industry, association or NGO. He further stated this factor prevents the private sector to run a school as a commercial project.

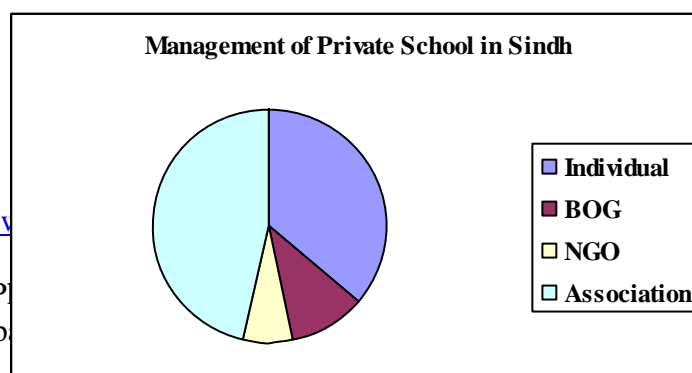
Province wise ratio of management of private schools is presented in the following figures.

Figure: 1. Management of Private Schools in Punjab



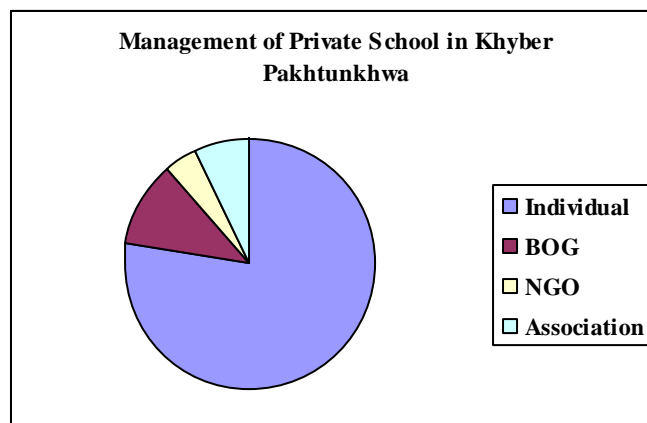
Above figure shows that maximum number of schools is run by individuals, followed by associations.

Figure: 2. Management of Private Schools in Sindh



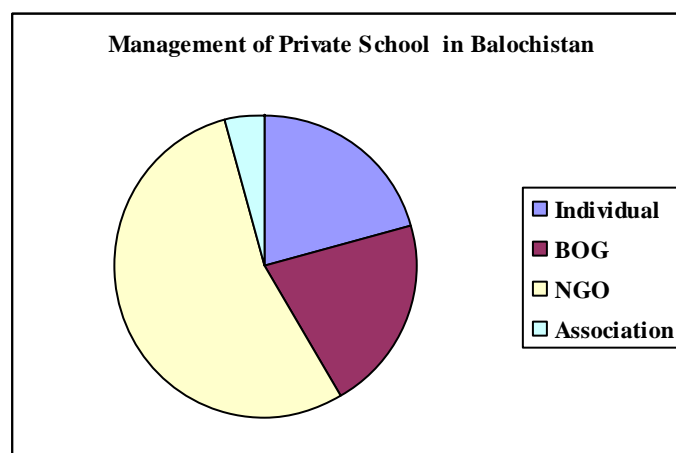
Above figure shows that maximum schools are run by the associations in Sindh.

Figure: 3. Management of Private Schools in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa



The figure shows that maximum schools are run by individuals in Khyber PK. This pattern is same as in Punjab

Figure: 4. Management of Private Schools in Balochistan



Maximum number of private schools is managed by NGO's in Balochistan.

2.4 Relationship with the Government

It was observed that both the sectors keep themselves away from each other. The private sector reported a lot of complaints about the government officials. Out of total 399

respondents 76 % had contact with the government. Out of this, only 58 % reported the attitude of government officials helpful. The respondents charged the government officials with bribery, taking money, non-cooperative behavior, remaining absent from their offices and so on. Siddiqui (1999) also reported that there is mistrust, constant negative criticism, acrimony and fear of dealing with one another. It was also observed that 26 % private schools had no contact with the government.

On the other hand, government officials also reported some complaints about the private sector. They reported that private sector does not cooperate with the government officials. They do not provide even the necessary information. They said that the private schools frequently change their campus without informing the relevant education department.

2.5 Year-wise Enrollment of Students

There were total 78,387 students in 1999-2000 in sample schools. Out of this number there were 48,920 male students and 29,467 female students. Following table shows province-wise enrollment.

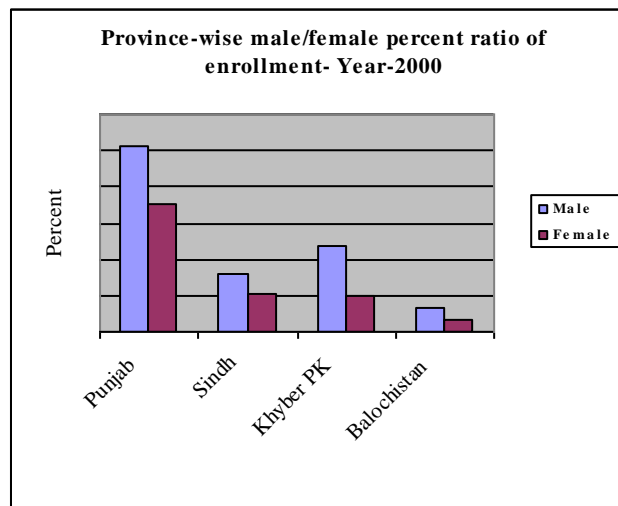
Table 4: Province Enrollment of Private Primary Schools- year 2000

	Male	Female	Total
Province			
Punjab	25,733	17,548	43,281
Sindh	8,072	5,288	13,360
Khyber PK	11,841	5,081	16,922
Balochistan	3,274	1,550	4,824

Overall more boys were enrolled in private sector than girls. Government of Pakistan (2001) also favors this finding as it revealed that 57 % of total enrollment was boys. Akbar (1998) also confirms this finding by stating that there were 56 % male students in Rawalpindi city.

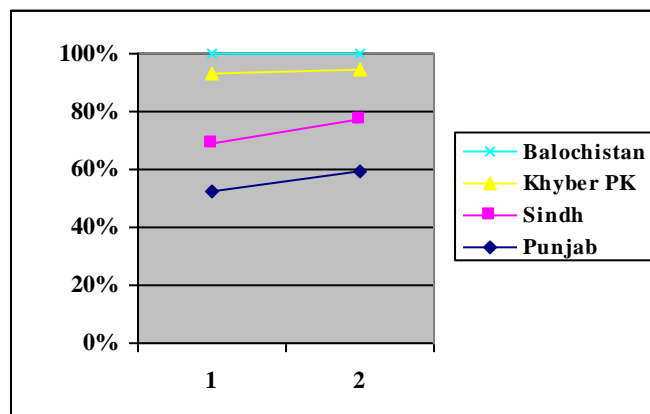
The following graph shows Province-wise male/female percent ratio of enrollment.

Figure.5: Province-wise male/female percent ratio of enrollment- Year-2000



Government of Pakistan (2001) also favors this as it has shown that the ratio between enrolment of boys and girls was not same in all provinces. Following figure shows province-wise increase/decrease that again is not uniform in all parts of Pakistan.

Figure 6 Province-wise male/female percent ratio of enrollment- Year 1999-2000



3. Problems of Private Sector

A questionnaire was delivered to the Heads of private primary schools. Only 54 % responses were received in response. Following problems were presented.

a. Attitude of the government

The respondents reported a number of problems like bribery, harassment, non-cooperative and rude behavior of government officials. They also stated that time and again AEO's/DEO's call them for minor issues while they remain absent from their seats resulting wastage of time. However, respondents from Balochistan reported that Government of Balochistan is cooperating with the private sector.

b. Registration/Affiliation Process

Registration process is laborious and non-cooperative and teasing behavior of government officials make it more difficult. Unnecessary documentation, too much paper work and lot of formalities causes delay in registration process and make it a tiring activity.

c. Taxes

Private sector reported that they have to bear burden of heavy taxes levied by the government and suggested that taxes should be reduced.

d. Policies for the private sector

The government should include private sector in policy making decisions regarding education. Sudden changes in policies during academic session are not communicated timely causing lot of problems.

e. Examination

Private sector opened that they are facing lot of difficulties in obtaining and examination forms as concerning government officials do not cooperate. Examination centers are made far from schools of the students and they usually are sub-standard, they reported further.

4. Conclusion

The government alone cannot provide educational facilities to the entire population of the country. We have a long history of private sector providing educational facilities. Nationalization of educational institutions had caused a great set back to the entire private sector. However, the decision was soon reverted back and private sector was allowed to open new institutions. This resulted in vast expansion of private sector in all parts of the country, especially in urban areas.

The contribution of private sector at all levels cannot be ignored. It is providing better educational facilities at all levels. This is evident from the fact that parents are willing to bear high expenses of private sector rather than sending their children in public sector.

Both the private and public sectors keep themselves away from each other. It is required that both sectors should be investigated and maximum cooperation should be sought between them. Private sector has some genuine problems that need consideration from the government. The private sector is also required to cooperate with the government.

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Maqsooda Hussain Ph.D., Ali Murtaza, Ph.D. and Muhammad Naseer Ud Din, Ph.D.
Inter-Province Comparison of Private Sector in Primary Education

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The Character of Ravana and Rama from the Buddhist Perspectives of the Ten Worlds

B.A. Mahalakshmi Prasad, M.A.

Abstract

Epics have always been a part of our lives. They inspire and guide us through our trials and tribulations. Epics are in the form of stories narrated to the common man, with examples and situations that the common man can understand. At the same time they offer easy solutions to sometimes insurmountable problems.

Ramayana is an epic written by Valmiki. It dates from at least the third century B.C. (Goldman 1990). *Ramayana* is an epic story reflecting religious, political, and social beliefs and moral doctrines. *Ramayana* also exists in other versions within some Buddhist and other Asian religious traditions. There are texts of *Ramayana* in several regional languages, including Sanskrit, Chinese, Thai, Telugu, Bengali, Kashmiri, and Tamil. The *Ramayana* story combines magic, fantasy, romance and adventure as it recounts the life of Rama—the seventh incarnation of the Hindu god Vishnu, his brother Lakshman, Rama's wife Sita, his opponent Ravana, a host of demons, and an army of monkeys loyal to Rama led by Hanuman.

This paper looks at the character of Ravana and Rama through the Nichern Daishonin's perspectives of the ten worlds.

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Introduction

Literature defines epic as a narrative that is written in grand scale that documents the exploits of a superman or the hero to zenith. Ramayana, the epic of India has assimilated itself into the integral part of the psyche of people of India. It has been quoted, written and rewritten from different perspectives and has always managed to initiate or fuel man's imaginative flight leading to myriad flavourful reproductions of the epic.

One of the most important roles that the epic has played in everyday life is that it portrays and upholds the Dharma (*Dharma* is defined in the glossary) and the rules that man has to follow, while showing the results of erroneous judgements. The paths that man has to travel in his quest to oasis are rife with pebbles and lies. Epics like Ramayana plays the role of a guide as they direct the ignorant man towards the right path that is strewn with manageable pebbles compared to the insurmountable pitfalls that the seeker encounters in life. Some versions of the epic texts are more orientated towards the idea of personal Godhead (a tendency called Bhakti) while others want to stress ideal personality and moralistic issues (Kosikikulino 1996).

The present paper aims to look at the characters of Rama and Ravana through the Nichiren Daishonin's perspectives of the mutually existing ten worlds.

Nichiren Buddhism

Nichiren Daishonin's Buddhism is one of the major sections of Buddhism. Nichiren Daishonin was a Buddhist monk who lived during the Kamakura period (1185–1333) in Japan. Nichiren taught devotion to the Lotus Sutra which literally means "The Sutra of the Lotus Flower of the Wonderful Law," preached by Shakyamuni, the sage of the Shakyas, the historical founder of Buddhism who expounded the highest teaching of last 8 years of Gautama Buddha life 'Myoho-enge-kyo', the translation of which was provided by Kumarajiva. However, it is viewed that the Pre-Lotus sutra teaching viewed the ten worlds separate from each other while the Lotus Sutra views the ten worlds as being two facets of the same diamond where each facet acts as a vehicle to attain buddhahood (Hokke Getigi Shakusm vol. ig.) Miao-lo (SGI) states, "The true entity is invariably revealed in all phenomena, and all phenomena invariably possess the Ten Factors. The Ten Factors invariably function within the Ten Worlds, and the Ten Worlds invariably entail both life and its environment" (Kongobei-ron). T'ien-t'ai states, "The profound principle of 'true entity' is the original Law of Myoho-enge-kyo, the principle of cause and effect.

The Structure of This Paper

The paper is divided into two sections:

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The Character of Ravana and Rama from the Buddhist Perspectives of the Ten Worlds

1. A brief overview of Ramayana with a brief description of the characters of Rama and Ravana.
2. A brief overview of Nichren Daishonin and the ten worlds and the characters of Rama and Ravana in the background of the mutually existing ten worlds.

Section 1 Ramanaya

A brief overview of Ramayana with a concise description of the characters of Ravana and Rama.

Structure of Valmiki's *Ramayana*

Valmiki's *Ramayana* is the oldest version of Ramayana and is the basis of all the various versions of the Ramayana that are relevant in the various cultures. The text survives in numerous complete and partial manuscripts, the oldest surviving of which is dated from the eleventh century AD. The current text of Valmiki Ramayana has come down to us in two regional versions from the north and the south of India Goldman (1990). Valmiki's Ramayana has been traditionally divided into seven books, dealing with the life of Rama from his birth to his death.

1. ***Bala Kanda*** –Narrates the birth of Rama, his childhood and his wedding to Sita.
2. ***Ayodhya Kanda*** – Narrates the series of events that culminate in Rama's exile from Ayodhya.
3. ***Aranya Kanda*** – Narrates Rama's exile and Sita's abduction by Ravana.
4. ***Kishkindha Kanda*** – Narrates the search for Sita by Vanara Sugriva and Rama.
5. ***Sundara Kanda*** –Narrates the adventures of Hanuman while searching for Sita.
6. ***Yuddha Kanda***- Narrates the Rama-Ravana war, the rescue of Sita and the coronation of Rama in Ayodhya.
7. ***Uttara Kanda*** – Narrates the story of Rama and Sita's life together in Ayodhya.

Variant Versions

Rāma's story is mentioned in a number of Purāṇas. The Śaiva Purāṇas, such as the *Liṅga Purāṇa* and *Śiva Purāṇa*, make Rāma a devotee of Śiva, while the *Bhāgavata Purāṇa* and other Vaiṣṇava Purāṇas describe him as an incarnation of Viṣṇu. In the twelfth century, the Vaiṣṇava theology, particularly that of Rāmānuja, gave rise to a cult of Rāma. Numerous Vaiṣṇava commentators on the *Rāmāyaṇa* interpret Rāma as the manifestation of the divine among human beings. In keeping with Vaiṣṇava influences, the *bhakti* Rāmāyaṇas make Rāma the god (Viṣṇu) incarnate exercising his *līlā* ("divine play") with his consort, Sītā. Jonah(1992)

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A late fourteenth-century text, *Adhyātma Rāmāyaṇa*, uses the narrative form to provide an *advaita* (nondualist) philosophical orientation to the teachings of the Rāma cult. In this book, presented as a conversation between Śiva and Pārvatī, Rāma is *brahman*, the Absolute itself, which takes a human shape as a pretext to accomplish his divine purposes (Jonah 1992).

Valmiki's Ramayana is the forerunner to the various narrations of Ramayana Goldman (1990). There exists many narrations or "tellings" of Ramayana that form the basis of popular lore and contemporary literature and have become deeply ingrained the psyche of the people.

In the Mahabharata a version of Ramayana called Ramopakhyana that is narrated by Yudhishtira, Rama is devoid of any divine characteristics. According to K. Watanabe in 1907 (Cengage, 2003), the earliest record of the *Ramayana* is a Chinese Buddhist text of disputed date.

Notable *Ramayana* texts is the Pre-Christian, Buddhist *Dasaratha Jataka* which transforms Rāma from a martial hero into a spiritually elevated person. In the *Dāśaratha Jātaka*, Rāma is depicted as a *bodhisattva*.

The Jain text, Vimalasūri's *Paumacariya*, transforms him into one of their sixty-three *śalākāpuruṣas*. Rāma eats no meat, performs no sacrifices involving animals, and wins his battle by wit rather than by violence.

Other *Rāmāyaṇa* texts of the Jain community include the twelfth century Hemacandra's *Jaina Rāmāyaṇa* and Nāgacandra's *Rāmacandracarita Purāṇa*. In these versions, Rāma eventually enters the Jain order as a monk and finally achieves liberation through heroic mortifications (Jaini 2000).

Some popular variant versions of Ramayana include the Ramcharitmanas, attributed to Tulsidas, the sixteenth-century Bengali *Ramayana Kriitibasa*, by Chandravati, and the eighteenth-century Kashmiri *Ramayana* of Divakar Prakash Bhatt.

There is an extensive tradition of oral storytelling based on the Ramayana in Thailand, Cambodia, Malaysia, Laos, Vietnam, Indonesia, and Maldives. Bulke Camille (1950), author of *Ramakatha*, has identified over 300 variants of Ramayana.

Version Followed in India

There are several versions of Ramayana that exist in India. One of the oldest versions is the 'Bhattikavya' by Bhatti written in Prakrit language in the seventh century. Kamban in 12th century AD wrote *Ramavatharam* in Tamil, that is popularly known as KambaRamayanam. Kotha Ramayana in Assamese by the 14th century poet Madhava Kandali and the Bengali version by Krittivas in the 14th century. Telugu version by Ranganatha in the 15th century. Tulsidas in 1576 wrote the masterpiece Sri Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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Ramacharit Manas in Awadhi. Torave Ramayana in Kannada by the 16th century poet Narahari. Oriya by Bala Rama Das in the 16th century, a Malayalam version by Thunchaththu Ezhuthachan in the 16th century. Gujarati poet Premanand wrote a version of *Ramayana* in the 17th century in Gujarati. Ramayana in Marathi by Sridhara in the 18th century. Mappillapattu, a genre of song popular among the Muslims belonging to Kerala and Lakshadweep have incorporated some episodes from the Ramayana into its songs known as *Mappila Ramayana*. In *Mappila Ramayana*, the story of the Ramayana has been changed into that of a sultan, and there are no major changes in the names of characters except for Rama, which is 'Laman' in many places.

Contemporary Versions

The contemporary versions of Ramayana are also as popular as the older versions of the epic. Some of the most popular versions awarded by Jnanpith are *Sri Ramayana Darshanam* by Dr. K. V. Puttappa (Kuvempu) in Kannada and *Ramayana Kalpavrikshamu* by Viswanatha Satyanarayana in Telugu. A prose version called Geet Ramayan in Marathi by G.D. Madgulkar is considered a masterpiece of Marathi literature. R. K. Narayan wrote a shortened prose interpretation of the epic. Ashok Banker has written a series of six English language novels based on the Ramayana. Rajgopalachari wrote an abridged English retelling of the Valmiki Ramayana. Virgin Comics, featuring the Ramayana as reinvisioned by author Deepak Chopra and filmmaker Shekhar Kapur. The Ramayana has been adapted on screen as well, in a television series from the 1980s by producer Ramanand Sagar, which was based primarily off the Ramcharitmanas and Valmiki Ramayana. A Japanese animated film called *Rama - The Prince of Light* was also released in the early 1990s.

Plot and Major Characters

Valmiki's Ramayana is the most popular text despite its length and complexity. The story narrative of Valmiki Ramayan is as follows, Dashratha the king of Ayodhya after a lot of propiation to gods is finally blessed with four sons Rama, Lakshmana, Bharat and Shtrughna with his three wives Koushalya, Kaikeyi and Sumitra. The boys grow up to be strong and brave princes. Dashratha begs his wife Kaikeyi to make Rama the king. However, Kaikeyi stands her ground and banishes Rama to the forest for 14 years, his wife Sita and his brother Lakshmana accompany him to the forest. In the forest, Ravana, the king of Lanka, who has ten heads and twenty arms, abducts Sita. Rama with the help of the monkey army wages war against Ravana, rescues Sita, and returns to Ayodhya to bring in an era of peace and prosperity (Rama Rajya)

Morals in Ramayana

Valmiki's Ramayan sets the exemplary example of the perfect man and adopts the viewpoint of Dharma. The Vedas hold that following Dahrma will ensure one's

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welfare in this and the next world. Valmiki endows Rama with the sixteen qualities that make for a perfect and complete man; however, Rama like all human beings in this world, must overcome personal as well as societal, circumstantial flaws and prejudices that are beyond his control.

Valmiki's Ramayana elucidates the concepts of Dharma, Artha, Kama and Moksha. Valmiki portrays Rama as following a principle in which Artha does not interfere with Dharma and vice versa. Similarly, Kama does not interfere with either Dharma or with Artha. This principle can be seen in Vibhishna's advice to Ravana wherein he advises Ravana to use Dharma in the morning, Artha in the daytime and Kaama at night while observing that Ravana is busy with Kaama, which ultimately will lead to his destruction.

Rama

The word *Rama* is derived from Rigveda and Atharvaveda, where the meaning of the word 'Rama' is given as "dark, balck", or a noun meaning "darkness", e.g. RV 10.3.3 (Griffith 200). Agni far spreading with conspicuous lustre hath compassed Night [Rama] with whitely shining garments (trans. Griffith 2003).

According to Monier-Williams (2006), three Ramas were celebrated in post-Vedic times:

1. *Rāma-chandra* ("Rama-moon"), son of Dasaratha, descended from Raghu of the Solar Dynasty, the subject of this article
2. *Parashu-rāma* ("Rama of the Battle-axe"), the Sixth Avatara of Vishnu, sometimes also referred to as *Jāmadagnya*, or as *Bhārgava Rāma* (descended from Bhrigu), a "Chiranjeevi" or Immortal.
3. *Bala-rāma* ("the strong Rama"), also called *Halāyudha* (Wielder of the Plough in Battle), the older brother and close companion of Krishna, the Eighth Avatara of Vishnu.

A Secular and Complex Hero

Rama, the epic hero of Ramayana, is a very secular and complex hero. The most celebrated character in Indian literature, divinity incarnate in mortal form to kill the demon Ravana.

Rama is perceived as perfect, self-controlled, truthful, eloquent, majestic, and capable of annihilating all his enemies.

Rāma is described as Perfect: Self and devoted to only one wife. Similarly, Sītā is described as the ideal in chastity, devoted to Rāma in thought, word, and deed, however, Rama too like any mortal is given to moments of weakness wherein he digress from his chosen path. He embodies the desirable virtues that makes for a man

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that inspires affection, devotion, an individual who fearlessly treads the path of virtue, the ideal person “Maryada Purushottama”, a man who fulfils his moral obligations. Following the war, Rama returns to Ayodhya, is crowned as king, and brings in a period of Ramarajya. Ramarajya signifies the end of dystopia and the beginning of utopia “Rama Rajya” where there is perfect justice and freedom, peace and prosperity. There are no natural disasters, diseases, ailments or ill-fortune of any nature for any living being. There are no sins committed in the world by any of his people. Always attentive and accessible to his people, Rama is worshipped and hailed by all - the very symbol of moksha, the ultimate goal and destination of all life, and the best example of perfect character and human conduct, inspiring human beings for countless succeeding ages.

Ravana

Ravana’s major role in the epic is that of an antagonist. However, he is also referred to as a very great man, a man of virtues, foremost in his knowledge of the shastras and other knowledge, a great learned scholar. In Ramayana he is the king of Lanka, and a leader of the tribe of Rakshasas. He is depicted with ten heads; there are several theories that explain the presence of ten heads, from possessing Amrita in his stomach to his erudition, to represent the ten crowns he wore as a result of his being the sovereign of ten countries.” (PK Balachandran 2007). The ten heads earned Ravana the name “Dashamukha, Dashanan, Dashagriva.”

Though Ravana was aggressive and arrogant, he was also an exemplary scholar. Under Vishrava's tutelage, Ravana mastered the Vedas and the holy books and also the arts and ways of Kshatriyas. Ravana is known for his dance worship Shiva Tandava to Lord Shiva. It is during this incident that he acquires the name 'Ravana', meaning "(He) Of the terrifying roar", given to him by Shiva - the earth is said to have quaked at Ravana's cry of pain when the mountain was pinned on him (Monier-Williams 2006).

Ravana by his sheer persistence crowned himself the emperor of the three worlds conquering humans, celestials and other demons. Following his initial training, Ravana performed an intense penance to Brahma, lasting several years. Pleased with his tapasya Brahma offered him a boon. Ravana asked for immortality, which Brahma refused. Ravana then asked for absolute invulnerability and supremacy before gods and heavenly spirits, other demons, serpents and wild beasts. Contemptuous of mortal men, he did not ask for protection from them. Brahma granted him these boons, and additionally great strength by way of knowledge of divine weapons and sorcery. While Ravana usurped Kubera to begin with, he was nevertheless regarded as a benevolent and effective ruler. Lanka flourished under his rule.

Section 2 Nichiren Buddhism and Ramayana

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This section deals with the teaching of Nichiren Daishonin {SGI}. Nichiren Buddhism follows a Lotus Sutra formulated by the 13th-century Japanese priest Nichiren. The Mahayana Buddhist tradition considers the Lotus Sutra to be the fullest expression of the teachings of Shakyamuni, the historical Buddha who was born in present-day Nepal some 2,500 years ago. The Lotus Sutra is revered for its message that all people possess the Buddha nature, both men and women. The image of the pure lotus flower growing in a muddy pond symbolizes how people can develop this enlightened state of life in the midst of their daily problems and struggles. [SGI]

This paper tries to look at the Ravana's ten heads from the Buddhist perspective of Nichiren Daishonin that acknowledges the existence of the ten worlds and compares Ravana's ten heads to the Buddhist perspective of the ten worlds.

Ten Worlds

The ten worlds represented by Nichiren Daishonin are Hell, Hunger, Animality, Anger, Humanity or Tranquillity, Rapture, or Heaven, Learning, Realisation, Bodhisattva and Buddha. The first six (Hell, Hunger, Animality, Anger, Humanity or Tranquillity, Rapture, or Heaven) of these life states are called the six lower worlds. All human beings without any effort can experience them and the lives of the people move within six life states that constantly change. At the same time, the four (Learning, Realisation, Bodhisattva and Buddha) higher worlds require effort, the need to want to improve ourselves, mustering our energies and learning to direct them in a worthwhile way that requires patience, tenacity, and concentration.

The Workings of the Ten Worlds

The nine worlds (from hell to Bodhisattava) can be experienced as positive or negative. The Buddha state originates from the very depths of life, called the amala consciousness, meaning the fundamentally pure life force or consciousness. The function of the Buddha state is to bring out the positive side of the other nine worlds. This principle of the Ten Worlds shows that the Buddha state is a naturally occurring condition of life in every living being.

The purpose of Buddhist practice is to enable us to cause the Buddha state to appear; to have it working strongly in us. In Nichiren Daishonin's Buddhism, the Buddha is not a perceived as a perfect, ideal being, but is perceived as an ordinary person living in rhythm with the law of the universe who is capable of taking wise, audacious and empathetic action for the benefit of others.

The Mutual Possession of the Ten Worlds

Nichiren Daishonin's Buddhism talks about 'the mutual possession' of the ten worlds. The ten worlds do not exist as separate, isolated realms. Rather, each world embraces

and contains within it the potential for all the others. The following table presents the ten worlds and their qualities

World	Positive Aspect	Negative Aspect
Hell	Having experienced hell helps us maintain a desire to better our circumstances. Empathy, understanding the sufferings of others.	Misery and suffering. Fear, grief and destructive rages or depression. A feeling of being imprisoned by one's circumstances.
Hunger	The driving force to improve a situation. People can hunger, even yearn to see others happy and fight for peace in the world	Being dominated by desires or cravings, both physical and mental
Animality	Protective instincts, for example, that we need more sleep. Preservation of self or others.	Instinctive behaviour, lacking in reason. Fear of those who seem stronger and bullying of those who seem weaker. The 'law of the jungle'.
Anger	Anger at injustice. The passion to fight authoritarian behavior	Feeling superior to others and wanting to show it. Aggressiveness. Feeling in conflict with others. The world of self-centredness and ego
Humanity, or Tranquility	Being at peace, calm and reasonable. An opportunity to restore one's energies.	Constant inactivity, laziness, passivity.
Rapture, or Heaven	Temporary joy when desires are fulfilled. Exhilaration at being alive	Short term gratification when one's desires have been achieved . Can quickly revert to hell, or hunger.
Learning	Learning about life and oneself from others and from existing knowledge.	Can lead to self-centredness and separation from others. In the Lotus Sutra people of Learning and Realization were taught they could only enter the realm of Buddhahood through faith.
Realisation	The wisdom or insight where we gain an understanding of an aspect of life from our own observations and experiences.	Can lead to self-centredness and a tendency to use one's intellect, rather than one's wisdom, to solve problems.
Bodhisattva	Devotion to the happiness of others	May turn to arrogance if you

	as shown by eg nurses or a parent's love for a child.	feel superior to those you are helping. Pouring life-force out towards the lives of others, without paying attention to one's own needs means that one's life will move towards the lower life states.
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Human life constantly moves within the six lower worlds and the four upper worlds however, each world that a person exists in also at the same time provides an opportunity for the upper worlds to manifest and become the dominant state of that individual's life in the very next moment. Thus, constantly transforming the life condition of a person and carrying within it the potential state of enlightenment. This process of constant transformation is referred to as the 'mutual possession' of the ten worlds. In this background the characters of Rama and Ravana become transformative beings that carry the potential to emerge as enlightened beings.

Rama and Ravana both exhibit the positive and negative aspects of the mutually existing ten worlds, however, if one looks keenly into the epic the delicately executed controlled balance of the ten worlds plays a crucial role in Rama achieving buddhahood while Ravana meets his end. The following paragraphs try to elucidate this difference between Rama and Ravana while drawing examples from the epic of Ramayana to make a distinction between the fundamental differences in approach in treading the path of Dharma by Rama and Ravan.

The Mutually Existing Ten Worlds and Their Description

Hell- this is the first world in the Nichern Daishonin's concept of the ten worlds. The positive aspect of Hell is that a person having experienced hell helps us maintain a desire to better our circumstances, empathy, understanding the sufferings of others.

The negative aspect of Hell is Misery and suffering, fear, grief and destructive rages or depression, a feeling of being imprisoned by one's circumstances. The characters of Ravana and Rama, they both embrace the different aspects of Hell. After the abduction of Seeta, Rama is plunged briefly into depression and despair; through Lakhmana's counselling, he manages to overcome the negative aspect of Hell. However, Ravana suffers from destructive rage. Lakshmana chops off her nose, and when Shurpanaka comes to Ravana's court entreating him to seek revenge, rage overcomes Ravana.

Hunger – The second world in the Nichern Daishonin's concept of the ten worlds. The positive aspect of which is, the driving force to improve a situation. People can hunger, even yearn to see others happy and fight for peace in the world. Rama embraces the positive aspect of Hunger Rama has the hunger to see all the people happy and content and in order to achieve Rama Rajya, a concept that signifies the

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end of dystopia and the beginning of utopia “Rama Rajya” where there is perfect justice and freedom, peace and prosperity. There are no natural disasters, diseases, ailments or ill-fortune of any nature for any living being. There are no sins committed in the world by any of his people. Always attentive and accessible to his people, Rama is worshipped and hailed by all - the very symbol of moksha, the ultimate goal and destination of all life, and the best example of perfect character and human conduct, inspiring human beings for countless succeeding ages. Rama destroys evil in the form of Ravana. while Ravana embraces the negative aspect of the world that is Being dominated by desires or cravings, both physical and mental and therefore he is dominated by the desire to rule the world; to be the most powerful being in the three worlds.

Animality- The third world in the Nichern Daishonin’s concept of the ten worlds. The positive aspect of which is, Protective instincts, for example, that we need more sleep. Preservation of self or others. Rama embraces the positive aspect of Animality. Rama always strives to protect the well-being of his praja and he agrees to go on a exile in order to protect his father’s honour. Rama dissuades Sita from accompanying him during his exile in order to protect Sita from experiencing the hardships of exile. Ravana embraces both the positive and negative aspect of this world. While Ravana usurped Kubera to rule Lanka, he was nevertheless regarded as a benevolent and effective ruler. Lanka flourished under his rule. He is driven by the action that is dictated by arrogance and originates realms of Anger, all the positive aspect of this world is converted into the negative aspect. The negative aspect of the world that is instinctive behavior, lacking in reason, fear of those who seem stronger and bullying of those who seem weaker, ‘law of the jungle’. becomes predominant in Ravana’s character and therefore his actions appear pre-meditated or planned he is given to rash almost animalistic behaviors, lacking in reason creating a desire in him to rule the world; to be the most powerful being in the three worlds world.

Anger - The fourth world in the Nichern Daishonin’s concept of the ten worlds. At the same time, Rama also exhibits the negative aspect of anger Feeling superior to others and wanting to show it, aggressiveness, feeling in conflict with others, the world of self-centredness and ego. After Sita is abducted Rama is faced with a dilemma of trying to cross the ocean, despite his tapasya, fasting and meditation, the lord of the oceans ‘Varuna’ does not respond and Rama in a fit of rage angrily attacks the ocean. However, after the appearance of Varuna, Rama manages to control his negative anger into a positive one which is, Anger at injustice. The passion to fight authoritarian behaviour embodied by Rama, wherein he manages to transform any negative aspect of anger experienced into a positive aspect therefore when Rama experiences anger, it is positive anger that brings about good in the society. However, Ravana embodies the negative aspect due to which he is always in conflict with himself and with others about upholding Dharma.

Humanity, or Tranquility - The fifth world in the Nichern Daishonin’s concept of the ten worlds. Rama embodies the positive aspect of the fifth world that us being at Language in India www.languageinindia.com

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peace, calm and reasonable an opportunity to restore one's energies and as a result Rama exhibits resoundingly and calmness when Dasharatha informs Rama about KaiKai's intentions and entreats Rama to kill him and crown himself King. While Ravana inhabits the negative aspect of the world that is Constant inactivity, laziness, passivity and as a result he becomes complacent and arrogant after abducting Sita.

Rapture, or Heaven - The sixth world in the Nichren Daishonin's concept of the ten worlds. The positive realm of which is inhabited by Rama that is temporary joy when desires are fulfilled, exhilaration at being alive and therefore while in Exile, instead of missing the luxuries of being a prince and living in a palace Rama enjoys the life of the forest and makes himself at home in the forest among other living creatures. The negative realm inhabited by Ravana that is characterized by short-term gratification when one's desires have been achieved, can quickly revert to hell, or hunger. Ravana easily resorts to the realms of hell, hunger and animality as apparent from the example where Ravana does intense tasya and propitiates Brahma and finally seeks the boon of immortality following which he invests himself in trying to become so powerful that he could rule the world.

Learning – The seventh world in Nichren Daishonin's concept of ten worlds. Rama embodies the positive aspect that is learning about life and oneself from others and from existing knowledge and therefore Rama exhibits his innate hunger for learning and is an apt pupil when Vishwamitra teaches a mantra to Rama. While, Ravana inhabits the negative aspect that leads to self-centredness and separation from others. In the Lotus Sutra people of Learning and Realization were taught they could only enter the realm of Buddhahood through faith. However, Ravana embodies the negative aspect of learning Ravana wants to defy the Gods and become the master of the three worlds.

Realisation- The eighth world in Naichren Daishonin's concept of ten worlds. The positive aspect is characterized by wisdom or insight where we gain an understanding of an aspect of life from our own observations and experiences. Rama realization is portrayed in the Yuddha Kanda where, after Rama is crowned king of Ayodhya, he does not punish KaiKai as he realizes that KaiKai like any mother aspired for the best for her son and thus forgave her and treated her with all the respect and love. While the negative aspect is characterized by self-centredness and a tendency to use one's intellect, rather than one's wisdom, to solve problems that Ravana exhibits through the tendency to use one's intellect instead of wisdom. Ravana, despite good advice from his brother Vibhishana, insists to continue on the path he has embarked upon

Bodhisattva and Buddha hood.- [The word consists of bodhi (enlightenment) and sattva (beings) and means someone who seeks enlightenment, for themselves and others.] The positive aspect of which are Devotion to the happiness of others as shown by eg nurses or a parent's love for a child, which is embodied by Rama. Rama tread on the path of Dharma and for doing so he gave up his rightful claim to the throne, and agreed to go into exile for fourteen years, to fulfill the vow that his father

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had given to Kaikeyi, one of King Dashratha's wives. This is in spite of the fact that Kaikeyi's son, Bharat, begged him to return back to Ayodhya and said that he did not want to rule in place of Rama. Rama asserts his dedication to Dharma when he undertakes to offer Ravana a final chance to make peace, despite his heinous actions and patronage of evil, by immediately returning Sita and apologizing to both Rama and Sita, but Ravana refuses. After he was crowned the king of Ayodhya, he brought in RamRajya, where there is perfect justice and freedom, peace and prosperity. There are no natural disasters, diseases, ailments or ill-fortune of any nature for any living being. There are no sins committed in the world by any of his people.

Ravana and Buddhist Perception

Ravana embodies the negative aspect of arrogance feeling superior to those you are helping, pouring life-force out towards the lives of others, without paying attention to one's own needs means that one's life will move towards the lower life states. In his quest to conquer the world, he overlooked the value of many men and life. He gave in more and more into his Daitya tendencies, gravitated towards the lower worlds, and ultimately fails to achieve Buddha hood. While Rama gradually gravitates towards the upper world by his action and finally achieves Buddha hood this is seen in the life course that Rama follows, after ruling as a king ascends heaven and the people who accompany him on the walk ascend heaven. Rama not only maintained his buddhabhood, by association, people who walked or tried to walk the path set by Rama also attained buddhahood.

Conclusion

The story of Rama and Ravana is full of morality and sets a path towards an ideal mutually beneficial of existences. However, the individual story of Rama as mere mortal man who overcomes the flaws of character to manifest buddhahood is profound. Rama overcame the ten worlds that exist mutually. Rama was able to transform the three realms of existence The Realm of the Individual Consciousness – that is the awareness on all levels, including subconscious and psychosomatic; it includes the elements of form, perception, conception, volition, and consciousness. The realm of Living Beings – that is the awareness of plants, animals, and all sentient beings. And the third realm of the Environment – that is the awareness of the neighborhood, region, earth, solar system, our galaxy, the universe and creates Ramarajya. Ramayana, the story carries in it explicit examples of choice that a man is faced with on a day-to-day basis the choice to embrace life in the right aspect or tread the path of self-destruction.

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Glossary

Artha- artha is one of the four goals of life, known as purusharthas which means "purpose, cause, motive, meaning, notion".

Bharatha- Brother of Rama born to Kaikeyi.

Daitya - are a clan or race or Asura as are the Danavas.

Dharma- Righteousness is that which accomplishes the three tasks of keeping the social system in an excellent condition, bringing about the worldly progress of every living being and causing progress in the spiritual as well – Shri Shankaracharya.

Kama - kāma is regarded as the third of the four goals of life (purusharthas, which means as pleasure, sensual gratification, sexual fulfillment, pleasure of the senses, desire, eros, or the aesthetic enjoyment of life.

Kaikeyi - the second of King Daśaratha's three wives and a queen of Ayodhyā. She was the mother of Bharata.

Lakshmana - Lakshmana is the twin brother of Shatrughna, born in Ayodhya to Sumitra, the second wife of Dasharatha.

Lotus Sutra- (Jap. Hokkeko; Skt. Saddharma-pundirika-sutra) "The Sutra of the Lotus Flower of the Wonderful Law," Shakyamuni's highest teaching, expounded in the last 8 years of his life. The translation known in China and Japan is Myoho-renge-kyo translated by Kumarajiva.

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Moksha - is the liberation from samsara and the concomitant suffering involved in being subject to the cycle of repeated death and reincarnation.

Nichren Daishonin- The true Buddha; the founder of our faith, born on February 16, 1222, 170 years after the beginning of the Latter Day of the Law (q.v.).

Rama - The son of King Daśaratha of Ayodhyā born to Koushalya.

Rakshsa - is a race of mythological humanoid beings or unrighteous spirit in Hindu and Buddhist mythology. Rakshasas are also called man-eaters.

Ravana – king of the tribe of Rakshasa and king of Lanka.

Shatrughna - Shatrughna was born to the virtuous king of Ayodhya, Dasaratha, and his third wife, Queen Sumitra.

Sita –Wife of Rama.

Tapsya - in Sanskrit means "heat". In Vedic religion and Hinduism, it is used figuratively, denoting spiritual suffering, mortification or austerity, and also the spiritual ecstasy of a yogin.

Varuna - The god of the ocean, often considered king of the gods.

Vibhishana - He was the younger brother of the demon Ravana.

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**Cultural Resistance through Local EFL Curriculum
Development: Three Conditions for Its Sustainability**

Seyed Ahmad Kasaian, Ph.D. Candidate in Applied Linguistics

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Abstract

This article reviews the nature, causes and mechanisms of resistance to the teaching of English in its western cultural context which is an undeniable reality in many EFL situations. First, the causes of resistance to the teaching of western culture in ELT programs are discussed from a critical pedagogy perspective. Then, the phrase 'cultural resistance' is operationally defined and the issue of local EFL curriculum development which is seen as a possible resistance strategy to the perceived hegemony of English is given some attention. Next, the author elaborates on three important conditions for the sustainability of cultural resistance through local EFL curriculum development. Finally, a model of sustainable cultural resistance is introduced based on the aforementioned requirements of sustainable resistance.

Key Phrases: Cultural Resistance, Local EFL Curriculum Development, Sustainable Cultural Resistance, Critical Pedagogy, Language and Culture

1. Introduction

For many applied linguists, EFL teachers, EFL learners' parents and policy makers, the teaching of English in its western cultural context is by no means acceptable.

In a recent study conducted by Kasaian and Subbakrishna (2011, p. 235), Iranian high school students' parents said "they would be concerned if their children's English textbooks contained pictorial and textual description of such concepts as cohabitation and mixed student dorm rooms which are permissible in the west but strongly discouraged by their local culture".

In Morocco, too, many educationalists stressed the "need to dissociate the English language from the cultures of what Kachru (1985) terms the 'center circle' of English speaking countries" (Hyde, 1994, p.295).

Another case in point is Turkey where resistance to the teaching of English in its western cultural context is unwelcome for many. Abdullah Coskun (2010, p. 3) refers to the findings of a relevant study done by Kiziltepe (2000) in which the Turkish learners of English said, "it is unimportant for them to have conversations with British and American people and there is only a little interest in British and American culture". But the question to be answered here is 'why should the much-supported teaching of the native speakers' culture through English be resisted at all?'

