

Research Trends in Linguistics in Sindh

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Abstract

This study analyzes MA level dissertations of students of linguistics in a university in Karachi, completed in the first decade of the current century. The aim of the study is to determine research trends in linguistics in Sindh. The findings show that the students select topics for research from sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics and applied linguistics. They neglect such branches of linguistics like computational linguistics, historical linguistics, semantics, phonetics and phonology. Pakistani student researchers enrolled for post-graduate linguistics programmes are mainly inclined to the study of ELT. Qualitative research is their most favourite type of research. On the other hand, regional languages, institutions existing in rural areas and quantitative research methodology are neglected areas for researchers. Probability sampling techniques are not adopted by them. They rather prefer non-probability sampling techniques. Audio is the most favourite electronic device used in Pakistan. Interview, Analysis and Observation are the most favourite while Field notes and Questionnaire are neglected tools of research among the researchers.

Key words: *Linguistics, Research, Trends*

1. INTRODUCTION

Linguistics is an important field of study which was introduced as a regular discipline in the universities of Europe as later as 1960s (Crystal, 1985). With the turn of the present century, this branch of knowledge further developed and many specializations were offered in various branches of linguistics in the well-known universities of the world (ibid). Though introduced later, the discipline has become very popular. However, the situation in Pakistan in the field of linguistics is not so encouraging. In the opinion of Rahman (1999), Pakistan had not

started even ‘crawling’ in the field of modern linguistics at the end of the twentieth century.

Research is one of the most important jobs of universities in the modern world. Universities keep on encouraging their students to conduct research studies in the neglected areas of various disciplines. It is a need of time to study the work of universities to evaluate their performance and for determining the existing research trends in various disciplines. There is no solid research to determine research trends in Linguistics in Pakistan. Therefore, it may be a very important study to find out research trends in linguistics in Pakistan.

Karachi is the biggest city of Pakistan. People from all ethnic groups of Pakistan come to study in Karachi. It is called a mini-Pakistan. One hundred MA dissertation completed for partial fulfilment of MA English language and linguistics were selected for this study. The participants belonged to the whole Sindh province. Thus, the current study determines research trends in linguistics in Sindh in particular and in Pakistan in general at the onset of 21st century. The study may be significant for following reasons;

1. The study may provide a picture of research trends in linguistics in Sindh as well as in the whole of the country.
2. It may provide a database for future researchers interested in finding research trends in linguistics at provincial or national level.
3. It may highlight the problems faced by researchers affiliated to the field of linguistics.
4. The study may be equally enlightening for students, researchers, teachers and scholars working in the discipline of Linguistics in Pakistan.

1.1 Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to determine research trends in linguistics in Sindh in particular. This aim will be achieved through a thorough study of the available research work done by students of MA English language during the years 1999-2007.

1.1.1 Objectives of the Study

Following are the objectives of this study;

- a. To identify the areas of research mostly studied/neglected by these researchers
- b. To study Research methodology used by the researchers
- c. To know the problems faced by the researchers during their research work

1.1.2 Research Questions

This study will attempt to find answers to the following questions;

1. Which branches of Linguistics are foci of research by student researchers of Sindh?
2. What type of research methodology is used by the researchers?
3. Which areas of linguistics are foci of research and which ones are neglected by the researchers in the field of linguistics?
4. What are the main problems faced by the researchers during their research work?
5. What are important findings and suggestions forwarded by the student researchers for improvement of research in linguistics?

2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction & Background

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. Generally, it is considered a newly introduced subject of study. But the origin and development of this field of study dates back to more than two millennia ago. Grammar particularly Phonology had been a topic of research among scholars for centuries. Dionysius Thrax explained rules of grammar of Greek language two thousand years ago (Fromkin et. al, 2004, p.14). Panini (ibid, pp.57-58) who wrote on grammar and phonology of Sanskrit is first known example of linguistic work in the Subcontinent. Born in a village near Attok, a town situated in the area which is now part of Pakistan, Panini was affiliated to a University situated at Taxila. He wrote on grammar and pronunciation of Sanskrit

with a view to teach the followers of Hinduism their religious language i.e. Sanskrit (O'Connor & Robertson, 2008).

A perpetual development in the field of linguistics was observed in Europe after the Renaissance. In 1630, a German linguist Alsted used the term 'general grammar' in the meaning different from 'special grammar' (Fromkin et. al, 2004, p.18). In 1817, the US psycholinguists perfected the system called American Sign Language (ASL), a work originally started by French linguists and psychologists (ibid, p.21).

Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913) is considered a revolutionary change in the then existing trend in the field of linguistics. This Swiss linguist diverted the attention of his contemporary linguists towards those aspects of language which were left unattended at that time. Prior to Saussure, research in linguistics was directed on the study of language with reference to history. He diverted attention of researchers to the structure of language. That is why his ideas signify a shift from Historicism to Structuralism, a name used for Saussurean school of thought (Bally et. al, 1966; Saussure, 2006). Such concepts as 'Paradigmatic & Syntagmatic relations', 'Langue & Parole' and 'Signified & Signifier' etc. are the brainchild of Saussure which provided basis for research to such modern linguists as Chomsky (b.1928) and Bloomfield (1887- 1949).

The contribution of Russians in this field emerged with establishment of the Linguistic Circle of Prague in 1926 (Crystal, 1996, p.514). The linguists affiliated to this circle laid stress on functions of language. So their ideas are mentioned under the name of Functionalism. V. Mathesius (1882-1945), Trubetzkoy (1870-1938) and Roman Jakobson (1896-1982) are some of the prominent linguists of Prague School of Linguistics. As Structuralists were interested in the study of structure of language, the 'Pragueans' were interested in the study of functions of language. Their main area of interest was phonology. They developed the concept of 'phoneme' and for the first time they differentiated 'Phonology' from 'Phonetics'.

With the emergence of sociology as a separate discipline in European universities, attention of linguists also diverted to the study of relation between language and society. They started studying language as a

social phenomenon. Behaviourist school of thought basically studied language as a social behaviour. However, Chomsky (b.1928) revolutionized the study of language by giving the idea of mentalism based on relation between human mind and language. In the start of the second half of the twentieth century, world linguists were more inclined to psycholinguistics. Later on, however, a compromising attitude emerged in the world of linguistics and the latest research trends show an interdisciplinary approach towards socio- and psycholinguistics. The study and analysis of discourse is also one of the emerging areas of linguistics in the current era.

2.2. Research Trends in Applied Linguistics

Rastegar (2006) studied and analyzed literature of last quarter of the previous century on Second Language Acquisition to determine research trends in Applied Linguistics. Her study aimed to find out whether researchers in the field of second language acquisition use 'Casual Modelling-Path Analysis' method in their studies or not. The Casual Modelling is a research method to address a particular question with many variables. Normally, learners with various types of individual differences are studied in this model in relation to different types of achievements. A number of variables are correlated in this model to develop a comprehensive principle of learning. This model of research is used to find out correlation between a number of variables and many types of achievements. On the other hand, Simple Linear model studies and compares one to one variable and results.

Path-Analysis is a data analysis technique normally used in such studies where different types of variables are correlated and analyzed to find out cause effect relationship. It is a technique that is very much closer to multiple regressions (Rastegar, 2006). A particular set of symbols and terms is used for variables and assumptions in this model. For example, casual assumptions are reflected through arrows. Cause-effect relationship is determined through path coefficients in this technique.

In the last quarter of the past century, there was an effort to find out universals of second language acquisition based on the idea that second language learners are universally similar (ibid). Thus, researchers of the domain of psychology mostly addressed the

question of individual differences and similarities to develop a comprehensive theory of SLA. The relation between individual differences and achievements in the field of language acquisition, correlation between various types of individual differences and some models of SLA were most discussed topics in the literature on Second Language Acquisition. For such studies, Casual modelling-Path-analysis may be a suitable model.

As the focus of this study was relation between individual differences and language achievements, and the models adopted in such research studies, the researcher mostly studied the research models widely used in research in Applied Linguistics. She concludes that researchers had used either 'simple co-relational model' or 'casual modelling' in their empirical research. According to Rastegar (2006), the research work using simple linear model of correlation was more in quantity while that using complex casual modelling, although less in quantity, was promising and of qualitatively high calibre and importance. She also enumerates some important studies of both models along with their major findings. She also points out the variables which remained under study of researchers. According to her, attitudes, motivation and anxiety were most studied variables in the field of SLA in the last quarter of the past century. The findings of this study show that the casual modelling was well underway to significant contribution to ELT (Rastegar, 2006). The researcher concludes that casual modelling-pathway analysis is an effective tool of data analysis in the field of applied linguistics.

2.3. Current Trends in Research Methodology

Lazarton (2000) studied trends in research methodology and use of statistics for data analysis in Applied Linguistics. She attempted to find out if the current research trends in empirical studies published in journals of Applied Linguistics matched with the research models recently discussed in the same field. Thus, the aim of this research was to know how latest models of data analysis were adopted by researchers in the field of Applied Linguistics. For the purpose, the researcher analyzed and classified 332 articles published in four well-known journals of Applied Linguistics during the period 1991-1997. The articles were classified into qualitative and quantitative etc. categories, sub-classified into various categories on the basis

of research methodology, data analysis techniques and research models used in the articles. The classification was based on the claim of researchers without further evaluation. For example, if a researcher claimed that s/he had used regressive analysis method in the study, the article was included in the subclass of regressive analysis without evaluating whether the regressive analysis technique as claimed by the researcher was used properly or not.

For literature review, the researcher studied and analyzed the literature of the current decade to have an idea of prevalent research models and approaches. Later on, she compared the data collected by her through the study of related literature with a particular set of 332 research articles of the four journals under study to know if the population of the study was following the latest research techniques, models and approaches or not.

According to the findings, almost 88% of research articles in the selected journals were quantitative studies. Statistical research methods were used in the quantitative research. On the other hand, a limited number of qualitative studies published in the four research journals under study had followed ethnography and oral & written analysis models. In the quantitative research which used statistics for analysis, techniques of descriptive statistics were used in most articles published in the selected journals. According to the author (Lazarton, 2000), almost 50% of the authors applied ANOVA for data analysis in the research studies of quantitative nature. The remaining half used other statistical methods like Pearson Correlation, t-test, regressive analysis, chi-square test, MANOVA etc in their research papers. The researcher thinks it 'troubling' that use of ANOVA is so common in empirical research in Applied Linguistics because, according to the author, it is not an easier test (ibid). Finally, she recommends future researchers to combine both qualitative and quantitative research.

2.4. Research Trends in China

Young, Lichun and Jun (2001) analyzed contents of four Chinese journals of Applied Linguistics and equal number of journals of the West for comparative study of research trends in Applied Linguistics. The aim of the study was to compare research trends in linguistics in China with those of the West. The focus of this study was research

methods used in applied linguistic studies published in the journals of both groups. The top research journals from both groups were selected. Articles published in the selected journals were analyzed with focus on research methodology used in the studies published during last two decades. The data were categorized into classes like qualitative, quantitative, classroom interaction analysis and non-empirical studies, etc. The findings were presented in two (decade-wise) pools. According to the findings, utter dominance with gradual decrease of non-empirical studies marked main trends in the field of Applied Linguistics in China. Besides, quantitative research method was adopted more than qualitative research methods.

On the other hand, in the West, qualitative and empirical research was more liked than non-empirical quantitative research, while ‘personal experiences and reviews were virtually absent’ (Young et. al, 2001, p.7). Argument-based opinions, although existed in the West, were not confused with research articles. A wider gap between qualitative and quantitative research which existed in China had been bridged up by the West. Ethnography as a method of research was the latest phenomenon of the 80s decade. The analysis of data was always statistical and scientific. Nature and relation between research and language, SLA, (in)dependence of practice on theory and Chomskyan influence on linguistic theories were topics which emerged as prominent theoretical issues in the research scenario of the West during the period under study.

The favourite topics of study for Chinese researchers included language policy, language teaching, correlation between national ideology and language teaching, translation studies, significance of research in China and theories of language. One of the significant findings of this research is that there was an utter difference between research trends in the first and second decade of the study period in China in the field of applied linguistics.

The lack of inferential statistics in applied linguistic research and that of experimental designs was found to be a vital deficiency in research work of first decade of the study period. But the next decade saw a significant change in the approach of Chinese researchers towards research methodology. The areas which were neglected in the previous decade became foci of attention in the next decade. The neglected

areas of research and major lacunae in research methodology were pointed out in the first decade of the study period. As a result, an utter change in the attitude of researchers was noted in the next decade regarding the use of research methods.

The study shows vigilant nature of the Chinese towards research. Constant improvement in the field of research speaks of the dynamic process of evolution in research in China. One of the important developments noted by the researchers was that subjective research was replaced by objective research and the number of studies based on only 'personal experiences and views' decreased. Memory based research reports were replaced by empirical studies.

2.5. Research Trends in Japan

Izui (1962) studied research trends in Japanese linguistics. The article is divided into four parts. The first part is about vowels of Japanese, the second about research studies on the origin of Japanese language, the third on various research studies in Japan and the last part is about the dominant theories and research methodology in Japanese linguistics.

In the first part, the researcher gives history, origin and development of the vocalic system of Japanese. The writer enumerates efforts of Japanese researchers during past centuries to study and analyze nature of vowels of Japanese language. It is pointed out that most of the efforts of researches to understand the nature of Japanese vowels were focused on ancient Japanese and Chinese scripts and distribution of occurrence of vowels with other phonemes. In the second part of the article, the researcher describes efforts of Japanese researchers and the problems faced by them in the way to determine origin of their language. In this section, the writer summarizes efforts of various researchers to find out the origin of Japanese language in different (families of) languages like Altaic, Ural, Austronesian or Korean etc.

The third part of the article is about study of languages of the East and West. In this section, the researcher summarizes very briefly efforts of Japanese linguists and researchers for decipherment of the ancient script and its comparison with the existing scripts. The writer particularly describes efforts of the researchers to explain the script and grammar of Sivia. Among other important works published in

Japan are those about various languages and dialects of the world. Of special importance, in the opinion of the writer, are studies on the origin and grammar of languages which may help to understand the origin of Japanese language. The researcher particularly points out the rarity of studies on Australian, American and African languages and strongly recommends the Japanese researchers to pay special attention to these languages 'to achieve broader base' in Japanese linguistics (Izui, 1962, p. 54).

The last part of this survey is about the theories and methodologies used in research in the field of linguistics in Japan. The writer finds no significant difference in linguistic theories and research methods prevalent in Japan and those of the world. Most of the research in Japan is, in the opinion of the writer, under influence of Saussure's thought. In the field of research methodology, significant achievement in Japanese linguistics is the activities of the Mathematical Society of Linguistics in Japan which works for 'mathematical management of linguistic facts' (ibid, p.54). Another prevalent theory in Japanese linguistics is modern stylistics.

2.6. Trends of Linguistics in India

Jha (2003) studied current trends in linguistics in India. The study surveys progress in the field of information technology developed for linguistic purposes. It also gives passing remarks on the current status of languages and attitude of speakers in Indian society and politics. Depicting the linguistic scenario of India, Jha (2003) describes, that there are over a thousand languages with well defined grammars, of five language families namely, Indo-Aryan, Dravidian, Austro-Asiatic, Tibeto-Burman, and Andamanese. According to the claim of the writer, considerable development in the field of information technology enabled India to use IT for linguistic purposes by 'preserving data of the dying languages, creating M(A)T tools, fonts and word processing systems and Optical Character Recognition (OCR) tools, building uni/bi/multi-modal natural language interfaces, corpora, Text to Speech (TTS) systems and data warehouses, dialect mapping, preparing multilingual resources, preparing online resources and search engines and speech recognition &synDissertation tools and doing localization for major software systems' (Jha 2003). Different public and private organizations, Universities and IT institutes are

constantly working for finding ways to use IT in linguistics. According to the researcher (ibid), Indian organizations are working for creation and analysis of Corpora, integration of language technology into curricula, development of speech databases, speech engines, machine translation, speech to speech translation and many other internet related programmes.

The researcher concludes with a comment on the issue of funding in research. According the researcher, the funding provided by the government of India is enough for development of various research projects for integration of IT and linguistics; however, the writer feels that the funding provided by private sector organizations to the researchers is not enough.

2.7. Linguistics in Pakistan

Dil (1969) summarized the research work done in the field of linguistics in Pakistan in the early two decades of Independence. As a background, the researcher summarized gradual development of linguistic activity in the Subcontinent before partition. He highlighted the efforts of both native and English linguists, researchers and teachers for promotion of linguistics in the Subcontinent. In this connection, he describes services of various institutions like Linguistic Society of India, Calcutta University, Usmania University and AnjumanTarraqui-e-Urdu, etc. for promotion of linguistics in the Subcontinent.

In the survey, the research work in the field of linguistics in Pakistan is classified into sections on the basis of languages. The first section is about services of linguists and researchers affiliated to the Bengali language. In this section, the writer particularly mentions the name of Dr.Shahidullah, the first Indian to get a degree in comparative philology from Calcutta University (Dil 1969). Of special significance are the latter's ideas about origin of Indo-Aryan languages and his disagreement with traditional view that most languages of the Subcontinent are of Sanskritic origin. Most of the researchers, whose works are summarized in this section, are those who did their research on some aspect of English language teaching.

The services of the linguists affiliated to Urdu language are mentioned in the survey with more details. The efforts of individuals like Abdul

Haque, Abu Lais Siddiqi, ShaukatSabzwari, etc. and those of some organizations like AnjamanTarraqui-e-Urdu and Urdu Development Board, etc. make part of this section of the survey. The services of educational institutions like Oriental College Lahore, Urdu College Karachi and Urdu Departments of various Universities of Pakistan are also enumerated. Issues like preparation of keyboards for Urdu typewriters, lexicography, origin of Urdu language, language as medium of instruction and translation were some of the major questions addressed by Pakistani linguists affiliated to Urdu language during the early two decades of Pakistan's life.

Besides, the researcher also mentions efforts of linguists working on other Pakistani languages. In this connection, separate sections for Punjabi, Pashto and Sindhi are included in the survey. The research work on Balochi, Brahui, Persian, Shina and Gujrati are very briefly described under the heading of 'Other Languages.' The research work by some natives and foreigners (particularly Indians, Russians and Americans) and those of some organizations and Departments of some of the well-known universities of Pakistan are also mentioned in this section. In the author's opinion, the organizations like Punjabi Adabi Board established in 1957, Pashto Academy established in 1955 and Sindhi Adabi Board established in 1951 are some of the institutions which have been working for promotion of Pakistani languages.

There seems a striking similarity in research trends in the selection of topics and use of research methodology among linguists of various Pakistani languages. Almost all of them are interested in ancient literature of their languages. The topics of study equally favourite for all of them include lexicography, translation, history of language, syntax and issues related to English Language Teaching and Learning in Pakistan. Of special significance is a survey based on the opinion of 154 teachers about English language teaching in Pakistan. The reason for interest of Pakistani linguists in ELT is that normally they complete their dissertations for getting a degree from English Departments of Pakistani Universities.

A very important discussion in the final section of the survey is about the questions of vital importance like problems, policies and issues related to language and education in Pakistan. In this section of the survey, proceedings, discussions and recommendations of different

committees of various organizations regarding the controversy of medium of instruction, which in those days dominated the echelons of politics, education and government are summarized. The section throws light on efforts of Universities and other organizations for development of sound projects for teacher training. Overall, this survey presents a brief description of research trends in linguistics in Pakistan in the decades of 50s and 60s.

In the literature review presented above, we note that most of the concentration of researchers of different countries of the world is centred on trends of manner and matter of research in linguistics. The study on research trends in China shows that there is a constant improvement and advancement in research in linguistics in China. The study (Young, Lichun& Jun 2001) shows that the problems and weaknesses observed in one decade were overcome in the next.

Japanese linguistics was inclined to stylistics and structuralism in the decade of 60s while Japanese researchers were trying to point out importance of relation between mathematics and linguistics. They laid stress on the importance of studying languages of other continents like Africa, Australia and America. India, which is of the same age as Pakistan, has made a lot of progress in the field of language technology. Thus, it is need of time to find out the trends of research in linguistics in Pakistan. In the decade of 50s and 60s, Pakistani linguists were engaged in medium of instruction controversy, preparation of keyboards for Urdu typewriter, issues related to English Language Teaching and Learning in Pakistan, translation studies, history and syntax of languages. A lot of change has occurred in the world of linguistics in the past few decades. Thus, it is highly important to find out current status of linguistic research in Pakistan.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Population of study

MA level dissertations completed by the students of a university in Karachi during 1999-2007 formed population of this study. However, only the available dissertations were selected as samples. Total number

of dissertations completed in the Department every year¹ range between 30 and 35 which means the number of dissertations completed during the period must be between 270 and 315 but those available in the Department were only 96. Thus the samples of this study are almost 30% to 35% of the total population.

The following section presents a detail of how the collected data are coded and presented for analysis.

3.2 Analysis of Data

The data are analyzed using descriptive statistics. In this section, the data about dissertations written in different branches of linguistics, nature & fields of studies and research methodology used by the student researchers are analyzed. The analysis focuses on the research questions of this study namely, quantity of research work produced in various branches of linguistics, different areas which were focus of attention by student researchers and research methodology used by them. The problems faced by the researchers will be reproduced in the final section.

First, the data are classified into various categories on the basis of branches of linguistics, fields of study and research methodology. The classification of dissertations into various categories on the basis of research methodology is based on the claims of the researchers about their studies. For example, if a researcher claims to have followed 'qualitative research model' in his/her study, the dissertation is included into the category of 'qualitative research'.

The data are analyzed at two levels. First is the summative analysis which determines the overall patterns of linguistic research. At this level, the whole data are presented in cumulatively. It tells us how much research was done in a particular area or which tool of research was used most or least during a specific period of time. It is one of the objectives of the study to find out which of the fields/branches of linguistics and/or research methods, etc. are mostly liked/neglected by student researchers. For this, only those areas, branches and/or methods are considered which were discussed/used by the researchers.

¹Personal communication with a teaching staff member in the Department of the university under study.

Those methods, branches or areas which were not addressed by the researchers do not make part of this analysis. The areas which are touched by the student researchers are divided into two parts; the ‘favorite/liked’ and/or the ‘neglected’ ones. On the basis of mean/average it is determined whether an area of study is ‘neglected’ or ‘liked’ by the students. For example, if one hundred dissertations under this study are about ten branches of linguistics, the mean /average is ten. In such a case if ten or more than ten dissertations are done on any branch of linguistics, that branch of linguistics is declared ‘favorite/liked’ and if the number of dissertations during the study period is less than ten in some branch of linguistics, that branch is considered ‘neglected.’

Second is a year-wise presentation of data to find out trends of research. Normally, trends are determined on the basis of comparison of variables with reference to time (Kendall & Buckland, 1971). In the year-wise analysis of the data, only the significant variables are discussed, analyzed and reflected. The insignificant variables are either neglected or combined under the headings of ‘others’ or ‘ambivalent.’ In tables showing cumulative data, variables with insignificant frequencies are also included. But for determining the year-wise trends of research, subclasses of variables are merged into the main classes for the purpose of getting significant generalizations.

For collecting these data, permission was obtained from the chairperson of the concerned department to study, and use the required data in research purpose.

4. PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Research Trends in Linguistics

The following table reflects a summary of the research work done during the study period.

1 . Branches of Linguistics

S. No.	Branches	No.
1	Philology	1
2	Translation	2

3	Psycholinguistics	1
4	Error Analysis	2
5	Grammar	4
6	Sociolinguistics	5
7	Stylistics	13
8	Medialect	19
9	Communication Skills	19
10	ELT/EL	30
	Total	96

The table shows that ELT, Communication Skills, Medialect and Stylistics attracted most of the student researchers' attention.

Figure 1: Research trends in linguistics

The following table shows a year-wise detail of the dissertations done in various disciplines of linguistics.

2. Year-wise Detail of the Branches of Linguistics Studied by the Researchers²

Branches	1999	2000	2004	2005	2006	2007	Total
Philology	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Translation Studies	0	0	0	2	0	0	2
Psycholinguistics	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Error Analysis	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Grammar	0	1	0	1	1	1	4
Sociolinguistics	0	0	0	1	3	1	5

² The dissertations completed in the years 2001-2003 were not available.

Stylistics	1	2	0	6	4	0	13
Medialect	3	3	0	4	5	4	19
ELT	0	4	3	4	10	9	30
Communication skills	1	3	0	2	7	6	19
Total	5	13	3	20	33	22	96

The above table shows that socio-linguistics, psycholinguistics, Medialect and Stylistics are the main areas of interest for student researchers. Medialect (the study of a particular dialect used in media) is considered a branch of sociolinguistics. On the other hand, error analysis, teaching of grammar, ELT/ELL and teaching and learning of communication skills are part of Psycholinguistics because all these are related to language learning. Thus, we include these branches of linguistics under three main headings to have a comparative view of the situation in the following table;

3. Comparative Study of Research Trends

Branches	1999	2000	2004	2005	2006	2007	Total
Psycholinguistics	1	8	3	7	20	17	56
Sociolinguistics	3	3	0	5	8	5	24
Stylistics	1	2	0	6	4	0	13

The following graph reflects research trends in these branches of linguistics in a more meaningful way.

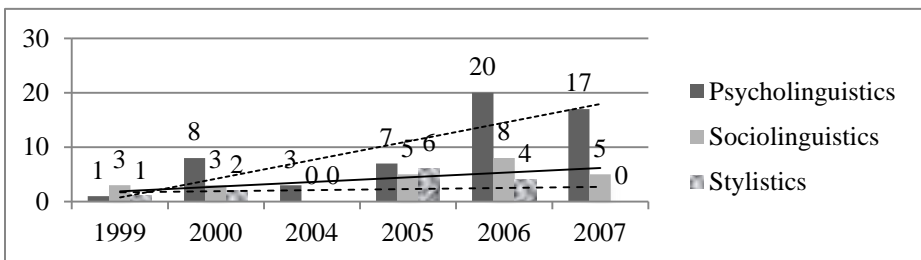


Figure 1: Year-wise studies in branches of linguistics

Trend lines in the Figure (1) reflect year-wise trends of research in various branches of linguistics. The line showing trends in Sociolinguistics and Stylistics over the years are somewhat straight which indicates that there is no significant change in the research work done in these branches of linguistics. However, there is a sharp rise in the trend line reflecting psycholinguistics which shows a lot of concentration of researchers in this area.

4.2. Areas of Research Selected by the Researchers

4.2.1 Areas of Research

The data in the table (4) show choice of the researchers for selection of topics of research in different areas. The table shows that 58.3% of dissertations were about Education, 24% about Media, 13% about Linguistics and 3% about literature.

4. Areas of Research

Fields	No.	%age
Education	56	58.33
Media	24	25
Linguistics	13	13.54
Literature	3	3.13
Total	96	100

As the table (4) reflects, Education and Media are most favorite and Linguistics and Literature are neglected areas. Table 5 presented below shows year-wise detail of dissertations done in the most favourite areas of research.

