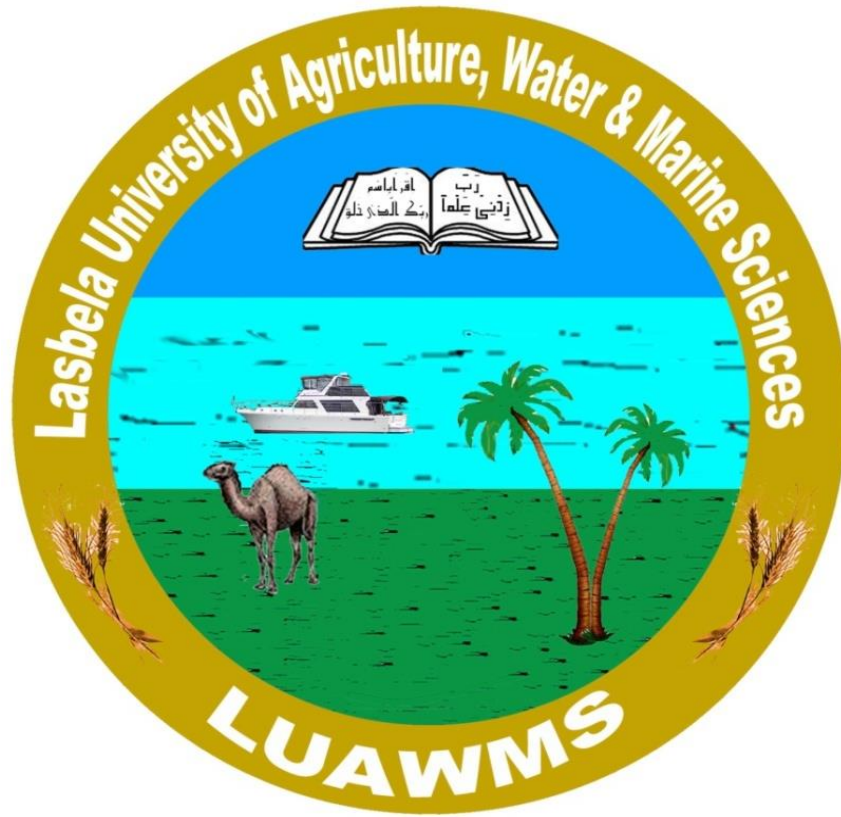


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I. All manuscripts in English should follow the following format:

The first page should contain title; author(s)'s name(s), affiliation, E-mail address; and abstract of 150-350 words, followed by three to five key words, main text, acknowledgment, endnotes, and references in subsequent pages. Key words should be given in italics.

II. Manuscripts in English should use the following style for headings and subheadings:

- 1.
- 1.1
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- 2

The main heading should be written in capital letters bold and in 14 font size. All other headings should be written bold in font size 12. DONOT underline any headings at all.

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Use Letter size paper with Times New Roman writing style font size 12 for the main text with line spacing 1.5 and 10 for the abstract with 1.15 line spacing. Left margin should be 3.5 but all other margins should be 2.5 mm. Tables and figures should not be split on two pages.

Other requirements

Give one paragraph introduction of all authors in five to seven sentences (for each author) describing their educational background and research achievements in a separate file. But do not use hyperlinks.

Plagiarism

Authors should submit a similarity index along with the manuscripts of the papers. They are also required to submit an affidavit declaring that the material in the paper is their own and it has not already been published. Quotes should be properly acknowledged.

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- 1) Use APA style of referencing.

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Technological Acceptance Among Pakistani Public-Sector University Teachers: Challenges and Opportunities of Teaching Literature Online

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Abstract

In the context of the pandemic, teaching and learning in higher education shifted greatly towards the online mode of learning. Having moved on from the scenario, we have looked at the perceptions of teachers regarding challenges and opportunities provided by online teaching and learning of literature. Five teachers from two public-sector institutions were interviewed using a semi-structured interview schedule. The interviews were analysed using thematic analysis. The analysis showed that teachers faced a number of challenges such as lack of connectivity, lack of competence and training. They also believed that students tended to become rather passive in online classes. However, they not only pointed out the challenges but also focussed on how literature teaching had become more fun due to the use of online learning platforms. We recommend that online teaching of literature should be continued to some extent post- Covid 19 as well.

Keywords: *Online teaching, English literature, Pakistan, challenges, opportunities.*

1. Introduction

The World Health Organization (WHO) announced a global pandemic on March 11, 2020, following the unexpected emergence of the coronavirus in China in December 2019 (Cucinotta and Vanelli, 2020). The National Security Committee (NSC) resolved to close educational institutions, including universities, starting on March 16, 2020, in reaction to this epidemic in Pakistan (Higher Education Commission, 2020). The transition from in-person learning to online education, known as "emergency e-learning," was made possible by the closing of educational institutions (Murphy, 2020). As in online teaching, electronic

devices were the only medium of instruction and only source through which interaction between teacher and student took place (Dobre,2007). This new teaching pedagogy (online learning) was not very common in Pakistan before Covid-19. However, the Universities in Pakistan shifted their learning process to Learning Management System (LMS) which is a web-based application used to deliver learning content, monitor students' involvement and performance. Different softwares like Zoom, Teams, Google classroom etc. were used to carry out online classes and meetings. In Pakistan where online teaching introduced teachers and students to new technology but due to lack of experience and dearth of technical infrastructure, poor internet connections affected the quality education. However, being teachers of English literature in Pakistan, we faced a number of issues related to teaching in general and teaching literature specifically. The context we taught in was that of public-sector universities in Pakistan. Therefore, the current study intends to interview other teachers to explore the challenges and opportunities of teaching and learning literature online. The research question that guided this study was, "What are the challenges faced by teachers of literature while teaching online?"

We believe that insights from during the pandemic are highly relevant in today's educational scenario as teaching and learning online has become a possibility, a norm and an increasingly more encouraged mode of teaching and learning in Pakistan after the pandemic. We present our recommendations for teachers of literature in the conclusion that connect the study with the needs of the teachers today.

2. Literature Review

As a preventative step, all educational sectors, including universities and schools, were unexpectedly decided to close in the aftermath of the COVID-19 epidemic. The teaching pedagogy changed as a result, moving from face-to-face(F2F) to online instruction (Burgess & Sievertsen,2020). The quick change in teaching methods presented several challenges for universities trying to use the new online teaching platform. The most frequent obstacles included problems with a lack of institutional mentorship and support, poor and insufficient infrastructure (Judd et al. 2020), and problems with instructors' lack of ICT proficiency in the use of digital media (Huber and Helm 2020). Other recent issues with online teaching, such as the lack of technology, problems with internet connectivity, a lack of time management skills, and problems with online student evaluation are also highlighted (Mendes, Bastos, Amante, Aires, and Cardoso,2019; Blau, Shamir, and Avdiel,2020).

Similar disparities in learning outcomes can be seen in rural regions due to challenges with dependable power supplies and Internet access during this time of the "new normal" (Uwezo, 2020). Furthermore, according to Mondol & Mohiuddin (2020), "the teaching learning process gets hampered resulting in the motivation swing and less participation" of students (p. 242), which is a form of internal element generating difficulty in online teaching at the individual level.

Pakistan, like all other nations, made the decision to close all educational institutions nationwide on March 13, 2020 (Ali, 2020). Technology-based education interventions have been identified by Pakistan's Ministry of Education and Federal Training (2020) as a way to support learners through online teaching tools like Zoom, Google Classroom, and Microsoft Teams that can be accessed through internet-connected computers and smartphone mobile technology. Additionally, the Higher Education Commission (HEC) took swift action in response to the quick switch from face-to-face to online instruction by developing the Online Readiness Policy Guidance Note and Policy Guidelines for universities on COVID19. Despite these prompt steps by HEC, there are still a number of restrictions and difficulties that universities must overcome in order to satisfy the expectations of both students and teachers for online instruction. The difficulties experienced by instructors and students on various levels are highlighted by one of the research projects done by Adnan and Anwar (2020). For example, problems with internet access, monetary difficulties, and an unfavourable learning atmosphere at home.

The focus on teaching practices on subject-specific disciplines from faculty of Arts and Humanities, more specifically, the field of teaching English Literature online from teachers' perspectives, has not yet been explored. This is in addition to the physical obstacles (connectivity barrier, infrastructural issues, etc.) in the online classroom generally. It is simpler to create online language learning exercises than it is to teach undergraduate students' literature. The literary text is crucial for students in literature classes because it "represents authentic feelings of their authors and this produces a strong motivation in the learners," according to Babae & Yahya (2014, p. 82). Teaching different genres of literature (Drama, novel poetry etc.) in an online class can be a hard task for teachers as some literature genres need different approaches from teachers and require active involvement from the students in lessons.

Reading (1989, p.35) asserts that engaging in classroom discussions with the students is essential while teaching literature because "this is a subject whose disciplinary landscape and characteristic forms of inquiry have been formed in the classroom and in dialogue with students." According to Reading (1989, p. 35), learning occurs when "students actually are in terms of knowledge, skills, and motivation...and must seek genuine response and engagement from other students, leading to new knowledge and understanding." Literature syllabuses typically cover a wide range of topics.

The spontaneous interchange of ideas between the teacher and the students does not typically occur in real time in online classrooms, which is why students frequently perceive them as passive (Shenoy et al., 2020). Since contact between students and teachers is essential for teaching literature, a "lack of human interaction" in an online classroom may result in subpar performance and attitude (Berdea, 2009). Recently, Hussain and Ali (2022) carried out a quantitative study to investigate the difficulties encountered by literature students in an online environment. Based on 151 replies from students at 16 public institutions, it was discovered that students' lack of digital literacy made it difficult for them to comprehend literature in online classes. Students requested more interaction and debate in their online English literature lectures. The outcomes also showed that pupils favoured interactive education. Additionally, they did not think that using digital tools to teach theatre and poetry was particularly helpful. For teaching short tales and novels, however, the online format was chosen.

The challenges and achievements of online teaching at the collegiate level at Pakistan's rural public sector institutions were covered in different research by Khan et al. (2022). According to research, poor internet access, a lack of university support, instructors' inadequate online teaching abilities, students' and teachers' preparation, and a lack of student equipment are the primary problems with online education. The research provided many recommendations, including that IT be made a permanent part of university teaching and learning, that the university support instructors by providing them with appropriate net/tools and teacher training, and that students be given orientation on online learning.

Teachers in English literature must determine the most effective techniques to carry out the teaching-learning process in an online classroom. In addition, it's crucial to consider instructors' attitudes and preferences while creating a successful online learning environment for English Literature lessons. The current study will concentrate on the views

and perspectives of the professors on the customary methods for teaching literature online at certain Pakistani universities. Other significant considerations, such as outside influences on teaching practises for online classrooms (e.g., internet connection, instructors' ICT proficiency, etc.), are also taken into account. The main tenets of this study are to explore teachers' perspectives on online literature courses in COVID-19, the difficulties they encountered during the process, the tools and platforms they felt most at ease using, and to take into account their recommendations for improving the practises of teaching literature.

3. Research Methodology

This research used a qualitative research approach. Semi-structured interviews were used as the data collection method in this study because they allow for follow-up questions (Bryman, 2010) and help gather in-depth information (Cohen et al., 2007). This study sought to understand how teachers perceived the difficulties and opportunities of teaching literature online. Before being applied to the primary data collection, the interview schedule underwent testing. The pilot interview was also used into the main research because the interview schedule didn't require any significant alterations following the pilot.

The interview schedule included questions regarding participants' background such as qualification, teaching experience etc. and then we talked about the respondents' ICT competence, followed by teaching strategies, classroom management and relationship with students in online classes.

Five teachers from the two selected public-sector universities of Pakistan were selected as the participants in the main study. We wanted to keep some consistency in the experience levels of the participants and therefore the participants having a teaching experience ranging from 4 to 10 years were included in the study. The data was collected over Zoom, and the interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.

The data was analyzed using Braun and Clark's (2006) model of thematic analysis. We familiarized ourselves with the data, coded it, revised the codes and developed themes out of these. The themes were then reviewed, named, and are presented in the following section.

4. Findings

4.1 Challenges in teaching literature online

Coping with the pandemic COVID-19 resulted in the shift to e-learning where a number of challenges impeded the intended learning outcomes. In response to the question of challenges of teaching literature online, participants identified both external barriers (connectivity issues, time management, challenges in using ICT gadgets, Lack of professional training) and internal barriers (less participation from students, communication barriers). Majority of the participants talked about lack of professional training for the readiness towards online teaching. All the participants seem to be in agreement that there was no formal training or workshop organized to make them aware of the tools and resources for online classes. Participants pointed out that organisations have not placed a lot of emphasis on offering technology training to faculty to support the success of their online courses. There is a shortage of pedagogical and instructional assistance for many online teachers. They also expressed the belief that professional development strategies that cater to the demands of teachers who teach online have a direct impact on the caliber of online courses. These strategies are essential for assisting educators in implementing online pedagogical practices. Participants expressed worry about the time and effort required for online instruction as well as the institutions' lack of support and incentives. One of the participants suggested that university administrators should think about giving instructors who teach online greater pedagogical training and opportunities for theoretical and pedagogical underpinnings of e-teaching. A different participant made the observation that faculty require ongoing assistance when selecting the technology platforms to use, structuring the course in an online environment, ensuring technologies function, troubleshooting when issues arise, assisting students with their technological needs, and setting up the technological infrastructure. In order to construct their online teacher persona using online pedagogies and to foster favourable attitudes towards online teaching by embracing collaborative work, it is crucial to adequately educate and support instructors for online teaching.

A majority of the participants talked about the challenge of connectivity issues and digital divide. Seven of the participants highlighted that sometimes, because of slow internet or technical glitches, students and teachers, both get disconnected from the meeting. Eight out of ten participants highlighted lack of resources on the students' part. Since the participants

were from public sector institutes, the majority of the students come from rural settings and marginalized communities where access to technology and reliable internet connections are limited. Because of this digital divide, not all learners can successfully participate in online courses. One participant commented:

I think in online courses, there are so many discrepancies. Students who are living in cities learn a lot because they have access, things are quite easier for them, everything is available online, and they can talk to us and take advice. They also get feedback and they have access to everything like Facebook and because of such availability they are competent too in the IT field. On the other hand, there are some students who are living in villages where they don't have access to reliable internet, so they have to go out (GS).

Four of the participants also reflected that since they use the basic version of Zoom, they face the challenge of 40 minutes meeting time where after 40 minutes they have to restart and students rejoin the meeting. This disturbs the flow of the class. Two of the participants also shared that the basic Zoom app does not allow above 100 participants. Hence, in case of a large class, teachers are unable to allow remaining students. When teaching online courses, the participants also expressed a high level of depersonalization and a lack of success. Eight of the participants indicated that professors make an effort to build relationships with students since there is a perception that connections with students are being lost in online classrooms. One of the participants commented that in physical classes, teachers know their students and build a trustworthy relation with students. Another participant commented:

My communication with the first batch was more effective because they used to come to the office for their queries or we used to see them physically. On the other hand, students in online classes do not open their videos, so we don't know them properly. I used to give them group work in physical classes, as they had to discuss with me and I looked over to them, I used to round over them, I used to get in contact with them. Though we tried our best to do the same thing in online classes through breakout rooms, this wasn't done appropriately because some students have turned off their

videos while others have turned off their audios, so communication wasn't that much effective.

4.2 Students' engagement and learning in online classes

Hence, participants viewed that students can be better motivated when teachers stand in front of them. It is one of the benefits of traditional classes that the focus of students can be maintained better. Learners' participation and engagement in online settings is another major issue discussed by participants. The participants saw the lack of interactive dialogic sessions where all students may express their literary views as a barrier to developing online literature courses. Online classrooms, where most students are passive and mute, hence have low levels of student motivation. It might be difficult to motivate students and get them involved in productive interactions with one other and the course material. One of the participants observed that when there is online conversation, some students choose not to participate. There have been issues in online discussions where only 2 to 3 students participate. Participants reported the challenge of involving students in online discussion as the way students used to discuss novels in the physical class, like teachers used to make literature circles, assign roles to students for discussion, this cannot be managed in online classes. The essence of novel with expression and extract is missing in online settings whereas in physical classes, teachers go to individual students and ask them what they are feeling about the particular theme or event. Another participant further elaborated the challenge as:

Some students were such that even if you were calling their roll number those students would not respond and you were not even able to do anything regarding it. CR or GR or the bright students were the only ones who were taking the class seriously otherwise you cannot force the students to speak up in online class. This case is different in face-to-face classes because on campus if you are maintaining eye contact with a student and addressing them then they would definitely respond even if they are beating around the bush or not answering substantially but they would at least respond. So, in an online setting, you don't get a response from all of the students (GS).

Participants also noted a number of significant distinctions between their communication styles while teaching in person and online. One of the participants expressed her opinion

that in face-to-face classes, teachers receive cues from the vocal and nonverbal replies of the pupils. However, because teachers cannot see students' faces in an online situation, it can be challenging to read these indications. Online settings frequently lack nonverbal communication indicators including tone of voice, eye contact, gestures, and emotions. Participants also mentioned that they need to pay close attention to how they communicate and the phrases they use when taking classes online. Among the participants, one said:

Online, we are more reserved in terms of the kind of references we give. I think it is less reliable as compared to face to face. It's being recorded; students can also record from their device as well. Teachers cannot take the risk of saying something extra. I do not talk about sensitive issues like religion, we teach works which talk about atheism, existentialism etc so I have this fear as well that I shouldn't say any such thing (SK).

Participants also talked about challenges in using ICT gadgets. Instructors' comfort level with technology also plays an important role in online teaching. Three of the participants reflected their uncertainty, uneasiness and unpreparedness for the challenges of teaching online. As one participant commented:

We did not know what zoom was, how the class would be conducted, there were a lot of challenges. When it started, I felt a lot of anxiety. I felt depressed about what was going on. Students were misbehaving so we witnessed all that (SH).

4.3 Strategies and Solutions used

While discussing the difficulties of teaching literature online, participants also acknowledged the advantages and ideas for overcoming these difficulties. Participants discussed the utilization of various cutting-edge teaching techniques and online resources in answer to the subject of how to make online literature programs more entertaining and engaging. They claimed to have used a wide range of technical resources to impart course material and support student learning. Participants reflected that when they prepare lectures for online classes, they can cover different things especially with reference to technology; they get a lot of access to different resources from which they can learn and can deliver it. Two of the participants mentioned using Padlet wall (a collaborative discussion e-board) and Flipgrid (short video capturing app) to make their literature classes more engaging. One of the participants mentioned:

I gave tasks to students on Flipgrid from Prose and Novel that they should make a video on the work. I made it compulsory for them to comment on any three colleagues' videos critically. I told them not to just write awesome, great etc, but to critically comment and the presenter had to reply to them. First comment was always mine. I told them to take it as a standard that what kind of comments should be made. We worked like that on Padlet as well. I gave them a short note to write, and other students commented on it. Everyone had to comment on any two. When I gave them this task, they did a very good debate on this afterwards as well in class. They tried to apply theories as well. Some of them went to an advance level like deconstructionism, third world feminism and new historicism were discussed.

Three of the participants also talked about quizzes, mentioning Kahoot! (a game-based learning platform) and polls that encourage students to be receptive in online classes through active learning and assessment. As one participant commented, *"I use poles or quizzes in zoom, through voting their interaction becomes more effective, you can set 10 questions with yes or no, or with 2 or 3 options, so students give answers and become excited"*.

Participants further elaborated that active learning is encouraged in online classes through other innovative tools like using breakout rooms, structured exercises, screen sharing, YouTube videos, presentations and showing images related to their discussion theme. One of the participants shared her experience of teaching a 'Research Methodology' course online. She reflected that in research methods class, she used to show students Google scholar and taught them how to download, or how to site. So, if the screen is in front of students, they can easily understand. Another participant also shared his experience of teaching 'Fiction' and 'Drama' online. He elaborated that while preparing the content, he used images relevant to the novel, *Lord of the Flies*. He showed the characters' images. While teaching the play, *Oedipus Rex*, he displayed the images related to Greek culture and history. One other participant commented, *"When I teach novels and drama, I show students movies or animated videos on YouTube"*.

Adding more to the advantages of online classes, eight out of ten participants reflected that online classes have reduced participation anxiety for shy or introverted students. Introverts feel comfortable replying in the chat box. One participant added that females do not talk

much as they feel hesitant but in online classes, they reply. Their videos are turned off, they are not visible physically, and therefore, they are comfortable in participating. Another participant commented:

This surprises me; a couple of girls who stay quiet in physical classes participate in the discussion. In physical classes, I would have to keep asking again and again but they do not talk. They ask questions online, they write long comments in the chat as well, and they talk by unmuting themselves. So, I have noticed this change especially in female students.

