New Perspective in Linguistics and Language Teaching

Chief Editor
K. Munisvaran

Editors
S. Franklin Thambi Jose
N. Suppiah
S. Malarvizhi
P. Thanalachime

Tamil Linguistics Association, Malaysia
Foreword

The beginning of 21st Century witnessed several shifts in the paradigm of previous century. The main cause for these shifts is the Information and communication revolution. The Information & Technological revolution has its impact not only on communication but also in the academic field such as language teaching. The online teachings, teaching through social media are some of the new channels which have brought in many changes in values of teaching and learning.

The other global phenomenon of this era is the dominance of English language in all domains of human activity. English is perceived as a threat to many indigenous languages of the world. Scholars predict many of the indigenous language will be out of use in the years to come. So, it is high time to protect and preserve the so called endangered languages.

The technological revolution is a boon in documenting the endangered language and culture for transferring the indigenous knowledge to the next generation. It is the duty of the academic community to adopt these changes for planning future course of activities. In this direction, it is considered that the papers in the volume are the responses to the current need in the areas of language teaching and language endangerment.

I congratulate the Director, CAS in Linguistics and the co-ordinators for successfully bringing out such a useful volume under the title New Perspective in Linguistics and Language Teaching.

Dr. L. Ramamoorthy
Head LDC-IL & Principal SRLC
Foreword

I had an immense pleasure to go through the research papers found in the collected papers entitled New Perspective in Linguistics and Language Teaching published through online jointly by Modernised Tamil Linguistics Association, Malaysia and the Centre of Advanced Study in Linguistics, Annamalai University. It is a known fact that Linguistic study is not only describing the language but also researching it for the benefit of the society especially for some practical applications. Today, linguistic study is found in all spheres of the human life. One can not ignore the language and language study as language skill is an important key for success of individual and for the development of the society. Since linguistics is a science of language, it has been employing it’s knowledge in the subjects like Computational linguistics, Forensic linguistics, Bio-linguistics, Agricultural linguistics, Language teaching, Translation studies, Lexicography and so on. Linguistics knowledge is imperative for to all these subjects for solving some of the problems found in them.

As far as language teaching is concerned, there are methods applied by the teachers for teaching and learning language. In olden days, there were methods adopted and those methods may not suitable for present day Language Learning and Teaching. It is a known secret that teaching a subject is different from teaching a language. Moreover, in the process of teaching a subject, focuse is on conceptual aspects of the subject whereas in teaching language importance is give on skill aspects of language. Keeping these points in mind, teaching methodology has been modified from time to time for effective and efficient language teaching. Now, the language teaching is also concentrating on imparting Thinking and Communicative skills of language. Earlier our focus was only on four basic language skills such as Reading, Writing, Listening and Speaking. But, today these skills are not adequate to become a good language
users. So two more skills such as Thinking and Communicative Skill have been introduced in the curriculum of the language education.

The research papers found in the volume under review are useful to the students and scholars working in the area of language teaching. This volume is an outcome of the conference entitled Language, Linguistic and Social Science organized at Annamalai University. I wholeheartly by appriciate and congratulate Dr. Munisvaran Kumar, Malaysia, Prof. V. Thiruvalluvan, Director, CAS in Linguistics and Dr. Mrs. P.Vijaya, Assistant Professor, CAS in Linguistics for their serious effort to bring out the collected papers to the light of the day. I am sure that it will definetly help the students, scholars and teachers to broaden their mental horizon in the field of linguistics in general and Applied linguistics in particular.

Dr. V. Thayalan
# Content

| Foreword 1 | 3 |
| Foreword 2 | 4 |

## Part 1 Linguistics 11

### Chapter 1 12
Phonetic Variation In Ve:TTakka:Da Irula Dialects

**R. Elakkiya**

### Chapter 2 21
Socio-Phonology of Spoken Persian in Afghanistan

**A. Gholam Mohammad Payman**

### Chapter 3 38
A Comparative Study of some of the Phonological features of Komrem Group

**K. Tarun Kom & Curiously Bareh**

### Chapter 4 49
Typology of Word Formation in Malayalam

**S.N. Mohan Raj & S. Rajendran**

### Chapter 5 52
Loan Words and Borrowing in Sora

**Satapathy Ankita**

### Chapter 6 69
Description of Malayalam as a Dravidian Language

**Anju B**
Chapter 7  
Research Scholar, Department of Linguistics  

Rajitha K V

Chapter 8  
Language Change and Transmission of Knowledge  

M. Prasad Naik

Chapter 9  
Kinship Terms of Paniya in Nilgiri District of Tamilnadu  

M. Vijayarul

Chapter 10  
Government and Binding Theory for Tamil  

K. Umaraj

Chapter 11  
Embracing What the Heart Longs for - A Critical Stylistic Analysis of Jessica Powers’ Poetry  

Armila Antony C.

Chapter 12  
Working on Gender and Discourse: Some Challenges  

Rasheeda P V

Chapter 13  
The Role of Pragmatics in kalithokai  

Indira priyadharshini, A.
Chapter 14 128

The Role of English in India: A Theoretical Perspective

A. Munian

Chapter 15 139

Lexical Inferencing of Intermediate Odia ESL Learners: Strategies and Knowledge Sources Employed

Sasmita Kanungo

Part 2 Teaching and Learning 164

Chapter 16 165

Linguistic Transfer in Multilingual Classrooms- Effects and Applicability: A Theoretical Study

Umalatha Kannoth

Chapter 17 168

Teaching Students with Mental Retardation

Krish.Sivapriya

Chapter 18 178

Role of pedagogic evaluation in the classroom

M. Sathiskumar

Chapter 19 184

Less Commonly Taught Languages, Pedagogy and Materials

Sankaran Radhakrishnan
Chapter 20  
An Innovative Method for Developing Writing Skill in English

M. Somathasan

Chapter 21  
Teaching of Affixes on Vocabulary Learning of Tamil

S. Thennarasu

Chapter 22  
Description of Language Teaching Methods

M. Sivashanmugam

Chapter 23  
Teaching Classical Literature to the Modern Students

M. Noushath

Chapter 24  
Computing Tools for Tamil Language Teaching and Learning

S. Rajendran

Chapter 25  
Challenges of Teaching English at the Rural Secondary Schools in Tamil Nadu- A Study

K. Kannan
Chapter 26

The Issue of Slow Learners among Primary School Students

*N. Suppiah, Chia, V. K. E., C. Sangkari, Sandra Suffian,*

&* Noor Athirah Sukri*

Chapter 27

Multidimensional Curving Skills among Students in Global Stranded.

*Nasreen Sultana.K.A*

Chapter 28

The Vanishing Language and Culture of the Koragas in Kasaragod

*Anjali V Kumar*
Chapter 1

Phonetic Variation In Ve:TTakka:Da Irula Dialects

R. Elakkiya
Department of Linguistics,
Bharathiar University,
Coimbatore - 641046
Tamil Nadu.
ellaling1993@gmail.com

Abstract

Every language has their own linguistic features which lead researchers to find out their Proto language as well as language family. Phonetic feature is one of them; phonetic changes common in all languages, it is also one of the reasons of a language to become various dialects. Phonetics is the initial headland of the language; when it is placed into inquiry, the sound change regulation can be disclosed to the world. It will be helpful to apply with other language sound change system. It can be elucidated whether a language is dialect or not. This paper tried to expose the some phonetic variations of the Ve:TTakka:Da Irula dialects and their resemblances of Tamil Dialect.

Keywords: Ve:TTakka:Da Irula, Dialect Comparison, Tamil Dialect Reflection, Phonetic Variation.

Introduction

It is the reality that indigenous language groups always migrate from one place to another place due to some unresisting situation. So the particular languages can be affected or influenced by the mainstream languages. Dialects also
reflected by the social behaviors and contact. Dialect is a variety of a language that signals where a person comes from. The notion is usually interrupted geographically (regional dialect), but it also has some application in relation to a person’s social background (class dialect) or occupation dialect. The word dialect comes from the Ancient Greek dialekcos (David Crystal, Pavle Ivic). And also the Indigenous languages possess the peculiar features of Proto language from which the indigenous languages were derived. This paper examines the phonetic changes that occurs between the dialects of ve:TTakka:Da Irula language. Mangarai, in Coimbatore district of Tamilnadu state and Nattakkalloor, border of Attapadi zone in Kerala are taken as limitation for this research. Common vocabularies are selected from their usage and simply approached with sound change rules; elision, replacement and lengthening system that are available in Ve:TTakka:Da Irula dialects and Elision.

This is a sound change rule, Elision or Contraction. According to this rule there is an omission of a vowel, consonant, word, syllable or phrase such as kurriyalikaram, kurriyalukaram, makarakkurukkan etc. Both Irulas are sharing this kind of sound change system. This is happening in medial position. It will be represented in following tables 2.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Mangarai ve:TTkka:Da Irula</th>
<th>Nattakkalloor Ve:TTakka:Da Irula</th>
<th>Tamil</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>[pőːɟɛl]</td>
<td>[pɛːɟɛl]</td>
<td>/puTai/</td>
<td>Cleansing dusted from rice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>[pɔːlɛl]</td>
<td>[plɛl]</td>
<td>/pilai/</td>
<td>Survive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>[sɛːvɛneː]</td>
<td>[sɛvɛνɛː:]</td>
<td>/ceivinai/</td>
<td>Kind of magic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>[saːrjaː:]</td>
<td>[saːrjaː:]</td>
<td>/caːrayam/</td>
<td>Alcohol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>[kɛlʲiːnaː:]</td>
<td>[kɛliːjaː:]</td>
<td>/kalyanam/</td>
<td>Marriage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>[kɛdɛlɡuːliː]</td>
<td>[kɛdɛɡuːliː]</td>
<td>/kaTai koːl/</td>
<td>Stick to drive boat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.1- Deletion of vowel
Deletion of consonants:
While seeing the sound change of these two dialects of ve:TTakka:Da Irulas, it is explaining two different rules in Phonetic level. One is the deletion of the final consonant, it is called elision. Another one is the nasalization of the final consonant, it is named rephonologization. Both sound changes are taking place in both dialects of ve:TTakka:Da Irula. First one is not usual like second sound variation. Table 2.2 shows the example of the words deleting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Mangarai ve:TTkka:Da Irula</th>
<th>Nattakkalloor Ve:TTakka:Da Irula</th>
<th>Tamil</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>[to:ṭṭa:]</td>
<td>[to:ṭṭṌ]</td>
<td>/to:TTam/</td>
<td>Garden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>[pelakkṌ]</td>
<td>[pelakka:]</td>
<td>/palakkam/</td>
<td>Habbit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>[do:ṛena:]</td>
<td>[do:ṛenṌ]</td>
<td>/to:ranam/</td>
<td>Door decoration leaves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>[i:ṛṌ]</td>
<td>[i:ra:]</td>
<td>/i:ram/</td>
<td>Wet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 2.2 Deletion of consonants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Mangarai ve:TTkka:Da Irula</th>
<th>Nattakkalloor Ve:TTakka:Da Irula</th>
<th>Tamil</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>[kọṭṭa:]</td>
<td>[kọṭṭa:jii]</td>
<td>/koTTai/</td>
<td>Yarning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>[si:ma:ɾi]</td>
<td>[si:ve:ma:ɾe]</td>
<td>/tuTaippa:n/</td>
<td>Broomstick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>[si:jii]</td>
<td>[si:]</td>
<td>/ci:/</td>
<td>Pus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>[ti:jii]</td>
<td>[ti:]</td>
<td>/ti:/</td>
<td>Fire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>[aːnː maːɾi]</td>
<td>[aːnː maː]</td>
<td>/aːn pilːai/</td>
<td>Baby boy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>[erukkəla:]</td>
<td>[erukkə]</td>
<td>/erukku/</td>
<td>Calotropis gigentiea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>[ọlaːvi buːṭṭi]</td>
<td>[ọlaːbuːṭṭi]</td>
<td>/ulavu o:TTu/</td>
<td>Start the process of cultivation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 2.3.1 Deletion of syllable
Syllable deletion also found in Tamil dialects as follows, /kana:/ > [kẹnẹvu] - dream, /va:/ > [vaːvẹ] - to call , /paru/ > [pəruvi] – pimple.
Replacement:

3.1. \([ə] > [ɛ] \) Central middle unrounded > front open middle

\([ə]\) and \([ɛ]\) are the allophone of /a/, /ai/, /i/. There is a minute difference in these two sounds. The allophone \([ə]\) is in the usage of Mangari Ve:TTakka:Da Irula language; the allophone \([ɛ]\) is in the usage of Nattakkalloor Ve:TTakka:Da Irula language. This sound change is taking place in front, medial and final position. In the medial position, this sound change is occurring before retroflex, alveolar and palatal sounds by seeing Table 3.1.1. as below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Mangari ve:TTakka:Da Irula</th>
<th>Nattakkalloor Ve:TTakka:Da Irula</th>
<th>Tamil</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>[kəlɛtɛ:]</td>
<td>[keɛlɛtɛ]</td>
<td>/kalutai/</td>
<td>Ass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>[ɛlɛnɛl]</td>
<td>[ɛlɛnɛl]</td>
<td>/lani/</td>
<td>Tender coconut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>[kɛlɛ]</td>
<td>[kɛlɛ]</td>
<td>/kalai/</td>
<td>Seedling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>[vɛrɛl]</td>
<td>[vɛrɛl]</td>
<td>/varu/</td>
<td>To fry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>[ke:ɛmɛ:]</td>
<td>[ke:ɛmɛ:]</td>
<td>/ka:liai/</td>
<td>Morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>[ma:ɬɛɛl]</td>
<td>[meɡɛɛl]</td>
<td>/mayir/</td>
<td>Hair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>[kɛj]</td>
<td>[kɛj]</td>
<td>/kai/</td>
<td>Hair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>[nɛdɛl]</td>
<td>[nɛdɛdɛl]</td>
<td>/naiTu/</td>
<td>Middle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>[vɛla:tu]</td>
<td>[vɛla:tu]</td>
<td>/valatu/</td>
<td>Right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>[pɛnɛl]</td>
<td>[pɛnɛl]</td>
<td>/pani/</td>
<td>Fever</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>[vɛɾa:ɡɛl]</td>
<td>[vɛɾa:ɡɛ]</td>
<td>/viraku/</td>
<td>Wood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>[peɭɛl]</td>
<td>[peɭɛ]</td>
<td>/palli/</td>
<td>Teeth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>[rɛkke]</td>
<td>[rɛkke]</td>
<td>/araikka/</td>
<td>Grind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>[kənɛl]</td>
<td>[kənɛl]</td>
<td>/kanci/</td>
<td>Kind of food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>[vɛdɪl]</td>
<td>[vedɪl]</td>
<td>/væTi/</td>
<td>Collation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>[ma:TTɛl]</td>
<td>[ma:TTɛl]</td>
<td>/ma:TTal/</td>
<td>Earing chain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>[kɛlɛl]</td>
<td>[kɛlɛl]</td>
<td>/kallu/</td>
<td>Stone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>[tɛlɛ]</td>
<td>[tɛlɛ]</td>
<td>/talai/</td>
<td>Head</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 3.1.1
Nattakkalloor ve:TTakka:Da Irula language has the [ε] vowel most of the words. It is to note that there are Kurumba and Muduva languages in their surroundings. It may be the influence of the both Kurumba and Muduva language. It is the truth that there are the similarities in the three languages not only phonetic level but also in lexical level. Such words [kelite], [penl] [pelθ], [kelθ] are available in Irula, Muduva and Kurumba. It is the retaining features of the Proto Dravidian Language. this variation remembers the Tamil dialect forms such as /cari/ > [sεrl] – okay, /tai/ > [tεi] – sieve, /pari/ > [pεrl] – to pluck.

[t] > [i] high central close unrounded vowel > high front close unrounded vowel
Here the [t] and [i] are the allophone of /u/ and /i/. This phonetic change is occurs in medial and final position. Mangarai Ve:TTakka:Da Irula language has this phonetic change than Nattakkalloor ve:TTakka:Da Irula language. Before the retroflex and alveolar sound this phonetic change is taking place as in Table: 3.2.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Mangarai ve:TTkka:Da Irula</th>
<th>Nattakkalloor ve:TTakka:Da Irula</th>
<th>Tamil</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>[pIlij]</td>
<td>[pullθ]</td>
<td>/pul/</td>
<td>Grass / chaff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>[vIldl]</td>
<td>[vlda]</td>
<td>/viTu/</td>
<td>To leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>[mejilr]</td>
<td>[megirθ]</td>
<td>/mayir/</td>
<td>Hair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>[muṭṭl]</td>
<td>[muṭṭθ]</td>
<td>/muTTi/</td>
<td>Kneel/elbow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>[bo:sl]</td>
<td>[bo:se]</td>
<td>/pa:ttiram/</td>
<td>Vessel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table : 3.2.1.

This type of phonetic change is happening in Muduva (/viDi/), Malayalam and Telugu (/viDi/) language. But Mangarai ve:TTakka:Da Irulas are not in touch with those three language group. So it can be taken as the sharing feature of the
Dravidian cognate group. There are Tamil dialect forms such as /ce:ttu/ > [se::tti] - With associated, /piTu/ > [puḍu] – to Break, /tinnu/ > [tunnu]- To eat, /cillu/ > [silli]- pieces.

[e] front open middle [ɪ] high front close unrounded vowel
[e] and [ɪ] become an allophone of /ai/, /a/, /e/ and /i/ according to the lexical items. This phonetic change arises in medial and final position. This change is taken place in both areas. It is convincing by Table: 3.3.1, this phonetic change is taking place before and after the alveolar and retroflex sounds.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Mangarai ve:TTkka:Da Irula</th>
<th>Nattakkalloor Ve:TTakka:Da Irula</th>
<th>Tamil</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>[tøge:rl]</td>
<td>[tøge:ɾe]</td>
<td>/tuvarai/</td>
<td>Pigionpea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>[ɡɛdəppa:rl]</td>
<td>[ɡaːdəppa:ɾe]</td>
<td>/kaTappa:rai/</td>
<td>Crowbar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>[vɛdɛ]</td>
<td>[viḍɛ]</td>
<td>/vaTai/</td>
<td>A kind of dish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>[bɪla:]</td>
<td>[bɛlə]</td>
<td>/periya/</td>
<td>Big</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>[vɛsa:na:]</td>
<td>[vlsa:na:]</td>
<td>/visanam/</td>
<td>Depression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>[vɪra:lt]</td>
<td>[vɛra:kə]</td>
<td>/viral/</td>
<td>Finger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>[nɛxa:dɛ]</td>
<td>[nɛxa:dl]</td>
<td>/cali/</td>
<td>Cold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>[vlkkɪtɪ]</td>
<td>[vɛkkɪtə]</td>
<td>/vikkal/</td>
<td>Hiccup</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table: 3.3.1**

There are few Tamil dialect forms in Irula language.

[ɪ] high central close unrounded vowel [e:] front middle unrounded

[ɪ] and [e:] are the allophonic representation of /u/ back high rounded vowel. [ɪ] sound is usual sound in Tamil also. But Nattakkalloor Ve:TTakka:Da Irulas are using the [e:] phone to denote the directions in locative case form instead of nominal case form as coming in Table:
Voiceless > voiced

This sound change also can be consolidated with rephonologization. Nattakkalloor ve:TTakka:Da Irula is possessing most of words than Mangarai ve:TTakka:Da Irula dialet dialect in verb and nouns as in below Table: 3.5.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Mangarai Ve:TTkka:Da Irula</th>
<th>Nattakkalloor Ve:TTakka:Da Irula</th>
<th>Tamil</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>[klea:kkt]</td>
<td>[klea:kke:]</td>
<td>/kila'ku/</td>
<td>East</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>[tekkt]</td>
<td>[tekke:]</td>
<td>/te'ku/</td>
<td>South</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>[veda:kkt]</td>
<td>[veda:kke:]</td>
<td>/vaTa'ku/</td>
<td>North</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 3.4.1

There are so many words are differing by the idiolect, dialect and sociolect in Tamil dialects.
Lengthening the vowel sound
Short vowel > Long vowel

This sound change also can be consolidated with rephonologization. Mangarai ve:TTakka:Da Irula dialect is possessing most of words than Nattakkalloor ve:TTakka:Da Irula dialect in verb and nouns. Before the retroflex, alveolar and velar sound this phonetic change is occurring as following in Table: 4.1.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Mangarai ve:TTkka:Da Irula</th>
<th>Nattakkalloor Ve:TTakka:Da Irula</th>
<th>Tamil</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>[kənaːli]</td>
<td>[kənaːki]</td>
<td>/tanal/</td>
<td>Flame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>[kɛgaːti]</td>
<td>[kɛgəti]</td>
<td>/kaluvuvatu/</td>
<td>Washing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>[vəral]</td>
<td>[vɛral]</td>
<td>/viral/</td>
<td>Finger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>[maːɾaːdlgeː]</td>
<td>[maːɾaːdlgeː]</td>
<td>/muntaːnai/</td>
<td>Apron</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>[kəliːnaː]</td>
<td>[ktliːnaː]</td>
<td>/kalyaːnam/</td>
<td>Marriage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>[maːɾɛ maːdl]</td>
<td>[maːɾɛ maːɖ]</td>
<td>/malai maːTu/</td>
<td>Dotted cow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>[blɛaː]</td>
<td>[blɛaː]</td>
<td>/periya/</td>
<td>Big</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>[muːŋɡaː]</td>
<td>[muːŋɡaː]</td>
<td>/muːnkiːl/</td>
<td>Bamboo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>[sɛləɡaeː]</td>
<td>[sɛləɡaeː]</td>
<td>/aːlaːkkku/</td>
<td>To denote measurement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 4.1.1.

These words also recollect the Tamil dialect forms for instance, /varen/ > [vaːɾɛ] – I am coming, /tareːn/ > [taːɾɛ] – I am giving.

**Conclusion**

This minute phonetic change is arising before retroflex and alveolar utmost. By the observation, Nattakkalloor ve:TTakkalloor Irula dialect seems to strong than Mangarai ve:TTakka:Da Irula dialect phonetically. There is the influence of
Kurumba and Mudiva in some phonetic level and it has the influential phone [ɛ] of Malayalam instead of [i] in most of the vocabularies of final position. But so many words are appearing as retention of the Dravidian features of both Mangarai ve:TTakka:Da Irula and Nattakkalloor ve:TTakkalloor Irula dialects while comparing with other Dravidian languages. [ɛ] is rephonologized sound in Tamil dialects and Yazhpanam Tamil. There are lots of vocabularies have the sound variations that are available in Tamil dialects. They are just related to the sound variation on Tamil Dialect also. That’s why ve:TTakka:Da Irulas are having paired lexical items in other areas. This kind of phonetic research helps to find out the proto language of a particular language

Bibliography
Perialwar, R (1979), “Phonology of Irula with Vocabulary”, Annamalai University, Annamalai Nagar.
Chapter 2

Socio-Phonology of Spoken Persian in Afghanistan

A. Gholam Mohammad Payman

Department of Linguistics,
Faculty of Languages and Comparative Literature,
Central University of Kerala, 671316 Kasaragod,
Kerala
gholampayman@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

This study focuses on elision and retention of laryngeals (pharyngeals /h/, /ʕ/ and glottal stops /h, /ʔ/) from the perspectives of collocutors’ social status in Spoken Persian in Afghanistan (SPA). The present study shows that, In SPA, elision and retention of laryngeals are two major factors of speech variations that Persian native speakers prefer one to another to contextually signal adequate hierarchical relationships. In addition, this notices that the glottal stops ([h], [ʔ]) serve in two ways: as phonemes (undergoing elision); as epenthetic consonants (recovering syllable structure after elision of Pharyngeals). This study concludes that in hierarchical relationship, superiors confronting inferiors usually elide the laryngeals whereas inferiors confronting superiors retain them in SPA. Accounting for such influentiality of status on language use requires intensive analyses in different social contexts. According to (Merriam, 2009; Simons, 2009; Yin, 2014), conducting an in-depth analysis of an object within its context with a view to understand it from the perspective of context is called case study.

Keywords: elision, retention, insertion, status, Persian, Afghanistan.
Introduction
This study centers on elision and retention of laryngeals (/ħ/, /ʕ/, /h/, /ʔ/) in conjunction with the status of communicators in SPA. Elision or retention of the laryngeals is optionally chosen in an accord with social positions of the addressees to fulfill the ethics and norms of communicative contexts. By status, I mean any position held by individuals in a society, the sources of status can be power, wealth, education, income and any other status markers. Lovaglia, Willer & Troyer consider status as “a person’s position in a group’s prestige hierarchy (2003, 108).” Hierarchical differentiation, according to Dumont (1970); Lebra (1976) cited in Beeman (1986), is almost universal; however, in some countries it has strict symbolic principles. In Afghanistan, hierarchical differentiation is strictly implied via shifting speech style. This study mainly focuses on description of elision and retention of laryngeals in contextually bound circumstances to generalize how status of interactors affect language styles in SPA. Elision is a common phenomenon in the world’s languages; it is also common in SPA inducing stylistic variations to show social status.

This study is of double importance: first, it investigates how social status is signaled through elision or retention of laryngeals in SPA, which to my knowledge, no such work has been done to date; second, it identifies the environment of elided sounds to supply elision by epenthetic consonants.

Theoretical Framework
According to Merriam & Simons (2009) and Yin (2014), providing a detailed inquiry of a research object within its natural environment is called case study. This study investigates the relationship between elision or retention and social status of interlocutors with an aim to discern how individuals’ status motivates elision or retention of the laryngeals in SPA. Hierarchical relationship and laryngeals elision/deletion are observed in different interactional situations; interaction between superiors and inferiors or vice versa and between equal status holders.
Method
The data were generated from different sources in Afghanistan. The sources were political press conferences, political meetings broadcast through TV (National TV), interviews of exalted political figures in person, speech on commemoration of Jihadi martyrs, recordings interaction of social and religious gatherings including casual conversations among friends and family members. Then, the data were transcribed in IPA, the entire cases of elision of laryngeals were examined and their phonological environments were recognized. Finally, the data were analyzed within case study approach congruous with their contexts and were finally concluded.

History of Persian
According to Windfuhr (2009) and Yamin (2004), Persian a member of Iranian languages belongs to Indo-European languages. Chronologically Persian has traversed three periods: old (551 BC-331 BC), middle (331 BC-700 AD) and modern (700 AD - now). Geographically, Persian is divided into Western group mainly spoken in Iran called Farsi and Eastern group spoken in Afghanistan called Dari and in central Asia such as Tajikistan and Uzbekistan called Tajiki.

Phonology of Standard Persian.
Windfuhr (2009) states that there are 32 phonemes: 29 segmental phonemes plus 3 non-segmental short vowels. Windfuhr holds that voiceless uvular stop /q/ and /ɣ/ have diachronically merged into one. Nasr (1980) states that there are 33 phonemes in Dari variety of Persian. He believes that voiceless uvular stop /q/ and voiced fricative /ɣ/ are still as two different phonemes in Dari variety of Persian.

Persian alphabet according to Mace (2003) is the modification of Arabic scripts that it has added to the complexity of sound system of Persian. Windfuhr (2009)
states that Persian, as well as modification of Arabic sounds, has innovated \(/P/\), \(/ʒ/\), \(/tʃ/\) and \(/g/\) which are exclusively used in words of Persian origin.

Windfuhr (2009); Nasr (1980) have diversity of opinions only on merging the uvular stop \(/q/\) with fricative uvular \(/ɣ/\), else they are agreed on the number of phonemes in Persian. Therefore; in Persian there may be 12 stops: a pair of bilabial stops, a pair of alveolar stops, a pair of velar stops, maybe one uvular stop and one laryngeal stop; 9 fricatives: a pair of labial fricatives, a pair of alveolar fricatives, maybe a pair of uvular fricatives, a pair of pharyngeal fricatives and one laryngeal fricative; 4 affricates: two pairs of palatal affricates; 2 nasals: one labial nasal and one alveolar nasal; 1 lateral; 1 trill; 2 glides.

Windfuhr (2009); Mace (2003) state that in Persian there are three long vowels \(/ɪː/, /uː/, /ɑː/\) and three short vowels \(/e/, /o/, /æ/\). They add that there are only 3 segmental vowels in written system of Persian, the other 3 usually short, are not written but inferred by native speakers from the context.

Segmental vowels are represented by the consonant letters \(<w>, <j>\) and \(<alef>\) in Persian. The letter \(<w>\) represents both \([u:]\) and \([w]\), \(<j>\) both \([ɪ:]\) and \([j]\) and similarly \(<alef>\) both \([ɑː]\) and the glottal stop \([ʔ]\). However, the 3 non-segmental vowels may be but not usually represented by diacritics.

Windfuhr (2009; 1979) state that the two diphthongs \(eɪ < aɪ\) and \(ow < au\) have increasingly been contracted into long vowels \(/iː/\) and \(/uː/\) in Persian. However, Windfuhr (2009) acknowledges them in modern Tajiki variety of Persian. on the other hand, Henderson (1975) states that one of the differences between Farsi variety of Iran and Dari variety of Afghanistan is that Dari variety has retained \(/aɪ/\) and \(/au/\) diphthongs whereas Farsi variety has changed them into \(eɪ\) and \(ow\).

According to Dehghan (2011) Persian syllables always take one of the structures (V, CV, CVC, CVCC, VC, VCC), whereas their phonetic form after insertion may
be (CV, CVC, CVCC). Persian words, according to Dehghan (2011); Sadeghi (2002 cited in Mirhussaini 2014), may not be begin with a vowel; any word beginning with a vowel may induce insertion of epenthetic consonants.

**Phonology of Spa**

Social phonology of Persian employs elision process to display social status, in that it varies from phonology of standard Persian. A great number of language variations stems from elision of laryngeals in SPA. The choice of elision or retention is subject to hierarchical standings of interactors to approach the norms and ethics of communication in particular situations.

The fundamental goal of this study is to examine social dimensions of elision and retention of laryngeals in SPA. As well as elision of laryngeals, it also illustrates the epenthetic role of glottal ([h], [ʔ]) detailed in sections 7.1.1 and 7.1.2.

**Elision of Laryngeals (/ħ/, /ʕ/)**

Elision of laryngeals, other than /ʔ/ whose elision is not evidenced word initially, contextually takes place in all positions in SPA. Initial and intervocalic elisions of laryngeals trigger insertion process to reshape the words and syllable structures. However, word final elision of laryngeals does not require consonant insertion. Laryngeals are detailed below, under two rubrics: pharyngeals in 7.1 and glottal stops in 7.2.

Elision of Pharyngeal /h/ and /ʕ/

Elision of pharyngeals (/h/, /ʕ/) word initially motivates insertion of epenthetic glottal stops ([h],[ʔ]) respectively since, according to Dehghan (2011); Sadeghi (2002 cited in Mirhussaini 2014), modern Persian words may not start with vowel. Intervocalic elision of pharyngeals between a vowel (short/long) and the long vowel (+high, -back, -round) prompts insertion of glide [j]; elsewhere,
insertion of glottal stop [h] for elision of /h/ and [ʔ] for /ʕ/ is required to resolve vowels in hiatus. More details on pharyngeals are given below in 7.1.1 and 7.1.2.

Elision of /h/
I start elision of /h/ with an exchange between a lecturer and a vice chancellor (hereinafter VC) with a view to discern how social status is displayed through talk. Getting a job may need several skills but, in Afghanistan, recruitment of staff at private institutions is, generally, in need of establishing prior relationship with stakeholders to get the job. This perception of job opportunity sheds light on how individuals shift their speech styles in SPA to approach the addressees’ norms.

siːhætmænd, sær-e ʰaːl hæstiːn?
siːhætmænd, sær-e ʰaːl æstiː?
‘Are you healthy and energetic?’

Throughout this paper, examples in IPA system are given in pairs; the first example in each pair is the intent example whereas second example is the standard form (full pronunciation). As to example 1a, VC and the lecturer had close association; however, they socially looked distant. Lecturer’s utterance naːtaːnestem fuːmaːræ zejaːræt konom ‘I could not pilgrim you’ overtly hierarchized them. In SPA, the word zejaːræt ‘pilgrimage’ shows sacredness implying a sacred place for religious reasons albeit, in communication, it is rampantly used to signal perceptual subjugation. To signal status differentiation, lecture in 1a has retained the pharyngeal /h/ in siːhætmænd ‘healthy’ and in sær-e ʰaːl ‘energetic’.

Simultaneously, another lecturer (hereinafter lecturer B) entered the office and the previous lecturer (hereinafter lecturer A) expressed the following utterances:
Lecturer A;
sælɔm! xuːb ʔæstiː? bæ xaɛjr ʔæstiː? siːjaetmæn ʔæstiː?
sælɔm! xuːb ʔæstiː? bæ xaɛjr ʔæstiː? siːhætmænd ʔæstiː?
‘Hello! Are you fine? Are you fine? Are you healthy?’
Roughly speaking, lecturers are perceived as having equal status in most contexts in Afghanistan. It has to be taken into account that equality of status does not necessarily mean exclusive deletion or retention of laryngeals. Indeed, equality of status means mutual obligations of either deletion or retention of sounds in interaction. It is noteworthy that implementing ritual courtesy among holders of equal status may also induces complete elision/retention of laryngeals in SPA. Observed in 2a and 2c, lecturer A and lecturer B both have deleted /ħ/ in sr:jætmaen ‘healthy’ and in ?ɑːlet ‘your health’ respectively whereas lecture A retained it in 1a above.

Throughout this paper, it is assumed that first elision takes place and second insertion, if applicable. For instance, pharyngeal /ħ/ in 2a and 2c elided first and secondly the glide [j] is inserted to resolve vowels in hiatus, similarly in 2c, [h] is inserted after elision of /ħ/ to fulfill the structural requirement of Persian syllable. Insertion of consonants is essential after word initial elision since, according to Windfuhr (2009); Dehghan (2011); Kambuzia (2004, cited in Rashidi & Shokrollahi 2010), Persian words may not begin with vowels at surface level. To avoid vowels syllable initially, consonants are inserted. Furthermore, Mobarki (2013); Kambuzia (2007) and Dehghan (2012) state that consonant cluster as onset is also not allowed by Persian grammar. The following examples illustrate a trialogue between two hierarchical categories – the lecturers and VC.

Lecturer A;

?ɑː qa:jː: hæjjɑː:n! tʃɑ:j bæret berezom? (Hayyan is the name of lecturer B)
‘Hayyan sir! Shall I pour tea for you?’

Teacher B;
\[?æwə: \text{gærmæ}, \text{tə:zæ }?a:w-e \text{ jæx xu:rdem.}\]
\[hæwə: \text{gærm }?æst, \text{tə:zæ }?a:b-e \text{ jæx xu:rdæʔæm.}\]
‘It is hot; I have just drunk cool water.’

VC;
\[?æjə:n \text{ ke } ?æstæ xu:deʃ motæxæsses-e mæyζ u: ?æsɔ:bæ.\]
\[hæjjə:n \text{ ke } ?æst xu:deʃ motæxæsses-e mæyζ u: ?æʃsə:b ?æst.\]
‘Hayyan himself is an expert of brain and nerve.’

Examples 3a and 3c depict equality of status–lecturer A elided /h/ in \[hæjja:n > hæjja:n\] ‘proper noun’ prompting insertion of fricative glottal [h]. In 3c, lecturer B elided the fricative /h/ in \[hæwə > ?æwə: \text{‘weather’ inducing glottal stop insertion}\] and in 3e, VC deleted /h/ in \[hæjja:n > ?æjja:n\] ‘proper noun’ motivating glottal stop insertion too. Observing lecturer A in 1a, he preserved /h/ confronting VC but deleted it in 2a, facing lecturer B. On the other hand, VC deleted /h/ in 3e assuming \[hæjja:n\] as an underlying form rather than \[hæjja:n\]. The reason may be the fact that \[hæjja:n\] has already undergone elision as \[hæjja:n > ?æjja:n\] since VC, perceptually higher in rank, signals his social distinction through double elision, elsewhere [h] is supplied as epenthetic consonant to fill the voids left by word initial elision of /h/.

Examples 4a and 4c below attest to how a single person strategically shifts language styles to echo status. Second Deputy Chief Executive of Afghanistan (hereinafter SDCEA) made speech in two different situations – 4a and 4c below. In example 4a, he made speech at the anniversary of martyred Rabbani (Jihadi leader and head of peace council martyred by Taliban) in the presence of Danish, the vice-president, Dr. Abdullah Abdullah, the Chief Executive of Afghanistan (hereinafter CEA) and all other Jihadi and government personas
addressing the vice-president and a Jihadi leader Mr. Sayyaf. Moreover, in 4c, he made speech in Arg (presidential palace of Afghanistan) addressing the representatives of Hazaras (an ethnic group in Afghanistan) who conducted demonstration on hostage and assassination of their passengers by Taliban (insurgents).

‘Mr. Danish (Vice President) and respected Sir Mr. Sayyaf mentioned the important Islamic movement leaders.’

Examples 4a and 4c conspicuously adduce stylistic variation where SDCEA talked in two different situations. In addressing political leaders, SDCEA preserved /h/ in moħtæræm ‘respected’ and /hl/ in nehzæt ‘movement’. However, in addressing the representatives of the demonstrators, he elided [h] in ḥaerf-e ḥaerf-e ‘an expression’ and in ḥæq > ḥæq ‘right’ both triggering insertion of glottal [h].

Example 3 restricts generalization of rule 4 in phonological rules of /h/ elision below.
## Elision of /ʕ/

According to Windfuhr (2009) and Beeman (1986), any word containing the voiced pharyngeal fricative /ʕ/ is originally an Arabic word used in Persian. In general, words of Arabic origin in oratorical, religious and hierarchical contexts are relatively stable in SPA. However, in the contexts where lower social status is connotated, deletion of /ʕ/ is rampantly observed in all phonological environments. The following utterances of a state staff talking on behalf of the youth in the presence of the president and other exalted personas of government envisage how superiority and inferiority are displayed through elision or retention of the pharyngeal /ʕ/.

**wæziːr-e johædoː wæ maʕluːlɪ:n-e maː, hædd-e ʔæeqæl joː jæk-e ʔæz moʕɪːn-ːjiː jə:n bætaur-e woːqiːːiː ʔæziː qeqr mebuːd.**

‘At least, either the mister or deputy minister for Martyrs and the disabled should have really been from this class (women and the disabled).’

As to examples 1a above, the youth representative (henceforth YR) signals hierarchical relationship through retention of /ʕ/ in the word *maʕluːlɪn* ‘the disabled’ in coda position, and intervocalically in *moʕɪːn* ‘deputies’ and in *woːqiːːiː* ‘real’.

### Table: Elision of /ʕ/

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STEP 1</th>
<th>STEP 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. ( \mathfrak{h} &gt; \emptyset / - # )</td>
<td>( \emptyset &gt; \mathfrak{h} / # - ) (-back)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ( \mathfrak{h} &gt; \emptyset / # - ) + high (-back)</td>
<td>( \emptyset &gt; \mathfrak{h} / # - ) + high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ( \mathfrak{h} &gt; \emptyset / v - v ) - round</td>
<td>( \emptyset &gt; j / v - v ) - round</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. ( \mathfrak{h} &gt; \emptyset / v - v )</td>
<td>( \emptyset &gt; \mathfrak{h} / v - v )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The forthcoming examples illustrate the expressions of the Chief Executive of Afghanistan (CEA) on an inauguration day introducing Mrs. Mostafavi as financial deputy minister for the ministry of “Information and Culture”.

‘Afghans defend their glory, country and rights.’
‘in the arenas of poetry, art and science, famous persons have expired.’
haejjæt ræhbærɪ:-jɪː: wezaːræt-e ʔɪ:tlɑːʔɑːt uː færhæŋ, moʃ:naː:-jɪː: bozorgæwɔː:r-e…
haejʔæt ræhbærɪ:-jɪː: wezaːræt-e ʔɪ:tlɑːʔɑːt uː færhæŋ, moʃ:naː:nhaː:-jɪː: bozorgæwɔː:r-e …
‘Leadership board of ministry of “Information and Culture’, deputy ministers of ....’

CEA, in examples 2a, elided /ʃ/ in defaː>f> defaː ‘defense’ word finally (requiring no insertion) and in ʔɪːzzæt > ʔɪːzzæt ‘glory’ word initially. In example 2c, he elided /ʃ/ in ʃeʃr > ʃer ‘poem’ as first element of coda cluster, word initially in faersæhɑː > faersæhɑː ‘arenas’ and in ʔɪːlm > ʔɪːlm ‘knowledge’. In 2e, /ʃ/ is deleted intervocalically in ʔɪːtlɑːʔɑːt > ʔɪːtlɑːʔɑːt ‘information’ and in moʃ:naː:n > moʃ:naː ‘deputy’. Intervocalic deletion of /ʃ/ before vowel (+high, -back, -round) requires insertion of the glide [j] in SPA, elsewhere, insertion of glottal stop is prompted. Succinctly, based on the data, summary of voiced pharyngeal discussion is exhibited as below. Application of rule 3 conditions generalization of rule 4 below.
Elision of glottal (/h/, /ʔ/)

To mark status in SPA, glottal /h/ and /ʔ/ serve two purposes: as phonemes – can undergo elision; as epenthetic consonants – inserted to resolves structural obligations. Intervocalic and word final elision of the glottal sounds are elaborated on in 7.2.1 and 7.2.2 below.

Elision of /h/

Akin to /h/ discussed in 7.1.1, the voiceless glottal fricative /h/ undergoes elision in all phonological environments to display status. To reshape words undergone elision initially or intervocally, operation of insertion in SPA is prompted. SDCEA’s speech addressing the representatives of the demonstrators discussed in 7.1.1, reveals how different social situations motivate speakers to connotate hierarchy through different speech styles. The following examples can be compared with examples 4a and 4c section 7.1.1, stated by the same person (SDCEA) in two different contexts.

nomːəjɛnd-e mʊʃtaːjɛːd ʔæm ʔæstːn.
nomːəjɛndæːjɪː mʊʃtaːhɛːd hæm ʔæstrː.
‘You are the representative of Mujtahid (theologian) too.’
dæ mæzoːr-e jærɨ:f sezdæ næfæræ jækdaeːfæ kʊʃtæn, dæ ɣɔːl-e gozæʃtæ tʃʊrdæ næfæræ bæ jomuːl-e se zæn ke jækeʃ ʕæruː:s buːd jæʃiːd kæːrdæn.
‘They (terrorists) killed 13 people in Mazar-e Sharif and 13 people in Ghor including 3 women who one of them was a newlywed.’