1.1 A Plausible Answer

The answer to this question is best given when one approaches the issue from the standpoint of 'critical pedagogy'. Heavily influenced by the pioneering works of Paulo Freire (1970) and the seminal contributions of Michael Apple (1982), Peter McLaren (1989), Ira Shor (1992), and Henry Giroux (1997), critical pedagogy emerged as a series of attempts to challenge the assumptions that took the neutrality and fairness of education for granted.

The clear commitment of critical pedagogy has always been to unravel the well-planned but hidden attempts in the educational systems to promote certain ways of life and belief systems at the expense of many others.

The following questions asked by Shor (1992, p.14) challenge the partiality of education: "Whose history and literature is taught and whose is ignored? Which groups are included and which left out of the reading list or text? From whose point of view is the past and the present examined?"

These rhetoric questions have been asked to lift the learners and educators onto a vantage point from which they can look critically at what is fed into the learners' minds under the rubric of 'education'. Applied to ELT profession, Shor's (1992) questions signify that the purpose of native-speaker controlled ELT is not to produce a user of the English language who preserves all the parameters of his cultural identity and comes to use English to express his individuality and way of life but rather to produce a Westernized speaker of English whose likes, dislikes, beliefs and viewpoints are changed to the ones the Western world welcomes.

Very simply put, critical pedagogy has "promoted reflection on the hidden curriculum that sometimes underlies language teaching policies and practices" (Richards, 2002,

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p.3) and has questioned the validity and righteousness of the view that holds the teaching of English is a neutral, saintly and apolitical activity meant to provide its learners with a means of communication and has seriously criticized it for serving to tilt the balance of power towards the native speakers and everything associated with them (Phillipson, 1992; Pennycook, 1994; Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

Contrary to Wardhaugh's (1987, p. 15) assertion that English is "tied to no particular social, political, economic or religious systems, or to specific racial or cultural group", it is now argued that English "can no longer be taken as simply teaching English" (Holborow, 1996, p.172). English is now viewed as an imperialistic tool in the hands of the powerful English-speaking nations which "aids the dissemination of social and cultural beliefs and practices emanating from the west that impact negatively on the social fabric of developing-world societies" (Modiano, 2009, p. 220).

Much is at stake. To continue promoting Standard English as an Anglo-American commodity can be linked to supporting an Anglo-Americanization that can potentially eradicate social, cultural and linguistic diversity locally as well as globally. (ibid)

An unsurprising corollary of this attitude has been the formation of a cultural resistance mechanism that refuses to abide by native speakers' norms of linguistic accuracy and socio-cultural appropriateness in ELT.

2. Cultural Resistance

Cultural resistance, in this article, is operationally defined as all the actions and attitudes of individuals or group members of one culture to oppose and block the unwanted influences of a foreign culture that are deemed to have the potentiality to humiliate or marginalize their native culture, jeopardize their people's loyalty to their own cultural norms and values and impose on them those foreign cultural norms that conflict with their long-established local cultural values.

2.1 Cultural Resistance through Developing Local EFL Curriculum

Resistance to the unwanted influences of the western culture in the field of English language teaching has been shown both at the macro- and micro- levels. One important micro-level strategy to avert the undesirable cultural influences of ELT has been the development of local EFL curricula whose cultural and ideological contents are locally decided and controlled and are, therefore, free from those undesirable influences that concern the educationalists. Zughoul's (1999) observation about the cultural content of the ELT materials in Jordan is relevant here.

It is to be made clear that a measure of caution should be practiced on the inclusion of foreign content. Since our students are young boys and girls, 1-16 years of age whose cultural identity is being formed, they could be influenced and even disturbed by the kind of image portrayed for the target

culture in the textbook. The teaching of culture is to be differentiated from acculturation. (p. 90)

Cortazzi and Jin's (1999, p.200) remark about textbooks (as an important part of ELT curriculum) can explain the thinking behind developing local EFL curricula as a way to resist the cultural hegemony of English: "[T]he textbook can be seen as ideology, in the sense that it reflects a worldview or cultural system, or a social construction that may be imposed on teachers and students and that indirectly constructs their view of a culture".

Moreover, as Margolis, et al (2001, p.3) contend, "[f]ruitful work can be done in the secret garden of the curriculum where sexuality, power, and knowledge lie coiled like serpents". These remarks clearly show the reasons why the EFL educators and policy makers in many countries of the world have favored the development of local EFL textbooks.

Morgolis et al's (2001) use of the phrases 'secret garden', and 'coiled like serpents' is further explained by them when they say these hidden intentions are purposely kept secret because they "will not work if made visible, and in fact will produce resistance if revealed"(ibid). It seems that they are at least partially revealed to many nations and have led to their natural resistance through developing their own EFL curricula.

2.2 Possible Effects of Cultural Resistance on EFL Curriculum Development

Cultural resistance can affect EFL curriculum development in different ways. Ideally, cultural resistance through the development of local EFL curriculum is shown in such a very skillful and professional way that its intended goal of averting the undesirable influences of the western culture through ELT programs is achieved without taking toll on the technical efficiency and the overall acceptability of the EFL curriculum. This kind of well-managed cultural resistance is sustainable and successful as its effects on the language learning of the beneficiaries of the resistance-inspired EFL curriculum are constructive and positive. However, when cultural resistance through EFL curriculum development is shown without the consideration of its pitfalls, its effects on the efficiency of the EFL curriculum becomes detrimental and the beneficiaries of the curriculum will naturally turn against it. In such a case, cultural resistance loses its sustainability. Therefore, an important concern in EFL situations where EFL curricula are designed locally to gain control over their cultural aspects should be managing cultural resistance in such a way that its overall effects on the EFL curriculum are constructive. This is important because if the resistance-inspired EFL curricula fail to be technically efficient, even their highest level of cultural safety will be of no use.

If a resistance-based locally-developed EFL curriculum happens to be unsatisfactory in terms of its technical quality and overall acceptability, it will, in the long run, dishearten the learners and teachers by making them feel that all their precious time and resources spent on learning English are wasted in the name of cultural resistance.

To put it in a nutshell, if the bathwater of cultural hegemony is to be thrown away, we should make sure that we do not throw it with the baby (all the good professional qualities ELT curricula are expected to enjoy).

This will become possible if and only if we keep the totality of the curriculum in mind and see it as a systematic whole whose efficiency is contingent upon the consideration of all aspects of a 'total curriculum' in which concerns about the 'formal curriculum', 'the informal curriculum', 'the planned curriculum' and 'the received curriculum' (Kelly, 2004), are as important as those about 'the hidden curriculum' (Jackson, 1968) and 'the null curriculum' (Eisner, 1994). Only if a local EFL curriculum is balanced and pays the due attention to all the above aspects can it be considered a clever sustainable resistance that gains something without losing something equally precious.

2.3 Sustainability of Cultural Resistance through EFL Curriculum Development

Sustainability in this article is used as a criterion for determining whether the effect of cultural resistance on EFL curriculum is desirable and positive or unfavorable and detrimental. Well-planned cultural resistance has a constructive effect on the curriculum and is therefore sustainable. Conversely, unskillful cultural resistance has a detrimental effect on the EFL curriculum and lacks sustainability.

Sustainability of cultural resistance through EFL curriculum development is assumed to depend on the satisfaction of the following conditions.

2.3.1 Internal Harmony among the Agents of Resistance

On the face of it, curriculum seems to be a purely educational enterprise which is the business of education experts in the ministry of education. In actuality, however, curriculum is influenced by the decisions and comments of so many people some of whom may never be thought to have anything to do with it.

Marsh (2004) asserts that there are many individuals and groups whose decisions have great influences on the type of schooling that the students experience. He divides these people into three categories of a) 'decision-makers' b) 'stakeholders' and 3) 'influences'. He starts with 'decision-makers' whom he describes as "those individuals or groups who, because of their professional status or position, are able to make specific decisions about what is to be taught, when, how and to whom. Obvious examples of decision-makers include education systems and their senior officers and school principals and senior teachers. But there are many others including textbook writers, testing agencies, accreditation and certification agencies" (Marsh, 2004, p.160).

The second group of people whose decisions and comments can influence the schooling are 'stakeholders: 'Stakeholders' are individuals or groups of persons who have a right to comment on, and have input into, school programmes' (Arends, 2000). In many cases they may have the authority to ensure that their inputs/directives are implemented, such as head office education directors or regional directors. Then

again, they may have no official powers but rely upon their modes of persuasion, such as parent groups or newspaper editors” (ibid).

The third group that he calls ‘influences’ “ are individuals or groups that hold common interests and endeavor to persuade/convince authorities that certain changes should occur. They may be content to push a certain slogan/ideal or they may focus upon specific activities or processes that should occur in schools. Examples of such influences include various local interest/lobby groups representing environmental issues or specific religious beliefs” (ibid).

Decisions about the nature of EFL curriculum are not made in vacuum. It has to be made by taking heed of all the forces and influences that come from ‘decision-makers, stakeholders and influences.’ How can an EFL curriculum be developed in a country without taking heed of the viewpoints and worries of the influential groups mentioned above.

One important point about the views of the three groups mentioned above is their togetherness and internal harmony. If the views and attitudes of the three groups clash with one another, ELT curriculum is torn apart in the scene of this clash. For cultural resistance through EFL curriculum to achieve its desired positive effects and remain sustainable, it must necessarily be free from the possible conflicting attitudes and views of three agents of resistance discussed above.

2.3.2 Proportionateness of the Null Curriculum

Curriculum is popularly expected to describe what education needs to focus on, but it is also expected, though not so popularly, to describe what it is not focusing on and is excluding from its educational goals and the experiences of its learners and to investigate the repercussions of this exclusion. This latter aspect of the curriculum constitutes the core of what Eisner (1994) termed ‘the null curriculum’.

There is something of a paradox involved in writing about a curriculum that does not exist. Yet, if we are concerned with the consequences of school programs and the role of curriculum in shaping those consequences, then it seems to me that we are well advised to consider not only the explicit and implicit curricula of schools but also what schools do not teach. It is my thesis that what schools do not teach may be as important as what they do teach. I argue this position because ignorance is not simply a neutral void; it has important effects on the kinds of options one is able to consider, the alternatives that one can examine, and the perspectives from which one can view a situation or problems. (p. 97)

As far as the topic of this article, cultural resistance through EFL curriculum development, is concerned, the ‘Null Curriculum’ is a very relevant aspect of the curriculum because cultural resistance partly relates to the issues that are discussed under the null curriculum.

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Cultural Resistance through Local EFL Curriculum Development: Three Conditions for Its Sustainability

Cultural resistance through local EFL curriculum development is actualized by making sure that the unwanted aspects of western culture and ideology are not taught in local ELT programs. And this is the essence of the null curriculum as put forth by Eisner (2005 p.146): “What is taught in the first place is of primary importance. One way to increase the probability that something *will not be learned* is to ensure that it *will not be taught*, that is, to make a subject matter a part of a *null curriculum*”.

2.3.2.1 Who Decides What to Exclude from the Curriculum?

A very subtle point that should not escape our attention is the question of ‘who decides what to exclude from the curriculum’ because what not to teach is highly dependent on the curriculum developer. When the ELT curriculum is designed and developed by the native speakers of English, it is they who determine what not to teach. Surely enough what is not taught is not necessarily what the local consumers of these ELT materials do not need or do not want to learn; conversely, it might be their preferred way of life that is excluded and replaced by what the developers of the curriculum have chosen for them to learn. As Rubdy (2009, p.159) asserts, “[t]he culture of inferiority extends to various dimensions of the classroom, including syllabuses, textbooks and instructional materials, where certain ideas, behaviours and products are privileged, while those of the learners themselves are frowned upon”. What is not considered worthy of teaching in one nation and accordingly is made part of the null curriculum may be considered highly essential and therefore emphasized in an internationally-marketed ELT program. It is the same ‘one man’s meat is another man’s poison’ story.

2.3.2.2 The Contentious Nature of the Null Curriculum

When what should not be taught to the learners is contentious, the null curriculum should necessarily be decided either locally or regionally. By way of exemplification, in the Islamic countries, photos of women in revealing clothes are not supposed to be part of their ELT materials because the local educators think this way of life should be discouraged and not taught. This can show how cultural resistance relates to the null curriculum.

The phrase ‘inappropriate materials’ in the following quotation from Pennycook (1994, p.6) refers to what should become part of the null curriculum in Islamic countries and be replaced by necessary concepts for the Muslim learners of English that have been made part of the null curriculum from the authors’ perspective.

[C]urriculum writers are not only required to ensure that there is no inappropriate material in textbooks (such as the non-Islamic celebration of birthdays), but they must also include aspects of the new Muslim dominated moral curriculum in their work.

2.3.2.3 Resistance to Western Culture through a Proportionate Null Curriculum

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In countries where there is a strong resistance to the influences coming from the western culture, attempts are made to exclude the manifestations of the incompatible aspects of the western culture from the ELT curriculum. This is because they do not want the western cultural values to be adopted by their local learners and therefore choose not to teach them at all.

In these countries, the education experts and policy makers consider it their responsibility to ensure that the incompatible aspects of the western culture like western inter-gender relationships, public partial nudity, certain eating and drinking habits, as well as western worldviews and ideology are not taught and promoted in ELT materials. However, we must not forget that although excluding the undesirable aspects of the western culture from the local EFL curriculum is considered as one of the possible strategies to avert the unwanted cultural influences of ELT, the exclusions must always be limited to the most incompatible cultural aspects and must not be so exaggerated that they deprive the curriculum of compatible foreign culture. The exclusions should not take us from one extreme of hegemonic EFL curricula to another extreme where EFL curricula become void of the necessary dose of foreign culture and, consequently, hamper the development of intercultural competence in the learners.

The paradox with the use of materials containing largely source culture is that, although the reason often given for their use is that this will help the students to develop their own cultural identity, it effectively deprives the learners of realizing that identity. Since the materials mirror mainly their own culture, students have little opportunity to engage in intercultural negotiation with the text portraying another culture, so they are unable to engage in a dialogue with the text to identify and confirm their own cultural identity, or to ascertain its similarities and differences with that of another cultural group. (*Cortazzi and Jin 1999*, p. 207)

Byram (1997, p. 113), too, stressed the importance of giving the language learners a chance to compare their own cultural beliefs with those of others when he said, “it is through comparison that one becomes more aware of one’s own culture, much of which is unconscious and taken-for-granted”.

Alptekin (2002) highlighted the necessity of “producing instructional materials that emphasize diversity both within and across cultures” (p.60) and stated that deculturalized materials fail to recognize the international status of English:

Although attempts to deculturalize or nativize English have a number of educational merits, they are not too different from communicative orientations to teaching through the generally unrealistic, often idealized, and at times monolithic norms of the native speakers and their culture(s). As such they fall short of recognizing the international status of English, and fail to

provide an alternative to the conventional view that a language cannot be taught separately from its culture (p.62).

2.3.3 Balance and Totality of the Curriculum

The third condition for the sustainability of cultural resistance through EFL curriculum development is making sure that the totality and balance of the curriculum is not harmed by cultural resistance measures. Achieving the cultural safety of the curriculum at the expense of its technical adequacy and overall acceptability poses a serious threat to the sustainability of cultural resistance.

As Kelly (1994, p.199) put it, “the demand that the curriculum be balanced requires that we view it and plan it as a totality and not in the piecemeal fashion hitherto adopted”. He further likens the achievement of balance in curriculum development to the job of a juggler who needs “to keep many balls in the air at one time” (ibid, p. 200).

Kelly’s (1994) fitting juggler metaphor can be used here to mean that averting the cultural hegemony of English is only one of the objects a curriculum developer juggles and catching it mid-air and preventing its fall must not stop the curriculum developer from attending to the other equally important components of a curriculum which are also thrown up in the air and might fall down and shatter if not attended to simultaneously. Cultural resistance can be done successfully if attention to the cultural component of the curriculum does not prevent the curriculum developers from paying due attention to the technical quality and overall acceptability of the curriculum.

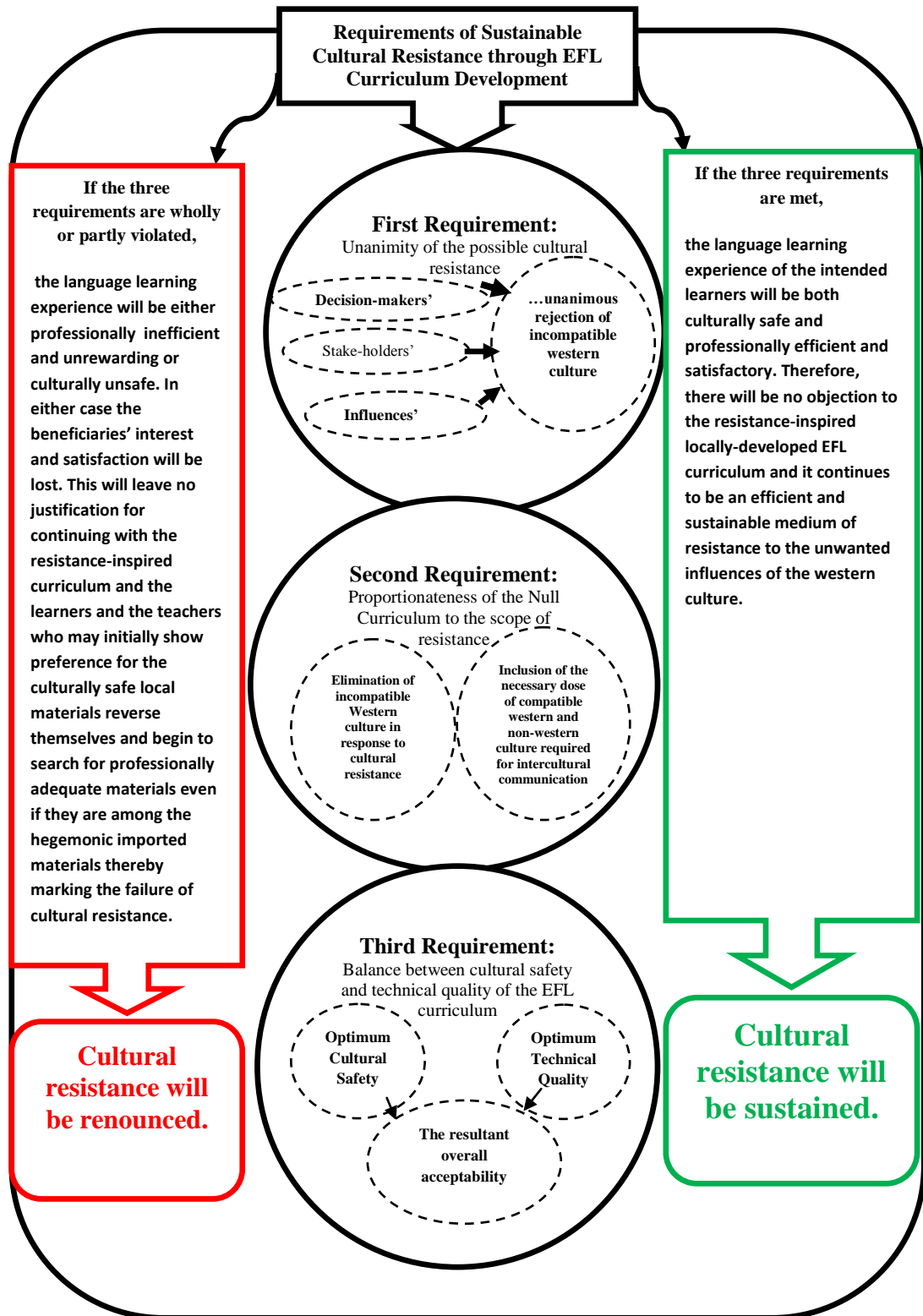
3. A Model of sustainable Cultural Resistance through EFL Curriculum Development

Based on the three conditions mentioned for the sustainability of cultural resistance through EFL curriculum development, the present author would like to introduce a model of sustainable cultural resistance through EFL curriculum development.

This model encompasses three conditions whose fulfillment or violation can have two diametrically opposite outcomes. Whenever the three basic conditions of a sustainable cultural resistance are met, the result is a successful and efficient language learning experience for the intended language learners who can learn English well without jeopardizing their local cultural identity and consequently remain satisfied with the resistance-inspired EFL curriculum and their loyalty to the efficient and safe curriculum protects them from the much-feared hegemony of international ELT curricula.

If one or more of the three basic requirements of sustainable cultural resistance are violated, cultural resistance will have to experience the worst-case scenario of losing the battle to the hegemonic but professionally adequate rival ELT curricula. Figure 1 on the next page displays the model of sustainable cultural resistance through EFL curriculum development.

Figure 1: A Model of sustainable cultural resistance through EFL curriculum development



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English among the Underprivileged A Case Study of the Linguistic Minority Learners in West Odisha

Anand Mahanand, M.A., M. Phil., Ph. D.



Abstract

English language education has been spreading faster to different parts of our country in recent years. It has percolated even to the interior regions and has been welcomed by almost all sections of our society.

There have been pressures on the state governments by the deprived sections to introduce English as a medium at the primary level. Are the schools meant for the deprived sections of society ready to meet such a demand in terms of materials, method and physical infrastructure?

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The objective of this paper is to make a survey of English language education in such a context. It also seeks to discuss what kind of impact it will have on the indigenous languages and cultures. Will they be endangered with the dominant presence of English? Or can the indigenous languages coexist with English by playing a positive role in the teaching and learning of English.

The paper reports two experiments which show that integration of English language education with indigenous languages can yield good results.

In such a context, it is worth studying the challenges and possibilities English can offer to the learners, their culture and languages.

Introduction

This paper makes a survey of teaching and learning situation in the interior parts of West Odisha to make a study of the teaching-learning situations of the underprivileged children at the High School levels and suggests ways of overcoming some of the problems faced by these learners. It makes a case study of the learners coming from the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in West Odisha and proposes that the learners' language as well as cultural resources should be integrated in the pedagogy. Such a strategy will make language education effective. In addition the pedagogic reform, the paper also suggests measures for improvement at the institutional levels.

Assumptions of the Paper

The paper is based on the following assumptions that there is a tremendous pressure from the underprivileged parents and intellectuals like Chandrabhan Prasad (qtd. in Graddol 2010:65) and Kanch Illaiah (2010) on English language education (even though there is limited infrastructure and preparedness). As a result several states have introduced English at the primary level and others are going to introduce such schemes in future. Orissa has introduced English as a required subject at the primary level. English education, thus, is made available to the inaccessible regions, aligning English with indigenous languages and cultures. This is bound to play a key role in the life and careers of the deprived people in these regions.

Questions to Ask

Under the above mentioned assumptions, what kinds of measures are to be taken to provide favourable conditions for learning English? What kinds of measures should be taken so that the indigenous languages can play an active role along with English to nurture the heart and mind of the children?

Possible Measures

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The paper suggests measures at two broad levels:

- A. Pedagogical
- B. Institutional

These two may overlap at times. These measures are the outcome of field study, personal experience and theoretical and practical input received from different sources.

A. Pedagogical

If we are keen to impart English language education to the marginalized children, we need to take care of two important things: create favourable teaching and learning conditions and adopt suitable pedagogic processes.

We can give English language education to our children at the same time we may retain our local languages. It is possible to achieve this end if we teach them English through their first language. This is also a necessary pedagogical step for them, as most of their families or the localities may context to use the language they learn at school. At the same time, this would also help ensure that these children not ignore their own language and forms of culture.

How to integrate the child's language and English language education is an important subject and there are several possibilities. I would like to suggest that the native language and forms of culture can play a positive role in the process of English language education. I would like to suggest strategies, particularly methods and materials for this. I would also like to propose some other measures to make English education more effective among the underprivileged learners from Orissa.

Socio-Cultural Profile

In this paper I use the term *underprivileged* for the members of the Schedule Castes and Scheduled Tribes. They have limited social, economic and educational accessibility. They include several castes and tribes such as Gonda, Ghasi, Chamar, Keont, Gond, Binjhal, Saora, and so on. Their literacy level is very low. "The crude literacy rate (the percentage of literates in the total population for STs is 38.41% compared to 54.51% for the total population and 45.20% for SCs." (Mohanty 2009: 282).

The children coming from such communities are mostly first generation learners. These communities inhabit the western regions of Orissa bordering Chhatisgarh and Jharkhand. They live in the districts of Sambalpur, Bargarh, Nuapada, Deogarh, Sundargarh, Balangir and Kalahandi. There is a strong demand for English by the parents though the quality of English and general education provided is not satisfactory. Earlier English was taught from class VI and subsequently from class IV onwards. Now it is introduced in class III and taught as a compulsory

subject from class IV onwards. The government is also keen to provide education in English though schools lack adequate materials and teachers.

Reorienting Materials and Methods



We are aware that English education has long been the privilege of the elite class of our society. The methods and materials were drawn from the British model. But now the deprived classes also claim their right to English education. It is the fundamental right of a child to get education. In such a situation the method and materials are to be re-oriented.

When our goal is to give these children education in English we need to be sensitive to their socio-cultural milieu. Our methods and materials should be in tune with their cultural context.

The first important step should be toward integrating learners' cultural resources with the goals of language education. As we know, these children come to school with a lot of cultural resources. The children's culture in these regions is rich in oral traditions which include songs, tales, music, games and so on. They have a distinct way of learning these traditions. It is important to observe how they learn their traditional forms of culture.

Following indigenous methods of learning, we should orient our materials and methods accordingly in teaching English.

My Experiment and the Profile of Learners

I conducted an experiment with such learners and used their cultural resources to teach English and the materials were proved to be effective.

The children from this community are mostly first generation learners and dialect speakers. These learners are also linguistic minorities as "their home language being very different from

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the language of instruction at school” (Jhingran 2009: 254). The parents work as small scale farmers, wage earners or petty government servants. They are very rich in terms of their culture. As their home language is different from the language of instruction at school, they face learning disadvantages.

Sadananda Meher, in a paper titled “Problems of Sambalpuri Dialect Users in Learning English” observes that learners find it difficult to cope with the text books meant for them. Even the link language, i.e., standard Oriya which should mediate between their home language and English fails to perform its role as they are not familiar with the world and world view it represents. On the other hand, the first language which has shaped their attitude, knowledge and world view and which brings a lot cultural resources is kept aside in the process of teaching and learning. When we use forms of culture of the learners in English language education, it is found to be motivating and effective.

Design and Details of My Experiment

I prepared a set of materials including songs and tales drawn from their own culture as samples and tried them among seventh class students of a School in the Bargarh district of Orissa and received positive and encouraging feed- back. A sample of the questionnaire has been appended.

When the stories and songs were given to the students, they were happy to find that their stories and songs were found in their lessons. They said that they were familiar with such tales and songs. They also expressed happiness that they are familiar with the materials. They said, “We know the song. We know story.”

This familiarity is a motivating factor. We can build up their interest from this motivation point. Children also expressed their desire to have lessons of this kind in their text books. The materials were tried among similar group of learners in the Nuapada district and proved to be very effective. A significant difference was observed in the performance of the learners when materials based on their culture were used. There was an improvement in learners’ performance after the materials were used.

The sample of the study included five students from Scheduled Castes from a small village school. The study was conducted in class VIII. All of them were about thirteen year old.

A pre-test was conducted and the scores of the students were recorded. Then the materials were taught to them for eight days one hour per day. The materials were based on folktales, songs, riddles, proverbs and games drawn from their culture. These were taught in bilingual/ multilingual method. After eight sessions another test (post-test) was conducted to know their scores. The table represents their scores.

It may be noticed that the students scored higher than their previous scored and showed better performance. They sang the song in Sambalpuri then the same song was given to them in English

and they were asked questions or there were discussions in English and Sambalpuri. This shows that the materials drawn from their cultural resources have been effective in developing different language skills.

We can see that the materials drawn from the learners' background not only enhance learners' language skills but also serve as our attempt towards preserving their culture and language.

Pre-Test and Post-Test Comparison of Scores

Sl. No	Name	Pre-test	Post test	Difference
1.	Suryakanti Jagat	2	11 .5	9.5
2.	Mukesh Bhoi	3 .5	13	10
3.	Dhanmati Harijan	2	9	7
4.	Kamalinee Bag	5.5	11.5	7
5.	Manoj Bag	4	14.5	10.5

Hence, we would like to suggest that the child's first language should be involved in their learning as it is the right of the child and also it facilitates learning. I also like to add that indigenous languages along with their state language could be integrated into English language education and all of them can coexist and make multilingual education possible. Robert Phillipson after surveying the position of English in Indian educational set up suggests that: "The project of increasing the learning and use of English represents a threat to other cultural values unless education is organized so as to build on the languages and cultures that children bring with them to school, after which other languages can be acquired additively"(92) .

Similar experiments have been carried out "in government schools for tribal children in Andhra Pradesh, Orissa and about to start in Chhatisgarh and other states with very high tribal population"(Mohanty 2009: 295).

Localizing Pedagogy by Using the Learners' Cultural Resources

When we say localize pedagogy, we mean use the learners' language and local knowledge in the process of educating them. Scholars and Commissions, Unions and organizations across the world have been advocating this. We may include scholars such as D.P. Pattanayak, Jim Cummins, Tove Stutnabb Kangas, Ajit Mohanty in the list. We may take examples of *Curriculum Framework 2005* which proposed to connect learners' local knowledge with pedagogy:

The oral lore and traditions of craft are a unique intellectual property, varied and sophisticated, preserved by innumerable groups in our society, including women,

marginalized and communities, and tribal people. By including these in the curriculum for all children, we could provide them with windows of understanding and kernels of ideas, skills and capabilities that could enrich their own lives and society. School privileges the literate, but cannot afford to continue to ignore the oral. Sustaining oral skills of all kinds is important. (NCF 2005: 27)

Another way is to use the child's first language in educating them. This will not only give them a sense of ownership, but help in developing their cognitive abilities. The U. N. Council on the Rights of the Indigenous People (2007) also provides for the effectiveness of teaching in the mother tongue. The Knowledge Commission also proposes to give regards to the beliefs, customs and institutions of the indigenous people. In spite of all these recommendations and possibilities of pedagogic benefits for the child, the child's language and cultural resources are not included in the language learning process.

Multiplicity of Communities and Language Diversity

A question may be asked as to there are so many communities and regions representing their cultures. Can the textbooks include all of them? Secondly, there already exists a prescribed textbook. Is there any way out for the teacher to include materials outside the prescribed text book?

The response to the first question will be that we need to be sensitive to such cultures and languages and try out possibilities of using them through various ways. If we can't have regular class using a particular form of culture or language, still it may be possible to use them occasionally in groups, through projects, discussions or through any other activities. If we raise awareness, even the text books will take these aspects into consideration and include them. The CBSE text books have many such forms.

The response to second question will be that if the text book does not include them, we can always supplement it with locally prepared materials.

How to Use Culture and Linguistic Forms?

Here an attempt has been made to share how these forms could be used in the language classroom. This has been already experimented by the researcher as a scaffolding strategy and found to be very effective.

Children feel happy when they have something they are familiar with. They said "Oh, we know the story, we know the song." Such familiarity draws their interest and motivates them to learn. They even expressed their desire to have such stories and songs in their text books. It has been reported in the form of an article "Using Indigenous Oral Narratives as Scaffolding in L2 Learning" (Mahanand 2010: 141).

Recommendations

These are a few possibilities which could be adopted. I have adopted them and they proved to be effective. This attempt does not intend to show that this is the only method available. This also does not mean to replace the existing text books or syllabus. On the other hand, this is just a possibility for scaffolding or providing support for a time being without disturbing the existing materials and methods. Once the learners have a feel for English, the support can be withdrawn. If these forms are not relevant or not accessible these will certainly provide clues to teachers to explore and use resources from their own working contexts. Language experts (e.g. J. Willis: 1996) suggest that learners need three important conditions for language learning which include motivation, exposure and opportunity.

1. Motivation

Claims are made that English is one of the Indian languages and learners are familiar with it. People do use a few words as part of everyday conversation, but when it comes to using English substantially, it is found to be awkward. The fear, stigma and shyness, inhibitions should be done away with. Once two friends in a rural setting decided to speak only in English from a particular day, but they found that they could not speak a single word to each other till evening. Efforts are to be made to break the notion that English is a difficult language and difficult to learn. Learners should be encouraged to use it at ease and should not be penalized or insulted if they make errors.

2. Exposure

Underprivileged learners come from a deprived background. They lack exposure to literacy both in their second language and English. They lack children's literature, audio-visuals, newspaper. Radio, T.V. programmes, computer, Internet facilities, etc., should be used to give them more exposure. Efforts should be made to make all these available at least in the school. Students are very resourceful in terms of their cultural resources, including songs, stories, games etc. These can be used in their original form or adapted to different forms of technology including print, computer, film and multimedia and made available for students and teachers' use.

3. Opportunities

Learners should be given a lot of opportunity to use English inside and outside the classroom. Events like loud reading, reading sessions, debate, radio talk, presentation, drama, essay writing competitions should be organized to provide them opportunities. These activities are efficiently conducted in very good English medium schools, but in rural schools in remote places these remain a distant dream. In addition to these, some material incentives should be given to them to relieve them from their family work.

4. Extensive Reading

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As mentioned earlier these learners lack opportunity for learning even though they have motivation. It is our duty to provide literature for reading. Books and other forms of reading materials should be made available to them to read during and outside library hours. The English teacher should plan with the learners how many books they would read during an academic year.

5. Teacher Development

Earlier English was introduced at the Upper Primary and High School levels. There would be an English teacher at that level would be a trained graduate and had some exposure to English as a Method subject. In the present context, when English is introduced at the primary level, teachers (there is no subject teacher at this level) are not equipped with the methods and materials. The advantage, however, here is the child will spend more years with English. Hence teacher development and equipping the teacher with language skills become necessary and should be viewed as a continuous process. In addition to this, it is required to take the teacher into confidence, involving them throughout the process. If it is not done, the materials and methods, even though they are good, the teachers may not use them and go on their own old ways. This happened in Karnataka State Board. It was proposed to teach learners at the primary level with listening and speaking skills instead of teaching them letters of alphabet in the initial stage, but the teachers did not adopt the new method and continued teaching in their old method.

B. Institutional Level

In addition to the above mentioned pedagogic measures, we need to take steps at the institutional levels too.

1. Provide infrastructure to ensure quality

When the underprivileged are asking for English education for their children, they are not just asking for introduction of English as a medium for the purpose of data, but for ensuring quality education for the deprived. It has been found that though the state governments have quickly introduced English at the primary level, they have not ensured or done so in a manner to provide quality materials and teachers. Teachers teaching the children are not qualified.

A NCERT survey (1982) reveals that most of the teachers teaching at the primary level have passed just the 10th class. Some of them have studied up to the Intermediate level. A few of them are graduates and a very few of them have teacher training.

Teachers' development and training is essential. It is interesting to see how quality and the cash nexus works. The more deprived our learners are, the more deprived they are in getting quality education in terms of materials, exposure and teaching. Here teachers, materials, methods, infrastructure and also students lack standard and hence all need improvement. In high class

schools, however all these have higher standards. Priority should be given to the neglected and deprived schools particularly for their physical improvement.

According to the Fourth All India Educational Survey (1982), 40 percent of all primary school had no blackboards, 53 percent had no play space, 71 per cent had no libraries and 57 percent were without concrete structures” (qtd. in Kumar 38). The government of Orissa has introduced certain measure like providing school uniform and bicycle to girl students. Much needs to be done.

2. Activate ELTIs and District Centres

The English Language Teaching Institutes and District Centres should play an active role for ensuring teacher development and material preparation. It is sad to note that District Centres are yet to be opened in many districts of the region we are discussing. The ELTI’s functioning was adversely affected as it was left without a regular Director and lack of adequate number of teaching staff.

3. Ensure Quality at Ashram Schools

There are a number of ashram schools meant for the SC/ST students. They are like the Social Welfare Schools in Andhra Pradesh. However, the facilities given to the students and quality of education there is quite below standard. There are reports of students going back home as they don’t get food to eat and the residents find the facilities there insufficient to live. The Kasturba Gandhi Awasika Vidyalayas (Kasturba Gandhi Residential Girls High Schools) meant to stop dropouts among girls have been running well in certain areas. But it should not be confined to particular regions.

4. Provide Residential Facilities

As we have seen, most of the learners come from deprived background.

Some are made to work after class. They don’t have facilities to study at home. If they are given residential facilities they can spend more time in their study. If we can’t open good schools for them, we can at least have hostels with adequate facilities near these schools. They can learn from their peers and teachers. They will also have a lot of exposure to English language through books, newspapers, magazine, TV, Radio, computer, etc.

Some of the missionary schools in Sundargarh district have been doing a commendable job of this kind for the tribal children. They run many good quality hostels and schools. These schools are able to provide quality education and are successful in developing students’ all round development.

The missionary schools in North East India are also able to produce students who are highly proficient in English. It is worth exploring how they develop learners' English maintaining their indigenous languages.

5. Involvement of Community

Involvement of the community is a necessary requirement at all levels of decision making. The community should also cooperate and contribute to the education of the child by motivating them, by making them aware of the benefit of education and by being vigilant. Wherever it is feasible it can maintain community library, sports and other activities. Certain agencies help in managing libraries through volunteers' donation of books and services. Members of the local communities should collaborate with agencies like Children Book Trust and National Book Trust, India for facilitating book reading habits among children.

6. Support Private English Medium Schools

Earlier the learners in English medium schools came from the elite class. But now English has moved from classes to masses. We find a number of Dalit children studying in private English medium schools that exist in slums and rural areas. Parents of such learners are low paid employees, labourers, technical or semi-technical employees and workers. Such schools should be supported by the governmental and non-governmental organizations.

7. Strengthen Proficiency in First/Second Language as well

A senior teacher and administrator once pointed out to me that there is a need to teach to learners skills even in their first or second language. Concepts are taught following the humanist classical method just giving a few commentaries. These concepts are not transferred as skills. Michael West as well as Jim Cummins pointed out if a learner is good in one language; it is easier for them to be proficient in another language. Language and literary skills can be transferred.

For instance, the learners have the skills of planning, organization of paragraph as part of their writing skills in their first language. When we teach them writing in a second language, we may not have to work for developing those skills, as they already have them. Only they need to transfer them to English. In the same way, when they read a story in English, their familiarity with the different aspects of a story (e.g. theme, characters, storyline) they have learned in their first language will help them to read and interpret the story better.

Hence, efforts should be made to make the learners proficient in their first/second languages too. For the learners coming from tribal and dialect speakers' background, the first language is different from the state language. Special care needs to be taken to include these languages in English language education. Multilingual education will be a possible approach here. Special sessions for such students can be organized regularly. In certain areas where there is adequate number of such language users, the school syllabus can follow a multilingual approach. As

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pointed out earlier, certain schools in tribal regions in Andhra Pradesh and Orissa have been following this approach for a long time.

8. Sincere Interest

All should show genuine interest for such constructive work. Intellectuals, politicians, policy makers, teachers and successful leaders from this community and well wishers from other communities should come forward and give their heart and mind to make the children achieve the goal. There should be also extensive research on the issues of Dalit learners. There is hardly done anything so far. There should be seminars, monitoring of programmes and deliberations on different issues pertaining to the Dalit and tribal people and English. If all of us take initiatives, we will be able to give the gift of English to our Dalit and tribal learners and empower them with English. It is good that some positive developments have taken place in the school education sector such as the right to education, introduction of English language education, and the Sarva Siksha Andolan. All aim at inclusion of the excluded. The stakeholders should collaborate and derive maximum benefit of the opportunities available to them in educating the deprived Dalit and tribal children.

Conclusion

The paper suggests that there is a need to improve quality both at the pedagogic and institutional levels. Learners' first language and their forms of culture should be used to facilitate language education. "English teaching cannot be monolingual ... In multilingual societies; multiple languages can be used to communicate in the classroom" (qtd. in Graddol 119). Diverse approaches are required to be used. In addition to this, a lot of efforts are to be taken for the improvement at the institutional levels. Teacher development, regular monitoring of programmes and their implementation may help. It also states that though English language education is being aspired by the underprivileged sections, adequate measures are needed to provide them with quality education. Mere use of slogans and rhetoric will not help in improving the quality of education. A sustained and systematic strategy is required. Government organizations, NGOs, researchers, intellectuals, activists - all should join hands to make their critical and creative contributions.

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Appendix Questionnaire

1. Did you like the lessons? Yes/No
2. Why did you like them?
 - a. because we knew the stories
 - b. they were easy
 - c. they were taught using our language.
3. Do you want to have more lessons like these in your English text book?
Yes/No
4. Do listen to such stories, songs and games in your village? Yes/No
5. Can you sing these songs and tell the stories? Yes/No

Thank you

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**Experimenting with the Concept of ‘Negotiating Syllabus’
in the ELT Classrooms**

Melissa Helen, M. A., Ph. D., PGDTE

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Abstract

Most of the ELT is done as per the prescribed syllabus/curriculum. It is very rare for English Language Teachers to find themselves in a situation where a rubric is given instead of a prescribed textbook. But the developments in CLT have given rise to a radical syllabus known as ‘process’ or ‘negotiated syllabus’.

This paper is based on one such classroom where I found myself without a textbook or any suggested reading. While it posed challenges in terms of choosing suitable texts, it also gave me the liberty that I had always longed for - the liberty of designing my course, selecting the appropriate material, and designing tasks based upon the needs of my students. However, the paper also observes the dangers of such a syllabus.

The Rubric

In the language teaching profession, there is a danger that people may often overlook one of its essential characteristics namely, that language is in itself dynamic, infinite and ever-changing.

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Therefore the best language teachers are generally dynamic themselves, in terms of the way they develop, add-to the prescribed curriculum and experiment with their teaching methodology.

The focus of my paper is on how the rubric may be exploited effectively in the Indian Universities wherein the element of heterogeneity of the students is wide and varied in many aspects. In view of this situation, in some universities, instead of a syllabus, a rubric is given to the faculty.

Syllabus and the Types of Syllabus

Two important questions that need to be addressed at the outset are *what is a syllabus and the types of syllabus*. There are many challenges to a proper definition of the term *syllabus*. In its simplest form, a syllabus means a list of the topics, books, etc. that students should study in a particular class, school, college, university or a course. A look at the essential characteristics of a syllabus would help in a better understanding of the term syllabus. It is a document that contains not only a list of the topics but the items that are ordered/ graded. It has explicit objectives usually expressed in the introduction. A syllabus is also considered a public document and it indicates a time schedule, hours allotted to topics, suggested/ preferred methodology and recommended materials (Ur, 176-177).

Among the types of syllabus in the context of ELT some of the generally known and accepted ones include: structural (formal) syllabus, notional/functional syllabus, situational syllabus, skill-based syllabus, task-based syllabus and content-based-syllabus. An experienced English language teacher will also be aware that no syllabus is distinct and purely independent. In fact most syllabuses are a combination of two or three types of syllabi.