5. Year-wise Research in Various Areas

Areas	1999	2000	2004	2005	2006	2007	Total
Education	1	8	3	7	20	17	56
Media	3	3	0	5	9	4	24

The following graph shows the year-wise trends in the most favourite areas of interest by student researchers.

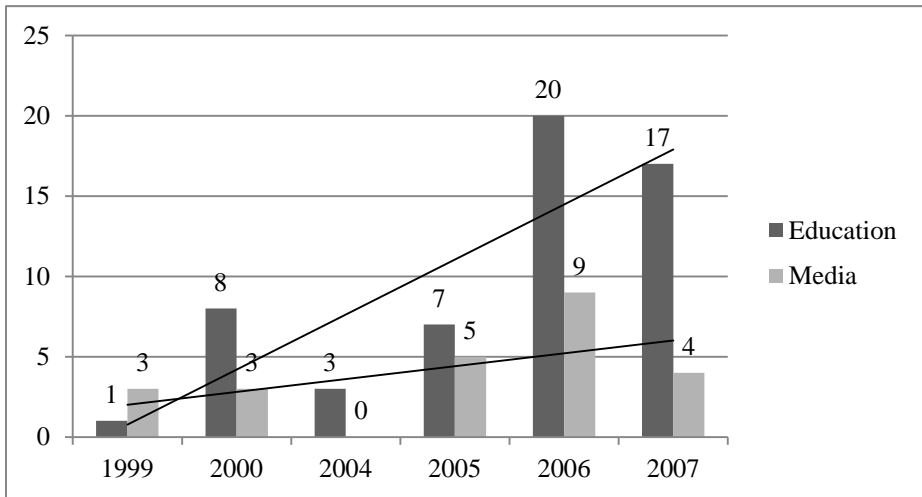


Figure 2: Year-wise Research in Areas of Interest of Student Researchers

Figure (2) indicates interests of the researchers in these fields of study. The constant line showing research work done in Media studies indicates that there is no fall rather, a little rise in the trend regarding selection of topics from the field of Media. However, the lines reflecting research work done in the fields of Education has sharp rise which indicates that interest of the researchers in the field of Education has constantly been increasing. It is important to point out that the dissertations from Education are about ELT/ELL. In other words, Applied Linguistics is popular while theoretical Linguistics is neglected area for the researchers. The data in the field of literature are too small to analyze.

4.2.2 Location of Institutions under Study

Most of the researchers have given separate chapter or section to describe Physical Setting of their research. The whole research is divided into two locations i.e. Karachi city or out of Karachi. Some of the researchers did not mention location of the area where they were conducting research. Such cases are mentioned as “ambivalent” .

6. Location of the Institutions under Study

S. No.	Physical Setting	No.	%age
1	Karachi	46	70.77
2	Out of Karachi	3	4.62
3	Ambivalent	16	24.62
4	Total	65	100

The table shows that out of total 96 dissertations under study, 65 were about some institutions out of which only 4.62% were upon institutions out of Karachi city. 24.62% of the researchers did not explicitly mention the physical setting of the institutions under study (but from the reading of the contents it seems that the institutions under study in those projects were also situated in Karachi city) while 70.77% of the institutions which were studied by the researchers were situated in Karachi city. It means the researchers prefer to conduct their research on institutions situated in the urban areas of Karachi.

4.2.3 Study of Pakistani Languages

Most of the research work of students is on English language. However, there is some work on two Pakistani languages namely Urdu and Sindhi. The research work done on Pakistani languages is presented below.

7. Pakistani Languages

S.No.	Languages	No	%age
1	Urdu	14	87.5
2	Sindhi	2	12.5
3	Total	16	100

The table shows that only 16 of the total dissertations were about Pakistani languages out of which 87.5% were about Urdu and 12.5% about Sindhi. Thus, Sindhi language is a neglected area of study as compared to Urdu.

On the basis of this analysis, we conclude that the students researchers Sindh prefer to study topics from the field of Education (Applied Linguistics) and Media. Theoretical linguistics is a neglected area of research. The number of dissertations written about Pakistani languages is not so significant, however, Urdu is a preferred choice of study. They also like to conduct their research in Karachi city compared with the rural areas. As regards selection of topics from different branches of linguistics, it seems that psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and stylistics are favorite for areas for students.

4.3. REARCH METHODOLOGY

4.3.1. Research Paradigms

The data show that the student researchers work on research projects either under Qualitative or Quantitative paradigm. Table (8) shows research paradigms adopted by the students:

8. Research Paradigms

S.No.	Method of Analysis	No.	%age
1	Quantitative	0	0
2	Qualitative	24	92.31
3	Both	1	7.69
4	Total	25	100

Only 25 of the total researchers mentioned research paradigms in their dissertations. Out of those, 92.31% adopted qualitative research paradigm while only 7.69% used both qualitative and quantitative research paradigms. None of them claimed to have conducted exclusively quantitative research. It means Qualitative research is liked by the researchers while Quantitative research is neglected.

4.3.2 Sampling Techniques Used in Research

Different sampling techniques are used in research. All researchers either did not mention the sampling technique or the sampling was not relevant in their research. The following table shows that in the research work done during the study period, Purposive sampling is

used 22.8% of the time, Convenient sampling 40.35% and Random sampling 24.56% of the times. Snowball sampling technique was used only 5.26% of the times. Only one researcher claimed to have used Probability sampling technique³. The researchers who used Non-random technique for selection of samples did not further elaborate the technique used in the research. Natural and Stage sampling techniques each was used by only one (1.75%) of the researchers. It means that Purposive, Convenient and Random Sampling are the favorite techniques mostly used by the researchers while Probability, Non-Random, Natural, Stage and Snow-ball Sampling are among the neglected sampling techniques. Year-wise detail of the sampling techniques is given in the following table;

9. Year-wise Detail of Using Sampling Techniques⁴

Techniques	1999	2000	2004	2005	2006	2007	Total	Total	Percentage
Purposive	0	0	1	2	9	2	14	28	22.80
Convenient	0	1	1	4	15	4	25	50	40.35
Random	0	3	1	1	4	5	14	28	24.56
Others	0	0	0	4	4	0	8	16	12.39

The following graph shows year-wise detail of the sampling techniques used in the dissertations completed by student researchers.

³ Terms are those used by the researchers.

⁴ Some of the researchers had mentioned to have used more than one sampling techniques. That is why the total number in table 9 is more than the total number of dissertations studied.

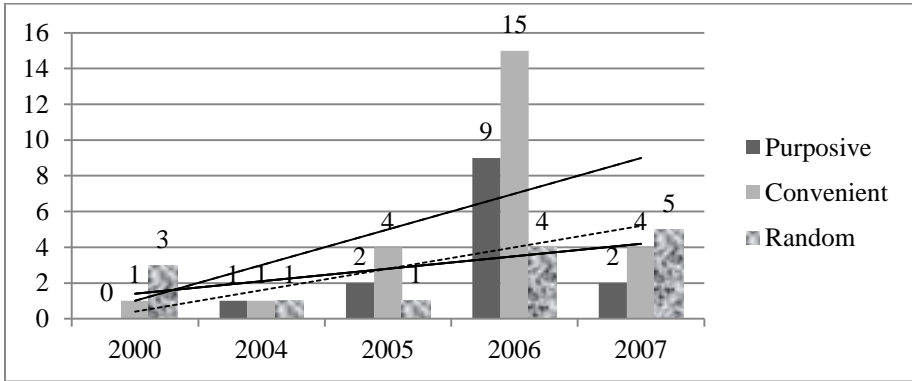


Figure 4: Year-wise Detail of Using Sampling Techniques

The trend lines in the graph show sharp rise in convenient sampling technique while there is a slow rise in random and purposive sampling. We can combine the sampling techniques in two major groups namely, probability and non-probability sampling techniques. The following table gives a comparative view of Probability and non-Probability sampling techniques used by the student researchers;

10. Year-wise Detail of Sampling Techniques Used by the Researchers

Techniques	1999	2000	2004	2005	2006	2007	Total
Non-Probability	0	1	2	10	28	6	47
Probability	0	3	1	1	4	5	14

Table 4 shows that the choice of students for adopting Probability Sampling technique remained almost constant during the study years period. But, a constant rise in the trend of adopting Non-probability Sampling technique is visible in these data.

4.3.3. Electronic Device Used in Research

The following table shows the electronic device used by the researchers during field research.

11. Electronic Device Used in Research

S. No	Device	No.	%age
1	Audio	31	88.6
2	Video	1	2.9
3	Ambivalent	3	8.6
4	Total	35	100

The table (11) shows that 35 of the researchers used electronic devices in their research out of which 88.6% used audio and 2.9% used video for research. 8.6% of the researchers did not mention which device they had used in their research. Thus, we conclude that audio is favourite device for the researchers.

4.3.4. Tools of Research Used by the Researchers

More than one tools of research were used by many of the researchers in a single research project. Interview, Questionnaire, Analysis techniques, Observation, Fields Notes and Tests were used as tools of data collection. Interviews were of many types like formal, informal, structured, semi-structured, one to one and in the form of groups, etc. All have been combined under one word heading "Interview." Similarly, various types of analysis techniques like Document Analysis, Discourse Analysis, Text Analysis and Content Analysis, etc. were used by the researchers. All are mentioned under the single heading "Analysis" in the table below.

The questionnaires used by the researchers for data collection were also open and/or close ended. Similarly, Observation was used as a technique for data collection by the researchers in various ways like, Participant-Observation, Non-participant Observation, Active Observation and Passive Observation, etc. All are described under the heading "Observation" in the discussion. Tests arranged for evaluation of performance of the participants were both of oral or written type. The following table illustrates tools of research used by the student researchers.

12. Tools of Research Used by the Researchers

Tools	No.	%age
Interview	51	31.48
Analysis	45	27.78
Observation	38	23.46
Field Notes	17	10.49
Questionnaire	11	6.79
Total	162	100

The above table shows that Interview, Analysis and Observation are the most favourite while Field notes and Questionnaire are neglected tools of research among the student researchers. The following table shows Year-wise detail of the tools of research used by the student researchers; Only those tools of research are included in the table which the participants of this study have claimed to have used in conducting their research.

13. Year-wise Detail of the Tools of Research Used by the Researchers

Tools	1999	2000	2004	2005	2006	2007	Total
Interview	0	8	3	7	18	15	51
Analysis	2	5	0	14	15	9	45
Observation	1	7	2	5	13	10	38
Field Notes	0	0	1	0	8	8	17
Questionnaire	0	1	1	1	4	4	11

4.3.5. Research Methods

A few researchers explicitly mentioned to have used any particular research method in his/her research which is illustrated in the following table.

14. Research Methods

S. No.	Methods	Frequency	%age
1	Case Study	7	58.33
2	Survey	4	33.33
3	Action Research	1	8.33
	Total	12	100

According to the data, only 12 of the total researchers have claimed to have used any research method. Out of those, 58.33% used case study method, 8.1% used action research and 33.33% claimed to have used Survey method in research. Although the total number of dissertations using different research methods is not so significant, however, according to the data, Case study and Survey are favourite and Action Research is neglected method of research among the students.

4.3.6. Tables, Charts and Graphs Used by the Student Researchers

Tables, charts, diagrams and graphs etc. enhance the beauty of presentation and give clarity to a dissertation. The following table shows use of tables, charts and graphs in their dissertations by the student researchers. The word "Figure" has been used for all.

15. Figures used in dissertations

S.No.	No. of Figures	No.
1.	Nil	82
2.	One	3
3.	Two	5
4.	Three	1

5.	More than three	5
6.	Total	96

The table shows that 82 of the total subjects did not use any figure in their dissertations. Only 5 of the researchers used two figures and the similar number of student researchers used more than three figures in their dissertations. Only one of them used three figures and three of them used one figure in their dissertations. Most of them have not used any Figures in their dissertations because most of the studies were of qualitative nature and charts, graphs whereas tables etc are features of quantitative research.

The data presented in this section shows trends and patterns of research in Karachi. Overall, the student researchers are more inclined to doing Qualitative research, Convenient Sampling, Purposive Sampling & Random Sampling, use of Audio-recorder and using tools of research like Interview, Observation and Analysis. Quantitative research, Stage Sampling, Snow-ball Sampling & Probability Sampling, use of Video recorder and tools of research like Questionnaire, Field notes, Tests and Checklists are not popular among the student researchers of Pakistan.

4.4. Problems faced by the Student Researchers

Two types of problems have been observed. Firstly, the student researchers have themselves mentioned some problems which they faced during their research. Secondly, some of the problems which have not been stated explicitly by the researchers themselves, may be identified by having a look at their dissertations. Both types of problems are listed together in the following paragraphs;

1. The researchers mostly face the problem of non co-operation by individuals and institutions. Teachers and administration do not allow them to record proceedings of classrooms. Some institutions flatly refuse to allow researchers to observe their classrooms; others do not provide required information.
2. There is extreme shortage of latest equipment in Universities for research particularly in the field of linguistics. Non availability of the required technology is a hindrance in the way of research on

scientific ground. That is why most of the researchers only used audio recorder as a tool of recording.

3. Loose format of most of the dissertations is an indication of lack of training of researchers about how to write a research report. In most of the dissertations, approval sheets were not attached separately. Generally accepted norms of format for dissertations were violated. Chapters were not proper and sometimes a dissertation was found to look more like a long loosely formatted report. The sequence of headings in some of the dissertations was also not proper.
4. Grammatical mistakes were also observed in some of the dissertations. Limitations were mentioned in only 3% of the total dissertations. The words Hypothesis or Assumptions were used explicitly only in 2% of the dissertations. Only 4% of the researchers did Pilot Study for testing feasibility of their research. However, research ethics and Observer's Paradox were the prime considerations of most of the researchers. Physical and Social setting of research was mentioned in most of the dissertations in a separate chapter.

4.5. Overall Findings about the System of Education in Pakistan

English language teaching is the most important field of study in linguistic community of Pakistan. Throughout the world, its importance is recognized. Pakistani linguistic community is also not lagging behind the modern world in identifying the areas of significance in the field of Applied Linguistics. A large number of dissertations are done in this field yearly in Pakistani universities and important aspects of this discipline are discussed by the researchers.

Teacher training, qualification and performance of teachers, methodology and skills of teaching, interaction between teacher and students and problems of teachers in Pakistan, etc. are some of the issues discussed by the student researchers. Teaching conditions and attitude of teachers towards students, focus of attention of teachers and students in the classroom etc. are among the favourite topics of dissertations the researchers in Pakistan. As regards theories of language learning, the researchers have analyzed the teaching of English in light of various approaches like Grammar Translation Method, Direct and Indirect Method, Communicative Theory of

language teaching and Audio lingual method of teaching. Important aspects of teaching like curriculum, standard of teaching, material used in the classroom, nature and standard of textbooks used by the students & teachers and aims & objectives of teaching are the areas covered by the researchers in Pakistan.

Institutions of various levels from University to Primary school, English and Urdu medium institutions, English and Islamic institutions, girls' and boys' schools, Governmental and Public schools and language Centres have all been foci of attention of the researchers. Professional institutions like Engineering University and Commercial Colleges are also among the institutions which the students researchers have studied. Striking homogeneity is observed in findings of the researchers in the field of ELT. With the exception of one or two, all researchers reached the conclusions of similar nature. Thus, the findings of the researchers may be safely generalized in the Sindh Province as well as the whole of the country. Among the various institutions studied, all but only one or two institutions like the private institution imparting O' level education in posh areas, face similar problems. Almost all researchers agree on the following points;

1. Teaching methodology adopted by teachers of English in Schools and Colleges is outdated and ineffective.
2. The style of teaching is traditional with more stress on grammar and memorization of rules of English. Teachers do not use modern techniques for motivation of students.
3. Textbooks used in most of the institutions are substandard and misleading.
4. Teachers are unskilled and unaware of modern trends in the field of Applied Linguistics and English Language Teaching.
5. Teachers do not plan their lessons properly before coming to the classroom for teaching.
6. Large classes and weaker students are problems everywhere in the country.
7. English is taught as a subject not as a language.
8. Interference of Urdu in an English language teaching class is a common phenomenon.
9. Most of the teaching is exam-oriented with a view to secure more marks.

10. The curriculum is outdated and irrelevant.
11. Code-switching is quite common at every level.

Similarly, the suggestions forwarded by the researchers for improvement are almost common. Teacher training, change of curriculum, use of group activities in the classrooms, introduction of modern teaching techniques and stress on Communication Skills etc. are some of the recommendations given by almost all researchers who have worked in the field of ELT.

Some of the researchers selected Education in general as a topic of dissertation. One of them selected system, achievements, policy and performance of an Islamic school in Karachi. The researcher found the system satisfactory. On the other hand, in almost all governmental institutions under study, the system of education was found unsatisfactory.

Use of internet in academics by the students is one of the topics of study. It is one of the rare studies regarding study aids and computer literacy. The findings of this study are very significant in the field of research in that internet is creating trends of plagiarism and mental laziness among the students. The study stresses upon students and teachers to realize the need of computer literacy.

5. CONCLUSION

The main objectives of this study were to determine the branches of linguistics, areas of study and research methodology which are mostly used/neglected by the student researchers of Pakistan. Finding major problems faced by the researchers and summarizing important findings/suggestions of the researchers about the situation of English Language Teaching was another objective of the study. On the basis of this study, we reach the following conclusions;

1. Synchronic Linguistics, ELT, Psycholinguistics, Sociolinguistics, Medialect and Stylistics are favorite areas for research in Pakistan. Comparative Linguistics, Translation Studies and Comparative Philology, Computational Linguistics, Phonology and Phonetics are among the neglected branches of linguistics.
2. The researchers in Pakistan like to select topics for research from the field of Education, Applied linguistics and Media.

Theoretical Linguistics is hence a neglected area. A significant difference in the pattern of studies on Education is apparent in the research work done in Pakistan. The interest of students in the field of Education has been constantly increasing while that in Theoretical linguistics has been decreasing during the past decade. However, the attention of students towards the field of Media remained constant. The institutions inside bigger cities like Karachi are preferable for them to study than those situated out of bigger cities.

3. The student researchers in Pakistan prefer to conduct research in Qualitative paradigm. Purposive, Convenient and Random sampling techniques are liked by most of the students. Most of them prefer to use Audio recording device and Case study method. On the other hand, Quantitative research, Survey method, Natural, Snowball and Stage Sampling techniques, Check lists and Test as tools of research and Video recording device are some of the research tools commonly neglected by researchers in Pakistan.

4. The absence of facilities, training and research culture are major hurdles for researchers.

5. Ineffective teaching methodology, stress on memorization of rules of English, absence of modern teaching technique, dearth of motivation, ignorance of teachers about modern trends in ELT, large classes, interference of L1 in teaching English, exam-oriented teaching and outdated curriculum are major problems in Pakistan. Teacher training, change of curriculum, group activities, modern teaching techniques and stress on Communication Skills etc. are needs of the day. The findings of this study are summarized in the following table.

16. Cumulative Pattern of Research Showing Favorite and Neglected Areas

S.No.	Area	Favorite	Neglected
1.	Branches of Linguistics	ELT, Stylistics, Psycho- & Sociolinguistics (Medialect)	Translation Studies, Grammar, Comparative Philology
2.	Pakistani Languages	Urdu	Sindhi
3.	Fields of	Education, Media	Literature,

	Studies		(Theoretical) Linguistics
4.	Physical Setting	Karachi City	Out of Karachi
5.	Sampling Techniques	Purposive, Convenient, Random	Non-Random, Stage, Snowball, Natural, Probability
6.	Tools of Research	Interview, Analysis, Field Notes, Observation, Questionnaire	Test, Check List
7.	Research Paradigms	Qualitative	Quantitative
8.	Electronic Device	Audio	Video
9.	Research Method	Case Study	Survey, Action Research

6. RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of this study we give following recommendations for improvement of research in Pakistani Universities particularly in the field of theoretical and applied linguistics.

1. Research Methodology should be taught in almost all Departments of Pakistani universities at undergraduate level.
2. Researchers and their supervisors should be careful about their language. Grammatical mistakes in the dissertations should be removed before submission.
3. Overall research culture should be encouraged by providing incentives to researchers and teachers through grants, aids and scholarships.
4. The research methodology used for research in Linguistics should include both qualitative and quantitative methods of analysis of data.

5. Training of teachers, revision of curriculum, solid changes in the system of Education, introduction of new evaluation techniques as well as teaching methodology and revolutionary changes in the field of English Language teaching on the basis of modern research are the main steps urgently required and the same are specially recommended for improvement of system of Education in Pakistan.

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The Alternates and the Archaics of Wh- in the NIA Languages

Ahsan Wagha

Abstract;

In everyday teaching of English (Eng.) to the learners with one of New Indo-Aryan (NIA) as their first language, interesting Syntactic contrasts are faced and usually skipped, for instance, in translating English sentence 'I came when you were eating mango' into Urdu/Hindi (U/H.) 'main tab āya jab tum ām khā rahē thē'. Some three version of the "j"-set (Masica: 4010-1) i.e. jab, tab, and kab are covered under single English word 'when-'.

*An unlucky tendency in the linguistic tradition in Pakistan is that of perceiving the English linguistics as total linguistics. In the classroom discussions in linguistics, the marked features of English are mistaken for universal, and analysis of local speech varieties is forced to adjust within the parameters of English linguistics. A case in point is a set of morphological-syntactic features of NIA which are prominent enough to refuse to adjust within these Eng.-specific parameters. One is the NIA j/k/t-initial morphemes i.e. jab 'when', kab 'when' and tab 'when', with higher properties of markedness (in terms of OT), required to be defined through the parameters of their lesser marked counter parts in Eng. i.e. the **wh**-words.*

*This brief paper **aims** at touching upon the Problem of the Intra-English ambiguity in the Syntactic category '**Wh**-words', a form appearing as Interrogative / Relative and Correlative pronoun (prn.) in different contexts. Besides, this ambiguity comes to surface as a much demanding grammatical contrast and as source of further ambiguities in the inter-Eng.-NIA grammatical operations.*

Key words: Interrogative, correlative , reappearance, declarative and phonetic form

I. Literature review;

This work, with preference for their grammatical sameness over their socio-political separation, considers Urdu and Hindi as one and same language abbreviated as U/H. (cf. Shackle and Snell 1990 which turns meager when sketching grammatical contrasts of the two). English language has been used as language of rule-based grammatical reference only where Radford (2004) for Syntax and Katamba (1989) for Phonology are availed as dependable references in a work which is mainly primary. The material in linguistics of the NIA-relative clause is scanty and of secondary nature, dealt with in passing in the overall grammatical sketches of the language(s) of the group. Many among them attended these categories under different classifications like that of pronouns. Masica (1991) being inescapable in the area of NIA, being a survey, it only touches upon major linguistic features of a language at elementary level.

Shackle and Snell is an important reference on U/H. Yet this too is a commentary which covers a quite a few aspects of the two language(s), but grammar is the smaller of these. The linguistic component of the book is taken up in passing; is more interesting in its chapters on the language's (political) history. Chomsky has little relevance in these type of language-specific (marked) discussions. However, Rules and Representations helps in theoretical constraints placed back in the mind. A point to be made is the local scholarship (most of the works on U/H. produced in the country) is anything but linguistics in true sense of the term.

II. The Framework:

Main focus of the investigation will be on identifying the syntactic category **wh**-word in the NIA and describing their main linguistic attributes: phonetic forms, semantic properties and Syntactic position they take. Presence or absence of **wh-movement** in syntactic operations in the NIA will also be checked through data. The data shall include the referential type in the case of English and oral type in the cases of the NIA with authenticity of a native speaker at home with

few major members of the NIA. Within NIA, U/H. and Sr. will be preferred for convenience on the same reason. The features will be explained in comparative terms using English-linguistics as source for parameters to be applied. The related scripts i.e. the Persian Alphabet has to be avoided for its insufficiency in marking of short-vowels and other segmental variations. The transliteration will therefore appear in the minimally marked variant of the Roman alphabet.

The term ‘**wh-**’ specific to Eng.-linguistics is borrowed and retained for the purpose of reference ignoring the fact that the **wh-**words in the NIA are not **wh-**initial, but are *j*-initial, *k*-initial, (and *t*-initial) depending on the syntactic slots in which they appear. Some of the terms alternately used for this lexeme are: **wh-word**, **wh-prn.**, **interrogative-prn.** and **relative-prn.** The paper will be divided into six (VII) parts.

Abbreviations and signs:

*	ungrammatical
adv.	adverb
aux.	auxiliary
cf.	Compare with
conj.	conjugation
Eng.	English
H.	Hindi language
lit.	literally
NIA	New Indo-aryan languages
OT	Optimality Theory
prn.	pronoun
q.v.	which see (in dictionary order)
Sr.	Siraiki language
U.	Urdu language
wh-	words of English with <i>wh</i> as first letters
vb.	Verb

III. Reviewing relative / wh-clause properties;

Wh- is a grammatical term originated from linguistic tradition of Eng. to define one of the two types of interrogative sentence: the so called

yes/no questions and **wh**-questions. The **yes/no** questions are the type where the answer can be in yes, or no. In Eng., yes/no questions are communicated through intonation (Katamba 1989: 243-4; cf. Carr: 1993: 238) or by applying other mechanisms such as use of conjugations, e.g. adv./aux. and change in word-order, i.e. by way of so called **wh**-movement as in Cf. (1) infra. In formation of yes/no questions, the NIA depend on context, e.g. /*to voh ghar chalā gayā hae*/, ('so he has gone home?'), on casual use of intonation e.g., /*chala gaya*/ ('has gone?') or on import of an initial **wh**-prn.-*kiya*, e.g. /*kiya voh ghar chalā gaya*/ (lit. 'what (whether) he went home?'). Thus these languages do not as such share with Eng. the other provisions namely use of conjugation adv./aux. or, for instance, change in word order cf. (2). The Eng.-NIA common feature is the **wh**-questions are framed by using **wh**-prn., so called because of their initial phoneme being **wh**- (Akmajian undated: 211) in Eng. This assumption will, however, be reexamined.

The interrogative constructions in English is achieved by applying one of the three mechanisms placed below;

- (1)
- (a) by intonation;
Teaching? (Are you teaching?)
 - (b) by applying conj;
I want to ask if **you will teach**.
 - (c) by changing word-order;
Will you teach?

(2) Formation of yes/no questions in NIA U/H is shown through the gloss for the preceding versions in 2. (a), (b), (c) of English, given below;

- (a) *paṛhā rahē ho* (for *kiyā tum paṛhā rahē ho*)
- (b) *maĩ jān 'nā chāhta hū̃ ke āp paṛhāĩ ge.*
- (c) *āp mujhē paṛhāĩ ge*

Having said that the yes/no-question clauses do not add any phonetic form to their declarative base clauses, exception has to be made that the rule is based on surface structure forms where as the deep structure of the yes/no question speech do retain a lexical **wh-**. These **wh-word** forms are ‘**whether**’ in Eng. (Radford, 2006: 220-21) and the U/H. ‘**āya-** etc. in the NIA which are ‘null-operators’. These casually surface in the structure of the clauses of yes/no questions to indicate that their historical demise is not yet final cf. (3) and (4). Null is a constituent ‘which has grammatical and semantic properties but without overt phonetic form (ibid: 465)’.