Six of the participants offered a solution for dealing with the difficulty of students' motivation and lack of involvement in online classes: randomly asking questions after obtaining the students' names. One of the participants shared that to increase the interaction, the strategy she employed was to call out the student by his or her roll number and ask questions. This way, students try to be a bit attentive and focused. Another participant shared:

I kept their chat box open so they could comment or ask anything. During lectures I used to read their comments or messages along with their names, and reply to them, in return they ask more questions or queries, so communication gets strong and effective. Or I give them tasks through breakout rooms as they can speak in groups easily and through groups' maximum number participate in the class (GS).

5. Discussion

The teachers faced a lot of difficulties in teaching literature online as these teachers belonged to an underdeveloped, poorly resources public-sector context and were not used to using technology in their teaching. The problems Pakistani teachers faced were very similar to those faced by teachers elsewhere (e.g., Judd et al., 2020; Huber and Helm, 2020). As the change from physical to online classes was abrupt and institutions had not been ready for it, teachers in various contexts felt uncomfortable with and unprepared for the virtual classroom. However, for the Pakistani teachers the challenges were manifold as resources were an issue, internet connectivity, access to internet in remote areas were still a matter of concern (see also, Adnan and Anwar, 2020).

Maintaining students' engagement, motivation and learning in online classes was quite difficult according to the participants. It was easy for the students to become passive in an online class as pointed out by Shenoy et al. (2020). As the participants mentioned, it is easier for teachers to connect with students in a physical class as they can see their expression and move closer to them to ensure their attention, however, not having those options was a readjustment. As Berteau (2009) points out that online classes have a disadvantage due to the lack of human interaction.

The teachers specifically felt the need for engagement as they were teaching literature and as Reading (1989) emphasizes literature classroom feeds on discussion. Due to cultural reasons and institutional policy, the students' cameras were turned off in these virtual classrooms. Teachers found it especially hard to engage them in a discussion on a literary text when they couldn't even see them. Hussain and Ali (2022) found in their study that students also felt same as the teachers as they found it hard to learn literature online.

Unlike most studies focusing on challenges related to online teaching (Hussain and Ali, 2022; Khan et al., 2020; Shenoy et al., 2020), our participants also talked about strategies, so though teachers faced a number of challenges in teaching literature online, they learnt to navigate and used a number of strategies to teach literature online. Taking students' names, using humor, calling them by their roll numbers as displayed on the screen, marking attendance in the middle of the session all helped teachers gain more attention from the students. Teachers also talked about a number of advantages of teaching literature online. Using the apps such as Zoom, Teams or Google Meet, they were able to share their computer screens with students. In an atmosphere of low resources, this opened up huge resource options for the classroom. The participants were able to use different mediums such as Paddlit, Youtube, Kahoot! Etc, open multiple tabs, help students visit different websites for different activities such as showing how to get direct citations from Google Scholar. These are useful, interactive perspectives into online teaching that can be used post-Covid 19.

6. Conclusion

The current study looked at teachers' perceptions of possibilities and problems related to online learning during the COVID-19 epidemic. Our findings imply that instructors have conflicting attitudes about the online teaching experience, which is consistent with research conducted in Jordan (Almahasees et al., 2021) and Karnataka, a state in southwest India.

The reason of having negative opinion is because teachers are confronted with number of challenges for instance lack of infrastructure, ICT training and support from institutions, performance evaluation of students, less student's participation in discussion, internet connectivity were the major problems highlighted by teachers. Contrary to the negative opinions, there is a large number of optimistic and positive feedback received. Teachers reported that the online teaching system made everyone familiar with the technology. It removed the anxiety issues and shyness of students in class participation. It allowed a variety of technological tools to be used in teaching practice which enhanced teachers' teaching skills to deliver course material as per the teaching standards used at the international level.

We advise teachers to continue using online learning environments to hold certain classes with their students in light of the findings of the current study. This will not only help them stay up-to-date with technological tools but would also enhance the quality of teaching and learning literature. Students will also stay active through the use of multiple media sources. Covid-19 has left us all improved in our ICT competence, literature teachers should keep promoting online teaching in order to keep literature teaching current and in line with the modern pedagogies.

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Investigation of Back Vowels in Pakistani English Through Acoustic Lens

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Abstract

The examination of distinct features of non-native varieties of English has been the focal point of many research studies. The current study is also a continuation of this query. It intends to observe the acquisition of back vowels /ɒ/, /ʊ/, /ɑ:/, /ɔ:/, /ɔ:/ regarding their spectral (the lowest two Formants) and temporal (duration) aspects in Pakistani English. The data were collected from the female learners of English at middle level (about 15 years old) from a public institute of Pakistan. The target back vowels were embedded into / hvd / syllables in the carrier phrase 'say --- please' as a stimulus. Data comprising of seven hundred and fifty tokens of English back vowels were analyzed using FormantPro (Xu, 2015) software. The results show that the acoustic patterns of back vowels of Pakistani learners of English are not much aligned with those of native speakers. The back vowels /ɑ:/ and /ɒ/ are produced as central vowels rather than back vowels on horizontal plane of tongue fronting (corresponding to Formant 2). Likewise, back vowels, particularly /ɒ/ and /ɔ:/, are also displaced on vertical horizon of tongue height (corresponding to F1). The results of the study reflect that vowels of Pakistani English are distinct from the patterns of the English reported by Roach (2004). This distinctness can be linked with discrepancy between phonological and orthographic form of the English language and inter-lingual effects from Urdu/indigenous languages of Pakistan.

Keywords: *Pakistani English, back vowels, distinct variety, acoustic Analysis*

1. Introduction

The current trends of urbanization, digitization, and e-commerce have shown a rapid increase in the use of English which signifies the instrumental use of English in multilingual countries like Pakistan. Although Urdu is the unifying force of the state of Pakistan; however, English plays a vital role in all major domains of power which motivates people, aware of the linguistic utility in socially prestigious networks, to learn it for a better future in the emerging markets (Mansoor, 2005; Haq, 1993; Rahman, 1999).

The growth of English with its one billion non-native (L2) speakers has outnumbered its native speakers, involving 80% use of English among L2 speakers only (Benecke, 1991; Crystal, 2000; 2003). This spread of the English language gave birth to different varieties of the English language which, according to Ladefoged and Johnson (2011), largely differ in their use of vowels rather than the use of consonants. Therefore, it is imperative to observe different patterns of articulation of vowels of different dialects of English so that speakers with diverse language backgrounds may have smooth cross-cultural communication.

According to Botlan (2008), Pakistan is the third largest English-speaking Asian country where about eighteen million population use English as medium of communication. However, investigation of the patterns of Pakistani English yet needs to be made, with exception of a few studies launched in Pakistani context. Mahboob (2004) found that Pakistani speakers adhere to the orthographic system as a guide to English phonology. Rahman (1990) studied PakE comprehensively basing his claims on the conventional continuum of sociolinguistics. Anwar (2007) demonstrated that PakE has its distinctive characteristics due to code-switching at the phrase and clause level. Bilal, Mahmood, and Saleem (2011) focused on front vowels in Pakistani English to find out their patterns of articulation. Kousar (2018) was aimed at observing the effects of consistency of input on acquisition of English short vowels in Pakistan. She came up with the conclusion that consistency of input does have significant effect on the acquisition of English vowels as the experimental group A that received the treatment consistently outperformed the experimental group B that was inconsistently exposed to RP vowels and control group C. Bilal et al. (2012) investigated back vowels in PakE to verify whether Pakistani speakers of English merge back vowels or not like other Asian languages. They took data from the male and female students at a university from the Punjab. The results reflect that PakE has four back vowels where the speakers merged long and short vowel /ɔ: / and /ɒ/.

The back vowels /u/ and /u:/ were not merged having their distinct features in the data. This study came up with the findings that PakE is distinct from RP English with five back vowels.

The current study attempts to treat Pakistani English as a recognizable dialect of English with notable influences from British English, Urdu language, and the regional languages. This study focuses on examining English back vowels on scientific grounds i.e., measuring their formant values and duration to observe their distinct features and classify them accordingly.

1.1 Research Objectives

- To observe the F1 values (related to jaw opening) of back vowels in Pakistani English
- To observe the F2 values (related to tongue fronting) of back vowels in Pakistani English
- To observe the Duration values of back vowels in Pakistani English

1.2 Acoustics of Vowels

Acoustically, vowels are described in terms of their spectral and temporal features. The spectral dimension of vowels shows the quality of vowels i.e. relative phonological resonance of the vowel sound (Wang & Heuven, 2006). The temporal aspect of vowels is related to quantity of vowels i.e. phonological distinctive length of the vowel relative to other vowels of similar quality in the language (Behne, Moxnes, & Nyland, 1996). Here, the vowels are described according to their spectral and temporal features.

The spectral features of vowels reflect which part of the tongue is raised to what extent relative to the roof of the mouth (Algeo, 2010). However, some phoneticians (i.e. Heinz, 2011) consider the feature of opening and closure of jaw, rather than tongue height, the second spectral aspect of vowel quality. The third spectral aspect of vowel quality i.e. lip-rounding is closely connected with the first two spectral features of tongue fronting and jaw opening. These spectral features along with pitch and loudness are helpful for distinguishing one vowel from the other (Li, 2004). These three parameters classify the vowels in the following categories.

1.2.1 Front Vowels vs. Back Vowels

The vowel sounds which are produced by placing the front part of the tongue in various positions from the upper incisor to the lower one, are called front vowels (Roach, 2009). But, when the back part of the tongue moves up or down in the velar area, the resultant vowels are called back vowels (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2011). Central vowels are produced when the tongue is in a resting and neutral position in the oral cavity.

1.2.2 Open Vowels vs Closed Vowels

An open vowel (also called low vowel) is articulated when the mandible is depressed with the low position of the tongue (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2011). On the other hand, a closed vowel is produced when the mandible is in relative closed position than the open vowels (Algeo, 2010). There are three other categories of vowels based on the intermediate position of the mandible: open-mid vowels, mid vowels, and close-mid vowels.

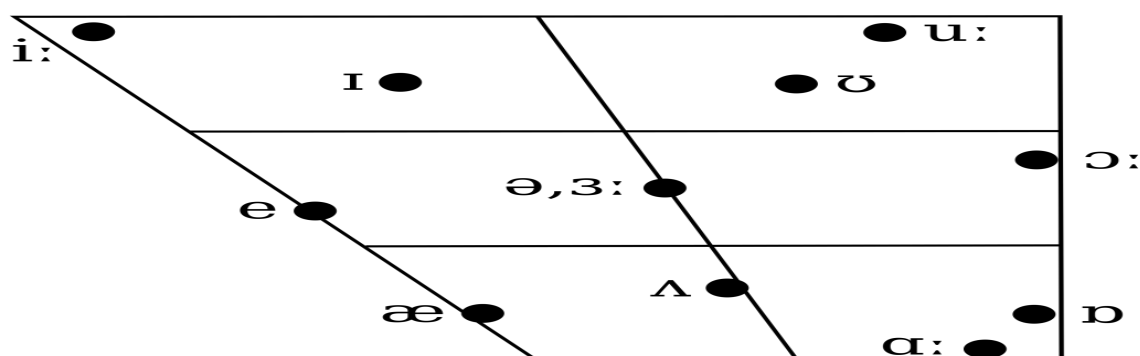


Figure 1.1 English RP Pure Vowels (from Roach, 2004, p. 242)

Temporal aspect of vowels deals with the time during which the vowel signal stays approximately stationary in terms of other precepts (Algeo, 2010). Duration is a distinctive feature of vowels, next to vowel quality (Lin & Wang, 2007). In many languages such as English, duration is even more significant than dimension of vowel quality (Jenner, 1989). However, the greater amount of time spent during a phonologically long vowel may also make its articulation use greater extremes of the vocal space than phonologically short vowels and may also affect the vowel spectrum (Behne et al., 1996). Besides being a distinctive feature of vowels, vowel duration is also a major element of vowel intelligibility (Jenkins, 2000) and paralinguistic feature of speech (Boersma, 2001). There is no exact duration of long vowels and short vowels as vowel duration is relative, not absolute one.

The ‘extrinsic’ duration of vowels is affected by different contextual factors contrary to ‘temporal pattern of formant movements’ (Lehiste, 1976; Peterson & Lehiste, 1960). These non-phonemic influences of the context on the duration of vowels are investigated by various researchers (Ali, 2013; Crystal & House, 1990; Ferguson & Kewley-Port, 2002; Gimson & Cruttenden, 1994; Klatt, 1987; Myers & Hansen, 2005). To indicate relative length of long vowels, the mark of colon is usually used orthographically; however, the doubling of the vowels is also frequent in some languages of the world.

2. Methodology

2.1 Population / Sampling

The target population of the current study comprises of the female learners of English (as L2) at middle level in the Punjab, Pakistan. The researchers took a genuine class group of 30 learners at middle level from a government school for girls in District Sheikhpura, Pakistan. She selected a small representative group of the female learners of English from the population as, according to Milroy and Gordon (2003), the generalizability of the results of the sample depends on the degree of its representativeness of the large population. The average age of the participants of this study was 13 years with standard deviation of 1.69. It indicates that the participants were exposed to English input for roughly eight to nine years. However, the learners were exposed to non-native variety of English language/phonology, rather than to native English.

2.2 Stimuli

The researcher embedded the target back vowels into the /h-v-d/ syllable as stimuli for data elicitation. This CVC structure has the least co-articulatory effects of the neighboring consonants on the target vowels (Bohn, 2004; Cervera, Miralles, & Gonzalez-Alvarez, 2001; Cox, 2006; Hillenbrand et al., 2001; Hillenbrand et al., 1995; Katz & Assmann, 2001; Koenig, 2000; Koenig, Mencl, & Lucero, 2005; Lane et al., 2005; Nearey, 1997; Schiavetti et al., 2004; Steinlen, 2005; Wang & Heuven, 2006; Xue & Hao, 2003). This /h-v-d/ syllable is enormously used due to particular articulatory features of its constituent phonemes. That’s why the discussion on the constituent phonemes of the /h-v-d/ syllable is desirable to examine the effects of their articulation on the adjacent vowels.

If the /h-v-d/ syllable is studied as a unit of co-articulatory effect on the vowel, its phonetic context is called ‘null environment’ (Stevens & House, 1963). The [h] has the quality of

the vowel it precedes because the configuration of the vocal tract during its production is determined by neighboring sounds. That's why the use of [h] in the beginning of syllable supplies a neutral phonetic context (Perry, Ohde, & Ashmead, 2001) to study the articulatory characteristics of speech either preceding or following it. For assessing articulatory behavior of the surrounding phonemes, the articulatory characteristics of [h] are fully appreciable (Robb & Chen, 2009). Likewise, [d] has least anticipatory co-articulatory effect on the vowel followed by [d] except the effect of the pre-boundary (immediately before the end of a word, phrase, or sentence where a pause may occur) voicedness on the length of the preceding vowel (Pickett, 1999). Moreover, the combination of the phonemes [h] and [d] in /h-v-d / syllable assures more standardization of the syllable shape and minimizes intonational as well as co-articulatory influences (DeJoy & Barnes, 2011).

The /h-v-d/ syllable in English is very rich in case of production of almost all the vowels of English (Wang & Heuven, 2006). The researcher used the /h-v-d/ stimuli for the back vowels to factor out the co-articulatory effect and acoustic variation determined by information-related phenomena such as linguistic redundancy (Aylett & Turk, 2006; Wright, 2003). The particular focus of the researcher was on the maintenance of the initial /h/ phoneme in all the hvd syllables to minimize the preservatory co-articulatory effect because its open articulation requires minimal amount of movement from the articulators during the transition from the consonant to the vowel (Harrison & Dunkley, 2004; Hillenbrand et al., 2001; Roeder, 2009). The consistent use of the /d/ phoneme at the end of the syllable was intended to control the external factors of the extrinsic length of the vowel. The /hvd / syllables used in the current study were hard, hod, hawed, hood, who'd. Among these /hvd/ syllables, one syllable has post-vocalic /ɪ/.

The /hvd/ syllables were inducted in the carrier phrase 'say hvd please' (Ali, 2013; Bohn, 2004; Cervera et al., 2001; Cox, 2006; Flege, 1992; Hillenbrand et al., 1995; Katz & Assmann, 2001; Kurowski et al., 1996; Lane et al., 2005; McCaffrey & Sussman, 1994; Nearey, 1997; Peterson & Barney, 1952; Schiavetti et al., 2004; Steinlen, 2005; Svirsky & Tobey, 1991; vanWieringen & Wouters, 1999; Xue & Hao, 2003). Although, the reading of the carrier phrase is not representative of the speaker's natural speech like spontaneous/free speech, or reading of a passage, yet the reading of a carrier phrase controls the intonational influences of the speakers; it provides the required number of tokens of each vowel; and this clear speech yields acoustic properties of speech sounds more clearly than the conversational

speech (Al-Hamadi & Ali, 2012). Moreover, the study is concerned with assessment of learners' English back vowels whether it is limited just to their awareness of RP vowels or their application of this variety of English in their communication too.

2.3 Pilot Testing

Pilot testing ensures high quality of the outcomes of research studies in the specific context. Sudman and Bradburn (1983) even went to the extent of claiming that no research study is conductible if it is not pilot tested. In the pilot testing of the current study, the researchers gave the list of carrier phrases to a few participants of the study for reading and recording. The researchers initially used the carrier phrase 'say hvd again' in the pilot study. But afterwards, they realized that the participants merged the boundaries of /hvd/ and 'again' in the carrier phrase. She changed the phrase 'say hvd again' into 'say hvd please' to mark the lexical boundaries clearer for analysis.

2.4 Data Collection

The data were collected by recording the reading of the 'say hvd please' phrases of the participants. Before formally starting the recording, the participants were directed to read the phrases clearly with a brief gap before and after the 'hvd' syllable as the acoustic properties of speech sounds in conversational speech are different from those in clear speech (Al-Hamadi & Ali, 2012). Each phrase of 'say hvd, please' was digitized at 44100 Hz using PRAAT (Boersma, 2001) on laptop. The average of their syllables was noted as two syllables per second which is classified as slow speech rate (Pickett, 1999). All recordings were made at a sound attenuated place in the school. Each participant read 'say hvd please' phrases 5 times for back vowels to get the average performance of acquisition of RP vowels of the participants rather than random one adding up to seven hundred and fifty tokens of English back vowels ($05 \times 05 = 25 \times 30 = 750$). The data collected from the participants in form of recordings of 'say hvd please' were ready for acoustic and statistical analysis.

2.5 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations are an integral part of experimental research. To fulfill this requirement, the researcher got filled a consent form from the head of the institute, containing the following details (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000; Creswell, 2003; Johnson & Christensen, 2004):

- An explanation of the objectives of the research and the procedures of the experiment and data collection to be followed.
- A description of the benefits the institute and the participant may receive.
- A statement of the confidentiality of the results.
- An offer to question anything concerning the procedures and to receive a copy of the results.

2.6 Research Validity

Research validity is essential to research to evaluate (a) the meaningfulness of the interpretations that researchers make based on the observations, and (b) the extent to which these interpretations are generalizable beyond the research study (Bachman, 2004a). As it was already mentioned that the current study was launched in language classrooms, the operation of many factors was indispensable in this authentic classroom environment. Though, the researcher tried to control various extraneous factors such as age, gender, language proficiency level, yet tight control of all the factors of the learning process may result in artificial frameworks in laboratory conditions affecting the external validity of the study (Clarke & Kitzinger, 2004). This use of natural and authentic class groups reflects the representativeness of the sample to population. So, the researcher tried to maintain as much internal validity as was safe for external validity of the research.

3. Data Analysis

Acoustic analysis of speech sounds starts from the process of segmentation, followed by the procedure of labelling, and formant extraction. In the current study, the researchers executed these procedures as follows.

3.1 Segmentation

Speech is often segmented into basic phonetic units for recognition and synthesis. Segmentation is “a process where a speech signal is decomposed into smaller acoustic units like words, syllables, and phonemes” (Kaur & Singh, 2010, p. 1). The researchers followed the manual segmentation method segregating the hvd syllable from the rest of the carrier phrase guided by visual cues from the intensity curves of waveform and formant contours of spectrogram (Robb & Chen, 2009). These cues were used to identify likely boundaries between lexical items. The researcher marked the boundary of hvd syllable from the fricative

turbulence of /h/ and after the release of the burst of /d/ preceded by pauses. Phonetic features of [h] appear to be clearer for being syllable initial than syllable-final consonant (Gow et al., 1996; Manuel, 1991; Ohala & Kawasaki, 1984). Identification of word-initial [h] was smooth as the factors that enhance the effect of the acoustic property of phonetic features are mostly at the beginning of words. With respect to identification of syllable-final consonant [d], it is often made with or without a weak burst. In syllable-final [d], devoicing is often achieved by constricting, rather than opening, the glottis.