Shift in the Focus of Syllabus

Communicative language theory has wide ramifications in the area of syllabus design and content. Many radical changes have been incorporated into the theory and practice of language teaching. A radical kind of syllabus that has emerged as a logical outcome of CLT is the notion of 'negotiated syllabus'. It is also considered as 'process syllabus' (Clarke, 13).

The recent years has witnessed a shift in the focus of syllabuses- from structure to situations and from functions and notions to topics and tasks. There is a blurring of the traditional distinction between syllabus design and methodology (Nunan, 1988).

However, a language teaching syllabus generally involves the combination of both the subject matter (what to teach) as well as the linguistic matter (how to teach). It actually performs as a guide for both teacher and learner by providing some goals to be accomplished. Syllabus, in fact, deals with linguistic theory and theories of language learning and how they are utilized in the classroom.

What is a Rubric?

As already stated at the beginning of my paper, some universities provide a rubric instead of a well-defined syllabus. Technically, in its strictest sense, a **rubric** is a scoring tool for subjective assessments. For example the sample on mechanics of correct sentence given below provides the teacher a basis of assessment.

Rubric: Edits for correct sentence structure, capitalization, punctuation rubric

4 - Excellent (N/A)	3 - Proficient (N/A)	2 - Acceptable (N/A)	1 -Limited (N/A)
4 - Excellent Consistently uses capitals correctly	3 - Proficient Usually uses capitals correctly	2 - Acceptable Sometimes uses capitals correctly	1 -Limited Rarely uses capitals correctly
4 - Excellent Consistently uses punctuation correctly	3 - Proficient Usually uses punctuation correctly	2 - Acceptable Sometimes uses punctuation correctly	1 -Limited Rarely uses punctuation correctly
4 - Excellent Consistently spells words correctly	3 - Proficient Usually spells words correctly	2 - Acceptable Sometimes spells words correctly	1 -Limited Rarely spells words correctly
4 - Excellent Consistently uses sentences of appropriate length	3 - Proficient Usually uses sentences of appropriate length	2 - Acceptable Sometimes uses sentences of appropriate length	1 -Limited Rarely uses sentences of appropriate length
4 - Excellent Consistently uses sentences which make sense	3 - Proficient Usually uses sentences which make sense	2 - Acceptable Sometimes uses sentences which make sense	1 -Limited Rarely uses sentences which make sense

Rubric – General Guidelines to Teachers

However, a rubric in the present context of my paper refers to a general set of guidelines that are given to the teachers at the beginning of a semester. In addition to the four basic LSRW skills of language, the guidelines also mention the general vocabulary, grammar and other components of Language that need to be either taught afresh or reinforced depending upon the proficiency of the

students who enroll for the course. In other words the guidelines are given with an aim to improve the language competency of the students.

For example, in the writing component, while some groups get inputs on essay writing and technical papers, some groups get inputs on the basics of writing- right from sentence construction to paragraph writing. Similarly, when it comes to speaking and presentation skills, while one group (from the Department of Science) was given substantial inputs on effective power point presentations/ seminar paper presentations, one group (from the Department of Humanities) was given more help and practice with general pronunciation with the explicit aim of helping them learn the pronunciation of a few words – sometimes which they heard for the first time, or help them recognize their mother tongue influence and subsequently avoid such errors.

Thus, the teacher is provided with neither a concrete syllabus nor a prescribed textbook but only a rubric/skeleton of a syllabus which includes the LSRW skills, vocabulary, grammar and other components of language.

Contents of Syllabus

A syllabus generally comes with compulsory texts with a number of exercises, supplementary texts and suggested reading texts, scheme of valuation etc. While teachers who are relatively new to the profession may become frustrated when they realize that they are not handed over a neat, step-by-step, packaged approach to what is involved in running and managing a language learning classroom, some who are fairly experienced language teachers may find the concept of rubric daunting.

In the Indian context where one generally deals with large numbers, more so at the college level, a syllabus helps the teachers to prepare a lesson- plan that helps in both the pedagogic and administrative purposes. Once the plan is ready, the teachers use the relevant books or materials as they need them. I assume that most of us come from this background which I do believe actually lays a good foundation (in general).

Substitution of Syllabus with a Rubric

The substitution of syllabus with a rubric will definitely have positive and negative ramifications. One of the negative factors of a rubric lies in the fact that a teacher who decides to use a particular text, material or exercise has the problem of supplying the students with sufficient copies. This facilitation of the copies will be time consuming, as well as cumbersome. It also requires careful planning in advance. Further, contrastingly, a textbook (prescribed in a given syllabus) will at any given time be more economical as well as handy than the material supplied in every class. Some Universities/Colleges which are in a financial crunch may not allow official copies which leads to further problems among students who are irresponsible.

Another major setback over the absence of syllabus and a resultant textbook is the preoccupation of the teacher in spending greater amount of time in constant planning, choosing texts, appropriating them as well as designing tasks. This is likely to affect the quality of time spent on assessing and evaluating the students.

However, the rubric will be effectively used by an experienced and enthusiastic teacher who will find his/her own methodology that will exploit the rubric. That will enable them to plan the curriculum and also design the material.

Managing Heterogeneity

For an English language teacher, the degree of heterogeneity at the school level is much more manageable and tolerable than at the college level. This is attributable to the fact that at the school level very few students change the medium of instruction. A number of students at the college level have studied either in a vernacular medium, or they have studied in the English medium at rural or even urban schools where there were exposed to substandard English both at the classroom level and also the society they were brought up. The element of heterogeneity present at the school level is much more tolerable than at the higher education level.

The heterogeneity of an ELT class at the higher education is due to the following factors. Many students opt for a change in their medium of instruction at college level students and students also migrate from their native/rural places to join a college in the urban areas. In addition to this the policy of reservation also helps many from the disadvantaged groups to join either in a good college or a University. Hence ELT at the college/ University level becomes more challenging and it calls for the greater resourcefulness of the teacher.

While students from a reasonably good exposure to English as well as those from the elite schools find the ELT curriculum at the college level unappealing, unchallenging and non-contributory to their existing language skills or even substandard to what they have already acquired, the disadvantaged group struggles to cope with the same. The gap between the English language skills of these two groups is quite huge and has implications in their overall AGP as well as their placements.

Usefulness of Rubric

It is a known fact that many students with a good rank in some competitive exams such as the EAMCET, where they score high marks in core subjects such as chemistry, mathematics, physics, etc., unfortunately fare badly in the University end-semester/annual exam in English. Some even fail in their English paper. It is also observed that many of them do not qualify for placements in good companies purely because of their inadequate language skills, which include soft skills etc.

In this scenario, at the University level, the rubric helps the teacher to negotiate with the students' needs and the desired levels of achievement in the target language. This negotiation to decide the components of the syllabus is possible at the level of the University alone for understandable reasons- namely the limited number of students unlike a plus two level, general or even affiliated colleges. Further a teacher at the university level has some advantages in terms of time as well as the resources at their disposal.

My Personal Experience – Rubric as a Negotiated Syllabus

Out of my personal experience I would like to give one example wherein I felt the rubric came in as an advantage in many ways. At the University of Hyderabad which offers courses in the five year integrated programs, a large number of students who belong to the School of Humanities are those from the regional medium of instruction. The students in all probability are likely to pursue their Master's program in English, Telugu, Hindi or Urdu or linguistics.

Barring the students for their Master's Program in English, all the others have studied in vernacular medium and they want to attain a certain level of communicative competence in the English language. Their exposure to the English language and their expectations were to a large extent common. But some of them who had the advantage of better exposure to English were required to sit in the class for their credits. This posed immense problems to the faculty who could not aim at any average level.

The extremely diverse target group made it inevitable to go by a rubric rather than a well-defined syllabus. The rubric is similar to the 'negotiated syllabus' in terms of its desirability and the advantages (Nunan, 155).

The Experiment

In this scenario, the rubric was of an immense breather. It helped me to diagnose the level, determine their needs and chose two or three levels of texts and tasks. To cite the classes spent on improving their speaking skills, in which one particular class was on the aspect of pronunciation, I had an immense satisfaction in using a particular handout –which was exploited in many ways for the divergent needs.

The handout was based on silent letters. It contained a list of English words in which some letters were silent. The first activity that I planned required all the students to repeat the words two or three times. The subsequent activities were of a variety of interest. The students with a greater advantage in English were asked to come up with more examples, write the meanings, to do phonetic transcription, use those words in their running compositions, suggest possible antonyms and synonyms etc.

The other students with less exposure to English were given more individual practice in the actual pronunciation of the words. While meanings of some words were supplied they were

encouraged to look up the dictionary for some. They were also given the task of framing sentences on at least some of those words. The practice in pronunciation was repeated for some of the students and they were also asked to transcribe the words in their respective mother tongue (where the faculty and peers could help them to a certain extent).

Though I did not plan on any of these topics and exercises at the beginning of the semester, as I interacted with the students and gauged their needs, I was able to plan something that would help all of them. In fact some of these activities were added as an afterthought in the classroom as the handout was being used. In this sense I may call this a ‘process’ syllabus.

Similarity to the Process Syllabus

The rubric is in many ways similar to the ‘process syllabus’ which is not pre-set and whose content is negotiated with the learners at the beginning of the course and also during the coursework (Ur, 179).

A negotiated syllabus which is eclectic will definitely have other difficulties in terms of accountability in doing justice to the students, their needs, as well as drawing up a standardized test that will be fair to all the students. As discussed already, there are a number of problems when teachers have to plan well in advance and get ready with the material and task sheets. Further, from the student point of view, the tangibility of a textbook is likely to have some positive psychological impact which would be missing in a rubric.

To Conclude

In conclusion it is to be noted that a rubric by its nature of being eclectic places a great deal of responsibility on the ‘individual teacher’s ability to choose appropriate procedures and materials’ (Elaine and Yule, 10). A ‘competent and creative teacher working with mature adults may generate a unique, exciting and satisfying teaching /learning experience’ but one must remember that in most contexts the disadvantages of a rubric /negotiated syllabus outweigh the advantages. At a time when eclecticism is at its height in every sphere, Nunan cautions one against the dangers of a ‘lack of continuity’ and the ‘lack of accountability’ (154) and the prevalence of an atmosphere of a *laissez faire* which might defeat the spirit of the rubric and the negotiated syllabus.

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Sample rubric: <http://www.rcampus.com/rubricshowc.cfm?code=K53863&sp=true&>
22/3/2011. 9.30hours.

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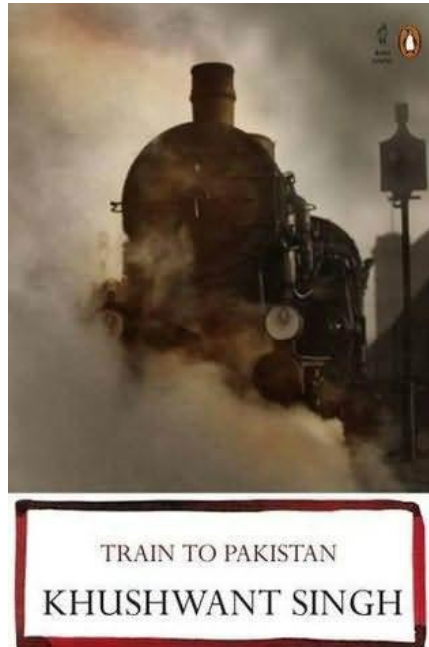
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Historical Elements in Khushwant Singh's *Train to Pakistan*

Prabha Parmar, M.A., Ph.D. (English)



Khushwant Singh and His Works

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Prabha Parmar, M.A., Ph.D. (English)

Historical Elements in Khushwant Singh's *Train to Pakistan*

Khushwant Singh wrote many books which include the novels *I Shall Not Hear the Nightingale*, *Delhi*, *The Company of Women*, *Burial at Sea*, *The Portrait of A Lady*, *Paradise*, *Train to Pakistan*; the classic two- volume *A History of the Sikhs*; and a number of translations and non-fiction books on Sikh religion and culture. He also wrote his autobiography, *Truth, Love and a Little Malice*, which was published in 2002.

Train to Pakistan

Among Khuswant Singh's novels, *Train to Pakistan* has a special place. The novel narrates one of the most brutal episodes in the world's history, in which a million men, women and children were killed and ten million were displaced from their homes and deprived of their belongings. The novel is a narrative of the tragic events that followed the Partition of British India into India and Pakistan. This novel contains many themes like love, history, politics, shame, religion and patriotism. But the main and important theme of this novel is history and the lessons that one derive from historic tragedies.

History and Creative Writers

Writers in the world are affected by historical forces. About the effects of history in English literature Walter Allen remarks:

“In the literature of an age, its conflicts, tendencies, obsessions are uncovered and made manifest to a degree which is continually astonishing; good writers are, so to speak, mediumistic to the deeper stirrings of life of their time while they are still unknown to or at any rate unsuspected by the public, politicians and current received opinion.....Contemporary novels are the mirror of the age, but a very special kind of mirror that reflects not merely the external features of the age but also its inner face, its nervous system, coursing of its blood and the unconscious promptings and conflicts which sway it”. 3

A Historical Novelist

Khushwant Singh is a great historical novelist. He was born in Pakistan and living in India, so he was deeply concerned with the history and culture of both the countries. About the history of historical novels, it is said – “The historical novel has always had its practitioners beginning with Mirza Moorad Beg, who's *Lalan the Beragan* or *The Battle of Panipat* appeared in 1884.” 4

The Beginning and Summing Up

Khushwant Singh starts his novel *Train to Pakistan* by describing the summer of 1947 (the year when India got independence) – “The summer of 1947 was not like other Indian summers. Even the weather had a different feel in India that year. It was hotter than usual, and drier and dustier.”⁵ These lines make clear one thing that the time during the partition was too much

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Historical Elements in Khushwant Singh's *Train to Pakistan*

difficult for all Indians. Partition really affected the mind of Khushwant Singh, who was over thirty years old at the time. He wrote *Train to Pakistan* and got it published in 1956, just nine years after the devastating happenings of the Partition. Singh seems to sum up his novel through these lines – “The fact is, both sides killed, both shot and stabbed and speared and clubbed. Both tortured and both raped.” 6

The Story

The story of the novel revolves around a fictional village located along the borders of India and Pakistan, named by Singh as Mano Majra. (In Punjab in India, there is a place named Manimajra near Chandigarh, the Capital of Punjab and Haryana).

Khushwant Singh presents a vivid description of how the village was like. At the time of the Partition, blood and violence were everywhere. But this little village, which was on the bank of Sutlej River, was totally far away from hate, murder and mayhem.

The Railway Station in Mano Majra

However, there was a random act of violence for money. Trader Ram Lal was killed by a dacoit, Malli, from a neighboring village. Khushwant Singh describes a railway station in Mano Majra. For many villagers, the supply trains were part of the clockwork of daily life. Singh narrates the real situation after the independence of India. He describes the agony, pain, suffering and fear of the people of India while the partition was in progress.

Magistrate Hukum Chand and Local Officials

Through his character, Magistrate Hukum Chand, Khushwant describes the real situation –

... the Sikhs retaliated by attacking a Muslim refugee train and sending it across the border with over a thousand corpses. They wrote on the engine, ‘Gift to Pakistan’.”⁷ But, on the other hand, Khushwant also reveals the bond of love among the Muslims and Sikhs in Mano Majra in the words of another official, Sub-inspector of Police: – “They answer that the Muslims are their brothers. I am sure they are getting money from them. 8

These are the words of Sub-inspector of Mano Majra. Sub-inspector was doubtful because at that time every Muslim and Sikh/Hindu was enemy to each other.

Villagers were not Aware of the Mayhem Committed in Other Places

Khushwant Singh also shows that the villagers were unaware of what was going on because they did not have any means to access mass media and other means of communication. “I am sure no one in Mano Majra even knows that the British have left and the country is divided into Pakistan

and Hindustan. Some of them know about Gandhi but I doubt if anyone has ever heard about Jinnah”. 9

Singh’s statement also reveals that many had no knowledge of Md. Ali Jinnah and Gandhi, who played major roles in obtaining the independence of India and Pakistan.

The lusty nature of the magistrate Hukum Chand also is pointed out.

Impact of Persons from Places Far Beyond Mano Majra

Singh does not restrict himself to Mano Majra but goes beyond to describe the over-populated major cities of India, Bombay, through his character Iqbal Singh, a social reformer, who is a visiting Communist in disguise and who wants to mobilize support for the Socialist Party of India – “Iqbal thought of his first reaction on reaching Bombay. Milling crowds – millions of them – on the quayside, in the streets, on railway platforms; even at night the pavements were full of people”. 10

Some villagers came to Iqbal Singh and he told them that independence is good for all of them. But they would not agree with him; they wanted to know why the English people left the country. Iqbal gave them the meaning of freedom. He explained – “They left because they have to. We had hundreds of thousands of young men trained to fight in the war.....They did not shoot any of the Indians who joined the Indian National army set up by Japanese, because they thought the whole country would turn against them”. 11 But villagers argued – “‘No’, the Muslim said. ‘Freedom is for the educated people who fought for it. We were slaves of the English, now we will be slaves of the educated Indians- or the Pakistanis’”. 12

These words were very commonly used by the poor and the needy in villages and small towns in India at that time. Many novels in regional languages of India that were published immediately after the Independence carry such notions. These lines from *Train to Pakistan* force us compare the past with the present in both the countries.

Juggut Singh was arrested as a suspect who might have killed the trader. He is portrayed as local *badmaash* (rowdy, thief, cheat) of the village. Juggut Singh loves Nooran, the only daughter of half-blind mulla of the village.

Jugga and Iqbal were arrested. Jugga was tortured and he gave information about Malli and his companions. They were also arrested. Iqbal told the police – “I am not a villager. I come from Delhi. I was sent to organize peasants, but the government does not like the people to be organized.”13 Iqbal asked them for the reason why they arrested him. But Sub-inspector told him that they hadn’t framed any charge against him. They only arrested him on suspicion. Although Iqbal’s full name was Iqbal Singh, the sub-inspector called him as Iqbal Mohammed or Mohammed Iqbal and blamed him as a Muslim – “‘you are a Muslim. You go to Pakistan’ ...

‘That is a bloody lie’, exploded Iqbal. ‘What is more, you know it is a bloody lie. You just want to cover up your stupidity by trumping up a false case.’¹⁴ But the sub-inspector was far less concerned about this murder than preventing angry Hindu and Sikh refugees and locals from killing Muslims trying to flee to Pakistan. So the sub-inspector arrested them under a false charge and he let Malli and his gang go free and put them in charge of the village Mano Majra, where they committed the murder,

Ghost Train

Ghost Train is an important part of the novel. Ghost train means the train which came from Pakistan full of the dead-bodies of Hindus and Sikhs – “One morning, a train from Pakistan halted at Mano Majra railway station. At first glance, it had the look of the trains in the days of peace. No one sat on the roof. No one clung between the bogies. No one was balanced on the footboards. But somehow it was different. There was something uneasy about it. It had a ghostly quality.”¹⁵

Three Major Characters

Khushwant Singh narrates the story of Partition through three major characters – Hukum Chand, Jugga and Iqbal Singh, who react to communal violence with a distinct attitude of resignation and self-preservation.

The people of Mano Majra wanted to defend their neighbors but after a long debate between Hindus/Sikhs and Muslims, the Muslims boarded a train to Pakistan because both groups knew they would not be able to save them from the vengeance of the Hindu/ Sikh refugees. The focus of the author now turns to the truth of that time during which some people were forced to involve themselves in this violence.

All of us have heard the stories of the horror of Partition. But after reading this novel, we are overwhelmed with the feeling of anger. People who did not want to be involved were forced to involve themselves. In the novel Khushwant Singh describes the same situation by narrating the episode of the group with a leader, who was only a boy (a Sikh Boy). He entered the Gurdwara and asked people, who were there – “‘What sort of Sikhs are you?’ asked the boy, glowering menacingly. He elaborated his question: ‘Potent or Impotent?’... ‘Do you know how many trainloads of dead Sikhs and Hindus have come over? Do you know of the massacres in Rawalpindi and Multan, Gujranwala and Sheikhupura? What are you doing about it?’”¹⁶

When the innocent Sikh villagers asked him what could they do? He told them to kill the Muslims. But someone replied that, for punishing the killers, police and government were there. He told them that they (government and police) would do nothing. He suggested to the villagers – “For each Hindu or Sikh they kill, kill two Mussulmans. For each woman they abduct or rape, abduct two. For each home they loot, loot two. For each trainload of dead they send over, send

two across. For each road convoy that is attacked, attack two. That will stop the killing on the other side.”¹⁷ This was the thinking of the people at the time of Partition and that’s why they started to kill each other.

The influence of that Sikh young leader was too deep that the Mano-Majra’s Sikhs began thinking about the Muslims -“Never trust a Mussulman, they said. The last Guru had warned them that Muslims had no loyalties. He was right. All through the Muslim period of Indian history, sons had imprisoned or killed their own fathers and brothers had blinded brothers to get the throne. And what had they done to the Sikhs?”¹⁸

Through these lines the villagers were forced to recall the medieval history of India, in which several Muslim kings killed their own real relatives for the throne and kingdom. In these lines they were also forced to recall the murder of Sikh Guru and his family by a Muslim king. After that, the villagers decided to kill all the passengers of the train which was going to Pakistan.

When Hukum Chand hears about this plan he calls the sub-inspector and orders him-“Do you really believe an educated Muslim would dare to come to these parts in times like these? Do you think any party would be so foolish as to send a Muslim to preach peace to Sikh peasants’ thirsting for Muslim blood, Inspector Sahib? Where is your imagination?”¹⁹ He orders the release of Iqbal and Jugga in the hope that one of them may be able to stop the impending massacre.

Iqbal wants to do something to prove himself but when he reaches the Gurudwara, people ask him- “You are Sikh, Iqbal Singhji?” Inquired one of the man ... ‘Was it in England you cut your hair?’ asked the same person.”²⁰ Iqbal considers trying to implore his fellow Sikhs but decides against it because they may strip him of his clothes, and think he is a Muslim, and then he would simply die on the tracks like any actual Muslim, having made no impact, no push towards communism. Instead, he drinks himself to sleep.

Khushwant Singh here draws a very bleak picture of the members of educated classes in India, who go to great lengths to preach socialism and communism, but, it is alleged, they may be interested only in preserving their own interests.

Jugga finds out that his Muslim lover and the mother of his would be child (although he doesn’t know) is on the train. He becomes sad and wants to do something. Manu Majra’s Sikhs / Muslims draw a rope above the train that will decapitate all its rooftop passengers, and the villagers wait in the bushes to slaughter the rest of the passengers when the train stops to find out what has happened.

Sundari and Her Husband

Meanwhile Khushwant Singh adds another episode with Sundari and her husband. Sundari was the daughter of Hukum Chand's Orderly. She had been just married to Mansa Ram. Their marriage is not yet consummated. Both of them were in a bus. Suddenly the bus stopped. There were boulders placed across the road. Singh describes the scene:

Sikhs were just hacked to death. The clean-shaven were stripped. Those that were circumcised were forgiven. Those that were not, were circumcised. Not just the foreskin: the whole thing was cut off. She who had not really had a good look at Mansa Ram was shown her husband completely naked. They held him by the arms and legs and one man cut off his penis and gave it to her. The mob made love to her. She did not have to take off any of her bangles. They were all smashed as she lay in the road, being taken by one man and another and another.

Singh shows horrors of crime committed at that time. Although this description is written with imagination, yet these types of incidents took place in the history of India after 15th August 1947.

Jugga feels love toward all his fellow villagers, who accused him of killing Ram Lala. He climbs the rope and falls to his death, saving the train to Pakistan and his lover also.

Conclusion

Train to Pakistan is not only the story of love between Jugga and Nooran but it is also a story that depicts the brutalities suffered by the people, generated as a result of Partition. The novel brings out the fact how well-meaning people can be manipulated to act unjustly by injecting hatred and fear into their hearts. There is a contrast between Jugga and Iqbal Singh. Both want to help avoid tragedy, but education was no guarantee that the educated would really plunge themselves in risky rescue efforts. The local officials are realistically portrayed. What is said of the local officials at the time of the Partition may be true even today.

Although grounded in real history, in some sense the tragedy of Partition is only a front for the presentation of an eternal story of human affairs. What happened and what was avoided in the tiny border village of Mano Mijra truly could happen anywhere in the world. In that sense, Khushwant's *Train to Pakistan* is not only a classic, but it is a work of epic proportions.

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Sharing the Future: The Language Situation in Manipur

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Abstract

The configuration of Manipur's ethnic, cultural and, above all, linguistic diversity is not only a unique asset for the state but also for the nation. Though small in size, there are thirty-three recognized distinct languages besides Manipuri, spreading over the entire geographical area of Manipur. The management of linguistic, cultural pluralism and other diversities has become the focus of attention because of their increasing importance.

This article is primarily concerned with the role of policy and education in language rights and revitalization efforts in Manipur. As part of the study, a brief account of globalization and its impact on languages is given. Next the complex linguistic situation in Manipur is being explored. The correct language situation would eventually help us in forming a correct language policy which will promote the development of our society and prevent us from making mistakes that will lead to the waste of money, manpower and materials.

Background

Manipuri is a principal language in the state of Manipur, the area under study. Going back, it is observed that since the ancient times Manipuri has a rich literary tradition associated with it and its own ancient script. It is the only language which has a script developed on its own among the Tibeto-Burman languages spoken in India. Manipur is a rich melting cauldron of linguistic and cultural diversity. The configuration of Manipur's ethnic, cultural and above all

linguistic diversity is not only a unique asset for the state but also for the nation. Though small in size, there are thirty-three recognized distinct languages besides Manipuri, spreading over the entire geographical area of Manipur.

The population of these ethnic communities differs greatly. Some of them are, however, characterized by declining number of speakers and are on the verge of extinction, for example, Thangal and Tarao (spoken by a few hundred persons). The situation is apparently no better with languages of larger ethnic communities.

Indigenous languages around the world are under attack subject to seemingly irresistible social, political and economic pressures. Over the past decades minority and endangered languages have received scholarly attention. Attention is given to sustaining the existing pool of diversity of languages. The management of language ecology, cultural pluralism and diversity has become the focus of attention because of their increasing importance.

The plight of the endangered languages is considered to be in crisis. Krauss (1992) estimated that as few as 600 out of estimated 6000 languages on earth will remain through the next century.

In the case of Manipur, although we lack an accurate assessment of situation of endangered languages, we have approximate figures to point out quite convincingly the languages that are confronted with the imminent possibility of extinction.

The Trend – Decline in the Number of Speakers of Various Languages

The trend towards the declining number of speakers is abundantly clear from the attitudes speakers have towards their languages apparently because of the value system and life style they are adopting in tune with the rapidly changing social, political and economic relationship.

Another dimension to this problem is the considerable increase in the number of private schools providing English medium instruction. It is a social demand that forces the schools to start teaching English in early grades. In the process minority languages are under severe onslaught from various social, political and economic pressures.

Biodiversity and Linguistic Diversity

In the powerfully written **Vanishing Voices** (2000), Daniel Nettle and Suzanne Romaine make an explicit link between environmental issues and the survival of languages. They argue that the extinction of languages is part of the larger picture of the near-total collapse of the worldwide ecosystem, and suggest that the struggle to preserve environmental resources, such as the rainforests and unique ethnobotanical knowledge, cannot be separated from the struggle to maintain cultural and linguistic diversity. The causes of language death and ecological destruction, in their view, are political. Nettle and Romaine support their argument with an intriguing correlation: language diversity is inversely related to latitude, and areas rich in languages also tend to be rich in ecology and species. As it has been discovered, both

biodiversity and linguistic diversity are concentrated between the tropics and in inaccessible environments, such as the Himalayan region, while diversity of all forms tails off in deserts.

Situation in Manipur

Around the world, there is a high level of co-occurrence of flora, fauna, and languages, and humid tropical climates, forested areas, and mountainous regions are especially favourable to biological and linguistic diversification. Data from Manipur appear to support this trend as the state falls on the Indo-Myanmar 14th hotspot out of the total world 34 hotspots.

This level of biodiversity is matched by a similar degree of linguistic variation. North- East India is endowed with large number of flora and fauna. The region has been identified as one of the richest biodiversity region in the world. Out of the three Biodiversity Hotspots recognized in India, North East India falls under the Indo-Myanmar Hotspot. The region has been in focus for its rich biodiversity and culture. However, in the last few decades several plant and animal species are lost due to the anthropogenic pressures at an alarming rate.

Considering the speed in which the species are disappearing in North- East India, there is an immediate need to conserve and protect the rich biodiversity of the region. While the language-ecology hypothesis is entirely logical, it remains contentious, with some language activists and scholars arguing that these overlapping trends are

coincidental and causally unrelated. Whatever one's position on the interrelatedness of biological and linguistic diversity, one result is uncontested: languages are increasingly described as valuable 'resources' to be protected, promoted, and developed by governments.

Intangible Heritage

Distinct from but deployed in a similar manner to discussions about water, fossil fuels, and manpower resources, linguistic resources are an integral component of a nation's rich, intangible heritage. As summed up by UNESCO, in its universal declaration of 2001, "cultural diversity is as necessary for humankind as biodiversity is for nature" (UNESCO 2002, Article 1).

Focus of This Paper

In the light of this background, this article is primarily concerned with the role of policy and education in language rights revitalization efforts in Manipur. As part of the study, first I begin by giving a brief account of globalization and its impact on languages. Next I give my own experience as a native of Manipur describing the complex linguistic situation of Manipur. The last section focuses on vision and efforts of language education and language maintenance.

Globalization and Multilingualism

The cliché "the global village" was coined by the Canadian writer Marshall McLuhan in the 1970s with reference to the unprecedented development and growth in information technology and electronic communication systems. Although, it took almost two long

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decades for the term ‘globalization’ to come into existence around 1990, it is a buzz word now that the impact of globalization is felt at almost every aspect of our life. ‘Globalization’ is used in so many different contexts, by so many people, for so many purposes, for example, sociologists, economists, political scientist, social anthropologists and linguists define the notion of ‘globalization’ within the framework of their perspective models. The increasing trend, has, no doubt, enriched and facilitated the life of the people in several ways. However, simultaneously, we also find that it has created other new problems for different societies. ‘Globalization’, therefore, in present scenario has widely been debated often focusing on its economic, political and linguistic issues, among other issues.

In the light of the aforesaid background, we need to examine the multilingual and multiethnic situation in Manipur. As the 21st century begins faster economic globalization is going hand in hand with the growing use of English. Parents and stakeholders feel that education, at least well-resourced education is undoubtedly available only in English, eventually increasing its value. It is often argued that no local languages can match the output of English books and therefore English education is superior (Pattanayak 1991).

The new trend that has been observed is that a person makes a mark through him/her ability to use the most prestigious language. And those who are privileged by English education are naturally clamoring to make benefits secure for their new generations. Thus over several generations in the process the most dominant language would eliminate the other languages. Even though murdering of languages is not carried out intentionally, the increasing importance of English through globalization is one of the tools which help in annihilating the indigenous minority languages and culture.

It would, however, be incorrect again to say that the domination of English is something deliberately organized and supported by the English speaking nations hand in glove with their political initiatives or the penetration of world economy. It is in fact inherent in the process.

One of the major effects of globalizations that we observe today is the growing sharper differentiation between the status of English on the one hand and Manipuri and other languages on the other. This is obviously a consequence of value system and life styles local people have adopted. A rejection of a language intentionally or unintentionally by a community is in the process of consolidation and institutionalization of globalization and it may succumb to it without even knowing it is involved in the process of gradually killing its own languages (which have taken at least thousands of years in the current state in its evolution). In the pursuit of development and advancement of societies, we, in fact, create the space for the loss of our languages. In the process, development has thus, tended to mask and even promote domination.

Choice before Communities

In the prevailing circumstances, communities are left with two choices: either to resist or to adjust, but as we know no community can escape from this huge powerful force and also one’s security lies in the second option, we are, therefore, compelled to go for the second option even though we find simultaneously, it has created new problems. These adjustments demand change in relation to a new order that it is important how the local community adapt themselves. The challenging task ahead of us is how we can encounter globalization

particularly the trend towards unilingualism. It is, however, easier said than done that it must be controlled, regulated and minimized to the extent possible so that minority and less powerful languages are given the opportunity to grow and revitalized.

Now the whole issue of development and progress must be approached with greater vigilance and in a critical spirit. While thinking of development we must not overlook our languages and culture. Intellectuals in our communities have a great task ahead for bringing awareness among the local people. How local people should react as we are confronted with imminent language loss and culture? And they must be made known that the wealth lies in the diversity of languages and treasures that we have must be safeguarded so that they are not further degenerated.

Loss of Vitality

A language disappears or a language loses its vitality not only because it is dominated by another but also and perhaps above all peoples' attitude towards their languages. If we want to preserve and maintain the healthy growth of our languages we should now take up preventive steps. This is important because the extent to which future generation will be able to enjoy their language rights will depend on the moral obligation and intellectual choices made by the present generations on whether we do our duty to our children of future generations. However, language issues, in general, are rarely considered a priority unless problem arises in connection with the implementation of controversial language issues.

So, the aspects of language issues are not given serious attention and generally are left out of discussion.

Need to Alert People

In this context intellectuals and people of good-will without any vested interest must alert the people that in the name of development, to the fact that we, in fact destroy our own language and culture inexorably. It is, therefore, up to the intellectual elites of minority communities to promote their mother tongues and give a new impetus to their languages and adapt them to the changing modern world.

The local people, as they are the bedrock of language preservation and revitalization, must decide on a dynamic response for the language problems, old and new that beset them. They must be sensitized that they are the only right people who will study and seek solutions to these problems that are consonant with time. They are the ones who have kept the languages alive and must continue to do so. It is pertinent to quote N.M. Dauenhaur and R. Daurenhaur, historians of Tlinget oral tradition (Alaska)¹ "preservation is what we do to berries in jars and salmon in cans. Books and recordings can preserve languages but only people and communities can keep them alive".

Responsibility of Minority Language Speakers

So, speakers of minority communities must realize and prepare to undertake this task without falling back on alien models that distort their language and cultural heritage. They must realize that destruction of human culture and language is

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very devastating in the long run. The loss of languages is occurring in an unprecedented and disastrous rate, at a rate of ten every year somewhere in the world². It is even predicted that 50-90% of today's spoken languages will disappear during this century. Therefore, their preservation must be done on a war footing.

But the crux of the matter is how we go about it in such a complex situation where our languages and cultures are at the crossroads of two forces – globalization and persistence of community identity that are both contradictory and intertwined. Along with globalization the increasing importance of English is felt in every sphere of life. Attempts to reduce the use of English would, therefore, be a futile exercise. It is, therefore, imperative that we look for a new order in which globalization and preservation of minority languages and cultures can co-exist and interact dialectically rather than as incompatible opposites. We must intelligently sort the problems out where globalization can be beneficial for local people – how development programs feed on the local soils and on the other hand how local indigenous resources can be of good use for the overall development of humanity.

Development brought by globalization and indigenous culture must be involved in a dialogue that should be of mutual benefit to each other. Therefore, we should get our intellectuals to turn their attention seriously to the dialectic between globalization and preservation of culture and language. This would lead to agreement on some intangible principles which hold good for all communities such as respect for life and man's relationship with nature and knowledge. While maintaining one's language and culture with knowledge of globalization the reality must be improved – it must benefit at home, at work, etc.

Multilingual Situation and Policy in Manipur

Manipur's linguistic situation reflects its diverse complex history. Although, Manipuri by its continuous use as lingua-franca from the time immemorial retains its eminent position among other languages, language issue in Manipur has often been politicized where we find tensions and conflicts on linguistic and communal lines came to the surface. Government of Manipur, for example, apparently in view of its status and function as a lingua-franca introduced it as one of the compulsory subjects among the diverse linguistic communities.

A clear example of manifestation of this conflict and tension is the outright rejection of Manipuri by the non-native speakers of Manipur when the government made the learning of Manipuri mandatory in all the hill districts of Manipur in 1980s. As the attempt was not successful following a strong objection from the people of hill areas the government ultimately had no choice but withdrew its stand as it was against the wishes and aspirations of hill people. It is unnatural and inconsistent and useless effort on the part of the hill people to have Manipuri as a compulsory subject at any level of education. Keeping in view of the vehement opposition and tense situation the government decided that it should continue its earlier status quo to be taught as an optional subject.

The learning of Manipuri in schools in the hill districts of Manipur could mean two different things. In one case, it would be clear that the implication of imposition becomes evident or otherwise a weaker version of the same interpretation. The imposition of Manipuri has created an undesired byproduct: the ignorance of other ethnic languages that their languages have been devalued implying a devaluation of their culture as well which would add to the animosities between the two broad communities Meiteis versus other communities. Another interpretation could be that it is taken as an assertion of Meiteis who would become an undeservingly privileged group at the expense of other communities by using language as an instrument.

The Status of Manipuri

This has brought into question the status of Manipuri and the relationship of Manipuri language with those of other languages. It is, however, open to interpretation whether this will make it possible for other communities who speak varieties of languages which are mutually unintelligible promote and develop their ethnic cultural linguistic and religious identity in a state with many languages. Therefore it is felt that by not regarding all citizens as equal and privileging certain communities over others breed discontent and potential social conflicts by uniting all other ethnic groups. It is apparent that Manipuri in this context is being seen as threatening the existence of other languages.

This is, however not unique to Manipuri, other major communities are being accused for suppressing other minor languages too. The situation that has prevailed in the state is being felt as one of a single language policy where non native speakers of Manipuri and other ethnic communities at a disadvantage position in education. Language conflict as we know does not occur in peaceful harmoniously co-existing communities. They are accompanied by varying degrees of tensions, resentment and differences of opinion, which are characteristic of every competitive social structure.

Government Policy

It is abundantly clear that the policy of the government was to promote the use of Manipuri in education. The implementation of the policy was not successful apparently because government could not recognize the reality and sentiments of the hill dwellers nor have they taken any measures to promote other languages of the state. This was largely due to the lack of the absence of a clearly defined language policy and therefore the government's failure to implement the program of language planning in the state.

In a situation such as Manipur it is but natural to find cases of language dominance and positive and negative attitudes towards one language or the other. It is quite a paradox to see Manipuri in spite of its status as a lingua franca it is apparently seen as a dividing force. As this situation is a very complex situation it requires an accounting of socio-religious factors which apparently acted as divisive force in the co-existence of Meiteis vis-à-vis other communities (hill- dwellers).

Impact of Hindu Practices on Meitheis and Language Attitudes

A case in point worth mentioning here is even though Meiteis (speakers of Manipuri as a native language) and other communities have been living together since the time immemorial, the cultural unity and integration was severed largely due to the Hindu influence of Meiteis. While Meiteis became Hindus most of the other communities adopted Christianity. Apparently because of the faith in Hindu religious practices Meiteis' attitudes towards other communities changed over time that there developed a gap between Meiteis and other communities. This relationship continued over three centuries. Although there has been some promotion of integration of Meiteis and other communities, (of late, a close interaction between Meiteis and other communities has taken place to a reasonable extent), this apparently will take more time to heal the relationship between the two communities.

It is important for the government to recognize the reality for educational purposes. It is also important that sociolinguistic study of different languages must also be conducted in order to ascertain the attitude of the hill people towards Manipuri language. This will enable the planners to execute the policy much more effectively.

Ineffectiveness of Uniform Policy

Further, policy makers have fixed ideas on the role and function of languages. They created a uniform policy for the entire country which proved ineffective given the diversity of situation in North-East. Such policies are applicable only for more developed and accessible languages of the country while the languages in the remote areas of North-East and others parts of India remain marginalized. However, it is relevant to point out here that, the Three Language Formula is not a goal, but a strategy. It does not aim a limit to learning but aims at minimum required for identifying oneself with the immediate group, with the nation and with the international community (Pattanayak 1994:94).

Inadequacy of the Three Language Formula for Language Maintenance

In this connection, it seems urgent how to provide relevant education in this new world in order to preserve and promote linguistic diversity in the multilingual situation of Manipur. Constitution envisages that conservation of minority is to be through community action and not directly by the state with its resources through state aid should be available in minority schools. However, it is very important to note that the mother tongues of linguistic minorities do not find a place in the ambit of Three Languages Formula. Therefore, a conflicting situation between minority languages and state language Manipuri seems evident. There has not been any effort to resolve this problem either politically or pedagogically. Therefore, education planners today face new issues and questions with fresh urgency in the emerging new order.

Functions of Language Use

The issue of language maintenance is closely linked with functions of the languages in different domains. This determines their relative power and status. Keeping in view the multilingual character and different ethnic communities, the Government recognized ten languages.

The nine tribal languages that have been approved by the state government to study as Modern Indian Language (MIL) up to the tenth standard are Tangkhul, Paite, Hmar, Mizo, Kom, Vaiphei, Zou, Thadou and Mao (Board of Secondary Education Manipur 2009³). It is learnt that another language Rongmei has been added to this list. Besides these languages, Manipuri, Hindi, Bengali and Assamese are also offered as Modern Indian Language papers in schools. In the eleventh and twelfth standards, however, only six tribal languages viz, Mizo, Tangkhul, Hmar, Zou, Thadou-Kuki, and Paite are offered (Council of Higher Secondary, Manipur 2008⁴). The list, however, includes other languages Manipuri, Hindi, Nepali, Assamese and Bengali totaling the number of languages to eleven. This language policy suggests that language education can serve as vehicles for promoting the vitality, versatility and the practical use of these languages. In line with this, Tribal Research Institute, Government of Manipur, has organized series of workshops to produce primers. It is already yielding good results as is evident by the enthusiasm and response shown by the forward-looking tribal leaders who came to participate in the workshops⁵.

However, it is quite disturbing and alarming to learn that a number of other state's ethnic mother tongues are severely endangered, and will likely be reduced from communicative vernaculars to symbolic identity markers within a few generations (Tarao, khoibu, etc., as these languages are spoken by few hundreds). As the extinction is imminent in the near future, linguistic activists within these communities should embark on the process of documenting and promoting their mother tongues through cultural awareness campaigns, ethnic heritage programmes, etc.

Given the situation, the remaining languages not part of school curriculum are in serious danger of becoming extinct. If they are given the status of teaching they may be rescued from the verge of extinction, revitalized and developed. In order that the minority languages are a part of the school curriculum we must first ascertain the language situation in Manipur.