(3) Null constituent in English;

- (a) I want to know if he was there or not.
- (b) -----**whether** he was there or not?
- (c) -----was he there or not?

(4) Null constituent in Urdu/ Hindi;

- (a) *maĩ jān ’nā chāhtā hū, ke woh vahā thā?*
- (b) -----**āyā** woh wahā thā?
- (c) -----* *thā* woh vahā āyā?

Coming back to **wh-**, the category is defined as follows;

‘**Wh** is short for *who, when, which, where, what* and *how*—words that in traditional grammar are called **interrogative pronouns**. An appropriate answer to a *wh*-question . . . would be, for example, the name of an individual (and not merely “yes” or “no” as would be appropriate for a yes/no question (Akmajian, no date: 211)).’

III.I The phonetics of the Wh-

A dilemma is, the phonetic mismatch in the title **wh-** usually remains unsubstantiated in definitions like ‘single words beginning with *wh-* (Katamba 1989: 18)’. Except we assume that the phonetic

combination *wh-* did exist in English and has been historically lost as has been the case with *gh* in *delight* (Lehman 1972: 75), a phonological evidence is missing. The rule of Eng. phonology which defines aspiration as ‘coinciding with release of voiceless stops such as *p*, *t*, *k* after a short delay (Gigerich 1992: 219)’ does not permit combinations like **wh-**. Because the segment *w* generally called **semi-vowel** or **glide** together with *y* etc. is but defined as consonant on functional grounds which is, *w* is not a vowel because it does not constitute peak of syllable, and occurs in margins (ibid: 94). In short, in English, *w* is not a voiceless stop to allow aspiration (cf. Katamba 1989: 71). The Dictionary of linguistics and phonetics hence skips phonetic connection in the definition of **wh-** (Crystal 1997: **wh-** in dictionary order). The naming of the **interrogative prns.** as **wh-words/prns.** in Eng. is thus referential which is plausibly based on its visual i.e. orthographic form which might have had some phonetic justification in the past. This phonetic irrelevance of **wh-** title permits us to borrow this term in our investigation of the NIA **interrogative/relative** and **correlative clauses** i.e. *jaisa*, *tais*, *kaisa* clauses which, otherwise, we would have termed as **j-words**, **t-words**. and **k-words**.

Among major contrast between the ‘relative’ and the ‘question / interrogative’ prn. in the NIA and English is the syntactic process in the latter is ambiguous i.e. it duplicates same phonetic forms in more the one syntactic slot. On the contrary, the NIA have minimal pairs of these forms differentiated through change of initial phonetic unit of the **question- / relative-, correlative-** words thus *j*-initial (*jab*), *k*-initial (*kab*), *t*-initial (*tab*) for Eng. **when**.

IV. The Interrogative and the relative clauses;

The definition;

A restrictive relative clause is one that "determines and restricts the extension of the head", as opposed to a non-restrictive (or descriptive)

relative clause, which "merely gives some additional explanation of it."

(5) The relative and restrictive clauses;

- (i) Relative clause 'he is someone [who you can trust]'
- (ii) Restrictive relative clause; 'I saw the man who they arrested on TV.'

Masica terms it as 'relative—correlative construction, where the modifying clause, marked by a member of the "J"-set of relative pronouns, - -' (Masica: 410-1).

IV.I The Relative clause contrasts between English, and the Iranian-family and the NIA;

An interesting finding is, the Iranian group (Persian and Balochi), as would be expected, share the syntactic characteristics of English more than that of NIA in construction of relative and question clauses. In their phonetic form, however, these language share with the NIA the form *k*-initial in the question-words, i.e. *kae* 'who', *kuja* 'where' and *kudam* 'which' etc. In relative clause construction these languages apply relatively complex inflectional mechanism coupled with addition of relative conjunction *ke^h* 'that'.

(6) Data from NIA and Balochi (Sistani);

In the relative constructions the syntactic order of the constituents remains same in NIA and Balochi as in Eng. i.e. the **relative-prn.** is placed on the left of the **relative-clause** whatever its internal structure.

Eng: The thief who had kidnapped her there

U/H: *voh chor jis ne us (aurat) ko vahan ighva kia tha*

Balochi: *am-ā duzz ki āddā āyi-rā*

And in all the three languages the interrogative construction involves movement (fronting) of the **relative-prn.** turned **question-prn.** (or **wh-prn.**) on left.

Eng: Swho (> **which-**) thief had kidnapped her there?

U/H: *kis chor ne us (aurat) ko vahan ighva kia tha*

Balochi: *kudām duzz āddā āyi-rā*

The contrast widens between Eng. ,and the NIA and Balochi when in larger constructions the first moves the **Q-prn** on left of the whole sentence, but the NIA and Balochi keep it on left of the Relative clause only;

Eng: Who had kidnapped her there yesterday?

U/H: *kal kis chor ne us (aurat) ko vahan ighva kia tha*

Balochi: *diroze kudām duzz āddā āyi-rā*

(Cf. Delforooz-1)

V. The Phonetic ambiguity in English **wh-** / **relative-prn.**

Wh-word is ambiguous (stands for more than one semantic unit) in meeting syntactic processes as below;

English having ambiguity between Question-prn. and relative prn., mostly results in an optional process of deletion (elision) of one of the two **wh-**words e.g. ‘He is establishing his shop where you have established your’. (for; ‘Where he is establishing his shop is where you have established your’.) or as in the favorite example of Pool;

‘The very old teachers you met yesterday greatly fear the blackbirds.’
(Pool: 89) for the deep structure construction;

‘The very old teachers **whom** you met yesterday greatly fear the blackbirds.’

This ambiguity manifests when the above two types of **Wh-** are

No.	Clause type	English	Urdu/Hindi
1	Relative	[He is someone] who you cannot trust.	[<i>vohi hae</i>] <i>tum jise bharosa nahin kar sakte.</i>
2	Interrogative	Who cannot you trust?	tum kise bharosa nahin kar sakte

compared with the same in NIA as in (3) below;

(7) Relative and Interrogative clauses in English and NIA:

And yet it will be rewarding to look into the phonetic forms of the NIA **wh-words** which exhibit regularity and pattern, for instance, in Sir. (with replication in most other NIA). The Sr. **Relative-prns.** *Jitthã* ‘where’ and *jaddã* ‘when’ correspond to **Correlative-prns.** *titthã* ‘where’ and *taddã* ‘when’ and **interrogative-prns.** *kitthã* ‘where’ and *kaddã* ‘when’ (cf. Shackle 1976: 60). Before we go into detail, an early look into the contrasts of the phonetic forms of **wh-word** of the Eng. and of the NIA put together in random order in (9) below will help have a picture. For the data classified further see Tables-(8), (9) and (10).

Relative/Clause (<i>j</i> -initial)				Correlative Clause (<i>t</i> -initial)				Interrogative Clause (<i>k</i> -initial)			
U/H.											
<i>jaun,</i> ‘who’	<i>Jahn</i> ‘where’	<i>jab</i> ‘wh en’	<i>Jaisa</i> ‘how’	<i>tau</i> ‘w ho’	<i>tehã</i> ‘where’	<i>tab</i> ‘wh en’	<i>tais</i> ‘how’	<i>kau</i> ‘wh o’	<i>kahã</i> ‘where’	<i>kab</i> ‘wh en’	<i>kais</i> ‘how’
Sir.											
<i>jaun</i>	<i>jitthã</i>	<i>jadã</i>	<i>jejhã</i>	<i>taun</i>	<i>titthã</i>	<i>tadã</i>	<i>tēj</i>	<i>kaun</i>	<i>kitthã</i>	<i>kadã</i>	<i>kēj</i>
<i>jaIdã</i>	<i>jalkũ</i>	<i>jinhẽ</i>	<i>jaI</i>	<i>taIdã</i>	<i>talIkũ</i>	<i>tinnhã</i>	<i>talIn</i>	<i>kaIda</i>	<i>kaIkũ</i>	<i>kinnhẽ</i>	<i>kaI</i>
<i>jivẽ</i>					<i>tivẽ</i>				<i>kivẽ</i>		

- (8) The Clause-variation of Phonetic forms of **wh**-words in the NIA as against the Replicated English forms;
 [no Eng. alternates in the lexemes]

ff; Some Advs. And prns. like *thence, then, whoever* and *whosoever* can stand as alternate to some of the extended phonetic forms with complex semantic properties in Sr. and the U.-H like *jaise-taise* and Sr. *jive-tive* which also confirm the overall morphemic regularity of **j-**, **t-**, and **k-initial** pattern of the NIA **wh-** forms.

For the **t-initial wh-**forms in the NIA, in addition to the frequently spoken U/H. expression *jaise-taise* (Lit. ‘this how or that how’), quoting a popular stanza from Sr. poetry of Sachal Sarmast will suffice. (Unluckily, there is ambiguity of two versions both reproduced in (9) below);

- (9) Sachal Sarmast (Sir.)

(a) *ningrā nimāñī dā jīvē tīvē pālṇā*
 ‘baby pride-less of this how that how has to be brought up’

(b) *nangrā -- -- -- jālṇā*
 ‘shame -- -- -- have to live with’
 (Sachal, 2011: 47)

‘The born of this downtrodden mother has to be brought up by any poor means.’ Or as in (b);
 ‘Shame of this lowly woman has to be lived with/covered.’

VI. Analysis of the English **wh-** as syntactic category for general application.

The **wh**-category in English is combination of the particular **wh**-phonetic form, the **wh**-semantics and **wh**-syntax—marked with the **wh**-movement. Except for the last one i.e. **wh**-movement (also called

of **wh-** in the NIA, as we will see, are consistent. This root connection is summarized as ‘development of the NIA, direct, or through MIA from OIA’. The phonetic connection between the NIA languages and their old forms in OIA is described by historical linguists as this; ‘The phonetic systems of nearly all the New Indo-Aryan languages are descended directly from that of the Ṛgveda . . .’ (Turner: 1966: ix). The syntactic side of the OIA-NIA connection, however, remains somewhat less attended. The present small work is a small effort in this direction to highlight the nature of **wh-words** as syntactic component of the OIA-NIA connection and at the same time as a contrast with widely taken for granted universality of Eng. **wh-** rules. A data relating to the ‘**Interrogative prn.s**’ of the Vedic language is reproduced below.

The **wh-interrogative prn.** forms of the NIA represented by Sr. (and U/H.) and their archaic roots are listed in the Tables-(I), (II), (III) and (IV) below. The derivative connection between the NIA and OIA forms although substantiated; the detailed scrutiny under the rules of Historical linguistics requires further investigation. The Table-(II) shows the final forms retrieved by this article where the list is restricted to the forms substantiated from the source-data also reproduced in (11) and (12) below.

(11) the NIA-Sr. **Interrogative-prns.** with plausible Root in OIA.

<u>Category</u>	<u>Sr version</u>	<u>U version</u>	<u>OIA root</u>
m./f. Sg. dir	<i>kaun</i> ‘who’	<i>kaun</i>	<i>ka-</i>
-- -- ac.	<i>kaeku</i> ‘whom’	<i>kise</i>	<i>ka-m</i>
-- -- ins/obl.	<i>kae</i> ‘who’	<i>kis</i>	<i>k-ās</i>
-- -- pl.	<i>kinha</i> ‘who pl.’	<i>(kinhu(?))</i>	<i>kena</i>
-- -- d-ac.	<i>kaeku</i> ‘whom’	<i>kise</i>	<i>ka-smai</i>
-- -- ab.	<i>kaenda</i> ‘whose’	<i>kiska</i>	<i>ka-sya</i>

- (12) The Set of the NIA-Sir. Relative Prns. with Actual Data placed in Parenthesis where Different.

	<u>Interrogative</u>	<u>Relative</u>	<u>Correlative</u>
Sg.dir.	<i>kaon kla</i>	<i>jo (jaun)</i>	<i>so (taun)</i>
-- obl.	<i>kae</i>	<i>jae</i>	<i>tae</i>
-- pos.	<i>kaenda</i>	<i>jaenda</i>	<i>taenda</i>
-- d-ac.	<i>kaeku</i>	<i>jaeku</i>	<i>taeku</i>
-- obl. pl.	<i>kInha</i>	<i>jInha</i>	<i>tInha</i>

(Shackle, 1976: 60)

VII. Some data classified for general reference;

- (13) The Archaic **Wh**-Data from OIA reproduced without modification. Referred to Vedic language, this dates back to about 2000 BC.

‘m. Sing. **ka-s**. A. **ka-m**. I. **kena**. D. **ka-smai**. Ab. **ka-smād**.
G. **ka-sya**. L. **ka-smin**.—Du. N. **kau**.—Pl. **ke**. I. **ke-bhis**.
L. **ke-su**.

f. Sing. N. **ka**. A. **kā-m**. I. **ka-y-ā**. G. **ka-syās**—Pl. N. **k-ās**.
A. **K-ās**. L. **Ka-su**.

n. Sing. N. and **ki-m**.—Pl. N. **kā**. and **kāni**.’

(Mackdonell, 1993: 110)

[**Abbreviations** used by Mackdonell in the above data: m. (masculine), f. (feminine), n. (noun), A. (Accusative), I. (Instrumental), D. (Dative), Ab. (Ablative), G. (genitive), L. (locative), N. (nominative), Pl. (plural) (ibid: xiii)].

All the **wh-prns**. varying in their initial **j-**, **t-** and **k-** clauses, but take inflections in regular forms e.g. **jīvē̃, tīvē̃, kīvē̃**.

Conclusion;

The Eng.-NIA contrast of **wh**-grammar is summarized in (A), (B), (C), (D) and (E) below;

(A) The **wh-words** in English have singular phonetic forms with multiple appearance, e.g. *when*, and *what*, for instance will appear in the same form in all clause types: Relative, Correlative and Interrogative. The NIA **wh-prns.** will appear with regular alternation of initial sound in **j-**, **t-** and **k-** respectively, cf. (14), and (15) below;

(14) Eng.

What I said is **what** you heard.

(15) the NIA-U./H

Speaker A;	<i>woh[jab] ata hae jab maen nahin hota</i>
Speaker B;	<i>woh kab ata hae?</i>
Speaker A;	<i>woh tab ata hae jab maen nahin hota</i>

(B) A basic Eng.-the NIA contrast is that of word-order in simple declarative sentence. Eng. being Subject-verb-object (SVO) and the **wh-word** functioning as object takes end slot next the vb. or the adv. cf. (8). In the NIA, with SOV word order, the **wh-word** take the slot next to the subject cf. (16) and (17) below;

(16) Eng.

	<u>S.</u>	<u>vb. (adv.)</u>	<u>O. /wh-prn.</u>
(a)	He	made	tea
(b)	He	made	what?

(17) the NIA-U/H.

	<u>S.</u>	<u>O. /wh-prn.</u>	<u>V. (adv.)</u>
(a)	<i>us ne</i>	<i>chāe</i>	<i>banāī</i>
(b)	<i>us ne</i>	<i>kiya</i>	<i>banāī</i>

(C) Eng. has a syntactic operation exclusive to **interrogative** clause where the **wh-prn.** is moved from object slot to front of the antecedent. This is shown in three level operation in

(18). Except for irregularities brought by **mood, emphasis, or style**, the NIA **wh-prn.** remains **in situ** i.e. these do not show movement in structuring interrogative clause cf. (20) below.

(19) **wh-movement** in Eng.

(a) S. vb. (adv) O.
 I go home

(b) S. vb. (adv) O.
 You go where

↑

← ← ← ← ← ← ← ← ←

(c) S. vb. (adv) O.
 Where you go?

(20) No **wh-movement** in the NIA-U/H.

(a) S. O. /wh-prn. V. (adv.)
main *ghar* *jata hu*

I home go'

(b) *tum* *kaha* *jate ho?*
 'you where go?'

(D) If a **wh-prn.** of same semantic properties hence phonetic form is to reappear in correlatives clause(s), the Eng. works with null-operator in subsequent clauses i.e. without overt reappearance of **wh-prn.** cf. (22), but conversely it will reappear as many times as required in the NIA cf. (23).

(21) Eng.

(a) What you think he will say and what he will not say?

(b) * What you think what he will say what he will not say?

(22) the NIA-U/H.

Tum kiya sochate ho ke woh kiya kahe ga kiya nahin kahe ga?

You **what** think that he **what** say will **what** not say will.

(E) Last but not least is the Eng. dependence on forms of aux. vbs. in almost all its syntactic operations in non-declarative (interrogative and negative) sentence (Akmajian, op.cit: 485). When a declarative sentence, for instance, is transformed into an interrogative one the fronting of **wh-prn.** also extends, in addition to **wh-prn.** to any aux. constituent preceding main vb. in the declarative sentence; and if non-existent in surface form, will be retrieved and moved from the deep structure of the sentence as follows in (23) below. There are no such bindings in the NIA.

(23) Eng

(a) I can do miracles.

(b) You can do what.

(c) *What you can do? (The clause will become relative and not interrogative. The interrogative will be (d).)

(d) What can you do?

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Tense and Aspect in Hausa Language

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Abstract

This paper discusses tense and aspect processes in Hausa language. Our main purpose is to describe and analyze Hausa tense and aspect, and to review existing literature on this subject. We identified tense and aspect based on the definitions provided by scholars and compared the data with that of existing literature. We looked at the various definitions and previous works with regard to how tense and aspect are used in the processes of constructing a grammar in Hausa. There are seven tenses in Hausa which their differences are attached to the different tense markers. Thus: general continuous, relative continuous, general past, relative past, first future, second future and subjunctive tense. All the tenses are identified by the three items (A pre-verbal pronoun, a tense marker and a main verb).

Key words: Hausa, discourse, intransitive, Relative, completeness and encapsulates

1. Introduction

The terms tense, aspect and mood (TAM) in Hausa have been attracted and discussed by some of the linguists. For instance; the work of Russell on Hausa tense, aspect and mood system written in the early 1980s, another work is the perfective and time references written by Abdoulaye (2008). But Jaggar (2006) discusses the Hausa perfective tense-aspect used in WH-focus construction. In the paper Jaggar argues that “Hausa is a discourse-configurationally, pro-drop, SVO language in which TAM distinctions are marked by an obligatory inflectional element to the right of the (overt) subject” (Jaggar, 2006; p.102). For example *Abdu [yana] cinabinci* ‘Abdu is eating food’ in the

above example, the word *yana* which contains the two items: preverbal pronoun *ya* as an agreement marker indicates that the subject is third person, single and masculine (marking person, number and gender), while the morpheme *na* as a tense marker indicates that the action is imperfective (continuous). For Newman (2000) and Jaggar (2001) argued that the inflectional tense markers could be categorized under fusional e.g., *sun* (3pl.pfv), and segmentable, e.g. *su-na*(3pl.impfv). Based on this view, in this paper we want to reexamine and elaborate some of the ideas outlined by previous researchers with particular emphases on the types of Hausa tenses. It was observed that in Hausa TAM are categorized under perfective, imperfective and subjective tense. With references to these categories, tense and aspect in Hausa are considered as inseparable.

Hausa is a major language with more first-language speakers than any other sub-Saharan African languages with – an estimated 50 million speakers or more – most of whom live in northern Nigeria and southern Republic of Niger. Mother-tongue speakers of Hausa include many ethnic Fulani. Hausa is also spoken by diaspora communities. Hausa is the most important widespread West African language, rivaled only by Swahili as an African lingua Franca, and has expanded rapidly as a first or second language, especially in Northern Nigeria. Hausa is phylogenetically a member of the (West branch of) the Chadic language family, which contains over 100 distinct languages spoken to the east, west and south of Lake Chad. Chadic is a branch of the Afro-asiatic super-family. Although the inclusion of Hausa (and Chadic) within Afro-asiatic was first proposed almost 150 years ago, it has only recently been generally accepted as fact Greenberg (1963). Hausa is among the best documented and most extensively researched of all sub-Saharan African languages, and has been the subject of serious study for 150 years (Newman (1991a).

2. Objectives of the study

- (i) To describe the Hausa tenses as used in the grammatical term
- (ii) To analyze the Hausa tense marking.

3. Definitions of Tense and Aspect

The cover – term “tense-aspect” is used in this paper since it is not always possible to maintain a rigorous distinction between “tense”, a temporal deictic category which locates a given situation in relation to a specified time point (usually the movement of speaking), and “aspect”, which expresses “different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation” Comrie (1976). Aspect thus refers to the manner in which a temporal event is viewed by the speaker, indicating that a situation has been completed, is in the process of being completed (durative), or has yet to begin. (The lexicalization of such distinctions, i.e. the inherent property of a situation, is referred to as “Aktionsart”). The two categories in fact overlap considerably, and the tense-aspect system entails a complex interaction of completive, durational, and temporal components.

Comrie (1985:9) defines tense as “a grammatical expression of location in time. On the other hand, this can be viewed as purely definitional. In this way we would look at a particular form in a language, decide whether it does in fact express location in time and whether it is indeed a grammatical category, and then pronounce it to be tense or not.

The idea of locating situations in time is a purely conceptual notion, and is as such potentially independent of the range of distinctions made in any particular language. It does however; seem to be the case that all human languages have ways of locating in time. They differ from one another, however, on two parameters. First is the degree of accuracy of temporal location that is achievable in different languages. Second is the way in which situations are located in time, in particular the relative weight assigned to the lexicon and to the grammar in establishing location in time.

Clifford (1980:22) says a discussion of tense would be impossible without the use of the word event or similar words. The sort of thing meant by event in the present context may be indicated by saying that, it is what would be taken as making a simple present sentence true or what is referred to by the nominalization of such sentences. One significant element of the nature of events however, is that, by and large, they begin, go on, and end. Further, two events may overlap: Their on goings may coincide or the end or the beginning of one may

coincide with the ongoing of the other. In this way a sort of ordering of events arises.

The basic binary distinction in Hausa, as in many languages with aspectual systems, is between the Perfective and Imperfective. Comrie (1976) defines “perfectivity” as viewing a situation externally, with no reference to its internal temporal shape, whereas “imperfectivity” allows the internal viewing of a situation and explicitly encodes its internal structure. The perfective thus denotes single phase completeness and encapsulates the beginning and end of the situation (=completed action), while the imperfective denotes incompleteness and concentrates on the intervening phase, leaving the endpoint unspecified (=incomplete action).

4. An Overview of the Hausa TAM System

Hausa differs from tense-dominated languages like English in that, the relevant time-reference point can be other than the actual “here and now” moment of speaking. For example, the future may be used with reference to past time, denoting an event/action projected to take place after the specified past time-point, e.g. (time-point established by a deistic time adverb. And verbs are not inflected for tenses, tenses are indicated using independent morpheme which are called tense markers (Crysmann’ 2010; Jaggar, 2006 and Newman & Russell (1974). However, the tense, aspect and mood in Hausa could be categorized into: perfective, imperfective and subjunctive respectively. Consider the illustration bellow:

(1)

- | | | | |
|----|-------------------------|---------|----------|
| a. | Yanaa | karanta | littafi |
| | 3MSG.IMPFV | read | book |
| | ‘He is reading a book’. | | |
| b. | Yaa | karanta | littafin |
| | 3MSG.PFV | read | book.DEF |
| | ‘He read the book’. | | |
| c. | karbi | ka | karanta |
| | take | 2SMG | read |
| | | | littafin |
| | | | book.DEF |

‘Take the book and read it’.

d. Za su	karanta	littafin
FUT	3PL	read book.DEF

‘They will read the book’.

In example (1a-d) illustrations given using different markers, in (1a) *na* is used to indicate continuous tense or imperfective marker. In the second illustration (1b) *a* is used as a completed marker or perfective. But in the next illustration, example (1c) there is no tense marker or it refers to the imperative sentence which has nothing to do with tense marker in Hausa. In the last example, the future marker used to indicate that the action is yet to perform, but it will carry out in the near future.

However, based on the above illustrations we conclude that unlike English and other languages, TAM in Hausa are indicated using separate morphemes not inflected on the main verb.

4.1 Types of Hausa Tenses

There are seven tenses in Hausa. Each tense is identified by the following:

- 1- A pre-verbal pronoun (PPRO)
- 2- A tense –marker (TM)
- 3- A main verb (V).

These are the things to take into consideration for explanation of Hausa tenses. However, there is need for us to explain the followings:

4.1.1. A pre-verbal pronoun (PPRO)

The pre-verbal pronouns indicate; person, gender, and number, and it is used in all the seven tenses. Consider the table below:

Table 4.1: The preverbal pronoun and their abbreviations.

Pre-verbal Pronoun	Person	Number	Gender	Abbreviations
Na	1 st	Singular	Both Gender	1st P.S

Ka	2 nd	Singular	Masculine	2nd P S.M
Ki	2 nd	Singular	Feminine	2nd P S.F
Ya	3 rd	Singular	Masculine	3rd P.S.M
Ta	3 rd	Singular	Feminine	3rd P. S.F
Mu	1 st	Plural	Both Gender	1st P. PL.
Ku	2 nd	Plural	Both Gender	2P. PL
Su	3 rd	Plural	Both gender	3rd P. PL

The above table has five columns; the 2nd column abbreviates the pre-verbal pronoun. (P) Referring to person, (S) is for Singular, (PL) is for plural, (M) is for Masculine gender, and (F) is for Feminine gender.

4.1.2. A tense –marker (TM)

Tense markers indicate time and action is performed. All Hausa tenses have visible (overt) tense marker as follows:

Table 4.2: Hausa tense, tense markers and abbreviation

Tense	Abbreviation	Tense Marker (TM)
General Continuous Tense	GCT	Na
Relative Continuous Tense	RCT	Ke
General Past Tense	GPT	a- and -n
Relative Past Tense	RPT	Ka
First Future Tense	FFT	Za
Second Future Tense	SFT	Á
Subjunctive	Sub	ϕ

Note, all the six tenses have tense marker, but the subjunctive tense has zero tense marker, as represented with the symbol in the above table (ϕ).

4.1.3 General Continuous Tense

‘**na**’ is used to indicate general continuous tense, which refers to an ongoing action. It takes all the subject pronouns (ie. 1st, 2nd, 3rd. plu and sing) as below:

(i) Xalibai su-na tafiya makaranta
 Students 3PL-IMPFV go school
 ‘The students are going to school’.

(ii) Xaliban su-nakaratu a aji
 Children-DEF 3PL-IMPFV in class
 ‘The students are reading in the classroom’.

(iii) Binta ta-na dafa abinci
 Binta 3SM-IMPFV cook food
 ‘Binta is cooking food’.

4.1.4 Relative Continuous Tense

‘**ke**’ is used to indicate relative continuous tense, which refers to an ongoing action. It takes all the subject pronouns (ie. 1st, 2nd, 3rd. plu and sing) as below:

(i) Abdu nee ya-ke tafiya kasuwa
 Abdu COP 3SM-IMPFV go market
 ‘It is Abdu who going to the market’.