In cases where the speech rate was very fast, unfortunately, acoustic cues failed to give clues about the word boundaries, particularly when the beginning of a word got merged with the end of the previous word (Prinsloo, 2000). To tackle such situation, the researcher benefitted from auditory and visual cues from waveform and spectrograms to identify the most likely location of the approximant beginning of fricative [h] and closure and burst of [d] in the hvd syllable (Colantoni & Marinescu, 2010; Figueroa & Evans, 2015; Kingston, 2008). After lexical segmentation, formantPro software (Xu, 2015) was utilized to segment the phonemes manually. To marking phonemic boundary, the interval from the approximate onset and offset of the vowel was set (Ali, 2013; Hillenbrand et al., 2001; Wang & Heuven, 2006). The onset of the vowel was the release of the preceding consonant /h/ accompanied by the beginning of vocal fold vibration. At this point, the wave amplitude and complexity began to increase. Following the previous research studies (e.g. Cervera et al., 2001; Nishi & Rogers, 2002; Reuter, 1971; Steinlen, 2005), fricative noise of [h] in form of random pattern and aperiodicity in the waveform (Di Canio, 2015) was not included in the vowel domain. For setting the offset boundary of the vowels, the closure of [d] phoneme was excluded from the domain of vowels by looking for three co-occurring events: a sudden decrease in amplitude and complexity in waveform; a change/loss of energy in higher formants (F2, F3, F4) in spectrogram; the onset of aperiodicity. The researchers focused on the two lowest frequency formants (F1 and F2) for phonemic segmentation because they present the most vital acoustic properties visible in spectrograms, a determiner of vowel quality (Delattre et al., 1955). In cases where the first two formants of monophthongs were not clear, the higher formants were relied on to set the phonemic boundary of vowels. Along with visual cues from spectrogram and waveform, auditory impressions were also utilized as, according to Nicholas (2009), a researcher's auditory impression is the most important qualitative tool in acoustic analysis. However, different criterion of segmentation was applied on rhotacized vowels marked with lowering of the frequency of the third formant (Ladefoged & Johnson,

2011). The part of the vowel dominated by /r/ sound was excluded from the domain of the vowel.

3.2 Labeling

The process of labeling was performed along with the process of phonemic segmentation; yet this process is being discussed separately because a lot of issues are relevant to labeling but not much related to segmentation. All the vowels that had been labeled as monophthongs a priori were treated as such even though they were read alternatively. Moreover, if the participants misread a vowel in all its five tokens in recorded sentences, it was labeled according to the vowel given in the sentences, not the recorded one. However, any mistaken reading of a vowel was ignored by accepting the correct reading of the vowel twice. But it happened in those cases where the mispronunciation occurred once in five readings of a sentence. Additionally, it was also observed that a vowel phoneme was actualized by different phones. In such a case, different realizations of a phoneme were labelled as a single vowel phoneme (Nagarajan, Murthy, & Hegde, 2003; Thangarajan & Natarajan, 2008; Kaur & Singh, 2010). After segmenting and labelling the vowel phonemes, formantpro praat was run for automatically extracting formant values and duration values of the vowels.

3.3 Measurement Reliability

Reliability refers to the “consistencies of data, scores or observations obtained using elicitation instruments administered in educational settings to tasks completed by participants in a research study” (Chalhoub-Deville, Chapelle, & Duff, 2006: p. 2). Measurement reliability shows how much the instruments/procedures generate consistent results in a given population in different circumstances. Following the precedent of acoustic studies (e.g. Cervera et al., 2001; Cox, 2006; Robb & Chen, 2009; van Santen, 1992; van Son, Binnenpoorte, van den Heuvel, & Pols, 2001), reliability of the measurement of data, in present research, was assessed by intra-judge measurement reliability technique by correlating two sets of data at two points of time to calculate their Mean Absolute Deviation. The computation of the mean values of the first and second data sets show that the MAD values of the F1 and F2 of vowels range from 0 to 15.15 Hz from the mean values. This little deviation shows that the measurement of data is within the range of reliability of measurement i.e. ± 60 Hz (Monsen & Engebretson, 1983).

3.4 Data of Vowels

System of FormantPro software (Xu, 2013) generated various files of average values, following the research objectives, the average values of only F1, F2, and Duration were transported to the excel file for computation. Later on, the researchers assembled and calculated average values of the F1, F2, and Duration values of thirty participants in excel sheet. After computing the frequencies of the back vowels in PakE, the plotting of these vowels is discussed with reference to the back vowels plotted in RP English by Roach (2004).

Table 1 Frequency of F1, F2 and Duration of Back Vowels in Pakistan English

Sr. #	Vowel	F1 (Hz)	F2 (Hz)	Duration (ms)
1	/ʊ:/	497	1225	205
2	/ʊ/	463	1267	133
3	/ɔ:/	668	1311	230
4	/ɒ/	615	1266	186
5	/ɑ:/	828	1465	212

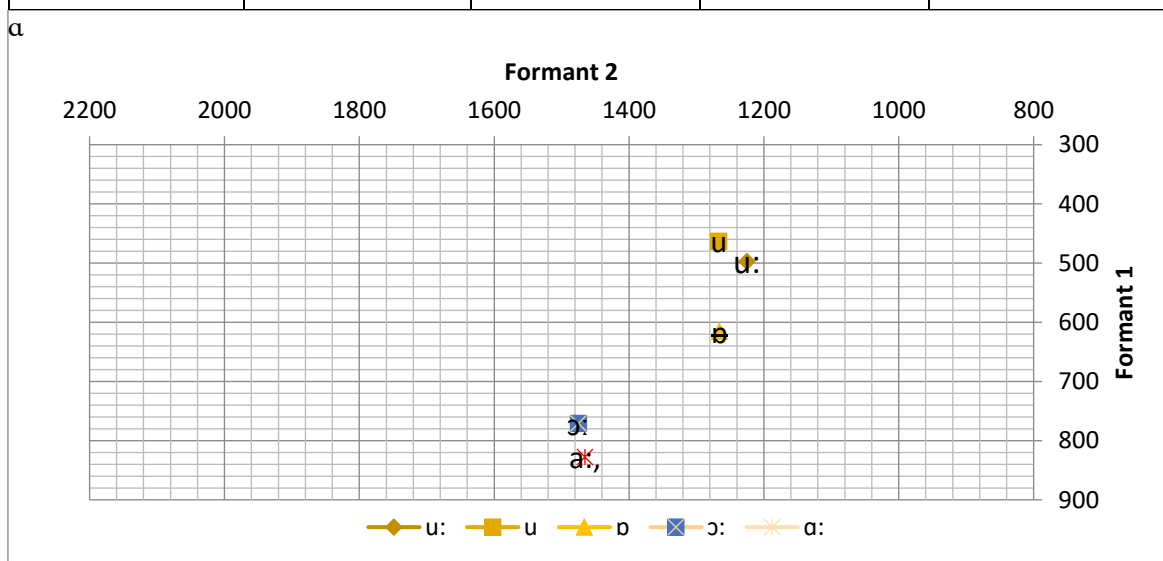


Figure 2.1 Plotting of Pakistani English Back Vowels in vowel Quadrilateral

The tabular and graphical representation of the data of the back vowels makes it clear that the back vowels of the Pakistani learners of English have their own distinct features (for reference Roach, 2004). If we observe the placement of back vowels, it is evident that the back vowels /ɑ:/ and /ɔ:/ are pronounced as central vowels rather than back vowels. Their place of articulation in vocal tract is almost identical except a little difference in jaw opening.

The remaining back vowels /ɒ/, /ɔ/, /ɔ:/ are pronounced as back vowels; however, their pronunciation is marked deviant on the vertical plane of jaw opening/ tongue height. The short vowel /ɒ/ is articulated as the close vowel rather than /ɔ:/ on the vertical axis in Figure 2. The same case is found with the long and short variant of vowel 'o'. The Pakistani learners of English articulated the vowel /ɑ: / at the point between half-close and half-open in Figure 2. The long vowel /ɔ: / is produced close to the open vowel /ɑ: /. Hence, the back long vowels in Pakistani English are tilted towards open position of mouth whether these are high vowels or low vowels. However, the back vowel /ɑ: / retains its position of open vowel in Pakistani English. If these back vowels are analyzed on x axis related to tongue fronting, the open vowels are tilted to central position of the mouth contrary to RP English where these vowels are located as back vowels. Hence, the findings of this study claim that back vowels in Pakistani English have their own distinct nature with respect to tongue fronting and jaw opening. However, unlike other Asian dialects of English where back vowels /ɒ/ and /ɔ: / and /u/ and /u: / are merged (Deterding, 2007; Bilal et al., 2021), Pakistani English does not merge English back vowels.

5. Conclusion

The results of the study lead to the conclusion that Pakistani learners of English feel problem in acquiring English back vowels particularly long vowels. The reason behind this difficulty can be traced to various factors such as interference of learners' L1, lack of direct exposure to native variety of English, and discrepancy between phonological features and orthographic form of English back vowels.

5.1 Recommendations

This study recommends that teaching of English should be assisted by audio aids to provide the learners with direct exposure to native variety of English, to tackle L1 interference, and to overcome discrepancy between orthographic and phonological form of English.

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Language Contact and its Impact on The Phonological Evolution of Balochi

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Abstract

In this paper, the language contact trend and its impact on the phonological evolution over time of Balochi an Indo - Iranian language spoken in Balochistan was explored. The interaction of Balochi with various Iranian languages such as Old Persian, Middle Persian, Parthian, and Avestan has also been studied. The research brought to light that the language has undergone phonetic changes during distinct periods, influenced by various languages such as Median, Avestan, Old Persian, Middle Persian, Parthian, Eastern and Western Iranian languages, Modern Persian, and Arabic. Balochi continues to borrow and assimilate foreign words, particularly due to its geostrategic location in Balochistan. However, the origins of these borrowed words remain unclear. The research also addresses the decline of Balochi's significance as a lingua franca and the reasons for its assimilation in some regions while retaining its originality in others. Furthermore, it addresses the contemporary challenges faced by Balochi, including its assimilation into other languages and the impact of English as a global language. The study concludes by emphasizing the need for further research on language contact in Balochistan and its consequences for Balochi's preservation and development.

Keywords: *Balochi, Language Contact, Borrowing, Old Persian, Phonologically*

1. Introduction

Balochi language which has interacted with neighboring languages for millennia, this research explores the diffusion of its morphological, phonetic, syntactic, and lexical structures over time, similar to other languages worldwide. The dissemination process occurred in distinct phases from 3000 BC to the present day, driven by the dominant state languages and linguistic aggression. Balochi has managed to retain ancient lexicon, syntactical morphological, and phonological forms, indicating connections to ancient Indo - Iranian languages. In modern times, Balochi continues to engage with various languages,

borrowing, Balochizing, and assimilating foreign words with ambiguous roots. The phonetic changes in Balochi transpired across three periods: ancient, middle, and modern, during which it interacted with Median, Avestan, Old Persian, Middle Persian, Parthian, Eastern Iranian Languages, and Western, and later Modern Persian, Arabic. Like other modern languages, Balochi can incorporate, borrow, or diffuse lexicons over time, with a limited number of borrowings from ancient to modern eras. The Balochi lexicon comprises distinct groups of words, some exhibiting typical Balochi features not found in Persian words, while others display Persian sound changes absent in Balochi. The interrelationship and borrowing patterns among Iranian languages remain unclear (Korn, 2003).

In modern times due to the geostrategic location of Balochistan as a transit route between different regions of the world, various languages have come into contact with Balochi, leading to the borrowing, and assimilation of foreign words whose origins are unclear.

Balochi has gone through three distinct phonetic eras, namely the ancient, middle, and modern eras. During prehistoric times, the Baloch people had interactions with the Median, Avestan, and Old Persian languages. Additionally, Balochi had connections with Parthian, Middle Persian, Western, and Eastern Iranian languages (Hintze, A. 2007), as well as the Arabic language at a later time. Presently, Balochi is surrounded by neighboring languages such as Sindhi, Saraiki, Pashto, Punjabi, Dari/Persian, and Arabic. Moreover, English is the dominant language of Science and Technology.

According to Agnes Korn:

“As far as the status of borrowdness or non-borrowdness is concerned, the Balochi lexicon may be said to comprise the following groups of words: first, words which show features typically showed in Balochi, but not by Persian words (e.g gwát ‘wind’ with Old Iranian (Olr.) $\text{w}á-$ →Bal. gwá-, róč ‘day’ with Olr.-č-→Bal. -č-). Second, there are Bal. words which have obviously been borrowed since they show a Persian sound change not observed in Bal.(e.g bačak(k) ‘son’ with Olr. $\text{w}á-$ → NP bá-, róza ‘fasting’ with Olr. -č-MP/NP -z-” (Agnes Korn , 2003: 19).

The Iranian languages share a common vocabulary structure, however, it is unknown which Iranian language contributed which lexemes.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Balochi is a language with a phonetically old structure that has remained unchanged throughout its history. However, it has had contact with other Old Iranian languages since its inception. Despite this, Balochi has never held the same significance as a lingua franca on the Iranian plateau from 3000 BC to the present day. As a result of the prevalence of ancient religions in the region, the languages used in religious prayers came to dominate, and Balochi came into contact with Old Persian, Avestan, and Median languages. This contact resulted in the exchange of a significant number of words between each language, as well as the loss of some of the ancient sounds. During the medieval and contemporary eras, Balochi was heavily influenced by Persian and other languages.

The Balochi language has changed with time, despite still being one of Iran's oldest languages and having sounds that have been preserved more consistently than those of other Iranian languages. Bráhui which is also the mother tongue of a large number of Baloch people is growing more quickly than Balochi in the majority areas of Balochistan. There is also a need to analyze why Balochi has undergone significant assimilation in Sindh and Punjab, and why the Balochi language's assimilation into other communities has been slower than it ought to have been? All of the questions need to be researched.

1.2 Aims and Objectives

To study the language contact in Balochi-speaking areas.

To identify the archaic lexicon and sounds of the target language despite language contact context with Iranian as well as neighboring languages.

To find out how Balochi borrowed the lexemes, assimilated them and also maintained their originality.

To investigate how the linguists considered the common family language words as Persian than that of Balochi.

Diffusion of some Balochi sounds and preserved maintenance of proto and Old Iranian

sounds.

1.3 Hypothesis

The phonological, morphological, syntactic, and lexical structure of the Balochi language has slightly deteriorated in Iran, Afghanistan, Pakistan, and the Gulf countries.

Balochi has absorbed many lexical, and phonological, elements from old neighboring languages.

1.4 Scope of the Research

In the present day, Balochi interacts with regional, official, and international languages just like the other languages of the world.

This research focuses on language contacts languages of Historical Balochistan i.e. where Baloch people live and share borders. Turkmenistan is not included because it does not border either the Baloch linguistic region or historical Baloch territory.

This study also clarifies the legitimacy behind all conjectures on the linguistic contact zones under state control and exposes both covert and overt assimilationist governmental strategies.

2. Literature Review

Academic research on the Balochi language started during British Colonial times in the mid-19th century. Mr. Leech published a book in 1838, and British officials in India were required to learn the local languages spoken in their jurisdiction. As a result, the British colonial administration compiled a large amount of text, lexicon, data, and grammar on Balochi. Grierson (1921) also collected specimens of languages belonging to the Iranian Family. According to him, only three manuscripts in Balochi were preserved in the British Library, containing text and a dictionary, along with sporadic missionary translations of certain passages of Scripture. There were practically no written texts in Balochi at the time.

A number of tiny handbooks that typically included texts with glossaries, and grammatical sketches were published as a result of the collection activities. A number of grammar and lexicon books were compiled by Hittu Ram (1881), Mayer (1901), Marston (1877), Gladstone (1874), Dames (1881), (1891), (1897), (1907), and Mockler (1877) are also the reliable source of language. The linguistic data of Balochi included in the "linguistic survey of India" is based on Mockler's (1877) and Dames's (1891) research works. The dictionaries that provide a bridge between Balochi and a European language are those by Gilbertson (1925), Geiger (1890), T. J Mayer (1910), and, together with the glossaries Elfenbein (1963) and 1990, Zarubin 1930, (1932), and (1949), Skolova 1953, and 1956.

The most recent study on the topic was carried out by Bahareh (2017) she compared the phonological system of three Iranian Balochi dialects i.e Mrijaveh Sarhaddi Balochi (MSB), Sarawani Balochi (SB), and Lashari Balochi (LB).

The Balochi language has been in contact with other languages in the region for millennia. (Elfenbein, 1966; Carina, 1989; Korn, 2005). According to Elfenbein (1966), it has interacted with Pashto/ Dari and Persian speakers in Afghanistan, Iran and Sindhi speakers in Sindh, Punjabi and Saraiki speakers in Punjab, and Arabic speakers in the Gulf and other Middle Eastern nations.

Thus, when politically Baloch tribesmen ruled Balochistan, their language had a very important status so many people who migrated from Afghanistan and Iran to central Balochistan after settling there, acquired Balochi and used it as a medium of communication. (Archer,2003)

In modern times Balochi has been impacted by Sindhi in Dera Murad Jamali, Jhal Magsi, and, Naseerabad where a discernible number of Balochi have assimilated into Sindhi. Interestingly Baloch who speaks Bráhue has preserved the Bráhui language in Sindh. The Balochi language is fully assimilated in Sindh and Punjab's metropolitan areas. (Elfenbein, 1966; Agnes, 2005; Carina, 1989).

The Balochi language is now widely spoken in Karachi, Pakistan's largest city, as well as Balochistan's major cities. We see that the majority of non-Baloch people in Quetta,

particularly grocery shopkeepers, can understand and speak Balochi. The Baloch people make up about 90% of the clientele, which is the cause. Social, print, and electronic media use has also been crucial in reviving the Balochi language in non-Baloch regions of Pakistan, Afghanistan, and Iran as well as among Baloch people who have lost their native tongue.

3. Research Methodology

A combination of qualitative and comparative approaches which were employed to examine the trend of language contact and its impact on the development of Balochi's phonology. The study is based on an extensive literature review, academic works, and previous studies on the Balochi language and its historical interactions with other languages.

The researcher uses a historical-comparative approach to investigate the stages of Balochi language interaction, following the linguistic impacts on Balochi from ancient times to the present. Through the analysis of primary and secondary sources, linguistic characteristics, phonetic alterations, and lexical borrowings are examined.

The study uses a variety of linguistic concepts and terminologies to define and examine the phonological changes that occurred in Balochi. To explain the patterns of language interaction and the associated phonetic alterations, it applies linguistic frameworks and theories while taking into account elements like migration, language borrowing, and language assimilation.

3.1 Data Collection

Multiple techniques of data collection were employed during the fieldwork. The data was acquired by visiting multiple sites across Balochistan, Sindh, and the Punjab regions. In addition to this, during the winters of 2016 and 2017 one of the authors visited Sindh and the southern region of Punjab for data collection due to the law and order situation in several regions of Balochistan, including Kohlu and Dera Bugti, most of the residents have moved to Sindh and Quetta. The language assimilation level of the Baloch tribes, of New Khahann near Hazar Ganji Quetta, was also examined during interviews.

In addition to this, ancient scripts and languages that had interacted with the Baloch were examined and studied side by side with Balochi.

3.2 Data Analysis

After examining the various obtained data, the scale of phonology, syntax, lexicon, and morphology of different dialects of the Balochi language was analyzed. Using the qualitative study method, the degree of borrowings with the contact languages in Balochistan, Sindh, and Punjab was examined.

This research was conducted using a variety of approaches. For these purposes, lexical, morphological, syntactic, and phonological analyses were conducted using sociolinguistic questionnaires. The only language interaction with Balochi in modern times was the subject of this questionnaire. Different texts and maps of the ancient and medieval eras were examined to analyze the essence of ancient linguistic communication.

3.3 Structure of Ancient Balochi Phonological

In terms of phonological structure, the Balochi language has an important place among the OIr. Among the modern Iranian languages, Balochi is also phonetically an archaistic language. (Mallory, & Adams, 2006) Balochi language maintained a large amount of OIr. sounds for thousands of years.