Two Contrasting Situations: Mutual Unintelligibility vs Mutual Intelligibility

The linguistic situation in Manipur is quite complicated in that we find two distinct contrasting situations. In one situation, we find that the people comprising a tribe who apparently have different background became a single entity in consciousness and characteristics after a long period of living close to one another. Though willing to be recognized as a single tribe, the languages they speak are still distinct and mutually unintelligible as in the case of Tangkhuls in Ukhrul district. It is apparent that some historically weak tribes gradually merged into larger tribe due to long period of political control or cultural influence by larger and stronger tribes, the smaller tribes losing all their unique characteristics other than language. Since the population in Ukhrul district seems a conglomeration of different tribes, there is naturally multiplicity of languages. We have a whole collection of Tibeto-Burman languages. Broadly speaking realizing the situation in Ukhrul, the most important speech forms the variety spoken at Ukhrul town. Even though these languages belong to one language family these varieties are highly diversified forms that mutual intelligibility is out of question. This is an important question because there are fundamental differences and vocabulary among these languages but contact among them for centuries and more particularly through masses of different communities who speak different speech forms might have led to the imposition upon each other or to a common characteristic

which may be specially called Tangkhul. And as a result the Ukhrul variety of Tangkhul apparently evolved as a lingua-franca of all Tangkhuls in Ukhrul district. The complex interrelationship of the varieties aroused a curiosity in the minds of linguists and other scholars as to whence this complexity originated.

Even though we have difficulty in tracing the development of the complex situation it appears that they were different and distinct communities who settled in the hilly terrain of Ukhrul district. The inhabitants of this district had a sufficient social consciousness to fuse themselves into one homogenous tribe called Tangkhul, but kept their separate culture and languages and customs alive, even if there were changes in their lifestyles. So it is possible that more advanced Tangkhuls of Ukhrul town were superior in organization and stronger numerically welded all other smaller communities into a united whole and the Tangkhul language is one of the important factors in the evolution of Tangkhul culture and language which became the vehicle, the symbol as well as the expression of composite culture that grew upon the soil of Ukhrul. There are more than two hundred fifty dialects (to name a few Somdal, Phadang, Aleinem, Lamlang and Krihang). It is probably because linguistic change proceeds more slowly than change in other characteristics of tribe. Working on language recognition can help us solve some of the “historical puzzles” in the relations between different speakers of these languages and gives us clue to the evolution of certain other tribes. Such kinds of works are also very important because scholars working in history and trying to solve historical problems particularly look for such living materials from the study of languages which they cannot obtain from historical records. The historical reasons for this phenomenon require further study.

Another strikingly contrasting situation is the language of Thadou-Kuki people who live in the Churachandpur district, in the southern part of Manipur, straddling the boarder of Manipur and Mizoram. The languages spoken in this area are Thadou, Hmar, Paite, Simte, Ralt and Vaiphei etc. Even though these are languages mutually intelligible with one another, each group asserts its identity. However, just from the list of several hundred commonly used words and dozens of sentences, the similarities among these languages are clearly seen.

It is possible that when a tribe splits up and apparently because of different migration timings of different groups who eventually had no contact with each other for a long time, by then the languages they speak might have followed different paths of development and eventually become separate dialects. Even though these languages have diverged not to the extent that it would be difficult to say that they are dialects of the same language but the matter of the fact is speakers of these languages assert their identity as distinct from one another. Here it may be relevant to talk of the concept of *speech community* defined by Labov (1972).

“The speech community is not defined by any marked agreement in the use of language elements, so much as by participation in a set of shared norms; these norms may be observed in overt types of evaluative behavior and by the uniformity of abstract patterns of variation which are invariant in respect of particular levels of usage”

As the speakers of minority languages such as Hmar, Paite, Thadou and Vaiphei are mutually intelligible to one another there is very little difference with respect to the Language in India www.languageinindia.com 413

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characteristics of these languages except for the fact that they see themselves as different and distinct tribes and so they have the autonyms. Such a situation involves a complex historical, political, economic and social factor. Since this is the case, does this mean that they are to be identified as a cohesive ethnic group, we should consider all these languages spoken by the minorities to be dialects of the same language? What is surprising is not the multiplicity but the common linguistic elements and affinities amongst the different tribes. This is evident from the fact that we, more often than not, find for example, a situation where a Paite speaker speaks in his or her language and a Hmar speaker replies in his or her language. Without any problem communication takes place smoothly between the two language speakers. What is interesting is, this is the case for other language speakers in this area too. The multiplicity and the variety of speech forms can be accounted for if we view the different communities from a historical perspective. The resulting diverged ethnic elements and socio-cultural forces apparently emerged due the different migration periods of different groups, which of course, need further investigation. In the present scenario it may be assumed that these tribes did not come to Churachandpur in single time, probably clan after clan or tribes speaking related and mutually understandable dialects.

Factors that Help or Hamper Development of Languages

Given this situation, aside from having different autonyms do the people using these languages have any other unique characteristics? What are the social, political and historical factors that led to the linguistic differences? It is necessary to analyze how much and for how long these factors have influenced the development of the languages and what the direction of that development has been. It is also essential to analyze and compare the structures of neighboring languages of the same stock, family and branch to determine the differences among them. From these differences we can establish the levels of classification which allows us to ascertain whether the form of speech under investigation is an independent language or not.

In recognizing a new language or in identifying a language in Manipur we need to base our work on the facts of language and extent, type and form of the differences among the languages and dialects of the family. Only in this way will our results conform to our reality. In setting standards for language recognition work we can achieve correct results only by a scientific examination the reality of the situation in Manipur not from some general theory.

Taking into consideration the complex situation that is currently prevalent in Manipur, whatever the status of the individual languages it will be necessary for a government agency or university to undertake sociolinguistic survey on a regional basis to determine the intelligibility ratings between different languages and nature of multilingualism in each area. Thus the underlying parameters such as social, political and historical which are responsible for language recognition work can be identified. Only then we will advance our understanding of the importance of the language situation. In view of this complex situation linguists must not in a hurry express their viewpoints without proper justification. He or she must clearly delve dig into the language to ascertain its basic features comprising its phonology, morphosyntax and lexicon with those of related languages to determine the closeness of their relationship. Only such a process will determine scientifically whether or

not one is dealing with an independent language. The correct language situation would ultimately help us in solving the problems such as which script to be used in education in developing bilingual education and improving the quality of education in minority areas. It will also help us in forming correct language policy which will promote the development of our society and prevent us from making mistakes that will lead to the waste of money, manpower and materials.

Language Revival and Education

In a multilingual perspective, language in education, medium of instruction in education, mass communication, administration etc., are some of the important issues. Protecting linguistic diversity and encouraging bilingual education are two closely-related goals. To achieve this goal a strategy may be worked out to incorporate these languages into their education system. As strategy of bilingual education produces better learning outcomes and higher rates of internal efficiency school when the first language instruction is already understood as a subject to be taught and learnt; and becoming the language of instruction in the later years. There are several types of bilingual educational programs with a variety of goals, approaches and methodologies. Two options are available for the implementation of bilingual education .The first option may be designed in such away that all courses are conducted in minority languages such as Tangkhul, Mao ,Hmar ,Thadou-Kuki and Maram, and Manipuri or English (whichever language deemed fit for the program) may be offered only as one of the courses at least in elementary schooling. And second option may be English is the language of instruction alongside minority languages are offered as subjects, or as an auxiliary language of instruction. For the effective implementation of bilingual education the positive aspects of bilingual education which have been useful and fruitful, in short, success stories of this program may be made available to the speakers of minority languages. These experiments can be instrumental in convincing the speakers removing negative perceptions about mother tongue education in elementary schooling which may help in shaping a new world order.

The speakers of the languages, keeping in view of the changing scenario, they must change their mindset and devote themselves to highlighting the development issues and creating social awareness and political consciousness. They must realize that the precarious conditions of these languages have been created by the unbridled use of other languages. This is a very serious issue how speakers knowingly or unknowingly because of increasing prevailing situations that is, globalization continues to the gradual loss of the language. A number of solutions have been in discussions for quite a few years now and many of them are quite a *prima facie* doable .With reference to the prevailing situations in Manipur, it is imperative to suggest some feasible pathways so that an imminent ecological disaster is averted well in advance. Unfortunately, the academic community which is all too familiar with the solutions does not see implementation as part of its job description nor does it have any power of implementation. It is also important to know that preventing an ecological meltdown does not lie as much in the hands of cutting –edge science as is the ability of the academic community to educate society at large. Policy makers in coordination with academia must put a collective effort to save and maintain our languages that they are not further degenerated.

Relevance of Mother Tongue Education

An awareness of the relevance of mother tongue education should be created among speakers of different languages in order to attract greater number into appropriate studies. In order to have a new perspective created for the learners' language prejudice and negative perceptions should be removed from the minds of the learners. Speakers, for example, may be told success stories of reviving and revitalizing languages such as the one mentioned below with reference to Sanskrit. They may also be sensitized by telling them that a strategy of bilingual education produces better learning outcomes and higher rates of internal efficiency in school when the first language of instruction is already understood by the learners and second language is introduced as a subject to be taught and learnt: and becoming the language of instruction in the later years.

There have been suggestions that varieties of different languages are necessary for solving the problems facing the world today as it is well understood that speakers of different languages do not perceive the same world. Instead different languages emphasize and filter various aspects of multi-faceted reality in a vast number of ways. As language is regarded as the wealth of long evolving history of human endeavors we see more than ever why linguistic diversity is an invaluable resource rather than an obstacle to progress. Different languages communicate different perceptions of reality in a number of ways. These include differences in vocabulary and differences in grammatical information etc. language diversity, therefore, is often considered ideas diversity. It is generally agreed that the language actually helps us in shaping our views of the world and our perception. It is clearly a repository of cultural experience, we exist in and through this medium we express our ideas.

The involvement and initiatives of indigenous/local communities are very essential for providing the impetus and sustenance of execution of the plan as the preservation and regulation of languages is undoubtedly one of the most urgent challenges facing us today. For example, the state of Kerala achieved universal literacy target through a combination of official and community action⁶. Speakers of different languages must be made known that the wealth lies in the diversity of languages and the treasures that they have must be safeguarded so that they are not further degenerated. The culture or life style of people may be decisive in language survival if minority groups are conscious of their history or ethnicity and are determined to preserve and promote their linguistic and cultural diversity.

The revival and revitalization of Sanskrit in Mattur or Mathur village in Karnataka presents an excellent case in this regard. This community has practically shown to the world that a language which is dead can be revived, revitalized and developed as mother tongue. Sanskrit is the primary tongue of the villagers in Mattur or Mathur village in Karnataka. The village, which is about 10 km from Shimoga, has been making sure that the ancient language flourishes in their village. Subha J Rao writes in the Magazine section of *The Hindu* about this interesting village and effort the villagers are taking in keeping Sanskrit alive. The seed for change was sown in 1982, when the organization Sanskruta Bharati got together for a 10-day program to teach the villagers spoken Sanskrit. And, people in this primarily agricultural society took part eagerly in this unique experiment. Now Sanskrit has become the primary tongue of many residents. This village and the neighboring Hoshalli are mainly populated by

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Sanketis, who speak Sanskrit at home. And it is not just them who speak the languages. The village has a fair share of people from other communities, and all of them are exposed to Sanskrit. Local teachers contribute the fluency to the education with which new language was learnt. Now Sanskrit has become the primary tongue for many of the residents. In the local Sharada Vilasa High School, Sanskrit is compulsory till Class VII. It is the first language from classes VIII to X. So, the present generation too has learnt to speak it. Another village that converses in Sanskrit in India is Jhiri village in Rajgarh district of Madhya Pradesh. This was reported in the visual media a year ago (NDTV Kumar Sekhar, reported in *The Hindu* 28th October 2007). Kaladi in Kerala, Mathur in Karnataka, Jhiri in Madhya Pradesh, Ganoda in Banswada district of Rajasthan are a few places in the country where everybody (*The Hindu* online edition, Friday July 31, 2009), whether he is a vegetable seller, a milkman or a grocer, speaks flawless Sanskrit. Taking insight and inspiration from these communities, speakers of other minority communities should not lose heart and they should think positively to revitalize and develop their languages.

Fighting Against Language Loss

It is now very important to realize that language disappears not only because it is dominated by another but the speakers themselves decide to abandon it and do not pass it on to their children. Speakers of minority languages do not see any economic value for their languages. As a result, the trend of languages getting lost is incredibly increasing. Attention must be given to sustaining existing pools of diversity within the state. Fishman (1992:112) calls such activities as “Reversing Language shift” and he argues that Reversing Language shift cannot be successful without intergenerational Language transmission. Appropriate planning of the above is required to enable interaction appropriate monitoring and evaluation system and the introduction and trends and progress of Mother tongue education in the present scenario of Manipur. Resourcing these key areas would be an important future consideration in determining the feasibility, scope of programs and activities related to languages. The recognition of roles of languages should be given a platform ultimately advocating for the promotion of languages in question. The promotion of languages should not merely be for equity reason but rather for empowering minority languages so that they can help solving numerous problem of underdevelopment which currently remains unresolved.

Successful language maintenance efforts ideally combine literacy and education with an improvement in the economic and political standing of the minority language community (Nettle and Romaine 2000). It is, therefore, suggested that the challenges posed can be partially solved by a judicious combination of two approaches, that community action program to sensitize the speakers and documentation of the languages and writing of texts books for the schools, colleges or university which is deemed fit for the set purpose. A dialogue between linguists and native experts needs to be established, in order to decide the gradation of the lessons, for example, how much and what types of terminologies can be introduced in a particular curriculum.

It is also important that educators and text book developers must not work in isolation. They must work together towards the targeted goal of development of the languages. Sometimes some text book developers do not want to share their materials as they

fear that they will be severely criticized and some others for the fear that their work will be plagiarized or may be used for other wrong purposes. However, in such an urgent situation of language revitalization, the need to share should be more important than the fear of criticism.

The last but not the least recommendation for these languages, for text book developers it will be a lot easier to develop materials departing from a closer language, for example Manipuri than it is when they depart from English or any other languages which are not close to these languages. The reason being these languages are strikingly similar in their structures to Manipuri as they are of the same language group. As they have not been codified in language academic or authoritative text books or dictionaries, whenever, there is any problem or controversy regarding the language structure or usages it may cause a lot of hurdle for the development of languages. Like all speakers of languages, the speakers of these languages do, of course, have an intuitive, largely unconscious knowledge of the rules of the languages. For the revitalization and development of the languages, to begin with linguists with the help of natives must try to codify the dictionaries, grammars of the languages.

Some Recommendations for Manipur to Follow

Currently the issue language loss is one of the important foci of linguistic research. A government sponsored or university sponsored venture concerning languages of Manipur should be established in order to look after language matters such as compiling vital information and data on the languages of Manipur - particularly for the preservation, promotion and development of the minority languages. In the light of the above discussion – step strategy may essentially be adopted to change the present scenario – the steps are as follows.

- 1) A linguistic survey of Manipur in order to identify and determine the actual number of languages spoken in the state.
- 2) To promote the languages of the state through codification and linguistic study and description and to develop the uses of these languages in education.
- 3) To identify the endangered languages and take steps for their preservation.
- 4) To use the services of trained linguists to ensure more reliable compilation of language statistics in future census report.

Conclusion

In view of the linguistic diversity and complicated multilingual situation in Manipur different pathways towards the goal must be charted out. The policy will require a targeted approach in order to maintain and develop the minority languages of Manipur. For this comprehensive transformation of education including incorporation of minority languages alongside English, Hindi, Manipuri as subjects and media of instructions in schools must be initiated. In order to rescue them from the verge of extinction and make them alive a strategy of bilingual education is imperative for addressing the language issue of minority languages particularly to cater to the needs of the indigenous population. The planners and decision makers, therefore, must develop new directions in order to quicken the mind, the heart and soul of the learners so that they might develop attitudes and behavior for a pluralistic world view of tomorrow.

The research focusing on identifying the minority languages of Manipur, assessing their ethno-linguistic vitality and discussing patterns of language use may be applied to planning appropriate language development program activities. In doing so we are preparing our children for technical advances of the future, we are showing them that the languages have a proper place in it. It is clear that in order to differentiate the strands or streams of plural society we need to find out separate tradition of culture with their different histories and different prospects, so as to make an inventory of locally distinctive condition of the perpetuation and change and thus interdependence and dynamic. If we take a dynamic and positive view of ethnic linguistic and other forms of diversity as an invitation for people to interact, to celebrate and to learn from the differences rather than a passive acceptance of the fact that diversity simply exist, it can make an important contribution to the balanced development of linguistically plural society such as Manipur. The lessons drawn from this study reach far beyond the Manipuri context and may be applied to other multilingual societies across other diverse multilingual states.

This paper demonstrates that linguistic and cultural diversity, a characteristic feature of Manipur, is an important asset for sustainable development. Given the high level of current interest in ethnolinguistic issues in Manipur, it is hoped that this article will contribute to further policy developments which acknowledge that cultural and linguistic diversity enrich society. To conclude , as the article provides accounts of communities and geographical areas which need further serious attention in the study on language and education, it is believed that this article will contribute to the on-going debate on the ecology of language and its interconnectedness with education and lead to further critical reflection.

Notes

^{1,2}The Unesco Courier, April 2000

³Board of Secondary education,Manipur, 2009. Curriculum and Syllabus Volume1 ,For class 11th and 12th .

⁴Council of Higher Secondary School, Manipuri.2008.Curriculum and Syllabus Volume 2 Arts Commerce For classes 11th and 12th

⁵The author was a resource person in several workshops organized by Tribal Research Institute,Manipur

⁶ The Unesco Courier, January 1992 – P20.

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Job Satisfaction of Teachers at Secondary School Level

Saira Ijaz Ahmad, Ph.D. Scholar

Samina Malik, Ph.D.

Abstract

Teaching is a dignified, splendid, distinguished and noble profession. No doubt that the effectiveness and success in the teaching-learning process can be influenced by the satisfaction level of teachers.

This study investigates the satisfaction level of secondary school teachers in Pakistan. Two-hundred secondary school teachers were selected through stratified proportionate random sampling technique as the sample of the study.

A questionnaire consisting of seventeen questions was developed by the researchers. Data analysis was done by using SPSS version 15. Mean and t-test were used for this purpose. It was concluded that the teachers are not satisfied with their salaries, grades and promotion procedure but they feel satisfied with the job security and are satisfied that they have adopted a noble profession.

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Keywords: Job Satisfaction, Secondary School Teachers, noble profession, job security.

Introduction

Satisfaction in life plays a crucial role for a happy, blooming and successful life. Hartog and Oosterbeek (1998) concluded that highly educated people bear low level of overall satisfaction in life as compared to the people having intermediate level of education.

Job satisfaction is a combination of all the encouraging and/or inauspicious impressions of an employee about his/her works/job. Satisfied employees have optimistic, constructive and encouraging opinion and mind-set about their job (Rocca & Konstanski, 2001; Dessler, 2005).

Gary (1996) has highlighted two different features of job satisfaction “facet satisfaction and overall satisfaction”. Here facets include promotion, recognition, etc., and the overall job satisfaction is the computed degree of satisfaction obtained by the collection of different components.

Tsigilis et al., (2006) said that job satisfaction of employees helps to manipulate a variety of features about their work that may include competency and output.

Several factors play their role to generate satisfaction: salary, work places, leadership and management styles, promotion, and other colleagues (Williams and Sandler, 1995; DeVane and Sandy, 2003). Lise & Judge (2004) predict that accomplishment of organizational objectives largely depends on the contentment and satisfaction of their labor force. Saiyadain (1998) has reported that age, gender, qualification, income and job experience play a crucial role in the job satisfaction of workers.

Din, Zaman & Nawaz (2010) have conducted a research on academicians in the universities of Khyber Pakhtoonkha, Pakistan to assess the impact of demographic variables on their job-satisfaction and have observed that senior teachers are more satisfied as compared to the junior teachers. Academicians in private sector were seen to be more satisfied than the academicians of the public sector. Male teachers were more satisfied as compared to female teachers. Clark, 1997 reported that women have better and significantly higher degree of job satisfaction as compared to men.

Clark, Oswald and Warr (1996) reported that married workers have better job satisfaction as compared to unmarried workers. Ubom (2001) wrote that inducements such as pay and rewards have no effect upon teacher job satisfaction. Whawo (1993) states that inherent factors develop

higher level of needs among teachers. That gives teachers greater prospects, accountability, power to influence as well as make them self-sufficient.

The Focus of This Study

The main aim of the present study is to explore the level of job satisfaction among the teachers at the secondary school level in Pakistan.

Population and Sampling

All the teachers at the secondary school level in district Gujrat, Pakistan were considered as the population for the study. 200 teachers were selected from the entire population through stratified proportionate random sampling technique as the sample of the current study.

Tool of the Study and Pilot Study

A questionnaire consisting seventeen questions constructed on five point Likert scale (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Undecided, Agree, Strongly Agree) was developed by the researchers to test the degree of job satisfaction of teachers. Pilot testing was done on a small scale of population.

To check the validity of the tool, experts' opinion was sought out. Modifications and amendments were made according to their suggestions. The reliability of the research tool was checked with the help of Cronbach's Alpha on SPSS version 15.0. The Degree of reliability was 0.89.

After this, data was collected by the personal visit to the schools by the first mentioned researcher of this article.

With the completion of data collection, process data was coded as 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Undecided, 4= Agree and 5= Strongly Agree and a SPSS data sheet was prepared.

Data Analysis and Discussion

Table 1: Overall Analysis of Teachers' Job Satisfaction

Variables	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Salary satisfaction	200	1.81	1.468	.104

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Interested in doing Job with more income	200	3.79	1.303	.092
Satisfaction about physical facilities	200	1.95	1.219	.086
Job timings	200	3.60	1.134	.080
Job Security	200	3.57	1.007	.071
Grad Satisfaction	200	2.43	1.365	.097
Satisfaction about Promotion procedure	200	2.29	.990	.070
Good terms with Colleagues	200	2.96	1.414	.100
Behavior of Administration	200	1.68	.807	.057
Free Communication with Higher Authorities	200	1.75	.880	.062
Cooperation by the People Ready to Learn	200	3.40	1.070	.076
Social status within the group	200	3.26	1.521	.108
Satisfaction as Adopted a Noble Profession	200	3.83	3.100	.219
Feel Happy to introduce him/herself as a Teacher in Public Gathering	200	3.15	1.458	.103
Joined This Profession because you Love the profession	200	3.28	1.464	.103
Do Justice with the profession	200	4.24	.595	.042*
Love for professional development	200	2.73	1.418	.100

*p<.05

Table 1 shows the analysis of teachers' job satisfaction under certain variables. The results showed that teachers are not satisfied with their salary status, grades, and facilities available at work places, promotion procedure and behavior of administration. They claim that they do not

feel easy to communicate with the higher authorities. They are interested in getting some other job with higher income. They, however, feel that they have job security and are satisfied with their work schedules. Teachers remained undecided about certain variables such as social status within the group, introduction as a teacher in public gathering. They state that they joined the profession because they love to be teachers.

Table 2: Gender Based Analysis of Teachers' Job Satisfaction

Variables	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t. value	p. value
Salary Satisfaction	Male	100	1.92	1.390	-3.202	.112
	Female	100	2.47	1.479		
Interested in doing Job with more income	Male	100	3.64	1.375	-1.580	.116
	Female	100	3.93	1.217		
Satisfaction about physical facilities	Male	100	2.01	1.275	.695	.488
	Female	100	1.89	1.163		
Job timings	Male	100	3.36	1.159	-3.054	.003**
	Female	100	3.84	1.061		
Job Security	Male	100	3.43	1.018	-.491	.624
	Female	100	3.49	1.000		
Grad Satisfaction	Male	100	2.30	1.040	-1.297	.196
	Female	100	2.45	1.623		
Promotion Satisfaction	Male	100	2.12	.795	-2.458	.015*
	Female	100	2.46	1.132		
Terms with Colleagues	Male	100	2.82	1.410	-1.404	.162
	Female	100	3.10	1.411		
Behavior of Administration	Male	100	1.70	.823	.350	.727
	Female	100	1.66	.794		

Free communication with Authorities	Male	100	1.81	.950	1.045	.297
	Female	100	1.68	.803		
Cooperation by the people ready to learn	Male	100	3.30	1.078	-1.324	.187
	Female	100	3.50	1.059		
Social status within the group	Male	100	2.59	1.450	-6.925	.0001***
	Female	100	3.93	1.281		
Satisfaction as adopted a noble profession	Male	100	3.86	.853	.159	.874
	Female	100	3.79	4.312		
Feel happy to Introduce as a teacher	Male	100	2.94	1.340	-2.004	.046*
	Female	100	3.35	1.546		
Joined because Love the profession	Male	100	3.06	1.462	2.145	.033*
	Female	100	3.50	1.439		
Justice with the profession	Male	100	4.26	.597	.474	.636
	Female	100	4.22	.596		
Love for professional development	Male	100	2.78	1.418	.548	.584
	Female	100	2.67	1.433		

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Table 2 shows gender based analysis of the variables of job satisfaction of the teachers. Results show that females are more satisfied with the job timings, more cooperative with the people, ready to learn, more satisfied with their social status within the group as compared to the male teachers and they claim that they have joined the profession because they love the profession. Other than these, there is no significant difference observed in the opinions of male and female teachers.

Table 3: Analysis of Teachers' Job Satisfaction Based upon Marital Status

Variables	Marital Status	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t. value	p. value
Salary Satisfaction	Married	106	2.15	1.459	-0.961	.337
	Unmarried	94	2.35	1.479		
Interested in doing Job with more	Married	106	3.71	1.359	-0.892	.373

income	Unmarried	94	3.87	1.238		
Satisfaction about physical facilities	Married	106	1.88	1.160	-.895	.372
	Unmarried	94	2.03	1.282		
Job timings	Married	106	3.46	1.148	-1.835	.068*
	Unmarried	94	3.76	1.104		
Job Security	Married	106	3.45	1.043	-.181	.856
	Unmarried	94	3.48	.970		
Grade Satisfaction	Married	106	2.48	1.382	.824	.411
	Unmarried	94	2.34	1.348		
Promotion Satisfaction	Married	106	2.25	.964	-.677	.499
	Unmarried	94	2.34	1.022		
Terms with Colleagues	Married	106	2.99	1.464	.324	.746
	Unmarried	94	2.93	1.362		
Behavior of Administration	Married	106	1.66	.827	-.364	.716
	Unmarried	94	1.70	.787		
Free communication with Authorities	Married	106	1.81	.906	1.133	.259
	Unmarried	94	1.67	.847		
Cooperation by the people ready to learn	Married	106	3.39	1.065	-.185	.854
	Unmarried	94	3.41	1.082		
Social status within the group	Married	106	3.07	1.520	-1.928	.055
	Unmarried	94	3.48	1.501		
Satisfaction as adopted a noble profession	Married	106	3.99	4.148	.801	.424
	Unmarried	94	3.64	1.148		
feel happy to Introduce as a teacher	Married	106	3.14	1.463	-.036	.971
		94	3.15	1.459		
joined because Love the profession	Married	106	3.42	1.407	1.487	.138
	Unmarried	94	3.12	1.516		

Justice with the profession	Married	106	4.24	.561	-.104	.917
	Unmarried	94	4.24	.634		
Love for professional development	Married	106	2.85	1.399	1.317	.189
	Unmarried	94	2.59	1.432		

*p<.05

Table 3 shows the analysis of the variables of job satisfaction of teachers relating to their marital status (married and unmarried). Unmarried teachers claimed more satisfaction about job timings. Other than that, no significant difference was observed between married and unmarried teachers.

Conclusions

Following were the conclusions based on data analysis.

1. Teachers are not satisfied with their salary status.
2. Teachers are not satisfied with their grades and physical facilities available to them at work places.
3. Teachers feel that the procedure of their promotion is not smooth.
4. Teachers are not satisfied with the behavior of higher administration and they claim that they do not feel easy to communicate with the higher authorities on the affairs related to their job.
5. Teachers are interested to do some other job which will bring higher income.
6. Majority of the teachers feel job security and are satisfied with their schedule of working hours.
7. They are satisfied that they are doing justice to their profession and they feel good and satisfied that they have adopted teaching profession.
8. Teachers remained unsure about certain variables such as their social standing within the group, and introduction as a teacher in public gathering. They love to be teachers, seek professional development and cooperate with the attitude of willingness to learn.
9. Female teachers are more satisfied with the job timings, show more cooperation with the people, ready to learn, more satisfied with their social status within the group as compared to the male teachers and claimed that they have joined the profession because they love the profession.
10. Unmarried teachers are more satisfied with their job timings as compared to married teachers.

Recommendations

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Job Satisfaction of Teachers at Secondary School Level

The salary and pay grades of secondary school teachers should be revised. The procedure of in-service promotion of teachers should be smooth and transparent and the higher administration should maintain constructive, positive and practical relationship with the teachers and must involve them in the affairs related to their jobs.

By implementing these suggestions it would be possible to improve the satisfaction level and the morale of the teachers to make them more effective and good teachers in the field.

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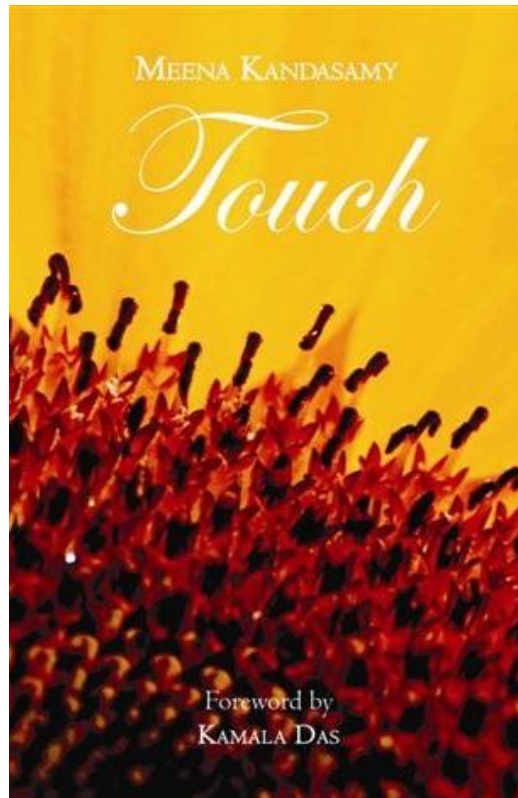
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Meena Kandasamy's *Touch*: The Aggression of Suppression

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Meena Kandasamy and Her Works

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Raji Narasimhan, M.Phil.

Meena Kandasamy's *Touch*: The Aggression of Suppression

Meena Kandasamy hails from Chennai, Tamil Nadu. A creative writer, poet, translator and activist, she is the angry voice of the oppressed. She says in an interview in iDiva of her lineage: “I come from a very mixed background—almost four different backward castes including a Dalit” (Kandasamy iDiva).

Born in 1984, Kandasamy published her debut poetry collection *Touch* in August 2006. Her second collection of poetry *Ms Militancy* was published in December 2010, and her collection of short stories *Black Magic* is awaiting publication. She is working on her debut novel *The Gypsy Goddess*.

Apart from creative writing, Kandasamy has translated the essays of the political leader of the Dalit Panthers: Thol. Thirumavalavan in *Talisman: Extreme Emotions of Dalit Liberation* (2003) and his speeches in *Uproot Hindutva: The Fiery Voice of Liberation Panthers* (2004). She has translated works of Kasi Anandan, a poet Laureate of Tamil Eelam and Essays of Periyar E.V. Ramasamy.

Kandasamy has written many essays on the drudgery of casteism and its consequences. Of all her works, her poetry speaks the loudest and is filled with fire as it brings out the anger in the hearts of the downtrodden communities.

On Defining Dalit Literature

‘Dalit literature’ is uniquely Indian as it is a byproduct of an evil caste system that existed for many years in this country. Although the constitution of India has abolished the caste system, it still lingers in many walk of life with its grasps as firm as ever on the minds of its people. It may be compared with the slavery in America and apartheid in Africa. The literature that arises as an outburst against casteism is Dalit literature. Meena Kandasamy’s writing comes from these margins of the caste code dictated for many centuries. She uses her voice not only to expose the atrocities faced by the dalits, but also to represent the anger that boils within them as a reaction to these prejudices.

Greater Reach of Meena’s Poems

Although Kandasamy advocates for the Dalits, her poetry does not stop there but includes love poems, poems championing the social rights of women and even those that depict daily occurrences with a power to evoke the emotions the poet demands. She depicts both the subjugation by caste and gender - a double bondage that the dalit women are forced to face. In an interview with Ujjwal Jana of the West Bengal State University, Kandasamy talks about her poetry and the autobiographical elements in it:

Yes, my writing is very, very autobiographical. It stems out of who I am, and what happened to me. I am extremely conscious of the fact that I am a woman and that I am a feminist. I hate the fact that I am made of four or more castes clamouring to be claimed; but I know I am casteless... (Jana)

***Touch* – A Collection of Eighty Poems**

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Meena Kandasamy’s *Touch*: The Aggression of Suppression

Touch is a collection of eighty four poems divided into seven categories: *Bring him up to worship you*, *Touch*, *Add some spice*, *To that more congenial spot*, *Lines of control*, *Slander in a slaughterhouse*, and *Their daughters*. Kamala Das has written the foreword to *Touch*, in which she has high praise for Kandasamy:

Older by nearly half a century, I acknowledge the superiority of her poetic vision and wish her access to the magical brew of bliss and tears each true poet is forced to partake of, day after day, month after month, year after year . . . (Kandasamy *Touch*7)

Kamala Das acknowledges “the power of honest poetry” in Kandasamy’s work, also saying that “Revelations come to her frequently and prophecies linger at her lips” (Kandasamy *Touch* 7). It is high praise for a poet to be acknowledged so by a legend.

Anger in Words

On reading Kandasamy’s poetry, the anger that flashes in her words is very evident. The second part of her poetry collection *Touch* is of the same name, as is the first poem. She dedicates this part of *Touch* to address dalit issues. Other themes of her poetry include discrimination against women, religious beliefs, superstition and political intrusions among others. Each poem in her collection tells us a new tale of woe and worry of dalits and women. This paper intends to bring out the themes of Dalit suffering and the reactions that it evokes in them as portrayed in Meena Kandasamy’s poems.

The poet unleashes her words to harness the power of language and boils it down to the bare facts that tell aloud the tales of many silences. In her poem *Touch*, she addresses the basic sense of touch and the pleasures that it is associated with. To any person who has not been subjugated by discrimination, the sense of touch only brings pleasure. Kandasamy contrasts these pleasant feelings to the harsh reality faced by dalits, purely from the very same sense organ, the skin- “Amidst all that pervading emptiness, / touch retained its sensuality. / *You will have known this.*”(19-21).

Race prejudices and the colour of the skin are juxtaposed with pleasant association of the skin in *Touch*:

... Or, you may recollect how
a gentle touch, a caress changed your life
multifold, and you were never the person
you should have been. Feeling with your skin,
was perhaps the first of the senses,
its reality always remained with you—
You never got rid of it.

You will have known this.
You will have known almost
every knowledgeable thing about
the charms and the temptations
that touch could hold.

But, you will never have known

that touch—the taboo
to your transcendence,
when crystallized in caste
was a paraphernalia of
undeserving hate. (24-41)

Contrasting Emotions

The poet uses the contrasting emotions of love and hatred repeatedly to bring out the differences in life experiences of the oppressor and the oppressed. Through such differentiation the writer highlights the chasm that exists between the perceptions of the dalit and that of the caste-Hindu. In the poem *Last love letter*, the poet brings out the paradox of love in death rather than love in life. She writes:

. . . Our passionate love,
Once transcended caste.
Let it now
Transcend mortality . . .
Fear not beloved,
In Love—
Life is not compulsory.
Let us leave it to cold Death,
Cruelly, He shall
Perfect our Love.
Preserve it for Eternity. . . (1-11)

Caste and Death

The difference of perspective is highlighted once more, where it is only in death that love can be perfected. The comparison is drawn between Caste and Death. It appears as if love transcends caste is a mightier deed than that love that transcends death. Sarcasm is her weapon here. The poem brings to mind the various honour killings that have tried to catch the attention of the country. In an interview with Times of India, Kandasamy asserts that not allowing a woman to choose her partner is a kind of suppression. “If the system does not allow a woman to marry a man because he is from another caste, like honour killings for instance, is it not a direct oppression of her sexuality?” (Kandasamy). In *We will rebuild worlds* she asks of the upper castes:

but the crimes of passion/
our passion/ your crimes
poured poison and pesticide through the ears-nose-mouth/
or hanged them in public/ because a man and a woman
dared to love
and you wanted/ to teach/ other boys and other girls/ the
lessons of/ how to/ whom to/ when to/ where to/ continue
their caste lines (16-23)

In one of her love poems, *Love and War*, Kandasamy establishes the permanence of love

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against the end that awaits every war. It also pushes the reader to think about the end of the war on casteism.

Remembering Ekalaivan (Ekalavya)

The oppression of the dalits from time immemorial is brought out in Kandasamy's poetry. She touches upon Hindu mythology in *Ekalaivan*, where she draws the readers' attention to the discrimination meted out to Ekalavya in the Mahabharata where Dhronacharya refuses to train the man since he belonged to the lower caste rather than the Kshatrias :

You can do a lot of things
With your left hand.
Besides, fascist Dronacharyas warrant
Left-handed treatment.
Also,
You don't need your right thumb,
To pull a trigger or hurl a bomb. (2-8)

Strength of Spirit and Rage

Her portrayal of the oppressed caste is one of strength of spirit and rage. Unlike that of many dalit writings where the protagonists are helpless victims, Kandasamy uses anger as her vehicle to portray the feeling of the dalit. The opening lines of her essay *We can only look forward...* reads "I write about the future of caste with the determination and the desperation of a suicide bomber who has been handpicked to assassinate that monster."

To Meena, caste is the villain and the writer who advocates against this crime is the hero of her poems. Her poetry is counter terrorism, against the atrocities of the caste system. Her poems often rise from true episodes of caste struggle. *Liquid Tragedy: Karamchedu 1985* is a poem that recapitulates the Karamchedu event of 17th July 1985, where a Madiga (lower caste) woman protested against bathing buffaloes in their drinking water pond. The kammās (upper caste) were angered by the audacity of the Madiga woman to raise questions and led to the killing of six Madiga men and the rape of three Madiga women. In his book *Class, Caste, Gender*, Manoranjan Mohanty gives a detailed description of the incident. He says that "... the Madigas of the village, who were known to be normally unimaginative, unassertive and resigned to their fate and karma, exhibited a collective consciousness and en masse left the village ..." (239) *Liquid tragedy: Karamchedu 1985* is a hieroglyphic poem shaped like a pot:

Buffalo Baths. Urine. Bullshit
Drinking Water for the Dalits
The very same Pond.
Practice for eons.
A bold Dalit lady
dares to question injustice.
Hits forth with her pot. Her indignation
is avenged. Fury let loose. Violence. Rapes.
Killings. Self-seeking politicians shamelessly

consult History—"If there was a way out then,
there shall be a way out now." Succor arrives with
Esteemed Father of our Nation. His Samaadhi speaks:
If Harijans don't get water in this village, let them
set on a sojourn elsewhere. The rotten example
is obeyed. Casting behind cruel memories
Dalits exit—weary of the persecution
And wander all over the nation.
Again, a Dalit Exodus.
Total Surrender.

Visual Poetry

The shape of the poem is symbolic of the pot that held the drinking water for the dalits, which the woman used to hit, this poem is like the same pot that hits forth at the world for its discrimination. Poetry is the writer's tool to bring to light many such incidents as the Karamchedu event to break the 'Brahminical idiom'.

In Resonance with Other Fighter-Poets

The poem *Fire* resonates with the poem by Boyi Bheemanna, *Gudiselu Kalipothunai (The Huts are Burning)* (1973) He writes:

The huts are burning
Oh! Burning!
Whose huts are they; it is a pity,
Perhaps, they are of Malas and Madigas
Who else have the huts? (Bharathi 70)

Kandasamy's *Fire* rings with similar words "Our huts are burning-" (*Touch 7*)... "Fire engines arrive / deliberately late." (5-16). It is once more the reflection of the injustices, which are a daily occurrence in society. Incidents as recent as the Ankhalli village incident, where upper caste people burned two huts belonging to dalits on the 3rd September 2010 (Hindu) are represented in *Fire*. It is notable that crimes against dalits in the 1970s are not so different from that of those in 2010. This serves to question the progress of India and its constitution.

On Brahmin Supremacy

Kandasamy's poetry wrecks havoc on the idea of Brahmin supremacy. Not only does she dismiss any such notion but digs into the roots of religion to uproot such belief by questioning the Hindu persuasion and ideology.

In *Advaita: the ultimate question*, she begins by bringing out the binaries in religion and draws out an equation, which contradicts itself:

Advaita: The ultimate question

Non	Dualism
Atman	Self
Brahman	God
Are	Equal
And	Same.
So	I
Untouchable	Outcast
Am	God.
Will	You
Ever	Agree?
No	Matter
What	You
Preach,	Answer
Me.	Through
Your	Saints.
One	More
Final	Question
Can	My
Untouchable	Atman
And	Your
Brahmin	Atman
Ever	Be

One
?

(Touch 37)

The poem is simply one sentence, but it is the spatial treatment that adds the effect to it. The poet questions the idea of advaita or non-dualism where the Atman and self are one. The equation extended to a dalit shows that God and dalit are one. The poem brings out that this seems to be a more acceptable equation than one that states that Brahmin and untouchable are one according to a caste-Hindu; such is the oppression of caste.

Serpent in the Paradise

In *Another paradise lost: The Hindu way* she brings out the questions of caste once more in the words of a serpent:

...I wanted to know why

caste was there, why people suffered because of their karmas. I questioned the Gods, and the learned sages there. I asked them what would happen if an high-born did manual work just like the low-born.

I worried about the division of labor, this disparity in dreams and destinies. You could say I was a rebel pleading for liberty-equality-fraternity. I had a riotous history of revolution. The Gods plotted against me,

decided that I was trouble...(56-65).

Attack on Binaries

Kandasamy uses powerful words that may be provocative to many. Her poetry is her hand grenade that targets binaries such as oppressor and the oppressed; god and man; privileged and the deprived; man and woman; strong and weak. It is also her tool to deconstruct these binaries in her own terms. Her fearlessness in opposing established ideology is realized in *Maariamamma*. Maariamamma is considered a non-vedic goddess who is worshipped by all castes. Kandasamy refers to gods of caste-hindus as “upper caste Gods / and their 'good-girl' much-married, father-fucked, / virgin, vegetarian oh-so-pure Goddesses” while she entreats “Maari” saying “Maari, our girl, / when did you join their gang?”(14-15). The cynicism and sarcasm of the poem bring out the division of caste even in heaven. She points out that caste is a very stubborn stain on humanity that will never be erased.