(ii) Mu ne mu-ke tattauna matsalar
 1PL COP 1PL-IMPFV discuss issue
 ‘We are the people who discussing the issue’.

From the examples above, one can realizes that, both general and relative continuous tenses are used to express ongoing action (imperfective). The only difference between the two is tense marker.

Thus, general continuous tense uses *'na'* as a tense marker while the relative continuous uses *'ke'* to show relativity between the doer of the action and the time that the action is initiated.

4.1.5 First Future Tense

'za' is used to indicate first future tense, which refers to an obligation to perform future action. It takes all the subject pronouns (ie. 1st, 2nd, 3rd. plu and sing) as below:

- (i) Mutanenzasutafikasuwagobe

People-DEF FUT I 3PL go market
tomorrow

'The People will go to the market tomorrow'.

- (ii) Ali da Rimizasutafimakarantagobe

Ali and RimiFUT 3PL go schooltomorrow

'Ali and Rimi will go to the school tomorrow'.

4.1.6 Second Future Tense

'á' is used as a future marker but with no sense of obligation as the former. As in sentences below:

- (i) Abdu ya-á tafi kasuwagobe

Abdu 3SM-FUT II go market tomorrow

'Abdu may go to school tomorrow'.

In example i and ii of 4.1.4, the tense marker *'za'* is used to indicate that an action will take place in the near future. But the illustration in 4.1.4 indicates that the future marker *'á'* shows that an action to carry out by the subject is under probability. This means that, when the speaker uses the first future marker in a statement there is sense of obligation. While when the second future marker is used in the utterance there is no sense of obligation or certainty of carrying out the duty.

4.1.7 General Past Tense

This tense is used to indicate that an action took place and had been completed in the past, it has ‘*a*’ & ‘*n*’ as tense markers. For examples:

- (i) Na-a karanta jarida
 1S-PFV read newspaper
 ‘I read newspaper’.
- (ii) Yara-n su-n je makaranta
 Children-DEF 3PL-PFV go school
 ‘The children went to the school’.
- (iii) ya-a ci abinci-n
 3SM-PFV eat food-DEF
 ‘He ate the food’
- (iv) Ta-a yanka lemu
 3SF-PFV slice orange
 ‘She sliced orange’.

4.1.8 Relative Past Tense

This is used to indicate that an action took place in the past. How this differs from the above (General past tense) is that, Relative past tense uses ‘*ka*’ and it also relates the action of the verb to the subject. For examples:

- (i) Abdu da Musa ne su-katafimakaranta
 Abdu and Musa COP 3PL-RP go school
 ‘It is Abdu and Musa who went to the school’.
- (ii) Ke ce ki-kaboye littafi-n
 2SF COP 2SF-RP hide book-DEF
 ‘You are the one who hid the book’.

From the explanation of the sentences above, sentence i to iv of 4.1.5 used ‘*a*’ as a completive marker to indicate that an action was took place in the past. In sentence (i) the agent which represented by the

used of first person pronoun ‘Na’ has already read the newspaper in the past. Similarly in sentence (ii, iii, and iv) respectively the action was completed. However, in examples i and ii of 4.1.6, the tense marker ‘*ka*’ is used to show perfective with the relationship of the action and the doer of the action.

4.1.9 Subjunctive

Subjunctive has no tense marker. It expresses command. It usually works with second person [sing & plu]. This is because command requires face to face interaction between the commander and the commanded.

(i) Tashi ka tafi gida

Stand up 2SM go home

‘You stand and go home’.

(ii) Karkikaranta

Take 2SF read

‘You take and read’.

(ii) Mu tashi mu tafi

1PL stand up 1PL go

‘Let us stand up and go’.

5. Conclusion

Tense and aspect are two inseparable elements of Grammar. Languages treat them differently in different special ways. English has two tenses [non-past and past], and four aspects operating under each of the tenses. Unlike the English language, Hausa language conceptually unified the tense and the aspects all together to form a total of seven tense altogether. Each of the Hausa tenses is identified by the (i) preverbal pronoun (ii) tense marker and (iii) main verb respectively. But tense marker plays a vital role to distinguish all the tenses.

APPENDIX: LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

1, 2, 3	first person, second person third person
COP	copular
DEF	definite, definiteness operator
F	feminine
FUT	future tense
IMPFV	imperfective
INTR.V	intransitive verb
M	masculine
N	noun
PFV	Perfective
PL	Plural
PPRO	pre-verbal pronoun
S/SG	singular
SUBJ	subjunctive
TAM	tense-aspect and mood
TM	tense marker

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Influence of L1 on acquisition of English (L2) Stress Pattern

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Abstract

The current study investigates influence of L1 on acquisition of L2 stress pattern based on contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) (Lado, 1957). In the process of L2 learning the learners face many difficulties related to segmental and suprasegmental features. Stress is one of the suprasegmental features. The process of negative and positive transfer may occur because of the similarities and differences between languages. CAH explains that positive transfer may occur because of similarities and differences cause negative transfer. This study explores whether the learners of L2 transfer their L1 stress pattern or they learn English (L2) stress pattern independently? The participants were from three Pakistani languages (Balochi, Brahvi and Lasi) and L2 is English. Five English words with different syllable structures were presented orthographically and the learners of English were asked to point out the stressed syllables in each of the stimuli. The results of the research indicate that the L1 speakers transfer their L1 stress pattern while learning English (L2). The study also indicates that besides L1 interference, there is some learning which is independent of the influence of the mother tongue.

Key words: *L2 acquisition, stress pattern, transfer, similarities and differenced*

1. Introduction

Pakistan is a multilingual country. In Pakistan, apart from the national language Urdu, many other languages are used for communication. Some of these are Balochi, Brahvi, Sindhi, Pashto, Punjabi, Lasi, Saraiki, etc. English is an international language and is used as an official language of Pakistan. Pakistani speakers of different languages learn English as a second language. While learning English, the learners face a lot of difficulties. These difficulties may be at segmental and superasegmental level

(Weinreich, 1953). Apart from segmental features, supra-segmental features of English also pose difficulties in acquisition of accurate pronunciation because of the differences between L1 and L2 stress patterns.

Influence of L1 on acquisition of L2 is considered a major factor in the literature of L2. Some linguists consider this influence is because of similarities between L1 and L2 (Flege, 1995, Best & Tyler, 2007, etc.) While others ascribe these errors to the existing differences between L1 and L2 grammar (Lado, 1957, Eckman, 1977, 1991, Major, 1987, 2001, Brown, 1998, 2000, etc.). Second language learning pose difficulty for the learners because there are always some similarities and differences between grammars of the two languages. This difference may create hurdle in the process of learning accurate pronunciation. A learner can acquire segmental features of a second language with relative ease, but it is very difficult to have a command over accent and pronunciation and other aspects related to supra-segmental features of the target language, as Dan (2006), claims that communication may be effective and easier by good pronunciation. Carroll (2000), explained that suprasegmental, rather than segmental features, of an L2 may affect pronunciation. Pronunciation is the feature that is directly influenced by the stress pattern of a language. The learners while learning L2 consciously or unconsciously transfer the stress pattern of their native language which can affect meanings and comprehensibility of words. English rhythm and intonation are based on stress (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). This paper focuses on the influence of L1 stress pattern on L2 (English). In this paper native languages (L1) are three Pakistani languages Balochi, Brahvi and Lasi (Sindhi).

2. Literature Review

Stress is one of the key factors of suprasegmental features. Stress plays an important role in learning a second language. While learning English as a second language, normally Pakistani learners focus on words, meanings and syntactic structure. They pay little attention to the suprasegmental features of the target language (English). One of the hypotheses given about L2 difficulties is that

L2 learners sometimes transfer the accent of their native language while speaking a foreign language (Lado, 1957, Major, 1987, 2001). Ellis (1994) explains that learning a second language may be easier if two languages (native language and target language) are similar but in case of a difference between the mother language and target language, errors may take place because of negative transfer from the L1 to L2.

The process of transfer is very common in second language learning especially that of L1 at initial stages (Major, 2001). The Theory of contrastive analysis was first introduced by Lado in 1957. But before Lado (1957) Weinreich (1953) had explained the levels of transfer that transfer may be at segmental level, phonotactic level and prosodic level, at segmental level the transfer of sound may occur, for example, while learning of English /θ ð/ Spanish and French learners replace these sounds by dental /t, d/ and /s, z/ respectively (ibid). At phonotactic level the learners of L2 transfer their L1 pattern if they have different syllable and word structure, for example, Spanish insert /e/ sound before 'st' cluster because they do not have initial 'st' cluster and at prosodic level learners transfer their L1 prosodic pattern while learning L2, for example, Spanish stressed last syllable in English words and an American transfer English intonation while speaking Chinese (ibid).

The purpose of these studies was to explain the contrastive analysis of two languages and to predict possible errors based on Contrastive Analysis. The current study is based on an experiment with Baloch, Lasi and Brahvi learners of English based on Contrastive Analysis. This study explores the influence of L1 on acquisition of L2 stress pattern. The study also investigates whether learners transfer their L1 stress pattern or they have learned the stress pattern of L2. The theoretical framework to the current study and stress pattern of these Pakistani languages are defined briefly.

2.1 Theoretical Background

The current study is based on the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH), which claims that the transfer from L1 into L2 depends on differences and similarities between native and target languages (Lado, 1957). CAH also explains that similarities between two

languages result in positive transfer and differences result in negative transfer (Lado, 1957). The theory of markedness also plays an important role in learning a second language (Eckman, 1977). This theory explains that marked structure of a second language is difficult to acquire while unmarked structure is acquired easily (ibid). Bian (2013) conducted a study to test the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH). The study identified the influence of Chinese stress pattern on English pronunciation teaching and learning. For this purpose, two experiments were conducted by the author. In the first experiment, 10 disyllabic words and in the second experiment, 20 compound words were taken to determine the stress pattern. The words had different stress locations, some carried stress on the first syllable and others had stress on the second syllable. For this purpose 10 participants 5 males and 5 females were selected. All of them were first year college students and had learned English as a foreign language for six years. After recording productions of English words produced by the participants, auditory analysis of the data was conducted. Three Chinese professional English teachers were requested to transcribe the actual production in IPA symbols. The results indicated that [ə] changes into [ɔ] where more stress is given to a syllable. The reason presented by the author is that there is no difference in short and long vowels in Chinese and also there is a big difference in the stress and intonation patterns of both the languages. In order to cover up these phonological problems a Chinese would use heavily accented English. The findings of the study by Bian strongly support the contrastive analysis hypothesis. The current study also aims to test the predictions of contrastive analysis hypothesis in the context of Pakistani learners of English speaking different languages of Balochistan.

2.2 Stress pattern of Lasi, Balochi and Brahvi languages

Lasi is spoken in Lasbela district of Balochistan. It is one of the dialects of Sindhi. Although Lasi uses Sindhi orthography, but there are phonological differences between Lasi and standard Sindhi. As far as the stress pattern of Lasi language is concerned, it has a fixed stress system which always stresses on the initial syllable (left most) as the following examples show;

a. ¹ / bu .c ^h a.ro/	<i>bad</i>	LLL
b. / du .ʃa.ri/	<i>mirror</i>	LHH ²
c. / tū .dʒo/	<i>yours</i>	HH
d. / mū .dʒo/	<i>mine</i>	HH
e. / dʒə .ro/	<i>similar</i>	LH

The above examples show that regardless of weight of syllables or length of the prosodic words, stress always falls on the word-initial syllable in Lasi. It means unlike quantity sensitive languages, weight of the syllable (mora) and length of the prosodic word do not change the stress pattern of Lasi language.

Balochi and Brahvi are the languages of Balochistan. Balochi is spoken all over Balochistan and in some of the areas of Karachi and Punjab. These languages are quantity sensitive towards stress. The stress pattern of these languages depends on the quantity of a vowel in a syllable. Elfenbein (1997) explains that long vowels and diphthong attract stress in Balochi words as the following examples show:

/və. da :r/	<i>wait</i>	LH
/pəz. zɔr /	<i>healthy</i>	HH
/mʊnd. ri:k /	<i>ring</i>	HH
/es. tal /	<i>star</i>	HH
/kan. di:t /	<i>laugh</i>	HH

Although Balochi is quantity sensitive language but in case of HH syllable penultimate syllable carry stress as in the word /**ʃa**.la/ 'would be'. The following examples of trisyllabic words explain that the stress pattern of Balochi language is trochee with left to right parsing as in a foot left heavy syllable attracts stress. In Balochi language where the weight of two syllables are heavy ,the syllable which carries long vowel attracts the stress.

/dʌm. bu :.ra/	<i>gitar</i>	HHL
/mən. ga :.li/	<i>bangle</i>	HHL

¹ Stressed syllables are highlighted bold.

² L stands for light syllable and H for heavy syllable.

/dʒʌn.ju:.dəm/ *women* HHH

Brahvi has a similar stress pattern as Balochi. In the following words long vowel carries stress.

/ka.ra:s/ *cow* LH
/k^he:.sən/ *yellow*HH

In tri syllabic words, heavy penult carries stress.

/mʌt.ku:.nə/ *old* HHL
/p^hʌs.ku:.nə/ *new* HHL
/xɑ.rmk.kak/ *tears* LHH
/xɑr.ro:.mən/ *green wheat* HHH

So the generalization that can be developed from the above examples is that Balochi and Brahvi languages are quantity sensitive toward stress and are trochaic languages, while the Lasi language has fixed stress system with stress always falling on the word initial syllables of prosodic words regardless of weight of the syllable and/or length of the word.

This paper focuses on influence of the stress pattern of three above mentioned languages, namely Blochi, Brahvi and Lasi, in acquisition of English stress pattern. To our knowledge and understanding, there is no study already conducted on influence of L1 stress on acquisition of English stress with focus on adult English language learners of Balochistan. This papers fills this gap in the literature. The paper explores the answers of the following questions:

- (1) Do advanced Balochistan-based learners of English acquire stress pattern of English regardless of the stress pattern of the L1? or alternatively,
- (2) Does the stress pattern of L1 influence the acquisition of stress pattern of English as L2?

3. Methodology

A stress identification experiment was conducted to address the above mentioned questions. The details of the experiment are given in the following sub-sections.

3.1. Participants

The participants of this study were 15 (5Blochi, 5 Brohvi and 5 Lasi) male adult learners of English who had obtained M.A/BS degrees in English Language, Literature and Linguistics from various universities of Pakistan. All participants were doing M. Phil in English at Lasbela University Baluchistan. None of the participants had any language or reading disorders or any hearing problems. All participants were native speakers of Blochi, Brahvi and Lasi. None of them had any foreign travel experience. They had been learning English from their educational institutions, Pakistani teachers and textbooks. The ages of the participants were in between 25 to 35 years. According to their own statements, they normally spend approximately 4 to 6 hours daily in listening and speaking English.

3.2. Stimuli

Five words of English were presented orthographically on paper to the participants who were asked to read those words. The participants were also asked to point out by underlying the stressed syllables in each of the stimuli. The words used as stimuli, had different syllabic structure e.g. (LL, LH, HH, LLL). These words were as under, the stressed syllable is highlighted bold.³

Gala	<u>CV</u> : - CV:	HH
Agree	V - <u>CCV</u> :	LH
Mobile	<u>CVV</u> - CVVC	HH
Legacy	<u>CV</u> - CV - CV	LLL
Vicinity	CV - <u>CV</u> - CV - CV	LLLL

³ The syllabification is determined on the basis of pronunciation of these words given in Oxford English dictionary.

Stress patterns vary from language to language. Some languages have fixed stress system and some are quantity sensitive. Quantity sensitivity means heavy syllable attracts stress. As mentioned earlier, Blochi and Brahvi are quantity sensitive towards stress which means heavy syllables attract stress in prosodic words in Balochi and Brahvi. On the other hand Lasi has fixed stress system, and the stress lies on the left most word-initial syllable of a prosodic word. English has partially fixed and partially free stress system. Because of this difference, the learners of English may feel the following types of difficulties in acquiring the stress pattern of these words of English.

3.3. Hypotheses

The study is conducted in the paradigm of ‘contrastive analysis hypothesis’ (Lado, 1957) which assumes that the L2 grammatical phenomena which are different from the L1 grammar, are difficult to acquire but those L2 phenomena which are identical to L1 are easy for L2 learners. In case of similarities between L1 and L2, the learners transfer the L1 grammar in the L2. In the light of these predictions of the CAH, we develop the following hypotheses for the current study.

- 'ga-la, 'mo-bile: Balochi and Brahvi languages stress left heavy syllable in a prosodic word of HH structure and Lasi stresses left-most syllable regardless of weight. Therefore, all participants will expectedly produce these English words correctly with stress on leftmost syllable either because of learning or because of positive transfer from the L1.
- A.'gree: All learners except Lasi speakers are expected to produce it correctly. Balochi and Brahvi are quantity sensitive languages. They stress ultimate syllables in LH words. Therefore, Balochi and Brahvi learners will produce this English word accurately either because of learning or positive transfer from the L1. However, Lasi speakers are expected to produce it with the stress on the leftmost syllable due to negative transfer from the L1.

- Le.ga.cy: The Lasi speakers are expected to produce it correctly on account of either learning or positive transfer from the L1. Other speakers are expected to produce this word with stress on the penultimate (le.'ga.cy) syllable because their languages stress penultimate syllable if the weight of syllables is equal in trisyllabic words. On the other hand, if they produce it correctly, it will be an indication of learning.
- Vi- 'ci-ni-ty: Lasi speakers will stress the leftmost syllable ('vi.ci.ni.ty) and other speakers will stress, either penultimate (vi.ci.ni.ty) or pre-ante-penultimate (vi.ci.ni.ty) syllable or both (vi.ci.ni.ty) perceiving it as a compound. And if they pronounce it with accurate stress, it will be an indication of learning.

4. Presentation and Analysis

In the following paragraphs results are presented and analyzed. The performance of participants on each stimulus is given separately.

Table: 1: **Gala**

Stress	Language of Participants			Number and % age	
	Balochi	Brahvi	Lasi	Total	% age
Ultimate	0	0	3	3	45.45
Penult	3	2	1	6	54.55
Ambivalent	2	3	1	6	54.55

The stress lies on the word-initial penultimate syllable in the English word 'Gala'. The hypothesis was that the participants will stress on the penultimate syllable either because of learning or because of positive transfer from the L1. The results show that 54.55% of the participants performed according to the predictions. It may be because of learning and/or because of L1 interference as Lasi always stresses the penultimate syllable. The other two languages (Balochi and Brahvi) have trochaic foot form. Therefore Balochi and Brahvi speakers also stress penultimate syllable in disyllabic words if both syllables have equal weight. But the results show that overall

45.45% of the participants consider that stress lies on ultimate syllable. This is an unpredicted result which needs further consideration.

Table: 2: 'Agree'

Stress	Language of Participants			Number and % age	
	Balochi	Brahvi	Lasi	Total	% age
Ultimate	2	2	1	5	33.33
Penult	3	0	3	6	40.00
Ambivalent	2	3	1	4	26.66

It was hypothesised that all participants will produce this word with stress on ultimate syllable, but the Lasi speakers would stress on the penultimate syllable. The results show that 33.33% of them produced the word 'agree' with stress on ultimate syllable and 40% of them produced it according to the expectations i.e. eith stress on penult. 60 % Lasi speakers did not produce this word according to the expectation. This is because the learners syllabify the word as 'agree' not as 'a-gree'. In this way, they perceive it as HH instead of LH. In HH words, the speakers of these languages stress the penultimate syllable. However, the results of Lasi speakers are because of their L1 and hence prove the hypothesis, that the learners transfer L1 grammer in acquisition of an L2.

Table: 3: **Mobile**

Stress	Language of Participants			Number and % age	
	Balochi	Brahvi	Lasi	Total	% age
Ultimate	2	2	2	6	40.00
Penult	3	2	2	7	46.66
Ambivalent	0	1	1	2	13.33

It was hypothesised that all participants will stress penultimate syllable. But 40% of the participants produced it with stress on the ultimate syllable. Only 46.67% identified stressed on the penultimate syllable. The reason is that the learners substitute the

bimoraicdiphthong of the penultimate syllable as monomoraic short vowel. The actual pronunciation of the word in standard British English is /'məu.bail/. The diphthong /əu/ does not exist in most of Pakistani languages. Therefore, the speakers of these languages substitute this diphthong with the corresponding vowel /o/ which exists in many Pakistani languages. Those who perceive it a left-headed word, consider it a word with left heavy syllable as the actual pronunciation of the word is. On the other hand, those who perceive it a right-headed word, shorten the diphthong /əu/ to /o/. However, the performance of the Lasi speakers is again unexpected since, in their L1, they always stress the left-most syllable regardless of the weight of the syllable. But in this particular case, 40% of them stressed the ultimate syllable which is neither transfer from L1 nor learning. These results invite the attention of the future researchers on this issue.

Table: 4: Legacy

Stress	Language of Participants			Number and % age	
	Balochi	Brahvi	Lasi	Total	% age
Ultimate	0	0	0	0	0
Penult	3	1	2	6	40.00
Ante- penult	0	2	2	4	26.66
Ambivalent	2	2	1	5	33.33

It was hypothesised that Lasi speakers will stress on anti-penultimate syllable. Others will stress on the penultimate syllable. The results show that 40% of the participants produced the word 'legacy' with stress on penultimate syllable which is according to the predictions. It was hypothesised that all Lasi speakers would stress on the anti-penult syllable, but only 40% of them performed according to the expectations. The overall result is not according to our expectations as the remaining 60 % Lasi speakers did not stress on anti-penult, they have not transferred their L1 stress pattern nor they follow L2 language stress pattern. The reason for this is not clear and remains a question to be resolved in future. In the other two languages, 40% participants only transferred followed their L1 stress pattern and

identified stress on the penult. Once again our hypothesis could not be verified, there could be other suprasegmental involved in it.

Table: 5: Vicinity

Stress	Language of Participants			Number and %age	
	Balochi	Brahvi	Lasi	Total	% age
Ultimate	2	1	0	3	20
Penult	1	2	2	5	33.33
Ante- penult	1	0	0	1	6.67
Preantepenult	1	2	2	5	33.33
Ambivalent	0	0	1	1	6.67

It was expected that the participants will either stress penultimate, or pre-ante-penultimate or both syllables. 66.66% of them performed according to the predictions. Only 6.67% of the participants produced this word correctly, which indicates that only a small number of participants have learnt accurate stress pattern of this word. 80% of the Lasi participants performed according to the expectation. It was expected that the participants would divide the word vicinity into two (vici-nity) treating it a compound and stress penultimate and anti-penultimate syllable because their L1 carries stress on word-initial syllable. Balochi and Brahvi both are trochaic languages. So speakers of these languages also stress on penult and pre-ante-penult if they consider this word as a compound.

The findings of the study show that all the participants performed partially according to the expectation and partially unexpectedly. The hypotheses 1,2 and 4 were mostly verified. In these examples, the participants transferred their L1 stress pattern, but the stress in the word 'legacy' was not identified according to the expectations in 60% of trials. The expected results support the predictions of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. There are a few examples which indicate learning in the participants. It is also important that some results are quite unexpected. It means apart from their L1 influence, there are some other reasons which are not clear. These issues need to be addressed in future research.

5. Summary

The findings of this study show that the performance of the participants was only partially confirmed. It is identified that the learners transfer their L1 stress pattern in the acquisition of L2. Apart from this, there may be some other factors such as segmental and phonotactic differences (Weinreich, 1953), which also influence L2 learning; making the acquisition of L2 difficult for the learners. While learning an L2, the learners sometimes unconsciously transfer grammatical features of L1 into the L2. This transfer may be negative or positive. In case of positive transfer, the learners apparently seem to have acquired the relevant L2 feature. This makes it further difficult to decide whether the learners have acquired an L2 phenomenon or simply transferred the same phenomenon from the L1. In order to make the communication effective, learners must have the idea of the differences and similarities between L1 and L2. The results of the current study indicate that the L1 influence is a major factor in the acquisition of an L2. This shows the validity of the contrastive analysis in L2 learning. However, the findings of the current study also indicate that apart from the transfer of L1 pattern there are also some other factors which we need to consider in the study of L2 acquisition. A major short coming of this study is the small number of the participants. A sample of five participants in a group is too small for developing a generalization. More significant results can be obtained if the same study be replicated with a large sample.

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Critical Analysis of Political Discourse: A Study of Benazir Bhutto's Last Speech

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Abstract

The present study aim at critically analyzing the underlying ideologies in the political speech of Benazir Bhutto (The former prime minister of Pakistan from 1988-1990 and 1993-1996) in the election campaign on 27 December 2007. The study assumed discourse as a product of social practice which had started earlier during the inception Pakistan People's Party (PPP). The study focuses on the content of the discourse to analyze how linguistic features are used to propagate the ideologies. In order to analyze the discourse critically and to evaluate the ideological bases of Benazir Bhutto's speech Socio-cognitive approach to CDA has been adopted. The underlying assumption in the present study is that the political discourses are used in the public to control the minds of the people.

Keywords: *Ideology, Hidden agenda, Discursive, Socio political approach*

1. Introduction

1.1 Introduction to Study

The present study deals with the analysis of political language of the speech used by Benazir Bhutto, the former Prime minister of Pakistan (1988-1990 and 1993-1996). The political speech under the study is the last speech of her life. The speech has got great influence over the public specially the supporters of her party namely Pakistan People's Party (PPP) .The speech is mostly quoted and played on screen in election campaigns. Soon after delivered the speech, she was assassinated while going to her vehicle. The case of her assissnation is still under investigation in Pakistani high court.

Research Questions

1. How do more powerful groups control public discourse?

2. How does such discourse control mind and action of less powerful groups, and what are the social consequences of such control, such as social inequality?

1.2 The Rational of the study

The study explores the underlying assumptions which are embedded in the political speech of Benazir Bhutto. This study attempts to elucidate the content of the discourse of the speech critically to clarify the relationship between political election campaigns and promoting the political ideology of PPP. The present contribution is therefore an attempt to explain, by means of linguistic analysis, the political and ideological position of Benazir Bhutto and her party. Moreover, the researchers also focus on a number of basic concepts and use a theoretical framework that critically relates discourse, cognition and influence of discourse over the public. This is the work of CDA to analyze the discourse which are of great importance in the public.

1.3 Significance of the study

The study is a contribution in the field of CDA. The research aims at contributing the critical understanding of the people towards the political discourse which are generally perceived as the divine words by the masses. Moreover, the significance of the present study is its influence over the public; and most of the people quote the last speech of Benazir Bhutto. The underlying assumption in the study reveals how the political discourses are used to control the minds of the people. This study will provide the useful insight to make people conscious that the masses are manipulated in the society through political speeches.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical discourse analysis is an interdisciplinary approach to study language use as social practice. CDA aims to have a critical approach to discourse analysis amplified by the linguistic and social analysis Van Dijk (1993). The major issues that CDA focuses on are the power relations, dominance, inequality and the way social power abuse are enacted, resisted and reproduced by the text and talk in social and political context.