When it comes to the phonological organization among OIr languages, the Balochi language certainly has a significant position. Among the contemporary Iranian languages, Balochi is also phonetically an ancient language. While studying this topic it was observed that the Balochi language has maintained the OIr sound in, pīt “father” (Av. pitar -, OP. pitar -, Pahl. pīt, Skt. 'ptə -, NP. *pidar*, Prth. *Pid(ar)*).

Brat: “Brother” (OP *brata*, Av., NP. *Brother*).

Kapót : “dove” Balochi *Kapot* is very much similar to the Av. and OP *kapautaka*. (OP *kapautaka*, Av., NP. *kabútar*, MP. *Kabótar*, *kabód*).

Pač: “cook” (Av. *pača-*, OP. *pača-*, Pah. *Pač-*, NP. *paz*, Parth. *Pažag*).

Áp : “water” (Av. *áp*, OP. *áp*, Skt. *ápa*, Pah. *áp*, NP. *áb*, Prth. *áb*).

(Mahmoodzahi, 1370 HJ; Geiger, 1890; Faravashi, 1381.HJ; Shahbakhsh, 2004; Korn, 2005; Hashmi, 2000; Cheung, 2007).

1. t

Similar to other languages in the Old Iranian (OIr.) family, Balochi has preserved the sound '-t-' in various words. For instance, it can be observed in:

Tač : meaning "to run" (OP. Tača, Av. Tača, NP. Taz/táz, Prth. Taž).

Bút: meaning "been" (OP. Búta, Skt. Bavata, Av. Búta-, NP and Prth. Búd).

Mát: meaning "mother" (Skt. Mātaṛ, Av. Mátar-, OP. Mátar, Russ. Māt, NP. Mádár-, Prth. Mád(ar)).

Gwát: meaning "wind" (OP. Váda, Av. Váda, Prth. Vád, NP. Bád).

(Korn, 2005; Faravashi, 1381.HJ.; Geiger, 1890; Mahmoodzahi, 1370 Hj ;Shahbakhsh, 2004; Hashmi, 2000; Cheung, 2007)

2. k>

The phoneme '-k-' is prevalent in all Old Iranian (OIr.), Middle Iranian (MIR.), and New Iranian (NIR.) languages.

Kap/ kapt: meaning "fall" (Prth. Kaf/kaft, Av.-, OP., NP).

Kasán: meaning "small" (Av. Kasu, Prth. Kas, NP. Kótáh).

Makisk: meaning "fly" (Av. Makiska, Skt. Makiška, Pahl. Magas, Prth. Magas, NP. Magas).

Rék: meaning "sand" (Av., OP., Prth., Pahl., rék and rég, NP. Rég).

Hušk: meaning "dry" (Av. Huška-, OP. Huška, Pahl. Hušk, Prth. Hušk, NP. Xušk).

In Early New Iranian (EHD), postvocalic 'p', 't', and 'k' are transformed into 'f', 'θ', and 'x', respectively, while word-initial 'p', 't', and 'k' are aspirated.

(Mahmoodzahi, 1370 Hj; Geiger, 1890; Faravashi, 1381.HJ; Shahbakhsh, 2004; Korn, 2005; Hashmi, 2000; Cheung, 2007).

3. OIr. *b,d,g*

In Balochi, the (OIr.) sounds 'b', 'd', and 'g' are represented as 'b', 'd', and 'g' respectively. For example:

Bay-/bút: meaning "became" (Av. Búta, NP and Prth. Buw/búd).

Brát: meaning "brother" (Skt. Brātha, Av. Brátar, OP. Brátar, NP. Brádar, Prth. Brád(ar)).

Kumb: meaning "pool/jar" (Av. Xumba-, Skt. Kumba, NP. Xum(b), Prth. Xumb, "jug").

(Mahmoodzahi, 1370 Hj; Geiger, 1890; Faravashi, 1381.HJ; Shahbakhsh, 2004; Korn, 2005; Hashmi, 2000; Cheung, 2007).

4. *d*

The phoneme 'd' in all linguistic aspects is preserved in Balochi. For instance, it is observed that it in words such as:

Dóčag/ Dóč: meaning "to sew" (NP. Dóz-),.

Dantán: meaning "tooth" (Av. Dantan-, NP. Prth. Dandán).

Ádénk: meaning "mirror" (NP. Áyína, Prth. Áđénag).

Kadí: meaning "when" (Av. Kađa, NP. Kaí, Prth. Kađ).

Šód-: meaning "to wash" (NP. Šoy/šust, Bal. Šuš, Prth. Šód-/šust).

Pád: meaning "foot" (Av. Páđa-, Skt. Páda, oind. Páda, NP. Páy, Prth. Pád).

Šud: and šuđ-(EHD), meaning "hunger" (yav. Šuđ-, NP. Šuy, OInd. Kšud^h-).

Sind: meaning "break" (Av. Oind. Čid, ^hc inád, Prth. Sind).

Gind-: meaning "see" (Av. Vid: vinad-, oind. Vinid:, vindá-, Prth. Wind-/windád).

(Mahmoodzahi, 1370 Hj; Geiger, 1890; Faravashi, 1381.HJ; Shahbakhsh, 2004; Korn, 2005; Hashmi, 2000; Cheung, 2007).

5. *g*

The Old Iranian (OIr.) phoneme 'g' continues to exist in Balochi and other contemporary Iranian languages. For instance, it is present in words such as:

Gas: which represents the verb 'gasag' or 'gasit,' meaning "to bite" (NP.gaz, Prth. gaz/gašt, OInd. Gáh).

Gók: meaning "cow" (Av. gau, Prth. gáw).

Nigóš/góšdárág: "to listen" (Av. guš, NP. niyóš-/niyóšíd, Prth. niyóš).

Bóg: "joint" (OInd. bóga- "to bend").

(Geiger, 1890; Faravashi, 1381.HJ.; Shahbakhsh, 2004; Korn, 2005; Hashmi, 2000; Mahmoodzahi, 1370 HJ ; Cheung, 2007)

6. OIr č and j

While reviewing the data it was observed that the Balochi preserved the 'č' and 'j'. In Balochi, it is similar to the stops, 'č' and 'j' become lenited allophones in postvocalic positions, but later returned to their original Old Iranian state. However, since there is evidence of 'č' and 'j' preservation in the Middle North - Western Iranian, it can be assumed that they have indeed been maintained in their OIr. form.

(Geiger, 1890; Faravashi, 1381.HJ.; Hashmi, 2000; Shahbakhsh, 2004; Korn, 2005; Cheung, 2007).

7. č

č is a typical Proto- Iranian sound that exists in all Old Iranian languages, including Balochi. However, in New Persian, this sound undergoes assimilation or conversion into 'z' due to the long-lasting contact with the Arabic language. In Balochi, the Arabic language was unable to alter the '-č-' sound because Arabic directly influenced Persian as the language of the dominant elite class.

It can be observed in words like:

Čar(r), meaning "turn/return" (NP. Čark, Av. Čara, "move", Prth. Čar "graze/turn").

Čamm, meaning "eye" (Av. Čašman, NP, Prth. Čašm).

Čin, meaning "pick, gather" (Av. Činao-, NP, Prth. Čín-/číd).

Gičén, meaning "select/choose" (Av. Ví-činao-, NP. Guzín-/guzíd, Prth. Wižín-/wižíd-),

Róč, meaning "day/sun" (Av. Raočah-, NP. Róz, Prth. Róž),

Ač, meaning "of, from" (Av. Hača, NP. Az, Prth. Áž).

(Mahmoodzahi, 1370 Hj; Geiger, 1890; Faravashi, 1381.HJ; Shahbakhsh, 2004; Korn, 2005; Hashmi, 2000; Cheung, 2007;).

8. J

The phoneme 'j' exhibits a consistent pronunciation across various Indo-Aryan and Indo-Iranian languages, particularly in Sanskrit (Skt.). For instance, it can be observed in words like;

Jan/jat: meaning "strike, hit" (Av. jan/jata, Skt. jan or janat e, NP. zan/zad, Prth. žan/žad).

Jan, meaning "wife" (Av. ja'ni- Skt. jan, NP. zan, Prth. žan), bój/bójag, meaning "open/to open" (Av. bój, MP. bóz-/bóxt, Prth. bóž/bóxt, both "save").

Raj/rajít, meaning "process of coloring" (NP. raz-/rašt, razíd OInd. raj "color").

Dráj, meaning "long" (Av. drájah-, NP. diráz).

Parthian, as attested, demonstrates a more advanced stage, specifically with the phoneme 'ž', apart from the allophone 'j' occurring after 'n' and possibly after 'r'. Kurdish also utilizes 'ž', while in some dialects of Zazaki 'j' is retained, suggesting a stage that can be postulated for early modern New West Iranian.

(Korn, 2005; Cheung, 2007; Mahmoodzahi, 1370 Hj ; Geiger, 1890; Faravashi, 1381.HJ.; Shahbakhsh, 2004; Hashmi, 2000;)

9. OIr. s

The existence of sound 's' in all Old Iranian languages verifies the existence of contact during ancient times. Therefore similarity in words such as;

Sóč, meaning "to burn something" (Av. saoča-, OInd. šuč, NP. sóz-/sóxt, Prth. sóž/suxt).

Ásin, meaning "iron" (Pahl. ásin, NP. áhan, Prth. ásun).

Rés, meaning "spin" (Av. uruuaéasa-, NP. rés-/rišt, Prth. árwis/árwist, árwisád).

Rópásk, meaning "fox" (NP. róbáh, Prth. róbás, OInd. lópásá-).

Pas, meaning "sheep, goat" (Av. pasu, OInd. pasú, MP. pah, Prth. pas).

Gis, meaning "house" (Av. vís-, OInd. vís-, Prth. wis, NP. xúna).

Furthermore, we can observe similarities of Balochi with other linguistic branches, such as Skt.

Sind/sist, meaning "pluck/break" (Av. sid, OInd. ^bcid),
 Tus/tusag-, meaning "suffocate" (NP. tuhí, Prth. tusíg), tós, meaning "extinguish" (in contrast to forms without this suffix, e.g., Av. taošaiia-),
 Waps-, meaning "go to sleep" (Av. xwafsa),
 Rust/rudag, meaning "grow/to grow" (Prth. NP. rust). These linguistic correspondences provide evidence of ancient linguistic contact.
 (Mahmoodzahi, 1370 Hj; Geiger, 1890; Faravashi, 1381.HJ; Shahbakhsh, 2004; Korn, 2005; Hashmi, 2000; Cheung, 2007;).

10. z

During ancient times Balochi experienced contact with other Old Iranian languages. In Balochi, the OIr. sound 'z' has preserved its original position, whereas other modern Iranian languages have changed, diffusing into 'd'. This sound change occurred much later, particularly during the Arab occupation of Iranian territories.

For instance, this contrast can be observed in words such as:

Zán, meaning "know" (zaná-, NP. dán-/dánist, Prth. zán/zánád),

Zámát, meaning "son-in-law" (Av. zámátar, NP. dámád),

Mazan, meaning "big" (maz-, MPM, NWIr form), mazan, meaning "monster" (OInd. mahán/mahánt),

Méz, meaning "urinate" (Av. maéza-, NP. méz/mézíd), naz(z)ík, meaning "near" (Av. nazdiió, NP. nazd(ík), Prth. nazd),

Mazg, meaning "brain, marrow" (Av. mazga-, NP. magz).

These linguistic phenomena highlight the influence of historical and sociocultural factors on language change.

(Mahmoodzahi, 1370 Hj; Geiger, 1890; Faravashi, 1381.HJ; Shahbakhsh, 2004; Korn, 2005; Hashmi, 2000; Cheung, 2007;).

11. OIr. š

All Iranian languages, including the Indo-Aryan language Skt. have maintained the phoneme 'š'. This is evident in the vocabulary, as exemplified by words such as:

Nigóš/nigóšt: meaning "listen" (Av. √guš, NP. niyóš/niyóšíd, Prth. niyóš/niyóšád),

Mušk: meaning "mouse" (Skt. muška-, NP. múš),

Šud: meaning "hunger" (OInd. kšudh-, Skt. kšudh, YAv. Šuδ, NP. šuy, MP. šuy and suy),

Šór: meaning "salty earth" (NP. šór, Prth. šór "salt desert," šórén "saltish/salty").

As was already mentioned that Balochi čamm, meaning "eye" (OInd. cák-us, Av. čašman, NP. čašm),

Kaš: meaning "armpit" (OInd. kákxa-, Av. kaša, NP. Kaš),

Taš: meaning "adze" (Av. taša-, NP. taš, OInd. √takš, which may have been borrowed from New Persian or inherited from the Iranian language family.

It is worth mentioning that the term "muš," which signifies "rub," may have been constructed based on the past stem "mušt. (Hubschmann 1890:558, cf. Prth. nimarz-/ni-mušt "make smooth" Av. maraza-), This past stem, if not borrowed from New Persian "mušt," could potentially be related to the Iranian cognate of either OInd. √mrj.

These linguistic examples demonstrate the continuity and preservation of the 'š' sound in Iranian and Indo-Aryan languages.

(Mahmoodzahi, 1370 HJ; Geiger, 1890; Faravashi, 1381.HJ; Shahbakhsh, 2004; Korn, 2005; Hashmi, 2000; Cheung, 2007;).

12. ž

The Balochi language, spoken by the Baloch people in their place of residence from the 2nd century BC to the 2nd century AD, was heavily influenced by the Parthian language. The Parthian sound 'ž' is similar to the Early New West Iranian stage of Balochi and is also present in Kurdish.

Dóžah, meaning "hell" (Av. daožaiḥa-, Kur. Dóžax, NP. dóžax, Prth. dóžax, MP. došux),

Dužmen, meaning "enemy" (NP. dušman, Prth. dušmen), may exhibit a secondary assimilation process. The expected Balochi outcome of OIr. Av.dušmanah-, dušmaniiu- would be dum(m)an, but the presence of a morpheme boundary might have prevented assimilation. In this regard, it can be compared to OAv. dužmanah- (YAv. dušmanah-, Hofmann/Forssman 1996:104). Additionally, the word muž, meaning "mist/fog," could be connected to the Iranian words derived from Old Iranian. miža-.

These examples highlight the linguistic contact and influences between Balochi and Prth, shedding light on the historical development of the Balochi language. (Mahmoodzahi, 1370 Hj; Geiger, 1890; Faravashi, 1381.HJ; Shahbakhsh, 2004; Korn, 2005; Hashmi, 2000; Cheung, 2007).

13. *h*

Similar to other Iranian languages, both ancient and modern, the Balochi language has maintained the 'h' sound in all of its forms. An example of this can be seen in:

Ham: meaning "also" (Av. ham, OP. ham, Prth. ham, Pahl. ham, NP. ham).

Gwahár: meaning "sister" (Av. xvañhar-, Skt. Sausār, NP. xwáhar, Prth. wxár).

Huš/hušit, meaning "to end, absorb" (Av. √huš, NP. xóš/xóšíd, MP hóš-/hóšíd, Prth. huš-/huš, hóšíd).

Hušk, meaning "dry" (Prth. hušk, xušk, Skt. huška, NP. Xušk).

Húk, meaning "pig" (Prth. Húg, Av. hú, NP. xúk, MP. xúg,).

These examples demonstrate the retention of the 'h' sound in the Balochi language, aligning it with the linguistic characteristics of other Iranian languages.

(Mahmoodzahi, 1370 Hj; Geiger, 1890; Faravashi, 1381.HJ; Shahbakhsh, 2004; Korn, 2005; Hashmi, 2000; Cheung, 2007;).

14. *m*

Balochi has preserved the OIr sound 'm' in alignment with other languages of the Iranian family.

Miç: meaning "suck/breastfeeding" (NP. maz-/mazíd), madag, referring to "locust, prawn" (Av. maðaxa-, NP. maig), rómast, indicating "rumination" (OInd. romantha-), and né(mag), denoting "half" (Av. naéma-, NP. ním(a), MP. ném(ag), Prth. ném).

These examples showcase the continuity of the 'm' sound in Balochi, paralleling its existence in other languages within the Iranian family. (Mahmoodzahi, 1370 HJ; Geiger, 1890; Faravashi, 1381.HJ; Shahbakhsh, 2004; Korn, 2005; Hashmi, 2000; Cheung, 2007;).

15. *n*

Balochi has preserved the Old Iranian (OIr) 'n' in various lexical items. For instance, the verb "ništ" meaning 'sat down' (derived from Parthian "nišast"), the noun "namáš" meaning 'prayer' (derived from Avestan "namah-", Middle Persian "namáč", New Persian "namáz", and Parthian "namázš"), the verb "zin-" meaning 'seize' (derived from Avestan "ziná-"), the noun "dantán" meaning 'tooth' (derived from New Persian "dandán" and Parthian "dandán"), and the noun "zan(úk)" meaning 'knee' (derived from Avestan "zánu" and New West Iranian form "zánú" or "zámúg"). These findings are supported by various sources, including (Mahmoodzahi, 1370 HJ; Geiger, 1890; Faravashi, 1381.HJ; Shahbakhsh, 2004; Korn, 2005; Hashmi, 2000; Cheung, 2007).

16. *r*

Balochi has successfully retained the OIr. 'r' sound, paralleling its presence in other languages.

Róp/rupt: meaning "sweep" (OIr, similar to Av and OP, urúpaia-, NP. rób/ruft).

Rék: referring to "sand" (NP. rég).

War: indicating "eat" (Av. xwara, NP. xwar/xwurd, Prth. xwar-/xward).

Brát: denoting "brother" (Prth. brád(ar), Av. brátar, NP. brádar.).

Gwahár: signifying "sister" (Prth. Wxár, Av. xwaŋhar, NP. xwáhar.).

Siasar: in Rakhshani Balochi Siasar also use for Sister, Skt. Sausār

These examples illustrate the preservation of the 'r' sound in Balochi, in line with its existence in other languages within the Iranian family. (Mahmoodzahi, 1370 HJ; Geiger, 1890; Faravashi, 1381.HJ; Shahbakhsh, 2004; Korn, 2005; Hashmi, 2000; Cheung, 2007;).

17. *rd*

All ancient contact languages effectively retained the "-rd" sound, while NP lost it in distinct periods. However, in Kurdish and other Western Iranian languages, this sound can still be observed to some extent. For example;

Zird, meaning "heart" (Av. zaraδ(aia)-, NP. dil, Prth. zirδ).

Šurd, indicating "mild."

These examples demonstrate the preservation of the '-rd' sound in ancient contact languages, while New Persian has undergone changes leading to its loss. Nevertheless, this sound can still be observed in Kur and other West Iranian languages. (Mahmoodzahi, 1370 HJ; Geiger, 1890; Faravashi, 1381.HJ; Shahbakhsh, 2004; Korn, 2005; Hashmi, 2000; Cheung, 2007;).

18. *rz*

In the languages of ancient Iran the '-rz' sound, occurring at the end of adjectives or nouns, is common in Indo-Iranian languages. Balochi, being one of the oldest Iranian languages, has preserved the '-rz' sound.

Burz: meaning "high" (Av. barazant-, Prth. burz, NP. buland).

Barzī: referring to a "saddlebag" (Av. baraziš-, NP. bála).

Marz: indicating a "clod crusher" (NP. mála "harrow"), marz-, meaning "to use a clod crusher" or "to stroke" (Av. maraza-, NP. mál-, Prth. ni-marz "make smooth").

During the Middle Balochi period (MBal), a slight influence of the Arabic language can be observed in terms of phonological and lexical changes.

This highlights the prevalence of the '-rz' sound in ancient Iranian contact languages, with Balochi being a notable example. Additionally, the Middle Balochi period shows some phonological and lexical influences from Arabic. (Mahmoodzahi, 1370 HJ; Geiger, 1890; Faravashi, 1381.HJ; Shahbakhsh, 2004; Korn, 2005; Hashmi, 2000; Cheung, 2007;).

19. w>g

During the middle period of Balochi languages, a significant phonetic change occurred where the sound 'w' transformed into 'g'. This phase is known as the second phase. Several examples illustrate this transformation:

Wačak (k) > gwačak(k) - meaning 'boy'

Wāčī > gwāčī - indicating 'play' or 'playing'

War > gwar - denoting 'breast'

Waharām > Gwaharām - a popular Balochi name

(h)wāp > gwāp - describing the 'braiding of hair'

(h)wāt > gwāt - referring to breeze

(h)wast > gwast - representing the second form of (h)wazag or gwazag, which means 'to pass'

These changes in the Balochi language during this middle period demonstrate the evolution of the 'w' sound into 'g'.

20. wí(i) > gí(i)

In the realm of linguistics, a notable transformation occurred where the sound 'wí' shifted to 'gí' in Balochi. This change can be observed in various examples:

Wih > gih - representing 'good' or 'wonderful'

Wírām > gírām - indicating 'to forget'

Wíst > gíst - signifying 'twenty', while the form 'bíst' for 'twenty' has recently been borrowed from Persian.