Casteism in Heaven

Many of her poems bring out the spill of casteism in heaven as well. She points at the Gods in heaven to indicate that they are no less to blame for these atrocities. The last few lines of *Fire* bear evidence to her accusations. She says in her poem, that the burning huts cause its inhabitants (dalits) to wail, and the echo of this wail reaches heaven, only to sound like “as snail shells crackling under nailed boots”(23) to which the Gods turn a deaf ear. This is a “double tragedy” to which she says “No response. / Those above are (mostly): / indifferent bastards.”(27-29). She talks about the commercial elements in religion in *For sale* “Priest with ash and holy smoke /come to him, give extra blesses for / a cool crisp fifty my bud gives.” (12-14).

Ultimately questioning the price of religion “Say, ya, how much da "Luxmee" cost?”(19). She raises the questions regarding the role of faith and gods in casteism in the poem *Prayer* “Where did this poor man's sixty-five-year-old soul go? / To Heaven—to join noble martyrs who died for a cause? / Or to Hell—where the Gods reside, making Caste Laws?”(27-29).

Gender Issues on the Earth

Apart from banging on the door of heaven, Kandasamy also addresses gender issues. Double marginalization of the dalit women is a recurrent theme in her poems. In her essay *Menstruating Goddess* she pushes for equal treatment of women in temples. The physical and sexual abuse they are subjected to are brought to light in *Narration*:

I'll weep to you about
My landlord, and with
My mature gestures—
You will understand:
The torn sari, disheveled hair
Stifled cries and meek submission.
I was not an untouchable then. (1-7)

It was believed for many years that dalit women “had weak sexual morals” (Ilaiyah 241) and this was used to cover up many cases of rape and abuse. The banner of untouchability was temporarily discarded for the convenience of the caste-Hindus. *Narration* brings out these atrocities “The priest, his lecherous eyes, / Glances that disrobed, defiled. / *I was not polluting at your feet.*”(12-14) Not only is the dalit women subjected to atrocities from caste-hindus but also from her own dalit men. She thus falls in the lowest strata of the social order: “How can I say / Anything, anything / Against my own man? / *How?*”(15-18). The plight of such abused women is portrayed once more in *Shame*, “Dalit Girl Raped” / is much too commonplace./ Humiliation gnaws / the sixteen year old.”(10-13).

As Ilaiyah acknowledges, the perpetrators rarely get penalized, as they deserve to be. “In no single case was the punishment for such an offence death” (241), the offence mentioned was the rape of three women and the brutal murder of six men in the village of Karamchedu in 1985. Kandasamy depicts these atrocities against dalits in *Shame* “But, the criminals have / already mainstreamed— / Their Caste is a classic shield.”(7-9). In an interview in the Hindu, Kandasamy gives her view on man-woman relationship, “...the man-woman relationship is not something that is easily negotiated.” (Jeyan). In the poem *We will rebuild worlds* she questions “*India, what is the caste of sperm? / India, what is the cost of life?*”(74).

The numerous incidents of witch-hunts in India, where mostly dalit and Adivasi women are accused of practicing sorcery and brutally murdered are addressed in her poems. When women find it in them to stand up against the patriarchal domination in the society and demand their fair share of property or demand the respect they rightfully deserve, they are branded as witches. In an essay *Dangerous Dalit Women and Witch-Hunters*, published in Ultra violet, Kandasamy gives a detailed view on the alleged ‘witches’ and the reason for terming them so:

The helpless ‘witches’ are hounded and punished by being stripped naked, paraded around the villages, their hair is burnt off or their heads tonsured, their faces blackened, their noses cut off, their teeth pulled out (they are supposedly defanged) so that they can no longer curse, they are whipped, they are branded, sometimes, they are forced to eat human faeces and finally, they are put to death (here again the Indian imagination takes over: the victim is hanged, impaled, hacked, lynched or buried alive). And you have got it all wrong if you assumed that such stomach-churning, toe-curling torture is done in dingy, shadowy places: vast, open village lands come in particularly handy as favoured locations, and the cheering crowd can fill a modest stadium. (Kandasamy).

Fancy Yourself Being a Witch

Meena gives many names and dates to substantiate her statements. The poem *Hymns of a Hag* gives a depiction of what these women were accused of with sarcasm and a daring attitude that is typical of Kandasamy, professing to right the wrongs done to the dalits. “I fancy myself being a witch./ Broomstick borne and black as pitch.”(1-2). In the form of couplets, it is a satire on the suppressive nature of casteism and the longing to break free of it. “Haunting oppressors to shave their heads. / Cutting all their holy threads.”(11-12).

A Balanced Use of Poetic Language

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Raji Narasimhan, M.Phil.

Meena Kandasamy’s *Touch: The Aggression of Suppression*

The poetry of Meena Kandasamy is loud, and although it seems to read like prose in many instances, there is a definite rhythm with which it moves. The provocative style that she uses may not please all her readers but it will surely get them to pay attention to her. She acknowledges that she is often called “extremely polemic” (Jana) and that she uses her pen as her sword to fight the monster that is Caste. She is brave enough to speak her mind. In her poem *Mohandas Karamchand*, she gives her take on Mahatma Gandhi “You knew, you bloody well knew, / Caste won't go, they wouldn't let it go.”(21-22).

Angry Young Poet

Meena Kandasamy is called the angry young woman; her anger is evident in her poem like a “spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings” that ebbs out of the injustice that she witnesses all around her in the name of caste. In *Their daughter*, she writes:

Young wife near my father's home, with a drunken husband
Who never changed; she bore his daily beatings until on one
Stormy night, in fury, she killed him by stomping his seedbags. . .
We: their daughters.
We: the daughters of their soil.
We, mostly, write. (14-19)

Her poetry is her weapon on the ills of society. Apart from her purpose of writing, *Touch* brings out clearly that Kandasamy is a poet, who has a way with words that pounce on the reader and affects them with raw emotions. The form of her poems are varied to include spatial poetry, hieroglyphic poetry, free verse, couplets, commentary and many other literary techniques that enhance the flavour of her poetry. The genre she has chosen for her messages allows her to transfer the content without diluting it. The imagery in her poetry is vivid. One need not agree with all that Kandasamy says to enjoy her poetry, but it is notable that she has a way of roping in her readers in a convincing way. *Touch* is a sharp and clear reflection on society.

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ELS for NNS in Mathematics Teaching-Learning Process at Tertiary Levels – ELS Instructor's Perspectives – A Study from West Indies

Sanjeeva Lakshmi Kola, Ph.D. Candidate

Sreedhara Rao Gunakala, Ph.D.



Abstract

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Sanjeeva Lakshmi Kola, Ph.D. Candidate and Sreedhara Rao Gunakala, Ph.D.

ELS for NNS in Mathematics Teaching-Learning Process at Tertiary Levels – ELS Instructor's Perspectives

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In this paper, the focus is on the need and minimum requirement of English Language Skills for both Mathematics Instructors and students who hail from Non-Native Speaking countries and are actively involved in mathematics teaching-learning process at tertiary levels.

Several studies have been made in this regard. All the findings show that the lack of resources to provide intensive training for students and teachers in the use of specifically Mathematical English results in poor performance. Further, there were few language-based materials or activities in mathematics classrooms, and fewer opportunities for language arts teachers to become involved in educating these students and teachers. Cooperation between Language Instructors and Content Instructors (Mathematics Instructors) will help implement strategies for increasing teacher-student and student-student interaction in the classroom.

This study reveals the importance of the communication skills in acquiring concepts. In addition, Mathematics Instructors can and must make every effort to reach out to these students to create a class that is both positive and rewarding.

Key Words

Mathematical English, Content Instructor, Socratic Method, Language Sensitivity, Language switching.

Introduction

In this interdependent Global Village of our times, we need the ability to function in more than one language. A person is received well when his/her communication skills show common sense, experience and research. Communication skills range from active communication skill of speaking to passive communication skill of listening including creative communication skills of writing. In addition, it has become a reality that proficiency in only one language is not enough for economic, social and educational success.

Language Skills and Learning of Subjects

Language skills are regarded as an instrument of communication to present a certain field of variations depending on numerous contextual aspects, focusing on the role of the speaker and listener.

These skills are conditioned by many factors such as time, place and subject matter of what is being transmitted from the addressor (speaker) to the addressee (listener) in a particular situation. The context could be academic such as a class room or some public talk like in social awareness programmes.

Teaching and Learning Mathematics

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Within the academic context, it is obvious that lack of proficiency in the language skills has harmful effects on the teaching-learning process and thereby such a lack greatly affects students' ability in moulding their own future. These arguments are valid even to the teaching and learning of mathematics tertiary levels in NNS countries where medium of instruction is English.

In ordinary situations, we express our thoughts by outward figures, and thereby mark the objects of ideas, their properties and relations. In like manner, mathematicians have adopted figures to mark different quantities to express their properties and relations. We read mathematically, when we represent by our thoughts through linguistic signs in words. We speak mathematically, when we make use of other types of signs in the investigations and demonstration of theorems and in the solutions of problems, thereby fixing the principles and rules for learning this science, and succeed in absorbing and using concepts as efficiently as possible.

Mathematics in Curriculum and Classrooms

Mathematics is about *ideas*. The Greek word *mathemas*, from which we derive the word *mathematics*. Mathematics embodies the notions of knowledge, cognition, understanding, and perception. The mathematics learned in college will include concepts which cannot be expressed using just equations and formulas. If a mathematics teacher or learner wants to understand and contribute to the greater body of mathematical knowledge, she/he must be able to communicate ideas in a way which is comprehensible to others.

Mathematics at the Undergraduate Level

In general, undergraduate students, during the course of bachelor programmes in their first year classes, are required to pass an English course exam in NNS countries. It is a fact that most students come from secondary schools where General English is taught and there is little space for introducing technical terminology in English in this course. These students with limited exposure to mathematical concepts and signs in English need opportunities to develop their English Language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing in the context of mathematics they will now be learning at the undergraduate level. Moreover, bilinguals usually think about mathematical operations in the language through which they were first taught these operations. Thus, we notice a disconnect between the achievement of General English class at the secondary school level and the requirements of mathematics teaching and learning at the undergraduate level. This disconnect introduces delay in fully understanding and mastering the concepts taught in the undergraduate level.

Delay in Mastering the Language of Mathematics

Delay caused by language switching may be the main impediment in the teaching and learning process of mathematics class. During the lecture in the mathematics class which introduces the description and operations of mathematical elements, students listen to the “speaking language”

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of the instructor and they need to translate and transfer the same content to their “thinking language”. Students in NNS countries usually receive and think about mathematical operations in their local tongue. A simple example is as follow:

If the instructor wants to explain "1.5 less than x", there may occur some pronunciation hazards, whereas, the same once written on the blackboard showing the symbol "<", then automatically students would identify what the instructor wants to explain in spite of the pronunciation problems.

In everyday English “any” is an ambiguous word; depending on context this word may hint at an existential quantifier or universal one. However, ‘any’ in mathematical communication could be replaced better by ‘each’ or ‘every’. When a mathematics instructor gives his or her oral description in the class, he or she may use ‘any’ several times. They may also use similar word and phrases taken from the ordinary language of the context outside the classroom. Such uses naturally creates confusing images and meanings in the minds of students and they may be automatically and unconsciously lost in rethinking and rejoining the relevant solutions in English. However, if the students are trained step by step in the type of language mathematical descriptions use, they may overcome such disjoints and pay less attention to translating word to word in comprehending and using information presented to them.

Content Literacy

Content literacy is very important to master language use in every scientific field. Richard Vacca (2002, p.7) defines content literacy as follows:

Content literacy is often defined as the level of reading and writing skill that learners need in an academic subject to comprehend and respond to ideas in text used for instructional purposes.

Non-native speakers of English may have a good knowledge of vocabulary and grammatical structures but still they may find it hard to manage their lessons in classroom situations especially in Mathematics teaching-learning process. For instance, a student may be well aware of the general structure of past tense of a sentence. When the same is used in solving a problem the student might get confused as less attention is paid to syntax, etc., in the spoken language of the instructor. Among other reasons, this happens because the instructor may focus more on the concepts and their relations in their presentations than on ordinary language use. Attention is expected only on the methods applicable to solve the problem given in such situations. Teachers and students may not have good control over traditional grammar rules, but their focus is on teaching and learning the mathematical elements and their relations. In other words, unconscious “language switching” takes place in the classroom.

English for Everyday Living and English for Critical Learning

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In NNS countries, just as elsewhere in most nations, learning English for everyday living and interpersonal communication differs from the mastery and use of formal and academic English. Moreover, expressing mathematical ideas is a difficult linguistic task, even for the native-born speaker of the English language.

Most of the time the algorithms used in Primary schools and Secondary schools have had their own mixing of pronunciations of the teacher's influence. From the Mathematics Instructor's point of view teaching mathematics at any level requires a high standard of proficiency with language, either the regional or the international working languages. It is an admitted fact and practice that the instructor must be able to understand pupils' doubts and questions and answer these in the common ordinary language (English spoken outside the classroom). In this, the accent and pronunciation play their own role in bridging the gap between instructor and student relationship.

The essential requirement is that the teacher needs to know the grammatical conventions and vocabulary of mathematical English as well as the informal English used by pupils. Students need to hear how their teachers use language for reflecting, reasoning and explaining.

Marie D'Arcangelo (2002, p.12) suggests:

Good Teachers realize that a major part of teaching is helping students understand themselves as learners and helping them begin to think like professionals in whatever discipline they are studying.

Mathematics Teaching, Learning at the Tertiary Level and Socratic Method

At tertiary levels the problem arises for the mathematics instructors whose first language is not English, and so oral communication in the classroom may be difficult. One of the ways that this problem can be overcome is through the adoption of Socratic Method in teaching and learning. Rational thinking and writing are now called for more than ever because of the complexity of content and the complexity of tools to be used. Socratic Method helps stimulate critical thinking skills. Hypothesis elimination is an important feature of this method.

Teachers' teaching should be so formulated as to increase critical thinking skills. Teachers should pose the questions at the right time and get their students really think and respond. Hypothesis formulation and elimination within the classroom should become a regular feature of the teaching method. Through graded examples, students get to know and master the method. While in the process they also acquire the specialist language and thinking needed for mathematics. The instructors need to present straightforward explanations which are proved to be often complex in mathematics classrooms. Further, carefully constructed language patterns are required to discuss the relationships between subject content and the language used by the instructors.

The universal truth is “Expressing Mathematical ideas is a difficult linguistic task, even for the native-born speaker”. However, the good news is that this difficult task can be achieved, given suitable changes in the curriculum and methods of teaching.

Conclusions

It is known that there are disadvantages for English as an Additional Language students in leaning in classrooms where English is the language of instruction. Elder (1993) and Graham(1987) estimate that the variability in academic performance due to English Language ability is up to 10 percent for university students, and that it is higher for humanities and Social Sciences subjects in comparison with Mathematics or Science subjects. However, Borton and Neville-Barton (2003) suggests that the disadvantage due to language may be just as high in mathematics as in other subjects.

To overcome this communication barrier, first of all, encourage teachers to develop as critical professionals reflecting on their practice, in particular, with respect to language issues in their classrooms. Both, teachers and students, should have clear understanding of how linguistic diversity affects their learning. Projects may be undertaken to examine the impact and nature of language factors in the learning of mathematics for English as an Additional Language students. Designing language support programmes and encouraging teachers with an interest in language and mathematics, based on researching the issues like the interaction of English language skills to Mathematics students at all levels, will be very helpful.

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Cross Cultural Fertilization - The Influence of Modernism on Indian Poetry in English

Sanjit Mishra, Ph.D. and Nagendra Kumar, Ph.D.

Emergence of New Literature in Post-colonial Era – In Search of New Idiom

Towards the end of Second World War and the decline of colonialism in Afro-Asian countries, there was an upsurge of new literature in English in the erstwhile British colonies of the world. These new literatures were typically characterized by the postcolonial tenets.

In the Indian context, it is important to note that the new poets have always been desperate in their search for an idiom which could be distinctly designated as Indian. However, a close study of these poets reveals that their poetry was greatly inspired by the Western poets. In fact, this cross-cultural fertilisation was fruitful in so many ways.

The present paper intends to highlight these western influences on the poetry of Nissim Ezekiel and Jayant Mahapatra, the two representatives of Modern Indian Poetry in English.

The Emergence of Modern Poetry in England

The modernistic poetry in England was one such influence on the writing of these poets which needs to be discussed here. On account of rising industrialisation, the entire Europe was under the grip of urbanisation and the attendant miseries of such progress were very obvious in different forms. The growing materialism left no room for human values necessary for a peaceful existence of humanity which ultimately pushed the entire world towards the two Great World Wars causing unprecedented loss of life. Apart from this, the upcoming scientific and technological developments made the life still more complex. The Existentialist thinkers were constrained to declare the meaninglessness of life. G S Fraser defines modernism as “an imaginative awareness of the stress of the social change” (Fraser 1970).

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Sanjit Mishra, Ph.D. and Nagendra Kumar, Ph.D.

Cross Cultural Fertilization - The Influence of Modernism on Indian Poetry in English

To quote R J Quinones (1985):

As a literary movement and broad cultural force, Modernism has made its mark and has its impact. It has entered into history and needs now to be discussed with the same comprehensive scope and yet with the same historical imagination that we might muster in discussing the Renaissance or Romanticism. Certainly the time is long past when distinguished literary historian (who here shall be nameless) could refer to the use of the term 'modernism' as pretentious. Modernism has become, in that celebrated Modernist Phrase, a 'climate of opinion', and now permeates the everyday life and common patois of time, it being with us when we knew it not.

Modernism in India

Modernism as a literary movement and cultural force came to India only after the Indian Independence much after it brought a change the west and perhaps paved the way for post-modernism (Das 1992).

While discarding the poetry of earlier generation of poets like Aurobindo and Sarojini Naidu for their vague poeticism and ideals, P. Lal observes that that poetry must deal in concrete terms with concrete experience. The experience may be intellectual or emotional or historical-tragical-pastoral-comical, but it must be precise and lucidly and tangibly expressed. Lal further adds that it is better to suggest a sky by referring to a circling eagle in it than to say simply 'the wide and open sky'. (Amanuddin 1981)

Modernistic Sensibility in Select Poets in India

The typical Modernistic sensibility gets a vivid reflection in the poetry of T S Eliot, W B Yeats, Ezra Pound W. H. Auden and Philip Larkin, among others. However, the present paper attempts to show the influence these poets on the Indian poets like Ezekiel and Mahapatra.

Talking about the various influences, Ezekiel admits that some of his early poetry was influenced by Rilke. However, after finding himself unable to assimilate this influence, he eventually discarded it. Ezekiel does not hesitate in accepting that he had imitated Eliot, Pound, Yeats and others, albeit partially, and feels that these random and temporary influences had often muffled and confused his essential voice. In an interview with Suresh Kohli, Ezekiel shares his view that these influences were not always for the better, rather they caused a weakness of his verse, ultimately leading the poet to stop being swayed by the English Modernists. To quote him, "I was not influenced by Yeats after *The Unfinished Man*, nor by Eliot and Pound after *Sixty Poems....*" (Kohli 1972)

The Poetry of Nissim Ezekiel

Ezekiel's first two volumes *A Time To Change* and *Sixty Poems* bear a strong imprint on Ezekiel of Rilke's mind. His poems like "Speech and Silence" and "Prayer I" appear to be written under Rilke's influence. The following lines bear testimony to this view:

If I could pray, the gist of my
Demanding would be simply this:
Quietitude. The ordered mind.
Erasure of the inner lie.
And only love in every kiss.

("Prayer I", *COLLECTED POEMS*, p.54)

Chetan Karnani has noted this fact: "His early prayer was for quietitude. He wanted to seek the life of solitude and meditation. This ideal of Rilke is strongly expressed in these poems" (Karnani 1974). Ezekiel, however, denies having imbibed anything from Rilke straightway. He never intended to be a mere imitator:

If someone were to say, "Ah, but in these poems in an early book there are echoes of Rilke and Eliot," I would agree. This does not mean that I produced a whole poem which is nothing but Rilke. If there were some poems like that, I don't think, I published them (*Selected Prose*, p. 171).

Yeats' Influence

W.B. Yeats' most pronounced influence is seen in Ezekiel's early poetry, which has derived immensely from the Irish poet's imagery and symbols. It was under Yeats' influence that Ezekiel identified parameters to discover his self at various stages of its development.

In his well known statement the Irish poet has said of his poetry : It is myself that I remake" and Ezekiel, in his "Foreword" to *Sixty Poems* , wrote:

There is in each (poem) a line or phrase, an idea or image, which helps me to maintain some sort of continuity in my life." (Quoted in Karnani 1974)

The Yeatsian impact is traceable in *Sixty Poems* where several images used by him remind the reader of Yeats' imagery. In "The Stone", the image seems to have been borrowed from Yeats' "Easter 1916" – "The stone is in the midst of all." In Yeats' poem stone is the symbol of fixity that defies change. The image of the stone represents obsession of the Irish revolutionaries with the liberation of their country, which in the process had rendered them heartless and inflexible. A parallel use of this image occurs in Ezekiel's poem:

I have learnt to love the texture of a stone,
Rough or smooth but all unyielding stone,
Which plays no facile game of outward show,
And holds itself together as a bone;
(*COLLECTED POEMS* , p.40)

The title of his fourth volume, *The Unfinished Man* is also taken from Yeats' poem "A Dialogue with Self and Soul":

The ignominy of boyhood; the distress
Of boyhood changing into man;
The unfinished man and his pain
Brought face to face with his own clumsiness...
(*COLLECTED POEMS* p. 115)

Ezekiel believed in Yeats' dictum that poets, like women, "must labour to be beautiful," and the poem "Poet, Lover, Birdwatcher" (*COLLECTED POEMS*, p. 135) is a suitable case in point where the poet says "The best poets wait for words" like an ornithologist sitting in silence by the flowing river or like a lover waiting for his beloved till she "no longer waits but risks surrendering." Ezekiel, like Yeats, has managed to create his own Lake Isle of Innisfree:

He dreams of morning walks alone/ And floating on a wave of sand"
("Urban", *Collected Poems*, 117). The only difference between them lies in Ezekiel's commitment to put up with "kindred clamour close at hand" instead of Yeats' "I shall arise, and go now, go to Innisfree."

Impact of T. S. Eliot

T. S. Eliot's impact on the twentieth century poets has been so pervasive that no poet of substance could afford to remain uninfluenced by him. In his Obituary on Eliot, Ezekiel refers to this phenomenon:

Eliot's poetry from 1917 to 1943 is like the Himalayan mountains, with the Everest of *The Waste Land* several but inaccessible peaks, a score or so of attractive but treacherous ranges (*A Song For Simeon*, *Marina* et al.) and a miscellany of small, steep hills obscured in the mist. *The Quartets* form a spacious, high plateau among the clouds. The air is rarefied but gracing, the winds are strong and chilly. The temptation to remain in this mountain-scape and to accept it as the only sovereign territory of poetry was irresistible to several generations of readers. (Ezekiel, 1989).

Repudiating adverse comments on *The Waste Land* about its haphazard structural pattern, Ezekiel appreciates the poem and observes that despite its disorganisation, it expresses a 'unity of a personality' which finally overcomes its disorganisation, once the requisite erudition is acquired by the reader to grasp that unity.

Not a Blind Imitator

It should, however, not create the impression that Ezekiel is a blind imitator of Eliot because he also disagrees with him at times. In the same Obituary (as quoted above), he finds it painful to compare Eliot's liberating conception of the literary heritage with his constricting dogmas of the human heritage as a whole. Ezekiel further feels that the theory of how individual talent ought ideally to operate, and the vision of the existing monuments modified

by the introduction of a really new work of art among them, is so abstract and metaphysical that it adds little to our appreciation of specific masterpieces.

On Dealing with Human Loneliness

Eliot approaches the problem of human degeneration in *The Waste Land* in a typically Christian way—"I had not thought death had undone so many." Though not a religious poet, Ezekiel shares Eliot's diagnosis of human loneliness caused by a variety of factors.

In poems like "Urban", "Island" and "A Morning Walk", Ezekiel vehemently denigrates selfish interests and material concerns. The denizens of Ezekiel's 'unreal city' of Bombay are no better than their counterparts in Baudelaire's Paris or Eliot's London in that they are simple human ghosts with nothing positive in life.

Ezekiel's hybrid colonial city epitomizes all the tensions and corruptions which had engulfed all the major European capitals after the First World War. In the face of a complete collapse of Western Culture—"London Bridge is falling down falling down falling down"—Tiresias is at his wit's end—"Shall I set at least my lands in order?"—Ezekiel's protagonist "as a good native should" takes "calm and clamour in its stride" ("Island", *COLLECTED POEMS*, p. 182)

Ezra Pound and Ezekiel

Ezekiel has been equally indebted to Ezra Weston Loomis Pound, whose association with Yeats and Eliot is part of Modernism's history. He candidly admits that the American Imagist influenced him thematically as well as technically:

The early influence on me of Pound and Eliot concerned poetry as an art, as well as on criticism of poetry, of society past and present, of modes of thinking and feeling etc. But I never accepted the doctrines which Pound and Eliot, separately defined for themselves and their readers. I sorted them out for myself, modified them to suit my temperament, and so on. It would be misleading and unfair to say that Pound and Eliot influenced me only on the "technique side". Their influence was far reaching, even comprehensive, but I was never dominated by it. I used it and went back to it from time to time, noting how my growth changed my attitudes to their outstanding creative as well as critical writing. (Ezekiel 1968)

Impact of Movement Poetry

Ezekiel's poetry has an overwhelming impact of Movement poets like Philip Larkin and Donald Davie in its deft precision of phrase, common subject matter, self irony and allergy to hypocrisy.

Larkin and his colleagues had ensured that poetry ceased to be an instrument of propaganda, an official hymn, as in the case of the poets of the Thirties, it must be saved from degenerating into romantic yearning of Dylan Thomas' variety. Ezekiel on his part had to keep himself at arm's length from both: the romantic vagaries and also the misplaced

patriotic strain of pre-Independence poetry. He has admitted his debt to Philip Larkin and this is most pronounced in his deliberate eschewal of intricate symbolism or far-fetched mythology, denigrated by the British poet as “common myth-kitty”.

David McCuchion has perceptively commented that Ezekiel

belongs with the Thom Gunn, R S Thomas, Elizabeth Jennings, Anthony Thwaite, and others like them. He has their cautions, discriminating style, precise and analytical, with its conscious rejection of the heroic and the passionate as also of the sentimental and cosy. (McCuchion 1968)

Movement Poetry Constraining Ezekiel’s Poetic Canvas

The contention of Christopher Wiseman that the impact of the Movement poets was rather unhealthy for Ezekiel’s poetic virtuosity, is not entirely off the mark. The Movement style did restrict Ezekiel’s poetic canvas and his own real voice often got suppressed.

To quote Wiseman,

It is, I think, significant that Ezekiel never experimented with the traditional forms to the extent that most British and American poets did, seeming to be content with strict accentual-syllabic patterns and relatively straightforward stanza forms; and, for all his obvious innate talent, many of his earlier poems suffer from an almost mechanical rigidity, a monotony of sound which deadens and weighs down the bright buoyancy of his content. (Wiseman 1976)

Formative Influences on Ezekiel

Enumerating his formative influences, Ezekiel wrote to Anisur Rahman (1981) that his poems written after 1965 have shaken all the influences howsoever dominant and irresistible they might have been in his early poetry:

“In the early stages, there were Eliot, Yeats and Pound, Rilke, modern American poetry from Whitman to William Carlos Williams, the poetry of the 30’s in England, including specially Auden, Spender, MacNeice and Day Lewis. The later poetry is not under particular influence, because I had begun to resist them. All the poems in *The Unfinished Man* are obviously in the spirit of the Movement poets in England but from *The Exact Name* onwards, I am on my own again.”

Impact of Western Counterparts on Jayant Mahapatra

Jayant Mahapatra gladly acknowledges the inspiration that he draws from his Western counterparts but still holds that that the English poets from the West did not have a long lasting impact on his poetry:

I am more fond of European and Latin American poets today than the American poets, for example. But I admire Robert Pen Warren, especially his later books... I enjoy reading Neruda, Seferis, the Spanish poets Alexandre, Alberti, Cernuda and Jimenez. (Simms, 1986)

Changing Contour with the Passage of Time

Writing about Jayant Mahapatra, B. K. Das feels that Mahapatra is aware of the changing contour of his poetry with the passage of time (Das 1992). Being a conscious artist, he 'looks before and after' and pines for what it is not. Mahapatra has no inhibitions in getting inspiration from the American poet Allen Ginsberg. In this connection Mahapatra writes,

Today, I would say that my poetry suffers from such endless questioning, and also from clichéd subjects of time, death and the quest which man is after, but such thoughts come out from the meditation on the immediate landscape of my land. I am struck by the poetry of Allen Ginsberg, a poet who has probably lived closer to the limits of the history of his time than any other poet in America.

Thematically Closer to Modernist Poets

Bruce King finds that Mahapatra's poetry is thematically closer to the Modernist poets while his style is post-modernist (King 1987). In the typical modernist vein, Mahapatra depicts the contemporary life with rare vividness of imagination and evokes the myth of the land in his poems "Relationship" and "Temple". In the poem "Temple", he writes:

Around the kingdom of Opals she wandered
Making her need be led the words of her myth
Crossing world upon world, breaking vision upon vision
Moving about in circles of timeless power
... ..
("Temple")

Myth and Contemporary Life

Finding it difficult to define a myth, the poet moves on to contemporary life to learn the anguish and predicament of modern man, again a modern sensibility:

"Now I stand among the ruins,
Waiting for the cry of a night bird
From the river's far side
To drift through my weariness,
Listening to the voices of my friends...
With the smells of the rancid fat of the past.
(*Relationship*)"

In using myth as a potent tool for poetry, Jayant Mahapatra could well have been inspired by the famous English poet and critic T. S. Eliot. Praising James Joyce for his brilliant use of myth, Eliot wrote in his essay "Ulysses, Order, and Myth"(1923):

In using the myth, in manipulating a continuous parallel between contemporaneity and antiquity, Mr. Joyce is pursuing a method which others must pursue after him. [...] It is simply a way of controlling, of ordering, of giving a shape and a significance to the immense panorama of futility and anarchy which is contemporary history. It is a method already adumbrated by Mr. Yeats, and of the need for which I believe Mr. Yeats to have been the first contemporary to be conscious. It is a method for which the horoscope is auspicious. Psychology (such as it is, and whether our reaction to it be comic or serious), ethnology, and *The Golden Bough* have concurred to make possible what was impossible even a few years ago. Instead of narrative method, we may now use the mythical method...

In the poetry of Mahapatra also we find a similar inclination for the use of myth related to the Oriya culture and mythology. His poetry takes into its orbit, infuses it with the present and looks forward to the future (Das 1992). In doing so, he also betrays some features of post-modernists as well. In Mahapatra's use of myth as an attempt to give shape to the chaos, one is also reminded of Yeats when the Irish poet says "Myself must I remake".

On Time

Mahapatra seems to be influenced by Eliot in his theme of 'Time'. Both the poets do not consider the linearity of time, rather they believe in its circular movement where present becomes the focal point of past, present and future.

The poem "Today" brings all the experiences of the past years to concentrate on one day:

Time faces me and there
Like the lucking madness in a tyrant's eye
Is the whom of another day
Dark wings shut and unmoving in the blue.
This day is an instant which possesses me
From which I cannot escape.
("Today")

In the poem "Through the Stone" which reminds the readers of Yeats' use of stone as a symbol, time is viewed as a part of eternity:

Here is the stone, the taste
Of poison in the lungs,
The broad polished gestures that say
The world will not come to an end.

The poem "Relationship" bears a strong imprint of Yeats' "Sailing to Byzantium". A striking parallel can be obviously drawn between Mahapatra's image of 'a strange country in which
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you weave your flaming play' and yeats' 'That is no country for old men. The young in one another's ams...'.

Echo of Eliot

In the choice of phrases like 'this brassy October afternoon', one is obviously struck by the echoes of Eliot's "April is the cruellest month". With the use of images like sleep, twilight, phantom darkness, half light of rain, the pallor of dreams, the granite eyes...to see the stone throb, Mahapatra dexterously creates a world akin to Eliot's *The Hollow Men*.

The use phrases to depict the sense of 'loneliness' on an October afternoon when he sees 'the secret coves on the naked beach/ charred by old fires and littered with picnic paper and empty bottles' is an explicit reminder of Eliot. The reader cannot help drawing a parallel between the two poets in the images like 'a galvanometer needle/ between the zero and the hundred of gloom' and the 'shameless fevers whose viruses tear the skin like paper'.

The echo of Eliot could be felt in the poems like "The Indian Way" when Jayant Mahapatra describes a love scene:

We would return again and again
To the movement
That is neither forward nor backward,
And let the sun and moon take over,
Trailing their substances and shadows.
You know
I could not touch you
Like that,
Until our wedding night.

Successful Evolution of Their Own Idiom

As we draw to a close, it could well be argued that the poets discussed above, Nissim Ezekiel and Jayant Mahapatra , do acknowledge an inspiration from the British Modernists, yet they have successfully evolved an idiom of their own which is distinctly Indian and unique in itself. The urge for creative self expression in the changing postcolonial milieu has been a powerful motivation towards shaping up their idiom.

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English Language and Sustainable Development in Ghana

Emmanuel Sarfo, M. Phil.

Abstract

The choice of English as either national or official language in English as Second Language (ESL) situations has been the subject of many academic and political discourses for a long time now. After (colonial) independence, many African nations, including Ghana, Gambia, Sierra Leone, Nigeria, Kenya, Uganda and Zambia, have had to grapple with the problem of language choice. Many people have argued for the choice and development of local languages for national and/or official purposes. However, it appears that the argument for the choice of local languages is based on language loyalty and nationalism rather than real socio-politico-economic needs of the times. It is my conviction that the argument must be based on the reality of the social, political and economic needs of the 21st Century. This paper, therefore, sets out to argue for a development of right attitudes towards English; for the English language has come to stay as a communicative tool for social, political and economic development.

Key words: official language, national language, language policy

Introduction

One major problem that has confronted most governments around the world is whether to use one language or another as national and/or official language. The choice of English as either national or official language in English as Second Language (ESL) situations in particular has always been contentious among academics and politicians.

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After independence, many African nations, including Ghana, Nigeria, Namibia and Zambia, have had to grapple with the problem of language choice. Many scholars (Bodomo, 1996; Dolphyne and Boateng, 1998; Ofori-Panin, 2009) have argued for the choice and development of local languages for national and/or official purposes. This argument for the choice of local languages is based on language and nationalistic loyalty rather than the socio-politico-economic needs of the times. It is my conviction that the argument for the language choice must be based on the reality of the current social, political and economic needs of the 21st Century. The paper discusses the issue by considering the use of English and language policy in Ghana, arguments in favour of English as a tool for national development, and conclusion and implications.

English and Language Policy in Ghana

Everywhere in the world, there appears to be one language problem or another. “Every country ... has its language problems ... All the former British colonies ... were left with the English language on the departure of the colonial government, and this legacy has turned out to be an ambiguous one” (Banjo, 1997: p.307). For instance, in Africa, countries such as Ghana, Gambia, Sierra Leone, Nigeria, Kenya, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe use English as their official language. In these situations, English serves as a lingua franca and so defuses ethnic conflicts, and yet questions the authenticity and identities of these users. This has always resulted in arguments about the choice of indigenous languages for official and national purposes because the use of English as official or national language strikes at the root of national pride (Banjo, 1997) since English is a colonial language. In other words, the fight against English has mostly been part of the struggle for total independence, as Ngũgĩ (1981: 28) puts it: “I believe that my writing in Gĩkũyũ language, a Kenyan language, and African language, is part and parcel of the anti-imperialist struggles of Kenyan and African peoples” (quoted in Coulmas, 2006: 182). In Ghana, for example, after independence, the government under the leadership of Kwame Nkrumah made frantic efforts at choosing a local language for official/national purposes. This, however, failed due to a number of reasons – ethnicity, underdevelopment of the local languages, among others.

After Nkrumah, many other people have made calls for the adoption of one local language as official and/or national language. For instance, in the Saturday, November 7, 1998 edition of the “Daily Graphic”, Prof. Florence Abena Dolphyne of the Department of Linguistics, and Dr. Barfuo Akwasi Abayie Boateng of the Institute of African Studies, University of Ghana, called for a national or official language for Ghana. In the Friday, August 7, 2009 edition of the same paper, Kwabena Ofori-Panin of Living Education Aid added his voice to the call, while in the Monday, August 17, 2009 edition of the paper, Dennis Yao Sokpoe of Greenstreet Lane, Tanyigbe-Atidzi, called for a referendum on a common language for Ghana. The calls – both formal and informal – have been numerous. However, what we need to ask is: What are the reasons for such a call? Are the reasons the result of identity crisis, ideological or practical socio-politico-economic development?

According to Coulmas (2006: 185):

... political choices of language are variously motivated and take various forms ... it is possible by means of political decisions to determine the language that is used for certain purposes and how it is used. In many cases, an explicit language policy is adopted because of the coexistence of several languages in one polity and the necessity of regulating their functions and mutual relationships.

Thus, since 1951, Ghana (with about 79 languages) has been grappling with language policy issues due to multilingualism (Edu-Buandoh, 2006). The Accelerated Development Plan for Education (1951) stated that English should be taught as a course at the beginning of the school system and a local vernacular used as the medium of instruction. For lack of clarity of the expression “As soon as possible, there will be a transition from the vernacular to English as the medium of instruction...”, in the Language Policy of 1957, the policy was modified to state that English should become the medium of instruction from Primary Four. Again, due to disparities in the access to the English language, the policy was once again modified, stating that as children in the metropolitan and other urban areas got exposed to the language faster than those in the rural areas, English could become the medium of instruction in the metropolitan and urban areas earlier than Primary Four (Education Review Committee, 1966).

The argument raged on and in 2002, during the New Patriotic Party government’s administration, the then Minister of Education, Prof. Ameyaw-Akumfi, on behalf of the government of Ghana, declared English as the medium of instruction at all levels of formal education (“Daily Graphic”, May 17, 2002: 1 & 3). However, just recently, after taking over the reigns of governance in 2009, the National Democratic Congress government has reversed the policy to using local languages as medium of instruction at the lower primary and English as a subject. It must be noted that the argument is still on-going as some Ghanaians are still not in favour of the current policy.

It must be noted that in the implementation of these policies, parents had (and still have) indirectly played various roles. In some cases, some parents attempted to make policy implementers and teachers flout the policies and introduce pupils to English as early as possible. In some schools, some teachers were discouraged from using the local vernaculars even as early as Primary One. This was because most parents saw no “utility” and “economic force”, which are the driving force underlying language policies (Coulmas, 2006), in the local languages. It must be noted that “... language planning choices are undertaken in the expectation that they will affect future developments in predictable ways” (Coulmas, 2006: 187). And so since there were no foreseeable practical benefits of learning the local languages, parents sought to discourage the learning of such languages. For instance, Andoh-Kumi (1997: 117) quotes an educationist, J. T. Yankah, as having remarked that it was pointless to teach any of the languages as a subject in schools, “for such insignificant and uncultivated local dialects can never become so flexible as to assimilate readily new words and to expand their vocabularies to meet new situations ... and their absence of literature discredits them and the use of any of them as medium of instruction”.

The reaction of some parents to the language policy as stated above is true of Coulmas’ (2006: 199) saying that:

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As the social functions and opportunities to use a small language diminish, it loses the support of its users. Parents see better chances for their children if they receive schooling in a more widely spoken language and children fail to develop an interest in language they consider obsolete and unsuitable for modern life. Shift to a larger language is the likely outcome.

Axelrod (1984: 24), also, avers that ‘to be effective, a government cannot enforce any standard it chooses but must elicit compliance from a majority of the governed. To do this requires setting the rules so that most of the governed find it profitable to obey most of the time’ (quoted in Coulmas, 2006: 194).

In offering a proposal for addressing language policy and planning issues in Ghana in particular and Africa in general, Bodomo (1996) advocates a trilingual language regime. He proposes that the mother tongue should be used widely as the medium of communication and education in metropolitan, municipal and district assemblies in Ghana and first cycle institutions. After that an African language should be introduced at the regional level and the second cycle institutions, and another language of wider communication such as English or French introduced and used at the national or international and the tertiary education levels. Bodomo’s proposal appears quite nominal. He appears to see language and language learning as numerical such that we can always know exactly the number of years every person can use to learn a language to become proficient in one language or another. One wonders how feasible it would be to apply this trilingual model. If serious learning of English or French has to be delayed until tertiary levels of education, Ghanaians (or Africans), I believe, can hardly become proficient in the two languages. This could rather retard development rather than promote it, looking at the economic and political importance of English (and French).

Arguments in Favour of English as a Tool for National Development

To justify the choice of English as the official language of independent Namibia, Candlin (1989) offers an eight-point criterion. These are unity, acceptability, familiarity, feasibility, science and technology, pan-Africanism, wider communication and the United Nations. On the issue of unity, Candlin states that the language chosen must be able to unify the people towards national reconstruction; it must be a language “with which Namibians, both inside and outside the country, have some familiarity and, preferably, one with which there has been some short- and long-term experience in the educational system”(p.75). Feasibility has to do with whether the chosen language has the available resources for educational purposes, such as books and materials, teachers and teachers’ trainers as well as other professionals for curriculum design and educational administration. Again, the chosen language must be able to meet virtually all scientific and technological needs. The said language must as well be spoken widely in Africa so that it can serve as a bond between Namibia and other African countries and the international community such as within the United Nations. According to Candlin, the only language that satisfies all the criteria is English (except for acceptability, which, I think, may be argued against – even though such an argument may arise from language loyalty and the bid to protect identities).

Candlin's eight-point criterion largely applies to the Ghanaian situation also. It could be said that, of all the eight points raised, Ghana hardly satisfies any of them; not even acceptance because "Linguistic wars are always also political and cultural wars" (Kramsch, 2001: 73). The choice of a local language may spur ethnic and tribal wars in Ghana (Edu-Buandoh, 2006), for if you give a language power, you give its native speakers educational, social, political and economic power over others. A case in point is the Kenyan experience where, for example, Sure (1998; cited from Edu-Buandoh, 2006) reports that the choice of Kiswahili as national language in Kenya has led to intolerance among speakers of different languages – Kiswahili does not carry the social value and goods that English carries, and many Kenyans use Kiswahili only for interpersonal interaction and not for complex cultural activities. Thus, Kiswahili has not united Kenyans. In terms of feasibility, it is clear that no Ghanaian language passes the test. Andoh-Kumih (1997) reports that by 1968, the following were the figures for the number of published items in the various Ghanaian languages: Akan, 511; Ga, 192; Ewe, 185; Nzema, 69; Dangme, 52; Dagbani, 41; while others ranged between 25 and 1. Although 1968 appears a bit far, the information provided should give us an idea of the state of local language development in Ghana.