Given the above examples, /h/ is elided in different positions: word initially in *haem > ?aem* ‘also’; intervocalically in *modtæhi:d > moftæji:d* ‘Mujtahid’, in *tjaeh:rdæh > tjə:rdæ ‘fourteen’ and word finally in *sezdæh > sezdæe* ‘thirteen’.

Other than intervocalic elision of /h/ before vowel (+high, -back, -round) which requires insertion of glide [j]), in other cases it motivates insertion of glottal stop [ʔ]. However, word final elision of /h/ does not induce insertion in SPA. It has to be taken into account that application of rule 3 restricts the scope of generalization of rule 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STEP 1</th>
<th>STEP 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.  h &gt; Ø / − #</td>
<td>− →</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.  h &gt; Ø / # − (-back +close)</td>
<td>Ø &gt; ? / #− (-back +close)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.  h &gt; Ø / v −v: (-round)</td>
<td>Ø &gt; j / v −v: (-round)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.  h &gt; Ø / v −v</td>
<td>v &gt; Ø / −v</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Elision of the glottal stop /ʔ/

The fact of blocking phonetic occurrence of vowels word initially, in Persian, gives rise to widespread insertion of glottal stop such as *u: > ?u: ‘him/her’, i:n > ?i:n ‘this’ and ædaeb > ?ædaeb ‘politeness’*. In case, glottal stop is not inserted word initially, the addressed vowels serve as consonants such as *u: > w, i: > j*
and æ > ? respectively, as a result, onset clusters are formed which again, according to Windfuhr (2009), is forbidden in Persian.

Persian words beginning with vowel, according to Dehghan (2011); Windfuhr (2009), induce insertion of glottal stop [ʔ] as epenthetic consonant at surface level. However, according to the data glottal fricative [h] also occurs as epenthetic consonant (section 7.1.1) in SPA. Epenthetic glottal stop either occurs intervocically to resolve vowels in hiatus or word initially to recover syllable structure. The glottal stop can occur in all phonological environments. To show stylistic variations, speakers elide /ʔ/ in middle and final positions but not in initial position.

Windfuhr (2009) holds that glottal stop in Persian may have a triple origin: 1) an automatic epenthetic consonant when a word begins with a vowel initially as u: > ū: ‘him/her’ or before the affix Ezafe –e such as tæpæ-e > tæpæ-ʔe “a hill” for resolving vowels in hiatus; 2) a phoneme of Arabic loan words in Persian as mæsʔælæ ‘problem’; and 3 ) a reduction of Arabic voiced pharyngeal /ʕ/ in Persian like tæʕæhod > tæʔæhod ‘promise’.

The following examples describe how elision or retention of glottal stop manifests hierarchical connotations in SPA.

ræjɪːs (meant dean) goft xu: mæ ūːmzæ mekonom.
ræʔiːs (meant dean) goft xu: mæ ūːmzæʔ mekonom.
‘The head (meant dean) told that s/he would surely sign it.’
dʒælæ:laetmæʔa:boːn sær-e hær mauzo ræjgiː:riː mekonæ.
dʒælæ:laetmæ:boːn sær-e hær mauzoʔ ræʔjgiː:riː mekonænd.
‘Gentlemen approve affairs by casting ballot.’
tæː tæsɪːr-e sobæt-e xodæ boːlaː:-jiː mærdom neʃaːn bettæ
tæʔsɪːr-e sohbaːt-e xod rɑː boːlaː:-jiː mærdom neʃaːn bettæ
‘to show the impact of their talking to people’
Examples 1a - 1e imply instances of equal status. Examples 1a and 1c shed light on the interaction of three lecturers in my house where deletion of glottal stop is attested intervocally in the words əræʔi:s > ræj:i:s ‘chief’, in ɗʒælætmaʔa:ba:n > ɗʒælætma:ba:n ‘gentlemen, as first element of coda cluster in ræj > ræj ‘vote’ and word finally in ʔɪ:mzæʔ > ʔɪ:mzæ ‘signature’. Example 1e discusses expressions of a layman with whom I was talking where deletion of glottal stop is exhibited word medially. Concisely, the phonological rule of elision for glottal stop is represented below. Application of rule 2 limits generalization of rule 3.

**STEP 1**

1. ? > Ø / v-- (#)#
2. ? > Ø / v – v: (-back +high)
3. ? > Ø / v – v: (-round)

**STEP 2**

→ Ø > j / v – v: (-back +high)
→ v > Ø / – v: (-round)

**Conclusion**

This study focused on the relationship between elision and retention of laryngeals (/h/, /ʔ/, /h/, /ʔ/) related to the status of communicators in SPA within the framework of case study. Based this study, laryngeals bring about numerous context-sensitive language variations in SPA; however, Persian native speakers know whether to elide or retain laryngeals to reflex status of the collocutors. In addition, glottal stops (part of laryngeals) paly dual role – as phonemes undergoing elision and as epenthetic consonants where pharyngeals are contextually elided in communication in SPA. The present study concludes that superiors confronting inferiors usually elide laryngeals whereas inferiors confronting superiors retain them in SPA. Other than glottal stop that is not deleted word initially, elision of the three other laryngeals is not restricted to syllabic position; however, insertion of glottal stops as epenthetic features is
syllabically conditioned. Word initial elision of pharyngeals (/h/, /ʕ/) triggers insertion of glottal ([h], [ʔ]) respectively and initial elision of the glottal fricative /h/ prompts insertion of glottal stop [ʔ]. Furthermore, intervocalic elision of laryngeals (/ħ/, /ʕ/, /h/, /ʔ/) before long vowel (+high, -back, -round) requires insertion of the glide [j]. Elsewhere, elision of /h/ motivates insertion of [h], elision of /ʕ/ prompts insertion of [ʔ] and elision of (/h/, /ʔ/) induces simultaneous elision of vowels with (h/, /ʔ/) as a result of which a syllable is lost in the word. Finally, word final elision of laryngeals does not require application of insertion process in SPA.

Bibliography


A Comparative Study of some of the Phonological features of Komrem Group

K. Tarun Kom
North Eastern Hill University,
Shillong
tarunkom77@gmail.com

Curiously Bareh
Central University of Kerala,
Kasaragod,
Kerala
barehcuriously@rediffmail.com

Abstract

Komrem is an umbrella term referring (earlier) to a group of languages spoken in Manipur (India) for some purposes. They are Kom, Koireng, Chiru, Kharam and Aimol. They belong to the Kuki-Chin group of Tibeto-Burman language family. This group of languages is all regarded as endangered and poorly documented. Linguistically, their vocabularies are fairly similar to each other as compare to other languages of Kuki-Chin group. But that close enough to be considered as dialects of one language. In this paper, we propose to compare and analyze the similarities and differences share among these languages, specifically their sounds pattern and their variants based on the study of some cognate words. It is also an attempt to compare how much these languages deviate from the Proto-Kuki-Chin in the course of their long separation in time and space.
Keywords: Proto Kuki-Chin, Proto Chin, Komrem, phonological features.

Introduction

Kom-rem is an enlarged group consisting of six indigenous minority groups of smaller tribal linguistic communities - Aimol, Chiru, Koireng, Kom, Purum and kharam. The term Kom-rem literally means ‘people who emerge from the caves’. The six constituent tribes share the common history and legends. The Kom-rem community is considered as a distinct community, who are accustomed both to the hill and the plain life.

Genetic classification

There are number of works, propose the genetic classification of the Tibeto-Burman languages. There are also plausible agreement and disagreement among scholars pertaining the exact positioning of many TB languages of India, particularly the minor languages. We follow Grierson (1903)’s classification and choose the term Old Kuki-Chin for the analysis of our paper. By opting Grierson’s classification, doesn’t imply that his classification is accurate than the other but only on the basis that his sub-branch Old Kuki-Chin of Kuki-Chin counted all these languages under the nomenclature of Komrem. Benedict (1972) proposes the schematic chart of Sino-Tibetan groups without specifies the lower order. He groups the Kuki-Naga along with Mikir, Meithei and Mru without further indicating the position of these languages under the Kuki-Chin group. A general consensus is that all these languages belong to the Kuki-chin group of Tibeto-Burman language family, however their closest sister nodes are still a question mark and yet to be ascertained. For example, Thurgood (2003) uses the term Mizo-Kuki-Chin group (Kukish) to fit in the two subgroups; Chin and Kuki languages (or dialects) [Old Kuki]. He classifies Kom and Aimol under the [Old Kuki] along with Bete, Hallam, Langrong, Anal, Chothe/Chote/Chawte and Hmar, but does not mention the status of the other languages. Ethnologue (2007) groups these languages under the Northwestern sub-group of Kuki-Chin Kharam is given mentioned as Naga, Kharam.
Language Family

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tibeto-Burman</th>
<th>Kuki-Chin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Southern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kom</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. No. TB classification by Grierson (1903)

**Location**

Benedict (1972) points out that the Old Kuki languages are spoken by ‘marginal’ tribes which have driven out of the Chin and Lushei Hills by the more vigorous Kuki people, notably the Lushei. There is no accurate documentation regarding the population Komrem. The unofficial census conducted in 2001 of the combined Komrem population figured around 33,066 people spreading across 93 villages. Komrem people are found in the North-eastern states of Manipur, Nagaland, Assam and Tripura. Majority of the population resides in Manipur, occupying the hills, foothills and the valleys of the state of Manipur. Their present settlements are confined within the State of Manipur. These languages are spoken in Senapati, Chandel and Churachandpur districts of Manipur. However, sizable speakers of Kom and Chiru are found in Tamenglong District and Koireng speakers are spread to Bishnupur Districts. They must have migrated
Origin and History
All the Komrems have the similar story regarding the origin of their tribes. The cave episode left remarkable scars, which later became an instrument of identification among these tribes. A statistical account by Brown (1973) on the native states of Manipur and the hill territory under the British rule said, “the only remaining Kuki tribes of importance are those called Aimol, Chiru, Purum, Koireng (Kuoireng) and Kom. These are the sub-divisions of Kom tribe”. They were known as Nagas during the Manipur state Durbar, whereas Shakespeare (1912) called them Old Kuki in his book ‘The Lushei-Kuki Clans’.

The ‘Komtong’ which means ‘Kom language’ is considered as a common language of the Komrem. All the constituent tribes can communicate through this language. More or less all the languages and the customary practices of
these small indigenous communities are very similar. They also have common associations like the Kom-rem Baptist churches association and other Unions. Despite their diversification in their languages, names and clans, they still assert having common ownership of the original cave song (folk songs), shawls, dresses etc. Today, the constituent tribes of Komrem consisting of Aimol, Chiru, Kom, Koren (Koireng), Purum and Kharam are all recognized separately as a scheduled tribe by the government. Komrem, known as the united banner of six small tribes Aimol, Chiru, Koireng, Kom, Purum, and Kharam are gradually heading towards disintegration as some of its constituent tribes have separated from the common platform one after another. At present only the Kom and Purum remain as Komrem as Kharam and Koireng have formally parted from Komrem and became separate entities on the 3rd of February 2018. All the Komrem languages have some similarities with the Lushai of Mizoram, the Hmars of Manipur and the Hrangkhawls of Tripura.

An overview (earlier literature)
A huge interest has been invested in conducting research on the Kuki-Chin group of languages, however very few significant work done on these languages individually. Grierson (1903)’s work, though there were discrepancies, but still considered as classic and pioneering work on many of the minor languages of North East India. The Department of Linguistics, Manipur University have done their part and documented many of these languages. Few research works such as descriptive grammar [Kom (Aimol 2007, Kom 2009), Koireng (Devi 2013), Chiru (Singh 2007)] have been conducted at Manipur University, Imphal and North Eastern Hill University, Shillong respectively. A very recent linguistic work conducted by the People’s Linguistic Survey of India taking into account some of these languages but not in dept.

Methods
Though initially, one of the aims of this paper is to discuss their relationship using the basic methodology of lexicostatistic database. As we couldn’t gather
comprehensive data, we gave up the idea and are focusing only in sounds pattern of these languages compare with the Proto Kuki-Chin Consonants as reconstructed by VanBik (2009) and Khoi Lam Thang (2001) and lexicostatistic comparison are used only to characterize the degree of divergence among these languages. Data are collected from Dr. Tarun Kom, unpublished theses published by Manipur University, PLSI, etc. Dr. Kom himself is native speaker of Kom and he also communicates in many of the Kuki-Chin languages.

**Sounds correspond among of the Proto Kuki-Chin and Komrem languages**

Old Kuki-Chin languages are still retained many of the Proto Tibeto-Burman phonological features, particularly of the Proto Kuki-Chin (henceforth PKC) features. In the analysis of this paper, we are taking VanBik (2009)'s PKC Consonant as a referent point and contrast it with these languages. VanBik (ibid) provides a detailed description of the Proto Kuki-Chin consonants occurring at different positions. The following are the proto Kuki-Chin Initial Consonants;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initial Voiced Implosive</th>
<th>*b</th>
<th>*d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial Voiceless Stops</td>
<td>*p</td>
<td>*t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial Voiceless Aspirated Stops</td>
<td>*ph</td>
<td>*th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial Affricates</td>
<td>*ts</td>
<td>*tsh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial Fricatives</td>
<td>*θ</td>
<td>*s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial Nasals</td>
<td>*hm</td>
<td>*hn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial Liquids</td>
<td>*hr</td>
<td>*r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial Glides</td>
<td>*w</td>
<td>*j</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Proto Kuki-Chin Initial Consonants Chart VanBik (2009: 59)*
A similar work attempted to reconstruct the Proto Chin by Khoi Lam Thang (2001). He reconstructs the Proto Chin initial consonants based on the 21 Chin languages; Thado, Zo, Siyin, Tedim, Bulkhua, Zaniat, Mizo, Falam, Taisun, Hakha, Khantlang, Khualsim, Senthang, Matu, Kaang, Dai, Asho, Lautu-Hnaring, Lakher, Mara and Khumi. He made a Preliminary Subgrouping of Chin languages into 5 five subgroups based on several factors which support the selection of these representative languages for his analysis. In his analysis, Proto-Chin does not show much deviation from the PKC of VanBik. Based on the limited data we have in these languages, we could somehow predict on the whole, Proto Old Kuki-Chin also would not show much differences interim of the initial consonants. We have not come across any similar work done on the Old Kuki-Chin group. In this paper, we will only attempt to discuss few phonological features which are prominence in these Komrem languages.

*th
VanBik (ibid) mentions that there are two shared innovations that separate Kuki-Chin languages from the rest of the Tibeto-Burman family: a thoroughgoing verbal stem alternation and a phonological change of the PTB initials *s/sy to PKC *th. Both these features are still retained by many of the Old Kuki –Chin languages. Examples from Kom language can be illustrated in the following;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PTB</th>
<th>PKC</th>
<th>Old Kuki (Kom)</th>
<th>gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sak</td>
<td>thak</td>
<td>inf*ak</td>
<td>’itch’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>say</td>
<td>thii</td>
<td>t*i</td>
<td>‘die’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sat</td>
<td>that</td>
<td>t*et</td>
<td>‘kill’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sey</td>
<td>thay</td>
<td>t*ei</td>
<td>‘fruit’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data of both PTB and PKC are excerpt from VanBik (2009)

*b > d and *d > d
Many of PKC initial consonants are still retained by these languages with the exception of voiced implosive stops /ɓ/ and /ɗ/ that innovate into the voiced plosive stops /b/ and /d/ respectively. All the Komrem languages regularly shown a three ways contrast for coronals (voiced, voiceless and aspirated) as appeared in the work of Aimol (2007), Kom (2009), Singh (2007), Devi (2013) and others.

**Voiceless liquids and voiceless nasals**

Voiceless liquids and voiceless nasals are the prominence features of Kuki-Chin, but surprisingly, these sounds were not feature in the list of consonants of Kom, in both the work of Aimol (2007) and Kom (2009); Chiru language (Singh, 2007), Sadu Koireng (Devi, 2013). VanBik (2009) reconstructs three voiceless nasals as proto sounds (*hm, *hn, and *ŋn) of PKC and two voiceless liquids (*hl and *hr). The same can be seen with the Proto Chin as reconstructed by Thang (2001). Many of the Komrem languages are having these sounds as phonemics.

*끔*

VanBik (2009) postulates that the PKC *w became labiodental fricatives in many of the Kuki-Chin sub groups. The evidence can still be seen with many Kuki Chin groups with the exception of few Southern Plain Languages. Daai and Asho Chin are still retaining w in their sounds system. However, on the basis of the manner of articulation of the voiced labiodental, some the Old Kuki Chin groups use *voiced labiodental fricatives* and some use *voiced labiodental approximants*. Some of the languages that use the approximant are Chiru, Mongsang etc. The innovation of *w to v can be illustrated by the followings examples from Kom; *tʰarıvan* ‘sky’, *kaعامل* ‘bear’, *vok* ‘pig’, *va* ‘bird’, etc.

Major contrast amongst these languages is more noticeable in the rhymes of the syllable, and there are hardly any different on onset of the syllables. Let us compare this numeral data set
### Figure No. 2: Comparative data of numerals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Aimol</th>
<th>Chiru</th>
<th>Kharam</th>
<th>Koireng</th>
<th>Kom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>ankʰat</td>
<td>kʰat</td>
<td>inkʰat</td>
<td>kʰat</td>
<td>inkʰat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>Anni</td>
<td>Di</td>
<td>inni</td>
<td>kinni</td>
<td>inni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>antʰum</td>
<td>ᵇum</td>
<td>intʰum</td>
<td>Kintʰum</td>
<td>intʰum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four</td>
<td>manli</td>
<td>Mili</td>
<td>milli</td>
<td>minli</td>
<td>manli</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five</td>
<td>Raŋa</td>
<td>raŋa</td>
<td>raŋa</td>
<td>riŋa</td>
<td>raŋa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Six</td>
<td>karuk</td>
<td>urup/ruk</td>
<td>karuk</td>
<td>kuruk</td>
<td>karuk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seven</td>
<td>sari</td>
<td>siri</td>
<td>sarri</td>
<td>sari</td>
<td>sari</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eight</td>
<td>Kariat</td>
<td>eret</td>
<td>kariat</td>
<td>kiriet</td>
<td>karet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nine</td>
<td>Kua</td>
<td>oko/ko</td>
<td>koa</td>
<td>kuo</td>
<td>Ku</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ten</td>
<td>som</td>
<td>som</td>
<td>som</td>
<td>som</td>
<td>som</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty</td>
<td>somni</td>
<td>somdi</td>
<td>som-ni</td>
<td>somni</td>
<td>somni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thirty</td>
<td>somtʰum</td>
<td>somtʰum</td>
<td>som-tʰum</td>
<td>som tʰum</td>
<td>som tʰum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forty</td>
<td>sommanli</td>
<td>sommili</td>
<td>som-mili</td>
<td>somminli</td>
<td>som-\text{manli}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifty</td>
<td>somranga</td>
<td>somranga</td>
<td>som-ranga</td>
<td>somringa</td>
<td>som-ranga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sixty</td>
<td>somkaruk</td>
<td>somrup/Somruk</td>
<td>som-ruk</td>
<td>somruk</td>
<td>som ruk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seventy</td>
<td>somsari</td>
<td>somsiri</td>
<td>som-sari</td>
<td>somsari</td>
<td>som sari</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eighty</td>
<td>somkariat</td>
<td>somret</td>
<td>som-rait</td>
<td>somriet</td>
<td>som red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ninety</td>
<td>somkua</td>
<td>somko</td>
<td>som-koa</td>
<td>somkuo</td>
<td>som ku</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hundred</td>
<td>rekʰat</td>
<td>raja/rajakʰat</td>
<td>rajakʰat</td>
<td>roikʰat</td>
<td>reikʰat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thousand</td>
<td>lisingkʰat</td>
<td>baibe/bopkʰat</td>
<td>lisingkʰat</td>
<td>lisingkʰat</td>
<td>lasing \text{inkʰat}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Conclusion

As we have proposed in this paper to see the similarities and differences among these languages, we reiterate that the Komrem group was formed based on the linguistic similarities. Display of one’s identity is one of the trends in Northeast India. Identity comes in various forms; linguistic identity, social, cultural, ethnic,
sociocultural identity and so on. Many of the linguistic minority groups of Manipur are forced to display their identity. There are many instances, where there are mismatch between linguistic group and ethnic group. For example, Monsang, a minority community living in Manipur identify themselves as Naga. Linguistically, it belongs to the Kuki-Chin group, but ethnically they identify themselves with the Naga group. There are several similar instances that compel people to negotiate their ethnic, social or cultural identity in North east India at the expense of their languages. With the exception of Chiru, most of the languages of Komrem are fairly identical to each other.

Bibliography
ABSTRACT

Compounding and suffixation are important processes of word-formation in Malayalam. Compound words are formed mostly from two or more noun stems, from a noun and a verb stem, or, in a relatively small number of cases, from other combinations. The most common type of compound word is one in which both or all constituent parts are noun stems. This type of compounding is productive. Formation of a reduplicated noun compound by the combination of a noun root and a partially reduplicated form of the same root is also productive. Compound verbs are formed mostly from a noun + verb combination. This is a productive process. In addition to it, compound verbs are formed extensively by the combination of the verbal participle form of one verb with another verb. This process cannot be considered as a productive one. Prefixation is an entirely unproductive process, though there are some pairs of words borrowed from
Sanskrit which differ only in the presence of a negative-marking prefix on one member of the pair. Verbs form many abstract nouns by suffixation.

**Keywords:** Compounding, Prefixation, Suffixation, Conversion, Backformation, Clipping, Formation of blends, Formation of acronyms, Word manufacturing.

**Introduction**

A proper understanding of the word-formation in a language needs classification of such processes on formal grounds. Bauer (1983) classifies the word-formation in English as follows: Compounding, Prefixation, Suffixation, Conversion, Backformation, Clipping, Formation of blends, Formation of acronyms and Word manufacturing. Malayalam makes use of compounding and suffixation extensively for the formation of words. Though the present paper attempts to give the types of word formation in Malayalam based on typology, explanations will be given by raising certain problematic issues.

**Compounding**

A morphologically complex word containing at least two elements which can otherwise occur as free forms (i.e. as independent words) can be considered as a prototypical compound.

Ex.1. *talayaNa* (< *tala* ‘head’ + *aNa* ‘support’) ‘pillow’

2. *marappeTTi* (< *maram* ‘wood’ + *peTTi* ‘box’) ‘wooden box’

3. *kiLippacca* (< *kiLi* ‘parrot’ + *pacca* ‘green’) ‘parrot green’

Compounding is a grammatical process by which complex words are formed from smaller elements that have word status under normal circumstances. Affixation is different from compounding as it involves morphemes that do not have word status. It is the word-like behaviour of a string of elements that indicates that it is a compound. Though rearrangement of constituents in a
construction is possible in a language, the constituent parts of compounds cannot be rearranged.

Ex.1.  *talayaNā* `pillow`  vs.  *aNaTala*

2.  *marappETTī* `wooden box`  vs.  *peTTimaram*

3.  *kiLippacca* `parrot-green`  vs.  *paccakkīLi* `parrot`

(`?` marks indicate that the expression does not mean or refer anything.)

Compounding is widely used in Malayalam for new coinage of words. It may appear sometimes that mere juxtaposition of two nouns can form a compound word. The compounds can be sub classified in many different ways by the form classes of the items that make up the compounds, by semantics classes, by the presumed underlying operators linking the two elements, by presumed underlying syntactic functions and so on (Bauer 1983:201-202). One can take up the mixture of two or more of the above-mentioned methods of classification. Here we classify the compounds based on the form classes of their formative.

**Compound Nouns**

Compound nouns can be further subclassified into four groups according to semantic criteria:

Endocentric compounds (e.g. *Alippazam* `fruit of banyan tree`)

Appositional compounds  (e.g.  *vAlakkAri* `female servant`  +  *peNNu* `girl`  >  *vElakkArippeNNu* `servant girl`)

Exocentric compounds or  *bahuvrihi* compound (e.g.  *maram* `wood`  +  *maNTa* `head`  >  *maramaNTa* `fool`

Copulative compound or  *dvandva* compound (e.g.  *appa* `father`  +  *amma* `mother`  >  *appAmma* `parents`)


Endocentric compounds are more productive as compared to other types of compounds.

**Rhyme-motivated Compounds**

There are compounds which are formed by two elements, the combination of which is motivated by rhyme. Sometimes both the elements have independent existence.

In some cases both the elements do not have independent existence.

\[ caRa + paRa > caRa paRa \text{ ‘rain heavily’} \]

There are cases which are simply reduplication of independently existing elements.

\[ pOka + pOka > pOkappOka \text{ ‘in course of time’} \]

In some cases it is mere reduplication of elements which do not exist independently.

**Prefixation**

Prefixation is not a productive process of word-formation in Malayalam. Prefixes are found in certain words borrowed from Sanskrit.

\[ a + Sudham \text{ ‘cleanliness’} > aSudham \text{ ‘uncleanliness’} \]
\[ a + nyAyam \text{ ‘justice’} > anyAyam \text{ ‘injustice’} \]

**Suffixation**

This process is widely used in Malayalam. Here the derivation by suffixation is classified based on the form classes of the resultant word forms.
Derivation of Nouns

Nouns from Nouns
Many suffixes are used for the formation of nouns from nouns. Some of them productive and some are non-productive. A good number of nouns carries gender number suffix. But the root to which they are attached appears to be bound.

\[
\begin{align*}
&jOli + kAran > jOlikkArann 'male servant' \\
&jOli + kAri > jOlikkAri 'female servant' \\
&jOli + kAr > jOlikkAr 'servents'
\end{align*}
\]

The suffix set \( kAran, kAri, kAr \) is a productive suffix which form a number of human nouns form non-human nouns.

Nouns from Verbs
The formation noun from verbs is a productive process. There are number of suffixes involved in the formation of nouns from verbs. Based on the type of stem to which the suffixes are added to form nouns, the derivation can be classified into the two types:

Formation nouns from non-relativized verb stems.
Formation of nouns from relativized verb stems.

Nouns from non-relativized verb stems
The uninflected verb stems, i.e. the verb stems not inflected for past/negative + relative participle is taken as non-relativized verb stems. The formation of nouns from these verb stems can be readily be divided into non-productive and productive. Non-productive suffixes are widely used in written language than in the spoken language. These suffixes include \( -uka, ttam, -cil, -kku, -vu, -al, -kkal, -ttal, -ppu \) etc... These suffixes cannot be added to all verbs. A set of suffixes takes only to a set of verbs.

\[
\begin{align*}
kara 'cry' + cil & > karaccil 'cry' \\
paTi 'study' + ttam & > paTittam 'education'.
\end{align*}
\]
The suffixes -uka is a productive deverbal nominative suffixes which can be added to any verb.

\[ \text{cey 'do'} + \text{uka} > \text{ceyyuka 'doing'}, \]
\[ \text{paRa 'say'} + \text{uka} > \text{paRayuka 'saying'} \]
\[ \text{pOk 'go'} + \text{uka} > \text{pOkuka 'going'}, \]

The deverbal nouns of productive suffixation differ from the other deverbal nouns of non-productive suffixation semantically and functionally.

**Nouns from relativized Verb Stems**

The gerundival -atu and pronominalizers avan, aval, avar, atu, ava can be added to relativized verb stems to form gerundival and pronominalized nouns respectively. These suffixes are productive. The morphological formation can be depicted as follows:

verb + tense/negative marker + relative paticiple marker + gerundivalizer/pronominlizer

\[ \text{cey-t-}a + \text{atu} > \text{ceytatu 'that which was done'} \]
\[ \text{cey-unn-}a + \text{atu} > \text{ceyyunnatu 'that which was done'} \]
\[ \text{cey-Ata} + \text{atu} > \text{ceyy-At-atu 'that which was/is/will be not done'}. \]
\[ \text{cey-t-}a + \text{avan} > \text{ceytavan 'male person who did'} \]
\[ \text{cey-unn-}a + \text{avan} > \text{ceyyunnavan 'male person who does'} \]

**Nouns from Adjectives**

Adjectival nouns are formed by adding third person pronominal suffixes to adjectives. Derivation is equally possible both from simple adjective and from the more common derived type. Any restrictions on productivity are of a semantic nature.

\[ \text{nalla + avan} > \text{nallavan 'a good male person'} \]
\[ \text{nalla + avaL} > \text{nallavaL 'a good female person'} \]
\[ \text{nalla + avar > nallavar 'good persons'} \]
\[ \text{nalla + atu > nalla-tu 'a good thing'} \]
Derivation of Verbs

Verbs from Nouns

The formation of verbs from noun is not a productive process. There are a few nouns borrowed from Sanskrit verbs by a deletion of final syllable and addition of -i,

\[
\text{nalla + ava} \rightarrow \text{nallav-a ‘good things’}.
\]

Verbs from Verbs

Some transitive verbs which can be paired with intransitive verbs can be said to have derived from their respective intransitive verbs by suffixation. Similarly some causative verbs can be said to have derived from their respective non-causative verbs by suffixation. Such processes are no longer productive. The suffixation involves three kinds of processes: 1) addition of suffix, 2) Change of phoneme and 3) Selection of different tense suffix. The second and the third kinds of processes can be considered as suffixation by positing an abstract morphophonemic suffix, say x, which triggers the derivation.

The suffixes -ppi, -ccu, -ttu, and -RRu added to a certain group of verbs complementarily form derived nouns.

Ex. \( \text{paThi ‘study’ + ppi} \rightarrow \text{paThippi ‘educate’} \)
\( \text{pAyi ‘flow’ + ccu} \rightarrow \text{pAyiccu ‘cause to flow’} \)
\( \text{naTa ‘walk’ + ttu} \rightarrow \text{naTattu ‘cause to walk’} \)
\( \text{akal ‘leave + RRu} \rightarrow \text{akaRRu ‘remove’} \).

Certain verbs are derived by the doubling of the consonant of the final syllable.
Ex. *Aku* ‘become’ > *Akku* ‘prepare’, *OTu* ‘run’ > *OTTu* ‘drive’, *mARu* ‘change’ > *mARRu* ‘cause to change’.

Certain verbs are derived from the verb stems by the denasalization of the nasal consonant of the final syllable.

Ex. *tiruntu* ‘be reformed’ > *tiruttu* ‘correct’
Certain verbs are derived by the selection of a different tense suffix.

Ex. *cEr-nnu* ‘joined’ > *cEr-ttu* ‘cause to join’
*cEr-u-nnu* ‘joins’ > *cEr- kkunnu* ‘cause to join’
*cEr-um* ‘will join’ > *cEr-kkum* ‘will cause to join’

**Derivation of Adjectives**

**Adjectives from Nouns**

Adjectives are derived widely from nouns. Bound forms such as -*Aya* (The relative participle form of the verb as ‘become’) and *uLLa* (from the verb *uNTu* ‘be’) combine with nouns to form adjectives.

Ex. *sundharam* ‘beauty’ + *Aya* > *sundharamAya* ‘beautiful’,
*azaku* + *uLLa* > *azakuLLa* ‘beautiful’.

The suffixes -aam and aavatu are added to the numeral nouns to form adjectives.
Ex. *onnu* + *Amatta* > *onnAmatta* ‘first’

**Derivation of Adverbs**

**Adverbs from Nouns**

Clitic *ee* and case suffixes *il* and *Al* when suffixes with certain restricted set of nouns denoting different dimensions of location function as adverbs. The following types can be listed:
1. A restricted set of nouns which could be considered as particles suffixed by the clitic -ee function as adverbs.

- mun ‘anteriority’ + E > munnE ‘in front’,
- pin ‘posteriority’ E > pinnE ‘behind’
- mEl ‘superiority’ E > mElE ‘above’
- puRam ‘exteriority’ + E > puRattE ‘outside’

2. Another restricted set of nouns are suffixed by the locative marker -il function as adverbs

- uL ‘interiority’ + il > uLLil ‘inside’
- iTa ‘centre’ + il > iTayil ‘in between’
- etir ‘that which is opposite’ + il > etiril ‘opposite’

3. The names of directions suffixed by the clitic - OTTu function as adverbs

- kizakku ‘east’ + OTTu > kizakkOTTu ‘east’
- paTinjARu ‘west’ + OTTu > paTinjAROTTu ‘west’
- vaTakku ‘north’ + OTTu > vaTakkOTTu ‘north’
- tekku ‘south’ + OTTu > tekkOTTu ‘south’

Adverbs from Bound Demonstrative and Interrogative Determiners

The bound demonstrative and interrogative determiners i, a- and e- combine with a restricted set nouns to form adverbs.

- i + pOL > ippOL ‘this time/now’
- a + pOL ‘time’ + appaOL ‘that time/then’
- e + pOL > eppOL ‘which time/when’

Productive Formation: Adverbs from Nouns

The bound forms AyiTTu and Ayi, which are infinitive and verbal participal forms of the verb Aku ‘become’ are added to the nouns to form adverbs which is a productive process.
bhangi 'beauty' + Ai > bhangiyAi 'beautifully'
bhangi + AyiTTu > bhangiyAiTTu 'beautifully'.

**Derivation of postpositions**
According to Lehmann (1989) “All postpositions in Malayalam are formally uninflected or inflected noun forms or non-finite verb forms.” There is little agreement among grammarions on whether to consider a particular form as noun or postposition.

**Postpositions from Nouns**
A set of nouns when suffixed with clitic -E or locative case suffix -il (the past participle form of the verb Aku 'become') function as postpositions.

\textit{etir} 'opposite' + E > etirE 'opposite'.
\textit{iTa} + il > iTayil 'in between'.

**Postpositions from Verbs**
Certain verbs in verbal participle form ccu, infinitive form, conditional form suffixed with and negative verbal participle form Ate function as postpositions.

\textit{kuRi} 'aim' + ccu > kuriccu 'about'
\textit{kUTu} 'add' + Ate > kUTAte 'except',

**Conversion**
The change in form class of an item without any corresponding change of form is conversion.
signal (noun) > signal (verb)
The exact status of conversion within word-formation is unclear. Conversion is frequently called zero derivation. Many scholars prefer to see them as matters of syntactic usage rather than as word-formation.
We have noted already that the particle like forms such as *mun* ‘front’ and *pin* ‘back’ are used as nouns, adjectives, adverbs and postpositions. A number of words are used both as post positions and adverbs.

*etirE* ‘opposite’
*kurukE* ‘across’
*veLiyE* ‘outside’

Many nouns are used as adjectives without being suffixed.
*cuvappu* ‘red/redness’

Certain verbs are used as nouns without any changes in their forms.
*aTi* ‘beat/beating’

**Back-Formation**

The formation of new lexemes by the deletion of actual or supposed affixes in longer words is found in the following examples:

editor > edit
ontraception > contracept.

Back formation is not found in Malayalam. In the formation of verbs from nouns borrowed from Sanskrit we can see a sort of backformation followed by verbalization as follows:

*anvEshaNam* ‘enquiry’ – *aNam* = *anvEsh* + *i* > *anvEshi* ‘enquire’

**Clipping**

The process whereby a lexeme is shortened and at the same time retains the same meaning and still being a member of the same form class is referred as clipping.

mimeograph > mimeo
pornography > porn
Typical examples of clipping are not found in Malayalam. In the formation of new place names from the old ones we can notice a sort of clipping.

\[ \text{tirukkocci} \rightarrow kocci \]
\[ \text{triSivappErUr} \rightarrow \text{triSUr} \]

**Formation of Blends**
A new lexeme formed from part of two (or more) other words in such a way that it cannot be analysed is called a blend.

- balloon + parachute ballute,
- breakfast + lunch > brunch
Blends are not found in Malayalam.

**Formation of Acronyms**
A word coined by taking the initial letters of the words in a title or phrase and using them as a new word is an acronym.

- Strategic Arms Limitation Talk > SALT
Formation of acronyms is not found in Malayalam. Acronyms borrowed from English are in use.
- yunesco ‘UNESCO’).

**Word-Manufacturing**
The formation of a new word with no morphological, phonological or orthographic motivation is called word-manufacturing (e.g. Kodak). This kind of word-formation is not found in Malayalam.

**Summary**
Compounding and suffixation are important processes of word-formation in Malayalam. Compound words are formed mostly from two or more noun stems, from a noun and a verb stem, or, in a relatively small number of cases, from other combinations. The most common type of compound word is one in which
both or all constituent parts are noun stems. This type of compounding is productive. Formation of a reduplicated noun compound by the combination of a noun root and a partially reduplicated form of the same root is also productive. Compound verbs are formed mostly from a noun + verb combination. This is a productive process. In addition to it, compound verbs are formed extensively by the combination of the verbal participle form of one verb with another verb. This process cannot be considered as a productive one. Prefixation is an entirely unproductive process, though there are some pairs of words borrowed from Sanskrit which differ only in the presence of a negative - marking prefix on one member of the pair. Verbs form many abstract nouns by suffixation.

Bibliography
Loan Words and Borrowing in Sora

Satapathy Ankita
University of Hyderabad
ankita.satapathy88@gmail.com

Abstract

The current paper centers on three things viz. 1) it examines the degree of borrowing and presence of loan words in different semantic domains of Sora, 2) phonological nativisation: Substrate influence on phonology is also quite common. When the quality of sound segments is changed due to substrate influence, this most often reduces the number of distinctions in the sound system. So, this part discusses how a borrowed word gets modified according to the phonology of Sabara and 3) borrowing by age group: The study shows that there is an increasing reliance on Odia (the local dominant language) borrowings by young Sabara speakers who fall into the age group of 14 to 30 and 30 to 45 years. The study clearly shows that borrowings are predominantly limited to content words rather than function words. The study further analyses whether such type of borrowing is actually stable or a sign of endangerment in Sabara.

Keywords: Sora, Loan words, borrowed words, language planning, word formation

Introduction

This paper examines the use of loanwords in Sora, a Munda language, mostly spoken in Odisha, and asks to what extent this borrowing represents a threat to
the language’s survival. According to census of India 2001, Sora has a total of around 252,519 speakers. Number of speakers of Sora (or any endangered language) often leads one to presume that it is endangered. However it continues to be transmitted to children in the home in some Sora speaking communities. According to Hockett (1958), there are different options—like i) loan word, ii) loan shift, iii) loan-translation and iv) loan blend for a speaker, when he/she comes in contact with a new language and culture. Haugen (1950) defined borrowing as “the attempted reproduction in one language of patterns previously found in another. This paper aims to examine the degree of borrowing in Sora. The study further analyses whether such type of borrowing is actually stable or a sign of endangerment in Sora. The structure of the current paper as follows: In 2, examples of frequently observed loanwords and an overview of Odia borrowing in Sora are provided. In 3, phonological nativisation of loan words is being discussed. In 4, increasing reliance on Odia borrowings by young Sora speakers who fall into the age group of 14 to 30 and 30 to 45 years are being discussed. In 5, the paper assess the significance of borrowing, discussing to what degree it should be considered as a step in the direction of a potential language shift, before offering concluding remarks in 6.

General Background
Sora: is a Munda language spoken by more than 2 lakh people in Ganjam, Gajpati, Khurda, Koraput and Kandhamal districts of Odisha and some parts of Andhra Pradesh. It is considered as a potentially endangered language (Mosley: 2007: 342). Among all the Munda languages, the language closest to Sora: is Gorum. There are regional variations in the language use of the Sora: speakers. They have lived in contact situation for long and the effect of this contact can been seen in terms of their endangered status. Sora: has no written form. It does not have a prestigious position in Odisha. Their language is restricted mainly to the home domain. The Sora:s are settled agriculturists though they supplement their economy with hunting, gathering and collecting (forest products). They raise only one crop during the monsoon, and therefore have to
supplement their economy by other types of subsidiary economic activities. They face many problems like land alienation, problems of indebtedness, lack of power for irrigation, absence of adequate roads and transport, and lastly the lack of schooling and education.

The vast majority of Sora people are bilingual between their mother tongue and Odia. Odia or Desiya Odia (a variety of Odia) is used as a lingua franca between people of different language communities, as well as being the medium of most religious institutions and various other activities. Though not formally taught anywhere, all children acquire Odia as a matter of course. Many people (mostly youngsters) have some knowledge of English or Hindi through their primary and secondary education but there are no natural scenarios where one would hear local people conversing in either of these languages.

**Borrowings in Sora**
Borrowed Odia vocabulary pervades the language of domestic life, agriculture, marketing, village administration and religious activities. It covers a whole range of new food items, household objects, practices, and technologies.

The frequently observed borrowed words during the field study in everyday life are given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Borrowed words</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>luṇa</td>
<td>Salt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sini/cini</td>
<td>Sugar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sago</td>
<td>Leafy vegetable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ca/sa</td>
<td>Tea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gina</td>
<td>Bowl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bato</td>
<td>Cooked Rice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ṭebul</td>
<td>Table</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Other very frequently observed loanwords include numerals and terms associated with the Odia calendar i.e. the days of the week and names of months. Plenty of loanwords can also be found in the semantic fields related to farming, marketing, and cropping which make up the main economic activities. These forms give an impression of the kinds of borrowings which occur, but there are of course many more. For example, those associated with education,
communications, transport, commerce, sports, technologies etc. New terms are constantly entering the language. Most of these examples are lexical items, and predominantly nouns. In some cases alternative tribal terms exist and in some cases it does not exist. When a native term exists for a word but still the language borrows a term for the word is called ‘unnecessary borrowing’ (Clark: 2004).

Most of the loans words given above are from Odia because contact between Odia and Sora is very old.

**Phonological Nativisation**

The loanwords are nativised according to the Sora phonology in most of the cases. Certain English words are already modified according to the phonologies of Odia before entering into Sora. For example, ‘table’ is nativised as ‘tebul’ in Odia because /eI/ and /ə/ are not part of Odia phonology. The most frequently nativised Odia sound in Sora is the aspirated sounds. For example:

- \( k^h \rightarrow k \) /paikina/ ‘latrine’
- \( g^h \rightarrow g \) /gonța/ ‘clock’

Another instance of nativisation is

- \( c \rightarrow s \) /sini/ ‘sugar’
- /sɔpɔl/ ‘shoe’

However some speakers pronounce the sound /c/ as /ç/ in loanwords. This set of speakers is mostly educated and young speakers. To summarise, nativisation of loanwords in Sora is very minimal. They adopt the word as it is from Odia but at the same time unnecessary borrowing is heavy in Sora which can be considered as a threat. The total percentage of unnecessary borrowing (normally in their speech) out of 1400 words that is being collected is more than 70%.
**Borrowing by young speakers**
A common complaint among older speakers is that the knowledge of vernacular vocabulary is steadily fading and that there is an increasing reliance on Odia borrowings by younger people. The statistics confirm that younger speakers do indeed use more loanwords and, not surprisingly, the oldest speakers are the most conservative. The data shows speakers above the age of 60 and above shown the lowest amount of borrowing whereas speakers among the age group of 14 to 30 and 30 to 45 years have shown highest amount of borrowing (see table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>percentage of Borrowing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>60 and above</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 to 30</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 to 45</td>
<td>71%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 2: Lexical borrowing by age group*

**Is the borrowing a threat??**
Multilingualism must play a positive role among these Sora speakers otherwise borrowing could potentially be a step towards language shift which eventually end up in language endangerment. At present, the effects of borrowing on the grammatical structure of Sora are negligible. Most of the Sora speakers know their vocabulary even though they don’t use it. So for the current scenario, one can say that borrowing in Sora is only borrowing but not language shift. However the longevity of unused but known vocabulary of sora is a matter of future endeavor.