Vind > gind - meaning 'to see'

21. j > z

Additionally, another phonetic shift that has taken place involves the conversion of 'j' to 'z': tājag > tāzag - originally meaning 'fresh' and still present in all dialects, but the form 'tāzag' is particularly common in the Rakhshani Balochi dialect.

Rahjan > rahzan - referring to a 'looter on the way', with the 'z' sound recently borrowed from Persian.

Tazhan > tazhan - commonly used in the Kechi dialect, denoting 'injured internally', but it can also be customized as 'tahzan', which has been borrowed from Persian.

These linguistic changes illustrate the dynamic nature of the Balochi language and its interaction with other languages, leading to the modification of certain sounds and the adoption of new phonetic elements.

Loss of prefix -a-

After the establishment of direct contact with the Balochi language as well as other Iranian languages, the Arabic language thereby exerted influence on the Balochi negative form prefix '-a-'. However, it is worth noting that this prefix is still retained in many Balochi words.

Many terms have lost their "-a-" prefixes, including "a-wādag" which means "without salt or saltless," "a-nóš" which means "unintoxicated," "a-bétk" which means "easeless" or "calm," "a-póg" which means "against" or "co-wife," "a-dāruk" which means "temporary stay," -ḍók' characterizing 'miscreant'.

On the other hand, it is worth mentioning that the Pahlavi language kept this structure until 579 CE. Pahlavi language contains a number of examples with 'a-' prefix, such as 'a-bahr' which means 'portionless', 'a-čār' that denotes 'helpless', 'a-dād' conveying 'illegal', 'a-dard' signifying 'painless', 'a-gāh' representing 'without rank', 'a-ganj' meaning 'penniless', 'a-gār' characterizing 'powerless' or 'useless', 'a-gówāg' indicating 'speechless', 'a-gumān' representing 'without doubt', 'a-kinārag' denoting 'boundless' or 'unlimited', 'a-kard' conveying 'not done', and 'a-marg' signifying 'deathless' or 'undying'.

The aforementioned alterations in language usage and influences exemplify the effect of language contact and transformation. The Balochi negative prefix displays the influence of the Arabic language, whereas the Pahlavi language retained a comparable structure until the specific period (MacKenzie, 1971).

4. Conclusion

This study examined language interaction and how it affected the development of Balochi's phonology. During the thorough investigation of historical sources, linguistic data, and comparative research complex processes of linguistic interaction and phonetic alterations were observed that have affected the evolution of Balochi. Findings demonstrate Balochi's exceptional ability to hold onto some phonetic traits that it has received from Old Iranian languages. Balochi has retained distinctive phonetic patterns, such as the retention of the 'n' sound in numerous nouns, as is illustrated by *ništ*, *namáš*, *zin-*, *dantán*, and *zan(úk)* despite the influence of neighboring languages and the introduction of Arabic.

The study has also clarified the many phases of language contact Balochi has gone through. Balochi has consistently been in contact with other languages, leading to phonological alterations and lexical borrowings, starting with its early interactions with Old Persian, Avestan, and Median and continuing with Middle Persian, Parthian, Young Avestan, and Arabic.

Within the Balochi language phonetic changes in certain dialects have also been identified for example the transformation of 'w' into 'g' and 'j' into 'z'. These transformations and phonetic changes reflect that through time language continues to advance.

furthermore, the study has emphasized the need to study how modern languages such as Arabic, Persian, Urdu, Saraiki, Sindhi, and English have influenced Balochi phonology. The influence of these languages, notably English, in the age of globalization, provides both opportunities and problems for the development and preservation of Balochi as a separate linguistic entity.

Overall, this research work contributes to the larger field of linguistics by providing a comprehensive assessment of Balochi language contact and phonological history, and it serves as a starting point for future research and academic endeavors in this area.

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Exploring the Use of Fillers in English Language Classrooms

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Abstract

This study attempts to investigate the use and types of fillers by the English language teachers in local classrooms. Various studies have validated the importance of using fillers in second language contexts. Hence, this research will be significant to view the use of fillers in English language classrooms. This research is binary in nature. Firstly, Participants of the research were the 20 randomly selected English language teachers from various five different universities of Lahore. Then, data was collected through the recordings of the teachers. A total of 20 lectures of forty-five minutes each were taken from these teachers. Further, Qualitative approach was chosen for data analysis. The analysis of data presented that these English language teachers used a high ratio of fillers in their classroom teaching. It was also explored that both lexical and non-lexical fillers were part of their spoken discourse. At the second stage five open-ended questions were also asked by the 20 teachers to gather their opinion regarding the use of fillers in the lectures. Teachers opinioned that fillers are integral part of their second language, and it has positive effect on learners.

Keywords: *Spoken Discourse, Fillers, English Language Classrooms, Teachers, Pakistan*

1. Introduction

Language is a rich phenomenon. It is comprised of symbols that paved ways for expression and communication. Ali et al., (2021) says that language is the most powerful tool for communication. It is important to view that how humans use language and for this purpose one studies discourse analysis. It is said that (discourse analysis) DA is a field of exploration made out of different heterogeneous ways to deal with the investigation of connections between language-being used and the social world. In other words, Discourse analysis is a branch of linguistics that primarily studies the use of language. Language is typically viewed as a social practice that influences the social world by field researchers. Here main interest is the study of the form and function of spoken and written language. Discourse analysis also focuses on the recognition of linguistic features of different genres that are central to the interpretation and perception of language related to social and cultural aspects. All these features are helpful for making cohesion and coherence in the text.

Coherence and cohesion; a piece of discourse needs to have a certain structure, which is based on very different factors than what a single sentence need. The manner in which sentences connect up with one another to frame talk is attachment. The items are hanged together because of cohesion. Union happens because of the mix of lexical and syntactic designs. It ought to be viewed as regarding the two essential elements of etymological association - paradigmatic and syntagmatic. By doing so, the principles of linguistic description are meaningfully extended beyond the sentence. Discourse structure can be studied in two ways: paradigmatically, by tracing the relationship between the constituent linguistic elements along the axis of equivalence, and syntagmatically, by tracing the relationship between the linguistic elements along the axis of combination. In the first scenario, pronouns and other pro-forms are recognized as cohesive constructs; in the second scenario, the primary characteristics of cohesion emerge in the form of sentence connectors and thematic arrangements of sentence constituents.

Halliday refers to cohesion through grammar and cohesion through lexis as cohesion through combination and cohesion through equivalence. He discusses subordination, coordination, pronouns, and other grammar concepts. He also deals with item repetition or occurrence within the same lexical set in the lexical scheme.

One can gain some insight into how speakers structure what they want to say by analyzing the cohesive links that are present throughout a discourse. Recurrence, the use of preforms, connectors, thematic arrangements, and other methods are just a few of the many tools used to achieve cohesion.

The field of cohesion, which is connections between sentences and other words, is not enough to help us understand what we read and hear. It is not difficult to produce a piece of discourse that is extremely cohesive and has numerous connections between the sentences, but it is still difficult to interpret. People are the ones who interpret what they read and hear. They try to come up with an interpretation that fits their experience of the world. Therefore, coherence refers to the "connectedness" that people experience when interpreting what they hear or read.

Coherence is concerned with the connectivity of underlying content, whereas cohesion is concerned with connectivity of the surface. In other words, coherence is related to the mutual accessibility and relevance of the surface-level concepts and relationships. Taking into account the underlying phenomena, a reader or listener would need to make meaningful connections that are not always conveyed by the words and sentences.

It is interesting to mention that despite getting fluency in spoken discourse particularly in English language, there are situations where the speaker sometimes stops for some instance. This gap can be due to several reasons like thinking about appropriate word, lack of appropriate vocabulary or hesitation to utter any specific word. Whatever the cause is, this situation is there for native and non-native speakers of English. Moreover, In ESL situations, there are a lot of instances where one needs to add up words which are from mother tongue. This phenomenon is called as code mixing (Ali, Ranjha, & Jillani, 2019). But apart from that there are some other instances where words are used which are considered assign or marker of hesitation. These are called as fillers. So being the researchers the core aim is to find out the ratio of fillers in ESL situations and to explore how and where teachers used them during their lectures.

1.1 Fillers

Can be taken as discourse markers when the speaker wants to have time for thinking or he/ she is hesitant (Erten, 2014)

It has been viewed that even native speakers sometimes struggle to express themselves properly when speaking. Kaivanpanah et al., (2012) stated that the worse the speaker, the greater the communication problems. Dornyei and Scott (1997) viewed that this problem occurs when linguistic competence and communicative intent do not match. To fill this gap, we use various communication strategies. One of these strategies is the use of language fillers. There are words like “well” “you know” “em” “ehm” “I mean” “kind of” and several other identical expressions. Fox, 2010, Baawelllen (2001) and Rose (1998) all termed them as fillers. They were of the view that these phrases or words can come up anytime in the utterances as they are not planned and can easily be deleted from any spoken discourse as they do not alter the content of speech.

Fillers can be divided into two subcategories.

Lexical and non-lexical fillers. Being lexical means that they are actual words. For example, in this case the lexical filler looks like the latter two. The others known as non-lexical, are just sounds, and are often called filled poses. Yule (2014) stated that these words and utterances are often viewed as undesirable, but they are common to all conversations and that they are "one of the things that make conversations work." department". That is, they have their own, distinct, and necessary strategic functions. Different types of linguistic fillers are found in many languages around the world, although the lexical items, phrases, and utterances used as linguistic fillers vary from language to language. Sign language even has linguistic fillers. Johnson (2016) said that this shows how common and fundamental sign language is in communication.

The term "speech disfluency" encompasses linguistic fillers, also known as discourse markers. Disfluency in speech includes:

Linguistic fillers and false starts

Fixed expressions

Premature moves are sentences that are cut off, though fixed expressions allude to a

speaker's self-rectification milliseconds after a mistake or an error. Even though it gets a bad rap, many experts believe speech disfluency is normal and doesn't necessarily mean you should change it, despite what the media says.

The sort of discourse disfluency that gets the most terrible press are phonetic fillers. During speech, we use utterances like these that have no particular meaning. They are much of the time seen as not filling a specific need and are in many cases considered to be an indication of distractedness or anxiety.

These verbal stops have many names and come in many structures. Filler words, verbal pauses, linguistic fillers, discourse markers—the list goes on and on. Anything you desire to call them, they are a piece of ordinary discourse and show up in each language, including American gesture-based communication.

1.1.1 Reason of using Fillers

These seemingly pointless utterances are used for a variety of reasons. Linguistic fillers are often thought to be pointless, but they can be useful for many things. Therefore, why do people employ linguistic fillers? Sociolinguists claim that filler words serve six purposes:

i. Permit thought

Our brain has a chance to catch up with our speech and decide what to say next during these pauses, such as "um" or "eh." This does not necessarily mean that speech is bad. If anything, it is a sign that the speaker is speaking with more thought and is not just muttering words without thinking about them.

ii. Allow politeness in the Speech

With pauses or filler words, our statements are perceived as more polite. What we say will probably be less offensive if we speak less directly. You might take offense, for instance, if you ask a friend what they think of your new sweatshirt and they respond, "I don't like it." However, if they say, "Um, it's just... I'm not sure I like it," you already know that they are being honest and trying not to upset you.

iii. Work as a Support to Talk on Sensitive Topic

Phonetic fillers assume a comparable part while looking at something that may be delicate. Rather than asking, "Are you seeing a therapist?" It's possible that asking, "So, do you, like, see a therapist or...?" will be more socially acceptable.

iv. Focus on what we'll Say Next

In a dialect known as "valley speak," this kind of filler is frequently used casually. In this way the filler, "like" is the most common way to emphasize something. "I think this building is, like, beautiful," for instance.

v. Shares the Nuances of one's Behavior or Emotion

A person who says, "I'm feeling good about this exam" shows that they are optimistic about their results. Nonetheless, in the statement, "I'm feeling, you know, similar to, great about this test" there is something else entirely. This overtone suggests a lack of self-assurance.

vi. Reflecting Uncertainty

Filler words can provide the listener with an explanation of a statement without the spoken caveat if we are estimating i.e., if a research paper has 53 pages the usual utterance would be i.e., There are like more than 50 pages in this research paper.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The exploration of new ways of rapid information has elevated the importance of communication. Therefore, the value of fluency has gained a lot of important. Viewing the second language situations, this situation is identical. But as English is the lingua franca of the world, so it becomes more important in native and non-native language situations. Although sometimes it happens that during spoken discourse there are certain instances where the speaker uses certain words which fills the gap or covers up the pause in his/her speech. As mentioned earlier, these are called as fillers. Knowing the presence and utility of fillers it is pivotal to explore how much presence do fillers have in ESL teaching? And ESL teachers who are teaching English language content during their lectures since sometimes are using fillers or not?

1.3 Significance of the Study

This study will be significant as it will open up a new channel of understanding regarding the use of fillers in ESL situations. This study will also be important to give an insight the situations of regular ESL speakers in connection with using fillers. This study will also convey a message that if ESL teachers who are fluent enough in their English language speaking using fillers, it means that lack of fluency is not the issue to utilize fillers in their spoken discourse. Finally, this study will be pivotal to the future researcher to know that how many different types of fillers are uses as it shows the cognitive choice of an individual speaker.

1.3.1 Objectives

There are some objectives set for the study:

To look for the frequency of fillers in English language classrooms

To investigate the reason of using fillers

2. Literature Review

2.1 Acquisition of Language and Learning

First, it should be noted that there are many ways to develop your own language.

Second Language Proficiency and Knowledge and Krashen (1982) classify these as:

Two ways: acquisition and learning. The difference between the two is that you are gaining seconds Language refers to autonomous and unconscious learning, whereas learning conscious process. Since this is research in the first place, it is important to distinguish between these two Focuses on learning and aims to raise awareness of how to integrate language fillers EFL classroom. As already mentioned, the use of language fillers as a communication strategy is usually not explicitly taught (Erten, 2013) but they learn these skills instead. However, it is difficult to acquire related to language level. As you become more capable, your ability to do so increases Recognize and reproduce more complex skills (Krashen, 1982).

2.2 Language Acquisition Stages

O'Malley & Chamot (1995) present a theory of second language acquisition. Learning based on the work of Anderson (2005). The theory is Acquisition of a second language takes place in his three stages; the last stage being related to language. The process of mastering something as complex as using language filler words. skills at these levels. Acquisition is a cognitive, associative, and autonomous stage. What is the cognitive stage. By observing a specific task, learners are instructed on how to complete a specific task. by experts doing the same job, or by studying and trying to understand it yourself. At this stage when the learner is skilled enough to explain what they have learned and how communicates in a given language but lacks the knowledge and ability to reproduce it so make mistakes. During the associative stage is the ability higher and the error is more and more minimal. Based on O'Malley & Chamot (1995). According to Anderson (2005) it was important that participants were at least engaged. Associative phase to work well in spontaneous conversational situations. Even if the learner becomes more proficient, remembering the grammatical rules and apply them to consciously generated language. In the third and final stage, autonomous Level rules are used autonomously, which saves a lot of work.

2.2 Features of Communicative Competence

The term 'Communicative Competence' was introduced by Hymes in the mid – 1960s, and since then it has been popular among teachers, researchers, and others interested in language.

Communicative competence is an essential part of actual communication but is reflected only indirectly, and sometimes imperfectly due to general limiting conditions as noted above, this study generally communication strategy, especially the closely related term called strategy ability. In their research, Canale & Swain proposed a framework for communication.

2.3 Competence based on three Main Areas

Grammar, Sociolinguistics, Discourse. According to Canale & Swain (1980), these determine a learner's ability. Three years later, Canale (1983 added his fourth in a later revision and the final component area: discourse ability

2.4 Fillers in English Language Classrooms

Teaching is the most important part in any English language classroom thus, the hesitation in speaking while teaching has been overlooked as teacher is someone who creates and innovates any content to the desire, mental caliber, mood, and other variables of the learners (Erten, 2014).

No one can deny the fact that in English language teaching, the teachers don't use fillers. There are a lot of research that validated the use of fillers in English language classrooms precisely ESL classrooms. Several research have given various reasons for using fillers by the teachers and learners in the classrooms. Some of them are of the view that fillers are signals of cognitive procedure going in speaker's mind for the speech creation (Santos, Alarcón & Pablo, 2016). Some other researchers argued that fillers are part of the social process and thus they are integral part of the teachers' discourse (Stevani, Sudarsono & Supardi, 2018). Fillers and the development of oral strategic competence in foreign language learning.). further, a study performed by Indriyana, Sina and Bram (2021). Shared the opinion that fillers are actually part of oral strategy by the teachers in ESL classrooms. So, viewing this it can be said that this gap or pause does not reflect lack of speaking competence rather the thinking process of speaker for the linguistic choices he/she had in mind (Fitriati et al.,2021). It is also explained that classroom fillers aid the process of meaningful utterances though they don't have actual meaning themselves. Biber et al., (2002) also supported that dysfluency is a part of conversation because real time speaking whether planned or unplanned is always difficult to execute.so pauses, repetition and hesitation are normal part of it.

2.5 Pakistani English Language Classrooms

Ali et al., (2020) is of the view that Pakistani classrooms are devoid of any technology usage, hence the use of English language for teaching focuses on previously utilized methods only. The value of English is appreciated unanimously by all the citizens of the country yet the ways to learn English have been least impactful (Ali et al., 2021). Therefore, the learners are unable to learn English language (Ali et al., 2019). It is also an established notion that as Urdu is the most practiced language, so the learners and the teachers used code mixing of Urdu and English inside classrooms (Ali et al., 2017).

So, it is pivotal to explore if fillers are used in Pakistani classrooms or not.

2.6 Previous Studies

Several researchers have validated the value of fillers. These early studies address the use of fillers but are in a different area. Erten (2013) highlighted a study on the importance of teaching fountain pens to students in ESL/EFL classrooms in the Turkish Education and International Journal of Education. increase. A second study, by Santos, Alarcon, Pablo, and Ertrn (2014) giving value to the use of fillers conducted a study on teaching fillers in ESL settings. He wanted to explore what fillers are most acquired by the users after they are taught different fillers. The span of recording were two sessions. And both pre teaching and post teaching recordings were done to view which fillers are used by the students. Data was analyzed through qualitative method. It was explored that the assumption that fillers are regular part of learners' speaking was right. Moreover, the most preferred filler was uhm/hm, well, and how to say etc.

Likewise, Lomotey (2021) focused on conducting a study to explore the use of fillers in a public sector university. Focusing on the real time lectures (24) qualitative approach was used. The data was transcribed to classify lexical and un lexical fillers. The outcomes revealed that in connection with communicative purposes, fillers were the regular part of the teachers and learners speaking. Moreover, fillers performed cognitive function as well and while filling the gaps due to hesitation, attention, and feedback it maintained fluency also.

Hubacova (2015), in the Mexican Article Journal, focused on teaching fillers in her FL classrooms with different educational settings and different FL classes. We are reporting on the survey results that are placed. Finally, in the Journal of Linguistics and Language Teaching of Indonesia, Navratilova (2015) conducted a study to find the types and functions of fillers used in argumentative conversations by male and female English teaching program students. Despite all this prior research, the authors are interested in investigating the pens used by faculty and students in EFL classroom interactions. Building on previous research, the authors now conduct this research from various perspectives related to fillers in the field of discourse markers. However, the analysis of this topic focuses on the types of lexicalized and non-lexicalized files that faculty and students use in classroom interactions, and the types of lexicalized and non-

lexicalized fillers that faculty and students use. The feature of lexicalized fillers is emphasized. ALIYAH (2021) performed an investigation on the analysis of fillers used in an interview. The focus was to investigate the functions and types of fillers in a three-minute interview part. Using qualitative approach, it was explored that total 58 fillers were used by the speaker, and it performed social and cognitive function in speaking.

Previously, no study has been conducted in exploring the use of fillers in local classrooms. This is one of the earlier studies that will focus on the ratio of fillers used by local teachers in their teaching. This study will also be significant to view that how frequently bilingual teachers used fillers.

3. Research Methodology

This is a binary investigation. Firstly, the population of the research was selected which was Pakistan. Secondly, from the said population through convenient sampling method Lahore was chosen for data collection. Thirdly, five randomly selected universities were part of the study. Moreover, 20 varied teachers were picked to be the participants of the study. The universities and the teachers were chosen through a balloting method (pick and choose method). This act was performed to evade any biasness in the research.