Coulmas (2006), also, offers some consideration for the choice of an official or national language. According to him any language policy aimed at choosing a language for official and/or national purposes must consider status planning, corpus planning and acquisition planning. To him:

Language planning involves making informed choices about language that counter quasi-natural, market-driven developments that are expected to take place in the absence of any intervention, or that have taken place, with or without intervention, and which the language policy is intended to halt or reverse (p.186).

Thus the policy should expect to affect future developments in predictable ways. In terms of status, the language(s) can perform different functions. For instance, one language can be used for education, law, government and administration, and international affairs and all other identifiable groups while another language performs other functions in society. However, speech and language behaviour in private domains is not easy to control. Therefore, governments making a deliberate choice of a language as national and/or official language may not guarantee the use of that language by individuals privately. This is because individuals must have a motivation for using a particular language – to satisfy a certain kind of need. The implication here is that if a Ghanaian language is chosen as national/official language it may not practically reverse or promote any developmental trends. Those in favour of a Ghanaian language may argue that it will allow as much participation in local governance as possible (Bodomo, 1996). However, it must be noted that in the various metropolitan, municipal and district assemblies in Ghana, the medium of communication is a local vernacular and so, for example, if Akan or Ewe becomes a national language, it would hardly be used in other assemblies that are in non-Akan or non-Ewe communities. This counters the issue of acceptability as put forward by Candlin (1989). Note that Akan is the most widely spoken language in Ghana followed by Ewe (Ofori-Panin, 2009; Edu-Buandoh, 2006; Dolphyne, 1998; Bodomoh, 1996).

On corpus planning (regulatory measures designed to influence structural aspects of a language such as the lexicon, grammar, writing system and spelling rules), Coulmas says that it is theoretical to think that terminology adaptation is possible for all languages because most speech communities lack the resources as a result of which “only a tiny fraction of the languages of the world are adjusted to science, technology, modern education, government and commerce” (p.197). For example, even though Arabic is one of the most developed languages of the world (one of the six languages of the United Nations) and has no principal lexical limitations, it is practically not able to function as an access language to modernity and real and practical socio-economic and political needs of the speakers in Morocco, Algeria and Tunisia (Salhi, 2002; Sirles, 1999). Also, corpus planning “requires sophisticated know-how, an institutional framework and considerable funds that only rich countries can afford. The general point that economic disadvantage constrains linguistic choices comes to bear here” (Coulmas, p.196).

The point is that if Arabic faces such a problem in these three countries, what would be the status of a Ghanaian language which is chosen as national and/or official language? In other words, such a move is theoretically possible, but practically impossible. It is not feasible (Candlin, 1989) for a Ghanaian language to be developed to meet corpus planning requirements.

One other thing that Coulmas (2006) thinks affects language choices is acquisition (or acceptance) planning. According to Ladefoged (1992: 810), “It is paternalistic of linguists to assume that they know what is best for the community”. This is because “acceptance of status decision does not automatically produce a language practice in compliance with that decision” (cited in Coulmas, 2006: 195). For instance, in Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia, most Arabs use Arabic for national and religious pride, and doesn’t imply an uncompromising commitment to use Arabic in all communication domains (Sirles, 1999; Salhi, 2002). Because French occupies an important position in education and administration and is symbolic of access to modernity, the educated elite have been quite unwilling to renounce French, the sole official language of the three countries during colonial period (Coulmas, 2006).

It is clear from the foregoing that instituting a language policy is one thing and the practical application of the policy is another. This brings clearly to the fore that whilst the government of Ghana may officially declare one local language as national and/or official, compliance with such a decision from the governed may be impracticable or may not be realised. Whilst most parents/citizens see English as the only language of utility which can afford them real social, political and economic needs for their advancement, it appears that those who call for the adoption of a local language as national/official language do so as a result of language loyalty, nationalism and identity.

This is because language is an identity marker and culture-tied (Edu-Buandoh, 2006) and so when people see their language dominated by another language they feel that their identity, economic and ideological empowerment are threatened (Kramsch, 2001). That is why, notwithstanding its low-prestige, African-American vernacular, for example, has not been discarded by African-Americans: it functions to express their black identity (Rickford and Rickford, 2000; from Coulmas, 2006: 177). According to Frempong (2005), maintaining all

languages in a community is important for cultural literacy, development, and identity formation. However, it must be noted that identity is not fixed and “Identity change is possible ... More generally speaking, economic incentives provide a principal rationale for crossing group boundaries and identity change” (Coulmas, 2006: 175).

What we need, then, is literacy development in English. For instance, in Singapore, English remains “the *de facto* working language of the nation and the sole medium of instruction in all its schools ... assigning its other three official languages, Mandarin, Malay, and Tamil, an L2 status in the school curriculum” (Rubdy et al 2008: 40). In Singapore, “English has also acquired a value for expressing the cultural and national identities of Singapore and for facilitating inter-ethnic and intra-ethnic interaction within the country” (Pakir, 1998; cited in Rubdy et al). It is interesting to note that about 80% of the Singaporean population have some command of English. A population census indicates an increase in literacy in English from 56% in 1980 to 71% (15% increase) in 2000 (at the expense of, for example, Tamil which dropped from 52.2% to 42.9%), far surpassing the figures for the mother tongues. This phenomenon is quite revealing because English became the medium of instruction in all Singaporean schools in 1979 (Rudby et al). The apparent loss of support for the local languages is the result of the people seeing English as the language of utility and modernity.

It can be argued that the economic growth of Singapore is partly the result of the positive attitude towards English and the subsequent high literacy rate in it, and not because they have indigenous languages as national or official languages. Singapore now claims ownership of English because “English has also acquired a value for expressing the cultural and national identities of Singapore” (Rubdy et al, 2008: 40; Mary Tay, 1993); Singapore is “well on the way becoming a largely English speaking country” (Newbrook, 1987: 6; quoted from Rubdy et al).

The English situation in Ghana is far different and below the levels of literacy rates and status of English in Singapore. In the 2000 Population and Housing Census (p.67), it is stated that “For the country as a whole 42.6 per cent of the population are illiterates while 16.4 per cent are literate in English only, 2.5 per cent are literate in a local language only and 38.1 per cent are literate in both English and a Ghanaian language”. It is clear, then, that the number of people who are literate in English is more than those who are literate in our local languages, emphasising the fact that the teaching and learning of any of the local languages in Ghana may even be more difficult than the teaching and learning of English.

Conclusion/Implications

This paper has tried to argue against the adoption of a Ghanaian language as national and/or official language due to the inherent problems associated with such a decision (even though it does accept the teaching and learning of the local languages).

The paper observes that it will not be feasible to choose a local language as national and/or official language in Ghana because of ethnicity, lack of acceptability, lack of utility, lack of corpus development for the scientific and technological needs of the 21st century (Coulmas, 2006; Candlin, 1989). However, we can teach, study and learn the local languages for some local and personal purposes, and not for official or national purposes. Moreover, if speaking

or using a language offers no practical and real socio-economic needs, speakers will switch to another language that offers such incentives, for “Language loyalty persists as long as the economic and social circumstances are conducive to it, but if some other language proves to have greater value, a shift to that other language begins” (Dorian 1982: 42). As Ofori-Panin (Daily Graphic, August 7, 2009: 9) puts it “It is great to be proud of one’s identity; but of what benefit is it if it keeps one in isolation and poverty”.

Thus the paper has implications for positive attitudinal development towards English. Attitudes affect language learning. It has been identified that “learner attitudes toward the target language and its speakers play a central role in determining levels of success for the acquisition of the language” (McKenzie, 2008: p.63). According to Spolsky (1989), an individual’s motivation to study a language comes from his/her attitude towards the native speakers of the said language and the use to which such a language will be put. In other words, attitudes condition motivation. There is no doubt that in most ESL countries, if people are not willing to learn English, it is because of colonialism. The learning of English still makes such people feel that they are being colonised linguistically (Ngũgĩ, 1981; Banjo, 1997). Such people have a lackadaisical attitude towards the learning of English. However, in terms of what practical use a language can be put, English is the most important language – It is the language of modernity and utility. And so those who share the latter view normally have a positive attitude towards English. Thus it is clear that the majority of those who support local language choices in ESL situations do so for reasons of linguistic identity, while those on the other side appear to be more practical and represent a more objective position.

It is, therefore, important to develop a positive attitude towards English for a sustainable development through communication. Is it not possible for us to claim ownership of English, as is being done in Singapore, to express our own culture? Can we not localise the English language to suit the Ghanaian (and also African) cultural experience and situation? (Achebe, 1964: cited in Crystal, 2003). What we have to bear in mind is that the English language has come to stay as an important communicative tool for ESL countries, especially those in Africa. We should, thus, begin a serious and strong literacy-in-English campaign at all levels of society in Ghana and elsewhere in Africa.

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The Preference of Self Esteem Needs of Secondary School Students

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Abstract

The present study was designed to identify the preferences of self-esteem needs of the secondary school students, because, in Pakistan, it was an urgent need to discover, to purify, to determine and to diagnose the constructive preferences of self-esteem needs which might serve as pre-requisites for the successful development of curriculum planning, material production, administrative and supervisory functions, etc.

The data were collected from 10% of students of urban & rural secondary schools. Due to lack of an adequate instrument to measure the preferences of self-esteem needs, a Self-Reporting Rating Scale (SRRS) was developed. This instrument included items constructed on the basis of Likert scale. The questionnaires, based on "SRRS" according to the self-esteem needs of the students, were delivered to sample students from 248 urban and 198 rural secondary schools of the district Faisalabad. The returns from students were 446.

Keywords: Exploring the preferences of self-esteem needs curriculum development.

Introduction

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Abdul Ghafoor Nasir, Ph.D. Scholar, Muhammad Mirza, Ph.D., Muhammad Naseer Ud Din, Ph.D. and Muhammad Ishfaq Ud Din, M.Sc.

The Preference of Self Esteem Needs of Secondary School Students

To derive a set of student's self-esteem needs for the study, researchers drew from a variety of studies and psychological theories. As a foundation, researchers used the following studies: The Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum (1932) in America, Doane's Study of Needs (1942:43-44), The Commission on Human Relation Study (1942) which depicted a list of adolescents through case studies, interviews and observations, The Educational Policies Commission Imperative Needs of Youth 1944 (revised in 1952), which recommended a list of youth need, a derived list of needs by Luella Cole (1988:258) was adopted for the identification of needs, Havighursts (1950:1-4), Developmental tasks and the Developmental Tasks which were derived by a Committee of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (1950) in America, and Lurry and Alberty (1957:60) which listed sixteen areas.

The reflection of biological and psychological theories was adopted as a basic ground for the study. Henry A. Murray's (1938:152-266) "A Need Theory of Personality" drew a biological sketch of human needs. Researchers also drew from Maslow's (1970:35-51) A Humanistic Theory of Personality which presented a novel hierarchical theory of Human needs for the identification of students needs. Bloom (1956:1-4) and Krathwohl, (1964) analyzed the cognitive domain and affective domain and psychomotor domain for knowledge and understanding perception.

Focus of the Study

The information about the nature of the learner is an important source for curriculum development. So, the focus of the study is upon the identification of self- esteem needs, which are always imperative and which may influence curriculum development. The identification of those preferences of self-esteem needs is also necessary before a suitable strategy for the process of development of the curriculum starts because the curriculum is the nerve system of education.

Student Preferences of Self-esteem needs

The question that remains to be answered is: What are the student preferences of "self - esteem needs" which may serve as pre-requisites for the successful development of curriculum? Hence the researchers undertook this study to answer the question. When one's needs for being loved and for loving others, have been reasonably gratified, their motivating force demises paving for "Self-Esteem Needs".

Maslow divided this into two subsidiary sets, "Self-Respect and Esteem from others". Maslow (1970:35) cleared, "esteem-need is the result of effort, it is earned". The self-respect includes such things as desire for competence, confidence, personal strength, adequacy, achievement, independence, and freedom. An individual needs to know that he or she is worthwhile capable of mastering tasks and challenges in life. Esteem from others includes prestige, recognition, acceptance, attention, status, fame, reputation and appreciation. Bryce, B. Hudgins and his associates (1983:397) viewed that "esteem needs are directly related to a person's sense of self worth".

Robert, R. Reilly (1983:208) commented that “all people in our society with a few pathological exceptions have a need or desire for a stable, firmly based, usually high evaluation of themselves, for self respect or self-esteem and for the esteem of others these are, first, desire for strength, for achievement, for confidence in the face of the world, for adequacy, for mastery, for independence and freedom. Second, we have what we may call the desire for reputation or prestige. Status, fame, glory, dominance, recognition, attention, importance, dignity, appreciation—satisfaction of the self-esteem needs leads to feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability and adequacy of being useful and necessary in the world”.

Kennon, M. Sheldon (2001:328) concluded, “I had many positive qualities, quite satisfied with who I am. I had strong sense of self-respect. Other incentives include giving students recognition for example by displaying their work, giving them a certificate of achievement, placing them on the honorable role or verbally mentioning their accomplishment”. Donna walker Tileston (2004:38) summed up that “if students see themselves as friendly, helpful, and kind, those characteristics become internalized as a definition of self as “pleasant and caring” students then continue to behave in ways consistent with their self-perception”.

The related literature was reviewed and Self Esteem Needs were summed up as Contentment, Confidence, Perception, Self-efficacy, Significance, Prestige, Awareness, Popularity, Autonomy, Solidarity, Achievement, Encouragement and Values.

Statement of the Problem

This study was designed to identify the Preferences of Self-Esteem Needs of boys of ages 14⁺ to 16⁺ year that may influence curriculum development for classes (ix & x) of the schools located under the jurisdiction of Board of Intermediate & Secondary Education Faisalabad

Method

The data were collected from 10% of students of urban & rural secondary schools. So the total strength of students of sample of urban secondary schools was 248 and the total strength of students of sample of rural secondary school was 198. The total strength of students of the samples was 446. Lack of an adequate instrument to measure the importance, existence, availability or non-availability of students needs, a self-Reporting rating scale (SRRS) was developed. This instrument included items constructed on the basis of likert scale. This measure was to ask the respondents to respond to a series of 13 items by indicating their level of satisfaction on a five point scale from “Strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”

The samples were randomly selected. The questionnaires based on “SRRS” according to the self-esteem needs of the students, were delivered to the samples of the students of urban and rural secondary schools of the district Faisalabad. The returns from students were 446.

Results

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The frequencies of responses to each item were calculated with item percentages. Means were computed for responses from all the two samples (students of urban and rural secondary schools). As the samples were divided into two groups, correlations among various groups were determined to establish the representativeness of the responses and relationship among the groups.

The responses for all items were rank ordered according to their frequencies, means and percentages to determine their importance existence and availability. Chi-square test of significance was used to test the frequencies of the responses. The researcher, on the basis of such results, will be able to draw provable inferences and generalizations about the influence of needs on the curriculum development process.

Table No. 1

Frequency distribution of opinions of students of the sample of urban secondary schools of district Faisalabad

The Preferences of Self-Esteem Needs									
	Needs	SA(%)	A(%)	U(%)	D(%)	SD(%)	df	X ²	P
1.	Contentment	191 (77.02)	26 (10.48)	18 (7.26)	0 (0.00)	13 (5.24)	247	511.07	.05
2.	Confidence	201 (81.05)	18 (7.26)	16 (6.45)	6 (2.42)	7 (2.82)	247	579.94	.05
3.	Perception	187 (75.40)	18 (7.26)	7 (2.82)	16 (6.45)	20 (8.06)	247	477.76	.05
4.	Self-efficacy	215 (86.69)	19 (7.66)	7 (2.82)	3 (1.21)	4 (1.61)	247	692.72	.05
5.	Significance	217 (87.50)	15 (6.05)	9 (3.63)	0 (0.00)	7 (2.82)	247	708.53	.05
6.	Prestige	188 (75.81)	20 (8.06)	15 (6.05)	6 (2.42)	19 (7.66)	247	485.18	.05
7.	Awareness	160 (64.52)	23 (9.27)	26 (10.48)	11 (4.44)	28 (11.29)	247	310.66	NS
8.	Popularity	192 (77.42)	27 (10.89)	12 (4.84)	4 (1.61)	13 (5.24)	247	516.56	.05
9.	Autonomy	125 (50.40)	9 (3.63)	39 (15.73)	6 (2.42)	69 (27.82)	247	196.03	NS
10.	Solidarity	105 (42.34)	13 (5.24)	33 (13.31)	8 (3.23)	89 (35.89)	247	160.63	NS
11.	Achievement	109 (43.95)	17 (6.85)	14 (5.65)	14 (5.65)	94 (37.90)	247	183.41	NS
12.	Encouragement	159 (64.11)	20 (8.06)	8 (3.23)	8 (3.23)	53 (21.37)	247	328.97	NS
13.	Values	202 (81.45)	24 (9.68)	12 (4.84)	3 (1.21)	7 (2.82)	247	590.34	.05

Table No. 1 Features

Table 1 showed that frequency distributions of opinions of students of the sample of urban secondary schools of district Faisalabad on importance, existence and availability of Self-Esteem- Needs and their significance on chi-square was at .05. It led to the following conclusions:

- (1) Among the students 87.50% agree and strongly agree that they were respected by all.
- (2) Among the students 88.31% agree and strongly agree that they were quite satisfied with their subject of studies.
- (3) Among the students 82.66% agree and strongly agree that they did not study the tuition periods.
- (4) Among the students 94.35% agree and strongly agree that they had strong sense of self respect.
- (5) Among the students 93.55% agree and strongly agree that wanted to become prominent.
- (6) Among the students 83.87% agree and strongly agree that they felt kinship during school time.
- (7) Among the students 73.86% agree and strongly agree but 26.14% disagree that they had social and political awareness.
- (8) Among the students 88.31% agree and strongly agree that they liked popularity and fame.
- (9) Among the students 54.03% agree and strongly agree but 30.23% disagree that they could control a class or their team.
- (10) Among the students 47.58% agree and strongly agree that they wanted to become the responsible citizens of the world.
- (11) Among the students 50.80% agree and strongly agree but 49.20% disagree that they had won many prizes.
- (12) Among the students 72.17% agree and strongly agree but 27.83% disagree that the prize distribution ceremony was held every year in their schools.
- (13) Among the students 91.13% agree and strongly agree that they knew the Islamic values.

Table No. 2

Frequency distribution of opinions of students of the sample of rural secondary schools of district Faisalabad

The Preferences of Self-Esteem Needs

	Needs	SA(%)	A(%)	U(%)	D(%)	SD(%)	df	χ^2	P
1.	Contentment	110 (55.56)	58 (29.29)	18 (9.09)	7 (3.54)	5 (2.53)	197	202.55	NS
2.	Confidence	115 (58.08)	45 (22.73)	20 (10.10)	8 (4.04)	10 (5.05)	197	201.34	NS
3.	Perception	79	59	26	15	19	197	79.37	NS

		(39.90)	(29.80)	(13.13)	(7.58)	(9.60)			
4.	Self-efficacy	104	44	14	11	25	197	147.80	NS
		(52.53)	(22.22)	(7.07)	(5.56)	(12.63)			
5.	Significance	136	41	11	6	4	197	315.88	NS
		(68.69)	(20.71)	(5.56)	(3.03)	(2.02)			
6.	Prestige	105	60	20	7	6	197	183.56	NS
		(53.03)	(30.30)	(10.10)	(3.54)	(3.03)			
7.	Awareness	69	74	32	11	12	197	93.06	NS
		(34.85)	(37.37)	(16.16)	(5.56)	(6.06)			
8.	Popularity	94	51	24	20	9	197	117.50	NS
		(47.47)	(25.76)	(12.12)	(10.10)	(4.55)			
9.	Autonomy	67	83	28	9	11	197	114.22	NS
		(33.84)	(41.92)	(14.14)	(4.55)	(5.56)			
10.	Solidarity	106	27	20	27	18	197	140.83	NS
		(53.54)	(13.64)	(10.10)	(13.64)	(9.09)			
11.	Achievement	72	36	28	37	25	197	35.78	NS
		(36.36)	(18.18)	(14.14)	(18.69)	(12.63)			
12.	Encouragement	95	30	12	20	41	197	108.81	NS
		(47.98)	(15.15)	(6.06)	(10.10)	(20.71)			
13.	Values	91	66	9	9	23	197	138.56	NS
		(45.96)	(33.33)	(4.55)	(4.55)	(11.62)			

Table No. 2 Features

Table 2 indicates that Frequency Distribution of opinions of students of the sample of rural secondary schools of District Faisalabad on importance, Existence and availability of Self-Esteem Needs and their significance on chi-square was at 0.5 levels. The following conclusions were drawn:

- (1) Among the students 84.85% agree and strongly agree that they were respected all.
- (2) Among the students 80.81% agree and strongly agree that they were quite satisfied with their subject of studies.
- (3) Among the students 69.70% agree and strongly agree but 30.30% disagree that they did not need to study the tuition periods.
- (4) Among the students 74.75% agree and strongly agree but 25.25% disagree that they had strong sense of self-respect.
- (5) Among the students 89.40% agree and strongly agree that wanted to become prominent.
- (6) Among the students 83.33% agree that they felt kinship during school time.
- (7) Among the students 72.22% agree that they had social and political awareness of their country.
- (8) Among the students 73.23% agree that they liked popularity and fame.
- (9) Among the students 75.76% agree that they could control a class or their teams.
- (10) Among the students 67.18% agree and strongly agree but 20.72% disagree that they wanted to become a responsible citizen of the World.

- (11) Among the students 54.54% agree and strongly agree but 45.46% disagree that they had won many prizes.
- (12) (Among the students 63.13% agree and strongly agree but 36.87% disagree that the prize distribution ceremony was held every year in their schools.
- (13) Among the students 79.28% agree and strongly agree but 20.72% disagree that they knew the Islamic values.

Table No. 3

Comparison of mean ratings of the statements relating to the preferences of self-esteem needs by students of the samples of urban & rural secondary schools of the District Faisalabad:

S/No	Needs	Faisalabad		Mean Scores
		Urban	Rural	
1	Contentment	4.54	4.31	4.42
2	Confidence	4.61	4.25	4.43
3	Perception	4.35	4.83	4.09
4	Self- Efficacy	4.73	3.96	4.39
5	Significance	4.75	4.51	4.63
6	Prestige	4.41	4.27	4.34
7	Awareness	4.11	3.89	4.00
8	Popularity	4.54	4.02	4.23
9	Autonomy	3.46	3.94	3.70
10	Solidarity	3.15	3.89	3.52
11	Achievement	3.13	3.47	3.30
12	Encouragement	3.90	3.60	3.50
13	Values	4.66	3.97	4.31

Table 3 Features

The above table shows that the vast list of Self-Esteem Needs is focused to play a pivotal role to achieve a better standard of life, quality education and to play a basic role from achievement to significance role in modernization at secondary level.

Table No. 4

Now the assessed needs are rank ordered as given below:

S/No	Needs	Mean Scores
1	Achievement	3.30
2	Encouragement	3.50
3	Solidarity	3.52
4	Autonomy	3.70
5	Awareness	4.06
6	Perception	4.09
7	Popularity	4.23
8	Values	4.31
9	Prestige	4.34
10	Self- Efficacy	4.39
11	Contentment	4.42
12	Confidence	4.43
13	Significance	4.63

Now this vast list of self-esteem needs is focused to play a pivotal role to achieve a better

Discussion

The findings show that the growth preferences of self-esteem needs like contentment, confidence, perception, self-efficacy, prestige, popularity, autonomy, solidarity, and achievement have great values. There is great need of awareness, encouragement and significance of self. The majority of the students of the two samples disagreed that the students have sound sense of self-respect. The majority of the students disagreed that a prize distribution ceremony was held every year in the schools.

Recommendation

Esteem needs are directly related to a person's sense of self worth. Satisfaction of the self-esteem needs generates feelings and attitudes of self-confidence, self-worth, strength, capability and the sense of being useful and necessary in the world.

Significance, self-efficacy, popularity, autonomy, perception, competence, confidence, solidarity, adequacy, achievement, independence, prestige and contentment are the main preferences of self-esteem needs of this segment. Every body wishes to love and to be loved. It is natural potential of a body. The preferences of self-esteem needs may be given a special place in the curriculum as shown below:

- a. Curriculum may develop the confidence by giving an assignment of doing a plan or activity.
- b. Curriculum may present the life sketch of prominent personalities. It may make aware about the importance of past events and performance of the great men to shape the students personality as an effective and fruitful personality.

- c. It may disseminate the elements of contentment, achievement, independence, prestige, adequacy and solidarity in general languages by giving examples or stories of great men or by elaborating ethical events or ceremonies.

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Abdul Ghafoor Nasir, Ph.D. Scholar, Muhammad Mirza, Ph.D., Muhammad Naseer Ud Din, Ph.D. and Muhammad Ishfaq Ud Din, M.Sc.

The Preference of Self Esteem Needs of Secondary School Students

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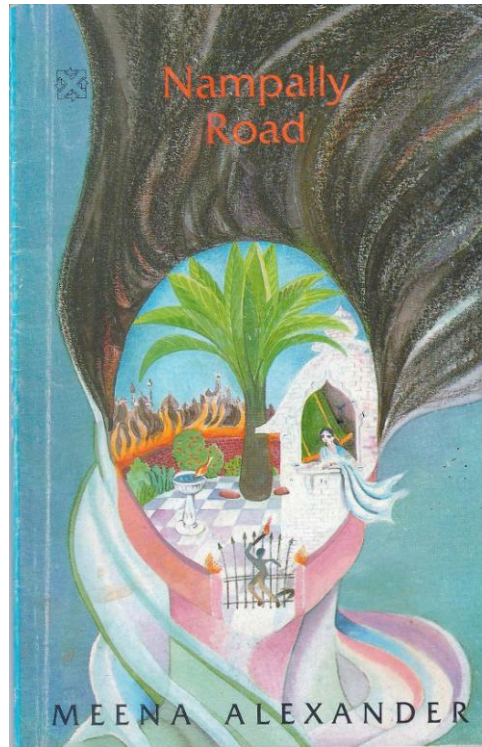
Meena Alexander and *Nampally Road*

K. Suganthi, M.A., M.Phil., Ph.D. Scholar



Meena Alexander

Meena Alexander's *Nampally Road* (1992) is a portrait of India after twenty-five years of Independence. It is a socio-political novel. The socio-political novels in Indian writing in English deal with many political and social problems with focus on changes in these realms in Indian society. Creative writing links social and political problems together as it is difficult to distinguish between them. In reality every social problem acquires a political dimension, pointing towards an all-encompassing political revolution.



The novelist, Meena Alexander, is extremely critical when she sees institutions veering away from ideals. In *Nampally Road*, she has shown the deterioration in the personal and political areas of life. In this novel, Meena depicts the political life of the country as it happened in the immediate post-independence era.

Mira and Ramu

The novel is based on some selected incidents, which happen in Hyderabad and, in particular, on a road called Nampally Road. The narrator is Mira, a college teacher. She is accompanied by a male college teacher, Ramu. They both teach English in Sona Nivas, a local college. He is so completely *desi* that he gives up all opportunities of going abroad, which is odd considering that most people in India have always been crazy about going abroad during and after the colonial period: “. . . he turned down the Rhodes Scholarship that others might have killed for, accepted a modest grant from Jawaharlal Nehru University and swore on the memory of his dead mother never to leave the boundaries of free India . . .” (3). He is highly unorthodox and rejects superstitions including what he refers to as “horoscope rubbish”.

Ramu is an active participant in all protests. Once he helped produce the underground newspaper that students set by hand. For this he was detained

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and held in custody several times. He always wanted to make a difference, to do something for India, whatever that something might be.

Background: Birthday Celebration of a Chief Minister

The main event in the novel is the birthday celebration of Limca Gowda, the Chief Minister of Andhra Pradesh. In the novelist's words:

Limca Gowda was an ambitious man and wished to turn himself into an absolute ruler . . . The notion of unquestioned power vested in a single man pleased him enormously. Sometimes, at night, he dreamed that he was the old Nizam of Hyderabad, returned in new flesh to claim his kingdom . . . His party which had been voted in four years ago, now ruled with an iron hand. Dissent was strongly discouraged (4-5).

Gowda assumes an almost Hitler-like persona and suppresses the marginalized.

Nampally Road, which is fairly quiet, turns into a noisy thoroughfare because of the birthday celebrations of the Chief Minister. The tax money of the common people is spent like water:

Fully authorized by his own ruling party, Limca Gowda had decided to turn his dreams to good use. His office was now run from the old fort of Golconda, the seat of the rulers of ancient Hyderabad. It was rumoured that for his birthday celebrations fast approaching now, he would take hold of history with an iron hand, mix and match as he desired/dress up as the last Qutubshahi, and mimic the mad gestures of the dead Nizam (38).

Rape in Police Custody

Meantime, a woman called Rameeza is raped in police custody. Rameeza is a young woman, accompanied by her husband to Sagar Talkies to see the celebrated Isak Katha. On their way back home, they are encircled by a horde of drunken policemen. She is gang-raped and her husband has his brains beaten out. But no one can raise his voice for any matter, till Limca Gowda's sixtieth birthday celebrations are over, even if a woman is raped in police custody. The raped woman has no voice. Her suffering has a language but who hears?

When Rameeza, the victim is interviewed by Mira, all that she can do is make little whispers and short cries. Ramu and Mira want to understand her

pain. They tell her that those who raped her will be brought to justice and that people would rise up against violence.

Rape in India and around the World

Rape is the most heinous crime committed by man against woman. Among others, some police personnel and politicians have also been implicated now and then in rape cases. Sometimes, police officials and staff of civil services tend to claim most rape cases are not rape cases, but cases of consensual sex. For example, a senior official of the Mumbai Police, Mr. Y. P. Singh, recently remarked that “Except for a few violent rape cases where brutal force is used, most other cases involve some degree of consensus sex” (*The Hindu*, October 17, 2004). This argument does not seem to convince many people, perhaps because of stories of various types of police atrocity. People agitate against “police atrocities” almost daily and we read about such demonstrations in our newspapers on a regular basis.

Rape, as a form of personal violence, is not merely a physical assault and symbolic of the degradation of womankind, but a violation of the most sensitive part of a female psyche.

In the novel, a woman is raped in police custody and two other women are raped and buried half alive in the shifting sands of the Arabian Sea. Despite strong recommendations by the Law Commission of India, several judgments in High Courts and Supreme Court as well as laws against rape, the police do not take any action, as they seem to be more worried about the birthday celebration bash for the Chief Minister than about the tragic fate of a poor woman. The novelist describes the happening thus:

A young woman had come in from the mountains with her husband ... It was late at night . . . they fell prey to a horde of drunken policemen. Rameeza was gang raped. Her husband had his brains beaten out. His body was recovered from a well behind the police station. Swollen, the eyes puffed out, it was identified . . . (58)

A few days after Rameeza Begum’s incident a small crowd gather and agitate in order to rescue her: I could hear the rickshaw drivers cry out as we raced past them, I could hear the fish wives and the sellers of vegetables, all the way to the open space where the police station stood . . . They were agitated, solved about action . . . Scores of men and women thrust hard against the main doors of the police station . . . Smoke was everywhere . . . the police station started burning. It burned very well . . . a quick sudden revenge . . .

But very soon, many were quickly arrested and carried off in the black vans by the reserve police. Rameeza is declared a “source of turbulence”. Student leaders, workers and some intellectuals are also arrested. They were to be held a “protective detention”, it was said, until the Chief Minister’s birthday was over . . . (58)

Little Mother

The novel has another important character, Dr. Durgabai who is referred as Little Mother. The author seems to imply that India needs the healing touch of doctors like Durgabai. The Little Mother, perhaps, is allegory of Mother India. The allegory is made evident when Durgabai suffers illness when the city goes through commotions and atrocities carried out in the name of politics. Durgabai also evinces great interest in all the happenings of the novel and suffers mental trauma as she suffers variously with the sufferings of the oppressed.

Standstill Progress

Development has become standstill because of poverty and illiteracy. In the novel, a tribal man, comes to the clinic of Dr. Durgabai with a child of ten or eleven years old, part of whose skull is torn and the whitish brain matter is visible. The boy is mauled by a leopard. The man, being an illiterate, does not even know the seriousness of the problem and thereby loses his son.

Durgabai feels horror troubled by rich men’s meaningless ‘show’ and the elaborate life style of modern doctors which can be supported only with the help of black money. Her attention is wholly dedicated to a long-awaited transformation of India. “A new India is being born”, she claims significantly, she has a soft corner for women in trouble. For instance, in the case of D and C, she explains to Mira that after physical healing, one should move on to emotional healing: Then you have to build up the woman’s spirit so “the shame doesn’t last” she explained to me. “It’s terrible, the fate of some of our young girls . . .” (16).

Expected Role of Citizens

Equipped with the influence of good educational background, both Ramu and Mira, ordinary citizens in the novel, are in a position to serve the nation. There is a barber shop at the right side of Little Mother’s house and a bicycle shop at the left. The apprentices, small boys, sleep on the pavement using rugs. Little Mother feels happy in treating their small ailments. She comments on them thus: “They were all picked off the street. He’s good man the bicycle fellow. He treats them as well as he can. But they eat so poorly. A bit of rice or roti and some dal if they’re lucky. I have dreams of keeping a

buffalo to provide them with milk, what do you think?" (19). Not only the Mother, but even an illiterate cycle shop owner has something constructive to offer toward the building up of the nation's economy.

Alexander underscores the point that it is every individual, rich or poor who makes up the nation, should assume the responsibility to shape India into one of the outstanding nations of the world.

Little Mother feels upset and almost angry. She can sit and read the Wye valley poems, but she raises the question: "Why study Wordsworth in our new India." (54) Poetic sensibilities, fine arts, religion and culture become 'luxuries' that well-fed plutocrats only can afford.

Novel of Protest and Anger

The novel is a novel of protest and anger. Initially disagreement is registered through mild protests. The novel tries to prove that the anger of the meek and the humble could rise to the level of mass rebellion, which will ultimately decimate the perpetrators of injustice.

The pomp and show accompanying the sixtieth birthday celebration of Limca Gowda, the Chief Minister's utter neglect of masses, and the plight of the millions who are condemned to live a destitute life in slums, all these culminate in the eruption of lava in which Limca Gowda's "Cardboard" city meets a fiery finale. What began as a mild protest in the form of orange sellers' march wells up anger and determination against manifest injustice in the heart of millions and explodes leading on to such a violent end.

The Colonizer, the Colonized and the Patriarchal Tradition

In every colonial nation, human relationships have arisen from the severest exploitation, founded on inequality and contempt and guaranteed by police authoritarianism. All administrative and political machinery is geared to a regime of oppression for the benefit of a few. For the colonizer, the most important area of domination is the mental domain of the colonized. The native woman is doubly marginalized by virtue of her relative economic oppression and gender subordination.

In all spheres of Indian society, women are dominated, dehumanized and de-womanized, discriminated against, exploited, harassed sexually, used, abused and viewed as inferior beings who must always subordinate themselves to the so-called male supremacy. Indian women still live under the shadow of patriarchal tradition that manifests itself in violence against women.

To quote an example from the novel, Alexander beautifully narrates a small pathetic incident wherein an old cobbler woman, who is in no way linked to the birth day celebrations of Gowda, is threatened by an Ever Ready man.

The poor old woman is concentrating sincerely in mending the broken chappal of Mira. She is not only old and poor but suffers from leukoderma. The cobbler woman carefully works on the chappal without minding the slogans and the busy trucks carrying the cheering villagers, cheering for a promise of three free meals and a handful of rupees. But nothing seems to bother the woman who chooses a pavement to work for her livelihood.

All on a sudden, Ever Ready man comes and “stares at her, kicked some of her leather scraps into the gutter and then walked away, lathi in hand” (102). But the old woman is calm and composed and continues to do her work. Her non-violent attitude is amazing to Mira, the college teacher, whose passion rises at the flicker of anger.

The Subaltern Voice

Mira, an educated, a college teacher, seems to derive her strength for action from the subaltern voices. The final chapter of the novel pictures how woman from a village, narrates the everyday atrocities in Hyderabad. She boldly raises her voice against the centre for the marginalized. This shows that the subaltern also can speak and it shall surely be heard.

The next speaker in the crowd is Maitreyi, a sweeper in the police station. She is the only eye witness of the rape. She describes how Rameeza is “dragged up the steps” and later “thrown into the cell”. On hearing the voices of the subdued Mira states:

Listening to her voice my ears grew swollen, like wheat filled with water, afloat on a swamp. I felt my body stuck in its place. I could barely lift my hand to push back the strands of hair that were crowding into my eyes.” (88)

The next speaker is also a woman. She is introduced as Rosamma from the hill country. She says, “Overcome oppression, down with chains” (89). She pats on Mira’s shoulder and says, “You must not be afraid to use knives. How also should we reach the new world?” (90).

Questioning the Value of Non-violence

Mira now understands that the marginalized have to sustain their anger so that a day will come for them to reap justice, liberty and equality, with the help of the sickles they carry. Alexander questions the value of non-violence of

Gandhi, because it almost fails to bring a change in the lives of the poor and the subdued as seen in the life of the cobbler woman. Unless women take up the “knife of justice” (90), there is little chance for freedom and justice. The subaltern must speak, speak on louder and louder one by one and then must go in for action, just like the woman from a village, a Maitreyi and a Rosamma.

Thus Alexander suggests a path of recovery and healing through female solidarity and friendship. Alexander does not stop merely with the recording of female bodily trauma. In this novel, she suggests a path of recovery and healing through female solidarity and friendship. This vision possibly stems from the influence of various Indian women’s movements that she witnessed in her formative years.

Possibility for the Uplift

Alexander suggests that there is a possibility of the uplift of the poor and destitute if only a little bit of cooperation is found in every individual. Mira is an ordinary woman who is ready to embrace the subdued wherever she finds. Her heart wells up whenever she sees women being subdued in the hands of the cruel patriarchy. Her anger is beautifully canalized into positive actions and she is very much sure that there shall definitely be a cure though it may be a slow process.

The novel ends with a positive note thus: “Her (Rameeza’s) mouth was healing slowly” (107). Mira wishes a “heavy rain must fall” (106) on the fire which had been lit in water.

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An Investigation into the Causes of English Language Learning Anxiety in Students at AWKUM

Zafar Iqbal Khattak, M.A. and Ph.D. Scholar

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Tanveer Jamshed, M.A.

Mirza Naveed Baig, M.A. and Ph.D. Scholar

Abstract

It has been generally acknowledged that many an individual faces intrapersonal difficulties in learning a second/foreign language. Anxiety is one of them. The purpose of the present study is to investigate the factors that cause language anxiety among English Department students at Abdul Wali Khan University Mardan (AWKUM), Pakistan and to devise strategies for reducing the effect of language anxiety.

The researchers carried out the study by administering FLCAS (Horwitz et al. 1986) to 62 AWKUM students, and by conducting semi-structured interviews with 10 volunteer students.

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An Investigation into the Causes of English Language Learning Anxiety in Students at AWKUM

The findings from FLCAS and semi-structured interviews showed that the students felt anxious of making mistakes and about teachers' correcting their mistakes in the classes; they felt nervousness about failing the exams; and, moreover, it was also found that the students' poor socio-economic backgrounds developed a sense of marginalization among them vis-a-vis foreign language use. Again, the poor return rate of the FLCAS also shows the students' feeling anxiety regarding foreign language.

The study recommended that language teachers should adopt purely learners-centred teaching methods. A low- anxiety and supportive learning environment should be created inside the classrooms.

Keywords: English Language Learning Anxiety; FLCAS; AWKUM

1. Introduction

With the emergence of English as a global language, its importance and usage has also got manifold. Almost every second prospective international student, who wants to engage himself in further studies, has to learn and attain a certain level of English proficiency. However, many a learner expresses their inability and sometimes they even acknowledge their failure in learning English as a second/foreign language. These learners may be good at learning any other skill but, when it comes to the skill of learning another language, they claim to have a '*mental block*' against it (Horwitz et al., 1986:125).

In many cases, students' feeling of stress, anxiety or nervousness may impede their language learning and performance abilities. Many a researcher believes that anxiety is the major hurdle to be overcome while learning English or any other foreign language. Anxiety experienced in learning English language can be debilitating and may influence students' achievements of their goals.

The present study was carried out for probing into the causes of English language learning anxiety at the department of English in Abdul Wali Khan University Mardan (AWKUM) Pakistan. Hopefully, it would benefit the students as well as teachers at AWKUM and across Pakistan, helping them in reducing the effects of language anxiety.

2. The Aim of the study

The main purpose of our study was to know about some of the factors that may cause English language learning anxiety among students in AWKUM. Previous research studies have shown that language anxiety is caused due to some psychological, social, and cultural factors. The fact

that language anxiety is a psychological construct, it most likely stems from the learner's own 'self', i.e., as an intrinsic motivator (Schwartz, 1972; cited in Scovel 1991: 16).

Again, language anxiety may be a result as well as a cause of insufficient command of the target language (Sparks and Ganschow; cited in Horwitz, 2001). That is to say it may be experienced due to linguistic difficulties that learners may face in learning and using the target language. Within social contexts, language anxiety may be experienced due to extrinsic motivators (Schwartz, 1972; cited in Scovel, 1991: 16).

Also, the target language is a representation of another cultural community; there is a predisposition among some people to experience such anxiety because of their own concerns about ethnicity, foreignness, and the like (Gardner cited in Horwitz & Young, 1991). Social status of the speaker and the interlocutor, a sense of power relations between them, and gender could also be important factors in causing language anxiety for speakers. Besides, there could be some other factors behind language anxiety of the learners.

These may be related to teaching methods and learning environments especially in poor settings such as ours (i.e. Pakistan's). A further detailed investigation about these factors could potentially assist language teachers to alleviate anxiety in the classroom setting and to make the classroom environment less anxiety-provoking and hence to improve learners' performance in the target language.

3. Review of the Related Literature

In order to make understand the concept of language anxiety, Hilgard, Atkinson, & Atkinson, (1971) as cited in Scovel, 1991: 18) define it to be '*a psychological construct, commonly described by psychologists as a state of apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object.* Anxiety has been found to interfere with many types of learning but when it is associated with leaning a second or foreign language, it is termed as '*second/foreign language anxiety*'. It is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon. Similarly, the term Anxiety, '*as perceived intuitively by many language learners, negatively influences language learning and has been found to be one of the most highly examined variables in all of psychology and education*' (Horwitz, 2001: 113).

Psychologists make a distinction between three categories of anxiety: trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety. Trait anxiety is relatively stable personality characteristic, '*a more permanent predisposition to be anxious*' (Scovel, 1978: cited in Ellis, 1994: 479); whereas state anxiety is a transient anxiety, a response to a particular anxiety-provoking stimulus such as an important test (Spielberger, 1983: cited in Horwitz, 2001: 113). The third category, Situation-specific anxiety, refers to the persistent and multi-faceted

nature of some anxieties (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a: cited in Horwitz, 2001: 113). It is aroused by a specific type of situation or event such as public speaking, examinations, or class participation (Ellis, 1994: 480).