According to Van Dijk (1993) CDA is a paradigm which is characterized in deciphering the ideologies and power through organized analysis of language. The task of CDA is to systematically investigate the relation between the structures of the discourse and the structures of ideologies. CDA also focuses on how socio-political discourse manipulates, propagates, persuades and presents the power relation in a society through political discourses. Hence, closing the discourse-power circle, finally this means in present study to know how those groups who control most influential discourse, also have more chances to control the minds and actions of others.

2.2. Political Discourse

Political discourse is a sub category of a discourse which can be based on two levels: functional thematic. The political speeches are the results of politics created historically by politicians and it is historically and culturally determined. It is thematic in the sense that topics are mainly related with political activities, ideas and acts Fairclough (1995). Political activities, acts and speeches include many strategies and techniques to promote the ideologies of the speaker. These techniques are very important to know, in order to get clear understanding of the political discourse. One of the strategies is rhetoric strategy in political speeches which is the art of speaking mainly used in political speeches.

2.3 Rhetoric art and its effects on public

Rhetoric is the art of speaking in which public. This device increases attention to economic, foreign and civil rights policy and lead to increase in public concerns with those policies Cohen (1995). This shows that if the concerned areas of the public are addressed, they result in popularity of the politicians in public. This is the ability of the speakers in the public to manipulate their popularity ratings through political speeches and election campaigns. Another rhetorical strategy which is used in election campaign is hedging. Hedging could be found in most of the speeches in the election campaign. And it has the close relationship with political discourse.

2.4 Hedging and political discourse

Hedging is a rhetorical strategy. By including particular term, choosing particular arrangement, or commanding an explicit prosodic shape on the utterance, the speaker's indication, lack of full dedication either to the full group membership of a term or expression in the utterance or to the intended illocutionary forces of the utterance (Fraser 2010). Hedging is one of the chief factors to focus in the paradigm of CDA.

The study of political institutions and everyday life and decision making in institutes have become a chief new focus of critical discourse analysis (CDA). Much of the CDA research in the field of politics moves on the right wing populist rhetoric on many occasions (Wodak and Michael 2009). This research is prompted by the increasing power and hegemony of the kind of rhetoric and its suitable use of indirect strategies to address various audiences; therefore, it aims at exploring how certain particular textual structures and discourse features are used in a specific social context. In order to understand the critical impact of the discourse features on the public the Socio-Cognitive Approach to CDA has been adopted.

3. Methodology

In this section, we present the methodological issues of the study and the choice of research methodology. This section deals with the theoretical aspect of the critical discourse analysis and choice of the approach which is suitable for the analysis of the political speech.

The following critical analysis of the text will limit itself to excerpts taken from the political speech delivered by Benazir Bhutto. The speech transcript has been downloaded from the internet source <http://www.benazir.bhutto.org> in Portable document format (PDF). The speech will be analyzed in the light of social and historical factors. The analysis deals with the words of the speaker as a product of the society. Words are not isolated chunks. They have their relations with the events in the past and with the events upcoming in future.

Authors searched through online sources e.g. www.academia.edu.com and www.scholar.google.co.uk and downloaded number of papers, books, and journal articles and news reports published on the relevant

research studies. Further, the study was undertaken by adopting CDA approach to identify the ideological features, power relations and socio-cognitive boundary by applying socio-cognitive approach to CDA. Social factors of socio-cognitive approach enabled the researchers to understand the ideological features and discursive devices used in the speech. And content analysis enabled researchers to understand the most frequent words and phrases used with their intended meaning. These intended meanings are not only the matter of language but it addresses the major issues of ideology, power relations and discursive practices in the paradigm of CDA. Therefore, in order to decipher the ideological components in Benazir Bhutto's speech multiple approaches to CDA have been studied.

3.1 Theoretical aspect of critical Discourse Analysis

3.1.1. Approaches to CDA

CDA is the field of interest among many left-wing researchers including Van Dijk (1993); Wodak (2009); Fairclough (1995). They have made major contributions in defining the theoretical and methodological approaches of CDA. For instance Van Dijk (1993) started to apply his discourse analysis theory to media texts mainly focusing on the representation of ethnic group and minorities in Europe. He essentially perceives discourse analysis as ideological analysis. Another leading figure in CDA is Wodak (2009) has carried out research in various settings like, courts, schools and hospitals on a variety of social issues focusing on the historical context of discourse in the process of explanation and interpretation. The third main approach in CDA is that of Fairclough (1995) whose theory has been central to CDA. He called his approach to language and discourse as 'Critical language study' (1989, p.5), However, what noticeably distinguishes Van Dijk's approach from other approaches in CDA is cognitive analysis. For Van Dijk it is the socio-cognition (social cognition and personal cognition) that mediates between society and discourse. We have chosen Van Dijk (1993) approach to CDA named as The Socio-cognitive Approach (SCA) for the analysis of political speech of Benazir Bhutto.

3.2 Socio-cognitive Approach (SCA)

Van Dijk (1993) has worked on a noticeable feature of social cognition and defined it as the system of mental representation and processes of group members. The socio-cognitive approach is situated on the social psychological dimension of the CDA field. Social actors who are involved in discourse do not only use their individual experiences and strategies, they rely upon collective frames of the public domain.

Van Dijk (1993) argues that one of the vital fundamentals in the analysis using socio cognitive approach is the affiliation between power and discourses in the prototype of the access to community discourses for different social groups.

We have chosen the socio cognitive approach to CDA in order to show the relationship between power and discourses. We have also shown in an explicit manner how knowledge, attitudes, and ideologies and social factors are involved in a discourse to make the social mind of an individual. This approach will follow two levels of analysis: macro and micro. Both the levels of structure are the part of socio cognitive approach to CDA. In every day interaction and experience macro and micro form one unified whole. The micro level of the social order includes language use, verbal interaction and communication, whereas, power, dominance, inequality among different social groups belong to macro level of analysis. In the present study, authors try to show that the speech is both mental and social phenomenon. Moreover, it has been assumed that the relation between discourse and society is not direct, but needs to be specified by so called context model. As a part of analysis of social situations, authors will briefly have an overview about two major categories of social situations: actions and actors.

We need more than just the analysis of the speech acts, such as declaration, promises, coercion, turn taking, disruptions, supportive or the opening and closing of the speech. There are also a large number of social acts that are circumstances, consequences, or allegation of verbal interaction. Analysis of the speech will keep social acts in mind like government support, depiction of the voters and quite local moves like stipulation, may be a part of a larger social-psychological policy of positive self representation and negative other representation. Moreover, in present study, the action-analysis of the text and talk is

not limited analysis of typically discursive doings but authors also examine the conducts in which discursive acts and structures are deployed in the enactment of broader political acts, especially those that are part of systems of dominance. In addition, like social acts, actors (Speaker) may also be engaged in various identities at the same time. As we have emphasized before in the model theory of context, a relevant situational analysis of the speech does not abstractly examine all the possible identities of speakers or recipients, but only the locally relevant or more prominent ones, and how these affect or are affected by the speech.

4. Analysis and Discussion

The following headings and subheadings have been identified from the contents of the speech for analysis.

- Emotional Attachment (Paragraph # 1)
- Mind Control (Paragraph # 2)
- Mitigating Evidence and Bhutto Legacy (Paragraph # 3)
- Glorification of the Party and Grasping the Audience (Paragraph # 4)
- Contradiction (Paragraph # 5)
- Historical Distortion (Paragraph # 6)
- Rhetoric Art of Speaking (Paragraph # 7)
- Verbose Style and Subjective and firm Approach (Paragraph # 8)
- Creating Enemy Images (Paragraph # 9)

Emotional attachment:

These are the slogans as I have come to Rawalpindi today, I understand this is the city of brave and sacrificing people; I consider Rawalpindi as my second home. When Bhutto Sahib was a minister, I used to live here; I used to go to a school at Rawalpindi. I have seen moments of joy and gloomy times in Rawalpindi. I must say that the brave people of Rawalpindi have been with me in moments of

happiness; brave sisters and brethren of this city stood by me in hours of our sadness; they have never let me alone.

The speech starts with the name of the very city Rawalpindi which is one of the famous cities in Pakistan in Punjab Province. By taking the name of the city Benazir Bhutto tries to take the attention of the people. People usually have the greater affiliation with their cities and home towns and if the leader speaking to the audience belongs to the very city is a positive point for the speaker. She is calling Rawalpindi as her 'Second home' while using the term second home means trying to build the strong relationship with the audience. She tries to motivate the public by saying that people of this city have been with her in bad and good times which is a way to assume that they were with her at the time of speaking and would be with her in future too.

Excerpts from the speech

The people of this city love democracy and have never bowed their head before autocratic regimes. Gen ZiaulHaq came and let the reign of terror loose; young people were persecuted and sent to jail; young Abdul Hameed burnt himself to death and IdreesTooti was hanged. Thousands of workers were flogged and made to face brutal treatment at Lahore's Shahi Fort. Yet, they did not leave their sister and the Pakistan People's Party.

Mind Control:

In this excerpt, minds of the people are controlled by quoting the examples from the past where most of the people in the audience are unaware of the facts in the past. And they may not have the sufficient knowledge and information to challenge the discourses or information they are exposed to. And when the listeners are unaware of the facts in the past; they believe the information in the discourse tends to be right and accurate.

Van Dijk (1993) termed this technique as *Mind Control* which is the basic way to replicate dominance and hegemony. Within a CDA framework mind control involves more than just obtaining viewpoint about the world through discourse and communication. Minds of the listeners are controlled by giving them such information about which

people do not have sufficient knowledge as it is stated in the above excerpt of the speech.

Excerpts from the speech:

Mitigating Evidence and Bhutto legacy

Quaid-i-Awam Shaheed Bhutto established the Pakistan People's Party for the poor, hopeless and the oppressed people. He worked for the welfare of the down trodden in his government. He made the defence of Pakistan inviolable and the comity of nations held our country in esteem and respect.

In the above extract, it is stated that the speaker's party is for the poor people and helpless people which means that if they vote the PPP, the party will address the problems of the poor people in the parliament. PPP was established for the poor people as stated in the excerpt of the speech but the other people look it differently as:

Raja (1988, p.57) stated in his research article,

‘Zulfikar, in the British and Mughal tradition, founded Pakistan People's Party (PPP) in 1967 as an anti establishment party with a populist platform that opposed field Marshall Muhammad Ayub khan's handling of the events leading up to Bangladesh's succession in 1971.’

From the above findings of Raja (1988) it could be argued that the past events are not embedded in the speech which could go against her.

Bhutto Legacy:

Benazir portrays the picture of her father as the leading figure of her party, even though she leads her party at the time of the speech which shows that she tries to motivate the people through *Bhuttoism*. The critical perspective of the speech is that of her politics and speeches are institutionalized earlier, her results are fixed because of her father's political actions. Her focus is to mainly attract the audience through her surname. As most of the people take this legacy as the main cause behind the popularity of Benazir Bhutto for instance Raja (1988, p.53) states

“I concede one of the main reasons that Benazir Bhutto became prime Minister in 1988 and 1993 was because of her surname; nonetheless, it is impeded the effectiveness of both her terms as Prime Minister.”

She tries to connect herself all the time with Bhutto legacy that she is the daughter of a well known politician and the former Prime minister of Pakistan. This was one of the ways to get the support of the voters. The speech lacks discussion on sufficient contribution on her part that she could build on the arguments.

Excerpts from the speech:

You may have nuclear power... but if you are poor and deprived of basic necessities...country's defence is secured. The Pakistan People's Party has written in its manifesto that ifthe poor is living below the human standards...the country cannot be said to be strong in defence and security no matter if it has nuclear power or missile technology. Such a country is always vulnerable to the dangers and conspiracies of the elements that are unsavory in approach and attitude towards the country; they will exploit the situation to their benefit... no matter if it has nuclear power or missile technology, such a country is always vulnerable to the dangers and conspiracies of the elements...they will exploit the situation to their benefit...Zulfikar Ali Bhutto turned Pakistan into a nuclear power. When India detonated its nuclear device, fretfulness spread all over Pakistan...Shaheed Bhutto said that we will eat grass but make nuclear bomb...Thus Bhutto made Pakistan's defence strong.

Glorification of the Party:

In the above extract the word ‘if’ is used for the poor people which means achievement is not quoted but the party’s manifesto is quoted, which glorifies the name of the party. In the underlined extract, it is mentioned that if the country has the nuclear power and the people of the country are living below the poverty line that nuclear power is useless. It contradicts with the next statement coming ahead of the speaker, which states the Zulfikar Ali Bhutto turned the country into nuclear power and made the country’s defense strong.

Excerpts from the speech:

Historical distortion:

When the daughter of the Quaid-i-Awam came to power...the Pakistan People's Party always made hectic efforts to make Pakistan strong... And when you elected your sister you did not only elect a prime minister but also the first woman head of government in the whole of the Muslim world... whenever the Pakistan People's Party came into power; it has held progress, development and improving the economic lot of the people in the highest priority... We have made strong governments and this strength was bestowed upon our governments by the people... People's Party governments established peace in the region...

She claims in the speech about her time in power that Benazir Bhutto's government brought prosperity in the country but in her tenure of government corruption was witnessed. For instance, Fleschenberg Andrea (2013, p, 93) states that:

“The cost to the economy by way of corruption and wastage was ordered of 20 to 25 percent of GDP”

Dawn 1996 article elaborates the two corruption cases on Benazir Bhutto one of them was the sale of land for the construction of an Islamabad luxury hotel and a procurement contract for the sale of liquid petroleum, reporting that she has misused 700 million rupees.

Excerpts from speech

Rhetoric Art of Speaking

We understand that with this programme in practice, we will be able to fulfill the promise of the Quaid-i-Awam and the People's Party”. Benazir Shaheed then raised the slogan -- roti, kapra and makan, mangrahaaidharinsaan (bread, clothing and home for all) and the people responded with the full throat slogans, “Zinda Hai Bhutto Zinda Hai, KalBhi Bhutto ZindaThaAajBhi Bhutto Zinda Hai, Nara-i-Bhutto, Jiye Bhutto, Jiye Bhutto.

One of the major techniques is used in the above excerpt to control the audience. That technique is repetition operations of sentences at the

high level of sound. These sorts of repetitions attract the audience towards the speaker.

Van Dijk (1993) termed this technique as *Alliterations and Rhymes*. There are many types of repetition operations, if the repetitions are at sound level Van Dijk termed this as Alliteration and Rhymes and if repetition operations are at sentence forms, he termed this as *Parallelism* and if these operation are at meaning level it is Semantic.

Excerpt from speech:

Verbose Style:

The Quaid-i-Awam was put to gallows, my two brothers were assassinated, my mother had her head injured with stave attack, your brother Asif Ali Zardari was put in jail, he was kept in Pindi and Attock prisons and I too was placed in prison and incarcerated several times. Yet we did not parted ways with the people and the people also remained steadfast and kept on supporting us; they are still with us and together we will realize the cherished goal of justice and a welfare society. Non-one of us left each other because ours is the way of truth, ours is the way of justice, ours is the way of legitimacy; non-one can separate us from pursuing this path.

Building Arguments on the miseries of the past

In the speech, Benazir Bhutto speaks more of herself, glorifying her own name and party's name and the leaders of the party. It is quite subjective approach used in the above excerpt connecting diplomacy and prosperity of the country with the assassination of speaker's brothers (Mir Murtaza Bhutto and Shahnawaz Bhutto) talking about her mother's injury (Nusrat Bhutto) mentioning her husband's prison (Asif Ali Zardari, former President of Pakistan). In this whole excerpt, speaker tries to present the incidents happened with her family as the struggle for the country. Speaker glorifies these events as 'fighting against the enemies.'

This technique is termed by Van Dijk (1993) as *Verbose Style* of speaking, where irrelevant information is coded in the political speeches. Benazir Bhutto is trying to get the sympathy and support of the audience by building on the past events.

Excerpt from the speech

Gen ZiaulHaq came and let the reign of terror loose... you remember the days when Dictator ZiulHaq attempted to undermine the constitution... India first broke Pakistan during the Yahya Khan regime and then exploded atomic bomb... All these wars, whether in 1965 or in 1971, began in undemocratic regimes... When political orphans saw that elections are approaching and their era is ending, they once again conspired to get emergency imposed. They beseeched Gen Musharraf to remain the Chief of Army Staff for another five years... These political orphans used to mislead and confuse the people by false claims that Mohtarma will not return... Rawalpindi is the same city from where Zulfikar Ali Bhutto started his struggle against the dictatorship of General Ayub Khan... '

Creating Enemy Images

Political leaders or nationalists' appeals in the political argumentation are the clear examples to persuade the opposition. In the above excerpt, many negative linguistic features are used for the opposition. Benazir Bhutto addresses the opposition leaders by using the word *Political Orphans* which is clearly stating that speaker is creating enemy images.

Van Dijk (1993) termed such techniques of speaking as 'Argumentative Move' that follows the principle where the positive self representation and negative other-presentation is presented.

Content Analysis of frequently used words:

Content analysis of frequently used words by the speaker was done to find out the influence of these words over the whole speech. The speech consists of about **3,450** words where the word *You* was used most frequently for about **54** times which refers to the audience. The frequent occurrence of this word is a sign of Speaker's influential way to attract the audience.

The speech contains following words in a repeated manner.

Words	Repeated	Intended meaning
You	54	The most repeated word ' You ' shows that influential art of speaking to show the concern of the speaker towards the audience. To give importance to the audience.
I	28	Personal attribute shows the subjective approach of the speaker in speech.
Bhutto	20	depicting Bhuttoism and showing Bhutto legacy.
Political Orphan	14	Creating negative images of Enemy.
Rawalpindi	13	Trying to get the attention of people by an emotional attachment.
Pakistan People's Party	12	Glorifying the name of party.
Power	11	Showing the dominance.
Shaheed	07	Showing sincerity of his father towards the country.
Quaid-i-Awam	06	Glorifying the name of her father to get the support of the people.

The content Analysis of most repeated words in the above table shows the word *I* was used for 28 times, the word *Me* was used for 07 times. The word *Your sister* was used for 07 times. The word *Daughter* was used for 03 times. The word *We* was used for 20 times. Adding all together speaker speaks of herself for 65 times.

4.1 Propagandistic Speech

In the propagandistic text of the speech particularly in the election campaign, the primary task of the speaker is that of communicating an ideology which is a tool of aggressive nationalistic and imperialistic interests and speaker tries to subordinate all forms of human endeavor to serve the purposes of propaganda of the party of speaker. The propagandistic discourse of the speech employs all good forms of linguistic features for her party and all negative forms of linguistic features for the opposite party. The negative representation of the opposite party is an attempt by the speaker to develop the stereotypes in the speech.

4.2 Stereotypical Development

The stereotypical creation of the speaker is used in the analyzed speech where not only the arguments are made strong by creating enemies images but also minds are controlled scientifically that guarantees the widest approval from the audience. One of the best ways to achieve the approval of the audience is to use language emotionally by developing stereotypes and slogans. The repeated phrases of the slogan in the speech are the ways to attract the people towards the speaker. And this creates an emotional attachment between the speaker and the audience.

4.3 Historical References:

The way historical references are cited in the speech is the deliberate attack on the minds of the audience to control them. Most of the audience is unaware of the past events and they do not have sufficient knowledge about the past events to challenge the speaker's information so they take the information in the discourse as right and accurate.

Conclusion:

The present study aimed at critically analyzing the ideologies behind the contents of the speech of Benazir Bhutto. This study applied the socio-cognitive approach to critical discourse analysis (CDA) presented by Van Dijk (1993). The underlying ideologies in the speech were critically analyzed by applying Socio-Cognitive Approach to CDA proposed by Van Dijk (1993). The speaker's

speech in the election campaign represented her ideologies presented by her father which can be viewed as movement not a campaign. In addition, these linguistic features are used as products to cause power relations and the way to control the masses in the country.

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The acquisition of pragmatic competence and implications for Critical Period Hypothesis

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Abstract

In second language learning it is rather easy to learn the syntactic realisation or even phonological system, the actual problem comes up when the learners struggle for learning of target language pragmatics. Foreign pragmatics competence appears to be a real challenge for language learners. However, the present study investigates the role that age plays in acquisition of pragmatic competence. A total number of 30 participants took part in this study. They were divided into 3 groups; Group A, British Native Speakers of English, Group B Post-Critical Period Hypothesis and Group C Pre-Critical Period Hypothesis. These participants were given 3 different situations (Higher to lower, Equal to equal, and Lower to higher) to produce responses in the form of requests. It is found that the British native speakers of English are more inclined to be indirect in requesting to all situations. The Post-critical period participants produced more direct responses. The Pre-critical period participants were also indirect, similar to the group A, the British native speakers of English. The study confirms that during the critical period the foreign language pragmatics is acquired with relatively ease, but after puberty the learners have to struggle harder to learn pragmatics. Therefore, it is stated that acquisition of pragmatic competence is easy and natural for child L2 learners rather than to the adult L2 learners.

Keywords: *Pragmatics, competence, request strategies, second language, critical period.*

1 Introduction

The study of language has been encapsulated into syntax, semantics and pragmatics. In the past, many researchers used to understand

pragmatics as a fuzzy area. It was also thought that the study of pragmatics was not worthy of classifying as an independent and major field of language studies (Thomason, 1973). But in recent decades, the study of pragmatics is given a significant attention as an independent branch of enquiry. The growing literature on the communication strategies and large number of empirical studies on speech act behaviour show the significance of pragmatics has been realised both in socio- and applied linguistics. To acquire pragmatics competence in second language is a challenge for learners. several studies, for instance Rintell, (1981); Blum-Kulka, (1982, 1983); El-Shazly, (1993); Alammar, (2000); Novick, (2000); Bajoudah, (2002), have found that even after attaining high level of language competence and command over target language, the second language (L2) learners remain unsuccessful to communicate in a particular (given) situation. Therefore, it is very important for L2 learners to acquire pragmatic competence along with grammatical knowledge and text organization in target language to actively participate in foreign language setting. On many occasions it becomes the reason of a breakdown in communication between native or non-native if required strategies are not used in common conducts such as, requesting for help, asking for leave, ordering for something. Scholars have tried to find out solution of acquiring pragmatics competence in L2. but still it is a challenge for second language learners. The present study provides a possible answer to the question that when, and how target language pragmatics can be learnt.

1.1 Request strategies

Requests are one of the speech acts used quite frequently in every day interactions. A request makes the addressee to do or not to do something. Nelson *et al*, (2002) defines request as a polite demand that is made by another person (requester) for asking a favour. In Brown and Levinson's, (1987) terms, requests are defined as face-threatening acts (FTAS) which threaten the hearer's negative face.

It is also argued that speech acts are performed by the utterances such as giving order, making promises, complaining and requesting, (Austin, 1962). Thus, when we utter a phrase or sentence, in fact we perform an act and expecting the verbal or nonverbal reaction by the listener. So, requests play central role in the study of speech acts. A

request is a pre-event and directive act which initiates the negotiation of face during a conversation or interaction.

Some researchers suggest that requests come under the second category of Searle's (1969) classification of illocutionary acts (i.e., representatives, directives, expressive, co-missives and declarations), which is directive and regarded as 'an attempt to get hearer to do an act which speaker wants hearer to do, and which it is not obvious that hearer will do in the normal course of events or of hearer's own accord' (p. 66).

Kasper, (1984) mentions two points for successful speech act performance in second language learning:

- (i) **First**, second language learners have to be familiar with the extra-linguistic and cultural constraints that function a major role in a native speaker's preference of a particular speech act suitable to context.
- (ii) **Second**, they must have to understand the speech act at linguistic level first and then to make it appropriate with an L2 socio-cultural norms.

Moreover requests are face-threatening acts, use of politeness strategies is influenced by many factors, so to perform requests linguistically socially and culturally in a proper way is not a painless assignment. The learners should not only have enough linguistic resources for understanding a request properly, but they also have to be aware of socio-cultural rules and their use in appropriate situation (Suh, 1999, p. 196).

1.2 Classification of request strategies

Tanka & Kawade (1987) and House & Kasper (1987) suggest that English native speakers commonly use indirect strategies with very few exceptions to make a request. The contrastive analysis of request strategies shows that non-native English speakers choose direct strategies more than native speakers do. Hence requests can be classified into three levels of increasing directness in relation to form:

- (i) **Indirect Requestis** applied for pragmatic impersonal expression/s or practise opportunities.

- (ii) **Conventionally Indirect Request** is simply the use of polite language, the use of conditional tense, modal verbs, and optional use of *Please*.
- (iii) **Direct Request**, the use of imperatives or present and future tense.

1.3 The role of pragmatics competence in communication

The pragmatic competence is different from grammatical competence, and to have grammatical competence is not enough to be proficient in pragmatics though it can be a basic condition for acquiring the pragmatic competence (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999). The importance of acquiring pragmatic competence is manifold; we may argue that second language learners may not always be successful in making communication effective in target language setting, even after attaining an excellent proficiency level of grammar and lexical knowledge, (Blum-Kulka & Olshatin, 1984). It might be argued that community based rules and cultural norms play important roles in successful communication, this is also realised by Wolfson, (1983) who asserts that unless the foreign language learners get command on these community- specific rules, they remain unsuccessful to communicate properly and perfectly in the target language setting. So, the destruction of these community rules cause communication gap between native speakers and foreign language learners which is regarded as pragmatic failure. The term *pragmatic failure* refers to the inability to understand what is meant by what is said, (Thomas, 1983: 91).

Many studies support the idea that often foreign language learners in communication with native speakers are misunderstood despite of the fact that they use right form of syntactic structure and even good lexical items, but their intentions are misinterpreted which leaves the impression that the non-native speakers are tagged *impolite*, *rude* or, *slow* by native speakers (Scollon & Scollon, 1983). To stay away from such misunderstandings and their pessimistic influence on human communication and their relation, applied linguistics plays an important role by addressing the issue of speech act behaviour more systematically and carefully, which may facilitate the L2 learners to acquire pragmatic competence.

1.4 Theoretical concerns

1.4.1 Introduction Speech Act Theory

Austin's (1962) 'Speech Act Theory' suggests that many utterances do not correspond information, but are considered to be equivalent to actions. Such utterances are called speech acts. He classifies speech acts into four categories, such as: verdictives, exercisitives, expositives, and behabitatives. Later this theory was revisited by Searle, (1969) who argued that all speech acts are meaningful and are rule governed. To him, speech acts are executed through illocutionary force indicating devices and these are created by constitutive rules. The knowledge of these rules is called linguistic competence. Searle, (1983) then suggests that speech acts such as 'request' and 'apology' are governed by four types of felicity conditions. Such as: preparatory conditions, sincerity conditions, propositional content conditions (future act of hearer) and essential conditions (attempts to persuade the hearer to do the act).