**Conclusion**
The picture that emerges from the analysis of borrowing in Sora is that, there is a relatively high incidence of Odia loanwords. Borrowings are overwhelmingly limited to lexical items (mostly nouns), rather than grammatical function words.
The oldest speakers are more conservative in their use of borrowings. The empirical evidence shows that there is a difference between the age groups of 14 to 30 and 30 to 45 years old in the amount of loanwords they use, suggesting that the increase in use of borrowings is more 14 to 30 years age group. But in order to conclude something concrete one needs to conduct further analyses of this kind which may include male and female distinction, all word classes and genres etc. This kind of study would be helpful in finding out which area of vocabulary and which semantic domain, which function words are being borrowed and what is the impact of such borrowings. The study presented here shows that young people are using a higher proportion of borrowings compared to old people. As of now the borrowings do not show any negative impact on the language but it would not be wisely to say that the future of Sora is completely secured. There is a need primary level education and other greater efforts to promote Sora.

**Bibliography**


Description of Malayalam as a Dravidian Language

Anju B
Central University of Kerala,
Kerala
anjubaburaj01@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Language is a medium of communication and without language; communication cannot take place between people. Malayalam is the language, spoken in Kerala and Lakshadweep. It is a classical language and it is given the status “Sreshtra bhasha padavi” presently. Malayalam belongs to the Dravidian language family, spoken by 38 million people all over India. Dravidian language means the languages spoken mainly in south India. The Dravidian language families include Malayalam, Tamil, Kannada, Telugu and Tulu. In this paper, the researcher has focussed on the study of Dravidian language, and how Malayalam is considered as a Dravidian language family. Also, the evolution and the etymology of Malayalam language are discussed.

Keywords: Language, communication, Malayalam, Dravidian, Morphology, Agglutinative.

Introduction
According to Hall (1969) Language is the institution where by humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral-auditory symbols. The way language defined is, as a symbol of systems. Every
language expresses some symbols and sounds. The main goal of language is communication. There are two types of communications, such as human communication and animal communication. The main difference in these two communications is humans communicate with language and animals communicate without languages. Communication expresses ideas, emotions, beliefs and feelings in one person to another. Language is one of the important forms of communication between human beings and one can’t imagine the world without language. Language is the part of our day to day life. Malayalam is one such language spoken in Kerala. Kerala is also known as “Gods own country”, situated in the west part of India. Kerala or Keralam was formed on 1 November 1956. The name Kerala is derived from the etymology of the coconut tree, that is kera (coconut tree) and alam (land), thus the land of coconuts. Kerala has 14 districts; these districts can be classified into six regions, such as North Malabar, South Malabar, Kochi (Central Kerala), Northern Travancore, Central Travancore (Southern Kerala) and Southern Travancore. Kerala is located in the South west coast of India. Kerala shares its state borders with Tamilnadu on the east, Karnataka on the north and Arabian Sea on the west. There are many languages spoken in Kerala, the official language of Kerala is Malayalam. A variety of languages are spoken all over Kerala, there are several languages are spoken all over Kerala such as, Tamil, Telungu, Kannada, Marathi, Gujarati, Hindi, Punjabi, Urdu, English, Bengali, Oriya and Nepali. These languages are belonging to Dravidian family.

**Official Language of Kerala**
Malayalam is a classical language mainly spoken in Kerala; it belongs to Dravidian family. The etymology of the word Keralam is unclear. Keralam may be derived from the classical Tamil Cheralam “mountain slop” or Cheralam “land of the cheras”. It may also stem from keral-am, kera “coconut tree”, alam “land or location”, meaning “land of the coconut tree”. Malayali is the natives of Kerala and refer their land as Keralam (Devy, 2015). The Malayalam speakers are in 33 million according to the 2001 census. Malayalam is originated from Middle
Tamil in 6th century. It is also spoken in Lakshadweep and Puducherry. The word Malayalam is originated from the word “Mala” and “Alam”, “Mala” means to hill and “Alam” means ocean. There are several theories about the origin of the term Malayalam. The most accepted one is that those who lived in the Eastern side of Western Ghats called Malaiyaalar, and the language was known as Malayalam. The theory behind in the name of Malayalam is the speeches of those who lived between Mala (mountain) and Aazham (ocean) was called Malayazham, and gradually become Malayalam. “Vattezhutu” is the oldest or ancient script. A R Rajaraja Varma, in his famous work “Kerala Panineeyam” mentions that “Vattezhuttu” was the script used in Malayalam till the time of Thunchath Ezhuthachan. Now the script used in writing Malayalam language is Brahmic script. In 16th century, the alphabets of modern Malayalam is taken by “Grandha script”. Malayalam is rich in morphology and it is an agglutinative language. The word order is Subject- Object-Verb (SOV). It is the one of the classical languages in India.

Dravidian Language

The term “Dravidian” is first used by Robert Caldwell. The name “Dravidian” is adopted by the Sanskrit term “Dravida”. In Dravidian language family, there are 23 languages and spoken in South Asia. The Dravidian language family can be classified into four groups, such as South Dravidian, South-Central Dravidian, Central Dravidian and North Dravidian. In South Dravidian there are nine languages such as Badaga, Irula, Kannada, Kodagu, Kota, Malayalam, Tamil, Toda and Tulu. Another group called South-Central Dravidian, the languages included are Gondi, Konda, Kui, Manda, Pengo and Telugu. Central Dravidian with Gadaba, Kolami, Naiki and Parji and North Dravidian with Brahui, Kurux and Malto. The Eighth Schedule of the Indian Constitution (1951) mandates the creation of states within the Indian Union along linguistic lines. Four Dravidian languages, Kannada, Malayalam, Tamil and Telugu, serve as the basis for establishing the four states of Karnataka, Kerala, Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh (Steever, 1998).
South Dravidian
The languages spoken in South Dravidian language family are Badaga, Irula, Kannada, Kodagu, Kota, Malayalam, Tamil, Toda and Tulu. The four major languages are included in South Dravidian language family, such as Tamil, Malayalam, Kannada and Telugu. Tamil language is mainly spoken in Tamilnadu. And Malayalam is spoken in Kerala State. It is the official language of Kerala state. The “Vazhappalli” inscription is considered as the earliest document in Malayalam language. Kannada is the official language of Karnataka state. Kannada is spoken by 25 million people in Karnataka state. Telugu is the official language of Andhra Pradesh & Telangana. Other languages included in South Dravidian language family are Tulu, Kodagu, Irula, Kota and Badaga. Tulu speakers are mainly located in the district of Karnataka and the Kasaragod district of Kerala on the west coast. Kodagu speakers are located in the border districts of Karnataka - Kerala. The official language of Kodagus is Kannada. Irula language speaking people are mainly found in Nilgiri hills. Also, Kota and Badaga speakers are mainly found in Nilgiri tribes.

South- Central Dravidian
The South-Central Dravidian languages are Gondi, Konda, Kui, Manda and Pengo. Gondi is a language spoken in the states of Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa and Andhra Pradesh. Gondi is a dialect. Konda is mainly spoken in the hills of the Northern district of Andhra Pradesh (Krishnamurti, 2003). Kui, Manda and Pengo languages are spoken in Odiya.

Central Dravidian
The languages spoken in Central Dravidian language family are Gadaba, Kolami, Naiki and Parji. Gadaba language is spoken in Srikakulam district of Andhra Pradesh and Koraput district of Odiya. Naiki is spoken in Andhra Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh and Parji spoken in Madhya Pradesh.
North Dravidian
North Dravidian language family includes Brahu, Kurux and Malto languages. Kurux language is spoken in Bhagalpur and Chota Nagpur districts of Bihar, Raygarh, Sarguja district of Orissa (Krishnamurti, 2003). Malto is spoken in Rajmahal hills in Bihar.

Evolution of Malayalam
Malayalam is a Dravidian language and the language Malayalam is most dominated by Tamil language. It is spoken across the state of Kerala and some part of Lakshadweep and Puducherry. Malayalam is the one of the scheduled and minority languages in India. There are 22 scheduled languages listed throughout India. There are 52 letters in Malayalam language. The word Malayalam is originated from the Tamil words, such “malai” which means hill and “elam” means region. Robert Caldwell, in his book “A Comparative Grammar of the Dravidian or South- Indian Family of Languages” (1856) discussed that Malayalam has branched from classical Tamil. The Malayalam language script was used in 8th and 9th centuries. The word order of Malayalam is SOV (Subject, Object, and Verb).

Writing System of Malayalam Language
Malayalam language can be written in several scripts, such as “Vatteluttu”, “Kolezhuthu”. Presently, the Malayalam script is based on the “Grantha script”. Malayalam script contains 52 letters in which 16 vowels and 36 consonants.

Malayalam as a Dravidian Language
Malayalam is a Dravidian language and is originated from Sanskrit. Some scholars believe that Malayalam language is developed from ancient Prakrit language. Another argument of the origin of Malayalam is that it is the daughter of Tamil language. Malayalam is closely affected by the Tamil language. Dialectal variations are found in Malayalam. It is also influenced by the other languages, such as Prakrit, Pali, Marathi, Hindi and Persion. It is spoken by 38
million people across the world. Majority of the speakers belong to Kerala. One can say that Malayalam is a Dravidian language that is South-Dravidian language family. The following is the tree diagram of Dravidian language family.

In Malayalam, some of the vocabularies are derived from other languages like Sanskrit and Tamil.

**Conclusion**

Malayalam is included in Dravidian language family and it is the mother language of the people in Kerala state. This paper has discussed about the evolution and history of Malayalam language and how Malayalam language emerges to be a Dravidian language.
Bibliography


ABSTRACT

This paper focuses on the Marathi linguistic community in Kasaragod in terms of language shift and language maintenance. It is a study based on language use of three generation in this particular community especially in the home domain. The study provides many instances which shows the difference in the language use of three generation. In addition it also accounts the depth of language shift happens in this community. Further, the causes which lead to language shift also discussed here.

Keywords: language shift, language maintenance, bilingual, linguistic communities.

Introduction

The present study focuses on Marathi community of Kasaragod district, who traditionally speak Marathi language. This study also focuses on the language situation by three generations of this particular community, especially in home domain. According to 2001 census there are 24815 (2.32%) Marathi people living in Kasaragod. Marathis of Kasaragod are living in the eastern hill area and the Government of Kerala recognized them as scheduled tribe. They possess deviant features linguistically and culturally which is entirely different from other tribes of Kerala. The existing literature narrates different stories regarding their
history and how they have migrated to their present settlement. It is said that they have migrated from Maharashtra as soldiers and agriculturist to this area (Damodharan, 1974). Even though this community has migrated from Maharashtra, yet the variety of Marathi they are using is different in many aspects (phonologically, morphologically and syntactically) with any of the varieties of Marathi spoken in different parts of Maharashtra. It is to be noted that this variety of Marathi belongs to Indo-Aryan group of language family which is surrounded by many Dravidian languages. Earlier while we were young as children, I clearly remember that our friends from Marathi community told us and proudly acknowledged that they are using Marathi at home, with their kith and kin. But very unfortunate, many of the present Marathi children of Kasaragod do not know even a single word of Marathi. This is one of the major concerns that possess a big challenge not only to the community, but to every linguist, and ultimately this very fact that prompts me to study and document this particular community and their language use.

This study also is an attempt to account the degree of language shift happened among Marathi community with a keen focus on language use in the domain of family. In addition, this study also investigates whether there are dissimilarities between elder and younger generation in their language use in relation with various domains. There are not so many linguistic works that have done on Kasaragod Marathi.

**Sample population**
The data gathered for this study are 144 subjects from the areas in Kuttiikkol and Panathadi panchayath of Kasaragod. All those areas are featured by the dominance of Malayalam Language along with the minority linguistic groups like Marathi, Mavila Tulu (Markuli) and this particular community itself is bilingual with Malayalam. Besides, there are informants who born and brought up from the Kannada dominant areas and migrated to these area after marriage (all of
them are women). I have divided the informants in to three groups according to their ages.

i. Below 25 (considered as third generation)

ii. Between 25 and 50 (considered as second generation)

iii. Above 50 (considered as first generation)

**Questionnaire**

The data collected by using a questionnaire consisting of 30 questions. The first part is related with personal information and second part consists of questions related with language use and third part consists of questions related to attitudes. Questionnaire consists of both objective and subjective type of questions. Further to the distribution of questionnaire, unstructured interviews also conducted according to the filled questionnaire in order to seek relevant linguistic experiences. There are questions with reference to their kin relations like parents, children, siblings, spouse etc. There may be situations like some relatives may not be with them. So the question indicates both the present and past experiences too. For instance in the case of the subjects who are above 60 may not have their parents with them but their answers depends on their past experiences.

**Language shift and maintenance**

The concepts of language maintenance used to refer the situation where a speech community constantly use its traditional language in the face of host of conditions that might promote a shift to another language. In contrast, Language shift means that a community gives up entirely its language in favour of another one (Fishman, 1966). Language maintenance and shift may refer to the behavior of an entire community, or an individual. The most extreme case of language shift is when a language previously used is now obsolete, that is, total language shift (Clyne, 1986). It is being argued that language shift and language maintenance are the long-term, collective results of language choice (Fasold, 1984). Weinreich (1964) defines language shift as the ‘change from the habitual
use of one language to that of another’. Jaspaert and Kroon (1993) define language shift as ‘gradual disappearance of a language in a community where it used to be spoken.’

**Data Analysis**

The most obvious difference between the old generation and the younger generation is that of the use of language within the family members. People from different age groups prefer to use different language to communicate based on their relation to their kin. For instance, for the question, which language is used to communicate with the parents result is as shown in the table no.3. If we compare the elder generation (above 50) with younger (below 25) we can see an ongoing language shift. It is interesting to notice that all of the respondents (100%) of the oldest generation reported that for the communication with their parents and grandparents*, they prefer to choose their heritage language. In contrast, only 9.05% indicate using only Marathi with their parents and 54.5% using Malayalam mixed with Marathi. For the second generation, 76.9% of the respondents use Marathi and 23.07 use Marathi mixed with Malayalam to their kith and kin. Younger generation is brought up with Malayalam as their first language (most of them are passive bilinguals; they could understand their heritage language because their elders using Marathi but would always reply in Malayalam. The study also reveals within the same generation one can see a difference in language use according to whom they are communicating. For instance, if we consider the second generation we can see that all respondents (100%) use Marathi with their grandparents while 76.9% use Marathi with their parents but only 15.3% use Marathi with their children. This would be the same for the younger generation also (see table 3).

Another difference found among two generation (first and second) when respond to the questions; what language use to communicate with spouse alone and what language use to communicate with spouse in front of children. No difference is found in the case of the first generation in a way all of them choose
Marathi to converse with spouse irrespective of the situation. But a slight change can be seen in the case of second generation as 53.8% of the respondents use Marathi with their spouses in private situations, but became reduced to 46.1% when their conversation is takes place in front of their children.

**Language use in literary domains**

None of the respondents are able to read and write in Marathi. Instead they do their literary activity either in Malayalam or Kannada and it depends on in which language they got education. So talking about secondary skills can do nothing here, it is pre-decided. (See table 4)

**Script as a necessity**

It is obvious from the data, many of them even informants from first generation considering their mother tongue as Malayalam even though the first acquired language is Marathi and also still using it in home domain. For them script is very essential to be consider a code as a language. It can be see many of their words like *Marathi is not our mother tongue, because it is not a language as it has no writing system.* In addition it also constitutes some problems for the elders because they are forced to write and read either in Malayalam or Kannada even though they are interested to write in their own ethnic language. The absence of a writing system (Marathi of Maharashtra do have) is a visible factor to the language shift because, if this particular language got chance for literary exploration, people will use it for their leisure activities like reading and writing etc. despite, it would be used for education. For elders, it is a kind of forced reduction of the language use in many of the domains.

**Kannada as a Safeguard**

A striking instance of divergence in the stable language use patterns of the population is that 9.09% (see table. 3) of the younger generation still use Marathi to converse with parents, siblings and also with other relatives and kin. The interesting thing is that all these are women who migrated after marriage from
the places featured as bilingual societies which include Kannada along with Malayalam and Marathi. All of them received their education in Kannada medium and the most noticeable thing is that they are still maintaining their ethnic language. Malayalam is not much fluent for them or being important for them as compared to the remaining respondents. They are more proficient in Kannada (as compared to Malayalam) and all are literate through it. In addition they tend to maintain their language, and in that way Kannada seem to be a tool for safeguarding language. Hence, the finding of this study suggests that those people who are bilingual only with Malayalam tend to shift to Malayalam, while people who are bilingual both with Kannada and Malayalam tends to maintain their language. In addition, I have made an unstructured interview with some of the Marathi people from the areas where there are Kannada also along with Malayalam speakers, and I could notice that they prefer Kannada medium schools (those areas have both Malayalam and Kannada medium schools and not reducing the use of Marathi or where no shifting is happening).

Gender also plays a crucial role in the case of Marathi communities in these areas. Sometimes it behaves as an obstacle that hindrance the literal exploration. Many women reported that they are not getting chance to explore their literary ability of reading because ‘the new place’ is not providing them any daily newspapers or periodicals in Kannada. For instance, following is the words of a woman from Marathi community (above 50).

*My native place is Pandi (a place in Kasaragod) and I studied in a Kannada medium school. So I learned to write and read in Kannada. There we will get Kannada newspapers and there other periodicals available in the shops. After marriage I came here. I have been staying here for a long period without reading anything. Here we will get only Malayalam newspapers. I can’t read and write in Malayalam.*
I could hear this type of experience from the words of many. Here this situation speaks only about women, where men are allowed by the situation to use the language whatever they studied because they are not migrating anywhere after the marriage. People who learned Malayalam enjoys the availability of newspapers and periodicals even after the migration after marriage. One of the interesting things that I could observe is, for these women (from the places where Kannada and Malayalam medium schools are there) it is Kannada language which is in the high position, when preferring the languages for education. All women who came from the places where there are Kannada, prefer Kannada language for education. And also they tend to maintain their native language. Majority of the informants from the data consider Malayalam as the language of opportunities and the most prestigious language, while not showing high regards for Marathi. This can be seen from the data table two where many of them consider their mother tongue as Malayalam even though the first acquired language is Marathi. From their words I could observed that, their social status, sometimes shown through using Malayalam. They are aware of the linguistic needs of the elder people from the same community and they consciously use their heritage language to elders. Another interesting fact is that the elder people’s attitude towards their language is very positive. They consider others (people from the same community) who use Malayalam in front of them as arrogance.

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, it is found that there are dissimilarities in the language use by different age groups among the Marathi community. The studies provide many instances that account the depth of language shift among this particular community. Even though many of the children from Marathi community in this particular area have no high competence in Marathi yet they are not shifted completely to Malayalam or any other languages because they are well with receiving that language (receptive skill is there). Based on the responses, the study indicates the use of Marathi language will cease with the coming
generation in these areas. This study also paves way for further investigation regarding the types of bilingual contexts (one is Marathi with Malayalam and other is Marathi with Malayalam and Kannada). In both of these contexts, they contrasted to each other in language choice. For the first type, the Marathi community itself tends to shift to Malayalam and for the other they tend to maintain their language.

The prevailing situation may have the roots in,

- The attitudes of other linguistic communities towards this language.
- The attitudes of minority community towards their own heritage language and the majority language (this attitudes can be the driven by external force).
- Lack of opportunities to use the language out of the community.
- Inferiority feeling driven by the society.
- Majority language seems to be the language of opportunities (Malayalam)
- A feeling that using the heritage language (Marathi) will lesser their social status.

In addition the solidarity feeling could be the reason to choose Kannada as a medium of instruction for the informants from the places where there are two options for education because Kannada is also a minority language in the district of Kasaragod. And also, allowing a language to disappear from a community is not a favorable thing, instead promoting that it by giving acceptance is. In current situation, according to the words of many informants all social environments provide them a large space of linguistic solitude for the Marathi tribes in Kasaragod, mainly in the north east part, self-annulated. This led them to prefer Malayalam in every domain even in home. As it happens accidentally as a reaction of globalization, the change in the linguistic behavior of a particular linguistic community cannot be ceased. But if it is a matter of social inequality we must discuss those in public places. Language is a constitutional right of a
human being and also is needed to protect it. It is our right to use our language and also to allow others to use their own language.

Bibliography
Chapter 8

Language Change and Transmission of Knowledge

M. Prasad Naik
Dravidian University,
Kuppam
prasadnaik6@gmail.com

Abstract

Relationship between language change and language learning. Language is always changing. We have seen that language changes across space and across social group. Language also varies across time. Generation by generation, pronunciations evolve, new words are borrowed or invented, the meaning of old words drifts, and morphology develops or degenerations. Despite abundant research on language acquisition of its nature and the order of acquisition and the search for interpretation and explanation behind these, there is little evidence to support the notion of language learning faculty isolated from the answer two important issues associated with learning –one, the maintenance of historical continuity and two, the transmission of language change, in particular, the changes in progress. This is important if new understanding in the field of knowledge, cognition and language has to be developed and language acquisition holds an important key to our understanding. Whether a child can be regarded as a perfect linguistic historian or not the historical continuity of language on the one hand and changing and variable nature of language on the other provide a good case in favour of such an argument. This paper discuss to the in the field of research on language acquisition viewing it in terms of how knowledge is transmitted from one generation to the next.
Keywords: language change, transmission and propagation of change.

Language change
Language change is the phenomenon by which permanent alterations are made in the features and the use of a language over time. All natural languages change, and language change affects all areas of language use. Types of language change include sound changes, lexical changes, semantic changes, and syntactic changes.

Types of Language Change
Language is always changing. We have seen that language changes across space and across social group. Language also varies across time. Generation by generation, pronunciations evolve, new words are borrowed or invented, the meaning of old words drifts, and morphology develops or degenerations. The rate of change varies, but whether the changes are faster or slower, they build up until the "mother tongue" becomes arbitrarily distant and different. After a thousand years, the original and new languages will not be mutually intelligible. After ten thousand years, the relationship will be essentially indistinguishable from chance relationships between historically unrelated languages.

In the modern world, language change is often socially problematic. Long before divergent dialects lose mutual intelligibility completely, they begin to show difficulties and inefficiencies in communication, especially under noisy or stressful conditions. Also, as people observe language change, they usually react negatively, feeling that the language has "gone down hill".

How and why does language change?
There are many different routes to language change. Changes can take originate in language learning, or through language contact, social differentiation, and natural processes in usage.
The nature of language change
Any treatment of linguistics must address the question of language change. The way languages change offers insights into the nature of language itself. The possible answers to why languages change tell us about the way language is used in society, about how it is acquired by individuals and may reveal to us information about its internal organisation. There is no simple explanation for why languages change. This is an area in which there is much speculation and little proof. The area is an interesting and fruitful one but there are few if any direct answers. For this reason historical linguistics has traditionally been concerned with how languages evolve and not why they do so in one particular direction and not in another.

Some linguists distinguish between internal and external sources of language change, with "internal" sources of change being those that occur within a single linguistic community, and contact phenomena being the main examples of an external source of change.

Internal and external motivation Language change can basically be assigned to one of two types: either the change is caused by a structural aspect of the language – this is internally motivated change – or it does not in which case one speaks of externally motivated change. Internal change internally motivated change usually leads to balance in the system, the removal of marked elements, the analogical spread of regular forms or the like. In a nutshell it produces regularity in the grammar. As languages consist of different levels, a change in one quarter may lead to an imbalance in another and provoke a further change.

Transmission and propagation of change
If one assumes that language does not exist separate from the speakers who use it, then a major question arises for language change: how will a following generation know what changes are in progress in a current generation? The
answer to this is that at any one time there co-exist two or more competing variants. Of these one is dominant and the other recessive. Linguists believe that children during first language acquisition note not only what forms a language possesses but also what the variation among these forms is. e.g. if one form is more common among older speakers, only used in more formal styles or conversely predominant in colloquial usage, etc. By these means a child can register the direction in which language change is moving and later contribute to this by unconsciously favouring those forms which are preferred in the change. This view of how language change is transmitted enables one to better understand the notion of ‘drift’ (a slow movement of change in one direction).

Transmission is the process by which information, knowledge, ideas and skills are taught to others through purposeful, conscious telling, demonstration, and guidance. Over the course of a lifetime, this method accounts for only about 10% of learning. Unfortunately, this is the most traditional and, currently, the most predominate method of instruction. However, we are finding out it is not very effective and moving toward acquisition and emergence, and examining the lessons of accretion.

The first form of learning is transmission, involving a one-way flow of information from the teacher or the textbook to the student. The focus is on accumulating factual information and basic skills.

Examples of *Transmission* in a Sentence

The equipment is used for the transmission of television signals.

We are receiving a live *transmission* from the scene of the accident.

the *transmission* of knowledge from one generation to the next

My car has a manual *transmission*.

This car comes with automatic *transmission*. 
Although the presence of change in progress still provide us with some of the greatest intellectual challenges for explanation and understanding, equally and perhaps even more challenging and puzzling (confusing) is absence of change hence historical continuity. The transmission of knowledge across generation is not necessarily complete as far as language is concerned. Only then we can account for both the phenomenon of change as well as absence of change. There is great deal of research to show that children acquire and transmit historical patterns is far as they perfectly match their parents’ of language use. However, children also at a very early age appear to show sensitivity to the patterns of social variation, and so produce the relevant social pattern and participate in the ongoing changes in the speech community. It is important to note that such patterns are abstract and productive patterns and are part of the rule systems of the language. An understanding of how language patterns are transmitted across generation can provide a good understanding of how knowledge itself is transmitted across generation and the relationship between language, cognition and society. To show how such language specific variation is transmitted, the paper examines variation within family involving members from four generations ranging in age 8 to 85 years. Language has important bearing the issues of language change and language transmission. The former not only oversimplifies the issues of language acquisition but also confounds the transmission of linguistic knowledge from one generation to the next and transition of language from one state to the next.

The issues wan not a homogeneous or heterogeneous speech community as he believed in linguistic heterogeneity. Children, whose environment denies them access to a well formed normal linguistic input, resort to their natural cognitive faculties to recreate a grammar. Such break downs or gaps in the normal transmission of language arise when people from diverse linguistic backgrounds are displaced on masse from their places of origin and placed together in a situation without having a common language. Which were supported by slave and indentured labour one important assumption implicated that language
development proceeds linearly from one generation to the next such that every generation builds upon the linguistic input received from its immediate predecessor. Hence, numerous mutually unintelligible languages on the plantations gave way to a common language—a elementary form of dialect, which in turn though impoverished was the only basis upon which the next generation could build its language. Since the children could not possibly have learnt a language from the impoverished data they had no option but to make maximum use. Though it is true that what the immigrants used as their second language, the successive generations of locally born adopted it as their first language, it is equally well known that did not necessarily acquire it from their pidgin speaking parents, nor did Creoles develop in single generation. Creole was acquired as the first language because it was already there very much in the environment as a language used on the plantations by the white Overseers a management directly in touch with the labour, by the house slaves and by appointed baby-sitters who looked after the children too young to be engaged as labour on the plantations. In fact, I would like to argue that to imagine a continuous life cycle of language growth without disturbance and a neat linear concept of generation even within a family are both illusion.

It is common knowledge that children are not born knowing how to speak, and that they acquire the language of their social environment, that is the language they hear around them. Which language and the number of language children acquire are completely determined by the environment. It is, therefore, logical to conclude that languages are perhaps entirely learned. This does not however deny that such learning may be the computational properties of human mind pertaining to data organisation in order to account for the observed organisation of language. I take the position that structure of language and language use are not mutually exclusive as language us is not devoid of structures and structures are usable. Whether there are syntactic transformations, logical forms, functional structures, metrical grids and prosodic trees, if so, what their properties are and if not, how else to account for the structure of language. It is well known that
children appear to have no problem in learning a language using the same natural data that naturally and casually comes their way that some linguists reject as performance data therefore as irrelevant data for the purposes of studying language.

A language results because of this interaction between the innate processor and data it receives. Linguistic continuity will remain as long as both the ingredients are present in good health. Thus a particular language itself is not genetically pre-wired and for this reason a language is also not transmitted from one generation to the next, though systematic relationship and differences across generations can be observed. It also appears that the computational properties of human mind include quick inference and very fast processing in terms of leaps and bounds so that what is learned appears to be always ahead of what is exposed to. This lead to both errors and shades.

**Conclusion**

To conclude, what I have hoped to have shown through the data obtained from the study of speech community is an example of the presence of striking linguistic variation in the use of a single variable in language in a speech community. Systematic but sharp gaps within and between generation, complex age gradations, internally determined change but middle class youth being the innovators of the two most recent changes and above all, the four patterns coexisting perhaps in every family and in the speech community suggest that the issue of transmission of linguistic knowledge across generations and transmission of change from one state to the next, acquisition of variable linguistic patterns are complex issues and deeply rooted in a complex and heterogeneous language and society. The variable linguistic patterns that can be uncovered only through empirical studies and probabilistic modelling cannot be simply transmitted from parents to children but have to be understood as collective social, cultural and linguistic endure which ensures both continuity and change.
Bibliography


Kinship Terms of Paniya in Nilgiri District of Tamilnadu

M. Vijayarul
CAS in Linguistics,
Annamalai University,
Chidambaram,
Tamil Nadu
vijayarulvijayarul36@gmail.com

P. Vijaya
CAS in Linguistics,
Annamalai University,
Chidambaram,
Tamil Nadu
vijayasakthi2008@gmail.com

Abstract

Paniya language is spoken by the Paniya community mount concentrated in the northern part of the Nilgiris, Wayanad, Kozhikode, Malapuram and Kannur districts of Kerala. This paper is mainly based on the Paniyas of Nilgiri District. They speak a language of their own; it has been identified as a member of the South Dravidian family, closely related to Malayalam, with borrowing from Kannada and Tamil.

Keywords: Primitive agriculture, heterogeneous, Distinctive culture, tertiary kinship, South Dravidian
Introduction

Tribal societies are generally considered as underdeveloped societies. The term *adivasi* is an umbrella term for a heterogeneous set of ethnic and tribal groups claimed to be the aboriginal population of India. They comprise a substantial indigenous minority of the population of India.

In India, opposition to usage of the term is varied, and it has been argued that the "original inhabitant" contention is based on dubious claims and that the *adivasi – non adivasi* divide that is created is artificial. It should also be noted that in Northeast India, the term *Adivasi* applies only to the Tea – tribes imported from Central India during colonial times, while all tribal groups refer collectively to themselves by using the English word “Tribes”.

**Characteristics features of Identification of Tribal Groups**

Geographical isolation – they live in cloistered, exclusive, remote and inhospitable areas such as hills and forests.

Back Wardness – their livelihood is based on primitive agriculture, a low-value closed economy with a low level of technology that leads to their poverty. They have low levels of literacy and health.

Distinctive culture, language and religion – communities have developed their own distinctive culture, language and religion.

Shyness of contact – they have a marginal degree of contact with other culture and people.

The Scheduled Tribe groups who were identified as more backward communities among the tribal population groups have been categorized as ‘Primitive Tribal Groups’ (PTGs) by the Government at the Centre in 1975. So far seventy-five tribal communities have been identified as ‘primitive tribal groups’ in different States of India. These hunting, food-gathering, and some agricultural communities, who have been identified as more backward communities among the tribal population groups need special programmes for their sustainable
development. There is a substantial list of Scheduled Tribes in India recognized as tribal under the constitution of India. Tribal peoples constitute 8.2% of the nation’s total population, over 84 million people according to the 2001 census.

About Paniyas
Paniya is one of the tribal communities of south India. They are mainly found in the Wayanad district of Kerala and neighboring areas of Karnataka as well as Nilgiri district of Tamil Nadu. The terms ‘Paniyas’ literary means a “worker” the name has originated from Malayalam word “panikkar” [labors]. Paniyas, or Paniyan, or Paniyar, is believed to be a Dravidian tribe. Paniyan are living in Wayanad region of Kerala and in the Nilgiris District of Tamilnadu there are 66 settlements in Nilgiris, where Paniyas live out of these 66, 18 are located in Gudalur taluk while the remaining 48 are in Pandalur taluk, some of the other settlements where Paniyas live in Pandalur taluk are: devala, puliyamparai, atti, erumadu, kunnaladi, attikunnu, uppati, devarsola, etc. According to the 2011 census of Tribal Research Centre (TRC) the total numbers of Paniyas are 5541. Male are 2795, Female are 2746.

Physical Appearance of Paniya
Paniyas are dark-skinned and short, with curly hair and broad nose. Body hair is sparse but baldness of the head is rare. They have muscular bodies, and can sustain hard physical labour.

Social structure of Paniyas
A Paniyas settlement, or a group of clause by settlements, has a head man, who goes under the name of kuttan. He also called in some place mudali, meaning the “first man”. The Paniyas living in the settlements are subject to his social discipline if there is any dispute, or a more, he decides the issue with the help of a tribal council called “kottal” if there is report of any problems, such as adultery, stealing murder, etc. The tribal council meet together impose necessary action.
Occupation
Primary the Paniyas were laborers Agriculture and (estate) and how they are employed as forms workers, watch man cultivators and wood cutters. Their name Paniya may be coined according to their primary profession (pani means Labor, work, in Tamil, maand in their language. The Paniyas are economically the poorest among the tribes of the Nilgiris. They have no saving and generally spend whatever they have earned.

Religion
Paniyas traditional religion is mainly come under the category of animism and totemism. Even today there are people praying the religion. Many of them have adopted other religions of the surrounding homely because of the influence of their masters of some place their supreme god is known as Ippimala teyya in some other place they worship ‘kattu bagavathi’ (god of the jungle). They have worship place in every settlement every house has a small platform ‘tiao or kulithara’ believes to be the dwelling place of spirits. Beside this they also believe in number of god and evil spirits.

In order to place god and spirit they practice various rites and rituals hectic dances and festival some tree are considered as evil spirit possessed or haunted these trees are not to be touched or cut they have priests appointed in every settlement shrines. He is called ‘nolambkaran’. They believe in many spirit god and goddess they believe sun as ‘pakal bagava:n’ god of the day and the night Paniyas give offering to these deities during rituals and festive occasions. It is customers to observe a prescribed cycle of religious ceremonies in a year Paniyas observe a number of festivals in different seasons some of them are exclusively as their own some of them are widely spread throughout state.
Aim
The aim of the present study is to find out the variations between Paniya kinship terms with Malayalam language i.e., whether they are maintaining their own language or a dialect of Malayalam.

Methodology
For the present study, the researcher collected the data through the direct interview method from the informant through audio recording. The following areas were covered by the researcher viz., Kothar vayal, Purmana Vayal, Athi Pali and Kolli vayal in Gudalur taluk of Nilgiri District, Tamilnadu.

Kinship
Kinship is used to describe the relationship that exists between or among entities or individuals that share a common origin in terms of culture, historical ancestry or biological relationship. Kinship refers to the relationship defined by a particular culture among or between individuals who have a common family ties. Kinship is used as a basis to classify people and to form social groups in the different communities.

The patterns and rules that govern kinship differ in the various communities all around the world. Kinship, in anthropology, defines relationships of people through marriage and through descent, also known as consanguinity. In most cases, the two classification overlap, for instance the relationship among married individuals who have a common descent. For instance, affinity bonds exist among in-laws while consanguinity relationships are evident among parents, grandparents, uncles, aunts, and cousins.

Kinship is used to organize members of the society into different categories, roles and various social groups, based on either parentage, marriage or other types of relationships, (Schneider 2005).
The kinship relationship involves not only the family members but also many others outside the family. The kinship is generally classified into three types:

i. **Primary Kinship**

ii. **Secondary Kinship**

iii. **Tertiary Kinship**

The members of Paniya tribal community of Nilgiri District are tied together in groups by various types of bonds, of which the linear descent and marriage ties are important.

**Primary Kinship**

The direct relationship between two persons without involving anybody else at the intermediary level is called primary kinship. The primary kinship terms indicate the following relationships, such as, the ego, father, mother, elder brother, younger brother, elder sister, younger sister, wife, husband, son, and daughter.

**Secondary Kinship**

If the kinship between two persons involves another one at intermediary level then such kinship is called secondary kinship. The secondary kinship represents the following relationships. Such as, father-in-law, mother-in-law, daughter-in-law, son-in-law, grandfather, grandmother, uncle, aunt, wife's sister, husband sister, husband spouse, wife brother.

**Tertiary Kinship**

If there are two persons involved at the intermediary level then such relationship is called tertiary kinship.

- Relation between brother’s wife.
- Relation between two son-in-laws.
- Relation between uncle’s daughter and aunt’s daughter.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tamil</th>
<th>Paniya</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amma:</td>
<td>Amme</td>
<td>‘Mother’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anṇan</td>
<td>muːtta magen</td>
<td>‘Elder brother’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appa:</td>
<td>Appen</td>
<td>‘Father’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kaṇan van</td>
<td>uraːlen</td>
<td>‘Husband’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maːmaː/attaːn</td>
<td>aŋne</td>
<td>‘Elder sister’s husband’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maːmanaːr</td>
<td>kudiyeː</td>
<td>‘Father in law’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maːmiyaːr</td>
<td>Kudicci</td>
<td>‘Mother in law’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>makaːl</td>
<td>Magalu</td>
<td>‘Daughter’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makan</td>
<td>mageːn</td>
<td>‘Son’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manaivi</td>
<td>uraːṭṭi</td>
<td>‘Wife’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mutta makaːl</td>
<td>muːtta magalu</td>
<td>‘Daughter (first born)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mutta makan</td>
<td>muːtta mageːn</td>
<td>‘Son (first born)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paːṭṭi</td>
<td>uttameː</td>
<td>‘Grandmother’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peːran</td>
<td>peːran</td>
<td>‘Grandson’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peːtti</td>
<td>Peratti</td>
<td>‘Granddaughter’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>taːttaː</td>
<td>uttappuːn</td>
<td>‘Grandfather’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>taŋkai</td>
<td>ilaiyaːlu</td>
<td>‘Younger sister’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusion**

The kinship terminology follows the typical Dravidian pattern, with identical terms of reference grandfather and grandmother. But some sounds change a-e, in Tamil a- sound, in Paniya e.

**Bibliography**


Chandramohan. P University” TSL Publisher, Chidambaram.

Geetha. V. (2011), “*A Hand Book of Tribal Studies* in Annamalai


Government and Binding Theory for Tamil

K. Umaraj

Department of Linguistics
Madurai Kamaraj University
Madurai,
Tamil Nadu
umarajk@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

In 1981 Noam Chomsky proposes Government and Binding Theory and this theory helps to analyze the sentence structures of a natural language and to help to filter out the incorrect sentences in a language. This theory is very well applicable for English Language. But How far the theory is useful for Tamil language is a question? This paper analyses how far this theory is useful for analyzing the sentence structures of Tamil language and how far it will help to filter out the incorrect sentences in Tamil language. It is found out that the theory will be suitable for Tamil language too if we tune the theory little bit.

Keywords: Government and Binding Theory, Principles and Parameter, D-Structure, S-Structure, Sub theories.

Government and Binding Theory

Every human being has a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) in their Brain/mind and that device wills take care the analysis and synthesis of a language. Chomsky assumed in Government Binding theory that the LAD consists of common grammatical rules (example: that a sentence must always have a
subject, even if it is not overtly pronounced) called as Universal Grammar and the Universal Grammar consists of certain sub theories and each of these may be subjected to parametric variation. Core grammar of a given language is then derived automatically from the interactions of sub theories of Universal Grammar with their parameter sets. The value of the parameter will be determined only by the individual language data.

**Components of GB Theory**
Four Main components of GB theory are 1) Lexicon 2) D-structure 3) S-structure 4) PF and LF. The Lexicon lists the idiosyncratic properties of lexical items which constitute the atomic unit of the syntax. Lexical items are combined together at D-structure. The D-structure is mapped into S-structure. The meaning and stylistics part of the language will take care by the S-structure.

**DIAGRAM OF GB THEORY**
```
Deep Structure - Projection principle - Lexicon
/            |
Case theory move-alpha - Binding theory - Theta Theory
\          /            |
\              |
Surface Structure - Bounding theory - Theta criterion
\\          /            |
\\              |
Phonetic form Logical form Control theory
```

**X-Bar Theory**
X-Bar theory will allow grammatical correct phrases only. It has constrained rules in it. For example, In the Noun Phrase, the head is noun and it will allow only the DET and ADJ. In the same way, the verb is the head of a Verb Phrase and it will allow only Complement to proceed.

\[ XP \rightarrow \text{SPEC } X' \]
\[ X' \rightarrow X \text{ COMP} \]
A Complement is a phrase that a lexical category takes or selects. Which complements are taken by a particular verb is an arbitrary property of that verb. For Tamil language, the Complement will occur before verb and have the same function.

\[ X' \rightarrow \text{COMP} \ X \]

**Government Theory**

Government Theory helps to assign case to NP. According to Chomsky, A governs B if and only if:

A is a governor and A \text{ m-commands} B

No barrier intervenes between A and B.

Governors are head of a lexical category and a barrier is any node Z. Any node Z is potential governor for B and Z \text{ c-commands} B and it is not C \text{ c-commands} A.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
Z \\
\text{command} \ B \\
\text{and it is not} \text{c-commands} \ A.
\end{array}
\]

The government relation makes case assignment unambiguous. Otherwise more than one case assigned to the NP. In the Same way Q- Theory also helps for the assignment of case to NP.

**Case Theory**

GB theory proposes the following fundamental properties of case assignment for all world languages: NP is nominative if governed by AGR.

NP is objective if governed by V with the subcategorization feature: [NP-] (i.e transitive)

NP is oblique if governed by P,

NP is genitive in (NP-X) and

NP is inherently case marked as determined by properties of its ( -N) governor.
For Tamil language, Certain elements will be governors and certain elements will be governed by the C-command relation. Through the analysis it is found out that,
Nominative case assigned mostly by AGR in the verb. Sometimes the TENSE, COMP, NEG and MODAL in verb will also assign nominative case.
Objective case is assigned by the verb.
Dative case is assigned inherently based on certain theta-roles.
Genitive case is assigned by POSS element.
The empty category “pro” is present in Tamil and it is assigned by AGR, TENSE, NEG and MODAL.