Some researchers reported a negative relationship between language anxiety and achievement, e.g. the higher the anxiety, the lower the performance, (Clement, Gardner, & Smythe, 1977, 1980: cited in Onwuegbuzie, A, J., Bailey, P., & Daley, C, E. 1999: 218). Recently, Horwitz (2001: 121) has reiterated that the issue of understanding the relationship between anxiety and achievement is unresolved. The reason for these mixed results is perhaps, as stated by Philip (cited in Shams, 2006: 8), that ‘comparison of the experimental research examining the relationship between anxiety and second language learning is, to a degree, perplexing, presenting some conflicting evidence and illustrating that anxiety is a complex, multi-faceted construct.’

In addition to the negative effects of anxiety on language learning and performance, anxiety has occasionally been found to facilitate language learning. Anxiety, in its debilitating and facilitating forms, serves simultaneously to motivate and to warn the learner. Facilitating anxiety ‘motivates the learner to *‘fight’* the new learning task; it gears the learner emotionally for approach behaviour’ (Scovel 1991: 2). Debilitating anxiety, in contrast, ‘motivates the learner to *‘flee’* the new learning task; it stimulates the individual emotionally to adopt avoidance behaviour’ (1991: 22).

Most of the researches on language anxiety have revealed the fact that anxiety can impede foreign language achievement and its production. According to Campbell & Ortiz (1991), almost one half of all language students experience a startling level of anxiety. Language anxiety is experienced by learners of both foreign and second language and poses potential problems ‘because it can interfere with the acquisition, retention and production of the new language’ (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991: 86). Again since 1970s, there has been a great deal of research on second/foreign language anxiety. But the researchers are unable to draw a clear picture of how anxiety affects language learning and performance.

The present study tried to probe into the factors that may cause English language learning anxiety among students in AWKUM.

4. Research Methodology

The researchers, in order to conduct the study, incorporated two sources of data collection. First, data were collected through a questionnaire ‘Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale’ (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al (1986), slightly modified by excluding some of its statements. The five point Likert scale was used and each statement had five responses. The sample of 62 was equally divided among male-female students of AWKUM. Second, data were

collected from 10 volunteer students through semi- structured interviews. Basically, the research study was qualitative and descriptive in nature.

5. Findings from FLCAS Questionnaire

After analysing the data through SPSS Version 17, the researchers drew certain results. In order to mould the present study as per the required format, the researchers, instead of giving a full-scale data analysis, documented the findings in itemised way. Following were some of the main findings got through administering FLCAS questionnaire:

- i. Majority of the students feel anxious about making mistakes in a language class.
- ii. Majority of the students get trembled at knowing that they are going to be called on in language class.
- iii. Majority of the students bother about taking more language classes. This may show that they usually have got little exposure to the targeted language.
- iv. Majority of the students suffer from lack of attention and interest in the class.
- v. Majority of the students think that other students might be better than them especially in a language class. There may be some sort of language inferiority complex in the students.
- vi. Majority of the students usually do not feel comfortable during tests in language class. This may show a sign of language anxiety on their part. It may be due to fear of failure.
- vii. Majority of the students feel worry about the consequences of failing language class.
- viii. Majority of the respondents get nervous during language class.
- ix. Majority of the students feel embarrassment in volunteering answer in a language class.
- x. The students get nervous due to the teachers' being too ready for correcting their mistakes.
- xi. Majority of the students despite being well prepared for language class usually feel anxious.
- xii. A large number of students do not like to attend language classes.
- xiii. Majority of the students feel afraid of teachers correcting their mistakes.
- xiv. Majority of the students feel fearful at knowing that they may be asked to perform an activity in the English class.
- xv. Majority of the students are of the view that they get confused and nervous by more study.
- xvi. Majority of the students feel pressure due to their having to prepare very well for language class.
- xvii. Majority of the students feel worry about getting left behind in a language class.
- xviii. Majority of the students feel more and more nervous in language class than in any other class.
- xix. Some of the students are not sure and relaxed when they go to a language class which shows their language anxiety.

- xx. Majority of the students get nervous when they do not understand every word that the language teacher utters in a language class.

6. Findings from Semi-Structured Interviews

Findings from semi-structured interviews with 10 volunteer students to a great extent complimented the results got through administration of FLCAS questionnaire. Following are some of the main findings:

- i. The students' poor educational backgrounds (schooling) usually lets them suffer from language anxiety as English as a Foreign Language has ever been made an incomprehensible subject to them by their teachers. One of the students puts in, "Well! I have never liked my English Teacher at School... He would always teach us translation of the lesson... He would ask us to memorise the grammar rules...(Mujhey apna school English ka English teacher acha nahe lagta tha... woh hamain har waqt lessons ki translation karwata tha... woh hamain grammar k rules zabai yaad karwata...)."
- ii. Their poor socio-economic backgrounds generally make them feel as if English language is the language of the elite only and they can hardly feel at home about learning it effectively and sans any complex. Again, one of the students says, "I think only rich can learn English language effectively... (Meray khayal mei sirf ameer hi angrezi zaban achaey tareeqay se seekh saktey hain...)"
- iii. Their teachers' strict way of teaching, examination fear and their intrapersonal biases towards English and fore-mostly their interpersonal communication problems (especially between male and female students) also make the AWKUM students' anxious to a great extent.

8. Discussion and Conclusions

Mostly the negative responses indicate the students' English language learning anxiety. It can be arguably accepted that most of the AWKUM students get nervous whenever they feel the need to use English in- and outside the classroom. We can deduce from the above findings that strict and formal classroom environment may be one of the reasons for students' anxiety.

From the findings of the study, we can also feel that perhaps there is lack of understanding and good working relations between AWKUM students and their teachers. It was found that the fear of making mistakes and apprehension about others may raise the anxiety level of the students. The fear of failure in examination also proves one of causes of the students' language anxiety. Again, the students get nervous when they do not understand what the teacher is trying to correct. Limited exposure to the targeted language can increase the students' anxiety level. Most

importantly, the students' socio-economic background may also influence their efforts of learning the targeted language. The educational background of the students may also influence their language learning.

The results of this study clearly indicates that in spite the use of modern communicative approaches and techniques, the problem of English language anxiety still persists among the students of AWKUM. It still needs to be researched in more detailed way. The students' lack of confidence, their inability to participate in the classroom discussions, their over self-consciousness, consciousness of the grammatical forms and structure, low self esteem, speaking apprehension, their nervousness and a feeling of getting behind are, however, also some of the primary factors that do contribute towards language anxiety.

7. Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations can be made in order to facilitate the learners as well as the teachers:

- i. English language teachers across the country should acknowledge the importance of the issue of language anxiety among the students.
- ii. Friendly, informal and learning supportive environment should be created in language classrooms.
- iii. Teachers should try to encourage the students whenever they make mistakes in language classrooms.
- iv. Students' interested areas should be discussed in language classrooms.
- v. The teachers should use gentle or non-threatening methods of error correction and should always be ready to offer a few words of encouragement.
- vi. Students' familiarity with culture and ethnic background can also be helpful in reducing their anxiety.
- vii. Students' centred teaching methods should be adopted in language classrooms.
- viii. Special teacher training courses or sessions about how to reduce language anxiety should be arranged for the English language teachers in general and AWKUM English language teachers in particular.
- ix. Foreign language anxiety awareness should be created in the students so that they become mentally ready to cope it individually.
- x. The student should be encouraged to practice English language inside and outside the classroom.

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Rhythm and Intonation Patterns in English and Urdu - A Contrastive Analysis

Mohammad Owais Khan, Ph.D.

Abstract

In all the languages, Rhythm and Intonation play a central role in the production of statement and interrogative sentences, without which meaning remains ambiguous and is not conveyed to the listener properly. The rhythm of the languages of the world has traditionally been classified into stress-timed and syllable-timed patterns.

In syllable-timed rhythm there is a regular time interval between each syllable, languages like Hindi and Urdu are syllable-timed. An equal time interval is observed between two syllables. Rhythm is produced by the periodicity of a pattern that can be syllable, which is a language specific unit. Intonation involves a one to one interactional occasion when the addresser and the addressee talk to each other. If the addresser and the addressee are from the same social, cultural, regional provenance there are no overt problems of communications because of intonation. But if they are from different social, cultural, or regional provenance, difficulties of communication may arise quite often.

The present paper aims at a contrastive analysis of Rhythm and Intonation patterns in English and Urdu. It has been observed that Urdu speakers face difficulties in learning Rhythm and

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intonation patterns in English. So they use faulty rhythm and intonation patterns by which the connotation is not communicated to the listener appropriately. We devote a special attention to differentiate rhythmic and intonation patterns between the two languages. This paper will help the teachers teaching English as a foreign language as well as the students.

1. Introduction

About the two languages under study in the present investigation we can make a generalization. It is that at the phonological level there are two main divisions. They are segmental features and supra-segmental features. Segmental features are those that can have independent place and are separable from other units of the same category. Consonants and vowels are such features. Supra-segmental components are those which are not separable as independent elements and they are located at a particular point in the connected speech. Let us take the following examples to substantiate the above statement.

- (a) Where are you going at this time?
 (b) /ɪs wəqʌ ʌ ʊm kəhã dʒa: rəhe hɔ:ʔ/

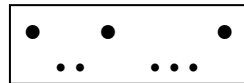
Here we can easily separate the sounds shown in the examples:

- (a) (i) Consonants : (w, r, j, g, ŋ, t, ð, s, t, m) 10 nos.
 (ii) Vowels : (eə, ə, u:, əʊ, ɪ, æ, ɪ, aɪ) 08 nos.
 (b) (i) Consonants : (s, w, q, ʌ, ʌ, m, k, h, dʒ, r, h, h,) 12 nos.
 (ii) Vowels : (ɪ, ə,ʊ, ə, a:, a:, ə, e, o) 09 nos.

In utterance (a) above there are 10+8 sounds and in utterance (b) there are 12+09 sounds. The fact that they can be counted by separating them from their phonetic context shows that they are segmental features.

The sounds under (a) (ii) and (b) (ii) are – ‘vowels’ – they have the additional features of constituting prominence because of the natural phenomenon of the chest pulse factor. Since prominence is variable and quite often spread over the stretch of the utterance it becomes supra-segmental and hence a component of rhythmic variation. These shifts or variations in prominence are not arbitrary and unorganized. They occur at regular places. Hence we can say that rhythm (i) depends upon the phonological function of the peaks of prominence or their absence or weakening and has an organized pattern of recurrence in the connected speech. The following diagrammatic form of examples show how peaks of prominence can vary depending upon the functional change of the utterance because of the factor of ‘context of situation’.

Where are you going at this time?



Where are **you** going at this time?

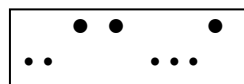


Figure I



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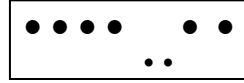
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Where are you **going** at this time?

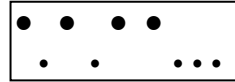


Where are you going at **this time**?

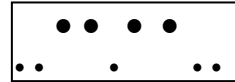


There can be a variety of patterns after the pitch variation starts until the end of the utterance depending upon the functional attitude of the choice of the tone (rising, falling, fall-rise, rise-fall) etc.)

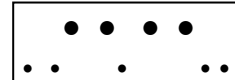
/ɪs wəqʊt̪ t̪ʊm kəhã dʒa: rəhe hɔ:ʔ/



/ɪs wəqʊt̪ t̪ʊm kəhã dʒa: rəhe hɔ:ʔ/



/ɪs wəqʊt̪ t̪ʊm kəhã dʒa: rəhe hɔ:ʔ/



/ɪs wəqʊt̪ t̪ʊm kəhã dʒa: rəhe hɔ:ʔ/

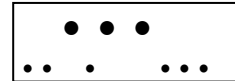
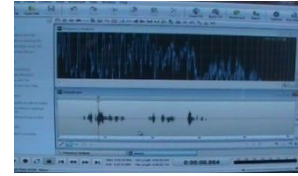


Figure - II



It will be useful to point out the division of units which contributes to the rhythmic pattern of English or Urdu. The smallest unit in the hierarchical order is a phoneme; then comes the syllable, then the phrase and the whole utterance. We speak in utterances where recurrence of beats or accents in a patterned manner is taken into account. Phonologists have asserted that in English these beats occur at a regular interval of time irrespective of the number of peaks between two beats; i.e. stresses. For this, as Leach has said “the grandiose term isochronisms (equal-time-ness)” has been used.

2. Literature Review

It will be useful to accept Firth’s (1966) theory of ‘Context of Situation’ as a framework to be kept in mind while analyzing any speech event in a living situation. Pronouns and the forms of verbal inflection are the most significant markers of the interpersonal attitudes, responses and relationships between the participants of the speech events. Participants in the speech event are members of a social, cultural and regional community.

Two articles, which started a new line of inquiry into spoken language, are Roger Brown and Albert Gilman’s (“The Pronouns of Solidarity.”) and Paul Friedrich’s, “Structural Implications of Russian Pronominal Usage.”

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A man has to play a multiplicity of roles in a social life at various levels, -- individual level, personal level, social level, communal level, and national or international level. His relationship with his interlocutor is not a fixed one. It keeps on changing, some times overtly and some other time covertly which affect the choice of the linguistic items and the tone group of the speech even during the speech.

Sometimes code-switching takes place to denote the sudden change in the relationship of the participant in a speech event. The change from ‘thou’ to ‘you’ and the corresponding change in verbs in Hamlet – Gertrude interaction and from proper name to ‘Lady’ in King Lear are classic examples quoted by Brown and Gilman.

‘Stress’ by the way, cannot be merely reduced to the single physical factor of loudness; pitch and length also have a part to play. Stress is an abstract, linguistic concept, not a purely acoustic one. Geoffrey N. Leech (1969).

In the daily life of a man the use of language by him in interaction can be fully comprehended only when we briefly glance at Firth’s schematic framework of “context of Situation” which consists of a dual axis of (a) an axis of context, and (b) an axis of dyadic relations. The contextual dimension includes the following: (a) Topic of discourse: this relates to the consideration of whether the conversation relates to personal or impersonal problems of a social, political, professional, academic or amorous sort. (b) Occasion or situation of speech event. (c) Relative group, category, or caste membership and (d) relative role or and status of person in terms of (i) generation, age, sex, marital status, juridical position, political or economical authority and emotional solidarity.

The Dyadic Relational Dimension: Here the categories depend upon the complexity of the social organization and relational realities among the inhabitants of the community. Some of the obvious ones relevant to the two languages under study are:

- (a) Social Dyadic Relational Category (Landlord – Tenant; Master – Servant; Friends, Strangers)
- (b) Familial Dyadic Relational Category (Father – Son; Father – Daughter; Husband – Wife; Mother – Son; Mother - Daughter; Brother – Sister; Sister – Sister)
- (c) Professional Dyadic Relational Category (Official; An Official and a non-official; Customer – Shopkeeper; Doctor – Patient; Prostitute – her client).

The above sketchy discussion of the complex implication involved in the study of intonation is a useful component of any study of living speech for person-to-person interaction.

J.D. O’Cornnor and G.F. Arnold (1976) have rightly observed that “no language that we know of is spoken on a monotone; in all languages there are variations of pitch, though not all languages use these pitch variations.”

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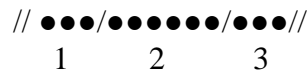
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To this we may add that in English intonation is considerably significant, it is more systematic, defined and meaningful. In Urdu intonation is meaningful no doubt, because it reflects the attitudes and interpersonal relationship of the speech participants, but it is not so complex and comprehensive. Intonation patterns in Urdu may have similarities with those of English but it has its own socio-linguistic implications, reflecting the cultural and social nuances of the relational dimension of the speech participants. "Intonation may be defined as the variations which take place in the pitch of voice in connected speech, i.e. the variations in the pitch of the musical note produced by the variation of the vocal cords. Intonation is thus quite a different thing from stress." Daniel Jones, (1966).

2.1 Rhythm

As the unit of syllable is a vowel, the unit of rhythm is one of the vowels which carries maximum prominence in an utterance. The utterance may have more than one syllable – some times as many as four to six which may not carry prominence between the first stressed syllable and the last stressed syllable in a stretch of utterance. But between utterances in succession, having more than two stressed syllables, the time taken will be approximately the same. The time graph in relation to the number of syllables vis-a-vis the stressed syllable determining the rhythmic boundary is shown below:



Under 1 above the three syllables will take the same time as six syllables under 2 and the three syllables under 3.

Theoretically speaking, for emphasis, contrast, or other contextual reasons the stress may fall on any syllable. But in English certain working generalizations can be followed. For example, proper nouns and lexical words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, demonstratives, interrogative pronouns and adverbs) bear stress in connected speech, whereas grammatical words (prepositions, auxiliaries, articles, pronouns, conjunctions, personal and relative pronouns etc.) and very often monosyllabic grammatical words usually do not. In polysyllabic lexical words where we have two stresses, and if the word is uttered in isolation or at the end of the sentence, one of these stresses takes precedence over the other in bearing the nucleus of the intonation pattern. Take the word *trepidation* /'trepi'deɪsn/. Here extra prominence can be given either to the first syllable or the pen-ultimate syllable, depending upon the syllabic environment preceding that word or succeeding it. For example:

- All of the 'trepi'dation can for'ver be 'overcome.
- All of the, strong 'trepi'dation can forever be 'overcome.
- All of the, strong 'trepi,dation 'below over.

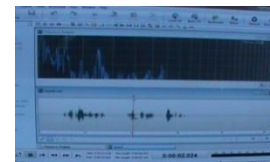
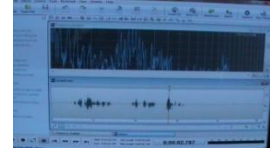


Figure - III

We can give other examples using a musical notation diagram as follows:

Figure - IV





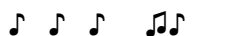

 We'll start immediately if you're ready.

 You can come with me if you're ready.

 This scene was beautiful.

Figure - V



Elision and syncopation play a great role in the phenomenon of rhythm in English. We know that in syncopation a syllable, which usually does not carry a stress, is made to bear stress in precedence over the usually stressed syllable in a word. For example any polysyllabic word with a pattern of strong-weak and weak-strong patterns. In elision the syllable-constituting vowel is omitted for example:

The orient = / ðəʊriənt /
 Cupboard = / kʌbəd /
 Tortoise-shell = / tɔ:təʃel / or / tɔ:təsʃel /

In order to achieve the characteristic isochronocity of beats in English, this language has a unique feature of using weak form mostly of grammatical words. Some of the examples are given below:

Articles	Strong Forms	Weak forms	Examples in RP
a	/eɪ/	/ ə /	/ ə ɡɜ:ɪl /
an	/æn/	/ən/ or /n/	/ ən æpl/
the	/ði:/	/ðɪ/ before a vowel /ðə/ before a consonant	/ðɪ ɔrɪndʒ/ /ðə pen/
Auxiliary verbs (no weak forms in the final position)			
am	/æm/	/ əm/	/aɪm kʌmɪŋ/
are	/ɑ:/	/ ə /	/wɪə kʌmɪŋ/
is	/ɪz/	/z/, /s/	/ʃi:z kʌmɪŋ/
was	/wɔz/	/wəz/	/ʃi: wəz kʌmɪŋ/
would	/wʊd/	/ əd/, /d/	/ʃi:d bɪ ðeə/

No such phenomenon of weak form is possible in Urdu language.

Urdu as we know is a syllable-timed language while English is a stress-timed one. We have seen that in English regular beats or accents occur at approximately fixed duration of time. In a particular stress group if the number of syllables is small (it may be even a monosyllabic word) more time is devoted to the vowel length than usual. But in the succeeding unit of measure,

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consisting of multiple syllables, in order to keep isochronocity of the rhythmic beats the vowel length is either considerably reduced or sometimes the vowel is even elided.

In Urdu no such phenomenon as mentioned above of elision or weakening of vowels, is significantly noticed. Even if it occurs because of extra phonological reasons it is phonetically not functional. For example, in Urdu a long vowel for reasons of pitch emphasis or contrast can be made longer but a short vowel cannot be weakened and elision does not take place at all. This sweeping generalization can be tested by the following:

- (i) Long vowel can be made longer
/si:ḡha dʒa:ja: kəɾɔ:/ (The implication is you should not go in a zigzag way)

In this example [ḡha] can be softened no doubt and the pitch can be made low but no reduction in the length is possible. This is because if we reduce the length a separate vowel will be needed which will be /ə/: /ḡha/ but this will be an all together a different word i.e. /si:ḡhe/ this is because in Urdu /a:/ can be reduced to /ə/ only and no other vowel.

/si:ḡha: dʒa:ja: kəɾɔ:/

Figure VI



Jaya / dʒa:ja:/ here also /dʒa:/ if reduced will give a different word. / dʒəja:/ is a proper noun. But the vowel in ja: cannot be reduced at all. The vowels, which can be reduced, are as follows:

a:→ə; u: → ʊ; æ → e; əu-> o; but this reduction does not help rhythmic variation and considerably contribute to lack of communication.

This is not to say that rhythm is an aspect of the phonological feature of Urdu which does not require to be paid any attention to. In any Urdu utterance there are peaks of prominence. It is a different matter, though, that there is no regularity of isochronocity. But still certain generalizations can be made.

- (i) Long vowel + Long vowel (one of the two will be more prominent in natural utterance) e.g. / dʒa:ja:, kha:ja:, ni:la:, khu:ni:, pa:ni:, tha:ni.

Choice of prominence quite often depends upon the inherent sonority of the consonants. For example, in /dʒa:ja /, / dʒ / is a harsher sound than / j /. Similarly in the example given above kh, n, p, tha, have the tendency to carry loudness more than the other consonants. Perhaps this observation will apply more suitably to voiced consonants.

2.2 Intonation

It is a universally accepted fact that speech is a means of communication within and some times across a social, cultural or regional boundary. The participants in the speech event, while

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Communicating, always demonstrate the features, peculiarities and cultural characteristics of their milieu. They determine the choice of linguistic items for communication. The whole attitude, response to social and other interactional communications depends upon the culture of which the language is the product. Intonation involves a one to one interactional occasion when the addresser and the addressee talk to each other. If the addresser and the addressee are from the same social, cultural, regional provenance there are no overt problems of communication because of intonation. But if they are from different social, cultural, or regional provenance, difficulties of communication may arise quite often.

Daniel Jones' distinguishing of stress from intonation will be clear if we keep the following definition of stress given by him in mind: Stress may be described as the degree of force with which a sound or syllable is uttered. It is essentially a subjective action. A strong force of utterance means energetic action of all the articulatory organs; it is usually accompanied by a gesture with the hand or head or other part of the body; it involves a strong 'push' from the chest wall and consequently strong force of exhalation; this generally gives the objective impression of loudness. Weak force of utterance involves weak action of the chest wall resulting in weak force of exhalation and giving the objective acoustic impression of softness.

2.2.1 Sense Group

We neither think nor speak in single words; we express our thought in closely-knit groups of words which contribute to the situation in which we are placed at a given moment.

Such groups of words are called 'Sense Groups'. They are usually separated from each other by pauses, though on occasions these pauses may be separated for example:

Good Morning. | How are you?
 I'm very well, | thank you. | And you?
 Fine. | The last time I saw you | you were just going to take your exam. |
 Yes. | I failed, unfortunately. |
 Oh, | bad luck. |

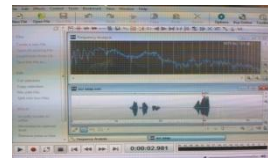
Figure - VII



Urdu example:

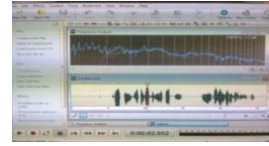
a:ɖa:b ərz |
 a:p kæse hæʔ |
 mãĩ thi:k hũ | ɔ:r a:p? |

Figure - VIII



thi:k hũ. | a:khɪr ba:r dʒəb mʊla:qa:ʈ huɪ | ʈum ɪmʈeha:n ɔene dʒa rəhe ʈhe. |

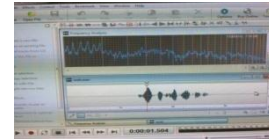
Figure – IX



hã. | bəɖqɪsməʈi se máĩ fel hə gəja. |

Oh, | kesi: bəɖqɪsməʈi: |

Figure- X



Sense groups may consist of a single word or a number of words. Their length may vary according to the situation and the kind of speech being used. e.g.

Single word: When | How | Why | are not relevant |
Allah | Allah | Kəɾɔ | sʌb thi:k hɔga: |

If the utterance is unduly long, pauses are required to give respite to the pulmonary system. Hence pauses become a biological necessity.

2.2.2 Breath Group

A breath group is not arbitrary in normal utterances, and it normally corresponds with the sense group. The unit of breath group, therefore, is the sense group.

2.2.3 Tune

Tune is “the complete pitch treatment of a sense group there are six tunes: , low fall, high fall, rise fall, low rise, high rise, fall rise.

2.2.4 Pitch variation

All the above tunes are related to the pitch on a relatively more prominent syllable. It is this syllable from which variation or movement in the direction of one of the tunes takes place. Pitch variation may start and end on a syllable if it occurs finally and is stressed. e.g. /juər ə fu:l / (You’re a fool.)

2.2.5 Tonic/Tonicity

Tonic is the extra breath force exhorted on a syllable which is the carrier of pitch variation. In the following examples the tonic may fall on any stressed syllable of the lexical word. e.g. His brother is an extra ordinary intelligent scholar. The tonic may fall as shown below depending

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upon the information to be conveyed. We will take up a statement for the sake of economy of the space. e.g. *His brother is an extraordinary intelligent scholar.*

The tonic may fall as shown:

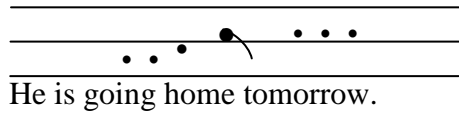


Figure - XI

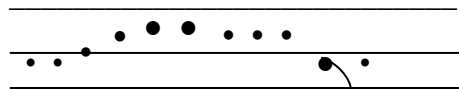
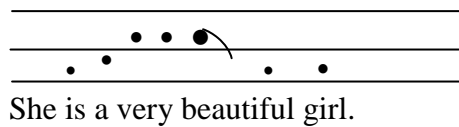


Figure – XII



In Urdu the tunes are more leveled than the significantly marked ones in English.

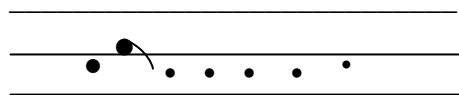


Figure –XIII

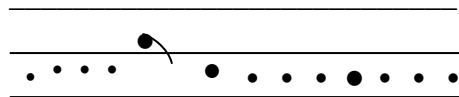
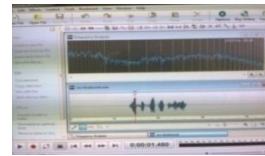


Figure- XVI

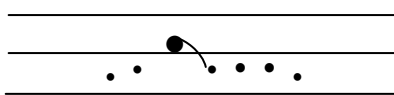
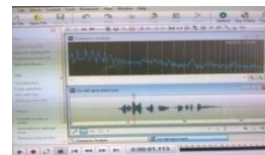
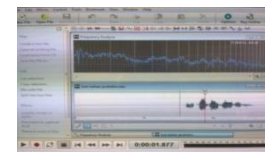


Figure – XV



2.2.6 Tone groups

Tone groups can be studied on a dual-axis parameter of (a) grammatical sentence patterns and (b) contextual and other extra linguistic factors of social and psychological nature. We should keep in mind that intonation in language has meanings which are super-imposed on the dictionary meanings of the words uttered. They may convey subtle shades of meaning, which

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could only be expressed by words in a cumbersome matter, if at all. We can compare the following tunes used in the same word for example:

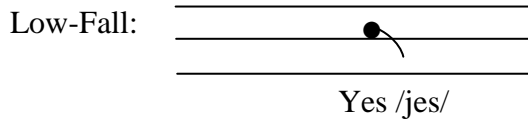


Figure - XVI

this tune means:
“that is so”

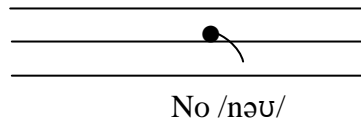
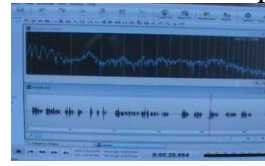


Figure - XVII

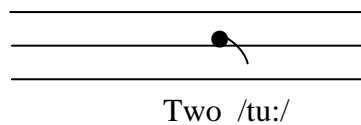


Figure - XVIII

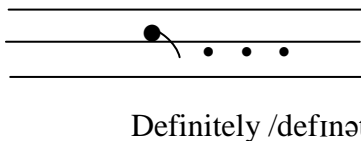
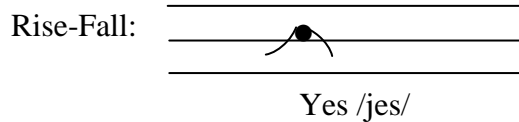


Figure - XIX



this tune means: “of course it is”

Grammatical Sentences Patterns: Statements: Normal, Natural Pattern; last lexical item to carry the tonic.

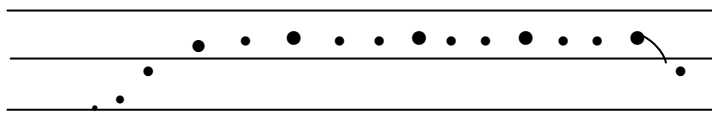


Figure-XX

(She was about the only diligent girl in the whole class.)

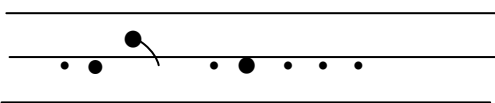
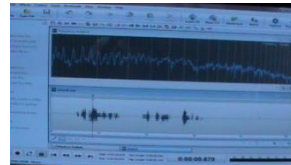
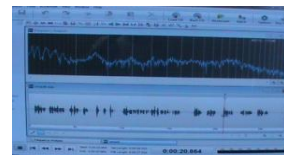


Figure - XXI

(I have just bought a new pair of gloves.)



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Urdu:

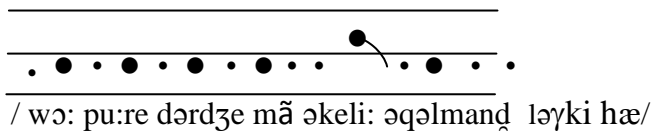


Figure-XXII

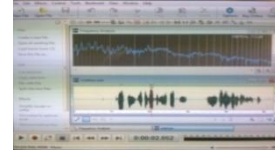


Figure - XXIII



In Urdu the syntactic pattern is not always important especially in statement sentences. Here the tonic falls on the lexical items, which contain the core information.

Wh questions: containing interrogative word demanding a statement answer, e.g.

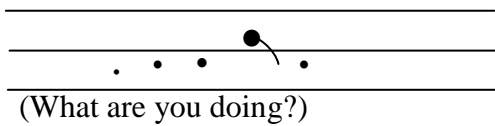


Figure - XXVI

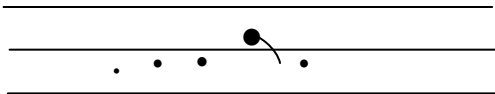


Figure - XXV



Urdu:

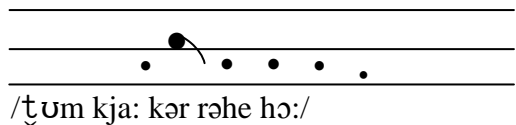


Figure - XXVI

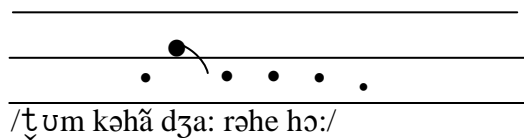
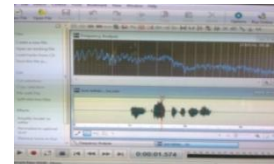
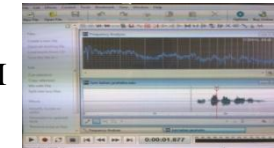
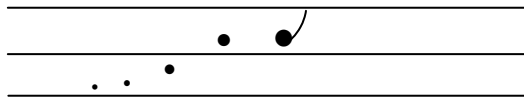


Figure - XXVII

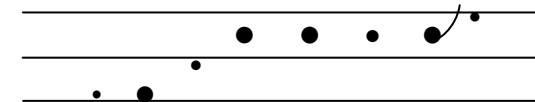


In the above examples the desired answers to the core information queries in the special question words -- /kja:/, kəhǎ/. In English such words are invariably unstressed and weakened in neutral interrogative questions.

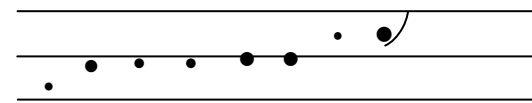
Yes/ No questions: Here the answer is straight ‘yes’ or ‘no’ and the tone is rising e.g.



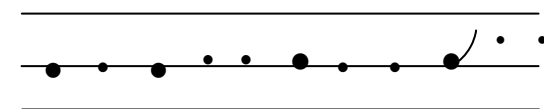
(Is your father home?)



(Does your mother beats you?)



/ʈmha:re əbbu ghər mē hāʔ/



/kja: ʈumha:ri əmmi: ʈumhē ma:rʈɪ hāʔ/

Figure - XXVIII

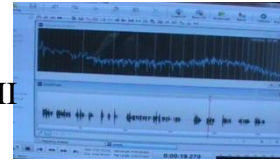


Figure - XXIX



Figure - XXX

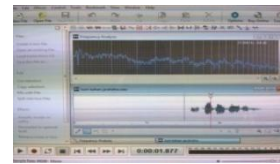
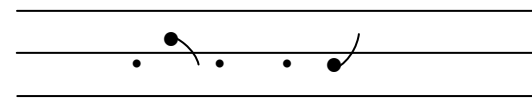


Figure - XXXI

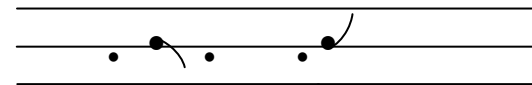


In both Urdu and English in this grammatical pattern the focus is on the point of information in the utterance.

Question Tags: Question tags may be meaningful or meaningless. A meaningful question tag is that which requires a confirmation whereas a meaningless question tag is that which does not require any information or refutation. In English question tags are quite frequent in statement patterns whereas in Urdu the frequency is somewhat less. Eg.



(She is \pretty, \isn't /she?)

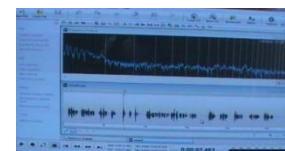


(Please \sit down, will /you?)

Figure - XXXII



Figure - XXXIII



Urdu:

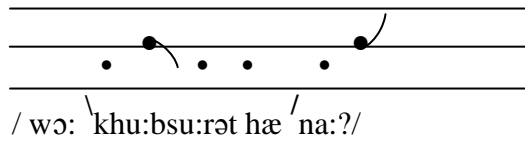


Figure - XXXIV

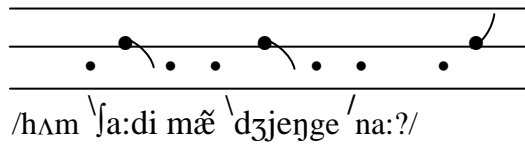
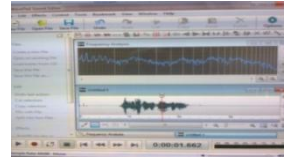


Figure-XXXV



These categories show the complexity of the interpersonal, interactional reality of a community's existence. A speech participant is a bundle of persona and has to play multiple roles even within a single situation. His relationship, attitude etc are reflected in his choice of grammatical items as has been mentioned in the two articles by Paul Friedric and Roger Brown and Albert Gillman. But the grammatical choices have their limited socio-linguistic implications. Shift in pitch movement as an indicator of the possible choice of a tune has a much deeper implication because it is on this that comparison, contrast, confirmation, refutation, etc. depend.

Choice of tones: Besides the two primary tunes, falling and rising, there are a number of combinations of these two tunes in conjunction with low, mid, and high pitches either on the segment of pitch variation group or on the tonic. Sometimes the pitch variation starts on the first stressed syllable of the breath/sense-group and spreads over the entire stretch of utterance until it terminates at the tonic syllable. We have shown that in the diagrammatic representation of pitch movement in regard to the discussion on grammatical categories. In Urdu the pitch is normal and expression of irritation is shown by the help of extra linguistic means such as gesture etc. Unlike English in Urdu the post-tonic syllables remain at their normal pitch. The whole difference is explainable with reference to one language (English) being stress-timed and the other language (Urdu) being syllable timed.

3. Experimental Analysis

In order to investigate the rhythm and intonation patterns in English and Urdu acoustic analysis of recorded material was carried out.

3.1 Choice of Data

In order to be able to grasp the violation or neglect of the socio-cultural component in an interactive speech act, a detailed questionnaire consisting of 24 items were prepared. Sentence lists containing the Statement and Interrogative sentences were prepared. The lists included sentences which were useful for analyzing the rhythm and intonation patterns of Urdu. The above data was prepared only from the sentences which were used commonly by the Urdu speakers. Difficult and Technical sentences which were not usually used by the Urdu speakers were carefully avoided. Generally these sentences were used in day-to-day conversation.

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3.2 Speakers (Informants)

The corpus of the data for analysis was selected from the first year undergraduate students of the faculty of Arts, Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh. Ten undergraduate students speaking Urdu as their mother tongue, coming from the different areas of Western UP and Delhi were chosen as informants. Students of science, technology, and other courses were not taken into account because their competence in the English language is at great variance from that of Arts students. Moreover, these Arts students mostly come from the rural areas of Urdu and Hindi speaking regions. Hence their selection as informants for the present paper was felt to be more meaningful.

These informants who had been speaking Urdu as their first language were identified because they had some sort of uniformity in their speech utterances as well as diversity because of the regional differences of their previous schooling. Their number was 10. The record of all the 10 informants and their particulars were maintained in the table.

Table 1
INFORMANTS' DETAILS

Informant	Age	Sex	Mother tongue	Educational qualification	Other languages known
1	23	M	Urdu	BA. II	Hindi, English
2	21	M	Urdu	B.A. II	Hindi, English
3	20	M	Urdu	B.A. III	Hindi
4	23	M	Urdu	B.A. I	Hindi, English
5	24	M	Urdu	B.A. III	Hindi
6	21	F	Urdu	B.A. I	Hindi, English
7	20	F	Urdu	B.A. III	Hindi
8	22	F	Urdu	B.A. II	Hindi, English
9	22	F	Urdu	B.A. II	Hindi, English
10	23	F	Urdu	B.A. II	Hindi

3.3 Methodology

The recording was made on the Phillips Tape recorder, in the Department of English, AMU, Aligarh, UP. Firstly the informants were asked to read the sentences given to them silently to make the informants familiar with the given text. Before recording their speech, they were asked to mention their names and class and then asked to read the sentences as they spoke those sentences in their daily conversation.

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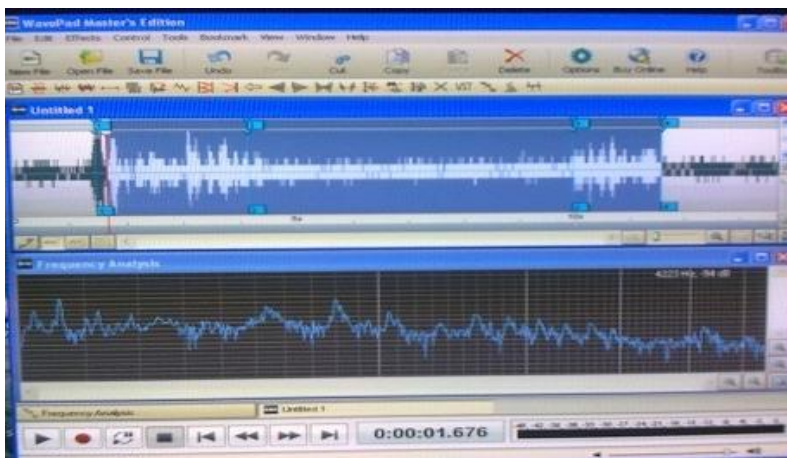
The following framework for listing the various characteristics of rhythm and intonation patterns was recorded. These categories were then reshuffled and rearranged in order to investigate the general patterns.

(i) Rhythm, (ii) Recognition of peaks of prominence in syllable formation, (iii) pitch variations, (iv) fundamental frequency, (v) falling tone, (vi) rising tone, (vii) Rise fall and fall rise.

(viii) Attitude, (ix) Softness, (x) Question, and (xi) Question tag.

Informants were encouraged to read the given text for analyzing the rhythm and intonation patterns. Later, these recorded materials were tabulated and analyzed using WavePad Speech Analyzer acoustically and phonologically so as to arrive at a generalization as to which area(s) presented great difficulty to these informants. WavePad Speech Analyzer provides standard operations such as acquisition, replay, display and labeling, spectrographic and formant analysis and fundamental frequency estimation. It has many specialized tools relating to building speech synthesis and speech recognition applications and is widely used in the teaching of speech science. Figure XXXVI shows a photo shot of a WavePad file where pitch points are displayed.

Figure XXXVI
WavePad Speech Analyzer file showing the pitch of a sound sample



The study is proposed to focus on rhythm and intonation patterns in English and Urdu. This raises lots of problems for working out a study of the type we have undertaken. We have to grapple with a two-fold problem, i.e. which standard form of spoken English is to be taken up for comparison and contrast with which form of Urdu. The problem of the standardized form of spoken Urdu will, therefore, be taken up first.

Because of the social structure of the Hindi-speaking regions there is a close intermixing between speakers of Urdu and Hindi. The features of spoken English of the two languages, therefore, have penetrated into each other.

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For practical purposes, it can safely be asserted that at the grammatical level there is no marked difference between Urdu and Hindi. But at the lexical level, the difference varies from one region to another as well as from one local dialect of Hindi to another. This difference and lack of standardization is more noticeable in spoken Urdu, both at the level of segmental phonological features of the language as well as supra-segmental features.

The use of supra-segmental features, especially rhythm and intonation have got regional varieties because of the dialectal diversity of spoken Hindi or Urdu which – in the form of its various dialects – is the language of family and social interaction. It is said that the dialectal variation in the language of social interaction in Northern India takes place at approximately 15 to 25 miles.

At the Aligarh Muslim University, Urdu-speaking students, officially or as the common perception is, use a variety of Urdu which is highly coloured by the regional dialects. This dialectal colouring is quite marked among the Urdu speakers coming from rural areas and lower, uneducated families.