For the first stage, the design was quantitative as it exploits descriptive analysis for the data representation. At the second stage, the research uses qualitative methods by conducting interviews from the teachers. Questions were particularly designed for this purpose. Later, these interviews were scripted, and opinions of the participants were made the part of this study. Importantly, these teachers were teaching EFL classrooms in a public sector university in Lahore.

In collecting the data, the authors used a non-participant observation technique. In observational studies of non-participants, the authors were not participants in the observed activity, but observed 'sitting on the sidelines'. They are not directly involved in the observed situation (Observation was used in this study as a tool to collect data. According to Creswell (2014), qualitative observation occurs when researchers make field notes about individual behaviors and activities in the research setting.

3.1 Population of the Study

The population for this exploration comes from Pakistan. Particularly the English language teachers working at the university level. All these teachers were teaching English as a major subject in their respective universities.

3.2 Sample of the Study

The sample size was 20 teachers from five different universities in Lahore. These teachers and universities both were selected randomly. Random sampling always provides a fair chance to all the population and avoids bias in research.

3.3 Research Procedure

The procedure of research continued for a month. The lectures room in the respective universities has a recording system where the recording of the lectures was done without sharing it with the teachers. This was done to avoid any consciousness or pressure on the teachers. Further to abide by the ethical rules for any research the permissions from the teachers were after sharing their recording with them. The recordings were later transcribed for the data analysis.

Furthermore, after collecting the data the researchers planned interviews with the 20 teachers. A total of five open-ended questions were structured and they were asked from all the teachers. All the teachers gave consent to give an interview and they were told that the interviews will be recorded. The total time of recording was 120 minutes. Later the data was transcribed to present the results.

3.4 Validity and Reliability

Validity and reliability are very important in any research. In this investigation, researchers were keen to maintain validity and reliability. Therefore, some variables were made constant that can avoid validity and reliability. The classroom settings, time of the class, students all were remaining constant with all the 20 teachers. The class size was identical with all teachers. The days of the lectures were already scheduled, and all the teachers were well prepared about their lectures. Importantly, the teachers were not known about recording so any factor that could create consciousness was also eliminated.

4. Results

4.1 Filler types used by Teachers in EFL Classrooms

There were various types of fillers used by the local teachers in their lectures respectively. During their classroom interaction it was explored that some of the utterances were lexical, and some were un-lexical.

Table 4.1 Lexical and Un-lexical utterance

Participants	Frequency			
	(LXF)		(ULXF)	
	N	%	N	%
Teachers	20	97.14 %	50	49.41 %
TOTAL	20	97.14 %	50	49.41 %

The above table clearly explains that the teachers' usage of lexical and un-lexical fillers is frequent. It can be seen that the lexical fillers used by the teachers are 97.14% whereas the percentage of using un-lexical fillers are 49.41.

Moreover, the percentage of various types of fillers are given below:

Table 4.2 Filler Types

Filler Types	Filler	(Fr)	
		N	%
Lexicalized	Ok	414	80.22 %
	Yah	34	7.01 %
	You know	36	7.25 %
	I mean	12	2.21 %
	So	29	6.15 %
	Actually	7	1.17 %
	Fine	18	4.16 %
	Got it	5	1.32 %
Unlexicalized	Um	4	93.18 %
	UHH	3	6.81 %

4.2 Findings of the Study

The above table clearly explains the use of lexical and un-lexical fillers. The lexical fillers and non-lexical fillers are a regular part of teachers' communication. The highest percentage of lexical fillers used by the teachers is 80.22% (OK)% which can be seen in table 2. whereas the highest percentage of using an un-lexical filler is 93.18% (Um). The lowest percentage of a filler is 1.32% (Got it) which is a lexical filler. On the other hand, the lowest percentage of the un-lexical filler is 6.81%. All the data above shows that the different types of fillers are constantly used by the teachers inside their respective classrooms. The findings validate that using fillers is a regular practice in EFL classroom in Pakistan. The observer's proficiency level appeared to influence how the verbal fillers were used.

Some learners even used expansions of regular words as filler words. Silver Valod (2011) explains that word-last syllable expansions are common and used as language fillers. This can be viewed as a linguistic filler or padding when hesitating what to say next. Strategy. As Malley & Chamot (1995) argue, this is the individual's working memory.

Teachers with a high level of competence are in this case, most likely to use less fillers than other languages. Moreover, it was also explored that while mixing of codes i.e., from English to Urdu the fillers are used and sometimes visa-a-vis.

In relation to the explanation of the results of this study. The above findings are based on the problem presented by the author. An analysis of fillers was conducted to find the purpose of this study, which consisted of examining the types of lexical and non-lexicalized fillers and their frequency. The authors draw several points from the results. First, from our initial research question, we learned that faculty use both types of fillers. There were lexicalized and non-lexicalized fillers.

4.3 Discussion

The authors analyzed the types of filler materials used by instructors and students by transcribing entire classroom interactions. As a result, 573 fillers were found in 389 utterances of lecturer-student conversations. The set of fillers found in the instructor's utterances was his 764 fillers, consisting of his 660 lexicalized fillers and 54 non-lexicalized fillers.

The results of this study differ from previous studies. Although some previous studies had analyzed fillers, the authors attempted to analyze the data with different objectives to distinguish the data from previous studies. The first previous work by Erten (2013) "Teaching Fillers and Student's Fillers Usage":

A study conducted at the ESOGU Preparatory School", a second earlier study by Santos, Alarcon, Pablo, and Hubackova (2015). The last previous study by Navratilova (2015), entitled Fillers, designed Fillers for use in discussions by male and female students of the English Teaching and Research program. From these previous studies, they did not adopt and explain detailed descriptions of the types of fillers used. Learn more about how fillers work. Therefore, in this current study, the authors build on the

theories of Rose (1998) and Stenstrom (1994) to explore more about the types and functions of lexical and non-lexical fillers used by teachers and students in classroom interactions. Analyzed and researched in detail. The outcomes from this study also support the results from the study performed by Erten (2013) who shared that in ESL classrooms fillers are used regularly. He argued that using fillers is not a part of any dysfluency but rather a routine.

The outcomes concluded from this study also support the results of Lomotey (2021) who shared that lexical and un lexical fillers are used by university teachers in their lectures. He also shared that in order to achieve communicative competence fillers are pivotal. He further supported those fillers perform many functions like cognitive and social.

Finally, this study ties with the study by ALIYAH (2021) who investigated the use of fillers in an interview and found out that fillers are used in regular speech as a routine.

4.4 Interviews from the Teachers

As discussed earlier this study is also comprised of teachers' interviews. These interviews were conducted with all the twenty teachers. Consent for taking the interviews were taken from all teachers. There were five questions asked by the teachers which were open-ended. These questions were asked after getting permission from the participants. All the participants were aware that the interviews were recorded. Later all the data was transcribed. Below are randomly selected replies from teachers regarding the questions.

Q.1. What do you think can be the reason of using fillers in your lecture?

The replies to question were given by all the teachers but we will randomly choose teacher 6 as he said:

“In my view there might be several reasons that I use fillers in my speaking. I believe that one of the reasons is that while speaking I need some pause to adjust or add some appropriate word or phrase which I feel can be more significant for the learners.”

Similarly, teacher 10 said:

“I believe that my major reason for using fillers is that it gives me some instance to reorganize my thoughts to speak better. In this way I become more confident in my speaking”

Q.2. Do you think using fillers can affect your lectures in any way?

The reply to question two can be taken from the answer given by teacher 14 who stated that:

“I have been teaching since long and I am also aware that I am using fillers in my teaching. In my opinion, fillers have a positive effect on my speaking. Personally, it provides me with a level of comfort to adjust my speech by having a gap and in this way my thoughts can be presented well.”

Likewise, teacher 17 said:

“Fillers have positive impact on my teaching. And it provides me with comfort while speaking. I usually use “I mean” during my spoken discourse and it is enjoyed by me and my learners as well. This filler of mine is also popular amongst my learners.”

Q.3. Do you think you need to use fillers when you feel hesitation in speaking?

In the words of teacher 8:

“I don’t think I am in any kind of hesitation when I use fillers in my speaking. Rather I feel that they are a regular part of my spoken language. During my lectures I often use various kinds of fillers, but my communication is never hesitant or interrupted by lack of vocabulary or content.”

Q.4. Has it become your habit to use fillers in your speaking? If yes, why?

Teacher 10 said:

“Yes! I do agree with this statement that using fillers has become my habit. There might be several reasons to it. Some of them may be unknown to me. But to my knowledge I use fillers as it provides me with a bit of time to promptly manage

my linguistic choices in my speaking.”

In the very words of teacher 2:

“Since I have started teaching, I was an efficient English speaker. It is because I learnt English speaking in my childhood. Gradually I got aware that I use fillers in my speaking while teaching. And I concluded that they are an automatic feature of my speaking and now has become my habit to use certain fillers which are equally popular in my learners as well.”

Q.5. Do you only use fillers in EFL settings?

Teacher 9 replied to this question:

“My native language is Punjabi. And I also use fillers in Punjabi what are relevant to that language. If I examine my Punjabi talk there are some pet words that are used as fillers by me”

Whereas teacher 15 said:

“In my view every language speaker uses fillers. Fillers usually helps a speaker in many ways i.e., from gathering thoughts to overcome hesitation in speech. Sometimes fillers become your trademark words and you become habitual in using them. I am an Urdu speaker and I use fillers relevant to my native language”.

5. Conclusion

The responses from the teachers give clear verdict about the use of fillers in their respective teaching and it also validates the fact that fillers are not only used in EFL setting but they also use it in their native language. The overall results and findings of this study are connected with several other investigations that fillers are regular part of any spoken discourse. The beauty lies in the choice of fillers that depends upon the choice of the speaker that is why we hear different fillers from different speakers of same language. In summary, this study examined the types of lexical and non-lexical fillers and the function of lexical and non-lexical fillers used by instructors and students in EFL classroom interactions. The overall findings also validates that in local classrooms of Pakistan, Pakistani teachers also use fillers during their teaching like

other teachers of the world. Thus, it can be said that the use of fillers does not reflect lack of communicative competence rather these are words embedded in the spoken discourse.

5.1 Limitations of the Study

However, this study has obvious limitations. The authors have not investigated or discovered why teachers and students use filler words in classroom interaction utterances only. Another limitation of this study was that only 20 teachers were taken as a research sample. For future the sample can be extended to gather more broader results.

Moreover, the research concerned only the university framework. Therefore, the authors anticipate that the study will need to be expanded to other researchers of other educational levels to get more specific results on why fillers are used.

5.2 Future implications

This study can be beneficial for the many concerns as it has some pivotal implications.

This research will provide an awareness that fillers are a regular feature in teachers' communication. They are not related to language incompetence as they are also used by natives as well. Further, this study also has a practical implication that can be explored by future researchers to research more about fillers in other English language learning situations (ESL, ESP etc.). Moreover, exploring the ratio and percentage of fillers can be investigated in some other local populations as well i.e. students. This study also has an implication to make people aware about the use of types of fillers. Finally, it can aware people that fillers can serve as connectors and supporters in speaking which maintains speech flow. This awareness can help to maintain balance in speech.

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Appendix 1

Teachers' Questionnaire

- Q.1. What do you think can be the reason of using fillers in your lecture?
- Q.2. Do you think using fillers can affect your lectures in any way?
- Q.3. Do you think you need to use fillers when you feel hesitation in speaking?
- Q.4. Has it become your habit to use fillers in your speaking? If yes, why?
- Q.5. Do you only use fillers in EFL settings?

Using Corpus Linguistics as a Valuable Teaching Tool to Teach English Language to BS Students at a Government University

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Abstract

This study discusses the use of corpus linguistics as a valuable teaching tool to teach English compulsory to BS students and certain issues which arise when using corpus linguistics as a teaching tool to teach English language to BS students at a government university in Karachi. Corpus linguistics is an important area within applied linguistics, but it is also a valuable tool to teach and learn a language through computers and books. This study shows the effectiveness of corpus linguistics for teaching English language at BS level. It was quantitative research in which an experimental design was used. For this purpose, the data was collected from 54 students at a government university studying at BS 1st Semester. The findings of this study suggest that using corpus linguistics as a tool plays a significant role in making students know about the usage of words with different prepositions and multiple meanings, their frequency and about the natural way of using English language (collocation) which are very important for the learners who are learning English as a second or foreign language.

Keywords: *BS students, corpus linguistics, a government university, dictionaries, target language*

1. Introduction

This chapter explains how this study is conceived as a result of my observations as an English teacher at a government University. I have been teaching various subjects of English linguistics and English literature to BS students for more than 14 years. I have found many resources for English language teaching- one of them is corpus linguistics which is a very important resource or tool to teach English as a second language at a BS level.

Let's first of all, discuss what corpus linguistics is. Corpus (Thornbury, 2002) is a huge collection of written or spoken language which is used to study any language, whereas linguistics is a scientific study of any language; it is also a study of its structure, grammar and history. In corpus linguistics, the word corpus means a body of text which may be made up of different examples of spoken or written language or of both. The word 'corpora' is the plural form of corpus that may be based on simple, short texts on narrow topics, or they may span millions of words, such as the British National Corpus, a 100-million-word corpus of British English. A corpus is plain text consisting of a single word or phrase. Alternatively, corpora may be tagged for grammar or other functions. A simple search may find out the frequency of various words and constructions (Thornbury, 2002). Corpus is also found in dictionaries like Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, Longman Advanced Learner's Dictionary, Fine online Dictionary, Webster Dictionary, Collins Dictionary, etc.

1.1 Aims and Objectives of the Study

The aim of this study is to identify the practices of using corpus linguistics as a tool or resource for teaching English language effectively to BS students at a government university. The subject of English compulsory has been added to their program to enable them to speak and write English well. In other words, this course has been designed and added to BS program to enhance and improve their speaking and writing skills so that they do not face any problems related to English language.

1.2 Research Objective

To check the effectiveness of using corpus linguistics as a teaching tool for teaching English language to the students of BS at a government university

1.3 Research Question

How effective is it to use corpus linguistics as a teaching tool to teach English language to the students of BS at a government university?

1.4 Significance of the Study

English language is vitally important in Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh and many other countries. Nobody can achieve success in any career without English. Since indigenous languages are not equipped for these roles and English has been provided for a convenient vocabulary or the use of this language is deemed to be powerful and prestigious, English has become the language of the legal system, regional administrative network, higher education, sciences and technology, trade and commerce. (Anwar, 2018). Corpus linguistics can play a very important role in providing a tool to teach learners about the usage (collocation), frequency and the multiple meanings of words in English language.

2. Review of Literature

2.1 Nature of Corpus Linguistics

Corpus linguistics is a rapidly expanding technique within the field of linguistics that allows for the study of language patterns. (Gries, 2009). A language corpus, according to Biber, Conrad, and Reppen (1998), is a systematic collection of written and spoken texts that is available for qualitative and quantitative study. Aijmer (2002) emphasizes that corpora denote actual language use and how language is used in different registers. The information we have in the Collins Corpus serves as the foundation for all COBUILD dictionaries. There are 4.5 billion words in the whole corpus. The Bank of English™ is a subgroup of 650 million words. These words have been chosen carefully from different sources. These data give an accurate detail of usage of modern English. Lexicographers usually use the Bank of English for writing dictionaries. The data provides information on word usage, meaning, word combinations, and frequency of use. This data on frequency helps in selecting the words for the COBUILD dictionaries.

Corpus linguistics and empirical linguistics are used interchangeably (Sampson 2001: 6). However, it has been claimed that corpus linguistics is more than merely a methodology, though it is not a linguistic theory in itself; rather, it is “a new research enterprise” and “a new philosophical approach to the subject” (Leech 1991: 106). Hunston (2002: 20) makes clear that computers serve two distinct purposes: they make

it easier to gather and store vast amounts of linguistic data and they make it possible to develop the software needed to access and analyze the corpus data.

2.2 Spoken and Written Corpora

We have access to a wide range of techniques through corpus linguistics to study language, its patterns and structure. Even a quick analysis of the area shows that there are a great many written and spoken corpora (O'Keeffe, McCarthy & Carter 2007). The British National Corpus (BNC), which has 100 million words of both written and spoken English, is one of the most often cited corpora. Newspapers, novels, letters, and essays make up 90% of the corpus' textual material (in written form), while business meetings, phone-ins, and radio broadcasts account for the remaining 10% (in spoken form) (Thornbury, S. 2002).

Moreover, there are more than 410 million words in the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) which is a free available corpus. Between 1990 and 2010, it was developed by 20 million words per year from spoken and written English (academic works, novels, periodicals, newspapers, and spoken English). The Cambridge English Corpus, formerly known as the Cambridge International Corpus, is a corpus of more than one billion words in the English language (with both text corpus and spoken corpus data). Written and spoken data in both British and American English are included in the Cambridge English Corpus (CEC). The Cambridge Learner Corpus, a 40-million-word corpus composed of English exam responses produced by English language learners, is also a part of the CEC.

According to O'keeffe, A., McCarthy, M., & Carter, R. (2007), corpora may be utilized as reference tools by ELT professionals. Teachers and students of English can look up the usage of certain words and phrases in corpora when they are not sure whether they are correct in terms of grammar and lexis. This is crucial for non-native English speakers who frequently have students ask them why specific English words are used "the way they are." Despite the fact that English is their second language, and they are good at it, non-native teachers' intuitions may not be accurate or reliable. Therefore, teachers may check corpus data if they are unsure to make sure that the language, they are teaching is accurate.

Data from the corpus can also be used directly in the classroom through data-driven learning (DDL). Johns (1991: 2) introduced this paradigm initially, claiming that the language learner "is also a researcher whose learning must be guided by access to linguistic knowledge". Learners uncover common patterns in grammar and lexis by examining authentic language material, whereas the teacher just helps the entire process. This inductive technique helps students identify which linguistic forms are employed in communicative contexts and increases their knowledge of the function of language in everyday situations.

2.3 Corpora

A corpus is a collection of texts that serves as the primary resource for corpus linguistics. According to Thornbury, S. (2002), corpora come in varied sizes, are assembled for diverse reasons, and are made up of numerous sorts of texts. To a certain extent, all corpora are homogenous; they are made up of texts from one language, one variant of a language, one register, and so on. They are also different to a certain extent because they are made up of a variety of distinct texts. Besides the texts which comprise them, most corpora contain information on the texts, part-of-speech for each word, and parsing metadata.

2.4 Information about Word lists and Frequency

A word list is a list of all the words in a particular corpus, generally sorted alphabetically or in frequency order, together with the information on how many times a particular word appears in the corpus. Simple word lists use 'words' as a string of letters, therefore the number of instances of the word 'run' is provided without the difference between noun and verb, and the details of its family like the words 'runs', 'running', and 'ran' are provided separately. More advanced lists discriminate between the word run's noun and verb occurrences and provide summary statistics for the entire lemma, such as 'run', 'runs', 'running', and 'ran', all of which appear as verbs (Leech et al., 2001). The word lists which differentiate between meanings (for example, between run [move in swift motion] and run [manage an event or organization]) are far more difficult, and indeed not publicly available.

2.5 Phraseology

Phraseology is the study of phrases, which is an important component of corpus linguistics: Sinclair (1991) discovered that the meaning of a word is discovered through a number of words, or phrases. It takes in the study of collocations, lexical bundles, and language that occurs in preferred sequences. Collocation is the most common method of studying phrases.


2.6 Collocations

The word 'collocation' is the combination of words in a language that occurs more frequently than by coincidence. There are students who have good ideas, but they usually lose their marks because they do not know some very important collocations of a key word which are vitally important for their writing (Hill 1999:5). As a result, they develop longer, more wordy ways of characterizing or addressing the problem, raising the likelihood of more mistakes. He gives the following example: "His disability will continue until he dies" rather than "He has a permanent disability." (2000:49-50) There is no secret solution for fixing these errors. Collocation must be learnt through both direct study and a vast amount of quality input. Learners frequently struggle with the notion of collocations. The fundamentally straightforward concept that word choice is severely constrained by what comes before and after it "is perhaps the single most elusive aspect of the lexical system and, thus, the most difficult for learners to acquire" (Thornbury 2002:7).