Binding Theory
An element alpha binds on element beta if and only if,
Alpha c–command beta
Alpha and beta co-indexed means both represent same thing.
According to Chomsky, binding theory having three principles.
A anaphor is bound within the local domain.
A pronominal is free from the local domain.
A referential expression should be free.
S --> NP + VP
NP --> DET + NOUN
VP --> NP + VERB

In Tamil language , the anaphor, pronominal and referential expression are governed by the verb so there is issue .For example In the following sentence thanai thane “himself” is coindexed with “Raman”.
Raman thanaithane Atithukondaan “Raman hit himself”
PRO
There is no PRO in Tamil and only “pro” is available in Tamil. The “pro” is governed and assigned case by the elements in the verb.
Conclusion
Government and Binding theory focuses on principle rather than rule. These principles are common to all languages. Most of the GB theory principles are very well suited for Tamil language by doing little modification of the theory.

Bibliography
Embracing What the Heart Longs for - A Critical Stylistic Analysis of Jessica Powers’ Poetry

Armila Antony C.

Bharathiar University,
Coimbatore,
Tamil Nadu

antony.armila@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Applied linguistics is generally defined as an application of linguistic theory for the solution of real-world problems. Stylistics is a well-known subfield of applied linguistics. Stylistic analysis of a text can indicate the period in which the text was written, the individual style of a writer and the meaning and feeling generated by the structure and lexicon of a particular text. The present paper is an endeavor to stylistically analyze the poem ‘The Heart can set its Boundaries’ by a modern American religious poet Jessica Powers. The work embraces the Critical stylistic method, the one proposed by Roger Fowler and his colleagues, in which stylistic work investigates the ways in which social meanings are manifested through language. This is a descriptive qualitative study in which library research is used to find out relevant concepts for the frame work of the research. Through this the different ways in which the author uses language and the relation between text and context etc. are being explored. The poem used in the study was written in the period which the poet took a daring decision in life and the experience behind could be unearthed in a wonderful way. As style can be described in a way as nothing more than the expression of thought in the best
possible way, the intellectual, emotional and aesthetic elements in the writings of Jessica Powers can be identified through this paper.

**Keywords:** Stylistics, Jessica Powers, Critical Stylistics, Roger Fowler.

**Introduction**

Linguistics not only provides theories and techniques in the area of language study, but also helps to the development and critical maintenance of a sensitive attitude to language. The nature and importance of the addressee-recipient relationship, the interrelations between linguistic and non-linguistic contexts, the uniqueness of the phenomenon language, etc. are some of the major properties of linguistics which have major role in the study of style.

Stylistics is the study of the ways in which meaning is created through language in literature as well as in other text types. It is a linguistic approach to literature and a method of textual interpretation which keeps language in the primary place. Its main concern is the systematic analysis of style in language and how it varies according to the factors like genre, context, historical period and author. The origin of stylistics is from the formalist school of literary criticism that emerged in Russia by early 20th century. We need stylistics to provide an angle on language study which places the text at the centre of its concern. The aims of stylistic analysis are varied and reflect the rich range of approaches taken to all sorts of text-types and genres. The context in which texts are produced and received cannot be ignored, as this affects their ‘meaning’ in a range of subtle ways.

Jessica Powers (1905-1988) is an American religious poet born in a pioneer family having Scottish and Irish traditions. The life in the farm house of Wisconsin valley trained her for the life going through all the realities of life. On the surface, Jessica might have made a fine farm wife, but in the innermost self, Jessica wanted to be something beyond. And that great thing was growing inside with
the passing of years. After completing her studies and completing her duties at her house she joined the cloistered Carmel. Even after joining the convent she was allowed to continue her poetic vocation. The training at Carmel added to the spiritual nourishment in her poems and we could see many religious, contemplative elements in her poetry. She wrote about her life in her poems in a magnificent way.

Critical Stylistics is a branch of stylistics which investigates the ways in which social meanings are manifested through language. It has been started from critical linguistics and critical discourse analysis; an attempt to uncover the social meanings expressed through language. Much of the work in linguistic criticism and critical discourse analysis is based on M. A. K. Halliday’s Systemic Functional Linguistics. Because of its focus on linguistic constructivism (i. e., the claim that language constructs, or ‘construes’, rather than represents meaning), and its claim that all texts through their linguistic choices realize contextual factors such as register, genre and ideology, the Hallidayan approach to language has been considered particularly suited for investigations of the ways in which social meanings are created through language.

Roger Fowler (1938-1999) was one of the first and most prominent proponents of critical stylistics. He was a British linguist who was known in particular for his work on stylistics. In ‘Linguistic Criticism’ (1986), he explores phenomena such as the representation of experience through language, meaning and world view, the role of the reader as well as the relations between text and context. He was one of the first stylisticians to embrace Bakthinian ideas in his writings (Fowler, 1979; 1983). In the late 1970s and early 1980s, Fowler and his colleagues turned their attention more intensively to the relations between language and social meaning. Fowler continued his investigation on language, ideology, power and control in ‘Language in the News’ (1991), one of his most popular books.
Theoretical Overview

Critical stylistics attempts to ‘assemble the main general functions that a text has in representing realities’ (Jeffries, 2010). It offers a developed theory and a more rigorous methodology for Critical discourse analysis, which it has not yet developed. Critical stylistics ‘introduces a set of tools, which, whilst not complete, are nevertheless more comprehensive than any provided in the literature on Critical Discourse Analysis’ (Jeffries, 2010). These tools attempts to uncover ideologies implied by the linguistic choices that text producers make. Olaluwoye (2015) states that ‘Critical Stylistics is not linked to any political outlook. It argues that all texts are ideologically based whether these ideologies are part of a conscious or unconscious process. It is interested in uncovering and revealing hidden ideologies in texts and discourse’. The tools (according to Jeffries, 2007), which critical stylistics uses to uncover ideologies are the following: Naming and describing, representing actions/events/states, equating and contrasting, exemplifying and enumerating, prioritizing, implying and assuming, negating, hypothesizing, presenting the speech and thoughts of other participants, and representing time, space and society.

Analyzing the Poem

When the poem, ‘The Heart Can Set Its Boundaries’, was published in 1941, Jessica had a sense that she was on the brink of a momentous turning point in her own history, much like the world around her was on the brink of writing a new chapter in its history. In the poem the speaker declares: “Only when God is passing by,/and is invited in to stay/ is there a split of earth and sky. The poem is deceptively simple, but complexity underlies the casual tone and challenges complacency. The domesticated metaphor of neatly bordered farm land denoting the emotional scope of a life unshaken by faith is shattered by the explosive metaphors of boundless power and energy used to denote the effects of the Spirit: ‘descent of skies, cascades of seas….avalanches down a hill’. The entirely life-changing result of an invitation to God ‘to stay’ is cataclysmic: 
*a split of earth and sky*.
Boundaries leap and rush away.
Near or seeming effrontery lie in the casual, conversational tone that ushers in
this upheaval:

Only when God is passing by,
and is invited in to stay.
Theological paradox follows quietly in the masterly understatement of the lines
that describe the effects of a commitment to faith:

wound and chaos come to be
where once a world lay, still and small.
This invitation is to a God who has nowhere to lay His head, and who expects
His companions to carry a cross, which is the ultimate expander of
consciousness, thus ‘wound and chaos come to be’. Powers closes her short
meditation on the uncomfortable fruits of faith by posing a quiet and logical
metaphysical question:

But how else could Infinity
Enter what is dimensional?
Through the critical stylistic attempt the poem’s function in representing realities
is seen clearly. The ideology on which the poem is based upon is taken into
account by the analysis. The relation between text and the context can be seen
as the main focus that poet has gone through such a decision taking time in life.
Coming to the tool of naming and describing, the poem is describing the action
done, the decision taken by the heart. The heart is shown as having such
capacity of decision making. The action done is represented in the poem as
setting of boundaries. The changes in the set boundaries happen only changed
if God Himself arrives. Then only the set boundaries ‘leap and rush away’. Once
the boundaries are gone ‘wounds and chaos’ get inside. Till then the boundary
was small and after the entrance of God, mentioned here in the poem as ‘Infinity’

110


total changes happen. The dimensions get changed in a vast amount. The representation of time and space thus can be used here. Light is thrown on the hidden ideologies in the poem and the reader gets an idea about her selection of language elements also the religious references. The usual musical touch of Jessica’s poems is vividly seen in this poem also. The poem is rich with the rhyming words like, ‘boundaries-seas’, ‘fear-here’, ‘love-move’, ‘will-hill’, ‘by-sky’, ‘stay-away’, etc. Only the last stanza is an exception. Jessica herself has called her poems-songs.

Conclusion
The present paper is a venture to stylistically analyze the poem ‘The Heart Can Set Its Boundaries’ using the techniques of critical stylistics. The connection between text and context is so vivid in the study. It is clear through the study that the poem is ideologically based and as it is the experience of the author which makes her write the poem, it can be considered as a conscious process from her part. Those ideologies are unearthed using various tools in critical stylistics. Thus the study emphasizes the role of critical stylistic analysis in the field of studying texts.

Bibliography
Working on Gender and Discourse: Some Challenges

Rasheeda P V
Department of Linguistics
Central University of Kerala
Kerala
rasheedapvkhd@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Gender and language in sociolinguistics mainly consists of two strands. One deals with the gender differences in language by standing within the sentence boundary while the second strand goes beyond syntactic level and focuses on ‘discourse’, by giving more attention to the social context of the piece of that language. The second was a new, emerging approach in Linguistics and a number of researchers from inside and outside of this discipline were attracted to this new approach. As a result, numerous researches and writings flourished in this area. Working on gender and discourse seems very easy, but it is not true. A researcher in this field has to face many challenges. This paper is an attempt to investigate the challenges a researcher faces in this field, during the process of collecting, processing and analyzing data.

Keywords: Gender, Discourse, Challenges

Introduction

Discourse Analysis can be described as an interdisciplinary study of discourse within linguistics, which studies language in use. It not only focuses on the piece
of language but also the context in which the utterance (spoken or written) has occurred, by standing within the framework of social and cultural conventions. According to James Paul Gee (2011), “whenever we speak or write, we always (often simultaneously) construct or build seven things or seven areas of “reality”. He calls them “seven building tasks”. So analysts in this field always ask (some or all of) these seven questions based on these seven realities according to the need and purpose of their study: How is this piece of language being used to make certain things significant or not in what ways (significance), what practices or activities is this piece of language being used to enact (practices), what identity or identities is this piece of language being used to enact and what identity or identities this piece of language attributing to others (identities), what sorts of relationships is this piece of language seeking to enact with others (relationships), what perspective on social goods is this piece of language communicating (politics), How does this piece of language connect or disconnect things (connections) and how does this piece of language privilege or disprivilege certain sign systems or different ways of knowing and believing or claims to knowledge and belief (Gee, J.P, 1999).

The study of gender and language in sociolinguistics often said to have begun with Robin Lackoff’s (1975) book Language and Women’s Place. The area has developed greatly since 1970s with the works of prominent scholars like Deborah Tannen, Penelope Eckert, Janet Holmes, Mary Bucholtz, Kira Hall, Deborah Cameron and others and it still continues to grow.

The study mainly consists of two strands. The first is developed as a part of quantitative sociolinguistics which analyzes the relationship between language and its variables. Such studies with variables like social class has also resulted in some gender differences. The evidence was supported by further studies like Peter Trudgill’s study of pronunciation of speakers in Norwich (1974, 1983) which reached at the conclusion that the language of male and female speakers of same social class patterned differently. The second strand not only focuses
on the micro-linguistic levels like phonology, morphology and syntax, but also on language as a ‘concrete living totality’ (Bakhtin, 1981), that is, on ‘discourse’. Thus the attention was shifted from the earlier approach which was stuck at the sentence boundary, to a new open and wide approach with more freedom to think and act upon language. Along with linguistic data, special focus was given to its social context which helped linguists and other scholars in this field, further to understand the relationship between discourse and social life.

As Jennifer Coates, (2012) comments:

“The turn to discourse in sociolinguistics and in social psychology, combined with growing synergies with anthropological research, led to a huge creative outburst in research and writing on language and gender. Researchers studied a variety of conversational data, encompassing talk in both mixed and single-sex groups and in both public and private contexts. Family talk, friendship talk and workplace talk were all interrogated in the quest to understand how gender is constructed and maintained in everyday life.”

-Jennifer Coates, 2012

Over last three decades, researchers mainly used three approaches for their research in this area, the dominance approach, difference approach and social constructionist approach. In dominance approach, researchers interpret their data to show male domination and female subordination in society that reflected through language. While difference approach considers these differences as a result of their different subcultures, based on the fact that men and women live in two different cultures. The third approach, social constructionist approach, sees language use as a ‘constitutive of social reality and gender not as a given but as accomplished through talk’ (Jennifer Coates, 2012). It seems that most researchers in this area now employ social constructionist approach.
Challenges

Working with Gender and Discourse seems very interesting and easy task. It provides more freedom for the researcher to think and act upon a piece of language and to choose different approaches based on different theories. At the same time, it is a challenging task. Because the researcher faces many difficulties throughout his research, in his attempt to meet an answer for his question, ‘how gender is maintained and constructed through language?’ Following are some such challenges:

Naturalness of Data

Researchers working in this area need a very pure and natural data. So when collecting data from both male and female speakers to find whether they use different linguistic patterns, the researcher has to create an informal situation without making them aware that their speech is recording (he can ask informant’s permission when after recording his speech) so that the informant feels comfortable and sees nothing strange. Otherwise there is a chance for the informant to switch in to a more careful and formal talk which will result in a misleading data that lacks originality. Also the researcher should have a better understanding of the informant, his culture and his possible meanings. Again, the researcher should be capable enough to make the speaker engaged in his talk for a long time, to choose and provide common familiar topics (like sports, politics, films, climate, their school life etc.) on which he can talk a lot, and also to ask appropriate questions to maintain the flow of his speech, till he gets enough data for his analysis. Also the researcher should be careful to make the speech more informant-directed one, not the researcher-directed one, by providing him all freedom to talk without interrupting him. Providing all these conditions is not that easy, but is essential to make the claim that the data is pure and natural, and not misleading.
Data of same pattern
When the speech of male and female speakers is recorded for examining whether there exist any particular linguistic usage or patterns that is specific to each group, it is important to remember that the data should be similar in its structure and pattern. For making them similar and of same pattern the researcher must give both groups the same topic to talk about. Then only the researcher can check and understand whether there exist any difference in their language, like difference in content of speech, style of talking, lexical choice, nature of aspects like turn taking and interruption, area of prominence etc. that constitute their respective genderlect. The researcher should approach each group in the same way and provide same topics and similar questions to each. Otherwise he cannot claim that these difference are constituted by the difference in their gender, rather, the difference would be constituted by the difference in the topic given and the way in which he approached the groups.

The frame problem
Any aspect of context can affect the meaning of an oral or written utterance. James Paul Gee (1999) calls it ‘the frame problem’. He adds: “Context, however, is indefinitely large, ranging from local matters like the positioning of bodies and eye gaze, through people’s beliefs, to historical, institutional, and cultural settings.” So even after considering much of the context, again, there is will be a high possibility for other additional aspects of context to consider that makes further changes to the interpretation of that utterance. This problem arises not only for a researcher who works in the field of gender and discourse, but for all discourse analysists. Here, the researcher himself has to find the answer for the two questions as James Paul Gee (1999) put forward, where do we cut off consideration of context and how can we be sure any interpretation is “right,” if considering further aspects of the context might well change that interpretation? The frame problem also becomes a problem of validity of discourse analysis unless we keep widening the context, in which we consider a piece of language until the widening appears to make no difference to our interpretation (James
Paul Gee, 1999). And of course, it seems one of the most challenging tasks for an analyst in this area.

Prosodic and Structural aspects
A discourse analyst must be an active listener who recovers even the minute aspects of language like stress, intonation and pause that often comes along with an utterance. Though all these seem minute, they are not that silly. They are meaningful and have interesting discourse functions that help the analyst to link and package information conveyed through a spoken utterance. Likewise, lines, macro-lines, stanzas, and macrostructure in both spoken and written utterance are all important while analyzing a data because they represent how structure and meaning are connected by the speakers. So an analyst has to ask himself, where he thinks lines, macro-lines, stanzas, and macro-structural units in the text, based on into national, syntactic and discourse features in the language he is analyzing, and what he knows about the speaker’s possible meanings, from whatever sources (e.g., the larger context, other texts, interviews, ethnographic information etc.) (James Paul Gee, 1999). The researcher must be an active listener to recover whatever he sees and hears; creative thinker for organizing data based on the details in the piece of language and should have a deep insight in to the structure, overall themes and meaning of the text or utterance for its better processing, analysis and interpretation. Accomplishing all these is not an easy job; the researcher needs more time and practice for it.

Conclusion
Working on gender and discourse is interesting for many since it offers the researchers/analysts in this field, considerable freedom to think and act upon language. It is also true that it is not an easy task. But it does not mean that it is impossible. One, who understands these challenges, find their solutions and practices more, can successfully accomplish this task.
Bibliography


Chapter 13

The Role of Pragmatics in 'Kalithokai'

Indira Priyadharshini. A.
Bharathiar University,
Coimbatore – 641 046.
Tamil Nadu
ipdling@gmail.com

Abstract

Language is used in various manners for various condition of the context. The pragmatics is the study of language use. The speech act theory has been cited as how the language was used in the social context to expose a message to the listeners. This paper explains that how our ancestors used the language in a private situation and how a message was expressed in kalithokai text directly and indirectly.

Keywords: Pragmatics, Speech act, kalithokai, Use language in social context.

Introduction

Generally pragmatics is defined as the study of language s it is that in a specific social context, including its effect on the interlocutors. It focuses on the language that makes use of context to make inferences about meaning. Pragmatics plays role in explaining how the thought expressed by a given utterance on a given occasion a recovered by the addressee. According to Levinson (1983:24) pragmatics is “the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with the contexts in which they would be appropriate”.

120
Types of pragmatic performance

The pragmatic performances are explored in the following ways:

i. Implicature
ii. Pragmatic principles
iii. Speech act

This paper it tries to explain ‘speech act’. It has been discussed below.

Speech act

The term “speech act” has been used by Crystal (1992:362) to refer to a communicative activity defined with reference to the intentions of a speaker while speaking and the effects achieved on a listener and also it does not refer simply to the act of speaking, but to the whole communicative situation. Including the context of the sentence (that is, the situation in which the discourse occurs, the participants and any according verbal or physical interaction) and paralinguistic features which may contribute is the meaning of the interaction.

People usually use language to perform certain functions in the course of communication. These functions include arguing, ordering, advising, etc. these communicative functions are almost carried out within a context. The speaker, on the basis of his intent, level of emotions, and relationship with the addressee, chooses a way as express his argument. He may be more direct in arguing with a friend than a stranger.

Figure – 1
Searle (1969:68) divided speech act into five categories as given below:

i. Representative or assertive (Assertions, Claims, Reports.)

ii. Directive (Suggestion, Requests, Commands.)

iii. Commissive (Promises, Theats, Offers.)

iv. Expressive (Apologies, Complaint, Thanks.)

v. Declarative (Decrees, Declarations.)

Each one has been discussed below:

**Representative/assertive**

These speech acts are assertions about a state of affairs in the world (hence they are also called ‘assertive’ (Leech 1983), and thus carry the values ‘true’ or ‘false’. This is their ‘point’; as to ‘fit ‘they should, of course, match the world in order to be true.

Assertions often may even, represent a subjective state of mind: the speaker who asserts a proposition as true dose so in force of his or her belief. The belief may have different degrees of ‘force’: it makes a difference whether I postulate something or early hypothesize; however, the point of the speech act remains the same. In this type of speech act, the speaker commits himself to the truth of some proposition. Certain this poem is also stating the truth conditions of experience.

For example,

pa:laikali – poem – 14

Situation: conversation between the hero and the friend of heroine about the heroine inside of the home.

Theme of conversation:

Gain: revenue

Loss: beloved

Ally: Let’s talk about gain and loss
Hero: Why?
Ally: Are you going to leave your beloved? Aren't you?
Hero: Yes. I leave due to earn.
Ally: You lose your beloved for wealth.
Hero: My dear beloved is such a spruce of Ash tree.
Ally: If you leave her face will be faded. She will be affected by the love disease (pacom) that her breast tone changed into yellow. You can earn wealth but can you return her golden skin tone?
Hero: Her face resembles the full moon,
Ally: If you leave her full moon face will become paled as eclipse day in which the sun and moon are swallowed by the planets ra:ku and ke:tu. You can bring wealth but can you bring the brightness of her face.
Hero: Are your dusky eyes sapphire flower?
Ally: If you depart, her eyes will drop tears like oil drops which is spattered from the wick of lamp. So can you regain her beauty, youthfulness and loveliness?

Context: Anybody wants to get more profit in anything.

Meaning: Dissatisfaction
Speech act: Assertive

**Directive**

This kind of speech act embodies an effort on the part of the speaker to get the hearer to do something, or to ‘direct’ him or her towards some goal. This is the illocutionary point. This poem expression is in the form of ordering a person to do their action. For example, take the following illustration.

**kuRinci kali- poem -13**

Situation: Conversation between hero and ally of heroine outside of the home
Ally: Do not come during night time hereafter.
Hero: Why?
Ally: She does not like your arrival at night time.
Hero: Why does she feel like that?
Ally: She feels that you will get hazard.
Hero: Nothing will happen to me!
Ally: Native people are criticizing.
Hero: I have extreme love on her!
Ally: That’s fine. It is not safe to arrive during the moment of thunder, lightning and rain.
Hero: I possess infinite love about her.
Ally: Love is respectable. But it is not good to hike via the hazy shower.
Hero: Is falling in love incorrect?
Ally: Falling in love is fine. It is not secure to appear through elephant trooping way in night.

Context: When a person want to do something without any previous experience.
Meaning: Advice
Speech act: Directive

**Commissive**
Certain poems exhibit a person’s self commitment of doing certain action with or without his knowledge. The speech act involved here is commissive.

For example,

(kuRincikali- poem – 10)
Situation: Conversation between hero and ally of heroine outside of the home
Hero: How is my dear beloved?
Ally: Why are you asking her wellness?
Hero: Why are talking like this? I fell in love with her.
Ally: But you did not come to meet her? Did you?
Hero: I have been come to meet her every day!
Ally: what are you saying? When did you come?
Hero: I come regularly. But I cannot see her.
Ally: Is it?
Hero: I my first attempt, I left because of numerous securities were there. Barking dogs spoiled my second try. My third and fourth attempt wasted as follows
because her mother had not slept and moon light was improved. I made the sound of leaf (nocci) but she did not come out. Hence my final effort also ruined.

Ally: O! No! It is my mistake. I did not help you.

Hero: No! Certainly I will meet her tomorrow.

Context: If one fails to get help from others.

Meaning: Non - dependency

Speech act: Commissive

**Expressive**

This speech act, as the word says, expresses an inner state of the speaker; the expression is essentially subjective and tells us nothing about the world. This is certainly point to take into consideration when discussing the speech act of ‘expressive’. Because of its subjective character, this speech act is also subjected to limitations and changes according to different conceptualizations of social guilt behavior. Following this example,

(marutakkali – 7)

Situation: The conversation between hero and heroine while he coming from dancers' home.

Heroine: people always follow the deeds of the king of a nation. Isn't it?

Hero: Of course! So what?

Heroine: Your conduct became immoral; likewise citizens’ behavior also turned into immoral.

Hero: what is my misconducting behavior?

Heroine: chariot rider searches the address of dancer because of your misbehavior.

Hero: Then?

Heroine: Thoughtful Vocalist's song is ruining the ethical conception nowadays. He describes the dancing women in his verses. Moreover the clergy man is messengering towards the dancing women instead of messengering among kings. Chariot rider, Vocalist and Clergy man are corrupted because of you.

Context: When a person increasing another one’s inner feelings.
Meaning: Provoking
Speech act: Expressive

**Declarative**
This change is the state of the world in an immediate way. The speaker brings about a correspondence between the propositional content of his utterance and reality.

(neitarkali- poem – 13)
Situation: The conversation between the hero and the heroine's friend outside of the home
Ally: Who is human?
Ally: A human has to possess nine types of characteristics.
Hero: O! Is it?
Ally: Yes
Hero: What are they?
Ally: Let me explain.
Hero: Okay. Tell me.
Ally: Giving consolation, admiration, virtue, transmute, love, sensible,
Hero: What is the description of consolation?
Ally: When one who comes with depressed mind as a human have to help to resolve his difficulties and also he has to fulfill his needs.
Hero: Is it? What is meant by admiration?
Ally: If one gives you a thing to protect you will care for the thing till he returns back it.
Hero: okay. What about virtue?
Ally: A human has to perceive one's heart and behave.
Hero: Mm. what is the love?
Ally: One who should not mislead his dependents.
Hero: Then what is sensibility?
Ally: One should tolerate one's unwise speech as his ignorance.
Hero: Okay. Explain the trustworthy.
Ally: A human must fulfill his promised things.
Hero: What about privily?
Ally: You should be careful about your privacy. The secrets have to be secret.
Hero: Justify the impartiality.
Ally: Whether one who is supporter or detractor; you should be neutral in justice-dealing.
Hero: Okay. Okay. Are these qualities along with me?
Ally: O yes!
Hero: How do you justify that?
Ally: although you married your beloved secretly, now you have come for requesting her parent to marry her with proper cultural deeds.
Context: When a person describing some standard stuff.
Meaning: declaration
Speech act: Declarative

Conclusion
This paper is exploring the pragmatic speech act in kalithokai. Numbers of the poetry reflect the forefather's life and culture. Their language usage for expressing the social content and personal life was unique. And in that poetry, how they used the words in various domains. They handled the language in various aspects. Such as to advice, to expose dissatisfaction, etc.

Bibliography
Vaidehi  *Vaidehi’s Sangam Tamil Poetry Translations* Posted on May 5, 2012
[https://sangamtranslationsbyvaidehi.com/](https://sangamtranslationsbyvaidehi.com/)

The Role of English in India: A Theoretical Perspective

A. Munian
Madurai Kamaraj University
Madurai
Tamil Nadu
amnlinguistics@gmail.com

Abstract

Since languages are elevated to the divine status, people are often unwilling to look at their language critically and accept the necessary reforms needed to modernize their languages. While things have been changing a bit in recent years, the teaching and learning strategies have not made much progress. Since our tradition emphasizes memorization of everything, the focus in language teaching continues to be on memorization of the verses and essays. Literature is equated to language, and pre-occupation with the correctness of usage takes precedence over the creative and innovative usage and effective communication. Language teaching does not adequately prepare our students to write materials that address day-to-day functional needs. The present paper tries exposing the theoretical perspective of English Language teaching in India and in Tamil Nadu, ELT Methodology in India, Teaching English as a Second Language, The Role of the English Language Teacher, English as the Medium of Instruction, Problems of English Language Teaching and Conclusion.
Introduction
Language is the divine gift of God and it distinguishes human from animals. To the philosopher, language may be an instrument of thought, for we think through language. When we think we talk to ourselves. Thought involves sub–vocal speech. To the sociologist, language is a form of behaviour – behaviour of mind in a social context. To the psychologist, language is a form of activity, an activity of mind of basically four types – listening, speaking, reading and writing. Webster says, “Language is audible; articulate human speech is produced by the action of the tongue and adjacent vocal organs.” Webster also gives a second definition of language as “any means, vocal or otherwise, of expressing or communicating feeling or thought.” The first definition limits language to speech and to human beings. The second definition is more inclusive, implying that waving of an arm (to say ta–ta or bye-bye) or the furrowing of a brow is language, as is writing. For school purposes we ordinarily think of language as verbal symbols that are associated with ideas and objects that are produced in systematic patterns to convey meaning from one person to another. The symbols may be graphic (letters and combinations of letters) or they may be vocal (separate sounds or combinations of sounds).

Due to its association with the British colonizer, English started life in India as not just a foreign language but as a much-hated language. From the despised instrument of oppression to the reluctantly adopted lingua franca to the status symbol of upper classes to its position today as a second language, English has come a long way. In fact, it would not be an aberration to label it a first language of some prejudiced of Indian society. In the closing years of twentieth century, when English began to emerge as the global language, the Indian classroom was transformed because of the change in the environment of the learner. While
earlier in the century, students who had specialized in English joined either teaching or the civil services. Now a whole new spectrum of job opportunities has opened up. There are now call centers that need trainers to equip their employees with communication skills; there are multinationals who have been recruiting marketing staff who needed to be taught spoken English; there are medical transcription centers which need efficient translators and reporters; there are those desirous of immigrating to the west needing professional help for clearing tests like International English Language Testing System, Test of English as a Foreign Language, etc. Hence the avenues where English Language Teaching (ELT) came to be required in India are unlimited today.

The change was first observed at social, political and economic levels. Suddenly, English ceased to be the badge of status for the upper crest. The middle class reserved it for official purposes or those social occasions where they wished to leave an impression. The lower classes thought the use of English was beyond them since the government schools of India made no effort to teach any kind of spoken English, this category of people had no exposure to it. However, around the year 1995, the whole paradigm began to change. The liberalization of the economy led to the advent of multinationals resulting in many developments like varied job opportunities that demanded a command of English, more English channels on the television, an increasing number of English publications and international lifestyle becoming a tempting option.

In India, language evokes emotive feelings. People deify their languages and begin to worship them. They personify their languages as goddesses or divine beings. They would like to show their devotion and loyalty to their languages in several ways, often singing in their praise. Since languages are elevated to the divine status, people are often unwilling to look at their language critically and accept the necessary reforms needed to modernize their languages. While things have been changing a bit in recent years, the teaching and learning strategies have not made much progress. Since our tradition emphasizes
memorization of everything, the focus in language teaching continues to be on memorization of the verses and essays. Literature is equated to language, is equated to language, and pre-occupation with the correctness of usage takes precedence over the creative and innovative usage and effective communication. Language teaching does not adequately prepare our students to write materials that address day-to-day functional needs.

There is a growing trend in every Indian language, including Tamil that tries to bridge the gap between the standard or written form of the language and the spoken form. We have traditionally believed in the superiority of the written speech, and our teaching emphasizes the acquisition of written standards. This was possible in the past because things were accepted just as they were presented; the authority of the grammarian was highly respected.

**ELT in India**

ELT in India has come a long way from the 1880s when only 60% of primary schools used English as the medium for teaching and this went up to 1940. The Grammar-Translation Method flourished and the spread of English remained confined to education and office circles, yet again in a haphazard manner. By 1970, Structural linguistics started making its presence felt in Indian classrooms, in the shape of drills and exercises. Around this time, all professional courses began to be taught in English. ELT emerged as an autonomous subject in India as late as 1980. Similarly, the language lab also became a part of the ELT paradigm around 1985. Computer Assisted Language Instruction (CALI) reached most classrooms in 1960s but it came to the Indian classrooms around 1985; at some places it has evolved into CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning). Both CALI and CALL have not been adopted widely due to the constraints of finance and the typically Indian mindset that learning cannot take place without the presence of the human teacher. While it is true that multinationals, call centers and some private institutes are encouraging CALL, it is CALI that has gained wider acceptance.
CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) reached both India and the West between the years 1970-1980; with the difference that Indian context was not ready for CLT. Hence it took around two decades to gain acceptance among learners and teachers. Language and Literature integration gained recognition among teachers around the same time. India after 1995 has made up for the slow elephant years by broadening the apex of ELT with a generous mixture of so many methodologies that come under the generic category of Communicative Approach (CA). Most institutes that target the language users who need proficiency in a hurry or who need to clear certain examinations invest heavily in teaching materials from publishing houses like the Cambridge University Press. Since all materials are published by such reputed publication, teachers and learners are in a position of availing the maximum benefit for its methodology. Moreover, teachers at these centers are usually young engineering graduates who are receptive to novelty and innovation. They borrow heavily from their materials and often create a methodology of their own by using combinations of audio-lingual or situational or functional or interactive or task based or communicative or even direct method of language teaching. This pedagogy is still CA oriented even if not restricted to one approach.

“The most significant impact of this approach is its sensitivity to learner needs and response. This sensitivity is what that has been lacking in the academic aspect of ELT in India. The learner response is too often ignored. The irony of the situation is that while academicians label these learning centres, “Shops” or “Commercial institutions”, it is these establishments that are a major influence behind the changing face of the ELT paradigm in India”

ELT Methodology in India

The developments that have taken place in ELT methodology in the west took some time to reach Indian classrooms. The evolution of ELT in India, as in any other EFL country is linked with factors that are not pedagogic alone. Today, English cannot be termed a foreign language in the Indian context. ELT pedagogy was developed primarily in the West where political and social realities were different and the status of English was fixed. Whereas in India, ELT pedagogy depends upon the subtle and not so subtle ways in which the status of English keeps changing. No diagrammatic representation can be complete without taking into account the fluid nature of the position of English in Indian society. Only around the year 1980 did English achieve adequate attention from the policy makers, administrators and teachers. Its complete importance was realized more than three decades after independence. Apart from one year course in teacher training for school teachers, no formal teachers training is given to new recruits or practicing teachers. There are orientation courses and refresher courses for teachers in general, but no course deals with ELT. It is only recently, the British Council has introduced CELTA and other such programmes. These programmes are quite expensive and hence teachers don’t want to spend money on them and their institutions rarely sponsor for such programmes. The examination system is more achievement oriented rather than performance oriented, leading to an emphasis on grades and positions rather than issues of fluency or proficiency. Indirectly, the teacher remains in many classrooms even today as the facilitator of examinations rather than of linguistic or communicative proficiency.

Teaching methodology undergoes a transformation because they tend to use the interactive, task based and communicative methods more than the usual lecture methods. Parents of learners form an important component of the teaching paradigm in India. Earlier any kind of change in the course of teaching methodology would result in stiff opposition from them and the administration body would recommend the continuation of age-old practices. Observing the
winds of change resulting from the acceptance of the global status of English, parents today encourage innovation and experimentation in the classroom. When CLT was introduced in India in the 1980s, it was a dismal failure for the first few years because of the lack of right context. This context stands established in India today, so learners are receptive and are actively encouraging more learner-centered classes. The context of whole teaching situation started changing around the year 2000. Socio-economic factors played a major role in this change that is dynamic even today. The liberalization of Indian economy led to the entry of many international brands into the learner’s mindset. Call centers, shopping malls, and trade centers, all need young personnel, fluent in English. There is mushroom growth of institutions and academics offer the whole range of proficiency tests in English form clearing the IELTS to speaking fluently. The internet has played a major role in creating a resource-rich environment by giving a wide range of exposure to English. Being a web-savvy, communication skills has emerged as the need of the day and this is possible only through proper understanding of English language.

Today in India, a whole new generation that travels a lot to countries where English is the lingua franca and as a result, carries home to other generation, the same English as a medium of communication. Unless the context is supportive of upgrading English performance of the teachers which should be inclusive of communicative competence, no teacher training or upgrading of methodology can be productive and fruitful. This is a significant conclusive that can be drawn from the Indian situation.

**English Language Teaching in Tamil Nadu**

As far as Tamil Nadu is concerned, The Government accepts and welcomes English as a link language. In the state, it is made compulsory to learn English from primary level as a second language even in Tamil medium schools. In most of the Government and Government-Aided schools, the medium of instruction is Tamil and rarely in some schools are the subjects taught through the medium of
English whereas in Matriculation and Anglo-Indian schools, the medium of instruction is only English.

**Teaching English as a Second Language**

Realizing the importance of English, it has been taught in the schools and the colleges as second language or third language compulsorily in India, particularly in Tamil Nadu. English has been included as one of the subjects in school and college curriculum and also occupies as a medium of instruction in certain schools. Hence, it is the predominant tool of instruction in higher studies. In the matriculation schools, English is the medium of instruction in addition to the English language subject where all the subjects, i.e. science, social sciences, commerce, mathematics, computer sciences, etc. are taught through English starting from the primary education.

**The Role of the English Language Teacher**

The main concern as language teachers is not to inform the students about the language but to develop their ability to use the language for a variety of communicative purposes. The teacher will play different roles at the three stages of the learning process. (Presentation: when a teacher introduces something to be learned), (Practice: when a teacher allows the learners to work), (Production: when a teacher gives opportunities to work on their own), Organizer-by giving clear demonstration to develop organizing skill), (Instructor -to give clear instructions to the students), (Prompter-to motivate the students to answer without shyness and confusion), (Resource or Consultant-to offer assistance for project work or group work), (Controller-as authority to correct knowledge), (Reflective Practitioner-not only doing technical job but also learning from experience).

**English as the Medium of Instruction**

There is much debate about English as the medium of instruction. Whereas there is a controversy regarding English as the medium of instruction in colleges
and universities, there is no dispute that the mother tongue should be the medium of instruction in schools. All the states and Union Territories except Goa have introduced regional languages as the medium of instruction in their secondary schools. Regarding the medium of education in schools and colleges the Education Commission (1964 – 66) has stated that, “The medium selected should enable students to enquire knowledge with facility to express them with clarity and to think with precision and vigor. From this point of view, the claims of the mother tongue are pre- eminent”.

Learning through a foreign medium compels the students to concentrate on cramming instead of mastering the subject-matter. Moreover, as a matter of sound education policy, the mediums of education in schools and colleges should generally be the same. As we have rightly adopted the regional languages as the medium of education at the school stage, it follows logically that we should adopt them increasingly at the higher stage also. In the National Curriculum Framework for School Education, it is recommended that English should not be taught before Class V or during the primary level of education. In other words, the three language formula has been adopted in the National Curriculum Framework for School Education.

**Problems of English Language Teaching**

The current scene in the country regarding English language teaching calls for special efforts to be made to remedy a number of deficiencies and to solve the essential problems of teaching the language. On the pedagogical side many of the problems that existed for the past years ago still continue to exist. Many of them appear to be insoluble. So much of time, thought and expertise have gone into these, but the situation is still not what it should be. No matter what direction is taken, no matter what policy is adopted, the results are not very good. The problems are: i) Lack of Teachers’ Competencies: One reason why we have not made much progress is that education, especially language teaching, is a very difficult task as it involves two aspects, the content element and the skill element.
There are not enough competent teachers of English. The average teacher needs upgrading of his proficiency in English. This lack of proficiency in English of the teachers at the school stage has added a further dimension to the problem. While there are specialist teachers in Science, Sanskrit, Hindi, Mathematics and Social Science, English is more often taught by non-specialist teachers whose own competence in English is questionable, ii) Overemphasis on Grammar: It is a surprise that grammar and composition still occupy an important place in the curriculum. It is a waste of time especially when there is a pressure on the time available for teaching. Development in language teaching methods which enable one to learn better in a shorter time with the help of aids must be taken note of, iii) Variation in Syllabi: Another problem is the variation in the English syllabi in different states in the country. This possibly causes variation in the expected levels of achievement at the end of Board examinations. One way of facing this problem is to design syllabi with clearly stated objectives right from the level at which English begins to the level where English ceases to be a compulsory subject in the curriculum, iv) Use of Traditional Methods: The methodology and the materials of learning create another problem. Although a large number of innovations in methods, approaches, techniques and materials of learning have come out, teachers are still pre-occupied with the traditional methods, techniques and approaches. Strangely enough the same set of methods and materials are being used for all types of learners, whether rural or urban, disadvantaged or privileged. This result in a tremendous gap in the achievements of our pupils who belong to various socio-economic statuses and v) Defects in Evaluation: The evaluation system in English language teaching poses another serious problem. The criteria for a pass in English in the public examinations are not enough to help to motivate the learner. The marks awarded in English do not indicate clearly the level of achievement of the learner in relation to the four language skills. Examinations in English are, at present, knowledge – oriented, not skill – based.
Examinations in English language are still preoccupied with writing. Speech has been ignored very considerably. Here it is reasonable to ask what has reduced our English language examination to such a level. It was not so when English was the medium of instruction and all teachers and students spoke some English at school. Even today a merely written examination seems to be adequate in the English Medium School, where daily life takes care of speech. But in the vast majority of our schools where the mother-tongue is the medium of instruction, English gets no chance to be used as a language and there are very few competent teachers who can speak it. In these schools, English is learnt as a set of formula and charts which have to be learnt off by heart, thrown up on the examination paper and then forgotten.

**Conclusion**

To sum up, there generally appears a considerable degree of mismatch between stated objectives, prescribed text materials and the systems and techniques of evaluation. In most cases, while syllabus and text-books have changed, examinations have remained rigid and unrealistic, thus promoting rote learning at the expenses of the development of language skills. The following are also the reasons:

i) Lack of Clear – cut Policy: Apathy, inertia or indifference and lack of a well-defined policy in respect to the teaching of English have created innumerable problems in the past. As for example, when teachers are sponsored by institutions or State Government for the engineering students or higher studies, they are often not sent on the basis of some clearly conceived plans for their subsequent utilization. In many instances they are not even treated as on deputation or given full salary for the period of training, ii) teaching through Translation: In some schools English is taught through translation method. For example, in the schools of Himachal Pradesh, each word / each sentence in English is translated in Hindi by the teacher. Such teachers think that once a student understands the meaning of English words or sentences he is assumed to have learnt English. Students have no or very little chance to speak in English. Even B.Ed. students are instructed by the teachers of the school to follow
translation method during their Teaching Practice (TP). Strangely enough the University examiners also ignore this and iii) Language Laboratory. Language laboratory is very essential for training of teachers of English. Since teachers are expected to teach correct pronunciation to students their own pronunciation must be correct. Teacher training institutions should, therefore, have language laboratory facilities. But the fact remains that most teacher training institutions do not have such facilities. In some cases institutions have language laboratory just to meet the requirement of University affiliation, but it is not used for the purpose for which it is meant.

Bibliography
Gupta, Deepti. (2006). Communicative Language Teaching: Then and Now (Books Plus, New Delhi, October)
Lexical Inferencing of Intermediate Odia ESL Learners: Strategies and Knowledge Sources Employed

Sasmita Kanungo
University of Hyderabad
Hyderabad
kanungo.sasmita@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Lexical inferencing has already been the new trend in SLA research. In this emerging trend, the inferencing behaviour of Odia ESL learners has so far not been addressed. Therefore, the present paper addresses the lexical inferencing behaviour of Odia ESL learners. The paper looks into the inferencing strategies and knowledge sources (KSs) used by the intermediate Odia ESL learners in order to infer the meaning of difficult words while reading texts in English. Participants are 40 intermediate Odia ESL learners from selected colleges in Odisha. They were asked to infer the meaning of 53 difficult words placed in five texts by employing think-aloud procedure. Both the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the think-aloud protocols of the participants revealed the types of strategies and KSs used by them along with their variety of usage and frequency counts.