But this situation is different so far as students from educated traditional Muslim families are concerned. This, in fact, is not an insurmountable problem for a research scholar, except that the researcher has to be cautious in selecting his informants. Another variety of Urdu is literary Urdu which is used only on formal occasions by the distinguished users. Such occasions are Lectures, Seminars, Citations or literary discussions in academic and other sophisticated circles. Since such users of Urdu are not to be counted for purposes of interactive language teaching, they can safely be left aside. Hence, to limit the scope of the present study, literary users of Urdu are not taken into consideration.

4. Result and Conclusion

According to the recorded data in Urdu the length of the vowels or pauses will determine the interval of time between the two prominent peaks of prominence.

- (i) Long vowels bear the peaks of prominence
- (ii) In successive long vowels harsher or more sonorous or voiced consonants help the relative peaks of prominence.
- (iii) Loudness plays a greater role in Urdu than that of English. Almost any syllable can be made distinctly loud where in English weakened grammatical words, if made loud, will affect the rhythmic flows.
- (iv) All syllables in Urdu are distinctly pronounced whereas in English some sounds are more prominent than others.

The data recorded show that the tone (rise-fall, fall-rise) depends upon the intention/attitude of the speaker. This phenomenon exhaustively and conclusively is not always feasible especially in

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English. In Urdu the situation is not so complicated. As situations for verbal interaction are theoretically infinite so are the attitudinal responses of the speech participants. The following example describes only those which are commonly encountered in both the languages English and Urdu.

- (i) /wɪl jʊ \du: əz aɪ a:skt ju: tʊ?/
Will you do as I asked you to?

In the normal situation it should have rising intonation because it is a ‘yes-no’ question pattern. But in annoyance, irritation, exasperation etc. the tune is falling. The above utterance can be said with four different pitch variations, depending upon emphasis, with falling tone.

- (ii) /wɪl jʊ \du: əz aɪ a:skt ju: tʊ?/
(iii) /wɪl jʊ du: əz \aɪ a:skt ju: tʊ?/
(iv) /wɪl jʊ du: əz aɪ \a:skt ju: tʊ?/

Urdu:

- (i) /dʒesa: mǎne kəha: vesa: kəɾɔ:/
(ii) /dʒsa: \mǎne kəha: vesa: kəɾɔ:/
(iii) /dʒesa: mǎne \kəha: vesa: kəɾɔ:/
(iv) /dʒesa: mǎne kəha: vesa: \kəɾɔ:/

In Urdu the pitch is normal and expression of irritation is shown by the help of extra linguistic means such as gesture etc. Unlike English in Urdu the post-tonic syllables remain at their normal pitch. The whole difference is explainable with reference to one language (English) being stress-timed and the other language (Urdu) being syllable-timed.

Cynical, ironical and sarcastic: e.g.

(You are not very good at it| are you?)
/ ju:a: nɔt very \gʊd ət ɪt, | \a: jə/

The implication is that you have always pretended otherwise. The question tag in a normal utterance would have carried no separate tonic.

Urdu:

- /tʃʊm tɔ hamesha achcha karte ho | hona?
/ tʃʊm tɔ: \həmetʃa ətʃha: karte hɔ:, /hɔna:/
/ tʃʊm tɔ: həmetʃa \ətʃha: karte hɔ:, /hɔna:/
/ hǎ \bhəɪ /

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Warning, reprimanding:

(Its time you did it) / its^V taim jə did it /

Urdu: parhayi kar lo /pəɣhai kər^V lo /

Politeness, request: (Shut the door) / ∫ʌt ð^V dɔ:r /

(Thank you) /^V θeŋk ju: /

In Urdu normally intonation alone is not the carrier of politeness. It depends heavily upon lexical items. (Zara zehmat farmaiye ga) / zəra; ^V zehmət̤ fərmaɪje ga: /

Here politeness or request is dependent on the dictionary meaning of the words and the softness of the voice pitch of the speaker. This is not to say that the utterance is not potent enough to convey contrast for irony or sarcasm. This can be done by a simple shift of loudness or pitch variation.

/ zəra; ^V zehmət̤ fərmaɪje ga: /

/ zəra; zehmət̤ fər^V maɪje ga: /

We have seen above that variations in pitch and shifts in pitch movements have a baffling variety and extensiveness. The voice movements can register a quick transition of loudness. But most of the cases where loudness is normal in Urdu, in English rise-fall or fall-rise or a combination of these is used. The full implication of which can be grasped only by a trained ear of the listener who is well-versed in the socio-cultural aspect of the English language. Whether in our practical classroom strategies we adopt them for practice is a matter of opinion.

So far as Urdu is concerned variations in pitch movement and choice of tune is much less. The burden of the message is primarily borne by the lexical component of the language. This phenomenon can be accredited to the socio-cultural aspect of the speech participants, an inquiry of which will surely be a useful, independent investigation.

It will be relevant to close our discussion of this paper by a quotation from the published doctoral dissertation of Prof. Iqtidar H. Khan: “the precise analysis of Urdu intonation has been done hitherto and mostly it is ignored by most of the linguistic scholars. Every language has a system of basic speech melodies which is unique to the language as is its set of vowel and consonant phonemes.”

What the teacher can do is not enter into the subtle niceties of the problem of intonation in English and Urdu, but to teach the learners the basic tones → rise, fall, rise-fall, fall-rise, he will be misunderstood in his interactional contact not only with the native speakers but also with those in his own country. In order to be able to speak intelligible English and to be able to

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comprehend what is being spoken one needs to be aware of the various aspects of the Rhythm. A failure to understand it may lead to breakdown of communication.

Most of the inhabitant varieties of English construct inimitable stresses on the language. English is a stress-timed language, and both syllable stress and word stress, where only certain words in an utterance or phrase are stressed, are important features of Received Pronunciation.

Indian local languages are actually syllable-timed languages. Indian English speakers usually speak with a syllabic rhythm. When they speak, they appear to put the stress accents at the wrong syllables, or accentuate all the syllables of a long English word. They do not care for strong and weak forms of functional words which is very important to produce rhythmic patterns.

Unlike in English, Urdu does not make a very clear distinction between stressed and unstressed syllables. In Urdu the position of the stress is not fixed in relation to the words, whereas in English it is fixed. Urdu words nearly always have the stress on the first syllable, irrespective of the number of syllables in the word. Also, the long vowels in the words are stressed. The phrase stress in Urdu cannot be easily predicted since it depends on the context. Hence, it was decided to place the stress on the first syllable and long vowels of each word by the stress assignment algorithm.

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A Study on Language Creativity of College Students

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Introduction

Guilford opened the present era of research in creativity with his 1950 presidential address to the American Psychological Association. In this address, he alerted the psychologists to the need for work on creativity. His 'Structure of Intellect Model' has re-defined intelligence so as to include creative behaviour.

Freeman (1976) observed that it is necessary to differentiate between creative elements in several fields, each of which has its own special requirements as well as elements. The scientist, technicians, business person, etc. all have creative talent that pertains to the specific fields. Similarly poets, novelist and writers display a peculiar type of creativity in their writings that can be called as language creativity. Language creativity is very important to present the ideas effectively and clearly.

Operational Definition

Malhotra and Sucheta Kumari (1990) defined **Language creativity** "as the multi-dimensional attitude that is differently distributed among the people and includes mainly the factors of fluency, flexibility, originality and elaboration". **Fluency** is a quantitative aspect of creativity, i.e. coming up with large quantity of ideas, words, and ways of expressing them. **Flexibility** is

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referred to as thinking up a variety of ideas and new way of dealing with situation. **Originality** is designated as uncommon with respect to figural, verbal of symbolic transformation. **Elaboration** is referred to ability by giving one or two simple lines on a complex object or given situation. Syed Malik refers “**College students** as those who are enrolled in three year under graduate course in Arts and Science College, in which first year Arts and Science group students are considered for the study.” (Dictionary of Education: 2008)

Objectives of the Study

The following are the objectives of the study:

1. To find out the language creativity of Arts and Science College students.
2. To find out whether there is any significant difference between language creativity of male and female students in Arts and Science College.
3. To find out whether there is any significant difference between language creativity of Government and Private Arts and Science College students.
4. To find out whether there is any significant difference between language creativity of urban and rural students in Arts and Science College.
5. To find out whether there is any significant difference between language creativity of Arts group and Science group students in Arts and Science College.

Hypotheses

The following are the null and directional hypotheses of the study:

1. H0. The language creativity of Arts and Science College Students is equal.
H1. The language creativity of Arts and Science College Students is high.
2. H0. There is no significant difference between language creativity of male and female Students in Arts and Science College.
H2. There is significant difference between language creativity of male and female Students in Arts and Science College.
3. H0. There is no significant difference between language creativity of government and private Arts and Science College students.
H3. There is significant difference between language creativity of government and private Arts and Science College students.
4. H0. There is no significant difference between language creativity of urban and rural students in Arts and Science College.
H4. There is significant difference between language creativity of urban and rural students in Arts and Science College.

5. H0. There is no significant difference between language creativity of Arts group and Science Group students in Arts and Science College.
- H5. There is significant difference between language creativity of Arts group and Science Group students in Arts and Science College.

Delimitations of the Study

There are many factors depending upon creativity like fluency, flexibility, originality and elaboration. But the researcher delimited his study only to measure total language creativity. The tool used by the researcher to measure Language Creativity is “Language Creativity Test” developed by Malhotra and Suchita Kumari.

The researcher confined his study to Arts and Science Colleges in Puducherry region which are affiliated to Pondicherry University. The data from First Year students of Arts and Science College in Puducherry region is considered for the study.

Review of Related Literature

The researcher reviewed the previous studies conducted on the related problem area and articles related to the problem of the study.

Studies conducted Abroad

Peter Carruthers (2002) in his article, “Human Creativity: Its Cognitive Basis, its Evolution, and its Connections with Childhood Pretence,” defends two initial claims. First, he argues that essentially the same cognitive resources are shared by adult creative thinking and problem-solving, on the one hand, and by childhood pretend play, on the other—namely, capacities to generate and to reason with suppositions (or imagined possibilities). Second, he argues that the evolutionary function of childhood pretence is to practice and enhance adult forms of creativity. The paper goes on to show how these proposals can provide a smooth and evolutionarily-plausible explanation of the gap between the first appearance of our species in Southern Africa some 100,000 years ago, and the ‘creative explosion’ of cultural, technological and artistic change which took place within dispersed human populations some 60,000 years later. The intention of the paper is to sketch a proposal which might serve as a guide for future interdisciplinary research.

Ronald Carter and Michael McCarthy (2004) in their article “Talking, Creating: Interactional Language, Creativity, and Context” said when creative uses of spoken language have been investigated, the main examples have been restricted to particular contexts such as narrative and related story-telling genres. This paper reports on an initial investigation using the 5 million word CANCODE corpus of everyday spoken English and discusses a range of social contexts in which creative uses of language are manifested.

Mary Anne (2005) in her study on “Creativity and Language Planning: The Case of Indian English and Singapore English” examines creativity in Indian English and Singapore English. She highlights the differences between linguistic creativity and literary creativity in the two varieties and suggests that language planning policy and practice in the two countries are responsible for the differences found there. Implications for language planning are explored.

Gearóid Mac Eoin, Anders Ahlqvist, and Donncha Ó hAodha (2006), in their study on “Language minority children’s linguistic and cognitive creativity,” identified the effects of bilingualism on the linguistic and cognitive creativity of language minority children proficiently bilingual in Spanish and English. Specifically, they addressed the cognitive process of divergent and convergent thinking and the linguistic process of metamorphosing in the context of formulating scientific hypotheses. Together the linguistic and cognitive process is viewed as manifestation steps of common underlying creativity. The subjects were sixth grade students. The qualitatively high synthetic hypotheses expressed by the language minority children using complex metaphoric language in their second language, English, indicate that linguistic and cognitive creativity is enhanced by bilingual language proficiency.

Sayyed Mohsen Fatemi (2007) conducted a study on “Creative Language and Language Creativity”. The essence of creativity and critical thinking begins with questioning and challenging the boxes of clinging habits, ordinary and every day discourses, memory's impact, and the interference of association of ideas. It is here when the new horizons of thinking powerfully beam; it is here where the spectrum of looking into things in a novel way glows. Creativity starts with a journey inside and outside the existing values, prevalent practices, pervasive approaches and common modes and exercises. It begins with questioning the flux of order, the arrangement of presentation, the apparition of the happenings, the manner of unfolding, the ways of showering, the moments of satisfaction, the pleasures of certainty, the avenues of solutions, the mansions of conclusiveness, the comfort of sufficiency, the impressiveness of suppositions, the forcefulness of associations, the obviousness of realization and the easiness of acceptance. Creativity challenges the way things are and explores other ways things can be. Creativity fights for otherwise. Creativity targets the unknown, the unfamiliar and the unexplored. It searches for mystery within mastery, the opening within the closure, the possibility within actuality, the passage within the blockage, the revolution within stability, the disintegration within integration, the decomposition within the composition, the indeterminacy within determinacy and the light within the darkness.

H. G. Widdowson (2008), in his book “Language Creativity and the Poetic Function: A Response to Swann and Maybin” argues that the current renewal of interest in language creativity raises a number of intriguing problems. Strictly speaking, the reason for the problems is fencing the creativity in poetic form (p-142). According to the Formalist, Creativity is focusing how to express the content with appropriate words and sentence structures. But Creativity should not be restricted to a particular field or genre. It should be assessed in terms of fluency in usage of words, flexibility, Originality in thoughts and Elaboration in writing style. Hence the presents

study is going to assess the language creativity in terms of fluency, flexibility, originality and elaboration.

Studies Conducted in India

S.P. Malhotra (1990) conducted a study on “Effects of Synectics method of teaching on the development of Language creativity in Hindi.” The findings of the study were: Students who were exposed to the synectics method of teaching showed significant improvement on all the four factors viz. fluency, flexibility, originality and elaboration as well as on the total scores of the plot building aspects of language creativity with the levels of intelligence in all the four factors i.e. fluency, flexibility, originality and elaboration as well as their summated scores. The creativity affected improvement in all the four factors as well as their total scores in their descriptive style.

N. Sumangala (1990) conducted a study on “A Study of Language creativity of standard IX students in relation to intelligence, teacher involvement and gender.” The findings of the study were: There is relationship between the language creativity and the teacher involvement. Without the involvement of the teacher the components of the language creativity cannot be improved. The intelligent quotient is also a major cause for the creativity in language of the secondary students.

Sucheta Kumari (1990) conducted a study on “Instructional and nurturing effects of synectics model of teaching on the creative abilities in languages”. The findings of the study were: 1) Grade levels affected the improvement in language creativity (Hindi, English and general). In all the three spheres, the students of IX were found most creative and class VIII was found more creative than IX concerning fluency and flexibility. 2) The synectics model of teaching affected the improvement in all the five aspects of language creativity. The intelligent student was found more creative in fluency, flexibility, originality and elaboration. 3) Improvement was noticed in all the form of components e.g. Unity, coherence, originality and fallacies of essay/paragraph writing in increasing manner.

Shaahi Gautam (1992) conducted a study on “Development of creative thinking and leadership among Navodaya Vidyalaya students.” The findings of the study were: 1) There was no significant sex difference in the development pattern of creative thinking, though girls tended to be more creative than boys on the dimensional scores of fluency, flexibility and originality as well as on total scores on creative thinking. 2) The high and low socioeconomic students groups of subjects did not differ in creativity. 3) There was a significant development pattern from grade VI to VIII among students of Himachal Pradesh in total leadership behaviour.

Suresh Kumar (1995) conducted a study on “A study of creative thinking among boys and girls in relation to socio-economic status.” The findings of the study were: the sex difference is not a matter for the creativity. It is the family environment and the socio-economic status was the cause and consequence for the creative components.

Navin Dutta (1995) conducted a study on “A study in creativity, motor abilities and motor creativity of adolescent students.” The objectives of the study were: 1) to find out the relationship between creativity, motor ability and motor creativity. 2) to study whether motor creativity was dependent upon creativity or on motor ability or on both. The findings of the study were: There is a relationship between the motor creativity and motor ability. The motor creativity is completely depending upon the creativity.

Usha (2003) conducted a study on “A study on language creativity of IX standard urban students in Coimbatore District.” The findings of the study were: the findings of the study were: the language creativity of Urban private students is high rather than government students of IX standard.

A Summary of the Studies

From the above reviews, the researcher concludes that not much research is done on language creativity and only two studies were done in India. But many of the concepts of the experts’ papers centered on the creativity in language. Hence the researcher confined his study to the language creativity of college students.

Method of the Study

To achieve the objectives of the study, the researcher found normative survey method to be the best suited method, because the investigation is primarily concerned with the prevailing present condition.

Selection of the Sample

The researcher selected four Arts and Science Colleges out of the eight Arts and Science College in Puducherry Union Territory. The list includes two government and two private Arts and Science Colleges. The researcher employed Stratified Random sampling technique. The total sample considered for the present study is 300 students from Arts and Science Colleges. The selected samples were tabulated according to the sub-samples of the study.

Table showing the selection of sample from Arts and Science Colleges:

Si. No	Variables	Sample	No of Sample	Total
1.	Gender	Male	150	300
		Female	150	
2.	Management	Govt.	150	300

		Private	150	
3.	Locale	Urban	150	300
		Rural	150	
4.	Discipline	Arts	150	300
		Science	150	

Tools Used for the Study

The Researcher used the ‘Language Creativity Test’ developed by Suchita and Malhotra to collect the data. The Language Creativity Test (LCT) in English has been developed with the sole purpose of measuring the language creativity of school and college going students.

LCT has five sub-tests namely-

- (i) Plot Building
- (ii) Dialogue Writing
- (iii) Poetic Diction
- (iv) Descriptive Style and
- (v) Vocabulary Test.

Data Collection

The data was collected from the target sample. The tool LCT is administered to the sample. The time given for the students to finish the test is two hours forty seven minutes. The collected data was evaluated with the guidance of the language experts Dr. Clement Lourdes, Reader, Department of English, Pondicherry University and Dr. P. Raja, Lecturer, Tagore Arts College, Government of Puducherry, affiliated to Pondicherry University. With the help of the evaluated score, the hypotheses were tested by applying statistical techniques like descriptive and differential statistics.

Level of Significance

The hypotheses formulated by the researcher in the study are tested. The testing of the hypothesis is done on the basis of result obtained through analysis. The Researcher has to decide the level of significance of rejection or acceptance of the hypothesis in advance. Therefore, in the present study only 0.05% of significance has been taken into account for testing the hypotheses.

Analysis and Interpretations of Data:

Sub-sample	N	M	S.D	t	Level of significance
Male	150	162.56	34.1801	0.42	Significant at 0.05% level
Female	150	160.86	35.4827		

Government	150	165.05	35.2793	1.67	Significant at 0.05% level
Private	150	158.36	34.0847		
Urban	150	165.73	35.1962	2.02	Not significant at 0.05% level
Rural	150	157.68	34.0236		
Arts Group	150	162.22	37.3183	0.25	Significant at 0.05% level
Science Group	150	161.2	32.1803		

Table shows the Mean and S.D of different sub-samples (Gender, Management, Locale, and Discipline) on the scores of Language Creativity Test. From the mean and S.D value: It is understood that the language creativity of urban and rural students differ much than the other variables.

Analysis and Interpretation of Data

The highest score in the language creativity test is 235 and the Mean score of Language Creativity of Arts and Science College students is 161.71, which is low when compared with the high score given in the norms. Therefore the Language Creativity of Arts and Science College student is low. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted.

The Mean and S.D in Language Creativity of male students of Arts and Science Colleges were 162.56 and 34.1801 whereas the same for the female students were 160.86 and 35.4827. The calculated 't' value is found to be 0.42, which is less than the table value at 0.05% of Level of Significance. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted. Therefore, there is no significant difference between female and male students of Arts and Science Colleges in their Language Creativity.

The Mean and S.D in Language creativity of Government Arts and Science College students were 165.05 and 35.2793 whereas the same for the Private Arts and Science College students were 158.36 and 34.0847. The calculated 't' value is found to be 1.67, which is less than the table value at 0.05% Level of Significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted. Therefore, there is no significant difference between Government and Private Arts and Science Colleges Students in their Language Creativity.

The Mean and S.D in Language creativity of Urban Arts and Science College Students were 165.73 and 35.1962, whereas the same for the rural Arts and Science Colleges Students were 157.68 and 34.0236. The calculated 't' value is found to be 2.02, which is greater than table value at 0.05% Level of Significance. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected. Therefore, there is a significant difference between urban and rural Arts and Science Colleges students in their language Creativity.

The Mean and S.D in language creativity of Arts Students in Arts and Science Colleges were 162.22 and 37.3183, whereas the same for the science students were 161.2 and 32.1803. The calculated 't' value is found to be 0.25, which is lesser than the table value at 0.05% Level of

Significance. Hence the null Hypothesis is accepted. Therefore there is no significant difference between Arts students and Science students in Arts and Science Colleges.

The Mean difference table shows that there is no significant difference between the sub-samples in Language Creativity: (i) male and female (ii) government and private (iii) Arts group and Science group students. This table also shows that there is a significant difference between the urban and rural students of Arts and Science Colleges. This analysis and interpretation of data helps the researcher to proceed to the findings, recommendation and suggestion for further research on this area.

Major Findings

The findings of the present study are discussed below:

- The language creativity of Arts and Science College students is low because the highest score is 235 and the mean score of the total sample is 161.71
- The language creativity of male students in Arts and Science Colleges is high because the mean score is 162.56 and the mean score of the total sample is 161.71.
- The language creativity of female students in Arts and Science Colleges is low because the mean score is 160.86 and the mean score of the total sample is 161.71.
- The language creativity of government Arts and Science college students is high because the mean score is 165.36 and the mean score of the total sample is 161.71.
- The language creativity of private Arts and Science college students is low because the mean score is 158.36 and the mean score of the total sample is 161.71.
- The language creativity of urban students of Arts and Science College is high because the mean score is 165.73 and the mean score of the total sample is 161.71.
- The language creativity of rural students of Arts and Science College is low because the mean score is 157.68 and the mean score of the total sample is 161.71.
- The language creativity of Science group students of Arts and Science college students is high because the mean score is 162.22 and the mean score of the total sample is 161.71.
- The language creativity of Arts group students of Arts and Science college students is low because the mean score is 161.2 and the mean score of the total sample is 161.71.

- Male and female students of Arts and Science College do not show any significant difference at 0.05% level of significance. Hence there is no significant difference between language creativity of male and female students in Arts and Science College.
- Government and Private students of Arts and Science Colleges do not show any significant difference at 0.05% level of significance. Hence there is no significant difference between language creativity of Government and Private Students in Arts and Science College.
- Rural and Urban students of Arts and Science Colleges are show significant difference at 0.05% level of significance. Hence there is significant difference between language creativity of Rural and Urban students in Arts and Science College
- Science students and Arts students of Arts and Science College are not differing at 0.05% level of significance. Hence there is no significant difference between language creativity of Science students and Arts students in Arts and Science College

Recommendations/Educational Implications

The researcher suggests some implications to be considered for the development of language creativity in students and for further improvement in their achievement:

- Opportunities should be provided to the students to express their thoughts, so that their fluency in thoughts will enhance.
- Teachers should adopt new method of teaching which should provoke the creativity of the students.
- Create curiosity and inventiveness in the minds of the student. This would make them to react creatively.
- Apart from imparting instruction by using creative methods, the teachers should enable students to think and react critically in the given situation to enhance originality.
- The acquisition of English should begin at the primary education level to better performance in this language.
- The students should improve their vocabulary by reading books, newspapers and playing word games.
- Unusual response to a given situation should be encouraged and rewarded. This motivates the students to think critically.
- Curriculum should be framed with plenty of opportunities for creative behaviour.
- Teachers may enable children to learn on their own, think and discover.
- Constant evaluation should be pursued to assess students' performance and the results should be used to improve their creative thinking.

- It is the responsibility of the teacher to provide the atmosphere for the students to express their ideas without the threat of evaluation.

Suggestions for Further Research

The present study suffers from some limitations as already indicated

- Further research can be done by drawing a large sample covering different districts and different levels of students.
- Language creativity in association with other variables like intelligence, personality and achievement can be studied.

Conclusions

According to the results of the study, the researcher finds that creativity in language is low in the students of Arts and Science Colleges in Puducherry Union Territory region. The male and female students' performance in language creativity in Arts and Science Colleges is low when compared to the norms set by the author of the tool. There is an average difference between the language creativity of rural and urban students of Arts and Science Colleges. The language creativity of the students in Government Arts and Science College and Private Arts and Science College slightly differs in their mean scores. The difference is understandable. The students who score high marks in the Higher Secondary do not join the Arts and Science Colleges and they are much interested in professional courses. However, it is imperative that all students are adequately equipped in all aspects of creativity, whatever may be the subject they may pursue in their studies. When they come out of any course or institution, they should have inherent capacity to create.

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Analysis of Intralingual Errors in Learning English as a Foreign Language by Yemeni Students

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Abstract

This paper presents the errors committed by Yemeni students of English while writing English. The errors committed by the students are classified into three different categories.

The **first category** is *interlingual and intralingual errors*. The Interlingual errors are those that result from language transfer and are caused by the learner's native language, say L1 whereas the Intralingual errors are those which result from faulty or partial learning of L2, rather than from language transfer (Richards 1973, Gass and Selinker, 2008, Brown, 2007).

The **second category** is *language transfer, transfer of training, strategies of second language learning, strategies of second language communication and overgeneralization* (Selinker 1972, 1992).

The **third category** is *addition, fragment, omission, simplification, structure of the sentences, selection of the words, word order and subject-verb agreement* (Corder 1973, Dulay, Burt, Krashen, 1982, & Ellis 1997).

The aim of this paper is to focus on the intralingual errors Yemeni learners make while writing. The data was derived from free compositions written by 200 learners.

Additionally, this paper will also draw attention of teachers of English language to a list of errors that is recurrent among learner.

The errors were identified and categorized and the result highlighted a significant difference between the frequencies of intralingual errors types.

Keywords: Intralingual errors, Yemeni learners, omission, addition, simplification, fragment, selection, structure of sentence

Introduction

In Australia, UK or USA, English is studied as the first language. In India and Pakistan, it is studied as a second language. In Arab countries, it is studied as a foreign language and has become very popular. The youth in Arab countries have realized the necessity of learning and mastering English for direct communication with foreigners.

In Yemen, the country of the researcher, students learn English from seventh grade for six years before joining university. In the university, there are three types of colleges: Education, Arts, and Languages.

In these colleges, English department is one among the many. In colleges for Education, there are three courses the students must study, namely, *Linguistics*, *Literature* and *English language teaching*. In colleges for Arts and Languages, there are only two courses, namely, *Literature* and *Linguistics*. While learning English as a foreign or second language, the students will make errors, which are inevitable during the process of learning.

Literature Review

Ellis (1994) identifies *four essential areas* for investigation of acquisition of second language:

- 1) The characteristics of learner language, which involve errors, acquisition orders, variability, and pragmatic features;
- 2) The learner-external factors where social contexts are concerned;
- 3) The learner-internal mechanism, which deal with first language transfer, learning processes, communication strategies and knowledge of linguistic universals; and
- 4) The language learner, motivation and learner strategies.

Among these areas of study, the description of the characteristics of learner's performance in the language is the most essential. The acquisition process cannot be explained without describing the learner's performance in the language in detail. In other words, we cannot investigate how learner-internal/external factors affect the learner's performance in the language until we have a good idea of the general characteristics of learner's language itself.

Error Analysis

To understand the nature of the learner language, Error Analysis (EA) has been used among researchers of second language. The EA substituted its predecessor, *contrastive analysis*, in the late 1960s. EA begins with the premise that errors can be attributed to a variety of factors.

It is quite natural for a second language learner to make errors when he/she puts the language to use. Errors should be well defined to help the teachers recognize them and help the learners of the language to get rid of them.

Error versus Mistake

In order to analyze the learner language in an appropriate perspective, it is crucial to make a distinction between *mistakes* and *errors*. At the level of analysis, deciding whether a deviation is an error or a mistake is a problem.

Corder (1967, 1971, 1981) contends that mistakes should not be included in the quantification or analysis of errors and this is the approach taken by most analysts.

According to Richards & Schmidt (2002), mistakes are those made by a learner while writing or speaking and are caused by *lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness*, whereas errors are those made by a learner while writing or speaking caused by *incomplete learning*.

On the other hand, Brown (2007) said that a mistake refers to *performance error that is either a random guess or a 'slip'* in that it is a failure to utilize a known system correctly. People make mistakes in both native and second language situations. Natives are capable of recognizing and correcting such 'lapses' or 'mistakes', whereas an error, *a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflects the competence of the learner*.

An error cannot be self-corrected, while a mistake can be self-corrected if the deviation is pointed out to the speaker or writer (James 1998). Errors occur when the learner does not know and is required to be taught the rules or when the learner needs to be shown that the wrong knowledge or partial knowledge has been applied to that particular situation.

Error and Inability of Students Correct

On the other hand, other scholars identify the term "errors" with regard to inability of the students to correct these errors by themselves. Edge (1997, p.18) defines "errors" in a simple way *"If a student cannot self-correct a mistake in his or her own English, but the teacher thinks that the class is familiar with the correct form, we shall call that sort of mistake an error."*

Edge's definition has one trait in common with that of Cunnings; i.e., certain parts of the language being learned are problematic to students. Thus, they make errors unconsciously, which accounts for their incapacity to self-correct. Investigation of the types of errors reveals

that the sources of errors may be *attributed to two major transfers/interferences : interlingual and intralingual transfer* (Brown, 2007).

Intralingual Interference

Intralingual Errors

Intralingual errors or intralingual transfer/interference refer to the negative transfer of language items within the target language and occurs generally in the rule learning stages of the language, such as overgeneralization of grammar rules within the target language, and the learner's failure to apply rules of the target language under appropriate situations (Richards, 1974, 1992).

Diagnostic and Prognostic

Learner errors can serve two purposes i.e., the diagnostic and the prognostic (Corder, 1967, 1992). It is diagnostic because it can tell us the learner's grasp of a language at any given point during the learning process. It is also prognostic because it can tell the teacher to modify the learning materials to meet with the learners' problems.

Corder (1967, 1992) also contended that errors are visible proof that learning is taking place. He has emphasized that errors, if studied systematically, can provide significant insights into how a foreigner actually learns a language. He also agrees that studying the errors of usage by students has immediate practical application for language teachers. In his view, errors provide feedback; they tell the teachers something about the effectiveness of their teaching.

Usefulness of EA Application

The use of EA and application of appropriate corrective techniques can aid learning English effectively. In recognition of the crucial role played by errors in inter-language of learners, this study aims to analyze the most intralingual errors made by Yemeni students learning English as a foreign language in public universities.

Previous Studies about Analyzing Learner's Language

Liu (1999) conducted a study of lexical and grammatical collocational errors from 127 copies of final examination papers and 94 copies of compositions of students. The majority of the errors were attributable to *negative interlingual transfer* comprising four kinds, among which *ignorance of rule restrictions* resulted in more errors than the other three.

Huang (2001) investigated the nature and distribution of different kinds of grammatical errors made by 46 English majors of a Taiwanese university. A total of 1700 errors were found and categorized into 13 types of errors. The top six common errors were (1) *Verb* (2) *Noun* (3) *Spelling* (4) *Article* (5) *Preposition* and (6) *Word choice*. Overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restrictions, simplification, incomplete application of rules and L1 transfer were the major causes of EFL errors of learners.

Huang (2006) presented an analysis writing errors of 34 Taiwanese English majors based on a web-based writing program, which included error categories of *grammar, mechanics, style and usage*. The distribution of errors was *usage* (55%), *mechanics* (20%), *style* (16%) and *grammar* (9%). Huang concluded that most EFL writing errors of students were not due to insufficient command of linguistic complexity. On the contrary, they made a big portion of basic errors such as the subject-verb agreement or incomplete sentences.

Connell (2000) cited in Sattayatham & Ratanapinyowong (2008) analyzed the kinds of errors Japanese students made. The result showed that the use of subject in a sentence, the parts of speech and the general word order created more problems than other grammatical aspects.

According to James (1998), errors in writing such as tenses, prepositions and weak vocabulary are the most common and frequent types of errors that are committed by learners.

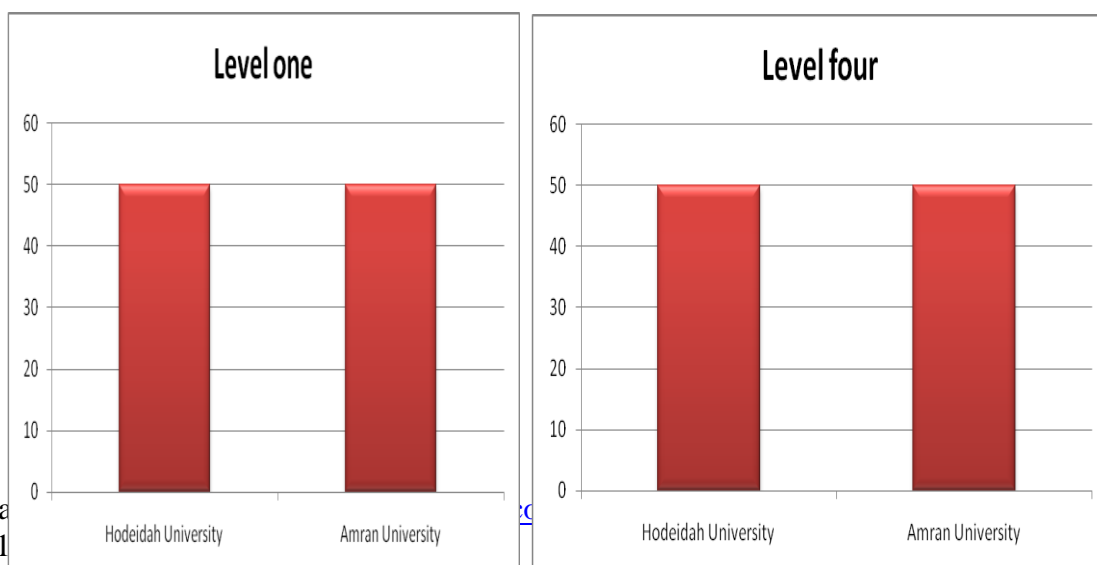
Method

The 200 subjects of the study represent the two levels i.e., 1st and 4th year university students majoring in English at Amran and Hodeida University in Yemen. 50 participants were chosen from each level. The following table shows the number of the participants according to their level and university.

Table 2 The frequency of the participants

University	Level one One	Level four Four	Total
Hodeidah University	50	50	100
Amran University	50	50	100
	100	100	200

Figure 1: the frequency of the participants



All of them speak Arabic, which is their mother tongue and they studied English as a foreign language subject for six years before getting into university. In those years, they had five classes per week.

Data Collection and Analysis

In the present study, the three steps of EA specified by Corder (1974) were followed: 1- *Collection of Sample Errors*; 2- *Identification of Errors* and 3- *Description of Errors*.

The data obtained from the compositions written by the students were examined to identify the typical errors in writing produced by Yemeni students.

Findings

Table 2. The Relative Frequency of Error Types

Classification of errors	Types of errors	No. of errors	Percentage
Intralingual	Omission	152	30.35%
	Addition	112	22.35%
	Fragment	22	4.39%
	Selection	78	15.57%
	Structure of the sentence	91	18.16%
	Simplification	46	9.18%
Total		501	100.00%

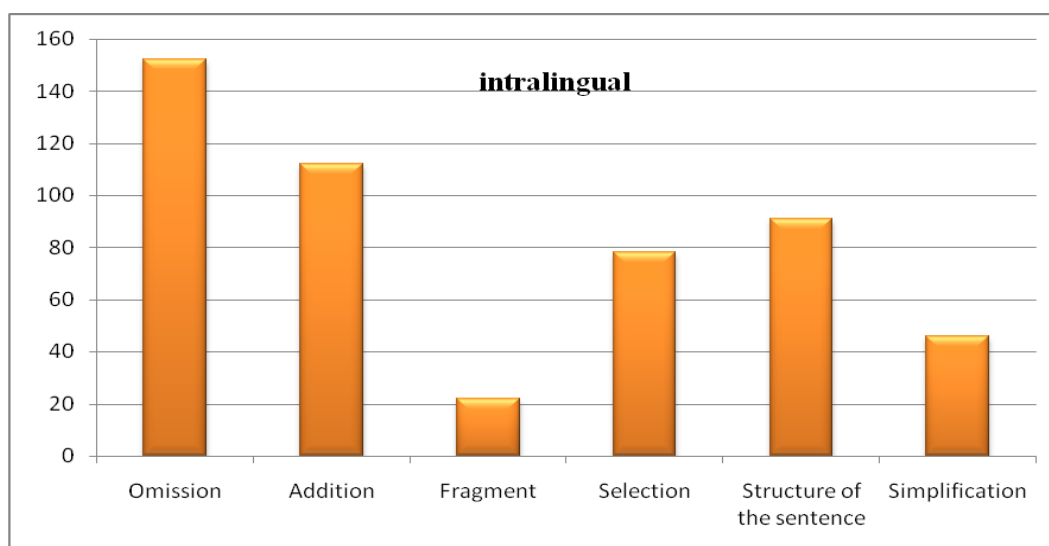


Figure 2 The frequency of intralingual errors

The above table displays categories of intralingual error types in compositions of students. A total of six types of intralingual errors were found in the writing of students, and 501 individual errors were identified. As indicated in the above table, the category (intralingual) was further classified in detail. The results show that 501 intralingual errors were committed by the Yemeni students. Intralingual errors were divided into six categories namely, *omission, addition, fragment, selection of the word, structure of the sentence and simplification.*

Sample of Errors

Intralingual Errors

1-Omission

The omission errors constituted 30.35% of the total number of the errors made by the students and were the highest percentage.

Learners of English tend to commit omission errors when they write or speak English. The omission errors are one of the characteristics of L2 learners in general and Arab learners of English in particular. Dulay, Burt, & Krashen (1982:154) hold that “omission errors are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance”. Accordingly, when Arab learners commit an omission error, they actually omit an element necessarily required without which the sentence is ill-formed or ungrammatical. Consider the following examples.

1-*We have speak in English.

2-*You should enough background.

3-*I don't reasons for learning.

The above sentences show different types of omission that have taken place during writing in English by the students. The first type of omission is the word 'to' before the second verb as :

*We have speak in English.

The correct sentence is: We have to speak English.

The second type of omission is the omission of the main verb after modal verb as:

*You should enough background.

The correct sentence is: You should have/get enough background.

The third type of omission is the omission of the main verb after 'do' as:

*I don't reasons for learning.

The correct sentence is : I don't have reasons for learning.

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2-Addition

The addition errors constitute 22.35% in this category. Dulay et al. (1982:156) state that “addition errors are the opposite of omission. They are characterized by the presence of an item which must not appear in a well-formed utterance”. They add that addition errors indicate that “some basic rules have been acquired but the refinements have not yet been made.” The following sample exemplifies the issue in question.

Examples of errors of addition from students’ writing:

- 1-*It is helps us to live in this life.
- 2-*I have a plans for my future.
- 3-*I will working well.
- 4-*English is a very important.
- 5-*I learn the English.
- 6-*I used to studying in this college.

The above sentences show different errors of addition, addition of definite and indefinite articles as:

*I have a plans for my future. In this sentence indefinite article was added to plural noun. The correct sentence is ‘I have plans for my future’.

*I learn the English. In this sentence, definite article was added to proper noun. The correct sentence is ‘I learn English’.

*English is a very important. In this sentence indefinite article was added to adjective phrase.

The second type of addition was the addition of ‘ing’ to the main verb after modal verb. Also there is an addition of ‘ing’ to infinitive verb with to as “to studying”.

*I will working well. This sentence may have omission errors ‘be’ after ‘will’
The correct sentence may be: I will work well. Or I will be working well.

The third type of addition is the addition of verb ‘is’ before the main verb in the present tense as:

*It is helps us to live in this life. The correct sentence is ‘It helps us to live in this life’.

3-Fragment

The sentence fragment lowest made by the Yemeni learners of English among all errors constituting only 4.39 % of the total.

Sentence fragment means a phrase or clause that is punctuated and capitalized as a sentence but does not constitute a complete grammatical sentence or a group of words that begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, question mark, or exclamation point but is grammatically incomplete. On the other hand, a sentence fragment fails to be a sentence in the sense that it cannot stand by itself. It does not contain even one independent clause.

For example

- 1-* Because English language is used in the computer.
- 2-* If I finish learning English.
- 3-* My opinion to improved English.

These three sentences show the sentence fragment because they contain only one part of the clause and must have another clause to complete the meaning.

4-Selection of the Correct Word

The selection of word errors constitute 15.57% of the total errors.

Yemeni students had the difficulty to distinguish between the verb 'teach' and the verb 'learn' as:

- 1-* Teacher does not *learn* good.
- 2-*I *learn* students English.

Another difficulty of selection of word was the choice between verb *to be* and verb *to have* as:

- *I want to *be* a lot of information.

The third difficulty of selection is pronoun as:

- *Teacher encourages the student to develop *your* skills.

5-Structure of the sentence

This type of error constitutes 18.16% of the total errors. In this type, the sentences have more than one error and do not convey the complete meaning.

- 1-*I must be person have language.
- 2* In school to teach the student.
- 3-*English language is describes in the feeling and come day.

6-Simplification

The simplification errors constitute 9.18 % of the total errors. This is the sixth common error made by Yemeni learners in writing English as a foreign language. The participants used the

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simple present tense for all cases. They seemed to be ignorant of the tenses. This finding revealed that students did not have comprehensive knowledge of the use of different verb tenses. The following sentence shows this type of errors.

- 1-*I learn English since 12 years.
- 2-*I start learning English when I was 15.
- 3-*We study English since childhood.

The above sentences show different kinds of tenses but with only one form of verb which was present simple.

Conclusion

This study is set out to investigate the kinds of errors made by Yemeni students of first to fourth levels and University EFL students in writing. In addition, this study investigated different types of intralingual errors produced by the students.

A total of 501 common errors were found and categorized into six types of intralingual errors namely omission, addition, fragment, structure of the sentence, selection of words and simplification.

Most errors were found in the omission of the required elements. Addition of few unnecessary or incorrect elements comes next, followed by the structure of a sentence which is the mis-order of the elements in a sentence. Selection of an incorrect word element ranked next.

The other types of errors are relatively less frequent: simplification and the least frequent of the errors was sentence fragment.

Therefore, more attention must be paid to the error types, which are more frequent. This also indicates the part of the target language students have maximum difficulty to use correctly; that is, the type of error causes most difficulty to communicate effectively or compose a grammatically correct sentence (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982).

The errors serve as an important means for teachers and researchers to observe the learning process and learning strategies of students.

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