Table 1. Types of Collocation

Verb + noun	give a party / have responsibility
Adjective + noun	large package / complete solution
V. + adj. + noun	take regular exercise / achieve excellent progress
Adverb + verb	completely destroy / deeply regret
Adverb + adjective	absolutely amazed / entirely useless
Adverb + adjective + noun	completely unacceptable behavior
Adjective + preposition	smart for / blamed for / good at
Noun + noun *	court case / arm chair / tea cup

move fast on foot

1 ★  [intransitive] to move using your legs, going faster than when you walk

- *Can you run as fast as Mike?*
- *They turned and ran when they saw us coming.*
- *She came running to meet us.*
- *I had to run to catch the bus.*
- **+ adv./prep.** *The dogs ran off as soon as we appeared.*
- *He ran home in tears to his mother.*
- *The children spent the morning running around in the park.*
- *She can run really fast.*

In spoken English **run** can be used with **and** plus another verb, instead of with **to** and the infinitive, especially to tell somebody to hurry and do something: *Run and get your swimsuits, kids.* • *I ran and knocked on the nearest door.*

Figure 1. Showing collocation of the verb ‘run’

2.6 Register

Much of the comparative work that uses corpora has contrasted the appearance of a language like English in diverse situations. Such settings have been established in accordance with the linguistic theory (for example, in Matthiessen, 2006, where register is defined in accordance with systems theory) or in accordance with a less academic, 'commonsense' understanding of where clear difference may exist. For example, Biber et al. (1999) consider the broad 'register' categories of conversation, news reporting, fiction, and academic prose. Others have made finer distinctions: the CANCODE corpus of spoken English, for instance, differentiates between 'transactional,' 'professional,' 'socializing,' and 'intimate' contexts (Carter, 2004); Hyland Corpus Linguistics 237 (2000) differentiates academic writings such as research articles, book reviews, abstracts, and textbooks from academic disciplines.

Most variations in frequency have been explained by changes in communicative function or rhetorical aim.

2.7 Corpus Linguistics in the Classroom

Corpus linguistics may be used in a variety of ways in the classroom by both teachers and students. A teacher may gather a set of student assignments and use a concordance tool to analyze instances of their language in order to identify common mistake patterns. Errors in learners' writing that are systematic might be exploited to construct instructional resources. Alternatively, a teacher might search known corpora of texts written by native speakers of the target language for examples of patterns and then he/she may provide them to students as examples. Learners can train themselves as to how to use a concordancing program (St. John, 2001) and corpora, and then they can become researchers; they may look for examples and develop their own rules for grammatical structures, general usage and idioms, such as they may investigate the differences between the verbs 'look' and 'see'. This method is known as Data Driven Learning (DDL).

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Approach

This chapter explains the nature of the research methodology which was used for the collection of data. It also tells us about the research question, participants, aims and objectives of the study. It was a quantitative approach in which experimental design was used to collect data from 54 students at a government university in Karachi. The participants were from 3 different departments of BS 1st.semester of a government university. The students were regular and hardworking. 18 students were selected from each class by using simple random sampling. In the classroom, students were given 3 different activities to work out. The first activity consisted of some verbs and adjectives for which the correct prepositions had to be found. The second activity consisted of some phrases; the frequency in everyday conversation of the phrases had to be found. The third activity consisted of collocation i.e. there were some words similar in meanings for which the correct usage had to be found.

3.2 Participants

For this study, I selected 54 students from 3 departments offering BS program at a government university in Karachi. There were 18 participants each from 3 departments. The students were studying at BS 1st semester. Though there were approximately more than 150 students, but 15 to 20 students were coming regularly in each class. I, therefore, selected 54 students who were also very enthusiastic, energetic, and studious. I obtained the consent of these 54 students after mentioning my purpose of study. There were 30 female and 24 male students.

Table 2. Participants' Information

Age	18-22	18-22	18-22
Semester	BS 1 st	BS 1 st	BS 1 st
Departments	D1 (Zoology)	D2 (CS)	D3 (Pharm D)
T No. of students	18	18	18
Gender (males)	05	13	06
Gender (females)	13	05	12

3.3. Sampling

In this research, simple random sampling was used. 54 participants were selected from 3 different classes of BS 1st semester at a government university. According to (McCombes, 2023), simple random sampling is a form of probability sampling in which a subset of participants from the population is chosen randomly. Each person in the population has an equal probability of being chosen. Then the data is collected from as big a population as possible. Since I had to know the efficacy of the activities designed with the help of corpus linguistics, I had no problem choosing the participants.

3.4 Research question

1. How effective is it to use corpus linguistics as a teaching tool to teach English language to BS students at a government university?

Apply, communicate, write, divide, obligatory, speak, move, die, put, throw, call, shout, responsible, send, dispel, enhance, devise, fabricate, pretty, handsome

Figure 1. Verbs given to all 3 groups.

Look, fix, way, wide, scold, perceive, cite, dump, hurry, mute, cling, shout, freedom, liberty

Figure 2. Words given to all 3 groups.

Beautiful/pretty, high/tall, small/short, large/big, stroll/walk, read/recite, good-looking/handsome,

Figure 3. Synonyms given to all 3 groups.

3.6 Procedure

For this purpose, I compiled a list of a large number of corpora containing verbs and phrases with their usage and gave them to the students. I also recommended different dictionaries including Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, Longman Advanced Learner's Dictionary, Collins Dictionary and Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary which are corpus-based containing a great collection of examples so that they could perform their activities in an easy and proper way. These dictionaries were online dictionaries which students used with the help of their mobile phone Internet.

4. Findings & Analysis

The findings show that all three groups did their activities by using corpus linguistics. In the table below, a search on these words with different prepositions from BNC and corpus-based dictionaries reveal how the meaning of a word changes only due to the use of different prepositions such as 'apply for' has a different meaning from 'apply to', 'die of' has a different meaning from 'die for'. Students also learnt about the frequency of these words in British National Corpus. In this way, students understood the meanings of one word with different uses of prepositions and they also increased their vocabulary. 42 students (78%) did the first activity very well. They found the

prepositions to a great extent which are used with the verbs given to them. 8 students (14%) could not do the activity as was expected from them and 4 students (7%) did neither good nor bad.

Table 3. Use of prepositions with the words that change the meaning: Word frequency is also shown from BNC.

Words	Frequency	Preposition used in bold
apply for	954	I am applying for the post of lecturer.
apply to	2357	Do the same rules apply to part-time workers?
communicate to	1497	She will communicate it to you.
communicate with		People use more than words when they communicate with each other.
write to	1650	I have written to my uncle.
write about	399	O'Brien often writes about her native Ireland.
write for	144	Maureen Dowd writes for 'The New York Times'.
write down	474	He wrote down everything she said.
divide into	62	Here, the river divides into three channels.
divide among	03	The money will be divided equally among the charities.
divide by	87	If you divide 21 by 3, you get 7.
obligatory for	21	It is obligatory for companies to provide details.
speak to	2001	I spoke to her last Wednesday.
speak of	837	It was the first time she had ever spoken of marriage.
speak at	129	John spoke at the teachers' annual convention.
die of	241	The animals died of starvation in the snow.
die from	98	Many patients are dying from cancer.
die for	125	He is dying for a cup of tea.
die on	59	The mower just died on me.
die in	373	During the night she died in sleep.
throw at	46	Someone threw a stone at the car. He threw his shirt to someone in the crowd.
throw to	11	
shout at	143	I wish you would stop shouting at the children.
shout for	30	We could hear them shouting for help.
shout in	16	She shouted in pain.
responsible for	6654	Police believe that the same man is responsible for three other murders in the area.
send to	178	I will send a copy to you.
send by	07	Monday is the last day to send cards by post.

Table 4. Students' performance percentage-wise

Students' Performance in activity 1				
Total students: 54				
Very good	Good	Fair	Poor	Very poor
24	16	04	07	03
44%	30%	7%	13%	6%
Total: 74%		7%	Total: 19%	

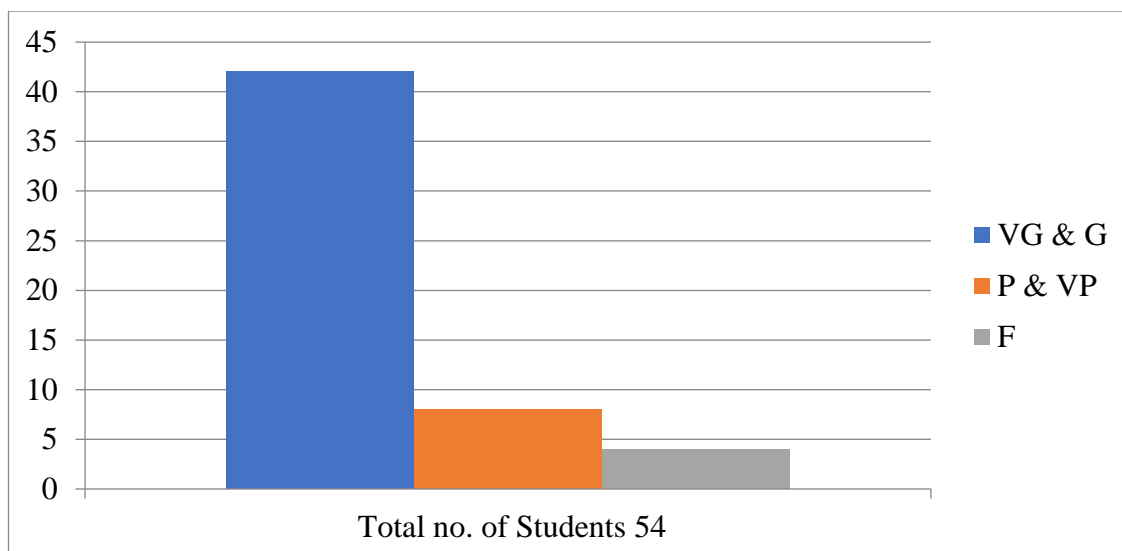


Figure 4. Students' Performance

Though the following activity took much time and for this activity either smart phone or laptop along with internet was required, students enjoyed it a lot because they were able to find some very useful information about the number of uses of certain words. 40 students (74%) did the second activity well that is about the frequency of words from **British National Corpus (BNC)** [100 million words of text texts from a wide range of genres, such as from spoken, fiction, magazines, newspapers, and academic] along with its common use from Collins Dictionary. 10 students (18%) could not do it well whereas 4 students (7%) were neither good nor bad.

Table 5. Showing how commonly a word is used in Collins COBUILD

Words	W. Frequency per 100 M	Years	Words commonly used in corpus-based Collins dictionary
Look	51549	1980 - 1990	Used extremely commonly. There are 1000 most commonly used words in the Collins COBUILD and the word ' look ' is one of them.
Fix	1392	1980 – 1990	Used commonly. The word ' Fix ' is one of the 10000 most commonly used words in the Collins COBUILD.
Scold	57	1980 – 1990	Used occasionally. The word ' scold ' is one of the 30000 most commonly used words in the Collins COBUILD
Perceive	889	1980 – 1990	Used very commonly. The word ' perceive ' is one of the 4000 most commonly used words in the Collins COBUILD.
Cling	390	1980 – 1990	Used commonly. The word ' cling ' is one of the 10000 most commonly used words in the Collins COBUILD.
Mute	242	1980 – 1990	Used commonly. The word ' mute ' is one of the 10000 most commonly used words in the Collins COBUILD.
Freedom	5832	1980 – 1990	Used very commonly. The word ' freedom ' is one of the 4000 most commonly used words in the Collins COBUILD.
Liberty	1359	1980 – 1990	Used very commonly. The word ' liberty ' is one of the 4000 most commonly used words in the Collins COBUILD.
Wide	11775	1980 – 1990	Used extremely commonly. The word ' wide ' is one of the 1000 most commonly used words in the Collins COBUILD.

Table 6. Showing students' performance percentage-wise

Students' Performance in activity 2 Total students: 54				
Very good	Good	Fair	Poor	Very poor
19	21	04	06	04
35%	39%	7%	11%	8%
Total: 74%		7%	Total: 19%	

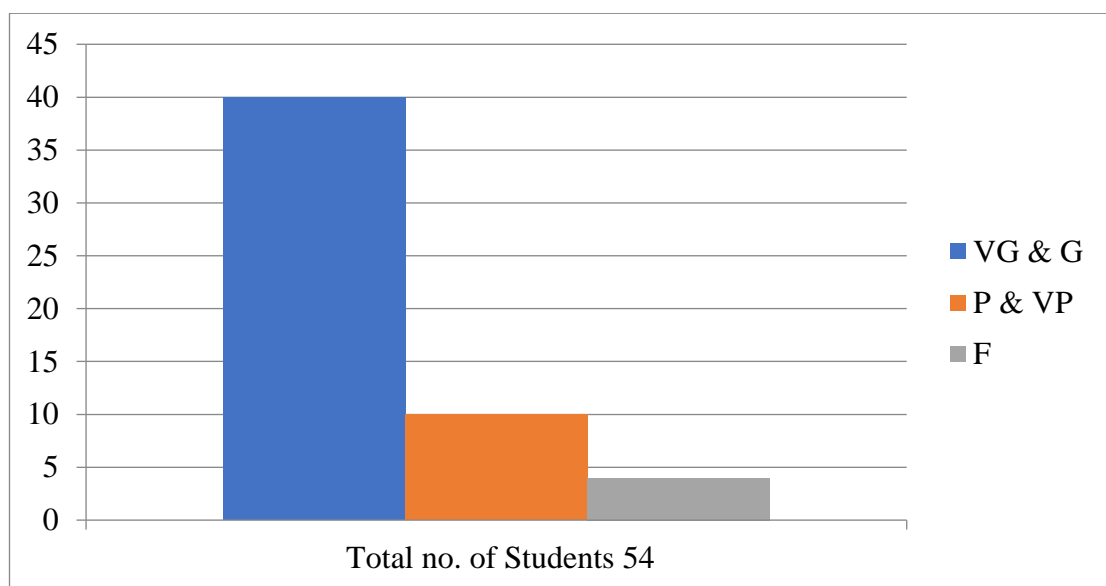


Figure 5 Students' Performance

In the third activity, the students learnt about collocation which is a very important part of any language. Without knowing about collocation, no one can speak English as a second language like a native speaker. 44 students (81%) enjoyed the activity and did it well and only 7 students (13%) could not do it as they should have done it, whereas 3 students (6%) were neither good nor bad.

Table 7. Correct usage of some of the words similar in meanings

	Words	Collocation: Correct usage
01	Beautiful/pretty	John is a handsome young man. She looks pretty with her hair down.
02	High/tall	Jasmine is getting very tall. This is the highest mountain in Japan.
03	Small/short	The sweater comes in three sizes – small, medium and large. Winter is coming and the days are getting shorter.
04	Large/big	The T-shirt comes in Small, Medium and Large. There has been a big increase in crime
05	Read/recite	He recited a poem he learnt few days ago. She is reading a letter that came yesterday.

Table 8. Showing students’ performance percentage-wise

Students’ Performance in activity 3				
Total students: 54				
Very good	Good	Fair	Poor	Very poor
26	18	03	04	03
48%	33%	6%	7%	6%
Total: 81%		6%	Total: 13%	

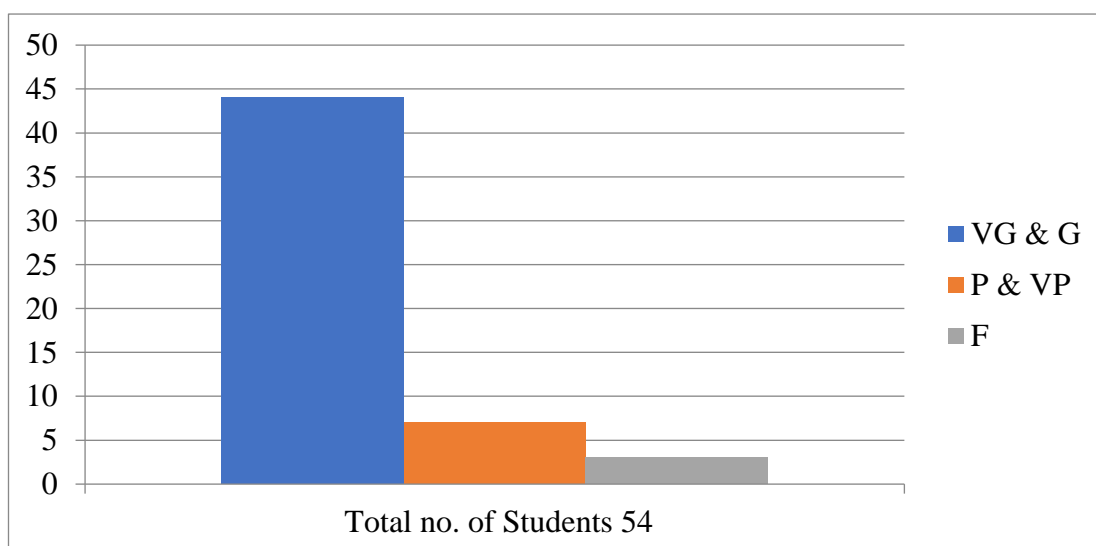


Figure 6 Students’ Performance

5. Discussion

In the first activity, students were given some verbs and adjectives to find out the prepositions which are used with them. 78 % of students found them successfully with the help of the corpora. In this way, they were able to know multiple meanings of a word with different prepositions and they were also able to know the use of these words with appropriate prepositions. 74% of students did the second activity successfully and they were able to know about the frequent use of the phrases. This

activity helped them know the worth of those phrases. 81% of students did the third activity successfully. With the help of this activity, they were able to learn how to use words correctly, especially words with similar meanings.

6. Conclusion

From the above discussion, it has been found that corpus linguistics is a very useful tool for teaching English language in the classroom. It can play a significant role in teaching English language both spoken and written. Teachers must use corpus data in the classroom so that they can give different interesting activities to their students for the improvement of even their vocabulary and collocation along with their writing and spoken skills. It is indeed a very effective tool for teaching English at the upper intermediate level.

6.1 Recommendations

- Corpus linguistics as a tool may be used in upper-intermediate and BS level.
- For using this tool computers, internet and certain corpus-based dictionaries are necessary. Therefore, these things should be made available, or a teacher should compile his/her own lists from these resources.
- Corpus linguistics can be used to identify the correct usage of any word.
- It can also be used to check or see the use of structures and the frequency of words – whether the word is common or uncommon.

6.2 Limitations

- Corpus linguistics should not be used as a tool for teaching English language at elementary or intermediate level.
- Corpus linguistics as a tool should be avoided at the universities or educational institutes in which modern technology such as computers, internet, etc. are not available.
- Corpus linguistics as a tool is not very effective to improve speaking skills.
- Teachers with no computer skills or little skills cannot benefit from corpus linguistics.

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Linguistic Analysis of Thai Lakorns and Pakistani Dramas: A Comparative Analysis of Gender Representation

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Abstract

This paper examines the representation of females in Pakistani TV dramas and Thai lakron. In Thai lakrons, women are treated as an object of pleasure, whereas the situation in Pakistan is not that worse. Their media repeatedly portray women as an object rather than an individual according to Freidickson and Roberts' "Objectification theory"(1997). Their dramas objectify women based on their appearance and the sexual pleasure they can provide to the dominant people in a patriarchal society. To conduct this research, a qualitative approach is used to draw the comparison between the dramas of two countries that are: "Ghissi Pitti Mohabbat" and "Prom Pisawat". The data was retrieved from the dramas in form of the discourses as uttered by the characters. This study is meant to add to the vast canvas and multifaceted area of research related to the fragility and under representation of women in media where rape, violence, abuse, and standards of beauty for female characters are romanticized.

Keywords: *Patriarchy, Woman objectification, Thai Lakrons, Sexual violence, Prostitution, Inequality, Assault, Mass media*

1. Introduction

Media is a mirror of society, it reflects the norms, values, and trends of the public, and dramas especially play a huge role in the portrayal of societal values. In the 21st century, due to media any information or trend spreads like wildfire and has several impacts on the thought processes of people which is resulting in gender discrimination, gender violence, rape culture, and treatment of women not as a human but rather as an object (Mehdi, Moen & Abbasi, 2022). The media is encouraging the public to adopt this attitude toward women.

Gender roles are different for each sex and there are certain expectations from them as well. Both women and men are expected to conform to the norms, values, and rules,

of society in terms of talking, dressing, grooming, speaking, and other matters. Women are typically expected to be fragile, feminine, and sophisticated while men are likely to be strong, authoritative, brave, and bold. Because of these stereotypical roles, there is inequality among the sexes. A similar thing is also illustrated in this research paper.

This paper focused on the comparison of Thai Lakorns and Pakistani dramas concerning gender roles. In Thai Lakorns, women are merely an object of pleasure and are underrepresented, rape culture is common whereas in Pakistani dramas, though there is patriarchy, still the situation is not as bad as in Thai dramas. In Pakistani dramas, especially "Ghisi Pitti Mohabbat" there is a representation of a strong woman who stands out against traditional norms and works as an entrepreneur to provide for her family. On the other hand, almost all Thai dramas, for instance,

"Prom Pisawat" represent stereotypical male roles, rape storylines, and sexual violence against women, and the one committing such sins is rarely held responsible because mostly it is done by the wealthy and powerful protagonist.