Keywords: Lexical Inferencing, Knowledge Sources, Inferencing Strategies, Think-aloud Protocols.
Introduction
Reading in the second language is a formidable challenge to the L2 readers who can be described as “cognitively mature individuals already literate in their respective first languages learning to read a second language” (Koda 2005: 7 in Matsumura 2010: 15). For learners of English as a second language, the ability to read English plays a crucial role in their academic achievement. As a result, the need to read an English text appears to outweigh the opportunities to hear and speak the language. In that case, while reading a text, it’s natural that learners will come across difficult words. At the same time they have multiple options to deal with those words: looking into dictionaries, checking the meaning online, to ignore the word and continue reading, asking others for help or ‘inferring the meaning from available sources’. Thus, the process of inferring the meaning of difficult words in a text while reading is termed as “lexical inferencing”. The word ‘inferencing’ comes from the verb ‘to infer’, which according to the 1977 version of Webster’s New World Dictionary, means to conclude by reasoning from something known or assumed (Cited in Kuen, 2004: 11). In relation to this the term ‘lexical inferencing’ is defined as the informed guessing of the meaning of difficult words on the basis of linguistic as well as extra-linguistic knowledge of the learners. Haastrup (1991) defines lexical inferencing as: “The process of lexical inferencing involves making informed guesses as to the meaning of a word in the light of all available linguistic cues in combination with the learners’ general knowledge of the world, her awareness of the co-text and her relevant linguistic knowledge (Haastrup 1991:13)”.

Several studies to date have already discussed the need and importance of lexical inferencing in case of L2 learners. The present study is one of its kind which will look into the strategies and knowledge sources (KSs) used by the intermediate Odia ESL learners while inferring the meaning of difficult English words. Thus, the primary objective of the study at hand is to observe, ascertain and analyse the strategies and KSs used by the participants in their inferencing tasks.
Review of Literature

Among several other important aspects of lexical inferencing, the strategies used by the learners have a different role to play. They reflect multiple facts about the learners’ inferencing behaviour. Studies like (Nassaji, 2003; 2006; Parel, 2004; Wang, 2011; Hu & Nassaji, 2014) are primarily indicative towards the inferencing strategies employed by the learners while encountering difficult L2 words in a text. Nassaji (2003) defines strategies as “the conscious and meta-cognitive activities that the learners use to gain control over or understand the problem without any explicit appeal to any knowledge source as assistance (P: 647)”. Nassaji (2003) is a detailed study on inferencing strategies which is based upon 21 ESL learners from five different language backgrounds. The result of his study revealed six types of inferencing strategies used by the participants: Repeating, Verifying, Self-inquiry, Analyzing, Monitoring and Analogy. Among these strategies, participants used repeating more frequently accounting for about 63.7% of the strategies used. Less frequently used strategies were analogy (8.5%), verifying (7.9%), monitoring (7.2%) and analysing (5.5%). Another part of his study focused on the relationship between the usages of inferencing strategies with the participants’ rate of inferencing success.

Parel (2004) included 302 low language proficiency ESL students from a variety of L1 backgrounds and socio-economic circumstances in a large city of Canada. The study was based on the hypothesis that the ability to use the word-appropriate lexical inferencing strategies to determine the meaning of unknown words in text can compensate for L2 readers’ low levels of vocabulary to some extent. Results of the test finally lead to a classification of the successful lexical inferencing strategies and the types of errors associated with these strategies.
This study by Parel is, perhaps one of its kinds which focused on the compensatory nature of the lexical inferencing strategies. There are other detailed studies focusing on inferencing strategies like Wang (2004) and Hu & Nassaji (2014). They also offer the classification of strategies used by the learners.

Inferencing strategies and KSs are not similar although they both are learner centric by nature. Knowledge sources are the available cues which the learners use to infer the meaning. Few terminological differences were marked in case of indicating the sources: Sternberg (1987) and Haastrup (1991, 2008) referred to it as ‘cues’. Wesche & Paribakht (2010) used the term ‘knowledge source’ for the same. Irrespective of its terminological variety, the role of cues/knowledge sources in the process of lexical inferencing is highly significant. Haastrup (1991, 2004) proposed the taxonomy of knowledge sources used by the L2 learners in their inferencing process. Figure 2.2 below offers a clear view of the taxonomy followed by further elaborations:
Contextual cues consist of the context of the target words or the participants’ knowledge of the world. So far cues from the context of the word are concerned; they are further divided into narrow context and broad context. Similarly, learners’ knowledge of the world includes everything; their factual knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, prejudices, personal experiences, and common sense.

Linguistic cues are subdivided into intra-lingual and inter-lingual cues. Intra-lingual cues refer to the cues taken from the language of the test word and are typically words, word stems and affixes. Inter-lingual cues refer to the use of other languages. As her study is focused on the procedural aspect of lexical inferencing, on the basis of that she establishes a hierarchy of cue levels. The table below presents the hierarchy:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOP level</th>
<th>Context (the text and the knowledge of the world)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semantics (meaning considerations)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOTTOM level</td>
<td>Lexis (word form)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Morphology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Orthography/ Phonology</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 2.1 Hierarchy of cue levels proposed by Haastrup (2004)*
The description of the diverse types of knowledge sources that readers use in lexical inferencing reveals the different kinds of textual information and knowledge that draw upon when trying to comprehend unfamiliar words (Wesche & Paribakht 2010: 76). Their taxonomy of knowledge sources is based upon the three hierarchical categories of written language: word, sentence, and discourse. It also depends on whether the cues are found in the target word itself or within the same sentence or beyond the sentence boundaries. Another category in their taxonomy is the non-linguistic world knowledge.

Knowledge Source

![Taxonomy of L1 & L2 based knowledge sources by Wesche & Paribakht (2010)](image)

Their classification of the knowledge sources is varied and detailed by nature. After their study, this taxonomy has been used by a number of researchers in their studies. Nassaji (2003) is one among the best studies which is based upon
the taxonomy proposed by Wesche & Paribakht (2010). The use of appropriate knowledge sources may lead them to achieve success in their lexical inferencing which later on will contribute to subsequent vocabulary retention. On the other hand, for the researchers, a systematic track into those sources reveals the participants’ depth of involvement with the text, their interest in acquiring a new meaning.

**Methodology**
The present study aims at:
Observing and analyzing the types of strategies employed by the intermediate Odia ESL learners while inferring meaning of difficult words in L2.
Finding out the types of knowledge sources the participants rely on while inferring the meaning of difficult words.

**Participants**
Participants of the present study are 40 intermediate Odia ESL learners (native Odia speakers) selected through their performance in Nation’s (1990) Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT). All the participants belonged to the age group of 16-18 yrs. They were selected from three different educational institutions: The Commerce Hub (TCH), a reputed coaching institute for 11th and 12th grade students near B.J.B Nagar in Bhubaneswar, Ravenshaw University in Cuttack, Odisha which is a recognised and very famous University in Odisha and from Raghunath Jew Degree College near Deulisahi in Cuttack, Odisha. All the participants were in the first year of their intermediate course.

**The Texts and Target Words**
Texts from the syllabi of one-year upper standard and one-year lower standard of the participants were selected for the study, viz. texts from standard 10th and 2nd year of 12th-grade courses. Each text contained approximately 400-450 words. 53 target words belonging to different grammatical categories (content words) were selected for the study. Before considering these words as
appropriate for the study, they were checked by the Longman Vocabulary Checker (www.longmandictionariesusa.com/vocabulary_checker) in order to find out to which frequency level they belonged to.

Procedure
In order to look into the strategies employed by the participants a questionnaire was prepared which contained 10 possible strategies with four frequency level by side (Often, Sometimes, Rarely, Never). Each participant had to choose one of the four frequency levels for the strategies given. Score was given for each frequency level. Participants were asked to read the texts for comprehension and try to infer the meanings of the target words. Think-aloud procedure was used to collect data. Participants’ were given a training session on how to think aloud one day prior to the main study. They were asked to think aloud in the language they were comfortable with: Odia or English. Their think-aloud protocols were recorded for further analysis. Afterwards, those recordings were transcribed and analysed carefully.

Data Analysis and Results
L2 learners apply different strategies in order to deal with difficult words while reading a text in L2. In order to understand how the 40 intermediate Odia ESL learners, selected for the present study deal with the difficult words they encounter while reading an English text, all of them were asked to fill in a questionnaire. The questionnaire included ten strategies as the options with four frequency levels (often, sometimes, rarely and never) as choices. The participants had to choose among the four frequency levels on the basis of how frequently they use these strategies in their reading process. The four frequency levels were given scores with a 4 point scale (often= 4, sometimes= 3, rarely= 2 and never= 1). Table 4.1 below presents the frequency calculation which is followed by a brief discussion:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Often (%)</th>
<th>Sometimes (%)</th>
<th>Rarely (%)</th>
<th>Never (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ignore the Word</td>
<td>18 (45%)</td>
<td>15 (37.5%)</td>
<td>07 (17.5%)</td>
<td>00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guess the meaning from context</td>
<td>27 (67.5%)</td>
<td>13 (32.5%)</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Look into the word itself for clue</td>
<td>05 (12.5%)</td>
<td>10 (25%)</td>
<td>16 (40%)</td>
<td>09 (22.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Look into a dictionary</td>
<td>07 (17.5%)</td>
<td>17 (42.5%)</td>
<td>10 (25%)</td>
<td>06 (15%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask a teacher for help</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>07 (17.5%)</td>
<td>06 (15%)</td>
<td>27 (67.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask a friend for help</td>
<td>03 (7.5%)</td>
<td>10 (25%)</td>
<td>19 (47.5%)</td>
<td>08 (20%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take a note of the word</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>11 (27.5%)</td>
<td>23 (57.5%)</td>
<td>06 (15%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take help from internet</td>
<td>22 (55%)</td>
<td>12 (30%)</td>
<td>06 (15%)</td>
<td>00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Try to relate the word with my L1</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>06 (15%)</td>
<td>10 (25%)</td>
<td>24 (60%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other than the above options</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>04 (10%)</td>
<td>13 (32.5%)</td>
<td>23 (57.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1: Participants’ use of strategies to deal with difficult words in an English text.

An observational look into the data clarifies that most of the participants often use strategies like guessing the meaning from context and taking help from the internet in order to find out the meaning of a difficult word. Some of the participants often choose to ignore the word. The quantitative figure indicates that 67.5% of the total number of participants often tries to guess the meaning of the difficult words from the context. At the same time, 55% of the participants often take help from the internet for the same. According to the responses, 45% of the participants often ignore the difficult words. 42.5% of the participants sometimes try to look into the dictionary for the meaning of the difficult words. The participants’ responses to the questionnaire also specify that 57.5% of them do rarely take note of the difficult words. Rarely do they ask a friend for help. 60% of the participants have never taken help from their L1. The analysis reveals that most of the participants (67.5%) never ask their teacher for any kind of help in finding the meaning of difficult words. It was decided that the participants’
choice of the frequency levels for different options was to be calculated by a 4-point scoring system. On the basis of those individual scores, the mean value for each strategy was calculated. Figure 1.1 below represents all the strategies with their respective mean scores:

![Graph showing participants' strategies to deal with difficult words with respective mean scores.](Image)

*Figure 4.1 Participants' strategies to deal with difficult words with respective mean scores*

As the responses from the participants show, most of them often try to guess the meaning from the context. Accordingly, the mean value for this strategy is the highest amongst all, i.e. 3.67. Similarly, the option, *searching the meaning through the internet* has the second highest mean value, i.e. 3.40. Options like *ask a teacher for help* and *take help from L1* have scored the lowest mean value, i.e. 1.5 and 1.55 respectively. As 45% of the participants have chosen often to ignore the difficult word, accordingly, the mean value for this option is slightly ahead than of others', i.e. 3.27.

Analysis of the think-aloud protocols of the participants revealed 7 types of KSSs used by them in their inferencing process. These seven types of KSSs along with
their sub-types are presented in the figure below and are followed by further discussion.

**Knowledge Sources**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word Knowledge</th>
<th>Sentential knowledge</th>
<th>Ideas from passage &amp; paragraph</th>
<th>Prev. knowledge World. knowledge</th>
<th>Grammatical info</th>
<th>Help from L1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word connection</td>
<td>Sentence's meaning</td>
<td>Central idea of the passage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spelling &amp; Pronunciation</td>
<td>Meaning of surrounding sentences</td>
<td>Idea of the paragraph</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word collocation</td>
<td>Analysis of target word</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 4.2 Categorisation of the knowledge sources found in the present study.*

Sources where the participants have tried to get the meaning of difficult words by taking help from words; the target word itself or from other words in the same sentence or from words which frequently occur together are being categorised as word-based knowledge sources. Few sub types found in this category are: Word connection, Spelling and pronunciation, Word collocation and Analysing
the target word. After analysing the recordings, it has been found that among all the subcategories within the word based knowledge source, word connection attains the highest number of usage with the score of 301. Inferencing from spelling and pronunciation attains the second highest position with the score of 261. Word Collocation comes at third with the score of 145 and analysis of target word comes at last with the score of 107.

Sources where participants tried to reach at the meaning with the help of sentences are categorised as sentential KSs. This category has two sub-types: sentence’s meaning and from meaning of surrounding sentences. The usage score of the first sub-type is 366. Participants have tried to analyse the surrounding sentences 256 times. The third type of knowledge source is based upon the passage. It has been sub categorised into: from the central idea of the passage and idea from the paragraph. Here, the usage score of the second sub-type supersedes the first one with 195 and the later one has a score of 152.

The other four types of KSs do not have any sub-types. Among them participants’ previous knowledge grabs the highest usage score of 149. Their usage of world knowledge comes at the second with a score of 118. Grammatical information comes at third with 55 number of usage and lastly help from L1 has a score of 15. The table below presents the usage score in their hierarchical occurrence:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>814</td>
<td>38.39%</td>
<td>622</td>
<td>347</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2 Usage score of the seven types of KSs.
The data show the statistical figures of all the knowledge source categories and their subtypes. The sources based on word knowledge were used more frequently and with the highest number, i.e. 814 than other sources. Sources based on sentential knowledge occupy the second highest position with 622 responses, which is followed by idea from passage and paragraph knowledge sources with 347 responses. Among the last four categories, previous knowledge category supersedes the other three; grammatical information, world knowledge and help from L1 with 149 responses. World knowledge and grammatical information follow after that with 118 and 55 responses respectively. The last category, i.e. taking help from L1 has only 15 responses.

Discussion
The questionnaire survey for finding out how do the participants deal with the difficult words which they encounter while reading a text in English seemed to be a successful one. The result of the survey showed that students often chose to find out the meaning from the context and take help from the internet or to ignore the word. Sometimes they look into a dictionary, ask a friend for help. Rarely do they look into the word itself for cues, and take a note of the word. Never have they asked a teacher for help and taken help from their L1.

We discussed the use of different knowledge sources by the intermediate ESL participants of the present study. The analysis showed how frequently the sources were used by the participants in their inferencing tasks. It has been found that among the seven major knowledge source categories, sources based on word knowledge were used most frequently by the participants. Also among all the categories, this category has the highest number of sub-types. The second most frequently used source was sentential knowledge. This category has two subtypes. Participants also very substantially made use of the ideas of the entire passage as well as the particular paragraph, in their inferencing process to draw the meaning of difficult words in the texts. Apart from these most frequently used knowledge sources, there are other sources used by the
participants but less frequently than the above sources: participants’ previous knowledge about the target words, their worldly knowledge (extra-linguistic), from the available grammatical information and last but not the least they took help from their L1.

**Pedagogical Implications and Conclusion**

This study explored the strategies and KSs used by the intermediate Odia ESL learners while inferring the meaning of difficult target words. Though the findings of the present study do not lead to any type of generalisation at this preliminary stage still the study at hand can be used as a convenient and informative source for other researchers in this area. Further explorations are expected regarding the relationship of the usage of the aforementioned KSs and their role in learners’ inferencing success and their vocabulary retention.

**Bibliography**


Linguistic Transfer in Multilingual Classrooms- Effects and Applicability:

A Theoretical Study

Umalatha Kannoth
Department of linguistics
Central University of Kerala,
Kerala
umarathkannoth93@gmail.com

G. Palanirajan
Department of linguistics
Central University of Kerala,
Kerala
gprajancuk@gmail.com

Abstract

The term ‘transfer’ refers to the application of post linguistic knowledge from one language to another. It is natural in a multilingual situation that people, who know more than one language, use the rules and words from one language to another language. When bilinguals or polyglots do not know the exact word or rule in a particular language they substitute it with most similar word or rule from another language. A multilingual classroom consists of students with different language backgrounds. In such a classroom context, it is possible to find students applying the phenomena of transfer. Transfer for most of the time is an unconscious process. It is said to occur maximum in the areas of difference between the two languages (mostly between the mother tongue and academic language). To cope the difficulties of the language in which they learn the students use words
and language rules from their mother tongue. Transfer will result in errors and misconception due to the use of non-existing forms and structures. This necessitates that teachers of multilingual classroom should have an understanding about the notion of transfer. Therefore, the theory of transfer seems to be challenging and attractive to many language teachers. There are many studies which agree and disagree to the notion of linguistic transfer between languages. Based on my experience as a researcher I attempt to provide a critical analysis about the theory and process of transfer.

**Keyword:** Transfer, multilingual classroom, mother tongue, academic language, Second language Acquisition (SLA).

**Introduction**
Since few decades, language transfer has gained attention of researchers in Second language acquisition, applied linguistics and language teaching. Though their perspective and objective to this concept varies, studies from all these fields have contributed towards a better understanding of ‘linguistic transfer’ as a phenomenon. However, there are many assumptions and explanations for this theory based on the field and context of the studies. Before analysing transfer in a multi-lingual classroom, I will briefly review the process of transfer.

**Language Transfer**
Language transfer is an interlanguage phenomenon which is also known as mother tongue influence, L1 interference, cross-linguistic transfer, linguistic interference etc. The cognitive view of transfer was developed as a response for Dulay and Brut’s L1=L2 hypothesis – which opposes behaviourist view of transfer and states ‘the acquisition of a language by L2 learners is identical to acquisition of that same language by L1 learners’. The cognitive view of transfer was more focused on the factors that triggered the occurrence of transfer. ‘The term ‘transfer’ was used by Whitney (1881) to refer to the cross linguistic influences’ (Lu, 2010). Mother tongue interference in second language was first
formulated as a theory by Charles Fries and later propounded by Lado. Coder (1983) used the term Mother tongue influence instead of transfer. Therefore, even though the concept was being studied for centuries even now the concept faces much criticism and still now we don’t have an exact definition for the term which could explain it completely.

In the simplest way linguistic transfer is defined as the word suggest, application of linguistic knowledge from one language to another language. The application of this linguistic knowledge can be either from the native language to the second language or it can also be from the second language to the first language. We can find that, most of the studies and researches are focused on the application of the language rules of the native language to the second language. In the latter case, the transfer is either due the influence of a dominant language or due to some attitude issues. This process may also occur either as a conscious or unconscious process. Usually the transfer of second language rules and words to the native language is a conscious process - when it occurs as the result of some attitude. Conscious transfer to second language occurs when it is used as a strategy for communication or language learning (Bhela, 1999). Transfer is said to occur unconsciously when the user is unaware about the process; in such cases it may be the result of the user’s incompetency in the language (second language) which result in the overextension from the native language rules. Whether conscious or unconscious, transfer will result in errors and misconceptions due to the formation of the non-existing or deviant structures and forms in a particular language.

Not all the times transfer just result in errors, sometimes it has also been proved helpful for SLA. Depending on the capable usefulness of the process in SLA it is said to be positive or negative.
Positive and Negative transfer

In second language studies, transfer is perceived as either positive or as negative. The name positive and negative transfer is a reference to whether this process facilitates the second language acquisition or not. If transfer facilitates the second language acquisition, then it is said to be positive and if it does not help in second language acquisition then it is called negative. This division is also explained based on the similarities and differences between the languages. Between languages having a similar structure, lexicon, and culture, most of the times it is claimed that these similarities facilitate the comprehensible language production. This principle is at work when (Rosenbaum, Eric. 1948) expects an easiness in acquiring two German vowels (ü and ö) by students who have already learned two similar French vowels (u and œu). So in such situations, transfer serves as a boost for second language acquisition. Negative transfer is more expected between less similar languages—languages with different word order, languages belonging to different families, and languages with highly different cultural background, etc. Chan (2014) quotes (Anderson, 1989) and states that ‘the difference between languages will result in huge confusions when we shift the knowledge one language to another’. He gives few examples of errors caused by Chinese natives learning English, which favors the above statement of Anderson. For instance, Chan says “since the transitivity pattern of English and Chinese are not the same therefore, many Hong Kong Chinese students tend to make errors in this area”.

For understanding the areas of similarities and differences between languages, ‘Comparative method’ is used. This method was initially used by historical linguists to compare the languages belonging to same and different language families to find their protolanguage. According to Lado (1957), this method and proposed Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis which was intended to analysis the level of difficulty faced by learners and the rate of transfer that may occur in SLA. As works progressed in the area of transfer, it became evident that not all the errors in second language can be explained as the result of transfer. Even then
use of comparative method in second language classroom and multilingual classrooms can be helpful to reduce the errors, as it will make one conscious about the possible errors. But there are also claims that “transfer will be significant in acquisition affected by formal instruction but will be less so in naturalistic second language acquisition” (Odlin, 1989).

As noted above, transfer can vary depending influencing of language. Among other factors a most criticised flaw of contrastive analysis is in its unexplainability of this feature of language transfer. Within the same set of languages effect of transfer varies depending on which language serve as the second language and which serve as the native language.

**Borrowing transfer and Substratum transfer**

Odlin (1989) refereeing Thomason and Kaufman (1988) differentiates transfer as Borrowing and Substratum transfer depending on the source of influence. If a second language shows an influence upon any previously acquired language (native language) then it is referred as borrowing transfer. This kind of transfer mostly occurs when the second language is dominant or more prestigious. Substratum transfer can be viewed as the opposite of the borrowing transfer. In substratum the previously acquired language (typically native language) will have its influence on the second language. Thomason and Kaufman (1988) also argued that the linguistic areas where these transfers effected also differed. Borrowing transfer occur more at the lexical level and less at phonetics and phonology levels. For example, words from English (second language) are borrowed to Malayalam (native language) to compensate the needs of new domains of technology, education, fashion etc. Whereas in substratum transfer the pronunciation of the second language is most affected by the influence of the native language. This is explained as the result of our difficulty to regulate the oral muscular movement after being used to a way of sound production in one language. Once our oral muscles are comfortable to a certain set or pattern of sounds, unknowingly we will equate new sounds of the second language to a
similar seeming sound or pattern found in our native language. There are even studies (Lively Pision & Longan 1993, Kalaiselvan, 2012) that reports ‘second language learners showing a tendency of not recognising a contrast which is not found in their native language’.

To understand and apply transfer it is necessary that, along with understanding the aspects influencing the result of transfer, one should also know the areas of language where transfer occurs. Transfer occurs at almost all subsystems of language, even then there are ongoing discussions about the level of transfer in different subsystems. Though as said, transfer is expected in almost all linguistic areas, here I intend to discuss only the most visible areas of transfer.

**Expected linguistic areas for Transfer**

Competition model suggests transfer may occur from L1 to L2 in audition, articulation, lexicon, sentence interpretation and pragmatics. According to this model transfer will be less in the areas of morpho-syntax and sentence as in these areas it is difficult to construct relation between the L1 and L2. Kaplan (1966) claimed that discourse and sequencing of thoughts also showed transfer (negative transfer). Later studies like (Mohan & Lo, 1985) stands in against Kaplan’s claim for negative transfer and explains such organisation difficulty can be better understood in terms of developmental factors. Transfer may occur at supra-segmental level. Since prosodic features have a very crucial role in stress based and tonal languages, in between these types of languages it is possible that transfer occur at this level.

**Transfer in audition**

This type of transfer occurs in the above mentioned situations of blocking certain contrasts which is not found in one’s native language. For example, Kalaiselvan (2012) notes Tamil students finds difficulty in differentiating voiced and voiceless contrast.
**Transfer in articulation**

This is the area where most transfer is explicitly observed. Many researchers of second language studies have also viewed pronunciation as the difficult part for a non-native to acquire native like command. Since the articulation is a challenge, a huge transfer of L1 patterns occurs in second language. Approximating the sounds and patterns absent in one’s native language is also a frequent criterion of transfer in articulation. Though this will initially help the learning process later most of the second language words will sound like a borrowed word in one’s native language. For example, button- which is actually pronounced as /bʌtn/ is pronounced as [batten] by Tamil students, similarly ‘bomb, January’ etc. are also pronounced as [baamb] and [janavary], i.e. by mapping it to their native language articulation patterns (Kalaiselvan, 2012).

**Transfer in morphology and transfer in syntax**

Usually it is believed that transfer is comparatively less in these subsystems. A deviation from this commonly expected belief is observed for structurally map able features. For instance, a Khasi speaker more likely to produce English sentences without past tense marker when a verb is used in with an adverb of time. /la/ is used to mark past tense in Khasi, but it is often dropped when a sentence is uttered with an adverb of time (‘yesterday’). A Khasi sentence with past tense marker is:

u la wan
3SG.M PST come
‘He came’

And it is also possible to say *u wan minhinnin* without the past tense marker, because of the presence of the adverb of time *minhinnin* ‘yesterday’ (Bareh, 2016). Odlin (1989) also notes in case of syntax “rigidity in word order is a transferable property”. He quotes Granfors and Palmberg (1976) which notes

---

1 This excerpt from Curiously Bareh’s classroom lecture (2016).
numerable errors caused by the Finnish language speakers - a free word order language- learning English.

**Transfer in learning words of second language**
Here the process is not borrowing of L1 words instead what happens is that the second language words are used within the framework of one’s native language. If both languages have very similar concepts, then it will be a positive transfer. Studies have reported that the second language learners are able to surpass the errors causable by false friends. The errors are found less when one has to map two word in L1 with a single L2 word but not vice versa; for example, Spanish has two verbs ‘conocer’ and ‘saber’ corresponding for English verb know and this difference seems really difficult for English speakers learning Spanish, but not for Spanish speakers learning English (Stockwell, Bowen & Martin, 1991).

**Transfer in pragmatics**
When one learns a second language he/she may extend his/her native language cultural patterns to the second language. This transfer may occur at all most all areas like greeting, questioning, requesting, etc. for example the difference between politenesses, say in the aspect of seeking permission in English and Malayalam may reflect difference in their cultural settings. If the two languages are similar, then such transfer will be successful.

**Adaptability of Transfer in Multilingual Classroom**
In a multilingual classroom where there are students belonging to more than one language community, the usual criterion is that the curriculum language will be that of the majority or any regional language. Minority students in a multilingual classroom are therefore, immersed to a majority language - to which they are introduced for the first time from their schools. This sudden introduction of a new language usually forces the minority language students to depend on the language rules of their native language. So naturally students will rely on transfer unconsciously and consciously to adjust themselves with a new language.
situation. They try to map and replace the second language rules and lexicon with their native language rules and lexicon. Such transfer processes may help in the second language acquisition or may lead to more errors in second language. Mostly without proper guidance use of transfer ends with more errors. This leads to the view that Transfer in a multilingual classroom will appears more as a hindrance than as a boost for students’ education. But if transfer is used with proper understanding about the process and the languages it can be adapted effectively to help the minority language students in a multilingual classroom.

Since now we are aware of the processes involved in transfer and the areas of transfer we shall reflect on how it can be adapted in a multilingual classroom.

*Students can use transfer to improve their SLA:*

If the students are thought to comparatively analyse the languages, they can effectively use transfer for second language acquisition. Transfer can help the minority language students to in coping the class requirements in a different language. This will also be a help for them to pick up the language in a faster rate. If the languages are considerably similar the students may not produce a high rate of errors by transfer, instead it can help them to reduce their anxiety and pressure.

**As a tool for second language teaching**

Teachers can use transfer as an instrument to help the students whose native language varies from that of the academic language. A comparative analysis of their native language and the school language will provide use an insight to which aspects the students may face most difficulty and which aspect they can learn easily. Once the teacher is aware about the aspects of transfer she/he can guide the non-native students in a better way to enhance their language (and there by academic) development. In a multilingual situation this will be an easy way to encourage and help the non-native children to learn in their second
language. Teachers should encourage the use of transfer by the minority language students but at the same time they should have an eye to check that it is not being over extended. If used effectively transfer will help the students to develop a positive attitude towards the language and reduce their errors.

Though transfer can be used to enhance the second language acquisition there are certain requirements that should be met to use ‘Transfer’ in a multilingual classroom:

**Comparative analysis**
A proper comparative analysis of both the native language and second language (academic language) should be done at all subsystems of language. Comparative analysis should have a keen focus to both the difference and similarities between these languages. The standard of comparative analysis will be more perfect if we could also include the cultural aspect of both languages.

**Cognitive level analysis**
One should have an awareness of which feature or aspect of language will be achieved at each level of cognitive development. Certain aspects of language are achieved before few other aspects. Though this level of achievements usually follows an universality among languages, certain features will have a language specific variance. These aspects will have an effect in transfer, so a good cognitive level reference of language achievement can lead for understanding and applying of transfer for minority students.

**Awareness for classroom**
Second language or minority language students should be made aware of the possibilities of transfer in SLA, and also about the troubles they may face due to negative transfer. This will help them to have a self-check on negative transfer even though in a multilingual classroom transfer is expected to occur naturally. If all the children in a multilingual classroom are aware about transfer, they can
help their friends to identify and correct their errors. This will also provide an understanding among the majority students about the difficulties faced by their friends (minority students). The peer helps for correcting negative transfer will be more effective for children than any regular instruction on second language rules. The consideration from the peers belonging to linguistic majority will reduce the anxiety and increase a feeling of inclusion in the students from linguistic minority.

**Availability of an efficient teacher**

To implement transfer in a positive way in a multilingual classroom situation one of the prior requirement is an effective teacher. To find a teacher with good language command in both the language is a harder task. The attitude of a teacher towards the linguistic minority students and their community is may also intervene as a factor while understanding transfer at pragmatics level. But, an understanding and capable teacher if aware of transfer process will be able to guide the children in a way to use the traits of transfer to enhance their second language or academic language efficiency.

**Limitation of applying transfer**

In the present situation applying transfer in Indian context may face few difficulties as in most of India’s multilingual areas there are more than two languages in contact. Transfer effect varies from one language pair to another. Second limitation is that most of India’s minority languages and tribal languages are not well documented; even not many majority languages have a well-defined language analysis. This will turn to be a drawback while developing a contrastive analysis between these languages. Another issue is that, since India is land with extreme number of different languages, the language contact situation of each multilingual area within India is unique. So the impact of transfer will be different in each multilingual classroom depending on its context or area. This will therefore necessitate the development of a specific method for each classroom (depending on the classroom situation). The availability of language expects
and efficient teachers to develop a good language policy for multilingual classroom also remain a limitation in the present context.

Conclusion
This theory should be used according to the classroom’s individual situation. A good understanding about the similarities and difference between the languages is very important before applying this theory to any classroom situation. Though at present situation pinning down the exact cause for all the errors produced by the students using this theory is difficult; we can expect the years to come will give more shape to this theory, so together with the teaching methods when applied we can expect a better outcome from this theory.

Bibliography


Kalaiselvan, V. (2012). *The Mother Tongue Influence (MTI) and Other Problems in Learning English as a Second Language (ESL) by Tamil Speaking Under-Graduate Students of Arts and Science Colleges in Madurai District, Tamil Nadu* (Ph.D.). Bharathiar University.


Mental retardation is a disability characterized by significant limitations both in intellectual functioning and in adaptive behavior. The affected children have been seemed to be indifferent to education and unable to perform as perfectly as normal children. It is challenging for both the disabled children and the teachers to achieve all developmental domains including education. Special measures are needed at all levels to educate them and to integrate them to the mainstream. Early intervention, proper assessment, effective skill development, behavior modification and suitable therapeutic services bring blossom in teaching them.

Keywords: Mental Retardation, Intellectual Disability, Intelligent Quotient, Early Intervention.

Introduction
Every child has needs. But the needs of some children are special. They are called special children or disabled children. Children with mental retardation are considered as clumsy, drooling, and helpless in olden days. Today it is not true.
There had been evolution in the concept and it’s understood. The word mental retardation has changed to into Intellectual Disability or "Intellectual Developmental Disorder. Children with mental retardation may take longer to learn language, develop social skills and take care of personal needs. Learning will require more repetition, and skills may need to be adapted to their level.

**Definition**
Mental retardation is a disability characterized by significant limitations both in intellectual functioning and in adaptive behavior as expressed in conceptual, social and practical adaptive skill areas. The disability originates before the age of 18 years. Mental retardation is further specified as mild, moderate, severe, or profound based on the level of intelligent quotient (IQ). Then educable, trainable, custodial based on the extent to which they can benefit from education.

**Prevalence**
The prevalence of Mental Retardation is estimated at about 2-3 % of the general population. It has been estimated in India 20 million persons are mentally retarded. As per census of India 2011, the prevalence is 5.6% per population and 5.8% amongst males and 5.4% in females.

**Causes**
According to the causes, it can be divided into three such, prenatal, perinatal and postnatal. They are given below:

i. **Prenatal causes**: maternal factors, metabolic factors, chromosomal disorders, and teratogens (alcohol, tobacco, drug abuse, radiation)

ii. **Perinatal causes**: prolonged labor, abnormal presentation, low birth weight, hypoxia or anoxia, toxemia of pregnancy with high BP & fits.

iii. **Postnatal**: malnutrition, head injuries, childhood diseases like whooping cough, chicken pox, measles, seizures, meningitis, encephalitis, and brain tumors.
Characteristics of the Persons with Mental Retardation

The characteristics of the persons with mental retardation are listed below:

i. Developmental delay (delay in neck control/crawling/standing/walking.)

ii. Language developmental delay.

iii. Attention deficits.

iv. Poor memory.

v. Poor academic achievement.

vi. Lack of motivation.

vii. Difficulty to understand social rules.

viii. Poor problem solving skills.

ix. Poor in decision making/logical thinking.

x. Indifferent to their surrounding and not responding.


xii. Scholastics backwardness.

xiii. Associated condition such as blindness/deafness/cerebral palsy/autism

xiv. Associated problems such as epilepsy/nutritional disorders/psychiatric disturbances.

Skills That Can Improve Children with Mental Retardation

The following list can be considered skills that can improve children with mental retardation.

i. Self-help skills (eating, dressing, bathing, toileting).

ii. Fine motor skills.

iii. Gross motor skills.

iv. Language development/communication skills.

v. Social skills.

vi. Reading, writing and basic arithmetic skills.

vii. Health and safety skills.

viii. Domestic skills/households activity.

ix. Recreational & creative skill training.

x. Work habits & independent living skills.
Services Needed For Persons with Mental Retardation

The services needed for the persons with mental retardation are given below:

i. Early intervention.

ii. Individualized education program.

iii. Vocational guidance & counseling.

iv. Behavior modification.

v. Parent training.

vi. Medical intervention.

vii. Therapeutic services.

Early intervention

It is the structured program for providing all sorts of services, to minimize the handicapping condition and develop the skills. It also means stimulating – educating/ training/ helping/ managing/ supporting a child with disability early in life. In these program children in the age group of 0-5 years are assessed with Upanayan Scale. It consists of 5 categories motor, self-help, language, cognition and socialization. Each category has 50 skills in which they got assessed and given training. Student were placed in groups and given training through play activities.

The Individual Education Plan

The Individual Education Plan is a very detailed plan for a specific child's special educational needs and identifies the services that will be provided to meet those needs. The plan generally contains six main components:

i. It documents the skills and abilities of the student at the start of the plan,

ii. It describes specific goals and accomplishments that are expected by the end of one year,

iii. It identifies how that progress will be measured and reported,

iv. It defines what special services, equipment, or curriculum modifications are necessary to achieve the plan's goals,
v. It defines how often a student will receive those services, and,
vi. It specifies where those services will be delivered.

The first section of an IEP discusses a child's present level of educational performance. If this is a child's initial IEP development, the evaluation data used to prove the student's eligibility can be summarized in this portion. Likewise, if the IEP is written after a re-evaluation, the summary of the evaluation information can be described here. However, if the IEP is being reviewed between evaluations, data including grades, academic assessments, functional assessments, and descriptions from other staff could be included. If parents disagree with any statements being made, they should make sure they voice their disagreement and explain their viewpoint and supporting evidence, such as behavioral reports from home, or other settings, other assessments the child may have received, a child's own report, etc. All of these viewpoints should be entered into the IEP. Furthermore, care givers should also advocate that their child's strengths are included in this document, and not just their weaknesses.

IEP can be implemented in pre-primary, primary, secondary, and vocational levels. IEP includes,

i. Gross motor activities-- like sit without support rolls over flat surface, runs and squats,
ii. Fine motor activities-- like uses a spoon to stir, to string beads, to screw and unscrew a jar bottle lid use both hands to handle an object
iii. Meal time -- to mix food to use spoon, /hand to chew the solid food.
iv. Dressing--- like buttoning skill, to put on underpants /shirt/ blouse in grooming to use brush for cleaning teeth to soap and rinse face to dry hand with towel.
v. Receptive language--- to respond to instructions, to point to common objects, to point to 10 body parts, to point to pictures of objects social interaction.
vi. Reading--- to identify colors, to sort out shapes, to identify alphabets.
vii. Writing --- to hold and grasp pencil to scribble with crayons to trace straight line, shapes and alphabets.

viii. Numbers--- to arrange in sequence, to identify big/small, more/less and counting.

ix. Time ---to concept of day/date/month/year.

x. Money—to identify coins/notes.

xi. Community orientation --- to do simple errands in familiar settings.

xii. Recreation & leisure --- to play simple games.

xiii. Vocational training---- It is given to students above 15years.

They are given training to make paper cover, candle making, paper bags, coir bags, leaf plate making etc.

**Behavior Modification**

Is a systemic procedure, based on learning principles and uses techniques to modify a behavior. It is used to decrease undesirable behavior and to increase the desirable behavior. In behavior modification there are various techniques to manage the antecedents and the consequence of an undesirable behavior. Differential reinforcements, modeling, cueing and prompting are some of the techniques to support the positive behavior. Preventive aspects in behavior modification can be effectively practiced by a teacher in a classroom situation.by extinction\ignoring, timed out, physical restraint, avoidance and fear reduction.

**Parent Training**

As the children stay with their parents they must be in a position to properly train their child. This is possible only if they themselves are properly trained and know the condition of their children or wards. The parents should be taught to accept the child with disability and treat them as they treat their other children.
Medical Intervention
Sometimes children with mental retardation have additional disabilities such as epilepsy or other deformities\ defects by birth, that require medical support this can be done by proper education, guidance and treatment under the supervision of medical and paramedical experts.

Therapeutic Services
It includes physiotherapy/occupational therapy/speech therapy/sensory integration.

I worked as a special educator in adhiparasakthi annai illam for four years from 2012-16. I took classes for 15 students in the age group of 5to10 years these students were lagging in their ADL (activities of daily life) i.e. In eating, dressing, toileting skills, reading and writing. When we teach children with mental retardation, we need to keep in mind several factors. First of all we need to set goals that are most important for the child. Next we need to make materials and set up the environment so that it supports the child’s learning. Finally, we need to use some teaching strategies to teach and motivate the child to learn.

First, I gave importance to their ADL activities and gave training after 3 months training. They got improvement in dressing and eating skills. In toileting skill they got improvement after 1year. Likewise they started to improve in their reading and writing skills. They are evaluated after every months and their progress is noticed. Now 5 students are going to regular school and the remaining 5 students are going to regular schools for three days in a week. In my experience what I learnt is that if consistent training and positive reinforcement is given these children can also be molded. Here with I summarized some teaching strategies which bring improvement in the intellectual function.
Effective Teaching Strategies

*Hands-on learning*

It is the process of using activities and other hands-on tasks to teach skills. All children and especially children with intellectual impairments learn best through this process. Another idea is to use play dough and make letter shapes to learn letters. Hands-on learning is also a great way to learn math.

*Play-Based Learning*

Play-based learning is when we use play activities to teach cognitive skills. For example if a child is playing with cars, we sit with the child and start playing too. While playing, use statements like “can I play with the red car? Can you give it to me?” In this way we teach skills to the child while he or she is playing.

*Baby Steps*

Children with intellectual disabilities need to learn through baby steps. Every task, skill or activity needs to be broken down into small baby steps. The child is taught one small step at a time. Slowly, he or she learns to combine these baby steps to learn a bigger concept. For example, we will not teach the concept of red color in one day, we will first teach sorting red, then matching red, then identifying red, then naming red and finally generalizing red. In this way try to break up every skill into small baby steps.

*Chaining*

Chaining is the process of breaking a task into its small steps and teaching them in a sequential manner. It is usually used to teach daily living skills and life skills. For example, we first teach a child to hold a pant with two hands, and then we teach him to hold it and bring it down to his legs. Next we teach him to hold it, bring it down to his legs, and put one leg inside. This process is called forward chaining. Backward chaining is when you teach the child the last step first. We do the activity of the child and let the child do the last step on his own. Then we
do the activity till the second last step. In this way the child does more and more of the activity and we do less till the child can do the whole activity on his own.

**Group Learning**
Is one of the most effective teaching strategies for students with intellectual disabilities. It is when you bring children together in a group to teach various skills. Children often do better when they are in a group. Behavior difficulties are less, and children motivate each other. The only difficulty in group learning is that you need enough hands to help children learn together.

**Positive Reinforcement:**
It is to reinforce the child positively every time he learns a new skill, or performs or practices a known skill. It is a great way to motivate children with intellectual disabilities. Use reinforcements that are appropriate for the child.

**Tips for Parents**
Some tips for the parents are given below:

i. Try to understand the need of the child
ii. Do not compare your child with other children
iii. Be happy about your child development
iv. Accept your child as it is
v. Involve your child for all house hold activities
vi. Provide opportunities
vii. Avoid over protection
viii. Have positive attitude towards your child
ix. Encourage your child

**Conclusion**
In conclusion, people with intellectual disabilities can live meaningful, satisfying, and productive lives, within their own communities, when provided adequate
supports. We salute the courage and dedication of families and other advocates who have tirelessly worked to improve the lives of these deserving citizens.

Bibliography
Cathy, M.C. Physical Disability in Childhood. Course Material for Diploma in Special Education Mental Retardation. Secunderabad: NIMH.