Brown and Livenson, (1987) subsequently added the concept of indirect speech act. By this they mean that some speech acts address the hearer directly, but most of them are indirect. Speakers resort to indirectness to attain some level of politeness. (Cited in Umar 2004).

To be polite in speech is challenging because one has to be aware both of the target language culture and social values. Some linguists attempt to characterize the aspects of politeness and to account for the rules that govern the use of language in context. Basically it is a challenge for linguists to face cultural and idiosyncratic variations, and to understand different notions of the concept of politeness. The politeness cannot be separated to the social relationship between the addresser and the hearer. There have been proposed some principles of politeness by several researchers, for example Goffman, (1967) Lakoff, (1973), Grice (1975) Leech, (1983) Brown & Levinson, (1987), and Novick, (2000). But, Brown and Levinson, (1987) explain politeness as universal phenomenon that goes across languages, cultures and domains. Once such universals of politeness are identified and associated with their conversational implications, they will have enormous value for applied linguists. They also point out that much of

the differences between the nominal meanings and implications of an expression can be explained in the light of the politeness theory.

1.4.2.1 Maxims of Politeness

Lakoff (1973) showed a great concern about the element of clarity in conversation and asserts that it is essential for realization of politeness. She understands politeness from a conversational maxim point of view and suggests two rules of pragmatic competence, as to be clear, and to be polite. Later on Grice, (1975) proposes a theory of conversation that involves principles of cooperation. According to this theory, it is assumed that as long as participants in a mutual conversation expect each other to adhere to cooperative principles, meanings that are conveyed without being said follow inferences from a particular maxim. Thus, he associates the cooperative principle with four maxims and sub-maxims.

1- Quantity:

- (i) make your contribution as informative as is required.
- (ii) do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

2- Quality: make your contribution one that is true, i.e.

- (i) do not say what you believe to be false.
- (ii) do not say what you lack evidence to support.

3- Relations: be relevant

4- Manner perspicuous:

- (i) avoid obscurity of expression,
- (ii) avoid ambiguity,
- (iii) avoid unnecessary prolixity,
- (iv) be orderly.

1.4.3 The communicative act of request and face wants

There are two essential parts of the speech act of request:

- (i) the head act
- (ii) the modifiers.

The head act is understood as the main utterance that executes the function of requesting and might be used on its own without any modifiers in order to convey the request. Therefore in most cases, the head act is preceded and followed by modifiers that mitigates or aggravates the impact of the request on the addressee (Reiter, 2000).

Requests in English language can be made with imperative, interrogative and declarative moods. In this context Lyons (1968) describes that conversation requirements of politeness usually render it awkward to issue flat imperatives for making request. Leech (1983) suggests that imperatives are the least polite constructions since they are so tactless that they jeopardize compliance by the addressee. For this reason, indirect means are usually sought to realize illocutionary needs. While performing a request, the speaker should always follow to principles of politeness; no matter what the object of his/her request is because requesting occurs in a situation of inequality. The requester always wants to get an object, which is lacking and the requestee may provide. In request, it is always the requester who directly or indirectly benefits from the act at the cost of the requestee and threatens his “face”. The term ‘face’ means the positive social value that every member of the society keeps. This value presupposes that everyone urges to be free from imposition (negative face) and that everyone wants to be appreciated and approved of (positive face) (Goffman, 1967).

Of course, this cannot be the case when a request involves greater imposition or restriction on the requestee’s freedom, such as lending money or giving a lift. In the light of these ‘face’ considerations, Brown and Levinson (1987) developed an explicit model of politeness that they argue to have validity across cultures. The central idea is to realize various strategies for interaction between the individuals of a particular community.

Individuals are engaged in rational behaviour to realize certain wants. Wants related to politeness are wants of face, something that involves

an emotional dimension that can be lost, maintained or enhanced, but must be constantly adhered to in communication. House and Kasper (1981) maintain that when the relative face threat increases, a speaker will select a more redressive strategy. A speaker is more likely to choose negative politeness strategies over positive politeness when the relative face-threat is high since negative politeness strategies are more redressive than positive politeness strategies. It is also proposed that a speaker must determine the seriousness or the weightiness of a face threatening act in terms of three independent and culturally– sensitive variables:

- (i) The power differences between the speaker and the addressee (Asking a favour from a friend, for example, is more easily done than asking the same favour of a superior).
- (ii) Social distance between the speaker and the addressee (It is easier to perform a face-threatening act with an acquaintance than with a stranger).
- (iii) The rate of imposition of a specific face-threatening act. (Showing the way to the hospital is not as difficult as giving a lift to the hospital).

Many studies have shown a keen interest in the speech acts of request strategies. House and Kasper, (1981), investigate the request strategies among German and English. They argue that the social norms play an important role in the making of requests and these norms can be varied in different communities. They also classify requests into nine levels of directness by arranging them from the most indirect (mild hints) level to the most direct (imperative) level. In this way they categorized the modality markers by making variation between two kinds of modifiers which are regarded as down-graders and up-graders. By using the down-graders, speakers usually mitigate the force of the particular utterance on the addressee or receiver, through up-graders s/he raises or boosts the impact of an utterance on the hearer. By House and Kasper's (1981) results, it can be noticed that native speakers of English are more indirect in making requests, while the non- natives (Germans) are inclined to direct levels. Therefore, on the basis of these evidences English native speakers regard German speakers as less polite or direct in the use of request strategies.

In another study, Blum-Kulka, (1982, 1983), investigated the request behaviour in Hebrew, and compared it with Canadian and American speakers of English. By this study it is found that the degree of social distance and power relationship between interlocutors are very important factors in making request. And it has also been confirmed that each language provides speech acts to speakers. But, the selection of the appropriate form for a speech act is not language specific, but culture specific. Moreover, politeness value is not determined by the language form, it is determined by the context of speech act, because what may be viewed as polite in some culture may not be viewed with the same degree of politeness in another culture. Consequently, misunderstanding and inappropriate use of forms in cross-cultural communication should be expected.

Wierzbicka, (1985) measured native (English) and non-native (Polish) speakers differences in request strategies. She hypothesized that the differences in request strategies between these two languages are because of variation which lies in the cultural norms of these two communities. She explains that English request strategies are strongly influenced by the use of interrogative sentences and avoid the direct use of imperatives. On the other side, Comparatively in Polish interrogative is mainly attached to distancing and hostility. So, it is very embarrassing in Polish culture to asking the addressee to do something as '*would you like to....?*' Or '*do you want to...?*'. This study argues that these social strategies are well-known as polite and respectful in English speakers, which let the hearer to reject or accept, while in Polish speakers it is very awkward to make a request in this way.

Atawneh's, (1991) compared English and Arabic speakers' request strategies with reference to politeness. The purpose of this study was to test the Brown and Levinson (1978) politeness theory with Arabic – English bilinguals and Arabic monolinguals, or cultural determination of pragmatic norms in a language. The findings of this study confirm politeness theory with special reference to requests. Moreover, the descriptive analysis of the results shows that Arabic has fewer modals than English; therefore different politeness strategies are applied to formulate the politeness function of modals in English.

Schmidt (1994) did comparison between actual request data assembled at service counters and requests lessons established in four popular ESL textbooks. His findings consider the fact that the textbooks are underdeveloped as compared to real-world request types and their explanation. Kim, (1995) investigates the request strategies used by Korean non-native speakers of English. He hypothesised that the negative transfer of mother-tongue pragmatic rules are problematic and main cause of using request strategies in an improper manner. The Participants of this study were Native Americans, non-native Koreans, and native Koreans speakers, and the data was collected by using 'Oral-Discourse-Completion-Test'. The results show that the directness level or supportive moves in requests are influenced by socio-pragmatic features of the situational context of three language groups (Native Americans, non-native Koreans, and native Koreans). So the main cause of the non-native speakers' (Koreans) deviation from the norms of native speakers' (English) is due to the transfer of their native language (Koreans) pragmatic rules.

Fukushima, (1996) investigated request strategies of British and Japanese speakers and argued that the situations with higher degree of obligation demands more politeness. He identifies that the British native English speakers are tended to the conventional indirect forms of request strategies than Japanese speakers who showed more interest in direct ones.

Another study by Byon (2004) was conducted to investigate and describe the socio-pragmatic features of American Korean as foreign Language learners in the Korean communicative act of request. The subjects in this study were 150 female university students. Fifty female Korean L1speakers provided the native Korean data, fifty female American L1English speakers provided native English data and fifty female American L1 English speakers who were Korean L2 learners provided non-native data. All the data were collected by a written questionnaire in the form of the Discourse Completion Test. He showed that the American Korean foreign language learners as advanced learners appear to develop a greater sensitivity to the use of politeness strategies in requesting than native speakers. It was also found that the American L2 Korean learners as advanced learners do

not acquire fully native-like strategies of requesting rather they were inclined to produce longer request than native speakers do.

After mentioning some of the studies conducted to see the inter-language and cross-language differences, we will establish the role of critical period hypothesis (CPH) and second language acquisition.

2. Language Acquisition and the Critical Period Hypothesis

In 1959, after the publication of '*Speech and Brian Mechanism*' by Penfield and Roberts, the idea of Critical Period Hypothesis, (CPH) appeared in linguistics literature. Later on, Lenneberg, (1967) studied the critical period hypothesis in depth and wrote '*Biological Foundation of Language*'. Robert, (2006) asserts that in developmental psychology and developmental biology, the critical period is a stage in life span in which an organism is highly sensitivity to exogenous stimuli which is crucial for development. If that organism by some reasons remain unable to receive the appropriate stimulus during 'critical period', it becomes very challenging for that organism to develop the particular skill in life. Moreover, Robert, (2006) observed that the critical period for the development of a child's binocular vision is regarded as between 3 to 8 months, and with sensitivity towards injury up to minimum 3 years. Eugène *et al*, (2009) found the role of critical periods in the development of hearing and the vestibular system. Steven (1994) gave some examples from the early life of greylag goose, who after hatching becomes attached to a parent figure within the first 36 hours. Similarly a young chaffinch will have to hear an adult singing before puberty or being sexual matures, otherwise it will never be able to sing or will never properly sing. These finding and observations potentially lead researchers to think about the same critical period for the acquisition of human language.

The Critical Period Hypothesis is '*a biologically determined period of life when language can be acquired more easily and beyond which time language is increasingly difficult to acquire*' (Brown, 2000 p, 53). Generally, it is understood that the critical period hypothesis is a virtual window of learning a language, if by any chance a child is unable to get input from her/his parents or society in which s/he lives, s/he will remain unable to speak, or face many challenges in later life. After puberty the ideal window is closed and learning of language

becomes difficult. Pinker (1994) argues that the very idea of learning of a language during critical period came from Chomsky's (1965) account of linguistic competence, which is based on the abstract set of rules and representations of language, and an innate component of human mind.(cited in Hussain, 2011). This argument was, actually, based on the supposition that learning of language is very challenging and impossible for children just from exposure to the linguistic input that a child receives from his/her setting. Moreover it was considered that there is a special biological program for language acquisition.

Penfield & Roberts (1959) assert that young children are more proficient in L2 learning than adults. Furthermore, they argued that *'the child's brain has a special capacity for learning language'* (p.240) and *'[t] here is a biological clock of the brain'* (p. 237). And the maximum age limit of nine years is for direct language learning by the input and later age of onset (AOs) results less ability to acquire a language. The reason is perhaps the children become more analytical and learn indirectly via their first language after that age. Lenneberg, (1967) observed the children who suffered from the left hemisphere of the brain, before puberty, the transformation of language function to the right hemisphere was observed in the children, who suffered damage before 12 years of age, while on the other hand it was very rare to see in those children who suffered damage after age 12. By this Penfield and Roberts, (1959) and Lenneberg, (1967) conclude that L1and L2 acquisition is a biologically constrained process and ends with puberty.

2.1 The evidence of Critical Period Hypothesis

Perhaps, there is much evidence in favour of the critical period hypothesis. The researchers have been conducting many studies to show out-reached performance of the young starters. In some cases some unfortunate children remain unable to receive proper input during the critical period, and they remain unable to attain language competence. Some famous cases, for instance, are Genie who was abused by her father and kept in isolation for 13 years, and some other cases of feral children supposedly raised by animals, late acquisition of American Sign Language, acquisition by hearing children of deaf adults, by deaf children of hearing adults, etc. These cases support the view that there exists critical period for acquisition of language.

Another, very interesting case was reported by Grimshaw *et al.* (1998), who presented a case of a child, whose linguistic deficiencies were similar to those of Genie. Though, that child was not sharing any of Genie's adverse circumstances providing “*converging evidence for the existence of a critical period for first-language acquisition*” (p. 250).

Penfield, (1959) and Lenneberg, (1967) argue that there may be two possible reasons why language learning becomes a challenge after the critical period. (I) the first reason is that the plasticity of brain is lost and various functions of parts of the brain cannot be reorganized. (II), the second reason is the lateralization of language functions in the left hemisphere which is regarded to be perfect after puberty. So learning of L1 and L2 becomes difficult. Another observation which is interesting to quote here is by Lenneberg, (1967) who asserts that the children who suffered brain damage before the age of 9 to 12 recover language learning. While those children who suffered brain damage after puberty faced difficulty in acquisition of language. Another researcher, Genesee, (1988) describes that after critical period complete or native like competence of languages L1 or L2 is difficult and unlikely.

2.3 Hypothesis

The current study is based on the hypothesis that those L2 learners, who are exposed to the target language before puberty, not only acquire the syntactic realisation of the target language, but also acquire the pragmatic competence in the use of request strategies. By the same token where the L2 learners who are not exposed to the target language, remain unable to acquire pragmatic competence in the use of request strategies.

3. Methodology and Materials

3.1 Participant information

A total number of 30 male and female participants took part in this study. Their ages ranged between 7 to 70. They are divided into three groups: **Group A: British Native Speakers of English (BNSE)**. This group comprised of 10 male and (how many???) female British Native Speakers of English. Their ages are ranged between 30 to 70 years.

Group B: Post-Critical Period Hypothesis Group (Post-CPH) This group consists of 10 L2 English speakers. The participants of this group are Pakistani native speakers of Urdu. They have been exposed to English after puberty. They belong to various professions. A few of them are university students in the UK. Their period of stay in the UK is between 2 to 25 years. Their ages are between 25 to 55 years.

Group C: Pre-Critical Period Hypothesis Group (Pre-CPH), In this group 10 Pakistani emigrants are included, who arrived in the UK before the age of 13 and were exposed to English language before puberty. Their ages ranged between 7 to 60 years. These participants are either students or professionals in the UK.

After seeking consent, the participants were given an open ended questionnaire which was based on Blume Kulka's (1989) Discourse Completion Test (DCT) with some modifications. The participants were supposed to respond in a normal way, as they behave in real life.

3.2 The Procedure Used In Data Collection

The present study tests the data on the original design of Blum-Kulka, (1982) which is known as Discourse Completion Test (DCT). Basically, this is a form of questionnaire that depicts some natural situations in which the participants are expected to react and respond naturally to (make) request as they do in real life. The DCT has been widely used in collecting data on speech acts realization both within and across language groups. Many researchers implement the DCT format, but not its contents, because this is highly practical and valid.

The questionnaire is based on 3 different categories of statuses and 9 situations, each situation contains 3 open ended request strategies. The participants have to act naturally (as mentioned before). In each situation there is a brief description that illustrates the relation between the participants (acquaintance or stranger) and their dominance over each other in terms of social status (i.e. high, equal or low). The participants are asked to answer to each open ended question in English. Before finalising the questionnaire, it was piloted on a small group of 3 British native English speakers, 3 pre-CH and 3 post-CH participants. Some minor amendments and modifications were made in the light of this pilot study. Items were also rearranged in special

order to ease data analysis in later stages. The questionnaire in its final form is administered to participants on voluntary basis. A second review was also arranged to avoid errors.

3.3 Data Analysis and Coding

The whole data was collected through the Discourse Completion Test (DCT), and analyzed based on an independent examination of each response (request). Request strategies are expected to be influenced by the relation between interlocutors, i.e., the requester and requestee and their relative dominance over each other, (Blum- Kulka, House, and Kasper, 1989). All the responses have been classified into three categories:

- (i) Higher-ranking to lower-ranking,
- (ii) Equal to equal ,
- (iii) Lower-ranking to higher-ranking.

It is dependent on the relative social power between the interlocutors.

All situations elicit 9 different request strategies listed in order to directness- The first (1) can be considered the most direct and the last (9) can be understood as the most indirect. These situations are as following:

- 1) **Mood derivable:** utterances in which grammatical mood of the verb indicates illocutionary force. (*Clean up the mess.*)
- 2) **Performatives:** utterances in which illocutionary force is clearly mentioned (*I am asking you to close the window.*)
- 3) **Hedge performatives:** utterances in which statement of the illocutionary force is modified by hedging expressions (*I would like to ask you to prepare my bill.*)
- 4) **Obligation statements:** utterances which state the hearer's obligation to perform the act (*You have to clean the mess.*)
- 5) **Want statements:** utterances which indicate the speakers desire that the hearer performs the tasks (*I really wish you'd stop smoking*)
- 6) **Suggestory formulas:** utterances which include a suggestion to do something (*How about lending me some money!*).
- 7) **Query preparatories:** utterances containing reference to preparatory conditions (e.g. ability, willingness) as

conventionalized in different languages (*Could you lend me five pounds, please? Would you mind closing the door behind you?*).

- 8) **Strong Hints:** utterances containing partial reference to an element needed for the performance of the act (*You have left the kitchen in a terrible mess*).
- 9) **Mild Hints:** utterances that make no reference to the request proper, but can be interpreted as requests by context (*I am a nun*) in response to a persistent hassler. (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989).

The data is analysed to identify request strategies recognised by each group. Moreover similarities and differences in the strategy selection are also highlighted.

3.4 Coding

The results are shown in tables and graphs. Both tables and graphs show 9 strategies used by all participants of 3 groups on 3 different situations: Higher-ranking to lower-ranking,

Equal to equal and lower-ranking to higher-ranking. The Frequency and percentage is shown in digits. The graphs will only show the percentage of strategies used by participants. Finally the frequencies and percentages are used to quantify pragmatic strategies to perform the function of request. This will also serve the purpose of comparisons among all groups.

The following section gives a brief account of the 3 different categories and the sample responses by all participants. It also presents tables and graphs.

4. Request strategies used by category one

4.1 Higher to lower

Request strategies used by Group A, British native speakers of English (BNSE)

for the first three situations

Some of the sample responses are given in each section here.

Situation one states. You are feeling suffocation in a room. You want your younger sister to open the window for you. How would you request/ask her to open the window?

- (i) *Susuie, would you like to be dear and open the window for me?*
- (ii) *Do you think you could possibly open the window for me? I am feeling a little faint.*
- (iii) *I need some air! Open the window for me, will you please?*

Situation two states. You have bought a pair of shoe for your spouse, and s/he does not like them. You want to exchange it with another, how would you request/ask to the manager of the store to exchange the pair of shoe?

- (i) *I bought these shoes yesterday, but they are not suitable could you exchange them please?*
- (ii) *Hello, I have bought the pair of shoes the other day, here is the receipt, would you mind if I change them for another please?*
- (iii) *I am really sorry, but my wife does not like this pair of shoes, could you please exchange them for another pair?*

Situation three states. You need to order home delivery pizza. You call to the food shop, what would you say to order a pizza?

- (i) *Hello could I order a Pizza please?*
- (ii) *Hello this is Joan Davies here, I would like to order a large Pizza please could you please deliver it at 7pm?*
- (iii) *Hello I would like to order a pizza please?*

Data generated by these three situations represents higher to lower ranking relation summarized in tables and graphs.

Table 1a : Request strategies used by (Group A) British native speakers of English (BNSE) for situation one, two and three

Strategy	Situation 1		Situation2		Situation3		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%

1	Mood Derivables	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	Performatives	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	Hedge Performative	2	20	3	30	3	30	8	26.6
4	Obligation Statement	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	Want Statement	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	Query Preparatory	6	60	3	30	3	30	12	40
7	Suggestory Formula	2	20	4	40	4	40	10	33.4
8	Strong Hint	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	Mild Hint	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Total	10	100	10	100	10	100	30	100

Group B: Post-CPH L2 English Speakers

Situation 1. (You are feeling suffocation in a room).

- (i) *Dear, please open the window , I am feeling suffocation, need some fresh air.*
- (ii) *I am feeling suffocation, can you please open the window please.*
- (iii) *Open the window please.*

Situation 2 states. You have bought a pair of shoe for your spouse, and want to exchange them).

- (i) *Sorry to bother you, actually the shoes did not fit therefore I would like to replace with another one.*

- (ii) *I want to exchange this pair of shoes as my spouse for whom I bought it does not like them unfortunately.*
- (iii) *I bought these shoes for my wife but unfortunately she does not like them. Could you kindly exchange them for another pair that she chosen, will be much obliged.*

Situation 3. (You need to order home delivery pizza).

- (i) *Hi I would like to order one large viggie Pizza, can I have one of your special Veggi pizza?*
- (ii) *Hi I have to order a Pizza please.*
- (iii) *Can I order to Pizza one mugrila and one sparial, my address is xyz and how long time and how much money. Thanks.*

Table 2b: Request strategies used by (Group B) Post-CPH L2 English Speakers for situation one, two and three

Strategy	Situation 1		Situation2		Situation3		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1 Mood Derivables	4	40	1	10	2	20	7	23.3
2 Performatives	2	40	0	0	0	0	2	6.6
3 Hedge performative	2	20	1	10	2	20	5	16.6
4 Obligation statement	0	0	1	10	0	0	1	3.3
5 Want statement	0	0	3	30	4	40	7	23.3
6 Query preparatory	1	10	2	20	2	20	05	16.6

7	Suggestory Formula	0	0	1	10	0	0	1	3.3
8	Strong Hint	1	10	1	10	0	0	02	6.66
9	Mild Hint	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total		10	100	10	100	10	100	30	100

Group C Pre-CPH L2 English Speakers

Situation one states: (You are feeling suffocation in a room).

Sample responses given by group C

- (i) *Open the window.*
- (ii) *Could you open the window for me? It's quite stuffy in here.*
- (iii) *Open the window please.*

Situation two states: You have bought a pair of shoes for your spouse and want to exchange them).

- (i) *My wife would like a different pair of shoe, could I swap this please?*
- (ii) *Can I exchange them please?*
- (iii) *Can I exchange this pair of shoe to another one please?*

Situation three states: (You need to order home delivery pizza).

- (i) *Hi I would like to order a veggi-pizza on xyz.*
- (ii) *Hi could I have a super large meat feat pizza please?*
- (iii) *Hello, could I order a pizza please?*

Table 3 c. Request strategies used by(Group C) Pre-CPH L2 English Speakers

Strategy	Situation 1		Situation2		Situation3		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1 Mood Derivables	2	20	0	0	0	0	2	6.7
2 Performatives	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3 Hedge Performative	3	30	2	20	3	30	8	26.6
4 Obligation Statement	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5 Want statement	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6 Query Preparatory	3	30	5	50	5	50	13	43.4
7 Suggestory Formula	2	20	3	30	2	20	7	23.3
8 Strong Hint	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9 Mild Hint	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	10	100	10	100	10	100	30	100

From the above results of table 1a, 2c and 3e, it is noticed that the British native speakers of English tend to use indirect strategies in higher to lower situation. They used the most indirect strategies, i.e. Query Preparatory, Suggestory Formulas and Hedge Performatives

while requesting to younger sister to open the window, shopkeeper to change the pair of shoes, or to order for a pizza.

The data in table 2b shows that the Post-critical period hypothesis L2 English speakers used more direct strategies in all three situations. In the first situation, while requesting to younger sister they used most direct strategies 'Mood-derivable' and Performatives, 6 times which is 60 % of the total number of strategies used in this situation. In situation 2 (requesting a shop keeper) they used Mood-derivable and Want Statement 40 times. While ordering pizza they also tend to use direct strategies 6 times, which is 60% of the total number of situations used in this strategy.

The results of the table 3c analyses the Pre-CPH L2 English participants were inclined to use indirect request strategies in all 3 situations higher to lower. In requesting to a younger sister they use the most direct strategies, Mood-derivable 2 times. That is approximately 20% of the total number of strategies used in this situation. In requesting the shopkeeper and ordering pizza, they commonly use indirect strategies e.g. Hedge Performatives, Query Preparatory and Suggestory Formulas like native English speakers.

By considering group A and group C, we can analyse that the group C used mood derivable strategies differently by group A in all these three situations. Group A used Query preparatory strategies 33.3% while group C used these strategies more frequently in all three situations which is 43.3% of all strategies used in these situations. As compared to group A and C, Group B used most direct strategies frequently. Group B used most direct request strategy i.e. Mood derivable which is 23.4% of all strategies used in all these situations and Hedge Performatives which is 6.7% of all situations. It is also noticed that the Hints, both Strong or Mild, are totally avoided by both British native speakers or pre-CPH group in all these three situations. But the post-CPH participants used strong Hints Strategies in situation one while requesting the younger sister or in situation two while requesting to shopkeeper which is 6.66% to all strategies used in these three situations. Group C is also different from both group A and group B in using mixed strategies such as Obligation Statement (3.4%) and Want Statement (23.4%) strategies.

A general outlook of graphs of group A, B and C also represents the similarities and differences in using request strategies by all groups. The post - CPH L2 English speakers tend to use more direct strategies such as Mood derivables and Performatives while requesting to people in lower positions as compared to British Native speakers of English and Pre- CPH L2 English speakers. But the BNSE and pre- CPH group used most strategies such as Query Preparatory, Suggestory Formulas and Hedge Performatives with almost the same level of frequency. Their graphical representation is different in situation one. Pre-CPH group and post – CPH groups graphical representation is to some extent similar in using some request strategies but there is huge difference in using frequencies. Hints are less preferred by all these groups in three situations.

From the tables it can be clearly noticed that the BNSE used the most indirect strategies in requesting people in lower positions and the Post-CPH group used direct strategies. The third group Pre-CPH used indirect strategies mostly like British native speakers of English. They remained direct in only 6.7% of the total number of strategies used in three situations but most of their responses are indirect.

4.2 Request strategies used for Equal to equal relation

Variety of responses given by Group A British native speakers of English (BNSE)

Situation one states. You are walking with your friend, who is walking slowly; you want to walk quickly because you have to reach somewhere on time. What will you say to your friend to make him walk as fast as you?

- (i) *Carol, I have to be at the dentist by 10:30 am. Are you able to walk quickly with me, or should I catch up with you later?*
- (ii) *Come on (friend) we shall have to go quickly than this or we shall never get there on time.*
- (iii) *Can we walk a bit faster because I need to be somewhere*

Situation two states. You are in front of a door carrying some books and you cannot open the door, what would you say to the person who is standing near the door? Could you open the door for me please?

- (i) *Please help me with the door.*
- (ii) *Would you mind opening the door for me please?*
- (iii) *Excuse me please; I wonder if you can help me?*

Situation three states.In your neighbourhood, a party is going on; they are playing music very loudly. It is becoming difficult for you to study. You want to ask them to turn the music down. What would you say?