1.1 Statement of Problem

Women objectification is one of the most important issues in today's world. It is owed to the marginalization and exploitation of women by taking away the rights of one gender to live freely and suppressing women and their voices. Treating women as an object is a common trait of the patriarchal society and such a society inhibits the growth of women and reduces their status to merely a slave and their purpose is to fulfill the needs of the men. All this has resulted in gender inequality, sexual exploitation of women, and low social status. So, this study through the comparison of Thai lakorn and Pakistani drama tends to shed light on this important issue of women objectification and its drastic impacts on the female gender.

1.2 Research Questions

To accomplish the following research goals, two research questions have been formulated:

1. How are gender roles portrayed in Thai and Pakistani entertainment media?

2. How far are sexual violence and rape culture romanticized in the selected dramas?
3. How do the selected dramas portray the gender hierarchy roles prevalent in the cultural milieu?

1.3 Theoretical Framework

Today, women are treated as an object for the sexual pleasure of men rather than as an individual having a separate identity. According to Fredrickson and Roberts' (1997) “**objectification theory**”¹, females are portrayed in an objectified fashion in dramas and movies. Moreover, male sexualizes females' body and their values are measured based on their ideal body structures, for instance, thin figures and overall physical appearances.

Female bodies are presented in mass media as decorative objects to attract men and earn more profit. They have to or are sometimes forced to wear provoking and short clothes as well on television, especially in Thai Lakrons. Due to this representation of women, they are becoming victims of inappropriate sexual advances, sexual exploitation, and sexual assault. Patriarchy has swallowed the basic rights and they have become the prey of men who feel that only men have the right to be free and safe.

2. Literature Review

Gender inequality, gender-based violence (sexual violence), and rape culture within the broader field of “gender studies” are gaining much attention lately and are presented through different channels, out of all the most influential and affecting representation through films and dramas. According to Ahmed and Wahab (2019), under patriarchal ideology women are exploited and are victims of sexual violence. The dominant role of men in Television dramas is affecting the thought process of a society that they feel that it is completely normal to treat women in whatever manner they want. Also, women are only considered “objects of beauty”² that provide sexual pleasure and happiness for dominant males. A similar concept is illustrated by Babul

¹ Balraj , Belinda. “Understanding Objectification Theory .”, International Journal on Studies in English Language and literature (IJSELL), 11 Nov. 2015. Volume 3, Issue 11, PP 70-74.

² Ahmed, Shumaila, and Juliana Abdul Wahab. “Paradox of Women Empowerment: The Representations of Women in Television Dramas in Pakistan.” International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, vol. 9, no. 10, 27 Oct. 2019.

and Niaz (2019), that women in Pakistani dramas are represented as “commodities, objects of physical beauty and a source of attraction and enjoyment for men³”.

The woman is portrayed as an object of desire and gratification as their body and body parts are more important than their personality. Looks and bodies are prioritized over skills and productivity. The status of the woman in society is based upon her body structure and sex appeal, but not on her education and her character. This objectified portrayal of the woman can be seen in modern-age Pakistani and Thai dramas. (Ashfaq & Shafiq, 2018).

Signorelli (2019) in her research article depicted stereotypical and traditional roles of men and women, where women are fragile and underrepresented, whereas men are more capable and controlling. Women in Pakistani dramas are characterized as a victim, powerless, weak, and dependent in contrast to males. This sort of representation of women can damage and manipulate the minds of viewers as dramas are viewed by the masses as compared to the past (Ibrahim et al., 2019).

Fatima (2019) highlighted if a girl is accused of being characterless, she is punished by her family members. Physical violence is connected with the honor discourses in Pakistani society. If a woman is raped, she is considered a source of dishonor and is not worthy to get married to any honorable man. To restore this lost honor, the victims are either subjected to physical abuse or even killed. In the majority of the cases, raped women are forced to forgive the assaulter. The unwillingness to penalize the molester is because rape takes away the honor of the victim and the victim's family and their sympathizers refuse to talk about it; therefore the female prefers to remain silent. Similarly, according to Engchuan (2017), Thai lakorns reflect the reality of Thai society in general and specifically point out the social and cultural lifestyle of Thai Society. They are beyond contentious as they contribute to rape culture on an extensive level by romanticizing rape just to create a dramatic effect. They are top-graded due to their bizarre viewership on a wide-reaching scale irrespective of the fact that they are truly responsible for glorifying gender stereotypes, gender discrimination, and sexual assault (ingpimploy, 2018). Similarly, many young female audiences questioned the ascendancy of men over women and the idea of patriarchy was heavily

³ Babul, Niaz, Hasrat, Babrak. The portrayal of Women in Pakistani Drama, an Analysis of Selected Dramas. 2019.

critiqued since men could have minor wives while women could not. Moreover, a woman is not considered worthy of getting married if she has lost her virginity which means she is not considered a good woman or a pious wife or mother, and such a woman is treated with reverence as stated by Fongkaew (2021). As mentioned by Jasmine (2016), Molestation done by the protagonist in Thai dramas are completely acceptable whereas the same thing done by the antagonist is a considered crime. If the male leads after committing such a crime repent, then he is considered clean. Likewise, Fleet (2003) and Hamilton (2013) highlighted that the female lead is always stuck in complicated family situations and intimate relationships where she must go through many hardships and overcome them to live happily ever after. This thing is very much prominent in Thai dramas and Thai Mass media is playing a powerful and crucial role in encouraging and advancing sexual violence against women at the hands of men who have the desire to show their superiority, besides this, media is promoting patriarchal values and is setting trends that how women should be viewed as presented by Khopolklang et al. (2014). A similar idea is supported by Abdullah, Mehdi, and Noor (2020) that media is the means to develop a mindset and perception of people regarding something and through television dramas and the art of characterization different gender roles are portrayed.

3. Research Methodology

The research is qualitative as no statistical data is generated. This research aims to determine gender roles through the comparative linguistic analysis of Thai and Pakistani TV dramas. Two dramas have been targeted for this purpose. The dramas selected for this research comprise Prom Pissawat, a Thai drama, and Ghissi Pitti Mohabbat, a Pakistani drama. Prom Pissawat was aired on the leading Thai channel 7 and Ghissi Pitti Mohabbat was telecast on the leading Pakistani Channel ARY Digital. The dramas of these channels have been selected because these are popularity of the dramas in both the respective countries Thailand and Pakistan and dramas of these channels are widely watched by people throughout the country. Furthermore, all the episodes of each drama have been selected for a holistic overview. The number of episodes has been selected under the scope of the study. The roles of the Protagonist including leading male and female characters in these dramas have been examined by

observing their actions and interactions with other characters in particular. For this purpose, dramas have been watched various times for unbiased optimal linguistic analysis. Language and the dialogues of different characters have been examined and analyzed regarding gender representation by comparing Both Thai and Pakistani dramas.

4. Data Analysis

Thai drama taken for the analysis is “Prom Pissawat”. Dialogues are taken from the few episodes generally. It was aired on ‘*Thai Channel 7*’. It is also named “The Destiny of Love’ in English. The story revolves around two major characters comprising the male lead Plapol and the female lead Pantawan. Plapol returned to his homeland Thailand from Korea, he had his first encounter with Pantawan in a club. Pantawan was serving as a seductive bar singer due to financial issues, but she aspired to become a respectable singer. She was portrayed as both a woman with an alluring outlook and a singer with a captivating voice whereas Plapol. Whereas Plapol was a typical misogynistic man possessing a generic perspective to objectify or sexualize women wearing short or sexy clothes and she also got treated by him in precisely the same manner. He passed derogatory and slandering remarks on her. He called her a ‘seductive cat’. Pantawan, on the contrary, was not a typical lady and initially, she resisted instead of taking pejoratives, particularly from a chauvinist male. Surprisingly, she got married and fell in love with the same person slowly and gradually who toyed with her as an object both physically and emotionally. In the end, both characters got united and achieved their happy ending.

In Prom Pissawat, the Subjugation and marginalization of women are portrayed through gender roles depicted through the dialogues of the main characters at different moments. For instance, the Plapol forcefully grabbed the female lead after she finished her dance on the stage. When she resisted and told him to let her go, he said that **“How much do I have to pay you, then you’ll be willing to sit with me”**. After showing money, he further stated, **“Just this would probably be enough for you”**. By forcing himself and throwing money at her, he treated her as a prostitute. It reflects sexism that how a man being sexist views a woman just as a plaything or an object up for sale whom he can treat the way he wants.

There was another situation when Plapol confronted and humiliated her ***“You are not just a singer but the one who dares to seduce men to fall for your trick. How many foolish men have fallen into your trap?”*** Considering himself a supremacist, Plapol equates her talent of singing to seduction that it’s just a way to lure men. Such a statement shows the Psyche of Patriarchy.

Besides facing humiliation at the hands of the male protagonist, the female protagonist was also insulted by other characters as well. For instance, Panita, future fiancée of Plapol, degraded.

Pantawan ***“you think that woman like you with a rotten background can become a singer. However, you’re just a singer who is a prostitute”***. Pantawan was not only assaulted by men but women including Plapol’s mother and Panita hit and slapped her on multiple occasions. Instead of empowering each other, women are busy ridiculing other women under the strong influence of a misogynistic society.

Although Pantawan is an individual (subject) ***objectification of a subject*** is evident as she was lessened to an object. Plapol once said to his father that ***“This woman is mine, I can do whatever I want with her”***. He was also shown kissing her forcefully throughout the drama. These outbreaks of sexual violence were portrayed as the expression of his love and affection for her. His acts were termed to be playful and Pantawan was labeled as his **Plaything**. By blaming her for seducing her son, Plapol’s mother casually passed remarks over her son’s inclination towards Pantawan ***“If she can seduce him let her seduce . At most, she can be a plaything for Plapol”***. Even when Plapol kissed her without her consent, she was again held responsible by his female friend ***“If a woman does not flirt first? Will a man go to this extent?”***. Ironically, a female was insulting another female for facing sexual violence at the hands of a male figure. It picturizes how patriarchy holds its roots in the entire Thai society. Internalization of systematic misogyny in the minds of the people irrespective of gender was evident. Women were calling other women whores or prostitutes instead of elevating or uplifting each other’s status in society.

When Pantawan got married to Plapol. Her husband treated her as a piece of junk and took revenge on her as he discovered that her biological mother who abandoned her in childhood was his stepmother. He started to openly hang out with other women in

front of his wife to torture her mentally. She tolerated his disgusting attitude towards her to fulfill her duty as a good wife by taking care of her drunk husband and cooking his favorite dishes. She was still perceived as a sexual object as there was an instance of *marital rape* that was also present in the drama. As Plapol forced himself on her and then said to his legally wedded wife *“For yesterday night, how much are you charging darling, Is 50 thousand enough for you or not?”*. Although, she was his wife but regarded her as a sex worker to pacify his sexual desires and get paid for it. These incidents show the societal stereotypical culture of Thailand where women are taken as inferior or lesser beings in comparison to their male partners.

The second drama taken for the data analysis is a Pakistani drama *“Ghissi Pitti Mohabbat”*. It was telecasted on ARY Digital. Based on a true story and written by Fasih Bari Khan, this drama is known for breaking the stereotype and social constructs as most Pakistani dramas are known for showcasing women as victims in the male patriarchal society. However, *“Ghissi Pitti Mohabbat”* tried to deconstruct the construction of a *مظلوم اور بیچارہ کی قسمت کی ماری اور نصیب سے جاری عورت* (*An oppressed and poor woman beaten by fate and a woman who lost her good fortune*). The woman is shown as a subject, leading her life, and deciding by going against societal norms instead of conforming to them. The plotline is unique because the female protagonist ‘Samiya’ got married three times. Instead of compromising and sticking in her unsuccessful marriages for the sake of saving her image in society and thinking that *“لوگ کیا کہیں گے”* *“What will people say?”*, she chose her independence and preferred divorce instead of staying with her faithful or abusive husband. Although she got all the blame for her failed marriages, she did not lose sight of herself in this whole situation. She kept her sense of individuality alive at all costs.

Samiya’s first marriage was her love marriage with Rizwan. Samiya came from a middle class, she was working in a restaurant to run her house. She was the eldest among her two sisters. She was responsible and hardworking in contrast to her husband Rizwan known as ‘Riz’. He was a carefree and irresponsible boy. He was working as a social media influencer and TikToker. He got married to her against his family’s will. His mother and sister were ill-mannered and authoritative. Whereas Samiya was not a submissive girl but a strong-headed woman. Gender role was evident

when her mother-in-law tried to raise her hand on Samiya, she strongly opposed that “*Keep your torture policy with yourself I am not one of those girls. Who present their other cheek after getting slapped on one*”. It shows her intolerance against the violence directed towards her by not holding herself back but raising her voice. Even when her sister-in-law, Farhat, tried to slap her during an argument, she held her by hand “میں تمہارے خاندان کی مظلوم” “*I am not an oppressed girl of your family. Who kept crying after enduring the beating of you people? If anyone touches me, I will break his hand and give it to him*”. Then Farhat taunted her during an argument that “تم جیسی لڑکیاں گھر آباد کرنے نہیں آتی اجاڑنے آتی عین اور بعد میں طلاق جیسی” “*The girls like you don’t settle in their house, they destroy them. After that, humiliation like divorce is slapped on their face*”. Samiya gave her a bold reply “ان تین لفظوں پہ چاہیے عورت کی زندگی نکی حور پر مجھے ان سے ڈر نہیں لگتا میں کوئی معذور یا جاہل نہیں ہوں اور بھی آپشنز” “*Even if a woman’s life depends on these three words. I am not afraid of them... I am not disabled; I am not illiterate. I have other options besides this*”. It shows how Samiya is well-aware that her whole life is not dependent on divorce as she is not defined by her status of being married. Rather than taking divorce as a threat, she owned herself and stood firm on her ground.

There was also an incident when she taunted her husband by calling him “**a beauty queen**” for always ridiculing her for her ordinary looks and boasting about his good looks. Her mother-in-law.

forbade her that “Beware, don’t compare my son with women”. Samiya spontaneously replied “آپ جیسی عورتیں جب عورت ہونے کو گالی سمجھیں گی تو” “*When mothers like you consider women as curse. Then your offspring would consider them as shoes of their feet*”. Although Samiya’s mother-in-law was also a woman she was so small-minded that could not even stand the fact that her son was given a feminine title.

Her husband once taunted her for having fingers like males. So, she backfired him for having female-like fingers. He got offended and remarked “ برداشت نام کی کوئی چیز نہیں ہوتی لڑکیوں ” میں فوراً ریکٹ کرتی ہو،۔ معمولی سائٹ تھا اور تمہیں صفر ملا ہے اس میں۔ *“there is no such thing as endurance in girls. They reacted instantly, it was a small test, but I am sorry, you have got zero marks”*. She instantly replied “ یہ کیا بات ہوئی۔ ہر ٹیسٹ میں لڑکی پوری اترے۔ طنز کا جواب طنز سے تمہیں کا جواب ملے ” *“Why should the girl pass every test? The answer to satire is satire, the answer to abuse is abuse and the answer to slap is punch or kick”*. She did not submit herself to the dishonor but gave her husband the taste of his own medicine. She held her head in front of male supremacy.

When her third husband, Basharat, also cheated on her with his widowed sister-in-law and got married to her behind Samiya’s back. When she decided not to forgive his infidelity, he said that “ *A woman who marries thrice can marry thirty times* ”. She answered back to his accusation that “ ایک عورت کو ” *“A man who leaves his woman to marry another would not stop at one either”*. Samiya showed the mirror to her husband who himself couldn’t stay as one woman but tried to disgrace herself for getting married thrice. She countered him sternly that once a cheater, always a cheater. It shows how women need to be courageous and unyielding to shield themselves.

When her suitor broke his commitment and cheated on her with another girl. When she confronted him for not telling her about his alleged affair. He said that “ میں نے تمہیں ” *“I thought you would be hurt and shout at me”*. Instead of crying her heart out, she gave him a savage reply that “ یہ مثالیں کیوں دی جاتی ہیں ” *شان۔ نہیں کرتی مجھ جیسی لڑکیاں کسی کے پیچھے خودکشی، دو چار موٹی موٹی گالیاں دے کر چپ کر جاتی ہیں یا دو کہ مرد کی یہ زبان اور مرد کی وہ* *“But then why do we have so many cliches? A man’s personality....a man’s word. Is this your word? Girls like me don’t commit suicide for anyone. We abuse or hit, at least once. And then it is all up to God”*. It exhibits

the strength of women that they don't cry or chase after underserving men to keep their integrity intact. They knew it is worth wasting themselves for worthless men.

She raised a flag against sexual harassment faced by women in public or workplaces when her mother taunted her “ ***If we had a son, he would have earned and fed us. He would not have impressed his favors upon us***”.

She narrated the ugly reality of this patriarchal society “ ایک لڑکی دو یا تین کلومیٹر میں کتنی بار مرتی اور ” سڑکوں پہ پھرنے والی۔ کتنی بار اپنے عورت ہونے پہ لعنت بھیجتی ہے۔ پر آپ کیسے جانتی ہوں گی یہ آپ تو گھر کی ملکہ میں اور میں ٹھہری۔ ***How much a girl suffers while she travels a few kilometers. How many times does she curse herself for being born a girl? You have no idea about Mom. Because you are the queen of this house. And I am the one who roams the roads. My father must know. He is a man***” . It displays how stay-at-home women, consider it to be an easy task for working women to meet the ends who struggle every day to protect themselves from harassment during traveling and working. They fight to earn rightfully while being trapped in a male-dominated society.

There are several instances of sexual harassment at work class. Samiya did not choose to stay tight-lipped but confronted the whole situation openly. When she called out her employer who tried to sexually harass her “ میں نے اخبار میں پڑھا تھا کہ نوے لڑکیاں اور عورتیں نوکری میں ہراس میں آتی ہیں۔ ” ***Today I was reading in the newspaper that 90 percent of girls and women on the job are getting harassed***”. He told her “ ***there is a difference in harassing and being friendly. Your brain's screw is loose***”. Samiya replied to him “ ***میرا تو صرف سکرو ڈھیلا ہے۔*** ” - تمہارے تو پورے کا پورا کرکٹر ڈھیلا ہے۔ یہ سب کرنے سے پہلے یہ بھی سوچ لیا کرو کہ اگر تمہاری موت کے بعد تمہاری بیوی کو کام ڈھونڈنا پڑا تو ***It's just that my screw is loose. You are completely a loose character person. Also think after your death, if your wife must do the job, she has to face all this as well***”. She even showed the knife to her manager who tried to grab

her hand forcefully. It unveils women face such challenges in their lives daily. However, Samiya proved herself not to be just an ordinary woman but a warrior for fighting back against these harassers who tried to get in her way by weakening her willpower.

She surpassed all these issues and obstacles and established that women are not constrained to social constructs as the writer showed her journey as an entrepreneur. She initially opened her food stall and gave job opportunities to transgenders to dismantle binaries regarding gender. Later, by opening her branch of the restaurant, she achieved her happy ending not as a wife or a mother but as an independent businesswoman. Who showed that women are far above this objectification inflicted by the male-dominated society?

5. Conclusion

Gender roles cannot be defined in a few words as they are not specified but vary from culture to culture. From antiquity to contemporary times, women have been bound to a broad range of roles that are set by the misogynistic culture. Every culture has its own distinct set of challenging roles that women are given to play. In this paper, gender roles are discussed through the lens of women's objectification. The major concern is how sexual violence and mental torture are glorified and romanticized as love. Women are treated as decoration pieces or properties owned by men. Female bodies are regarded as contested sites as **“Victory is celebrated on a woman’s body, vengeance is taken on a woman’s body, that's very much the way things are, particularly in my part of the world”** (Sidhwa,1988)⁴.

The article gives a contrasting picture of both Pakistani and Thai culture for the sake of comparison in terms of gender representation. In **Thai drama**, Pantawan is depicted as the best example of the stereotypical role of women although she also showed resistance that was limited and insufficient to break the chain of societal norms. She adopted a submissive role defined by Thai culture by compromising her values and accepting her husband back. Pakistani culture is also not much different from Thai culture because patriarchy is also present in it, but women fought for their rightful role. As **Samiya** in Ghissi Pitti Mohabbat challenged all the social constructs

⁴ Wilder . “Introduction to Cracking India.”

attached to women's roles. Although society tagged her as a characterless woman for marrying three times she rose above those accusations. She did not confine herself in that societal cocoon but broke herself free. Unlike Pantawan, she held a domineering role to define herself as a subject by insisting that **being a woman should not be considered a taboo or weakness.**

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