Empower-NIEPMD Newsletter


Scheerenberger, R. C. A History of Mental Retardation. Baltimore MD: Paul H.Brooks
Role of pedagogic evaluation in the classroom

M. Sathiskumar
Department of Education,
Bharathiar University,
Coimbatore-46
Tamil Nadu
sathiskumarmurugeshan@gmail.com

Abstract

This paper examines on pedagogic evaluation in the classroom. As human beings and as teachers, each one of us is an individual with different kinds of abilities. They think and teach in different ways. Similarly, students also learn in different ways. As teachers, teach a class of students as a group, but all of them do not learn everything in the same way, or at the same time. They interpret what teach them by using their background knowledge and other experiences. Students do this by themselves and also by sharing and discussing with others. Knowledge, in this sense, is constructed by teachers and students. The teacher is the bridge between the common textbook and thirty to forty individual students in every class. Teachers do this by evaluating our students as they work.

Keywords: teachers, students, knowledge and experience, classroom.

Introduction

As teachers, know our students individually, and modify our teaching to suit their varied ways of learning and their different capabilities. The teacher is use of the
common textbook thirty or fifty individual students in every class. Teachers do this by evaluating our student as they work. This is an ongoing evaluation, used only to monitor progress. It is called pedagogic evaluation. In this formal ongoing evaluation of our students is not limited to how they learn and what they learn. As teachers we also have the responsibility of helping our put mileage on into becoming responsible citizens. Education today is not about scholastic knowledge. It is also about life skills, values etc. We teach our student how to integrate into society and live meaningful lives.

**Evaluation**

Information gathered on checklists, anecdotal records, and other assessment data can be translated into a grade or marks for reporting purposes. Students, parents, administrators, and the community as a whole should understand what will be evaluated and the role evaluation plays in curriculum and instruction. Evaluation is the process of making judgments on the basis of the information collected relative to the learning objectives. Assessment is the process of gathering the required information to make judgments for evaluation. Grading involves assigning a mark as a means of conveying the judgment. Reporting is conveying the results of the judgments made. In addition to determining student progress, evaluation communicates the message that a programmers and each of its components are valid and significant.

**Pedagogic evaluation**

Pedagogic evaluation is an evaluation of students as they are working in class, to improve learning and teaching. This understanding of our students, and its recording by us, to help us teach them better, is the essence of evaluation. It includes information about their strengths and weaknesses, their behavior and habits, and their relationships with other students. This is a pedagogic evaluation and its purpose is to monitor learning and improve our teaching. This understanding, and awareness that we have of our students, is similar to the ways in which a parent caregiver knows and understand their students. The
difference is that, as teachers, teach many concepts very often, we teach more than one subject. We also teach more than one or class section.

**Evaluate of the student**
Evaluation is used for various purposes in education. Student evaluation measures students’ growth, development, and progress against stated learning objectives. Students need evaluation to let them know if they are meeting those learning objectives. An evaluation of our students’ strengths and weaknesses, their behavior and habits and their interactions with us and their classmates to help us teach them better.

**Program evaluation**
Program evaluation is a means of deciding how well the program is meeting the needs and abilities of students. It is a task that involves teachers, parents, school, and system administrators. Evaluation tells educators the strengths and weaknesses of the programs in order that adjustments and adaptations can be made. In addition, teachers grow professionally when they reflect on their own teaching and when they keep themselves informed of current instructional strategies and evaluation methods that they could use in their programs. Finally, education is a public undertaking and, in addition to being accountable to students, the school system is accountable to parents and society at large. Occasionally, there may be an evaluation to provide information for the public to judge the effectiveness of the education system.

**The Purpose of the Evaluation**
The two kinds of evaluation
General purpose of the evaluation
Specific reason for the evaluation
The Purpose of the Evaluation
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General purpose of the evaluation</th>
<th>Specific reason for the evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administrative</td>
<td>general assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>placement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>exemption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>certificate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>promotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional</td>
<td>diagnosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>evidence of progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>feedback to the respondent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>evaluation of teaching or curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experimentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>knowledge about language learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Objectives of Evaluation**

**To find out:**

i. If instruction was effective,

ii. If students need more instruction,

iii. If students are ready for the next step,

iv. If a different approach is required, and how instruction can be improved the next time this lesson is taught.

**Teachers need to:**

i. Provide diagnostic and formative feedback to learners,

ii. Gather information for reporting purposes (marks or grades),

iii. Identify the appropriate level for a new student (placement),

iv. Determine whether or not a student meets program requirements (certification), and

v. Motivate learners to study and make steady progress.
Learners need to:

i. Know what is expected of them,

ii. Know what they can do to improve their performance,

iii. Understand what will comprise their course grade or marks and

iv. Perceive evaluation as fair and meaningful.

Conclusion

Think of a subject taught this year to any one class. Look at the syllabus and identity two or three aspects students must know very well when go to the next class. When correct the final examination paper, check to see how well students understood those aspects. Provide feedback to the teachers who are going to teach the students the next year so that know which of the aspects to revise or re-teach. Ask the teachers whether found this information useful. The next time correct a quarterly or half-yearly examination paper, keep a small notebook next to you and down the problems that your students have. The notes will help re-teach or give feedback.

Bibliography


Chapter 19

Less Commonly Taught Languages, Pedagogy and Materials

Sankaran Radhakrishnan
University of Texas at Austin
USA
radha@austin.utexas.edu

Abstract

Teaching and learning any language in a foreign soil is challenge for learners in the absence of immersion environment. This paper attempts to focus and discuss what Less Commonly Taught Language (LCTL) is, how this is viewed and necessitated under the banner of socio-economic-political reasons and liberalization in the US and how the county felt it is important for the future the future of the county. The paper focuses on: LCTLs and over view; Language and cultural awareness; Language instruction and material production; and Types of materials needed for second language teaching and learning.

Keyword: Teaching and learning language, socio-economic-political reasons

LCTLs and over view

Teaching of Less Commonly Taught Languages (LCTL) falls under the foreign language or second language instruction. Generally other than Spanish, French, and German are called LCTLs in the United States. In the absence of immersion environment, Asian languages and their cultures are to be taught and developed with a meticulous planning. Here are paramount task surrounds the instructors of languages. The task of teaching culturally deviant languages to
heritage (for example in the US more than one million Americans trace their heritage to the culture of South Asia: 1990 US Census) and non-heritage learners for their different objectives and goals pose challenges to the Modern Foreign Language Instruction (MFLI) and instructors in US. The components like learners, instructors, materials and methodology, and technology have crucial role in LCTL instruction. Though the print and multimedia materials support in addition to the face-to-face classroom instruction for the promotion of cultural understanding but this could not be achieved fully.

In US, the department of education has extended support over five decades for many foreign languages and area training. This sustained support has produced an intelligent and demanding body of scholars and policy makers with demonstrable capacities to use the languages of south Asia and comprehend the nuances of south Asian civilizations. If one tries to understand the south Asia studies in the US, it has historical roots. In 19th century philological and religious studies focused on classical studies. After the Second World War, there was a marked change. The war highlighted US ignorance about the civilizations of South Asia. To remedy this shortcoming, systematic efforts were made to develop programs of study first at a few universities and then at many more by the 1960s. This new South Asia programs had distinctive intellectual characteristics and disciplinary orientations. Yet, in general, there was a strong emphasis on the social sciences and on regional rather than classical languages. The social sciences have remained vital and continue to attract the interest of new students and of scholars without backgrounds in South Asian studies. Some researchers have been engaged by the writings of South Asia addressing issues such as colonialism. They have viewed the sources from varied perspectives, utilizing resources in the regional languages of the subcontinent. Others have been interested in more novel approaches to the understandings such as those centered on popular culture or public culture, cinema, and gender studies. During this period of economic liberalization and increased foreign investment, economics and political science continue to attract
the attention of many. The humanities are also vital areas of research related to South Asia. For example, scholars of regional literatures are writing new histories of the enormous and varied literary traditions in the subcontinent, challenging previous presuppositions of literary and language boundaries, chronological divisions, nationalism, and canon that under girded earlier publications.

While most researchers come from a discipline-both as a departmental home and a methodological disposition-there is increasing interest in interdisciplinary studies and Trans-regional research on South Asia. One can point to investigations, about the environment, nationalism, human rights, and migration as examples of topics commanding contemporary and future attention. In addition to their wide geographical scope, these enquires often have a global impact. To study South Asia through the social sciences, humanities, or interdisciplinary studies, it is critical to have a social knowledge of the languages of the subcontinent. Hence there are many Asian and South Asian languages being taught and researched for a long time in the US.

The immigrants from different ethnic origins and cultural heritage in US constitute a sizable population (roughly, 32% Hindi speakers, 16% Bengali speakers, 9% Tamil speakers, 9% Telugu speakers, and like that the speakers of South Asian languages extends). The cry of the first generation in the verge of losing their cultural heritage by their generation (i.e., second generation) and the second generation in the grip of local culture, struggling to retain their own heritage afraid of their generation (that is third generation) going to lose the culture either partially or completely and face identity issues in future. Hence, besides socio-economic-political reasons, cultural awareness in educational systems is needless to say imperative one for future human understanding and adjustment to bring peaceful plural society for coexistence. When the language studies link the goals of national curriculum with cultural awareness, the language studies becomes more meaningful.
Language and Cultural awareness

As we know the language and culture is watertight compartment. Learning a language is a thrilling experience, as the learning is not simply learning the scripts and structures. It is an experience of learning and knowing about a great a culture. Cultural awareness through learning and knowing a language is described as an investigative process with more of an ethnographic or social science basis. The emphasis is on appreciation, understanding close links with the country with a particular emphasis on relating one’s own culture. The promotion of understanding and respect for other cultures is one of the most important aims of modern language studies. Between the two languages learning situations i.e., first language and second language, the second one is for to focus. Here, we need to focus on the foreign language situation with respect to culture as an important component in teaching learning for the purpose of cultural awareness among the learners of Less Commonly Taught Languages. The purpose of cultural learning through languages or cultural awareness is for:

i. Knowledge and understanding
ii. Comparison between TL and learners way of life
iii. Develop social attitudes
iv. Contact with native speakers and to use, TL research materials for professional development
v. To have more objective view of the learner's own customs and ways of thinking

The cultural awareness (i.e., behavior and value system of whole Target Language (TL) community) should be given explicit and systematic attention in the language programs because it is one of the foremost components of the Modern Foreign Language instruction in a foreign soil where cultures very much deviant. This creates insight among the other community to see culture and heritage of Modern Foreign Language and develop positive attitudes towards
speakers of other languages, cultures, and civilizations. If one looks at the question, how cultural awareness could be understood, the answer is the cultural awareness could be understood by understanding: Way of life or the traditions of land where the language is spoken; Social institutions, history or structures of the society of the language; Cultural content in terms of norms or morals of the language speaking society; Culture in terms of arts, literature or high culture. By understanding the above four, the learner compares the above with his/her own country and appreciates the differences and similarities. This helps to develop insight into the manners and the customs of people. Finding and knowing more about geography, history, daily life, society, habits and customs, music, dance, dress, etc., of the people of the language, motivates learning and provides a reason for learning that language.

Making the learner aware of the similarities and differences between Target Language and learner’s own customs and institutions and everyday lifestyles encourage accepting and respecting those speakers. Knowledge of history, geography, traditions, institutions, politics, religions, education, society, literatures, art, music, family life, etc., of the Target Language enhances language learning.

Awareness of cultural interests like theater, ballet, opera, sports like that and enjoyment of customs, music food, cinema, literature, landscapes of the land of the language makes Modern Foreign Language learning more meaningful.

These will help the learners to develop and enhance his or her psychological status of awareness, positive attitudes, understanding, and knowledge. Hence, the learners will be able to compare the culture of the language with learners own and, in some cases, to increased understanding of one’s own culture.

Hence, a schematic presentation of cultural content in all the materials used for teaching Less Commonly Taught Languages aiming the needs learners is to be
given. Inclusion of cultural diversities (other minority groups or religious groups) present in the Target Language speaking area is essential as they form part of TL culture.

**Learners’ profile**

Learners are of different types in LCTL courses (heritage and non-heritage). They include beginners, area study learners, study abroad students, students wish to do research and for professional development, etc. They include freshmen, juniors, seniors, and graduate students like that. Here are challenges in LCTL classes before our instruction and instructors. Here, customization is always an issue unlike the first language instruction. The methodology or methodologies to be adopted, type of materials to be used to suit to their levels of learning, mental make-up is before the instructors.

The students’ levels, their objectives and motivation behind their learning the Less Commonly Taught Languages compel the material producers to think very seriously to design and prepare materials for their use to make their learning complete. The print and multimedia materials support in addition to the face-to-face classroom instruction and interaction in the absence of immersion environment. The absence of cultural environment both inside and outside classroom, the multimedia plays very important role in imparting cultures of the Less Commonly Taught Languages.

There are many goals and aims are expected as outcomes from the Less Commonly Taught Language instruction from the Beginner to the Advanced levels.

Language instruction aims at (in the US aims/areas of importance):

i. Learning writing and reading alphabets

ii. Communicating in the TL

iii. Understanding and responding
iv. Developing language learning skills and awareness of language
v. Developing cultural awareness
vi. Ability to work with others
vii. Ability to learn independently for research and personal and professional development

Hence, the materials need to focus on these expectations when they are prepared. Wider audiences other than Less Commonly Taught Language learners, other learners can also use the prepared materials.

Other learners include,

i. Language and literature instructors
ii. Cultural institutions like museums and libraries
iii. Govt. agencies (80 Federal agencies need proficiency in nearly 100 foreign languages. While the demand is great, the supply remains almost nonexistent (Former Senator Paul Simom quote Margaret E. Malone et. al)
iv. Non-govt. organizations (NGOs)
v. Community
vi. Businesses
vii. News reporters and other media
viii. Distant learners
ix. DLI (Defense Language Institute)
x. FLI (Foreign Language Institute)
xi. LRCs (Language Resource Centers) etc.

Language Instruction and Material production
A large number of people find it necessary and useful to learn other languages for professional, intellectual, or cultural reasons. The method of teaching a foreign language depends on the kinds of language skills a learner wishes to acquire.
Though there are many methods for second language teaching, not one single method can be adapted as every method is aimed for specific purpose. Here, a few quick reviews of methods and outline of second language instructional materials production and strategies are suggested. They are: Traditional or Grammar translation method, Direct method, Control method, Graded method, Audio-lingual method, Phonetic method, Reading method, Grammar method, Translation method, Conversational method, Situational method, Bilingual method, Cognate method, Structural method, Eclectic method.

In the forties, I.A. Richards and Gibson developed another method that may be called the Graded method. Here also, the material presented is carefully selected, graded, and controlled. The vocabulary is chosen to include “all the working parts of speech”, and to “express almost any formal construction in language”. This is an important step because the selected vocabulary may be organized into graded sentences, which in turn, may be arranged in such a way as to give the student the basic structure of the second language. Sentences may be arranged according to the situation presented and for this type of sentences in a situation a word is presented in a sentence and in a situation. This may be taught through stick figure cartoons, filmstrips, and recordings to make language instruction more interesting and more easily comprehensible. The advantage of the graded method is that it can be used in classes with different language backgrounds and age groups (heritage, non-heritage learners and all age groups.

Rationalist like Chomsky argues that language acquisition is an ‘innate’ capacity of every child and that it is genetically inherited. A child is capable of producing an infinite number of new sentences by the age of five or six when it has almost a complete grasp of the basic structure of its first languages. Language learning is not simply a question of habit formation because the five-year-old child could not have acquired all the speech habits within such a short time. Therefore, the
rationalists would attempt to replicate the conditions for learning a second language also. The rationalist position is criticized in recent years by a group of linguists and psychologists who argue that the rationalists have not considered the environmental factors in language acquisition. Anyhow, methods of second language teaching seem to be endless. However, the processes of learning a first and a second language do not appear to be completely identical. Each method of second language teaching has its merits and is successful under specific conditions.

Instructional materials and methodologies needed to fulfill the second language teaching/learning situations are very different from first language. Materials are very important to build confidence among the learners towards learning. Without suitable materials for learning a new language, students feel frustrated. To begin their learning, materials are the confidence. Instructional material is that helps the teacher teach or help the learner learn. Hence, learner centered instructional materials, methodologies to meet out the learners needs is imperative, as learners are the consumers.

There are verities of instructional materials for second language teaching/learning.

They are,

i. Learners Manual from where the learning begins
ii. Syllabus and lesson plans
iii. Teaching units and resource units
iv. Films, filmstrips, slides, tapes and records
v. Handbooks, pamphlet, and journals
vi. Bibliographies and check lists or sample tests
vii. Pictures, graphs, charts, and models

**Instructional materials are required to improve teaching and learning**

There are two possibilities to get materials. One, make use of the materials already available for the purpose with or without editing. Two, prepare materials
especially for each course on the basis of the specific requirements and nature. In the US, LanNet identified the materials and listed for TAMIL that helped the learners to some extend as resources like a database.

**Materials already available**

Materials already available in the language consist of the primary school Readers meant for mother tongue learners, primers and other books meant for children published by various agencies, books prepared by government or private agencies for second language teaching at the school level, second language materials used by universities for certificate or diploma courses, newspapers, current periodicals and magazines, books, booklets and pamphlets produced for the sake of neo-literate, adult literacy program materials and recorded conversations, film songs, sound tracks of films, radio and TV materials etc. Depending on the time available and the need of the learners the materials could be edited. Editing is done either to increase or decrease the length of the materials, control the vocabulary, make suitable change in the content or in the chosen passage, arranging the materials in an order, preparing drills and exercises for practice and testing. All these are time consuming and put us in a great difficulty for editing and obtaining copy writes. (Tailoring the materials to suit to the learners for various levels of learning is not simple). If editing has to be done that is possible only after the selection of the material among the materials available. Selection has to be done on the basis of the need and level of the learners. If the course requires only the development of spoken language then materials useful for that, such as taped conversations, sound tracks, radio materials etc., could be made use of. If the course requires the mastery of writing skill, books introducing the script, sentence construction, books for reading, comprehension and exercises on writing different types of compositions could be make use of. Hence, many issues stand before us as instructors and materials producers to think and decide about materials and types of materials we need for our courses as lot of gaps and inconsistencies to tailor the materials already prepared for different purposes. Hence, preparation of ideal or suitable
materials for LCTL learners is the only solution for effective language teaching/learning.

The material producer for second language learning should bear in mind many issues before start preparing materials. First he should know:

i. What should go into the general curriculum of the course?

ii. As the general curriculum forms the overall pattern it should include educational and instructional objectives in behavioral terms, the content of the course and necessary guidelines. ii. Then, what should go into the syllabus?

iii. Syllabus specifically lists the items to be taught to achieve the objectives set by the curriculum, the order in which the teaching items are to be presented, and the time allocation for each of the specific items and the bundles of teaching items.

iv. What aspect of language is to be taught?

v. This relates to the specific language skills and the degree of proficiency in each skill to be attained by the learners. The major four basic language skills namely, listening, speaking, writing and reading are not necessarily to be developed by all second language courses. The material producer should decide the design of the material only after defining the need of the learner in the area of language skills.

vi. The materials defined as per the requirements of the skills have to be tailored on the basis of the time available for the learners and the instructors. The materials producer should calculate the number of total instructional hours that could be made available and v. finally, the material producer needs to allocate time for the development of different skills.

Once the material producer is thorough with what he needs to prepare by understanding all the aspects specified above [i.e., (i) to (v)] now he/she should focus on, a. Selection, b. Gradation, and c. Presentation of the teaching items.
Selection in material production refers to the selection of items to be taught. This should be relevant to the need of the learner in terms of the skill to be attained, its degree and the time available. The selection is to be made also with regard to the dialect and register of the language concerned. Selection also refers to the selection of the number and semantic range of vocabulary, sentence patterns, situations and the amount of information regarding the grammatical and cultural aspect of the language.

Gradation is the arrangement of the selected teaching items, in particular order. The teaching items should be graded in such a manner that learners can achieve the maximum in the minimum time that is the purpose for gradation. There are certain general principles followed in gradation, which form the guiding principles in material production also. They are, from familiar to the unfamiliar and from simple to complex. The advantage of the graded materials is that it can be used in classes with the learners of different language and cultural background and age groups.

Presentation refers to the manner and order in which the teaching items are presented to the learners, while gradation takes care of the order in which the teaching items are arranged. It is to be kept in mind that the form of the lesson wherein the teaching items are presented, the amount of other ones such as pictures, tapes etc., to be made use of and when to use them will be taken care of by the principle of presentation. More than those three viz., Selection, Gradation, and Presentation to a great extent, depend upon the methods that are to be advocated for the particular level of course of second language teaching must be kept in mind. Precisely, basic principles of material production include: -

Proceed from known to the unknown
Proceed from simple to complex
Include an evaluation scheme (feedback mechanism) in every material
- Grade the materials as per a defined order on the basis of structure, content, situation, number of vocabulary, length of sentence patterns etc.,
Choose the content for the learners’ needs
Link the materials properly with the syllabus and the curriculum
- Integrate the objectives, the method and the teaching items in a suitable manner to achieve the maximum output

As far the materials are concerned, one can think of four types of materials for language teaching. They include Core materials, Supplementary materials, and Reference materials. For immediate and wide language use in practical sense and situations Core Materials are required. It is to keep in mind and understand that materials vary from levels to levels. They should be enjoyable and interesting to the learners; it should be graded and coherent from level to level and bridge the levels like, Beginner, Intermediate, Advanced, Superior, Near-native. Core materials for all levels are Print, Audio, and Audio-video, Computer assisted interactive mode.

**Bibliography**


An Innovative Method for Developing Writing Skill in English

M. Somathasan
Advanced Technological Institute
Trincomalee,
Sri Lanka
msomathasan@yahoo.com

Abstract

Writing is often the difficult task for students of English as a Second Language. Some factors such as the great emphasis on other skills in the classroom, lack of teachers’ writing competence, etc. can be reasoned out for it. However, it is essential for a student to ensure his writing to meet the necessary standard for the production of written English at advanced levels. Writing consists of many components. Punctuation is one of them. Used properly, punctuation helps writers achieve clarity and emphasis. Used improperly, it does just the opposite. For example, compare the sentences ‘The criminal, says the judge, should be hanged’ and ‘The criminal says, the judge should be hanged’. This research focuses on developing the knowledge of punctuation through an innovative method. The participants of this study were 50 first year students of Higher National Diploma in English (HNDE) at the Advanced Technological Institute (ATI) in Trincomalee, Sri Lanka. Further, a student-friendly innovative tool, known as Punctuation Booster, was developed by using the computer language Visual Basic 6, to facilitate the technology-incorporated learning and testing of punctuation. Then the students’ knowledge in punctuation was tested through pre-test (with paper) and post test (with tool). The results after the analysis of both tests revealed that the post test as an innovative way had shown a good
result than the result in pre-test as a traditional method. Thus, the study concludes that the students of ESL develop writing well by the utilization of the innovative methods than the traditional ones.

**Keywords:** punctuation, innovative method, HNDE, ATI

**Introduction**

Punctuation is one aspect of written English. The understanding and usage of punctuation is a systematic linguistic process and it plays a greater role in the development of English, especially writing skill. Punctuation marks are standard signs in writing to separate words into sentences, clauses, and phrases in order to clarify meaning. The scholars, Kuiper and Luke (1992), state that “punctuation consists of cue marks for joining and separating words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. The purpose of punctuation is to clarify what otherwise would seem vague or confusing to a reader”. According to Garner (2016), “punctuation is an elaborate cuing system by which writers signal to their readers how to move smoothly through the prose”. When we speak, we make ourselves better understood by changing the tone of our voice, pauses, using hand gestures, and facial expressions. In writing, punctuation is an equivalent method for emphasizing or clarifying what we mean. The grammarians, Ellsworth and Higgins (1985), point out that “most punctuation marks represent the pauses and stops we would use in speaking. Period, question mark, exclamation point, semicolon, and colon are stop marks—the ‘red lights’ of writing. Comma and dashes are pause marks—the ‘amber lights’ that tell us to slow down momentarily. Some punctuation marks separate words and ideas; others group and keep together related ideas; still others set aside words for special emphasis”. However, punctuation marks have a special importance in bringing out the meaning of a text. A sentence can have different meanings with the application of different punctuation or punctuation at different positions. For example, consider the sentences: 1. *Let us eat, Daddy, before we go* and 2. *Let us eat Daddy before we go*. In the first sentence, *Daddy* is being called for dinner.
However, in the second sentence, *Daddy* himself has become an item to be eaten. Omission of comma in this case has converted the first sentence into a complete nonsense, i.e. the second one. Thus, it is noted that a properly punctuated sentence will help the reader understand the text and the writer’s intention clearly.

**Punctuation marks**

Carrol and Wilson (1995) state that no universal rules of punctuation cause the problems in students’ writing. But learning the existing rules is indispensable for them to improve their writing ability. Punctuation marks include Capital letter, full stop (period) ‘.’, question mark ‘?’, comma ‘,’ apostrophe ‘’’, colon ‘:’, semicolon ‘;’, parentheses ‘( )’, brackets (square ‘[ ]’ and curly ‘{ }’), hyphen (-), dashes, ellipsis ‘…’, exclamation point (!), quotation marks (single ‘’ and double ‘”’), etc.

Capital letter

A Capital letter is used in the following circumstances.

to begin a sentence:

*The Tamil Linguistics Association (TaLiAs) was founded in Malaysia, 2016.*

for the pronoun ‘I’ wherever it comes in the sentence:

*She thinks that I am foolish.*

for all proper nouns - names of:

people (*Nigel Fabb*)

countries (*Sri Lanka*)

languages (*Tamil*)

religious festivals (*Diwali*)

firms (*Professional Couriers*)

organizations (*International Monetary Fund*)

historical periods (*the Renaissance, the Portuguese Period*)

days of the week (*Wednesday*)

months of the year (*July*), but not usually the seasons

to begin an adjective derived from proper nouns:

*a Sri Lankan artist, Malaysian system*
However, the capital is dropped when the connection with the proper noun becomes lost: *Danish pastry* (i.e. a particular sort of pastry, but not from Denmark.)

**Full stop**
The full stop (.) is normally used to mark the end of a sentence; and also used in abbreviations. It is called ‘full stop’ in British English (BrE) and ‘period’ in American English (AmE). For example:

*The ethnic riots destroy the beautiful island, Sri Lanka.*
*America fears North Korea’s nuclear power.*
*My grandmother got up at 5 a.m. daily.*

However, in modern BrE the full stop is often omitted after abbreviations. For instance, *Mr and Mrs Reginold are running a small business at home in Leicester, UK.* Further, when the full stop separates a unit from a decimal in figures, it is generally pronounced *point* (e.g. 12.5 is pronounced as *twelve point five*). Finally, it is called ‘dot’ when used to separate internet protocol addresses and name web addresses. For example, google.com is pronounced as *google dot com*.

Students may commit a common mistake regarding the usage of full stop, i.e. they sometimes use a comma in the place of a full stop.

**Question mark**
The question mark (?) is considered as ‘end punctuation’ and it is placed at the end of a sentence which is a direct question. For instance:

*What is the capital of Malaysia?*
*Is “receive” a single word?*
If the question is a direct quotation, repeating the speaker’s exact words, a question mark is needed: “How many of you help the poor people?” inquired the teacher. But a question mark is not used in an indirect question, in which the speaker’s exact words are not repeated: The teacher asked how many of us helped the poor people.

Comma
The comma (,) is an important punctuation in writing. It is so powerful to change the meaning of a sentence quickly. For example, look at the following sentences:

I collect silver, paper, hats, and chairs.
I collect silver paper, hats, and chairs.
I collect silver, paper hats, and chairs.

The shifting of comma by just one place completely changes the meaning of the above sentences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Commas are used to separate three or more items in a list or series.</th>
<th>The organizing committee of ICLLSS2018 includes convener, chairman, and Indian coordinator.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Commas are used when an introductory subordinate clause comes before the main clause.</td>
<td>When we went to the theatre, the film had started.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Commas indicate that the adverbials of time moved from the end of the sentence.</td>
<td>In the moon light, she looked like another moon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Commas are used to separate independent clauses joined by coordinating conjunctions such as for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so.</td>
<td>Teachers advise students, but most of them have deaf ears.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>A comma can be used to separate two or more adjectives if you pause between them.</td>
<td>That politician’s speech was a long, boring babbering.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. A comma is used to separate the name of a city from the name of a state or country
   I am living in Trincomalee, Sri Lanka.

7. A comma is used to separate a date from a year.
   Noam Chomsky was born on December 07, 1928.

8. A comma is used before and after an appositive.
   Dr. Hilary E. Silva, the Director General of SLIATE, treats the staff in a friendly manner.

9. A comma is used to set off a non-restrictive phrase or clause.
   Sigiriy, which is in Sri Lanka, has been included in the world heritage list.

10. A comma is used before and after a parenthetical expression.
    The new lecturer, of course, is very informative.

The rules for using comma are really simple. For instance, a comma is never preceded by a space and always followed by a space. The comma attempts to enhance clarity by separating and grouping words, phrases, and clauses into meaningful units. It marks a brief pause, usually at a point where you will pause to take a breath when you are speaking rather than writing. Some uses of comma are as follows:

**Apostrophe**

An apostrophe (’) is used to show possession. To show it, an apostrophe and an ‘s’ are added to the singular noun or indefinite pronoun that ends in ‘one’ or ‘body’: The principal’s message, somebody’s tie, etc. To form the possessive of a plural noun ending in ‘s’, an apostrophe is added after the ‘s’: my parents’ wish, the girls’ school, etc.

The most important use of apostrophe in English is to show the contraction in writing. Here are some of the commonest examples, with their expansions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Expansion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>it’s = it is or it has</td>
<td>he’d = he would or he had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we’ll = we will or we shall</td>
<td>isn’t = is not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they’ve = they have</td>
<td>aren’t = are not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can’t = cannot</td>
<td>won’t = will not</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
An apostrophe is not used with possessive personal pronouns like *yours’, *his’, *hers’, etc. Here, the asterisk (*) shows the ungrammatical form.

**Colon**

The colon (:) can be really used easily and correctly. It is never preceded by a space, and it is always followed by a single space in normal use. The uses of colon are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A colon is used to introduce a list or an explanation</th>
<th>Students are requested to bring the following items to one day excursion: breakfast, lunch, water, note book, and personal-care items.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>In BrE, the first word following a colon is always in lower case, but American usage often prefers to use a capital.</td>
<td>I have a good news: the salary is going to be increased. (BrE) I have a good news: The salary is going to be increased. (AmE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Colons may precede direct quotations.</td>
<td>Many people say: “The heroine in the Tamil film, ‘aruvì’, has acted very well”.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Semicolon**

A student can impress his readers by the correct usage of semicolon (;) in sentences. A semicolon is used in the following three cases:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>To separate two closely related independent clauses or sentences.</th>
<th><em>It was the best of times; it was the worst of times.</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>A semicolon is often used before adverbial conjuncts such as however, on the other hand, otherwise, etc.</td>
<td><em>They are not good people; however, they have to be welcomed.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Semicolons are used to separate items in a series where there are already commas.</td>
<td><em>He visited Leicester, UK; Trichy, India; and Trincomalee, Sri Lanka.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Hyphen

A hyphen (-) is a small bar found on every computer keyboard. It must never be used with spaces at both ends. Most obviously, a hyphen is used to point out that a long word has been broken off at the end of a line. Some uses of hyphen are as follows:

|   | A hyphen is used with compound numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine and with fractions used as modifiers. | *The seminar book consists of hundred and seventy-five research articles.*  
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Two-thirds of the voters did not vote in the rural election.</td>
<td><em>Ilaiyaraja known as ‘isaignani’ is a world-famous music composer.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 2. | A hyphen is used in a compound adjective only when it comes before the word it modifies. | *His ex-wife is under poverty line.*  
|   | Mostly, everybody is concerned with their self-respect.  
|   | *The Vice Chancellor-elect is kind.* | *The nine-year-old boy cried for his life in Syria.* |
| 3. | A hyphen can be used with the prefixes like ex-, self-, etc. and with the suffixes such as -elect. | *The pregnant lady brought a hot-water bottle. (a bottle for holding hot water)*  
|   | *The pregnant lady brought a hot water bottle. (a bottle of water that is hot)* |   |
| 4. | A compound phrase uses the hyphen for its clarity. |   |
| 5. | Hyphens can change meaning. |   |
Methodology

The tool *Punctuation Booster* was developed by using the computer language VB6. For this tool, the sentences were collected from the books and materials relevant to HNDE. Then, the all punctuation marks were removed from the collected sentences and inserted into the programme (i.e. the tool). While looking at the mechanism of this tool, a student, first time, clicks the *Sentence* button (then *Next* button) to get a sentence without punctuation, for example, "*sita is rama's wife*". Then the student must have a careful study of the sentence and apply the correct punctuation marks to make it meaningful as “*Sita is Rama’s wife*.” Further, a button *Show Sentence* has been included in the tool to display the punctuation-less sentence in the box which is provided for writing the sentence with correct punctuation, instead of re-typing the punctuation-less sentence in the box. After providing the sentence with correct punctuations, the student is able to check his answers, i.e. his strengths and weaknesses, by clicking *Check* button. Then, the answers will be displayed in the grid added in the tool.

![Sample visual of the developed tool](image)
Results and discussion:

For this study, 50 first year students of HNDE at ATI, Trincomalee, Sri Lanka were selected to test their existing knowledge in punctuation and also to boost further knowledge in it by using the innovative method. The researcher used pre-test and post test as research tools in the usage of punctuation. First, the pre-test was conducted among the participants and the results were obtained. Then, the students were given one week training to be familiar with the tool and learn punctuation marks in it. After one week, the post test was conducted in the tool itself, and the results were obtained. Then, the results of both tests were tabled as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marks Range</th>
<th>Number of Students (50)</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Post test</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-24</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-49</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-54</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-59</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-64</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65-69</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70-84</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85-100</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results of pre-test and post test together were put in a bar graph (Figure 1) to measure the progress of the students in the knowledge of punctuation with the help of the innovative method.

In the discussion, all the participants stated that they were very interested in doing this technology-incorporated writing activity. Further, they happily voiced that they were able get the immediate feedback of their every attempt in this e-tool.

**Conclusion**

The students of ESL have to concentrate on punctuation as it plays an important role in the development of English language, especially in getting the intended meaning of writing. In speaking, the pauses and gestures are used to clarify the meaning of the words. In writing, punctuation marks such as commas, dashes, colons, semicolons, etc. provide most of these interpretation clues. The well-used punctuation can enhance the clarity of a text. One of the twentieth century’s major poets, T.S. Eliot, says that if we wrote as we speak, we should find no one to read. Thus, punctuation is an inevitable component for developing writing skill. Based on this idea, an innovative method was thought of regarding the developmental knowledge in punctuation, i.e. a computational tool known as *Punctuation Booster* was developed to help the participants of this study in order
to master the knowledge of punctuation in English. The tool was tested among
the participants and the results evinced that the students could gain more
knowledge in punctuation with the help of the innovative methods rather than the
traditional methods.

Bibliography
St. Martin’s.
Australia: UNSW Press Ltd.
Englewood: Teacher Idea Express.
Students*. London: Longman.
Harper and Row.
Longman.
Press.
Nadu, India: Manibharathi Publishers.

Teaching of Affixes on Vocabulary Learning of Tamil

S. Thennarasu
Central University of Kerala
Kerala
thennarasus@gmail.com

Abstract

The present study is concerned with most frequently occurring affixes and their importance on vocabulary learning and teaching of Tamil students. Vocabulary is a fundamental basis of every sentence in every language. Students’ vocabulary knowledge can be developed through a variety of ways. One of the most popular strategies in vocabulary learning supported by many researchers is using affix knowledge (Fotokian, M. and Rahmatipasand Z. 2015) which can help learners in learning unfamiliar words. Therefore, this study investigates different affixes for vocabulary learning of Tamil based on a 20 million words of Tamil corpus.

Keywords: affixes, learning, teaching, corpus, vocabulary.

Introduction

The trends of linguistic theory play a role in the development of language pedagogy. The earlier dominance of Chomskyan School of Linguistics partly accounts for the general neglect of vocabulary acquisition in favour of syntactic development. However, the fact that foreign language learners generally see vocabulary learning as their first priority and report that they encounter considerable difficulty in vocabulary learning is extensively recognized by
language teachers and repeatedly pointed out various learning context. The main focus of this study is for students to confidently infer unknown words meaning during reading in any subject area. One way is teachers can assist the students in learning new word is by teaching them the meaning of common affixes (Fotokian, M. et al. 2015).

**Literature Review**

**Tamil Morphology and Affixation**
Tamil, with all its complex word formation nature, has been more or less thoroughly studied by modern Tamil grammarians like (Pope, 1931; 1995; Arden, 1976; Aronoff, 1979; Asher, 1989; Kothandaraman, 1997; Lehmann 1989). In addition to lexical information, the morphemes in Tamil convey subject and object person, number, and gender; tense, aspect, and mood; various derivational affixes; negative; relativization; and a range of post-position, conjunctions and particles. Clitics are included as instances of affix as long as they fulfill a meaningful unit with function.

**Data and Methods**
We discussed the techniques and tools used and the methodology that is adopted for the statistical analysis of Tamil Morphology based on the corpora. One of the fundamental computational tasks for a language is analysis of its morphology, where the goal is to derive the root and grammatical properties of a word based on its internal structure. Morphological analysis, especially for complex languages like Tamil, is vital for development and application of many practical natural language processing systems such as morphological analyzer, POS tagger, machine-readable dictionaries, machine translation, spell-checkers and etc. (Thennarasu 2017).
Information on affixes was compiled by the author from sources of electronic corpus, as explicitly indicated for each case. Most information comes from published sources, especially descriptive grammars, other descriptive studies and discussion with other scholars. In many cases important information comes from personal communications from experts.

Identifying the Affixes
Inflectional and Derivational

In an agglutinative language like Tamil, the internal structure of words is far more complex than in inflectional languages like English, as the various syntactic relations are expressed by various affixes which are attached either to the beginning or to the end of root/base word whereby their length (i.e. the number of syllables) increases. The various affixes that are attached to words show several important in language learning and teaching of Tamil language.

The first group brings about no change in the semantic structure of words; it affects only their syntactic character, their grammatical, relational meaning. The second group changes or modifies the lexical meaning of words (by adding semantic features) and either leaves their syntactic status unaltered or alters it.

Affix-Morphemes
As BernardBloch (1947) stated that “to describe the structure of a language as a whole, the linguist must be able to describe also the structure of any single sentence or part of a sentence that occurs in the language. He does this in terms of constructions-essentially, in terms of morphemes and their order. Any sentence, phrase or complex word can be described as consisting of such-and-such morphemes in such-and-such an order; each morpheme has a meaning, and so also has the order in which they occur (the 'constructional meaning').
For the purposes of this paper we adopt Bloomfield's definition of a morpheme, which has been accepted by nearly all descriptive linguists. A morpheme according to Bloomfield is 'a linguistic form which bears no partial phonetic-semantic resemblance to any other form'; a linguistic form is 'any combination of phonemes... which has a meaning'. The following are the list of affixes in Tamil:

1. -iṇ as in kūr-iṇ-ār; kūrūṇār, pēcinār - past tense marker/suffix
2. -ār as in kūr-iṇ-ār, pēcinār, vantār - 3ps m/f honorific sg. marker/suffix
3. -illai - as in pēca-v-illai, vara-v-illai - negative suffix
4. -kaḷ as in avar-kaḷ, nāṅkaḷ, atikāri-kaḷ, vīrar-kaḷ, peṇ-kaḷ - as plural marker/suffix, avarkaḷ
   it's itself a honorific marker (as in mutalamaiccar 'avarkaḷ' Harur vantulār. See24
5. -il as in it-il, tērtal-il, valak-k-il, pōṭṭi-y-il, at-il, pakuti-y-il, kōrtṭ-il – locative case marker/suffix
6. -a as in cey-y-a, pō-ka, paṭi-kka infinite marker –ka, -kka are variation of the same marker/suffix)
7. -kīr as in varu-kīr-atu, pō-kīr-atu, iru-kkīr-atu, -kkīr- is an allomorph of the present tense
   marker –kīr-. All the strong verbs take -kkīr- as suffix.
8. -atu as in iru-kkīr-atu, varukīratu, pōkīratu – 3psg. neu. suffix)
9. -nt as in va-nt-u, kalantu, naṭantu, eḷuntu – past tense marker/suffix
10. -u as in va-nt-u, kalantu, naṭantu, eḷuntu, -u is verbal participial marker/suffix
11. -um as in var-um, pōkum, tūṅkum – future tense marker/suffix
12. -a as in cēnt-a, irunta, naṭanta, varukiṛa, ceyta, - adjectival participle marker/suffix
13. -atu as in avar-atu, eṇatu, - as genitive marker/suffix, early we have seen the same form
   but different function in 8 as 3.p.sg. neutral marker/suffix)
14. -i- as in kūr-i-y-atu-āvatu – past tense marker/suffix
15. -atu as in kūṟ-i-y-atu-āvatu – here it is 3ps neutral marker
16. -āvatu as in kūṟ-i-y-atu-āvatu see 15 here – particle suffix
17. -ai as in at-ai, avarai, etc. – accusative case marker
18. -tt- as in vai-tt-u, maṟuttu – here if we say avan pazattai etuttu vaittaan then here – tt- is past tense.
19. -ku as in maṇi-kku, avanukku, eṇakku – dative suffix
20. -ātu as in muṭi-y-ātu – it is a negative marker/suffix like -illai
21. -āru as in va-r-um-āru – it is particle but which particle suffix
22. -iṇ as in arac-iṇ, kallūriyin - genitive marker/suffix
23. -t as in per-t-u, here -t is a past tense marker/suffix of verbal participle. It has – tt- as alternative form in spoken pettu pōṭṭā!
23a. -kal (in varu-kiṟ-ār-kal) is it agreement marker/suffix (mutalamaiccar avarkaḷ varukiṟārkaḷ.) honorific marker
24. -avarkaḷ as in mutalamaiccar avarkaḷ vantaar - honorific suffix/marker
25. -t- as in cey-t-ān(euph)-ar – here -t- is past tense marker
26. -n as in 10n teti – here it is numeral suffix
27. cey-ya-pp-āṭṭ-atu, -pp- here it is future tense marker
27a. -pp-atu (as in iru-pp-atu - future tense marker
28. -kiṇ-varu-kiṇ-r-āṇar (-kiṇ- is variation of present tense marker see 7
29 -t- as in ko#āṇ(sandhi)-t(pst tense marker) - ār = -t- past tense marker
30. -tal as in kūṭu-tal (gerundial form is it not in additional- responsibilities sense
31. -āl as in irunt-āl, vantāl (conditional suffix)
32. -avar as suffix, as in cēr-nt-avar (3psg. pronominal suffix prn agreement marker)
33. -āta as in ill-āta – relative form (illaata, irukkira, irukkum – neg. suffix)
34. -āṇa as in ērālam-āṇa (derivational adjectival suffix)
35. -āka as in valiy-āka (single word through way – derivational adverbial suffix)
35a. -āka (as in tayār-āka (derivation adverb suffix, ciṟapp-āka, atikam-āka, muṟai-y-āka, kaṭumai-y-āka see 35)
36. -āvatu (as in iru-ppat-u(sandhi) -āvatu – 29-th sense numeral suffix)
37. -āṇa as in it-ark-āṇa (post-positional form which is different from ērālam-āṇa)
38. -paṭi (as in atan-paṭi, cāṇṛitaṁ kanakkuppaṭi ēṇakku vayatu - particle as suffix?) (see appendix for more affixes)

Result and Discussion
All most all Tamil words are analyzable into prefixes, stem and suffixes. The number of complete words without suffixes is small. Still, there are a number of static (makkaḷ) and active words including nouns that consist of stems without suffixes. Examining them is one of the best ways to learn words have created a large body of research investigating how attention paid to the uses of affixal morphemes can improve overall growth in the effective vocabulary that a student has. One of the ways that students can develop their vocabulary is through knowledge of word building blocks like affixes. Affixes in Tamil include prefixes and suffixes. Using affix knowledge for vocabulary development is one of the most popular strategies supported by many researchers (Nation, 1990). There are a lot of ways to improve our knowledge of vocabulary and one of these ways can be having knowledge of prefixes and suffixes which can help learners in learning unfamiliar words.