- (i) *I wouldn't say anything unless the party become unruly.*
- (ii) *Sorry to bother you, but I am trying to study, could you turn the music down please?*
- (iii) *Hello I know you are having the party but I am trying to study and the music is rather loud. Could you turn it down a little please....thanks you.*

Table 4d. Request strategies used by BNSE for category three (Equal to Equal)

Strategy	Situation 1		Situation 2		Situation 3		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
	1 Mood Derivables	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2 Performatives	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3 Hedge performative	3	30	2	20	4	40	9	30
4 Obligation statement	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5 Want statement	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6 Query	5	50	6	60	5	50	15	53.3

	preparatory								
7	Suggestory Formula	2	20	2	20	0	0	4	13.3
8	Strong Hint	0	0	0	0	1	10	1	3.4
9	Mild Hint	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Total	10	100	10	100	10	100	30	100

Group B Post- CPH L2 English speakers

Variety of responses given by group B based on post-CPH participants

Situation1. (You are walking with your friend,)

- (i) *Oh speed up; I need to rush there at time.*
- (ii) *Hurry up my friend, I have no time, I have to reach on time.*
- (iii) *Walk quickly; I have to reach there on time.*

Situation 2. (You are in front of a door carrying some books)

- (i) *Will you please open the door?*
- (ii) *Can you please help to open the door?*
- (iii) *Excuse me, can you please open this door for me please?*

Situation 3. (A party is going on In your neighbourhood)

- (i) *Please turn the music down a bit, I am trying to study.*
- (ii) *Hi I am your neighbour and studying in my house but because of loud music I cannot concentrate, can you please slow down the music please?*
- (iii) *Can you please turn the music down?*

Table 5e. Request strategies used by group B Post-CPH L2 English speakers for category two (Equal to Equal)

Strategy	Situation 1		Situation2		Situation3		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1 Mood Derivables	0	0	0	0	1	10	1	3.4
2 Performatives	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3 Hedge performative	4	40	3	30	1	10	8	26.6
4 Obligation statement	0	0	0	0	1	10	1	3.4
5 Want statement	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6 Query preparatory	6	60	6	60	7	70	19	63.3
7 Suggestory Formula	0	0	1	10	0	0	1	3.3
8 Strong Hint	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9 Mild Hint	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	10	100	10	100	10	100	30	100

Group C Pre- CPH L2 Speakers of English

Situation 1. (You are walking with your friend)

- (i) *Hurry man, I am getting late.*
- (ii) *Please could you walk fast as I have to go to dentist at 8 o clock?*
- (iii) *Dear I am getting late , be quick please*

Situation 2. (You are in front of a door carrying some books)

- (i) *Could you open the door please?*
- (ii) *Can you open the door for me please?*
- (iii) *Can you open the door?*

Situation 3.(A party is going on In your neighbourhood)

- (i) *Hi, please can you turn the music down m as I cannot concentrate on my studies?*
- (ii) *Please turn the music little bit down as I have exam in the morning.*
- (iii) *Hi please would you like to turn the volume down as I cannot concentrate in my studies.*

Table 6f, group C. Pre- CPH L2 Speakers of English responses for category two (Equal to Equal)

Strategy	Situation 1		Situation 2		Situation 3		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1 Mood Derivables	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2 Performatives	1	10	0	0	0	0	1	3.4
3 Hedge performative	3	30	1	10	3	30	7	23.3
4 Obligation statement	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5 Want statement	0	0	0	0	1	10	1	3.4
6 Query preparatory	4	40	7	70	6	60	17	56.6
7 Suggestory Formula	2	20	2	20	0	0	4	13.3

8	Strong Hint	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	Mild Hint	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Total	10	100	10	100	10	100	30	100

From the above mentioned table 4d, it can be noticed that the British native speakers of English used the most indirect request strategies in all the three situations, for example to ask a friend to walk fast, to ask an unknown person to open the door for you, and to ask the neighbour to turn down the music. Table 5e analyses the results of group B post-CPH. They also used the most direct strategy Mood derivables once while requesting to a neighbour to turn down the music, which is 3.4% of the total strategies used in these situations.

On the other hand by the results of table 6f, we can also analyse that the participants of Group C, remain indirect but they used the direct strategy Performatives only once while requesting to a friend. The use of the Performatives for situation four is 3.4% of all the strategies used in all the three situations. However the Query Preparatory is used more often by all the three groups while requesting to equals. This strategy is used 16 times (53.3%) by BNSE, seventeen times by the Pre CPH group and most commonly by the group B post-CPH which is total nineteen times (63.3%) of all the strategies used in this situation.

The second strategy which is widely used by all the three groups is Hedgr Performatives. It is used nine times by the BNSE (30%), seven times (23.3%) by the pre-CPH group. The Second group Post-CPH used this strategy eight times which is 26.6% of the total strategies used in this situation.

The third strategy which is equally used by both BNSE and Pre-CPH participants is Suggestory Formulas. Both group A and C used it 4 times which is 13.3% of the total number of strategies used in this situation. There is another similarity in group A and C They used Suggestory Formulas in situation 4 (requesting to a friend) and situation 5 (requesting for open the door) while the group B is quite

different in the use of Suggestory Formulas which is only once while requesting to the neighbour.

Group B (Post-CPH) and C (Pre-CPH) also show similarity when both groups completely avoided the use of Hints either Mild or Strong while requesting to equals. The Group A (BNSE) used strong hints once while requesting to the neighbour.

In the same way graphs also clearly represent similarities and differences in three groups. After analyzing the data presented in tables we can observe that there are more similarities in the groups rather than differences while requesting to equals. It is quite obvious by the results that the three groups rely on conventional indirect strategies such as Query Preparatives and Hedge Performatives while requesting to the people who are equal in status.

4.3 Request Strategies In Lower To Higher Relation

Group A British Native Speakers of English

Here are some examples of responses given by Group A from lower to higher ranking order.

Situation one states. You are watching a movie with your father, who is holding the remote control. You like a scene and you want to watch it again. How will you say to play it again?

- (i) *Father I would like to watch that scene again, could you reply it please?*
- (ii) *Dad, I must see that again do let me.*
- (iii) *That was good, could we watch that last bit again please.*

Situation two states. You are sitting in your supervisor's office and you need a pencil, unfortunately you do not have at that moment. How will you say/request to your supervisor to lend a pencil?

- (i) *I wonder I have missed my pencil, would you like to give me yours'.*
- (ii) *I would really thankful to you for giving me your pen, because I have forgot to bring mine.*
- (iii) *Jasper, it would be possible for you to give me your pencil for a moment as I have to sign it.*

Situation three states.You want to request to the Dean of your department to write you a recommendation letter. What would you say to the Dean?

- (i) *Excuse me Dr Julian, if possible write a recommendation letter for me. It would be a great assist for me?*
- (ii) *Would it be possible for you Doug to write a recommendation letter for me?*
- (iii) *I wonder if you can give me a recommendation letter, please.*

Table 7g Group A. Request strategies used by British native Speakers of English for (lower to higher ranking)

Strategy	Situation 1		Situation2		Situation3		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1 Mood Derivables	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2 Performatives	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3 Hedge Performative	2	20	1	10	2	20	5	16.6
4 Obligation Statement	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5 Want Statement	1	10	2	20	2	20	5	16.6
6 Query p Preparatory	4	40	3	30	3	30	10	33.4
7 Suggestory Formula	1	10	2	20	1	10	4	13.4

8	Strong Hint	1	10	1	10	1	10	3	10
	Mild Hint	1	10	1	10	1	10	3	10
9									
	Total	10	100	10	100	10	100	30	100

Group B Post- CHP L2 English Speakers

Situation 1. (You are watching a movie with your father).

- (i) *Father could you please rewind it/*
- (ii) *Dad, if you don't mind, can I see this scene again because I have missed something.*
- (iii) *Please could reverse that scene again I want to watch it again.*

Situation 2. (You are sitting in your supervisor's office and you need a pencil).

- (i) *Excuse me sir, please give me your pen for a minute.*
- (ii) *Sir if it is possible for you to give me your pen for some time as I have missed mine.*
- (iii) *Would you mind Sir giving me your pen?*

Situation 3. (You want to request to the Dean of your department to write you a recommendation letter).

- (i) *Could you write a recommendation letter for me Sir?*
- (ii) *Can I request you to write a recommendation letter for me? It will be great favour for me.*
- (iii) *It is possible for you Sir to give me a recommendation letter?*

Table 8 h. Request strategies used by Group B Post- CHP L2 English Speakers for
(lower to higher ranking)

Strategy	Situation 1		Situation2		Situation3		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1 Mood Derivables	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2 Performatives	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3 Hedge Performative	1	10	2	20	2	20	5	16.6
4 Obligation Statement	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5 Want statement	1	10	3	30	2	20	6	20
6 Query Preparatory	5	50	2	20	2	20	9	30
7 Suggestory Formula	1	10	1	10	2	20	4	13.4
8 Strong Hint	1	10	1	10	1	10	3	10
9 Mild Hint	1	10	1	10	1	10	3	10
Total	10	100	10	100	10	100	30	100

Group C Pre- CHP L2 English Speakers

Situation 1. (You are watching a movie with your father).

(i) *Dad, give me that remote please I want to watch the scene again.*

- (ii) *Dad, can you rewind please? I quite like the last scene.*
- (iii) *Father can you please rewind the movie so that I can watch that scene again?*

Situation 2. (You are sitting in your supervisor’s office and you need a pencil).

- (i) *Excuse me, professor, would you like to give me your pencil for a while mine is missed somewhere.*
- (ii) *I wonder I have lost my pencil, would I take your one to write it.*
- (iii) *Would you mind to giving me your pencil Sir....I am afraid I have missed mine?*

Situation 3. (You want to request to the Dean of your department to write you a recommendation letter).

- (i) *Excuse me Sir; I would like to ask if it is possible for you to write a recommendation letter for me. It will be quite helpful for me?*
- (ii) *Would it be easy for you to write a recommendation letter for me Joan?*
- (iii) *Sir, could you write a recommendation letter for me please?*

Table 9i .Request strategies used by Group C Pre- CHP L2 English Speakers for (lower to higher ranking)

Strategy	Situation 1		Situation2		Situation3		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1 Mood Derivables	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2 Performatives	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3 Hedge Performative	2	20	3	30	1	10	6	20
4 Obligation	0	0	0	0	1	10	1	3.4

Statement									
5	Want statement	1	10	2	20	3	30	6	20
6	Query Preparatory	7	70	5	50	2	20	14	46.6
7	Suggestory Formula	0	0	0	0	2	20	2	6.6
8	Strong Hint	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	Mild Hint	0	0	0	0	1	10	1	3.4
Total		10	100	10	100	10	100	30	100

From the results of table 7, 8 and 9, it can be generalized that the similarities and differences in all three groups in regard to lower to higher ranking relation. From the results of Table 7m, it can be noticed that the British native speakers of English used the most indirect strategies while requesting to the people higher in ranking; for instance, requesting to father to rewind the movie, to ask the supervisor for a pencil and to request to the Dean for recommendation letter. They used 7 times more indirect strategies such as Query-P, Suggestory- F, and Mild Hint, which is 70% of the total number of strategies used in these situations.

Through the responses generated by the BNSE it can be noticed that they are more indirect in requesting to the higher counterparts when they are on lower status.

The results of table 8 o and 9q represent the Post-critical period hypotheses speakers of English and Pre-CPH English L2 speakers, also used indirect strategies such as Query Preparatory, Hedge Performatives and Suggestory Formulas while requesting in all the relevant situations.

Groups A and C are similar groups. They did not use direct request strategies such as Mood Derivables and Performatives to request the persons in higher ranking. Another similarity can be observed in the Group A and C. They totally avoid using the Obligation Statements in all the three situations. Both Groups used the most indirect request strategy such as Query Preparatories relatively 33.4% and 30%. These (both) groups are similar while using the indirect strategies in the form of Suggestory Formulas and Hedge Performatives which goes equally for both as 13.4% and 16.6%. They go side by side in the use of Hints such as Mild or Strong with the frequency of 3.

However the Group B, Post-CPH participants remained equal to group A and C while totally avoiding the most direct request strategies such as *Mood Derivables* and *Performatives*. On the other hand the participants of Group B remained direct while using the *Obligation Statement* 3.4% (requesting to a Dean for letter) and *Want Statement* 20% (in requesting to father for remote and requesting to Dean for letter). On the other side, they used most indirect request strategies such as *Query Preparatory* which is 46.6% of the total request strategies used in all three situations.

From the overall analysis of tables and graphs we can notice interesting facts about request strategies that all participants of group A, B and C remained indirect while dealing with the persons of higher status. Particularly the group A and C are more similar in all situations while selecting the appropriate strategies for requesting.

5. Discussion

The data show that the BNSE are indirect in the use of request strategies on all situations: Higher to lower; Equal to equal, and Lower to higher as comparative to the Pre-CPH and Post-CPH groups. These finding replicates that of Blume Kulka, House and Kasper (1989), Fukishima (1996) and Umer (2004).

5.1 The Pre-Critical Period Hypothesis L2 English Speaker

In general, the responses of the Pre-CPH show that they are very similar to the BNSE in performing of request strategies. This is a clear indication that they have learned the appropriate use of the target language pragmatics in term of use of request strategies. Their learning

of pragmatics competence shows that the Critical Period Hypothesis plays an important role in learning of pragmatic competence in the use of request strategies.

4.4 The Post-Critical Period Hypothesis L2 English Speaker

The responses of the Post- Critical Period Hypothesis of L2 English Speakers show that they tend to use direct strategies. Although some of the responses bring them to the level of indirectness in the use of request strategies. This is again an indication of the cultural influence. By the profiles of Post-CPH L2 English participants it is revealed that they have been living in the UK (L1 English setting) for minimum 4 years. The 4 years' period gave them enough input to be indirect in the use of the request strategies. On the other hand, it is interesting to note that learning of pragmatics appears to be more culture specific. As it is found that the Post-Critical Period Hypothesis L2 English speakers used such request strategies which are closer to L1 Urdu setting. They have spent a major part of their lives in L1 Urdu setting.

Many L1 English speaker are to found complaining that most of the L2 speakers of English appear to be rude and impolite, because they request in a direct way. In some cases lack of pragmatics competence can be a cause of break down between the individuals and communities. Lack of pragmatics competence makes it difficult for learners to actively participate in second language setting. It also becomes a reason of breakdown in communication between two persons or communities, if required strategies are not used in common conducts such as, requesting for help, asking for leave, ordering for something, etc. The present study in one way provides solution that how pragmatics can be learnt. Otherwise many researchers, e.g. Rintell, (1981); Blum-Kulka, (1982, 1983); El-Shazly, (1993); Alammari, (2000); Novick, (2000); Bajoudah, (2002), have found that even after attaining high level of language competence and command over target language, the second language (L2) learners remain unsuccessful to communicate in particular (given) situations. Hence, it is important for L2 learners to acquire pragmatic competence along with grammatical knowledge and text organization in target language.

To sum up the discussion, it is summarised that the present study found that the British native speakers of English use the indirect

request strategies and the Post-critical Period Hypothesis L2 English Speakers use direct strategies. On the other hand, the Pre-critical Period Hypothesis L2 Speakers are found to be indirect like their British native Speakers of English counterparts. The current study also validates the hypothesis that the L2 learners who have been exposed to the target language before puberty acquire the target language pragmatics competence. But after puberty it appears a challenge for the L2 learners.

5.2 Cultural and pragmatics

By the data it appears that pragmatics competence in the use of request strategies is more cultural specific than linguistics. Different cultures may have some particular preferences in using request strategies. Culture appears to be highly influencing factor in the use of request strategies, as Wierzbicka (1985) argued that the difference between English and Polish in the use of request strategies is due the cultural norms present in the respective communities. For example, English request strategies mainly depend on the use of interrogative, and avoid the use of bare imperatives to a great extent. And Polish would hardly ever use interrogatives to convey request. Interrogative in Polish is largely connected with antagonism and isolation. Another interesting point is revealed by him that inquiring about the addressee's desires to do something such as: *'would you like to..?'* or *'do you want to..?'* appears awkward in Polish culture . But the English people see such formulas as polite social devices that allow options for the addressee to decline or to accomplish the task.

While L1 Urdu language culture normally does not allow the use of request strategies like L1 English cultural norms. It presents three different options to the requester. So the requester is allowed to select the request strategy according to the ranking of the requestee. For instance, in a single situation a requester may use three strategies such as: to ask a younger sister to open the window, to ask a friend to open the window and to ask a father to open a window. On each situation the requester has to switch into a different strategy, due to the culture norms. The Easter culture view it as proper to the direct with the younger sister to ask her to open the window, so in that case the request strategy would be direct. In case of a friend there will be direct request, because if an indirect request is involved, it will indicate that

there is distance or gap between the relations of two friends. The more you are closer the more you are direct in requesting. On the third position, the requester would use indirect strategy to ask father to open the window, because the Eastern culture gives extraordinary status to the father. So a direct request to the father will be considered as highly disrespect. So, it is concluded that the request strategies might be based on the cultural norm that exist and is acceptable in a community. The strategies differ culture to culture and community to community.

As it is mentioned above that English people tend to use interrogatives. This phenomenon can be interpreted in another way, because English speakers are found to be more argumentative in speech. Each request provides the requestee an argument to do the particular task. In a way the requestee finds himself/herself bound to act upon the required task. So the illocutionary force is within the request. While on the other hand in L1 Urdu language culture the requester's force is not in the request or the uttered 'phrase' but into his own personality. He or she wants to be obeyed. This difference in the use of illocutionary force makes them use different request strategies.

In L2 Urdu setting the use of a particular strategy is based on the relationship between requester and the requestee, the ranking of the requester. In L2 Urdu culture, the status and rank of the requester can be determined by the request. In some cases it is thought that the mutual relationship between two persons is very deep therefore, they need not to use any indirect strategy.

6. Conclusion

The findings of the present study conclude that the BNSE have shown a great tendency to choose indirect strategies in performing requests in all situations, which also replicate the finding of Blume kulka. It was also found that the Pre-CPH group showed a similar tendency to the BNSE counterparts in all given situations. Therefore, the Post-CPH group was inclined to the use of direct strategies. Therefore the present study confirms the hypothesis that the pragmatics competence is acquired if a foreign language is learned before puberty.

6.1 Limitation and possible solutions

It is not always easy to investigate a research question in pragmatics like the question that has been explored in the present study. Age factor in language acquisition is a controversial issue and to relate it with the learning of pragmatics competence is in fact a challenge. A young learner before puberty or even after puberty might not be aware of the learning of pragmatics competence in the target language. It is also very difficult to determine that whether learning of pragmatics is language specific or culture specific.

Though, it has been tried to avoid any error, there are a few limitations in this study. This is very limited study, and covers a small number of participants. It will be more interesting to see the same question on a wider scale.

Because the participants were asked to write the answers, which might influence the natural responses of the participants. They might think or contemplate to answer, which makes them direct or indirect in production of responses. It would be more proper if their responses were recorded or they were videotaped in their normal discourse on different situations.

6.2 Further questions and directions

The present study leads to some further directions which might be interesting to the researcher of the pragmatics,:

- I. There may be gender based differences in the use of request strategies.
- II. In a male dominant society, the question of use of request strategies will be interesting to investigate.
- III. The critical period hypothesis can also give us an insight to understand the question of learning of the pragmatics competence in young learners.

By the present study it is found that in acquisition of pragmatics competence the critical period hypothesis plays a vital role. The child L2 starters (pre-CHP) have shown similar performance in request strategies of the British native speakers of English. Whereas, the adult learners are found less similar to the target group. It has also been found that L2 setting also plays a crucial role in learning of pragmatic

competence. The similarity between BNSE and Pre-CHP shows the influence of the target language setting.

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Cross linguistic variation in the gestures accompanying manner of motion event descriptions by native speakers of English and Urdu

Muzaffar Hussain

Abstract

In recent decades, there is a substantial amount of literature, which has been dedicated to indicate the relationship between gestures and language. Gestures are planned unconsciously together in speech production, and where languages differ in the way they syntactically encode similar meanings, accompanying gestures will differ too. Typologically, Urdu and English are two different languages in encoding of manner of motion events to goal. The present study investigates the gestural difference between L1 Urdu and L1 English speakers in the representation of manner of motion event to goal. The data was collected from an equal number of native Urdu and English participants. It was found that L1 Urdu speakers use two separate verbs to encode manner of motion events, one for manner and other for motion. Similarly they produced two separate linguistically related representative gestures for manner and motion, while L1 English speakers used one verb, and a satellite phrase and produced one synchronised gesture to encode manner of motion event. The study concludes that languages not only differ in their preferred patterns of syntactic structures, but in the representation of linguistically related gestures too.

Keywords: *goal, manner, motion-event, synchronised gesture, verb-framed, satellite-framed.*

1. Introduction

Gesture seems to be an essential and dominant part of human communication. Of specific interest to the present study is the fact that some gestures appear to be synchronised with specific properties of verbal message. Gestures reflect and complement the verbal message (McNeill, 1992, Gullberg, 2003; Kellerman & van Hoof, 2003). One linguistic property and the accompanying gestures that have been

investigated in recent research is the expression of manner of motion to goal, as illustrated in (i),

- i. *Ali ran across the bridge.*

Languages differ in the way that such events can be expressed. While English can express them through a verb describing manner of motion followed by a prepositional phrase that expresses direction, Urdu (and a number of other languages: French, Spanish, Turkish, Japanese) express them through a verb that describes the direction of movement (the path) and a complement that expresses manner of motion for example,

- ii. *Ali nay dor kar pull ko par kia.*

Ali (particle) while/by running bridge (particle) across (past).

Ali crossed the bridge while running.

It has been found that the two types of construction are accompanied by two different kinds of non verbal gestures. In the English case, speakers typically signal motion and direction simultaneously in a single synchronised gesture, while in languages that express manner of motion to goal as in (ii) speakers typically have independent gestures for direction and motion (Gullberg 2010, Kita & Özyürek, 2003).

1.2 Background on Gesture Studies

Gestures have been a topic of interest in studies of communication for centuries. The early studies viewed gestures as a significant and useful component in rhetorical discourse (Kendon, 1982). For example, Bulwer (1644) advocated the use of gestures to make speech more eloquent, effective, meaningful and comprehensible. Today, many researchers are interested in finding out the possible relationship between gestures and communication. Kendon (1982) has investigated many aspects of gestures. He describes how gestures are conventionalised, integration of gesture and speech, and how gestures may provide a window for understanding the question of evolution of language. The theory about how gesture and speech are part of a single thought process is developed by McNeill (1992, 2006). Moreover researchers have argued that speakers use language and gesture as an integrated ensemble to negotiate a single contribution to conversation to

express a single thought (McNeill, 1992, Engle, 2000, Kendon, 2004 cited in Lascarides, A. and M. Stone [2009]). It is also assumed that gestures offer an opportunity to look into an individual's mental representation and cognitive skills (e.g., Goldin-Meadow, Nusbaum, Kelly & Wagner, 2001; Iverson & Goldin-Meadow, 1998; McNeill, 1992; Nicoladis, Mayberry & Genesee, 1999).

Gestures are the visible movements which speakers employ during communication. They are understood as body movements, eye movements, head nodding, bowing, hand movements, punching, walking, etc. For speakers, these gestures unconsciously accompany speech (though there might be a conscious reason which is not yet explored) and not only enhance the comprehensibility of speech, but also help the listener to create an image schema of the meaning. Kendon (2004) defines gestures as a form of non-verbal communication in which visible bodily actions communicate particular messages, either in place of speech or together and in parallel with spoken words. Gestures are also known as “*symbolic movements*

recognised as communicatively relevant by onlookers that accompany speech”, Gullberg (2010, p75).

There is limited research on the magnitude of the contribution of gestures in communication, yet generally it is believed that they play an important role in communication (Krauss, 1999). Gestures are important because they provide information. As Kendon (1994) concludes that the gestures that people produce when they talk do play a part in communication and they do provide information to co-participants about the semantic content of the utterances, although there clearly is variation about when and how they do so, (p. 192).

1.3 Gesture as the First Form of Communication

Today many researchers believe that gestures were the first form of communication in primitive human beings. Soon after the publication of Darwin's *Origin of Species* in 1859, researchers began to speculate that human language might have been the result of long evolutionary history, like human beings themselves. Hewes (1973) suggests that the first form of human language must have been gestural. To fulfil their communication needs these early humans may have used hand and

arms to convey messages, to describe the different objects and incidents. McNeill, (1985) suggests that primitive man used hands and arms as means of communication.

The similar view has also been argued by Corballis, (2003) who suggests that because the vocal communication in primates was largely affective in nature and with little voluntary control, language is likely to have emerged from manual gestures rather than primate calls. It is also regarded that the shift from gesture to vocal languages is the result of the increase in the use of tools for hunting and fighting, which caused conflicts in employing gestures, Corballis, (2003) and it is also understood that the recruitment of vocalisation through associations between gesture and sound, (Arbib, 2002 see also MacNeilage *et al* (1998) suggest that the close connection between manual gesture and a subsequently evolved sophisticated ability for vocalisation (in the form of speech) is furthermore suggested to have left us with the uniquely human characteristic of right handedness.

The idea that gestures as the primitive human languages has been supported by two arguments. (i) Gestural and vocal languages both depend on the same neural systems. The regions on the cortex that are responsible for mouth and hand movements border each other. (ii) It is also believed that non-human primates use gestures or symbolic movements for communication, and some of their gestures resemble the human gestures. In recent times, for instance, non-human gestures have been studied and it is found that among 66 frequent gestures that chimpanzees used to communicate with each other, at least 30 gestures are like human gestures which are used to pass the same message (Hobaiter, 2011).

For instance, in recent times the non-human gestures have been studied and it is found the chimpanzees which are genetically the closest relatives of human beings, use 66 recognised gestures to communicate with one another and most interestingly there are some gestures which are similar to the gestures which human beings employ, not only in shape but also in meanings. These studies support the idea that gesture sometime had been the form of communication. Finally, Hobaiter, (2011) asserts that, the discovery of the recognised gestures among apes supports our belief that the gestures that apes use (and maybe some

human gestures too) are derived from ancient shared ancestry of all the great ape species alive today. See for details- Hobaiter, & Byrne, (2011).