The main goal of this study is for students to confidently infer unknown words meaning during reading in any subject area. Words are building blocks in a language. By learning the lexical items, we start to develop knowledge of the target language. Based on our experience of being a language learner, we seem to have no hesitation in recognizing the importance of vocabulary in L2 learning. The research question of this study concerns the effectiveness for L2 learners of memorizing new words through learning prefixes and suffixes as opposed to
through a word translation approach. When it comes to teaching vocabulary, teachers in Tamil Nadu tend to use the word translation approach, which is focused on emphasizing spelling and meaning.

**Conclusion**

In the present study we have identified most frequently occurring about 100 affixes and their importance for vocabulary learning and teaching of Tamil. As we know vocabulary is a fundamental basis of every sentence in every language. According to Fotokian et al. (2015) one of the most popular strategies in vocabulary learning supported by many researchers is using affix knowledge which can used for in learning of unfamiliar words. According to Robert C. Pooley (1942), teaching suffixes is not a luxury in the comprehension but a necessity. The systematic teaching of affixes will be a valuable part of the language curriculum. The most frequently occurring affixes shall be taught first to learners of Tamil so that it speeds up the learning. Using affix knowledge for vocabulary development is one of the most popular strategies supported by many researchers (Bauer L et al. (1993)). Affixes in Tamil include less of prefix (-*ap* as in appakuti, *ip* as in ippakutiyil, -*ep* as in epporuḷ, -*a* as in anīṭi, -*mut* as in muttamil, -*cen* as in centamil) and more of suffix (-*iṅ* as in kūṟ-iṅ-ār; -ār as in pēc-iṅ-ār, -*kaḷ* as in avar-kaḷ, -*il* as in tērtal-il, -*a* as in cey-y-a, pō-ka, -*kiṟ* as in varu-kiṟ-atu etc.).

**Acknowledgements**

I am grateful to Lancaster University for making available of EMILLE corpus and TDIL for CIIL Tamil corpus. A special thanks to Prof. G.Uma Maheswar Roa, Dr. G.Palanirajan, Prof. S.Rajendran, Prof. G.Balasubramanian, Prof.Nadaraja Pillai for their valuable discussion in completing of this paper.
Bibliography


Description of Language Teaching Methods

M. Sivashanmugam

CAS in Linguistics
Annamalai University,
Chidambaram
sivam.ling@gmail.com

Abstract

Language Teaching Methods simply describe the ways not only how a Language is to be taught, but also how a rapport is to be formed between teacher and students. Teaching methods actually facilitate the people who engaged in teaching and learning. Method is an umbrella term referring to a broader relationship between theory and practice. Language teaching is a fascinating field which has many of the methods followed according to context, concept and learners.

Keywords: Suggestopedia, Communicative, Cognitive, Minimalist/Methodist.

Introduction

teaching and 17. Eclectic method. Here some of the methods are described in brief.

**The grammar translation method**

This approach was historically used in teaching Greek and Latin. The approach was generalized to teaching modern languages.

The grammar translation method instructs students in grammar, and provides vocabulary with direct translations to memorize. It was the predominant method in Europe in the 19th century. Most instructors now acknowledge that this method is ineffective by itself. It is used by many Latin teachers, allegedly because a dead language is usually only written. However, this method is ineffective for written languages too, and Latin only became dead after the grammar translation method was introduced. Up to the 17th century, when Latin was spoken, it was not taught like this. Recent experiments in the University of Cadiz, in which Latin is taught as if it were a living language, have proved to be as effective with Latin as with any other language.

At school, the teaching of grammar consists of a process of training in the rules of a language which must make it possible to all the students to correctly express their opinion, to understand the remarks which are addressed to them and to analyze the texts which, they read. The objective is that by the time they leave college, the pupil controls the tools of the language which are the vocabulary, grammar and the orthography, to be able to read, understand and write texts in various contexts. The teaching of grammar examines the texts, and develops awareness that language constitutes a system which can be analyzed. This knowledge is acquired gradually, by traversing the facts of language and the syntactic mechanisms, going from simplest to the most complex. The exercises according to the program of the course must untiringly be practiced to allow the assimilation of the rules stated in the course. That supposes that the teacher
corrects the exercises. The pupil can follow his progress in practicing the language by comparing his results. Thus can he adapt the grammatical rules and control little by little the internal logic of the syntactic system. The grammatical analysis of sentences constitutes the objective of the teaching of grammar at the school. Its practice makes it possible to recognize a text as a coherent whole and conditions the training of a foreign language. Grammatical terminology serves this objective. Grammar makes it possible for each one to understand how the mother tongue functions, in order to give him the capacity to communicate its thought.

**The direct method**

This approach was developed initially as a reaction to the grammar-translation approach in an attempt to integrate more use of the target language in instruction.

The direct method, sometimes also called natural method, is a method that refrains from using the learners' native language and just uses the target language. It was established in Germany and France around 1900. The direct method operates on the idea that second language learning must be an imitation of first language learning, as this is the natural way humans learn any language - a child never relies on another language to learn its first language, and thus the mother tongue is not necessary to learn a foreign language. This method places great stress on correct pronunciation and the target language from outset. It advocates teaching of oral skills at the expense of every traditional aim of language teaching.

**Reading Approach**

The approach is mostly for people who do not travel abroad for whom reading is the one usable skill in a foreign language. The priority in studying the target language is first, reading ability and second, current and/or historical knowledge
of the country where the target language is spoken. Only the grammar necessary
for reading comprehension and fluency is taught. Minimal attention is paid to
pronunciation or gaining conversational skills in the target language. From the
beginning, a great amount of reading is done in L2. The vocabulary of the early
reading passages and texts is strictly controlled for difficulty. Vocabulary is
expanded as quickly as possible, since the acquisition of vocabulary is
considered more important that grammatical skill. Translation reappears in this
approach as a respectable classroom procedure related to comprehension of
the written text.

The audio-lingual method
This method is based on the principles of behavior psychology. It adapted many
of the principles and procedures of the Direct Method, in part as a reaction to the
lack of speaking skills of the Reading Approach.

New material is presented in the form of a dialogue. Based on the principle that
language learning is habit formation, the method fosters dependence on
mimicry, memorization of set phrases and over-learning. Structures are
sequenced and taught one at a time. Structural patterns are taught using
repetitive drills. Little or no grammatical explanations are provided; grammar is
taught inductively. Skills are sequenced: Listening, speaking, reading and writing
are developed in order. Vocabulary is strictly limited and learned in context.
Teaching points are determined by contrastive analysis between L1 and L2.
There is abundant use of language laboratories, tapes and visual aids. There is
an extended pre-reading period at the beginning of the course. Great importance
is given to precise native-like pronunciation. Use of the mother tongue by the
teacher is permitted, but discouraged among and by the students. Successful
responses are reinforced; great care is taken to prevent learner errors. There is
a tendency to focus on manipulation of the target language and to disregard
content and meaning.
Cognitive code learning
This was developed against the principles of audio-lingual method and verbal behaviour. Based on the principles of transformational generative theory and Cognitive Psychology. Opposes verbal behavior. The four fundamental principles are: i. Language is a bundle of rules, ii. The grammatical rules are psychologically provable, iii. Man has a language acquisition mechanism called LAD, iv. If one thinks in a language the language lives.

Community language learning (CLL)
This approach is patterned upon counseling techniques and adapted to the peculiar anxiety and threat as well as the personal and language problems a person encounters in the learning of foreign languages. The learner is not thought of as a student but as a client. The instructors are not considered teachers but, rather are trained in counseling skills adapted to their roles as language counselors. The language-counseling relationship begins with the client's linguistic confusion and conflict. The aim of the language counselor's skill is first to communicate empathy for the client's threatened inadequate state and to aid him linguistically. Then slowly the teacher-counselor strives to enable him to arrive at his own increasingly independent language adequacy. This process is furthered by the language counselor's ability to establish a warm, understanding, and accepting relationship, thus becoming an "other-language self" for the client.

The process involves five stages of adaptation:
STAGE 1
The client is completely dependent on the language counselor.
   i. First, he expresses only to the counselor and in English what he wishes to say to the group. Each group member overhears this
English exchange but no other members of the group are involved in the interaction.

ii. The counselor then reflects these ideas back to the client in the foreign language in a warm, accepting tone, in simple language in phrases of five or six words.

iii. The client turns to the group and presents his ideas in the foreign language. He has the counselor's aid if he mispronounces or hesitates on a word or phrase. This is the client's maximum security stage.

STAGE 2
i. Same as above.

ii. The client turns and begins to speak the foreign language directly to the group.

iii. The counselor aids only as the client hesitates or turns for help. These small independent steps are signs of positive confidence and hope.

STAGE 3
i. The client speaks directly to the group in the foreign language. This presumes that the group has now acquired the ability to understand his simple phrases.

ii. Same as 3 above. This presumes the client's greater confidence, independence, and proportionate insight into the relationship of phrases, grammar, and ideas. Translation is given only when a group member desires it.

STAGE 4
i. The client is now speaking freely and complexly in the foreign language. Presumes group's understanding.
ii. The counselor directly intervenes in grammatical error, mispronunciation, or where aid in complex expression is needed. The client is sufficiently secure to take correction.

STAGE 5
i. Same as stage 4.
ii. The counselor intervenes not only to offer correction but to add idioms and more elegant constructions.
iii. At this stage the client can become counselor to the group in stages 1, 2, and 3.

Bilingual Method
Bilingual method of language teaching aims at making use of the Mother Tongue and Target Language. The learner will be fluent and accurate: in spoken variety, in written variety and in both the languages. He will be bilingual. This method tries to achieve the fluency through the eight consecutive steps: They are imitation, interpretation, substitution and extension, independent speaking of sentences, reverse interpretations, questions and answers, normal second language conversation.

Functional-notional Approach
This method of language teaching is categorized along with others under the rubric of a communicative approach. The method stresses a means of organizing a language syllabus. The emphasis is on breaking down the global concept of language into units of analysis in terms of communicative situations in which they are used.

Notions are meaning elements that may be expressed through nouns, pronouns, verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, adjectives or adverbs. The use of particular
notions depends on three major factors: a. the functions b. the elements in the situation, and c. the topic being discussed.

A situation may affect variations of language such as the use of dialects, the formality or informality of the language and the mode of expression. Situation includes the following elements:

i. The persons taking part in the speech act
ii. The place where the conversation occurs
iii. The time the speech act is taking place
iv. The topic or activity that is being discussed

Minimalist/methodist
Paul Rowe’s minimalist/Methodist approach. This new approach is underpinned with Paul Nation's three actions of successful ESL teachers. Initially it was written specifically for unqualified, inexperienced people teaching in EFL situations. However, experienced language teachers are also responding positively to its simplicity. Language items are usually provided using flashcards. There is a focus on language-in-context and multi-functional practices.

Learning by teaching (LdL)
Learning by teaching is a widespread method in Germany (Jean-Pol Martin). The students take the teacher’s role and teach their peers. An important target is developing websensibility.

Suggestopedia
-This method developed out of believes that human brain could process great quantities of material given the right conditions of learning like relaxation. Music was central to this method.
Soft music led to increase in alpha brain wave and a decrease in blood pressure and pulse rate resulting in high intake of large quantities of materials.
Learners were encouraged to be as “childlike” as possible.

Apart from soft, comfortable seats in a relaxed setting, everything else remained the same.

**Other methods**
Pimsleur language learning system is based on the research of and model programs developed by American language teacher Paul Pimsleur. It involves recorded 30 minute lessons to be done daily, with each lesson typically featuring a dialog, revision, and new material. Students are asked to translate phrases into the target language, and occasionally to respond in the target language to lines spoken in the target language. The instruction starts in the student's language but gradually changes to the target language. Several all-audio programs now exist to teach various languages using the Pimsleur Method. The syllabus is the same in all languages.

Michel Thomas Method is an audio-based teaching system developed by Michel Thomas, a language teacher in the USA. It was originally done in person, although since his death it is done via recorded lessons. The instruction is done entirely in the student's own language, although the student's responses are always expected to be in the target language. The method focuses on constructing long sentences with correct grammar and building student confidence. There is no listening practice, and there is no reading or writing. The courses are (deliberately) taught by non-native speakers.

Several methodologies that emphasize understanding language in order to learn, rather than producing it, exist as varieties of the comprehension approach. These include Total Physical Response and the natural approach of Stephen Krashen and Tracy D. Terrell.
Silent Way
The Silent Way is a discovery learning approach, invented by Caleb Gattegno in the 50s. It is often considered to be one of the humanistic approaches. It is called The Silent Way because the teacher is usually silent, leaving room for the students to talk and explore the language. It is often associated with Cuisenaire rods and wall charts where words are colour-coded; each phoneme a different colour.

The natural approach
This method emphasized development of basic personal communication skills
Delay production until speech emerge i.e learners don’t say anything until they are ready to do so
   i. Learners should be as relaxed a possible
   ii. Advocate use of TPR at beginning level
   iii. Comprehensible input is essential for acquisition to take place.

Total Physical Response (TPR)
Total Physical Response (TPR) method as one that combines information and skills through the use of the kinesthetic sensory system. This combination of skills allows the student to assimilate information and skills at a rapid rate. The basic tenets are:

Understanding the spoken language before developing the skills of speaking. Imperatives are the main structures to transfer or communicate information. The student is not forced to speak, but is allowed an individual readiness period and allowed to spontaneously begin to speak when the he/she feels comfortable and confident in understanding and producing the utterances.

Procedure:
Step I The teacher says the commands as he himself performs the action.
Step 2 The teacher says the command as both the teacher and the students then perform the action.
Step 3 The teacher says the command but only students perform the action
Step 4 The teacher tells one student at a time to do commands
Step 5 The roles of teacher and student are reversed. Students give commands to teacher and to other students.
Step 6 The teacher and student allow for command expansion or produces new sentences.

Communicative language teaching

Communicative language teaching (CLT) is an approach to the teaching of languages that emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of learning a language. Despite a number of criticisms, it continues to be popular, particularly in Europe, where constructivist views on language learning and education in general dominate academic discourse.

In recent years, Task-based language learning (TBLL), also known as task-based language teaching (TBLT) or task-based instruction (TBI), has grown steadily in popularity. TBLL is a further refinement of the CLT approach, emphasizing the successful completion of tasks as both the organizing feature and the basis for assessment of language instruction.

The method stresses a means of organizing a language syllabus. The emphasis is on breaking down the global concept of language into units of analysis in terms of communicative situations in which they are used. There is negotiation of meaning. A variety of language skills are involved. Material is presented in context.

It pays attention to registers and styles in terms of situation and participants.

Fluency and accuracy (different competencies)
Form and functions development of autonomous learners

**Eclectic Method**
No method is foolproof for the teacher and hence this method is being practiced. This cannot be considered as a single method nor can it be called as a method by itself. However, it comprises of the merits of all the methods and the teacher has the right to choose from any available method.

**Conclusion**
Each method has its own way of presentation, teaching aids, audio, video and multimedia support. However, each one of them tries to develop language skill in learning and teaching.

**Bibliography**
Chapter 23

Teaching Classical Literature to the Modern Students

M. Noushat
Govt. Arts College (Autonomous), Karur – 5
noushath2k@gmail.com

Abstract

The twenty first century has emerged as the era of multi-media where books and newspapers are substituted by television and the internet. The young generation is crazy after fast accessibility of user-friendly technology to entertain them which entails the fact that they are not ready to take much effort to strain their brain in reading. Hence, the era of literature is gradually fading down by the rapid escalation of multi-media. The paper intends to emphasize the significance of reading classical literature to the modern students with special reference to Under Graduate students.

Key Words: Classical literature, pleasure of reading, multi-media, young adult literature.

With the accessibility of library and internet resources, several students are reading the classical texts assigned to them in the class because it is mandatory. Several students affirm it is tricky and complex to comprehend older texts because the language is very difficult to understand. This research paper focuses on the pairing of young students and classical literature in the classroom. The underlying principle is to witness whether the reading of the classical texts facilitates students’ desire to read more and comprehend easily.
Many students discover their pleasure of reading classical literature enhance after reading the young adult text that had similar themes. It is the duty of the teachers to construct a bridge between young adult literature and real classical literature in order to motivate and encourage the young minds to engross in reading.

Usually the students are dispassionate and unresponsive in reading prescribed classical texts. When they are assigned a classic text in the classroom, they are unenthusiastic to read and recount texts. They do not favour classical texts as their preference of reading. These classic texts are not their area of interest to read on their own. In the present day, young adult literature is very accepted and admired by young booklovers, but those are not the texts that are used in the classroom.

Modern researchers have recommended young adult literature as a suitable and appropriate pathway to encourage the students in reading in the classroom. It is essential to make use of texts that are associated with the adolescents and it is obligatory to make them understand the values of the books they choose to read in their own time. The teachers of English aspire that their students to nurture and cultivate to be all-time readers. They crave to promote the love of reading in their students that will carry on throughout their lives. That is a difficult endeavour to accomplish and teachers cannot reach all the students. It is even more difficult to engage young readers when they are presented with a text they cannot find relevant to their lives. If teachers desire their students to become engaged in literature, they have to make them to understand the values and significance of classics texts and enjoy them more by bridging these texts with young adult and modern literature.

The teachers of English have to demonstrate and influence their student by reading the text in the class and make them taste the pudding of literature first.
This practice will boost up and enhance their awful and unpleasant observation to their better understanding of the authentic texts. Presenting the difference between the classic literature and the young adult literature will help students understand the transformation in the interpretation style of the identical themes. Due to consistent practice, they will begin to identify and recognize the complexity in a classical text; gradually they will become skilled at understanding complex texts on their own (Ostenson & Wadham, 2012). The young adult texts would be used as a scaffolding device for the students to comprehend the classic and more complex texts on their own.

Classics are more valuable since they become a guiding light, a pole star to show the doorway of learning the ancient life of different countries. It is the duty of the teachers to construe the ideal values of classical literature. It is essential to “...be able to read and understand simple literature and through literature acquire knowledge of cultural traditions in English-speaking countries”

-Skolverket

Through literature, one can make a trip to cultures, and students can envision how people contemplated and lived in this world long ago and compare them with the present state of affairs. In order to connect young adult literature with the classics, the teachers of English have to make the works appropriate to the students and recommend their favourite preference which is easily accessible. Moreover, concentration and comprehension have to be constructed through the use of group discussion, whether it is through whole class format, literary circles, conferences, or teacher feedback. Bridging modern literature with the ancient literature can be done through the pairing of young adult literature and classic literature (Gibbons, 2006).
There are diverse young adult literatures which can be accessed in the present scenario. Young adult literature comprises of simple books that are written for amateur readers. It is considerable that young adult literature has its own proficiency for cultivating sympathy, empathy, compassion and concern by offering powerful presentation of the external and internal lives of invented characters.

An additional significance of young adult literature is its authority to influence its readers by the truth of existence, and it endows the readers with the realities of imminent adulthood and an existent responsibility of men to survive in the complex pattern of life. By giving readers such design and configuration of orientation, it also facilitates them to find role models, to find what is right and what is wrong, to widen the reason of living, and to promote an individual propensity.

By sympathetic to the past lives, the students are conscious of the practical troubles and trauma of life. Learning the good and evil from literature, will help rescue themselves from the universal errors of human beings. They have a qualitative approach towards their lives which in turn promotes a deeper understanding of the philosophy of being.

Young adult literature is a key to literacy which has the capacity to transform the stubborn brains who do not desire to be engaged in reading classical literature into more vulnerable minds. So many students have constructed mutinous fortifications around themselves in order to conceal their inefficiency. Freire says, “Such students are actually attempting to take control of their world. By refusing to participate in what ‘school’ deems necessary, they are refusing to accept a curriculum that someone else has imposed upon them. If they are allowed to enter the world of words through young adult literature, they can validate their culture” (23). The teachers actualize and establish a space for them
to communicate and exchange words with a model character which is highly influential. The significance of teaching and learning lies in the amicable relationship between the teacher and the learner. When this rapport is dynamic the result is noteworthy. They will learn not only words and sentences, but also the essential feelings and human requirements.

The genre of young adult literature is user friendly. The terminology and jargons used in these books are not forbidden and outlawed. The students gradually do not mind the tricky language because they concentrate on the plots of the texts. The texts are not complicated and easy to pursue. Conversation is a chief component of young adult literature, and the persona articulate the way adolescents converse. The writers use various dialects in their texts in order to confer pleasure to the teenagers. There is no other genre that is so approachable and accessible to teenage learners.

The study of literature in the modern classroom may be, even more appropriate in the present day than it has ever been. It is not beyond belief that teacher stands impartial and unprejudiced, ready to demonstrate the authenticity and prerequisite of classical literature to redesign the existing modern world. From the linguistic viewpoint, studying classic literature from the Western canon (Shakespeare, Dickens, Orwell and so on) affords students of English the chance to understand, investigate and estimate language quite different from their own.

It is the need of the hour to teach the classical literature to revitalize the sense of heritage, legacy and history. The young minds discover pleasure in comparing and contrasting their own life with the characters of the stories. This means that the teachers should choose texts that are relevant to their students. Students need to make self-connections with the texts and they often find this through the protagonists in young adult novels (Bushman, 1997).
Young adult literature is a commendable way to approach complex issues and bring them into the classroom in a way that more accessible to the students than classic literature. Students must find something familiar to connect with while reading whether it is in a young adult novel or a classic one. When a text is too difficult to read or takes a lot of decoding, it can deter students from reading it (Ostenson & Wadham, 2012). Young adult literature also acclimatizes to the world around in that it takes into account the multimedia and technological advances that are indispensable in the lives of students. When choosing texts to read in an English classroom, these texts have to be made relevant and resound with students’ lives. If these texts do not easily fit into the students’ lives, teachers have to make them accessible to their students through engaging lessons and creating relevance.

Relevance is a technique to enhance concentration and comprehension. In order to create relevance in a classic text, the teachers have to help their student to read for pleasure as well as comprehension. When students are assigned a book to read for a class, they forget to read for enjoyment (Bushman, 1997). The teachers need to bring back the delight of reading to their students. So, the teacher has to highlight the merits of the classics by connecting them to the books students enjoy.

A discussion also helps to generate life-long readers. Through discussions, students have the aptitude to suggest books to one another and communicate about themes and ideas they find interesting. “Pupils should desire, have the confidence and be able without preparation to take part in discussions on familiar subjects and exchange information, personal views and experiences”

-Skolverket
They can suggest books to each other, creating a desire to read more and more. Furthermore, conferences between students and teachers about books can be more effective than tests and quizzes. Conferences allow an authentic and genuine discussion to provide a chance to bounce ideas off each other.

It is beneficial to teach a unit in which a classic work of literature and a parallel young adult novel are taught hand in hand. Although the teaching of classic texts in the modern classrooms has limitations, students express their pleasure of reading classic literature more when they can relate it. Students also require autonomy when making connections and understanding literature as well as choosing which book they read.

Bibliography
Bushman, J.H. (1997). Young Adult Literature in the Classroom.. or is it? *The English Journal, 86*(3)
Gibbons, L. (2006). *Young Adult Literature in the English Curriculum Today.* Alan Review,
Computing Tools for Tamil Language Teaching and Learning

S. Rajendran
CEN, Amrita Vishwa Vidyapeetham,
Coimbatore
Tamil Nadu
rajushush@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Tamil computing tools for Tamil Language teaching and learning have been developed by Centre for Excellence in Computational Engineering and Networking (CEN) Amrita University, Coimbatore with the financial and physical support of Tamil Virtual Academy (TVA). The tools are of two types: Natural language processing (NLP) tools and Teaching and learning tools. Under the NLP tools, four tools have been developed. They are: Noun Inflection Generator, Verb Inflection Generator, Word Generator and Onto-Thesaurus. Under the language teaching and learning tools, the following seven tools have been developed: Learn the alphabets, Noun inflection generator, Verb inflection generator, Person-number-gender, Tense suffixes, Dictionary and Translator.

Keywords: verb inflection generator, noun inflection generator, word generator, Onto-Thesaurus

Introduction

Amrita University, Coimbatore was entrusted to develop “Computing Tools for Tamil Language Teaching and Learning”. Under this project the following Tamil computing tools have been developed by Centre for Excellence in
Computational Engineering and Networking (CEN) Amrita University, Coimbatore with the financial and physical support of TVA. The tools developed have been classified into two types: Natural Language Processing (NLP) tools and Teaching and Learning tools. The following Graphical Interface is used for all the tools listed above.

Developing NLP tools

Under the NLP tools four tools have been developed. They are: Verb Inflection Generator, Noun Inflection Generator, Word Generator and Onto-Thesaurus.

NLP tools for Verb Conjugation, Noun Declension and Word Generation

A tool for learning Verb Conjugation and Noun Declension is developed as one of the components of the present project. Tamil is a morphologically rich language. Being agglutinative language most of the grammatical information is expressed by suffixes. For example, nouns are inflected for number and cases and verb are inflected for tenses, moods and aspects and subject agreement markers. A morphological generator capturing conjugation of verbs has been developed as one of components of the present project. The Morphological
Generator takes lemma and grammatical information as input and gives inflected forms of the given word. This tool will help Tamil learners in understanding verb conjugation and noun declension in Tamil.

The following tool entitled “வினைத் திாிபாக்கி” (generator for verb conjugation) is the Verb Inflection Generator.

The following tool entitled “ஜபயர்த்திாிபாக்கி/peyartiripaakki” (Generator of noun declension) is the Noun Inflection Generator:
The following is the tool entitled “ஜொல் உருவக்கி/coluvuvaikki” (Word Generator) generates inflected words.
Onto-Thesaurus for Tamil

At present Onto-Thesaurus for Tamil has been completed with a vocabulary of 50000 words as a part of the project entitled “Computing Tools for Tamil Language Teaching and Learning”.

The word ontology refers to the hierarchical structure of entities and their relationships. The entities are noting but nodes and each node is dominated by their parent node in the hierarchical structure. The noted are related by semantic and lexical relations such as synonymy, homonymy, meronymy, antonymy, etc. Hierarchical structure is created for different types of semantic domains. The top domains are entities, events, abstracts and relationals. Entities consist of concrete nouns; events consist mostly of verbs and verbal nouns, abstracts consist of abstract nouns, adjectives and adverbs and relational consists of prepositions/postpositions, connectives, and some functional words or units. The hierarchical structure is converted into a visual representation using tree viewer. The ontology based thesaurus called as Onto-Thesaurus is also described here.

Building of Onto-Thesaurus

Generating ontology tree from a given huge database for a user’s query is the backbone activity for the Tamil Onto-Thesaurus which an intelligent information retrieval and visualization system. This type of tool provides a powerful way for data representation and knowledge mining process. The user can input search word to the system and extract the relevant information form the database. The information is given in a visual representation. A well-structured data base is needed for this purpose. The following table gives the different types of meaning relations established between words or lexical items and the unique way of representing them in the database for the ontology tree generation.
Synonymy
The lexical items which have the same meaning or which share same componental features of meaning are synonyms and the relationship existing between them is synonymy. Take, for examples, the relation existing between புத்தகம்/puttakam and நூல்/nuul is synonymy and புத்தகம்/puttakam and நூல்/nuul are synonyms. The synonyms are given inside the angle brackets (<> in the database of Onto-Thesaurus. For example the synonyms of cuuriyan/சுறுயன் are given in the database as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meaning Relations</th>
<th>Their Tamil Equivalents</th>
<th>Relation distinguishing Symbols used in the data base</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Synonymy</td>
<td>இனண்மை/iNaimoziyam</td>
<td>&lt;&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyponymy</td>
<td>வனகஜம்/vakaimoziyam</td>
<td>{ }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meronym</td>
<td>பகுதிஜம்/pakutimoziyam</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The relation between the epicene noun and the gender marked nouns.</td>
<td>பால்மை/paalmoziyam</td>
<td>$#$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antonymy</td>
<td>எதிர்மை/etirmoziyam</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The relation between the verb and the nouns derived from the verb.</td>
<td>பெயராக்கமை/peyaraakka moziyam</td>
<td>~ `</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The relation between a noun and the modifiers (adjectives and adverbs) derived from the noun</td>
<td>அனடமை/ataimoziyam</td>
<td>^ !</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Synonymy**
The lexical items which have the same meaning or which share same componental features of meaning are synonyms and the relationship existing between them is synonymy. Take, for examples, the relation existing between புத்தகம்/puttakam and நூல்/nuul is synonymy and புத்தகம்/puttakam and நூல்/nuul are synonyms. The synonyms are given inside the angle brackets (<>) in the database of Onto-Thesaurus. For example the synonyms of cuuriyan/சுறுயன் are given in the database as follows:
Hyponymy-Hypernymy

Hyponymy is the relationship which exists between specific and general lexical items, such that the former is included in the latter. The set of terms which are hyponyms of same superordinate term are co-hyponyms. The relationship existing between பசு/pacu ‘cow’ and எருன/erumai ‘buffalo’ with விலங்கு/vilanku ‘animal’ is hyponymy and பசு/pacu ‘cow’ and எருன/erumai ‘buffalo’ are co-hyponyms and are the hyponyms of the hypernym விலங்கு/vilanku ‘animal’. The hyponyms of a hypernym are given inside the curly brackets ({} in the database of Onto-Thesaurus. The following is an example from the database.

Meronymy-Holonymy

The part-whole relation between nouns is generally considered to be a semantic relation, called meronymy. Consequently, meronymy and hyponymy are intertwined in complex ways. For example, if beak and wing are meronyms of bird, and if காகம்/kaakam ‘crow’ is a hyponym of பறனவ/paravai ‘bird’, then by inheritance, அலகு/alaku ‘beak’ and சிர்கு/ciraku ‘wing’ must also be meronyms of காகம்/kaakam ‘crow’. The meronyms of a holonym are given inside the brackets “/ |”. The following is an example from the database.

244
Antonymy

The words that are opposites with respect to one feature of their meaning are said to be in the relation antonymy. They are antonyms to one another. Otherwise, they are very similar. For example the following are the sets of antonyms:

இருட்டாை iruTTaana ‘dark’ வெளிக்கமாணா veLiccamaana ‘light’,

tிறுமத்து/kuTTiaiyaana ‘short’ நிலாமாணா/niLamaana ‘long’, குட்டியாணா/kuTTiaiyaana ‘short’

The antonyms are related to one another in the database of the Tamil Onto-Thesaurus by giving one under the other using the brackets “% *”. The following examples will exemplify this relation.

The Relation between Epicene Nouns and the Gender Marked Nouns

In Tamil, there are many nouns which can be said as the epicene form (non-gender marked forms) of the gender marked nouns. For example வெல்லைகாரர்/veelaikaarar ‘servant’ has the male marked form வெல்லைகாரர்க்காரன்/veelaikkaaran ‘male servant’ and female marked form வெல்லைகாரை/veelaikkaari ‘servant woman’ The gender marked nouns are given under their corresponding epicene noun using the brackets “$ #”. The following example will exemplify this relation.

The text is in Tamil and contains examples of antonyms and the relation between epicene nouns and gender marked nouns in Tamil.
The Relationship between the Verb and the Nouns Derived from It

There are many nouns (i.e. verbal nouns) which can be considered as the derivatives of their respective verbs. For example, the nouns நிகழ்தல்/nikaztal 'happening' and நிகழ்ச்ெி/nikazcci 'event' can be said as the verbal nouns of the verb நிகழ்/nikaz 'happen'. The nouns derived from verbs are given inside the brackets "~ " . The following example will exemplify this.

நிகழ்வுகுறித்தனவ: {நிகழ்; ~ நிகழ்தல்; நிகழ்ச்சி; நிகழ்வு; `< சமயம்; ~ சமயத்தில்; சமயம்; ` விளை; > ~ விளைத்தல்; விளைவு; ` >தளிம; ~ தளிமக்; ` மரு; ~ மருந்தல்; மருந்து; மீன்; ~ மீன்தல்; ` கந்தர்; ~ கந்தர்தல்; ` பலி; ~ பலித்தல்; பலியன்; பலியன்; ~ பலியன்; ` }

The Relation between Nouns and the Adjectives and Adverbs Derived from Them:

There are many adjectives and adverbs which can be considered as derived from their related nouns. For example, the adverb அழகாை/azakaaka 'beautifully' and the adjective அழகாை/azakaana 'beautiful' are derived from the noun அழகு/azaku 'beauty'. The adjectives and adverbs derived from the concerned nouns are given inside the brackets "^!". The following example will exemplify this.

நீண்டகாலம்ஜதாடர்பாைனவ: {நீண்டகாலம்; ^ நீண்டகால ாக; ` நீடூழி; < ஜநடுங்காலம் ^ ஜநடுங்கால ாக; ! ஜரம்பகாலம்; ^ ஜரம்பகால ாக; ! நீண்டகநரம், < ஜநடுகநரம்; ஜநடுகநரம், ஜரம்பகநரம் நினறயகநரம்; > நினறயநாள்; பல்லாண்டு; நூறாண்டு, < நூற்றாண்டு > }

246
Language Teaching and Learning Tools

Under the Teaching and Learning Tools, the following seven tools have been developed: Learn the Alphabets, Noun Inflection Generator, Verb Inflection Generator, Person-Number-Gender, Tense Suffixes, Dictionary and Translator.

Tool for Learning Tamil Alphabets

A tool entitled “தமிழ் எழுத்துக்கணிப்பு கோள” (Learning Tamil Letters) has been prepared as one of the components of the project to help teaching and learning Tamil alphabets. The following is the GUI of the component.
Game Tool for Teaching and Learning Noun Inflections
A game tool named “ஜபயர் தியபாக்கி” has been prepared as one of the components of the project to help teaching and learning the person-number-gender inflection of verbs by “game method”.

Game Tool for Teaching and Learning Verb Inflections
A game tool named “வினைத் தியபாக்கி” has been prepared as one of the components of the project to help teaching and learning inflection of verbs by “game method”.

Game Tools for Teaching and Learning Person-Number-Gender
A game tool named “வினைத் தினண் எண் பால்/இடம் எண்பால் விகுதி” has been prepared as one of the components of the project to help teaching and learning the person-number-gender inflection of verbs by “game method”.

Game Tool for Teaching and Learning Tense Suffixes of Verbs
A tool named “காலவிகுதி/கால இனடநினல்” has been prepared as one of the components of the project to help teaching and learning the tense system of Tamil verbs by a “game method”.
A Smart English-Tamil Electronic Dictionary

A Smart English-Tamil Electronic dictionary has been developed as the fourth component of the project. It has nearly one lakh entries for general vocabulary. The technical vocabularies of various branches of knowledge have been integrated into the present super dictionary. A very useful GUI has been developed through which the user can get the information he expects from an English-Tamil bilingual dictionary. We hope to improve this tool with many user friendly and user useful components and develop it into a real smart English-Tamil dictionary.

![Dictionary Screenshot](image)

English to Tamil Rule Based Machine Translation System (RBMTS)

The ultimate aim of this research is to develop a Rule Based Machine Translation System (RBMT) using sentence simplification. The sentence pattern for English is SVO and Tamil is SOV. Complex and larger sentence are not easy to parse and translate. So, the sentence simplifier is also accommodated in the rule based system to split a large sentence into simple sentences. Machine translation is the process of translating sentence from one language to another language.
Here, English is the source language for the translation system and Tamil is the target language. During the translation process, the system needs to learn and get trained by linguistic rules. These rules are classified into two types, namely reordering rules and morphological rules. A bilingual dictionary has been created to support this automatic translation. Linguistic information act as a backbone for the proposed system. To evaluate the performance of the system, we have experimented by testing 250 sentence patterns and we got the overall accuracy about 0.7186. Module wise human evaluation has been done to understand the issues in each module.

The system accepts the input sentence from the user and passes it to the Stanford parser to generate the features used for translation process. After translation, morphological generator generates and provides morphological information for words in the input sentence. This process contains case marker, tense marker, PNG (Person Number Gender) marker. Finally morphological generator generates target sentence in the Tamil language. The following tool entitled “ஆங்கிலத்தில் தமிழ் பிரதானமைப்பு” is meant for teaching or learning Tamil using translation.
Conclusion
We have successfully completed the project and achieved the promised milestones. This lays foundation for enhancement in future Tamil computing. The efforts will take us further into Tamil oriented language processing. One can access all the tools prepared under the project “Computing Tools for Tamil Language Teaching and Learning” either through TVA website or through the following Amrita Vishwa Vidyapeetham Website: www.nlp.amrita.edu.

Bibliography
Challenges of Teaching English at the Rural Secondary Schools in Tamil Nadu- A Study

K. Kannan
D.B.Jain College (Autonomous),
Chennai
Tamil Nadu
kannan.nithish10@gmail.com

Abstract

Secondary level education is the base of the students for their future. Every year many of our students fail in the public examination and even those who pass in the existing exam system by memorizing and without achieving four skills, cannot display enough competence in English, secondary level has been chosen as it is the basic level and the teachers are entirely responsible for the student’s learning at this level. The main purpose of this study was to find out the challenges in teaching-learning English at the secondary level of rural area in Tamil Nadu. These study three methods of questionnaire were used to collect data from the students to evaluate the situation of English language teaching-learning in the secondary schools of the rural areas in Tamil Nadu. The study indicates that most of the rural schools students are weak in English due to lack of skilled and trained teachers, inadequate knowledge on pedagogy and so on. Some recommendations based on research findings have also been included in this paper to face those challenges.
Introduction
In the National Education Policy-2010, the primary curriculum has been revised and emphasis has been given on learning English as an international language for communicating locally and globally. The English textbooks of this level have been developed attain four language skills through meaningful and enjoyable activities. Emphasis has been given on listening and speaking skills as the foundation on which to develop reading and writing skills. The main purpose of using language is to communicate one’s needs, requirements, feelings, thoughts and ideas to others. Empirical studies indicate that many of the primary graduates are failing to learn language skills that they can use effectively. To learn language, understanding strategies need to be more explicitly discussed and individual interpretation of texts need to be valued inside the classroom. Children need to learn different reading strategies. For example, scanning, skimming and locating information throughout the text to solve different reading tribulations. All learning experiences do not necessarily lead to learning, unless subsequent opportunities for reflection, application, correlation and consolidation are formed. In case of English language teaching (ELT), several methodologists have suggested many potential roles for a language teacher. Richards and Rodgers (1986) consider teachers’ roles as part of the ‘propose’ component of a method, pointing out that these are related to the types of function teachers are expected to fulfil, the degree of control the teacher has over how learning takes place, the degree to which is the teacher is responsible for determining the content of what is skilled, and the interactional patterns that develop between teachers and learners. A teacher’s role as a facilitator entails the sub-roles of a “supervisor” of student’s learning, a “classroom manager”, a “consultant or adviser” and sometimes, a “co-communicator” with the learners. He talks about using certain “precise” terms for the roles that teachers play in
the classroom: controller, organizer, assessor, prompter, participant, resource, tutor and observer. Interactive communication in collaborative learning experiences help learners to develop their thinking through language and develop their language through thinking. Significant changes have been experienced in the communication dynamics of the world. English as a lingua franca has a paramount importance in equipping the students to take up the challenges of the competitive survival and growing globalization in developing countries. This is high time we started to see the future development of English as a world language and took proper initiatives to get learners to the global standard level. The global distributions of English are often described in terms of three contexts such as English as a Native Language (ENL), English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL). The main objectives of teaching English in primary level education in Tamil Nadu are to enable students to understand simple commands, requests and instructions in English and take them out. The students can speak and converse in simple English and also can read to comprehend the textbooks set for their age group and level. They also write words, simple sentences, passages, paragraphs, informal letters and numbers according to their age group and level. Although NCTB prepared English curriculum for the students of the primary level schools to consider proper approaches and methods, unfortunately the curriculum is not applied accurately especially in the rural areas. However, most of the students of the rural secondary schools are unable to attain the primary English language competencies due to prevailing challenges in our education system.

Current situation of English language in Tamil Nadu

Lord Macaulay in his Minutes expressed the importance of education that would be given to the natives through the medium of English. He mentioned two objectives of such education. The first was to create a class of natives who despite their blood and color through this education; would be English in culture and be able to “understand” between the rulers and the subjects. The second
was to create a “demand” for the European institutions. Clearly both the objectives were designed to serve the interest of the Masters, not of the Subjects. When it published, he said, “It would be the proudest day in English History”. In every level of education, there is a curriculum. Curriculum means a set of teaching materials that are taught in a school or a program. English curriculum at primary level of Tamil Nadu indicates the aim, teaching methods and techniques, teaching aids and evaluation system. To make English study effective from the primary to the tertiary level a lot of things like trained teachers, communicative teaching materials, financial, infra-structural and management amenities are required. But, these things are not available in the rural secondary schools in our state. Teaching learning in the rural areas is very pathetic. Here learning means memorizing only grammatical rules and textbook contents even without understanding. But unfortunately, there is discrimination between the urban and the rural students’ learning in case of English. The urban students have the easy access to watch cable television, go cyber café and read English newspapers. As a result they have the easy opportunity to use English outside their classroom. Besides, in some urban schools, computer education has been made mandatory from the very early of their schooling. This helps them to learn and to use English words and vocabulary. Their proficiency level is much higher than that of the rural students. It is notified in the public examinations and in the interviews.

**Research objectives**

The main aim of this study was to find out the challenges of applying English curriculum at primary level in rural schools of Tamil Nadu. To investigate the challenges, the specific objectives of this study.

i. To find out the present situation of English teaching learning methods in rural secondary schools of Tamil Nadu.

ii. To identify the challenges to apply the English curriculum in rural secondary schools of Tamil Nadu.
iii. To provide some recommendations to emancipate from the challenges of implementing the English curriculum at the rural secondary schools of Tamil Nadu.

**Methodology**
The study was concerned to investigate the present situation of English teaching-learning processes in rural areas and to identify the nature of the problems to implement the English curriculum in Tamil Nadu. It was designed in mixed approach. Two sets of questionnaire (teachers and students), observation checklist were used to follow the quantitative approach while interview was conducted as the qualitative approach.

This research was conducted in the rural area of Ramanathapuram, Sivagangai and Virudunagar district, Tamil Nadu. To select the sample of schools, purposive sampling procedure was used. 25 schools were selected for collecting data. For selecting students, only class VIII, IX and X were considered. 15 selected English teachers from each school, whose classes were observed, were considered as respondents for data collection through questionnaire; and other 10 English teachers, whose classes were not observed, were selected for interviews to find out in depth information. The questionnaire for the students was included mostly close ended and some open ended questions. Another questionnaire was used for the teachers whose classes were observed to find out the present situation of English teaching at level in rural areas. 12 English teachers, whose classes were not observed, were selected by purposive sampling for interviews. The investigate the teachers’ views about the challenges of teaching-learning English rural area schools. The checklist was used to find out classroom teaching-learning conditions and procedures towards English language learning.
Results and Discussion

From all respondents, 45% consent that they read English regularly 55% consent that they do not read English regularly. Among the respondents who do not read English regularly, believe that English is very hard, think that teachers do not make them understand precisely and as a result they do not like to study English. Among the respondents, consent that English teachers make speaking exercise in the classroom. Most of the students claim that teachers do not make regular writing exercise in the classroom. Only 50% consent that English teachers make writing exercise regularly in the classroom while 85% consent that English teachers sometimes make writing exercise in the classroom think that English teachers rarely make writing exercise in the class. From the respondents, 20% consent that English teachers always make reading exercise in the class whether 85% consent that English teachers sometimes make reading exercise and 55% think that English teachers rarely make reading exercise in the class. Unfortunately, all the learners claim that no secondary teacher make listening practice in classroom.

Among all the respondents, 30% consent that they sometimes follow the teacher’s guide; whereas 70% do not follow teaching process instructed by the teacher guide. 55% participated in training for professional development, whereas 45% did not take any professional development training. 25% have taken training to teach English; it is horrified that 75% have not taken any training to teach English. 45% consent that they teach after making lesson plan; whereas 85% consent that they do not make lesson plans to teach. 60% consent that they give lesson in the class in Tamil language, 10% consent that they take class by using English and 34% consent that they use both Tamil and English. 12% always use teaching aid to teach English; 45% often use teaching aids and 52% do use teaching aid to teach English.
From the observation of classroom, it was found that 5% teachers are excellent in terms of classroom management, 15% teachers are good in terms of classroom management, 40% are and 45% are in below average conditions; whereas 15% are totally in terms of classroom management. 35% teachers are in average condition in terms of students’ motivation towards learning which is measured on the basis of using various ways of giving motivation, 65% they try to motivate their students whereas 10% teachers do not have any to teach students perfectly and they do not try to motivate students towards learning. 10% teachers have good knowledge of the subject matter, 25% have average knowledge and 68% have below average most of the teachers are not good in English language and as a result they cannot teach properly. 30% of schools have average classroom learning environment 72% have below average classroom learning environment. 10% teachers are excellent in time management while 25% are good in time management, 35% are average in time management, 30% are below average in time management and 19% teachers do not maintain any time schedule which affects students' learning. 9% of teachers followed excellent evaluation technique and 25% are good in using technique of evaluation, 18% are in average, 30% are in below average and 31% are totally unable to use technique of evaluation, as a result they cannot evaluate students' learning.

Interview of teachers:
Ten English teachers, whose classes were not observed, were selected for interviews. Interview was taken to find out information about the rural secondary school education. Teachers’ responses have been explained in qualitative approach.

English subject related training
Most of the teachers consented that they did not take any subject related training from the PTI except one year Certificate in Education (C-in-ED) training that is compulsory for all secondary school teachers.
Teaching aids
Most of the teachers consent that they do not get any support for using extra teaching support from the school, government and non-government donor agencies.

Steps taken for the weak and special students in teaching
Most of the teachers admit that they give priority to the weak students. They try to make them understand the subject matter again. Two teachers claim that they sometimes call their parents and tell them about their duties to their children and sometimes they go their home to motivate them.

Steps taken for achieving the learning objective
All of the teachers in this study claim that they do not have apparent idea about the learning objectives and they do not have any skills to measure the learning objectives achieved or not.

Problems for implementing English curriculum in school
All of the teachers claim that there are many problems to implement English curriculum such as high student – teacher ratio, small class size, insufficient teaching aids, lack of subject based training, unavailability of teacher guide, scarcity of language lab, proper physical facilities such as school building, classroom size, electricity supply, library and books availability. Hygienic toilets etc. are also liable for learning environment.

Suggestions to overcome English curriculum implementation problems
All the consent that, to face these problems, government should take proper steps such as recruit more teachers in secondary schools to reduce teacher–student ratio, increase contact hours, provide more teaching aids, subject based
training and assure the supply of guide in time. They also suggest that various NGOs can also help to solve those problems.

Conclusion
The Government of Tamil Nadu has taken various steps such as compulsory secondary education, Zila Prathamik Shiksha etc. for the improvement of the rural people of Tamil Nadu. To cope up with the needs of the learners, National Education Policy-2010 has been passed. The progress should be observed by a project, and research should be done. This study aimed to identify challenges in teaching-learning English at primary level in rural areas of Tamil Nadu and the study revealed that teachers’ inadequate knowledge on pedagogy, higher student-teacher ratio, class size, limited contact hours, lack of proper teachers’ training, lack of quality teachers, unavailability of language skills learning tools are the most problematic factors. Measures such as recruiting high qualified and subject specialist teacher, providing adequate training for their professional development, increasing salary level so that they can respect their own jobs, providing sufficient teaching aids for learning language skills, wide-ranging awareness programmes, changes in the learning methods and techniques, making classroom activities more experimental and enjoyable for the children and of course upgrading the school infrastructure are required for the solution of these problems. Here, we would like to encourage other researchers to do a comparative study about urban and rural students’ competency in English language and find out the solutions to overcome the thwarts of English language learning. It can be affirmed that the addressed issues will ensure a congenial teaching environment at the rural primary level of secondary schools in Tamil Nadu.
Bibliography
Tudor, I. (1993), Teacher roles in The Learner- Centeed Class room.
The Issue of Slow Learners among Primary School Students

N. Suppiah  
suppiah@fpm.upsi.edu.my

Chia, V. K. E.  
M20161000234@siswa.upsi.edu.my

C. Sangkari  
sangkarichandra@yahoo.com

Sandra Suffian  
sandrasuffian@gmail.com

Noor Athirah Sukri  
noorathirah91@yahoo.com

Sultan Idris Education University,  
Tanjung Malim 35900  
Perak

Abstract

In this era of globalization, one of the problems that occur among primary school students is the slow learner issue. The problems faced by slow learners have hindered their ability of mastering, confidence and social skills. This research
has been carried out with three objectives, such as identifying the characteristics of slow learners, identify the factors contributing to slow learners problem, identify effects towards the slow learners, and identify the suitable steps to prevent slow learners problem. This is a qualitative research where researchers collect data from the teachers using a set of interview questions. The data collected in this research is analysed and interpreted through the Hermeneutic method. The findings show that the characteristics of slow learners can be categorised into behavioural and cognitive domains. Factors contributing to the slow learners issue are the teaching method, cognitive ability, environmental factor, family, peers and others. The slow learners have poor skills in reading, writing, counting, communication, and confident level which leads to high risk of failing in examinations. The concerned parties such as teachers, parents, society and government have to collaborate to solve the issues faced by slow learners. The findings of this research can be used to understand the characteristics, factors and effects of slow learners. Thus, the effective measures should be carried out to solve the slow learners’ problem as they can achieve academic excellence if proper guidance is given to them.

**Key word:** slow learners, primary school, Hermeneutic method

**Introduction**

Primary school students are the future assets of the country to continue the nation’s continuity in advancing the country ahead of Vision 2020. The emphasis and the concept of diversity of intelligence as well as the differences of individual students make education rehabilitation as an option in helping them to achieve the goals of life and the success of the education system in the country. Rehabilitation is a different approach than the ordinary class in the national school system.
Education rehabilitation focuses on the objective of restoring a deficiency or a defect in shaping students’ learning skills. Not only parents, but the society and government also worry about the slow learners. Low achievement problems or student learning problems are usually influenced by psychological, biological and environmental factors (Roselan, 2003). Students who inherit a low level of intelligence often show emotional disturbances such as anxiety, fear, anger and various other emotions that definitely affect focus and attention of learning (Zulkifley, 2006).

The term 'learning problem' was began to be used in the 1980s to replace the term 'defective mind' as the use of this term is towards a more positive direction and reduces the shame to explain about people who have limited intellectual level and are developing at a slower level compared to ordinary people (Mohamed, 2005). The disability experienced can be categorized according to the level of functionality of children in cognitive abilities, social behaviour or social development, language proficiency (oral or speech), reading ability, developmental skills and counting skills. However, learning problem among slow learners is not a barrier or reason for the teachers and school to avoid from helping the students who face difficulties in learning. Various efforts and assistance from the government and the Ministry of Education Malaysia (KPM) should be a catalyst and encouragement for teachers and schools to continue helping students with disabilities in learning.

**Research objectives**

This study is based on a number of objectives that have been identified. The objectives of the study are as follows:

i. Identify the characteristics of the slow learner.

ii. Identify the factors that contribute to the problems among slow learners.

iii. Identify the main effects on the problem of slow learners.
iv. Identify the steps taken by concerned parties to solve the slow learners’ problem.

Research Questions
This study aims to answer the questions below:

i. What are the characteristics of the slow learners?

ii. What are the factors that contribute to the problems among slow learners?

iii. What are the main effects on the problem of slow learners?

iv. What are the steps taken by concerned parties to solve the slow learners’ problem?

Literature Review
According to Siti and Ariffin (2015), slow learners are students with low cognitive levels and have difficulty in understanding basic skills. Mastering ability of slow learners are not the same as ordinary students and teachers need to teach them based on their suitability and mastery. Slow learners are students with cognitive ability (IQ) below average. Slow learning is a condition where one fails to interpret something in line with the development of his or her mind (Comer & Gould, 2011). This statement is in line with Malik, Rehman & Hanif (2012), which states that the level of intellectual intelligence (IQ) of slow learners is between 75 and 89. Actually, slow learners are ordinary students but have problems in learning where they are simply not interested to study under the education system used for normal students.

Thakaa and Abeer (2014) stressed that some of the features identified during their experience as a special education teacher were the low achievement of these slow learners, they are silent, inactive and their interaction is limited due to difficulty in receiving instructions and unable to communicate as a normal child. In their writing, they have undeveloped ideas and the formation of irregular
ideas coupled with limited vocabulary and inaccurate grammar. Factor that causes learning problems among slow learners is genetic factor which refers to difficulty in brain development and lack of motivation. Slow learners should get special assistance such as special programs guided by trained teachers.

**Post-Studies Relevant To Slow Learner Problem**

In a study conducted by Sangeeta (2011), she thinks that the level of intellectual intelligence (IQ) of slow learner is in the range of 76 to 89. The achievement of slow learner is not excellent and they are always lagged behind and slow compared to their classmates. Slow learners need special help and excessive attention from teachers in their learning. Sangeeta (2011) has classified the characteristics of slow learners into four types: a) limited cognitive capacity, b) weak memory, c) less focus and d) inability to provide feedback. She also suggested that teachers need to diversify teaching methods such as audio, pictures, ICT and learning collaboratively in teaching and learning sessions to facilitate the mastery of learning content amongst students. The problem of slow learners should be noted because neglecting them will cause their problems to be more serious. Special rehabilitation programs, parental and peer support and the use of creative teaching strategies can help students improve their confidence and have a positive impact on learning.

The study conducted by Ray Suranjana, Ray Ujjani and Ray Manas Kanti (2015), shows that the slow learners are students who get anxious easily, lack of motivation, low self-esteem and less focused. They also have problem in processing information received and learned. The findings show that the implementation of the Mentor Mentee Program succeeded in raising the self-esteem of the students as they feel self-centred. Teachers are encouraged to provide repetitive reviews and drills to help in increasing cognitive levels among slow learners. Individual learning from teachers is also important in helping to improve metacognitive and concentration of slow learners.
Study related to the factors that led to the low achievement problem among slow learners was conducted by Kannan, Vijayaragavan, Pankaj, Siganathan and Praveena (2015). Kannan et al., (2015) argues that confidence plays an important role in helping students to achieve good performance and emotional control. Students with good academic achievement can usually understand the teaching content of teachers in the classroom. Slow learners who have always failed in the examination is due to low concentration, confidence and intellectual intelligence (IQ) levels.

In conclusion, previous studies have shown that the problem of learning is an issue that requires attention to help the development of learning and the future of slow learners. Hence, it can be concluded that studies on the problem of slow learners’ learning are still under consideration in this country, and this paper is an addition to the treasure of knowledge in slow learners’ research.

**Hermeneutics Analysis Method**

Hermeneutical Method is a methodology used to interpret text essays. The overall reading and research is done on essays to expose the use of language styles that help students write essays effectively. This approach emphasizes the qualitative interpretation and describes the meaning, the express and implied truth (lumens) in a text or work produced by a student. The interpretation of the meaning through the text of the essay is carried out through ontopretation which is the movement of the external structure (reading and reasoning) to the internal structure to unravel the meaning implicit in the students' essays. According to Loganathan (1992), Hermeneutics emphasizes the text as a particular study material and attempts to interpret and understand the rationality of human thinking and the purpose contained in it. The Hermeneutical method uses an interpretive form of interpretation and its primary focus is to interpret the result of what humans produce and is meaningful.
Hermeneutical method is used in social and humanitarian sciences as a method of interpretation of texts, for example essays. The term Hermeneutic is shared by other fields of knowledge such as philosophy, sociology, history, psychology, law and so forth. This statement is supported by Suppiah (2014), who argues that Hermeneutics is a science that speaks of human behaviour through appropriate methodology in the context of the present world. The Hermeneutical process is used to make interpretations of text and linguistics so that students can understand and explore when viewing and reading a text. With the inimitable understanding of the students, interpreting the main ideas, concepts and theories are relevant.

According to Boell and Kecmanovic (2014), Hermeneutic can also be considered a process involving reading, mapping and classifying, critical assessment, argument development, problem or question (research problem / questions), as well as searching. This statement in line with Friesen, Henriksson and Saevi (2012), Hermeneutics is the process of interpreting and understanding the meaning of the text based on our ontology. It is very closely related to understanding the meaning and content of the written experience. In Hermeneutics, the kind of phenomenology is open to revision and reinterpretation, students will think actively by asking questions when reading a text.

Suppiah (2016) notes that the Hermeneutical method focuses on text as a data source, an example of a text consisting of interviews transcripts, diaries, essays, letters and others. The method used in the Hermeneutical approach begins with text. Next, it identifies meaningful information or information in text that is then used to generate themes or categories from a bunch of texts. Hermeneutics, in general, is a way of finding the meaning of words by interpreting symbols in the form of texts, which involve the ability to interpret past experiences that are not experienced and bring into the future.
Methodology
This study was conducted using qualitative assessment method, namely data analysis and response based on the questionnaire obtained from primary school teachers. The analysis through Hermeneutic method was used to analyze the data and information obtained.

Research Design
The design of this study is qualitative in which researchers use a set of questionnaires to obtain data and information from primary school teachers. The questionnaire was provided by the researchers and contained 20 questions related to the topic of "slow learner" problem. Researchers have applied Hermeneutic method to interpret data obtained from primary school teachers.

The main purpose of the researcher for using the Hermeneutical method in this study is to interpret the responses given by primary school teachers based on the set of questionnaire distributed. Data and information obtained through the questionnaire can help the researchers to analyse the problems faced by slow learner. With these, appropriate programs can be designed and implemented to guide and assist students in their learning and daily lives.

Research Method
This is a descriptive study using Hermeneutic analysis. In this study, researchers used Hermeneutic analysis which is a branch of qualitative. Hermeneutical methods are used in social and human sciences. The term Hermeneutic is viewed as a method of interpreting texts, it is ideally shared by philosophical, sociological, psychological, literary criticisms, and so on. In addition, the Hermeneutical method is also an interpretive method. Researchers argue that qualitative methods are best used in this study as they are closely related to human psychology and behaviour.
Samples and Sampling
The sample of this study consists of 20 primary school teachers who have taught slow learners. All selected teachers are from five schools in Malaysia. The schools are chosen from different states such as Malacca, Johor Bahru, Perak and Selangor. Table 1 shows sample studies based on their gender and school location. In terms of gender, 3 (30%) are male teachers and 7 (70%) are female teachers; while in terms of school location, teachers are from urban schools and 4 are teachers from rural schools. The majority of the teachers selected are students who teach English and Malay Language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3 (30%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7 (70%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>6 (60%)</td>
<td>4 (40%)</td>
<td>10 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 1: Research respondent based on sex and school area*

Research Instrument
The researchers provided a set of questionnaires that contained 20 questions relating to the topic of slow learners among primary school students. In this set of questionnaires, it is divided into four sub-topics pertaining to the problem of slow learners.

Discussions on Research Findings
The questionnaire in this study consisted of four elements, the characteristic of the students, the factor of the slow learners, the effect to the slow learners, and the final step to identify steps to overcome the problem of reading among slow learners.
Research Question 1: What are the characteristics of the slow learner?
For the analysis of research findings on the characteristic of the slow learner is that it is divided into two aspects namely the behavioral aspect and the second is the cognitive aspect. In terms of behavior, slow learners are silent, often encounter problems in communicating, respond slowly and have difficulties to control emotions. While in cognitive aspects, slow learners face difficulty to understand and remember a lesson, easy to forget, and slow in language development. The limited cognitive level of students has affected their learning as it is difficult to understand the contents of the teaching, less focused, easily forgets and so forth.

Research Question 2: What are the factors that contribute to the problems among slow learners?
Based on the findings of the researchers, there are three main factors that cause difficulties among primary school students, namely 1) teaching method, 2) environmental factors and 3) cognitive ability. Other factors found in the analysis were family factors, peer factors, teaching method factors, classroom, psychological factors and nutritional factors. Teaching methods refers to the teachers implementing less attractive teaching strategies such as the traditional "chalk and talk" method and do not use teaching aids in learning. The lack of patience and caring attitude of a teacher also affects the content understanding of a slow learner. For environmental factors, the atmosphere and climate of the classroom plays an important role in improving the adherence spirit of the students. Uncomfortable classroom atmosphere will affect the mastery and understanding of slow learners. Cognitive ability factors are such as poor memory and limited cognitive levels.

Whereas, family factors are like family problems, lack of love and encouragement from parents. Peers are also factors that influence the spirit of learning of slow learners in the classroom. The content of teaching that is too
difficult and challenging cause difficulties for the slow learners to understand it. Psychological factors such as not being able to control emotional and non-nutritious dietary practices also cause the slow learners to not master and understand the contents of the teaching.

Research Question 3: What are the main effects on the problem of slow learners?
Based on the findings analysis, the researchers have identified that there are six main effects on the problem of slow learners among primary school children. The six effects are as follows: 1) weak in reading skills. This is because slow learners tend to forget easily and have a poor thinking ability. They cannot pronounce and read syllables, words or letters correctly. 2) weak in terms of writing skills. Slow learners have difficulty in writing because they have weak psychomotor and this causes them to take longer in the writing process. 3) weak in terms of calculating skills. Slow learners take a long time to calculate and have difficulty in differentiating the value of money. 4) encountered social problems and lack of confidence. Slow learners usually face social problems. They cannot communicate fluently and often feel inferior and selfish. This situation causes them to always be ridiculed and scolded by friends. 5) poor memory. The memory of the slow learners is low and this situation makes them difficult to remember what they learn and experience difficulty in using the mind to solve the problem. Cognitive levels and limited information acceptance result in their lack of focus, understanding and attention in teaching and learning sessions. 6) High risk of failing in exams as the level of mastery of slow learners is limited compared to normal students. They are not capable of acquiring reading, writing and counting skills well and are weak in terms of cognitive and maturity.

Research Question 4: What are the steps taken by concerned parties to solve the slow learners' problem?
According to the study, appropriate measures can be taken by various parties to assist in solving the problem of slow learners in the primary school. Among the
parties who need to cooperate to reduce issues related to the problems among the students are as teachers, parents, school, community and government. 1) Teachers are encouraged to use appropriate pedagogy and teaching methods such as group activity, scaffolding techniques, game-based or music-based learning in teaching and learning. Teachers should always be aware of the problems of students, as well as be patient and sincere in providing guidance. 2) On behalf of parents, they should be concerned about their child's behavior, and thinking ability. In addition, they should monitor the development of their children. Parents are also encouraged to enhance good communication with teachers as well as devote more time to help and accompany the child in learning. 3) The school should implement the recovery programs and prepare special classes and appropriate teaching materials. In addition, the government is also encouraged to hold talks related to the problem of slow learners and appoint special teachers who are qualified to teach them. A conducive learning environment and special provisions are also recommended for organizing slow learner programs. 4) Among the steps that local people need to do is to engage in activities such as painting, coloring and creating collages. Local communities are also advised to provide advertisements, talks and publications about the problems faced by the slow learners through campaigns. 5) The government is intended to provide teachers and parents with workshops and courses as well as to develop standard teaching modules. In addition, financial assistance should also be given to families with slow learners.

**Conclusion**

The problem of slow learners should not be underestimated as children are the pillars of the nation in the future. Therefore, agencies under MOE such as the Curriculum Development Center, Teacher Education and Training Division and others need to identify appropriate ways, measures and programs to address the problem of reading amongst these students. All parties such as family or parents, teachers, school authorities, local communities and the government
need to play their part in addressing the problem of pupils that exist amongst students in this primary school. This academic achievement and mastery of the students' skills will be affected if the problem of this slow learner is not reduced and overcome.

Acknowledgement
We would like to extend our gratitude to Faculty of Human Development, Research Management and Innovation Centre (RMIC), and Human Resource Department of Sultan Idris Education University for approving the paper presentation in International Conference of Language, Linguistics & Social Science 2018 (ICLLSS 2018).

Bibliography


ABSTRACT

Globalization is a process with broader cultural, political, and environmental dimensions that results from human innovation and technological progress, integration of economies around the world, and the movement of people and knowledge across international borders (IMF, 2002). Even though globalization has rapid change over the world for past few decades, many schools and school systems have had difficulty reacting to and teaching about these changes worldwide. Schools need to better prepare students for the world in which they will live. This radically means giving as students a grounding in democracy, geography, world history, major religions ethics, foreign languages and cultures, social studies, and international economics, as well as a broad understanding of global issues and challenges. Teachers and educators should consider how to better support global and international education. They must also consider the current role of such studies within the curriculum and how to strengthen that role within the context of the standards and accountability movement and reform efforts currently under way. Thus, offering a synopsis of current and historical efforts to address the global and international needs of students. A clearer picture of the structures and policies needed to support global and international
education emerged through our system of education, research and international advocacy efforts. This paper deals with the current efforts done by educators to educate the students with appropriate skills and global trends. Explaining and differentiating with multiple curricular systems.

**Keywords:** English Language Teaching, Curriculum Development, teaching and learning.

**Introduction**

Language is one of the most effective and powerful weapons of social behavior. The normal way of transfer of information is through language, we use language to send vital social messages about who we are, where we come from, and who we associate with. It often makes others realize how correctly we may judge a person's background, character, and intentions based simply upon the person's language, dialect, or even the choice of a single word.

Language is a constituent element of civilization. It raised mankind from early man of a savage state to the plane which he was capable of reaching. Man could not become man except by language. An essential point is that man differs from animals by language. Man alone is the sole possessor of Language. No doubt animals exhibit certain degree of power of communication but that is not only inferior in degree to human language.

Language is one of the most marked, as well as fundamental characteristic of faculties of man. The importance of language for man and society cannot be minimized. Its expression of culture shows language is a fundamental aspect. It is the tool that conveys tradition and values related to group identity. The purpose of this paper is to show that a common language is one of the most important features of a community and the ceaseless use of the same language is the most certain proof of the historical continuity of a community of people.
There are many cultures and many nationalities use different curriculum to develop their concept of language. It influences social nature of a language and relations between language occurrence and a society with its inherent culture.

Language is not only a mode of communication between individuals but it is also a way for the expression of their personality. Language moulds the individual from infancy. The child comes to know most of the things of the world through language. This unit deals with meaning, concept and acquisition of language, home language, school language, oral language and written language. Further, it deals with functions of language and relationship between language and culture.

**Language Across Curriculum (LAC)**

The Language across the Curriculum (LAC) movement follows the example set by the Writing across Curriculum (WAC) movement of the 1980s, which sought to use writing as a central learning tool in classes outside the English department. Rather than relegating writing instruction to classes in literature or composition, WAC provides advice and assistance to students for the inculcation of the skills needed for writing in each curricular specialty. Similarly, LAC works with faculty to identify the specific vocabulary and genres that students need in order to function effectively in another language in their respective disciplines (Fichera & Straight, 1997)

Language across Curriculum draws more attention upon the content –based language instruction movement in 1990’s. The main aspect of Teaching and Learning depends on the language of that environment. Language and literacy background of students was influenced by classroom interactions, pedagogical decisions and the nature of students’ learning. Thus it is important to understand the language background either oral or written is ensured by classroom
interaction. Instructors, teachers and trainers should be aware and sensitive to the language diversity in the existing classrooms.

Language education is not just confined to the classroom language. A classroom of different language differs in many ways. For instance, a science, social science or a mathematic classroom differs from the language taught as a main language classroom. Language, the subject means learning the terminology, understanding of the topic, concepts and then discussing the majority in the language. Thus, evolving a critical view of the concept of the language.

Classroom Interactions

Learning in classrooms is primarily accomplished through language. Teachers lecture, asking questions, initiate discussions, and assign reading and writing tasks. Students engage in academic tasks through reading, writing, exploring the Internet, giving verbal answers to teacher questions, listening to teacher lectures and student presentations, participating in whole-class and instructional peer group discussions, memorizing written text and vocabulary, and so on.

Instructions that emphasizes a useful comprehension, communicative production yielding superior receptive and expressive accuracy, complexity and fluency. A student learning a language depends on their purpose to learn it. Students should be encouraged by the trainers to consult books, talk to different people of different languages and gather material related to English from library or even from internet. Such type of policy of language across the curriculum will foster a genuine multilingualism in schools.

Instructing history related stories, poems, songs, drama that link children to their cultural heritage, thus promoting an opportunity to make them understand their own experiences and develop sensitivity to others. Interactions in classroom done by a teacher are measured as more than two-thirds of the time. Few students contribute most of the answers raised by the teachers, boys are
talkative than girls in the classroom, students sitting in first and middle benches contribute more than last benches and side benchers in a classroom. Classroom has been identified into three different patterns by Bracha Alpert as Silent classroom, Controlled classroom and Active classroom.

Classrooms patterns are denoted by the diagram. A silent classroom does not show any growth in progress because it's a teacher who alone speaks all the time. This classroom pattern does not give space for the student to interact with the teacher. Controlled pattern shows a control of the teacher towards the students. They are allowed only to answer the questions asked to them. Finally, active classroom pattern shows an active and hyper interest of the students in the subject as well as good progressive environment in studies. Teachers facilitate the students and make them interactive in the classroom.

**Conclusion**
Learning about Language is made through many skills. Most obvious classroom practice for learning a curriculum is through grammar and spelling method. Another typical classroom practice for learning about language curriculum is through the instruction of a second language.
Learning a second language can mean two things. One is the learning of a foreign language or the learning of English by those whose native language is not English. Second is that the teaching of language as second language which includes coverage of the grammar, vocabulary structures, and history of the language.

Language is not an instinctive, it is conventional. No language was created in a day out of a mutually agreed upon formula by a group of humans. Language is the outcome of evolution and convention. Each generation transmits their own convention on to the next. Like all human institutions languages also change and die, grow and expand. Every language then is a convention in a community.

Thus language should be promoted to global stranded by the instructors following active classroom patterns in classrooms. Nowadays, skills related to teaching through internet are more effective among the students. Pictures, power points, blogs, paintings, gifs, audios and videos make sessions more interesting for students. Thus giving them multiple dimensions in learning a language help them go ahead.

**Bibliography**


Chapter 28

The Vanishing Language and Culture of the Koragas in Kasaragod

Anjali V Kumar
Central University of Kerala,
Kerala
anjalivijayakumar12@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

This paper aims to give a preliminary study of the Koraga community in Kasaragod with special reference to their sociocultural setting and their language called Koraga language. Koragas are a group of primitive tribes settled in several colonies in the Badiadka and Pulikkor panchayats of Kasaragod. Basket making is their main source of income and being the earliest inhabitants of this land they are stakeholders of indigenous knowledge relating to medicine, agriculture, forest, etc. Based on UNESCO’s method of Language Vitality and Endangerment and other Statistical reports it was found that Koraga is a critically endangered language. Language and culture are strongly interrelated and thus, along with their language, their culture is also dying out. The paper gives a brief description about the Koraga community in Kasargod, the sociocultural practices which were prevalent in the community and compares it with the current sociocultural setting. It also discusses the factors which led to the endangerment of the language and ends by discussing the ways through which this language could be revived ad revitalised. This study was carried out by eliciting data from the Koragas belonging to the Perdala colony in the Badiadka panchayat of Kasaragod. The data was elicited by interacting with the community members through casual talks and through personal interviews which included structured
and unstructured questionnaires and also through participant observation methods.

**Keywords**: Linguistics, Sociocultural, Endangerment, Marginalized, Vitality

**Introduction**
Koragas are one among the five primitive tribal groups in Kerala. They are found in the Dakshina Kannada district of Karnataka and Kasaragod district of Kerala. The Koragas in Kerala are a group of aboriginal people settled in Kasaragod, the northernmost district of Kerala. The Koragas in Kasaragod are localized in about more than hundreds of settlements in Kanyapaadi, Bela, Kaadamana, Manjeshwar, Kaaryaad, Enmakaje, Puthige, Vidyanagar, Pulikoor, Kumbla and Badiadka. They have a distinct lifestyle and culture and still possess their indigenous belief systems. They have poor living conditions and are being deprived of from the living conditions of the surrounding mainstream society. They consider themselves to be inferior and thus remain marginalized from the upper sections of the society. Even after seven decades of Indian Independence, they remain segregated and marginalized from the mainstream society and are currently on the verge of extinction. They possess native knowledge regarding medicines and have their own ethnic practices for healing diseases. Thus, they are having certain knowledge systems and beliefs which should be preserved without allowing them to perish.

**Sociocultural situation of the Koragas**
The Koragas have their unique social and cultural practices which makes them distinct from the surrounding society. The Koraga habitat or settlement was earlier known as Koppa. They are currently living in houses provided by the Government. They have been living in this place for more than ten years and before settling in these colonies, they were localized in tents and caravans in the hilly forest regions of Kasaragod. They were migrated to their new settlement
and the Government made houses and colonies and made them shift to these settlements. The houses have two or three rooms and in most of the houses, there are more than six or seven members. An interesting feature regarding these tribes is that they will remain only in colonies along with the members of their ethnic group and will not remain isolated from their group members. If they are being allotted houses by the Government in another place, they reject to move to that place and remains in their place only.

Community
The community is known as Koraga by both the native people and insiders and by the outsiders. The name of the language is same as the community name and is called Koraga Bhasha. The Koraga language spoken in Kerala has variation from the language spoken in Karnataka. But, still they can understand the variety of one another. Some of the members from this group have been converted to Christianity. These people live in the towns of Kasaragod. They live in Seethangoli, Bela, etc. and they lead a superior life compared to others. The tribal community has a chief who is considered as a representative of God and he will be the one who presides over each and every occasions of the community. The chief is called as ‘moopan’ and Battya is the main chief of the community. Apart from the ‘moopan’ who presides over the main activities of the community, there are also certain other representatives who deal with carrying out other small affairs of the community. One of the most important features regarding the community is that, though being a primitive community, the community is female oriented and gives equal status to both men and women. The women folk make and sell baskets earn income and they manage and look after their families.

Clans
The clan system of Koragas in Kasaragod is distinct from those of the Koragas in Karnataka. The Koragas in Kasaragod are divided into four clans. They call it as ‘bari’. The four clans are;
The 'bari' called Maanadher has the highest population compared to the others. The members belonging to this clan are found in the Perdala colony of Badiadka. The members belonging to Baadhir community are settled mostly in Kanyapaadi. The people belonging to Kurumudhe are localized in Puthige and Nakkur. The people belonging to the clan Mundadhau is found in Bela.

Ceremonies and Celebrations
Some of the ceremonies and celebrations related to the life cycle include;

Birth and Naming
On the third day of a child's birth, elderly members come and assign names to the children. In most cases they will be given the names of their great grandparents. On the third day a black thread will be tied to the waist of the baby, after this the baby will be transferred to the cradle. Some examples of the names in their community are Baaya, Badiyathi, Badiya, Chona, Chaniya, etc. The naming pattern for proper names includes the assigning of first names only. Surname or the title of community will not be given along with the names. Nowadays, the names are changed when the children are admitted to school. They are being given other names. In those cases, the father's name is also given along with the first name. Some of the elderly members who haven’t gone to school have not changed their name.

Girl attaining puberty
The most important ceremony for the Koragas is to celebrate a girl attaining puberty. This will be celebrated like a marriage ceremony, by inviting all the
members of the community and giving a great feast in which cooked chicken is the main dish. As the community members are economically backward, nowadays they have started celebrating it through sharing. If one girl has attained maturity and there is another girl of the same age group, who is either mature or immature, they started celebrating it together. This is because by sharing the money the economic burden of both the families can be reduced.

Marriage
The community members are not allowed to marry from within their clans as the members belonging to a ‘bari’ are considered to be family members. But, they can marry from other clans within the Koraga community. Monogamy is the type of marriage practiced in the community in which one man marries one woman only. Based on the rules and regulations of marriage followed in the community, Endogamy is the type of marriage practiced in which life partners are selected from the same ethnic group. The bride's family has to pay the bride's price to the man's family for marriage and the moopan presides over the marriage. The community members have the freedom to choose to remain married or unmarried. Marriages that have taken place over the last few years in the community were love marriages. It is considered to be an offence and after the marriage they have to offer a one rupee coin in front of their deity in the presence of the chief of the tribe and pray and repent for it.

Death
The death is mourned by the members of the whole family and they consider it to be a way of meeting their forefathers. After three days of death, they will prepare dishes and offer it to everyone.

Attire and Adornment
It was a tradition for the Koragas to wear a cap made of palm spathe. They were considered to be the people wearing only a piece of cloth around their waist with
nothing to cover the upper part of the body. But nowadays situations have changed and they started wearing clothes in the same way as other people do. They were earlier used to wear ornaments made of seeds from certain plants and bones of animals. But, nowadays the situation has changed and they don't have anything like that. The married women wear 'karimanimala', a chain made of black beads, which is tied by the bride to the bridegroom's neck during marriage. The married women also wear a toe ring made of silver, which is a part of their identity. The people from other communities donate dresses to the Koragas. A significant change in dress pattern can be seen across generations.

**Food Culture**

Koragas can basically be considered as a food gathering tribe. The staple food of the Koragas is cooked rice gruel which is followed by the community members throughout the district. The elder generation acknowledge of eating roots, tubers and leaves of plants earlier. The Government provides direct supply of rice, green gram, etc. and they have rice gruel for breakfast, lunch and dinner. Cooked chicken is served on main occasions and festivals. Toddy is the main beverage of the Koraga community and both men and women drink toddy. They also serve toddy on special occasions. Toddy is also used to offer to their deities. Both men and women of the community is severely addicted to alcohol and it is a severe problem of the community today. Their food patterns lack proper nutrition and as there are many members in a family, all the members cannot get sufficient food which is unhealthy.

**Worship and Rituals**

The community still stick on to their indigenous belief system, and they do believe in rebirth. They worship natural objects like stones and trees, and consider them to be their deities. Strychnine tree (Kanchiramaram) and a few stones kept near the tree are worshipped by them. They do Pooja and offerings to this tree. They do animal sacrifices to please their deity. They have a ritual
called 'Kalajji' performed by the members of a 'bari' in which they sacrifice a hen before their deity. They have Gods like 'Koraga Thanniya' and a Koraga theyyyam called 'Koragajja' which they worship and do offerings to.

**Native festivals and Entertainment**

The Koragas have their own naive festivals and practices. During Dusshera, the Koragas dress in black colour, wear masks and put black colour on their face and body and they roam about in the place beating drums. The beating of Dholu is carried out by them with the belief that the music of Koragas especially the sound of Dholu has the ability to drive away the evil forces. The Koragas have a flute made of bamboo piece and they also use drums. As a part of their tradition, they apply black colour on their face and body and plays flute, beats the drum and goes throughout houses and dance. This is known as 'Koraga nrutham' and they call this culture as 'Koraga battund huvappa'.

**Traditional occupation**

Basket making is the traditional occupation of the Koraga tribes and it is their main source of income. It is a part of their identity. The indigenous knowledge system of the community is being reflected in the basket making. They know which plants are used for making big baskets, small ones and so on. They use sickles and hammers for making different types of baskets. Both men and women go in groups to the forests and collect the creepers and plants they need to make the baskets. The younger generations below twenty five years have little knowledge on basket making, and they show no interest in the same. Nowadays, they have started doing agricultural labours for small wages.

**Education, Organizations and Judiciary**

The tribal folk have started realising the importance of education and most members of the younger generation are literate and educated. While considering the sex ratio of the educated, girls are more educated than boys. There are about
twenty from all the colonies who have completed Higher Secondary and Degree education. Currently those who have passed Matriculation have done One Time Registration of Public Service Commission. They have cultural organizations like Koraga kutta sanghas and Koraga Abhidhi Sanghas for ensuring the development of the Koraga community. The community has the ability for social control i.e. the society has the ability to regulate itself. If any dispute occurs, it will be settled by the Chief or 'Mooppan' and he is the one who decides which punishment or penalty should be given for the crimes.

**Language**

Koraga bhasha is the native language or the mother tongue of the Koragas. The language is a non literary language having only spoken form and no written form. There aren’t any books published in their mother tongue apart from some research works about the community and language. The languages which are in contact with Koraga language are Tulu, Kannada and Malayalam and most of them are bilinguals and multi-linguals. They can understand the languages Tulu, Kannada, Malayalam and can also speak these languages. Koraga language is closely related to Tulu language, and most of the speakers refer to the language as an unrefined tougher variety of Tulu. People from Perdala colony in Badiadka can also speak and understand Tamil and most of them are admirers of Tamil language. These admirations have taken place because of movies and shows in Tamil language which they watch through the Television. Those who have gone to school can read and write in Kannada, as they have studied in schools were Kannada is the medium of instruction. The younger generations also know English. Though, they can’t converse well in English, they could understand basic terminologies.

Domains of language use: They use their own language at home for speaking with parents, grandparents, siblings, pets, the community members, carrying out religious activities, etc. i.e. they use their native language for Intra group
communication. They use Kannada, Tulu and Malayalam mostly for inter-group communication i.e. for communicating with others. Choosing which language to speak depends upon the context.

Language Attitude: The elderly members want the younger generation to be good speakers of their native language, and do transmit the language across generations in the society. They consider their mother tongue easy to learn or speak when compared to the languages of Malayalam, Tamil and Kannada. They acknowledge Kannada language to be the most difficult language to be learnt. On analyzing the data collected, evidences show that though they speak their mother tongue, they have a hidden inferior attitude towards their language. This is clearly evident from the elders entertaining the younger ones when they mix terms from other languages while speaking in their mother tongue. They also encourage the children if they are speaking in other languages. They think that learning other languages improve their knowledge level.

Language loss and Maintenance: The community members think that if the current situation pertains, their languages will not be used after twenty years from now. Though they believe that, the younger generations will continue speaking in their language and transmit it to their younger generations, they also suspects that they will be forced to shift to speak in Tulu or Kannada in future. Most of the elder ones feel that their language is dying. Though the present generations speak their language they don’t speak it in such a way as the elder ones. If given opportunities, they are interested in learning their language.

Language prestige: The languages spoken by Perdala and Kanyapadi villagers are considered to be the most prestigious form of Koraga language. This is because, these colonies are isolated from others and thus, there is only less influence from outsiders. Mostly other mother tongue speakers cannot learn their language. But, those from other community who could mingle freely with
them learn their language. An instance is the Promoters of the tribe, being appointed by the Government belonging to other ethnic groups, speaking their language.

Being minority language speakers, as a result of the language contact situation in this region, they are forced to leave apart their language and are forced to speak in other languages to the mainstream society. This gradually resulted in the death of their Language. Language and culture are strongly interrelated and thus, along with their language, their culture is also dying out. The vitality of Koraga language is in a threat as the individual speakers are abandoning it and shifting to other languages. This leads to the disappearance of the language, and thus, the knowledge systems and beliefs possessed by both individual speakers and the speech community is lost.

The Government has provided many schemes and have taken many measures for the upliftment of this community. Some are; the Government have given them a status of Primitive Vulnerable Tribes after seeing a decline in their population. Various developmental programmes have been implemented by the central and state governments, which includes; Housing programmes, providing bathroom and toilet facilities, free health check up, financial aids and scholarships. A Multi grade Learning Centre School was set up by the Government at Perdala colony to provide primary education for the children. They also supply free food materials and provisions to the people. They have also appointed Tribal promoters in every colony, to cater their needs and ensure that these policies are benefiting the community.

Thus, this paper presents a preliminary study and provides a short description of the general condition and sociocultural features of the Koraga community with respect to the various clans and their geographical placements and their language.
Bibliography


New Perspective in Linguistics and Language Teaching