1.4 The Role Gestures Play in Speech Production

To express action and motion, we use speech and produce spontaneous gestures that articulate the spatial aspects of the content of our talk, (Kita, *et al*, 2007). In speech production, gestures are well coordinated with verbal utterances both informationally and temporally (e.g., Butterworth & Beattie, 1978; Kendon, 1980; McNeill, 1992). A speaker, for instance, produces an utterance, *he was rolling*. He may simultaneously by drawing circles with his hand or index finger to represent *rolling* describes the action of rolling, and the temporal coordination may also be observed by the fact that in stutterers, gestures are interrupted along with speech, (Kita, *et al*, 2007, Mayberry & Jaques, 2000). It is also found that there is a systematic relationship between early language development in children and their gestures. Children systematically coordinate the contents of speech and gesture in the one- and two-word stages (e.g., Goldin-Meadow & Butcher, 2003; Co-speech gestures are resilient features of human ontogenesis, which are supposed to develop with minimal or no visual input, (Iverson & Goldin-Meadow, 1998), as born blind individuals produce such gestures. It has also been found that speakers often gesture spontaneously, when there is no listener (or audience), it shows that there might be a processing link between speaking and gesturing (e.g., on the intercom, with a blind listener, Iverson & Goldin-Meadow, 1998). The use or lack of gesturing may influence speaking. Bernardis & Gentullici (2006) assert that the command to execute a meaningful gesture changes the sound spectra of a word that has the same speech and gesture meaning but not of a meaningless word. Gestures appear to be an integral part of speech. A speaker becomes less fluent, when s/he is forbidden gesturing, (Rauscher, Krauss, & Chen, 1996). By these studies we may conclude, what McNeill (1985) asserts that speech and

gesture production processes share a common computational stage (McNeill, 1985).

1.5 An Overview and Definition of Gesture

The definition of gesture that will be assumed in the present study is: the visible movements of body that have some communicative intent. Gestures include movements of the hands and head, and whole body movements like bowing and walking. They can be used instead of verbal communication, or as an accompaniment to verbal communication. Kendon (2004) offers the following taxonomy of gesture types:

- (i) Emblems are conventionalised forms of gestures, with stable meanings, that can be used independently of verbal communication. He cites examples like waving the hand to say hello or giving the thumbs up sign to show approval. Emblems are the equivalent of words in spoken language or signs in sign language.
- (ii) Iconic gestures describe certain aspects of an object or event. For example a speaker could accompany a verbal reference to a rainbow by tracing an arc in the air with arm or fingers. Unlike emblems, iconic gestures cannot be understood independently from a verbal message. An arc traced in the air is consistent with a range of curved objects/events, not just rainbows (a dome, the hump of a camel, the flight of a soccer ball, the rise and fall of a civilization, and so on).
- (iii) Metaphoric gestures are a subtype of iconic gestures that represent abstract ideas. To explain an idea these gestures may be either specific shapes such as finger pinches and physical shaping or more waving of hands that represent the complexity of the idea that is being explained.
- (iv) Deictic gestures refer to objects or locations in physical or conceptual space, and mostly accompany deictic language. For example, a customer telling a sales assistant in the donut shop that he wants *that donut* may not yield the desired result unless the spoken phrase is combined with a gesture pointing to the pastry he has his eye on. Deictic gestures may convey aspects of a speaker's meaning that are difficult to express in words.

- (v) Beat gestures are understood as carrying no meaning. Often speakers accompany speech with simple motions of the arm, hand, fingers that are timed with prosodic peaks in speech. The cognitive and communicative functions of beats are not well understood. Some beats appear to add emphasis to ideas expressed in speech, others to serve discourse functions, and others to reveal the speaker's emotional state.

The focus in the present study is iconic gestures, those symbolic movements [that accompany speech] recognised as communicatively relevant by onlookers (Gullberg 2010: 75), and in particular those that are linked to and offer insight into the underlying structural and semantic representations of language (Gullberg 2003, Kellerman and van Hoof 2003). For example, a number of recent studies have shown that where languages differ in the way they express motion events syntactically, they also differ in the form of the iconic gestures that accompany the utterance. English can describe an event where a round object goes from the top to the bottom of an incline as *the ball rolls down the hill*. Turkish, by contrast, would describe the same event as *the ball descends the hill rolling*. The iconic gestures that accompany these descriptions in the two languages are different. English speakers typically use a gesture that simultaneously describes the rolling motion of the ball and its descent. In Turkish, two separate gestures are typically used, a gesture describing the descent of the ball followed by a gesture indicating the rolling motion.

1.6 Verb-Framed Languages and Satellite Framed Languages

Talmy (1985) proposed that languages may be divided into two categories by their preferred patterns of lexicalization to encode motion events: verb-framed languages and satellite-framed languages.

The components of meaning that are required to understand these patterns of lexicalization are, according to Talmy:

- (i) the figure, It is the subject that moves, (e.g., a person, animal, or inanimate object).
- (ii) the path, where the figure moves relative to its external border of reference, such as into, onto, or across something.

- (iii) the manner, it tells how the figure moves, such as jogging , sprinting , rolling or running .
- (iv) the ground, it is an entity which serves as a landmark for determining the path, like the source or the goal of motion,(to cross the bridge in the example).

1.6.1 Verb-Framed Languages

In verb-framed languages, like French or Spanish, the path of the motion event is usually encoded in the main verb and, if the manner of motion is encoded, it is in a dependent verb. By this assumption we see that Urdu is a verb-frame language, which encodes the motion event into main verb and describes the manner into another sub-ordinate clause. For instances,

- (i) Ali nay door kar pul ko par keya.
Ali (part) ran (part) bridge (part) across (past)
Ali crossed the bridge while running.
- (ii) Ahmad any kanptay hoay talab me chalang lagai.
Ahmad (part) trembling (part) pool into jumped.
Ahmad jumped into the pool while trembling.

By these examples, we see that Urdu speakers use main verb for the motion event and for the manner they use another clause. (e.g. (i) crossed and running (ii) jumped and trembling.

1.6.2 Satellite-Framed Languages

In satellite-framed languages, such as: English or Chinese, the manner of motion is usually encoded in the main verb while the path of motion is encoded in a satellite phrase, for instance,

- (iii) He sprinted into the shop.
- (v) She ran out.

In these examples, the main verb gives the meaning of motion and manner, e.g. (iii) sprinted and satellite phrase “into the shop” and (iv) ran main verb and satellite phrase “out”.

Özçaliskan & Slobin, (2000) have asserted that the speakers of satellite-framed languages use more manner verbs than speakers of verb-framed languages. The studies of (Berman & Slobin, 1994) show that young English speakers are inclined to encode path (in satellites) quite early, often with neutral verb of motion (like ran out) and later encode manner. Both the speakers of Verb-framed languages and satellite-framed languages encode motion event in different ways. Satellite framed language speakers use more manner path gestures than verb framed languages. While on the other hand the speaker of verb framed languages use more gestures in encoding manner only and path only than speakers of satellite framed languages, (Kita & Özyürek 2003). The difference in lexicalization patterns in these two categories of languages, verb framed and satellite language, show Crosse linguistic difference in gestures use. This may also support the idea that the emergence of gestures reflects the way speech is organized for production (McNeill, 1992).

2. Recent Studies of Iconic Gesture

Studies of gesture in recent years have looked at specific cases where iconic gestures accompany particular kinds of linguistic construction used in speech. One such construction that has received considerable attention (and will be the focus in the present study) is the expression of manner of motion events. To understand this work, it is important first to understand the linguistic properties involved. In recent decades the studies on co-speech gestures have been given much attention (for reviews see Goldin-Meadow, 2004; Kendon, 2004; McNeill, 2000b, 2005). In the present era, the invention of audio-visual instruments have enabled researchers to study the morphology and interactive delicacy of gesture in detail, and has led to this subject becoming a new branch of enquiry, and more or less a qualitatively new aspect of what has been an ancient preoccupation of students of human communication. They have also begun to look into the gestures about how an individual's bodily movements contribute to communicative practices more generally, and how they enter into interaction between individual and with their environment (Haviland 2005). Gestures have been studied from different perspectives. Recent research suggests that gestures provide an additional window through which L1 influence on L2 can be

observed particularly in cases where speech sounds are target like, (Kellerman & van Hoof, 2003; Yoshioka & Kellerman, 2006).

Different gestural representation is another interesting topic in communication studies. The recent studies have shown that structural differences in spoken languages may have consequences for differences in how gestures are employed by communicators.

Almost all studies to see gestural encoding of motion events were conducted on the methodology of McNeill (1992). In which the participants were shown a film, an animated cartoon, and they were requested to re-tell the story to another person who has not watched the film. This methodology gives an advantage to the researchers to explore the speaker's description and their use of gestures. The most prominent studies have been published by McNeill and Duncan (2000) and Kita and Özyürek, 2003, and Gullberg (2010) followed by the methodology of McNeill (1992). These studies compare languages such as, English (all North American) Spanish, and Mandarin (McNeill and Duncan) and English and Japanese and Turkish (Kita and Özyürek, 2003). These studies try to investigate the question whether the grammatical structures and semantic categories provided by a specific language influence how speakers of that particular language use gestures when speaking, Kendon, (2004). McNeill (1992) and his colleagues were using a typology of Talmy, (1985) who compares languages according to the semantic components of motion events (i.e. something moves from one place to another, how it does so, and the path it dose takes through space) are packaged linguistically. He made distinction between languages by the motion verbs in a language how it can incorporate information about in the path of movement and language in which path information is given by verb satellite (particles and prepositions) not like that of verb-framed and satellite-framed languages. Moreover, he suggests that languages differ in whether verbs of motion incorporate manner of motion or whether manner must be described by a more detailed construction (e. g adverbial phrase). Once we are convinced that languages differ in this way, the important question is to see if the speakers of these languages use different gesture's in describing a motion event. The speakers of satellite framed languages while expressing a motion event used one gestures to express motion and manner. While on the other hand, the speakers of verb-

framed language in expressing a motion event used two gestures, one for motion and one for manner.

McNeill and Duncan (2004) conducted a study to compare English and Spanish languages and how the speakers encode motion events in gestures. The participants had to describe a scene from an animated cartoon (Sylvester and Tweety Bird), they used the particular scene as stimuli when the cat is pushed rapidly down a drained pipe from the top of a building by a bowling ball, which he swallowed, when the cat comes out of the drained pipe, his shape was like a ball. So he rolled across the road quickly and into a bowling alley opposite. Such events in English can be expressed as, *He rolls across the street*. The English speaker would express the motion event, and manner of cat's motion. While on the other hand Spanish speaker describes the same event with two separate clauses, one for motion and one for path.

McNeill & Duncan (2000) discovered that the speakers of English language described the particular scene by using a verb that incorporates the manner of Sylvester's movements. When they accompany gestures they normally express manner of motion, but in some cases they just show the path. The description of manner and path in the gestures depends on the depicted scene. Spanish speakers use two different gestures, one for manner and other for path. The Spanish speakers are required to work syntactically more than English speakers. It appears, as if the Spanish speakers use more gestures to enrich certain aspects of their description, because to do this verbally requires more work than it does in English (Kendon, 2004).

Another study conducted by Kita and Özyürek (2003) in which they compare English, Japanese and Turkish to describe another scene from the same animated cartoon. In this scene, Sylvester moves from one side of the street to the other by hanging on the end of a rope and swinging across. To the English speakers, it is easy to encode this scene by using *swing* verb. He may say *He swinging himself on a rope across the street from one building to another*. It is assumed that the verb *swing* when used in such contexts gives a meaning of an arc-like shape path of movement. While in Japanese and Turkish there is no verb which incorporates an arc-like movement path. It was found that all the English participants used an arc-like gesture, whereas five of the

seventeen Turkish speakers and five of the fifteen Japanese speakers used only a horizontal gesture as part of their description. Some participants in this study used the arc gestures and some used straight gestures. The speakers of English used an arc like gesture, while several speakers of Japanese and Turkish used only horizontal gesture. Kita and Özyürek (2003) by this study conclude that because in Japanese and Turkish the arc like path is not a part of the verb used to refer to the transit of the character from one tall building to the other, this path is less likely to be present in how the event is described linguistically, and so is less likely to be represented in any associated gestures. The semantic features of the different languages have an influence in what is displayed in gestures.

Kita and Özyürek (2003) have also conducted a study to compare the description of the event in which Sylvester rounds like a ball because he has swallowed the ball, and rolls down a street. It is easy for English speakers to express the event in a single clause: *He rolled down the street*. In this sentence the motion and manner are incorporated in single clause, while the path is described in a prepositional phrase *down the street*. The Japanese and Turkish speakers are more likely to use two different clauses to describe manner of motion and another for describing motion's path. The English speakers used one gestures to encode the same event, while Japanese and Turkish speakers used two gestures, one for motion and one for manner.

McNeill and Duncan (2000) have also found that linguistic structure may also influence the expression how motion events are gesturally encoded. By a comparison of English and Mandarin Chinese speakers, when they are asked to describes the same scene from the animated cartoon Sylvester and Tweetie Bird. Mandarin Chinese speaker, which has a large lexicon of motion verb that also incorporate manner, do not use gestures in motion event describing as a way of adding as expression of manner not mentioned in the verb. However, Mandarin speakers differ from English speakers, in contrast, as likely to place gestures that depicts as action at the head of the phrase even though, in words, only the topic of the sentence has been announced. In the example given a speaker says,

(iii) *lao tai-taina-ge da bang hao-xiang gei to da-xia*

Old lady hold big stick seem cause him hit down. (*Literal translation*)

The old lady apparently knocked him down with a big stick. (*Free translation*)

As the speaker says *bang hao* (big stick) she performs a knock down gestures while, no gesture is used when she gets to the verb. According to McNeill and Duncan, following Li and Thompson (1976) the Mandarin topic is placed at the head of a unit of discourse, in this way limiting the range of things to which subsequent prediction can apply. Evidently this tendency in Mandarin affects the placement of gestures as well. McNeill and Duncan write, it is as if the gestures shifts forward in the surface speech stream in the direction of the utterance initial position characteristics of topic statement in Chinese speech, (p.152).

Thus, in recent decades the important finding is the existence of cross-linguistic variation in gesture systems (e.g., Haviland, 1993; Kita, Danziger, & Stolz, 2001; Kita & Özyürek 2003; Wilkins, 2003). Kita and Özyürek, (2003) found that motion events are systematically structured in different languages and these languages differ from each other by encoding of motion events. Motion event is a difficult area for language learners, because they have to acquire the relevant lexical items and how to package them in syntactically appropriate ways. In the domain of motion events, cross-linguistic differences have been found in both speech (Talmy, 1991; Slobin, 1996) and gesture (Kita & Özyürek, 2003).

Özyürek, (2002), asserts that this might be a problematic for learners of English to acquire since, *the ball rolls down* (Satellite-framed) and *the ball descends while rolling* (Verb-framed) are equally grammatical, but the former is more typical.

3. Methodology:

3.1 Research question

(i) Will Urdu, as a verb-framed language, encode manner of motion to goal events differently from English, and will accompanying gestures also differ?

The present study will also adopt the methodology of McNeill (1992) (which now seems to be a convention in gestural studies), with some

alteration which have been made to suit the purpose such as: (i) the participants will watch one scenes from Shakespearian play, (ii) moreover the participant will re-tell the story to the researcher, instead of anyone who has not watched it, (iii) one scene is selected, depicting motion events to a goal, instead of the animated cartoons depicting events like *rolling*.

3.2 Participants

3.2.1 Group A L1 English

In this group 5 English L1speakers are included. 4 participants are British and one of them is American. Their ages ranged between 40 to 70. All British participants are monolinguals.

3.2.2 Group B L2 Urdu

There are 5 Urdu speakers also taking part in this study. Participants are both male and female. They are university students. Their ages are between 30 to 45. They are bilinguals. Urdu is their mother tongue and they have learned English as L2. In this study they re-tell the stories in Urdu.

3.3 Materials

For this study, 1 clip has been selected for detailed analysis of the motion events to goal, in which a character performs a motion and manner event together. The participants were asked to watch this clip carefully because they have to retell the story. This clip have been trimmed from the original plays to suit the study and to present the participants the relevant part of the plays.

The clip is a BBC's animated video of Shakespeare's (1610-11) play *The Winter's Tale*, Act IV Scene iii. Autolycus who after robbing Clown crossed the bridge, singing and dancing. The participants were asked to describe this scene. They were asked again if they missed the motion and manner of the character in their stories. (See Fig. 1 and 2).

Fig 1



Fig 2



3.4 Instruction and Data Collection

The participants were asked to watch this clip carefully, because they have to retell the story. They watched this clip and re-told the story meanwhile they would be video-taped. They were not given any instruction about the use of gestures; they were requested to behave normally and naturally. Some of the participants were puzzled before camera; therefore, they were asked few warm up questions and introduction to make them relax. Once, they start to narrate the story they were not interrupted. During description of the stories they were not asked any questions, but if they did not describe the particular scene properly they were asked some round questions to describe the scene again, unless they produced the gesture or not. The data is collected in the psycholinguistics lab of University of Essex. The participants were arranged to sit in a proper light so that their gestural responses may easily be video-recorded.

3.5 Coding

Though the participants produced many gestures, however only *iconic* gestures related to motion events to goal are analysed. In this study the gestures depicting motion events to goal are categorised into following types: (A methodology adopted from Kita and his colleagues. To represent the iconic gestures the previous symbols used by Kita have been modified.

3.5.1 Path only

The path only gesture shows the change of location of figure against some ground without depicting in any way (e.g. a hand with index figure extending, rise up). The path gesture is represented as in the Fig.3

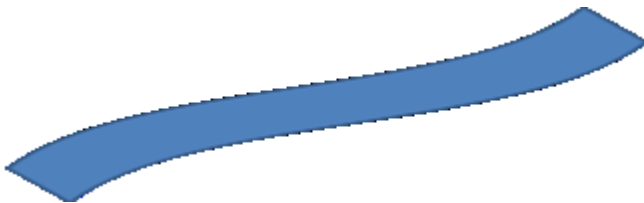


Fig. 3

3.5.2 Manner only

The manner only gesture expresses an aspect of manner of motion with no indication of a change in location of a moving figure (e.g. both hands rotate in one position to indicate a

rolling motion). See Fig 4

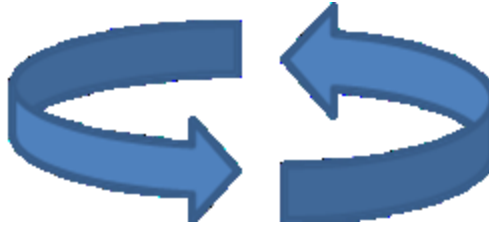


Fig.4

3.5.3 Path and Manner Conflating

The simultaneous gesturing of manner and path are indicated by a conflation of the notation for path and the notation for manner of motion, as shown in figure 5. The gesture, this notation represents is, for example, both hands alternately flapping and rising up to show a flying motion in an upward trajectory. See Fig 5

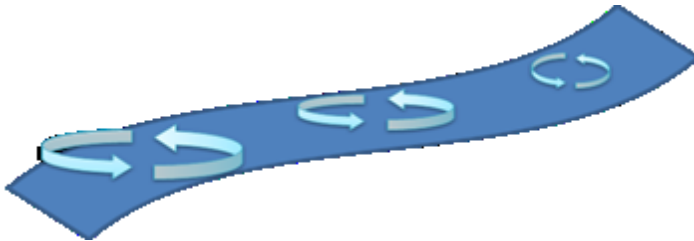


Fig 5

3.6 Advance Summary of Findings

The present study found that Urdu and English are not only different in syntactical construction of the manner of motion events but also they differ in representation of these events. English describes manner of

motion event in the main verb and for path a satellite phrase is used. Urdu expresses the same event in two different clauses, one for manner and the other for motion. As predicted before, we see that Urdu speakers encode manner and path in two different clauses; similarly they produce two separate gestures, one for manner of motion and one for path. Similarly the English speakers also behave as predicted before, they encode the manner of motion event to goal in one clause and one manner and path conflated gesture. The present study also suggests that with the change of preference in encoding of motion events, the gestural representation also changes.

3.6.1 Group A L1 English

Crossing event

The English participants syntactically encode the *crossing* event into single clause, accompanying manner and path conflated gesture. They used different verbs to describe the target event e.g.

- i. *He danced over the bridge.*
- ii. *He hops over the bridge.*

They encoded the manner of motion verbs such as *dance*, *hop* and for path they used *over*. It can be seen that all L1English participant (10/10) participants produced manner and path conflated gestures.

3.6.2 Group B L1 Urdu

Crossing event

All Urdu speakers described in speech the crossing event in two separate clauses and they also produced two separate manner and path gestures, e.g.

- i. *(wo) khushi say o chalta ,nachta howa pull cross kr gea.*

Happily (part) tossing, dancing (part) bridge cross (past).

Happily he crossed the bridge dancing while tossing (the money).

It was expected two separate gestures one for manner and one path only from the all L1 Urdu speakers, which they did in re-telling the story. Thus, 10/10 participants produced separate gestures to describe the manner of motion events to goal.



Table A

Participants	Path only	Manner only	Path and Manner conflating
Group A	0	0	100%
Group B	100%	100%	0%

The table A shows in a simple way the result in percentages. All the English native speakers produced synchronised gestures for path and manner. Conversely, all native Urdu speakers used two separate

gestures, one for manner and one for path; therefore, they did not produce any synchronised gestures.

4. Discussion

Gestures accompanying manner of motion event descriptions used by native speakers of Urdu and English

The video clip which was shown to the participants contains concurrent manner of motion and path event, and the gestural representation of the target event by both of L1 Urdu and L1 English speakers show a clear line of cross-linguistics variation in English and Urdu in gestural representation of the target events (English as satellite framed language and Urdu as verb framed language). Both languages are found to be different not only in encoding of the target events in syntactical structures but also in the representation of iconic gestures. L1English speakers express motion event in the main verb and for path they use a satellite phrase, while L1Urdu speakers on the other hand in the description of motion event to goal used such syntactic constructions where they employ two different clauses, one for manner of motion and one path or trajectory.

The participants of L1 English group produced 10 manner and path conflated gestures, while the participants of L1 Urdu produced 10 manner of motion only and 10 path only gestures (each participant was producing two gestures one for manner of motion only and one for trajectory /path only). This indicates that there exists a crucial difference between these two languages in the representation of the manner of motion events. It is supposed that this difference might be viewed in more lucid way if the same study would have been carried out on a large scale. Thus by results of the present study, it might be argued that one of the findings, in the context of Urdu and English, is the existence of cross-linguistic variation in the production of iconic gestures. The language we speak influences the contents of iconic gestures; in this reference it can be seen that the early assumption was that the iconic gestures for the same event are similar cross-linguistically. McNeill (1992) showed by comparing iconic gestures produced by speakers of Georgian, Swahili, and Mandarin Chinese and English. He found these results after making his participants to watch an animated cartoon. He suggests that the important point about iconic

gestures is their (participant) high degree of cross-linguistic resemblance. In a same content, similar gestures may appear along with linguistic segments of an equivalent type, despite the major lexical and grammatical differences among the languages. He concludes that this resemblance suggests that the gesture emerges at a level where utterances in different languages have a common starting point thought, memory, and imagery (McNeill, 1992, pp. 221–222 cited in Kita and Özyürek, 2003). Nevertheless, later his own work (McNeill, 2000; McNeill & Duncan, 2000) and other work (Müller, 1998) revealed that iconic gestures can vary cross-linguistically. In this context it is observed that Urdu and English encode the same manner of motion events in different iconic gestures. All L1 Urdu speakers encode the target events in two separate clause accompanying two separate gestures. On the other hand English L1 speakers show strong tendency to produce manner and path conflated gestures. So the notion that languages differ in encoding of the same event in variant gestures may have been support by the preset study.

English participants described the manner of the motion in verbs like, *hop*, *danced* for the *crossing* event and they indicated path by satellite phrases such as *over* and *across* and their iconic gestural representation was manner and path conflated. L1Urdu speakers behave, as it was predicted before that Urdu being typologically different to English language should encode the target event in two separate clauses, and the results proved our prediction. All L1Urdu speakers encode the target events in two separate clauses, where one describe the manner of motion and other path, similarly their gestural representation accompany the same lexical patterns, thus all Urdu native speakers produced two separated gestures. For example one of the participants uttered this sentences,

- (i) (wo) khushi say o chalta ,nachta howa pull cross kr gea.

Happily (particle) tossing, dancing (particle) bridge cross (past).

Happily he crossed the bridge dancing while tossing (the money).

L1 Urdu speakers encode the manner and motion event in two separate clauses. First the figure is crossing the bridge and the other clause informing us about the manner. The gestural encoding was the same pattern, one for manner of motion and another for path.

The differences in both languages have some more dimensions, for instance, we found that L1English participants used more free space in gesturing than L1 Urdu speakers.

During the production of iconic gestures it was observed that L1Urdu speakers were not waving their hand and arms over their shoulders like L1English speakers. This phenomenon can be interpreted in many ways. It as a cultural difference and influence of the respective languages, which are spoken within different communities. English people are more elaborative and expressive in telling stories than Urdu speakers. There is another interpretation that some participants get confused in front of camera so they did not gesture freely as they do in real life, and because English speaking nations are more advanced than Urdu speakers, so they feel free in front of cameras. Urdu speakers suffer from what may be called on line camera phobia. Coming back to the discussion, it is assumed that the space that a speakers covers during gesturing may lead us to understand some aspect of the differences in the production of the gestures which may have a remote link to the cultures in which the languages survives, and how culture may influences the gestural representation of manner of motion events, and also production of the gestures.

5 Conclusion

5.1 Limitations

Today the study of gestures is not as difficult as it used to be few decades before, because the invention of various multimedia tools and annotation software has made it easy for the researchers to investigate subtle differences in the production of the gestures. In spite, of all these resources there lies some of the limitation (that we faced) such as:

- i. One potential limitation, which a researcher in gestural studies may face, is related to the instructions which are given to the participants. More explicit or implicit instruction can affect the

originality of samples. Therefore, a researcher needs to be very careful to find the original data.

- ii. The studies in which video-tapes are involved may face another difficulty that some people get confused before cameras, which affects their performance. In such cases, the researcher will have to relax the participants by some other methods such as: warm up questions, or introducing the study etc.
- iii. There can be another limitation which is connected to the second point in some countries it is very difficult to collect data from participants (especially female) where video cameras are involved.

5.2 Suggestion for Further Studies

Gesture study is an exciting and interesting area of research, which has developed rapidly during few decades. The researchers are trying to find possible relationship between gestural representation and the language development. Many researchers view gestures as the early form of communication among primitive human beings. The gestural development in children may also lead us to understand the language development and by the same token we may understand the evolutionary process of language. Though language did not leave any foot print on the way of evolution, but it is hoped that the gesture studies may lead us to those turns which play a vital role in the evolutionary process of human language.

The present study proves that English and Urdu are typologically different languages, which encode the same manner of motion events not only in different syntactic structures but also the speakers of the respective language produce different iconic gestures. To summarize the present study, it is seen that how Urdu and English languages are typologically different from each other, how L1 English and L1 Urdu encoded the same motion events in different syntactic structures accompanying different iconic gestures. English L1 speakers are found to encode manner of motion event in the main clause and the path in an additional satellite prepositional phrase, which shows the trajectory of the moving figure. It has also been found that L1 Urdu speakers encode the same event in two separate clauses, where one encodes the manner of the motion and the other shows the path of the moving

figure, and they use two separate gestures one for manner and other for the path.

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