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

1.

1.1

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2

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

III. Tables, figures, and maps should have headings and be numbered consecutively and should be clearly presented. Notes and sources should be placed under each table and figure. Photo will be treated as figures.

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

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

Plagiarism

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

References

1) Use APA style of referencing.

Introduction to Authors

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Monophthongization of English diphthongs in loanwords by Saraiki Speakers

Firdos Atta, Nasir Abbas Syed, Zafar Ali & Arshad Saleem

Abstract

The current study explains the phonological adaptation of diphthongs in English loanwords adopted in Saraiki language. This process is described through acoustic analysis of four diphthongs. The data from 30 illiterate participants are analyzed through SPSS and PRAAT software. In order to collect data, pictures downloaded from internet and used as stimuli. The results of the study explain how in all target English loanwords, Saraiki speakers change native English pronunciation. The target loanwords containing diphthongs change into monophthongs, /ei/ is substituted by /e:/ and /əu/ with /o:/ vowel by Saraiki speakers. Similarly, /au/ changes into /əo/ and /ai/ is pronounced as /æ/ or /əi/ by the respondents. The study also explains different factors, which cause to change the pronunciation of Saraiki speakers. Some of these factors are influence of L1, markedness and orthography.

Keywords: Loanwords, substitution, misperception, pronunciation, Saraiki

1. Introduction

The worldwide use of English language is an evidence of its superiority over other languages of the world. Therefore, the marks of English are noticed in almost all languages of the world. Pakistan is a part of the sub-continent and history shows that the British remained the rulers of the sub- continent for a long period and they left their footprints in the form of their language. In the multilingual environment of Pakistan, the authority of English can be widely observed. To some extent, it can be said that English has swapped Urdu in Pakistan and is used in all official matters.

It is also a fact that languages borrow words from each other in contact situation (Weinreich, 1963). The process of borrowing or adaptation of loanwords may be bidirectional or unidirectional but mostly dominant languages have their influence on other languages. For example, English words are frequently used in Hindi (Singh, 1985), Persian (Shademan, 2003), Fijian (Kenstowicz, 2007), Korean (Kim, 2009), Mandarian (Miao, 2006), Samoan and Sranan (Uffmann, 2006) and many other languages. Similarly, Pakistani languages have English loanwords, which are commonly used by Pakistanis. Some of these words are adopted as fashion but mostly those loanwords are used which do not have their alternative in local languages. As mostly, loanwords are need based, so people are bound to use English loanwords in their daily life. These loanwords are not pronounced accurately but go through different changes.

Saraiki is one of those Pakistani languages, which have English loanwords. There are six varieties of Saraiki language in Pakistan (Shackle, 1976) but the current research only focuses on the central variety of Saraiki. This study only focuses on change of English diphthongs used by Saraiki native speakers. The standard of English loanword transcription for the current research is "Oxford English Dictionary" because it is a standard and reliable source of English pronunciation.

1.1.Comparison of English and Saraiki vocalic inventories

Vowels are the sounds produced when the air passes from the larynx to lips without any obstruction (Roach, 2009). Three paradigms explain the nature of vowels. These paradigms are, part of tongue involved in production of a vowel (front-back), tongue-height (high-low) and lip rounding (rounded/unrounded). The first two paradigms of vowels, determine the position and height of the tongue. The lip-rounding paradigm explains involvement of lips in the production of vowels. English and Saraiki vocalic inventories have some similarities and differences. In English, there are 12 monophthongs, eight diphthongs (ei, ai, iə, əu, eə, uə, ɔi, au) while Saraiki

monophthongs are 17 (9 oral and 8 nasal), Shackle (1976, p.13). However for Saraiki phonology Atta, (2019) mentioned 10 oral and 7 nasal vowels with 15 possible sequence of diphthongs. The vocalic and diphthong of Saraiki chart is represented below.

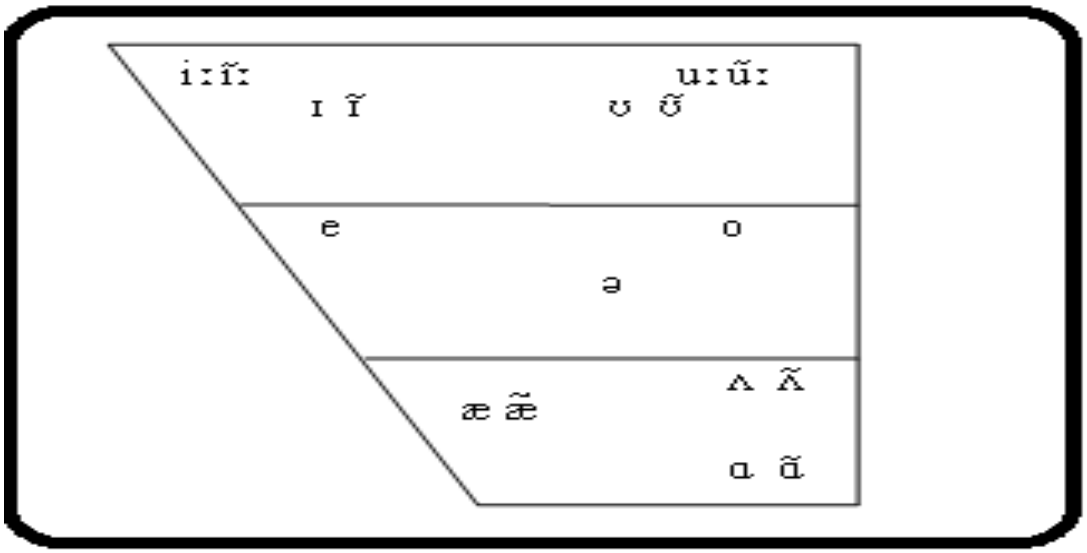


Figure 1: Saraiki vowels

The main difference between the diphthongs of these two languages is that no Saraiki diphthong ends at short vowel. The comparative study of English and Saraiki languages shows that apart from some similarities, there is a huge phonemic difference between these languages. The current research explains only four diphthongs of English (ei, ai, uə, au) as produced by Saraiki speakers in loanwords.

	i	ʊ	o	ɑ	ə	ʌ	e
i		iʊ	io	iɑ			ie
ʊ	ʊi			ʊɑ	ʊə		ʊe
o	oi						oe
ɑ							ɑe
ə	əi				əʊ		əe
ʌ				ʌo			
e			eo				

Figure 2: Saraiki Diphthongs

1.2.Research questions

The aim of this study is to know:

1) How Saraiki speakers modify the English diphthongs while using in English loanwords?
2) What kinds of errors usually occur in adaptation of English diphthongs?
3) What are the triggers of these errors?

1.3.Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are to find out different structural and phonological changes, which take place during adaptation of English loanwords. The main objective is to determine the reasons, which cause English loanwords to go through some phonological changes in the process of adaptation. One of the main objectives is to find the differences in pronunciation of English diphthongs when produced by Saraiki speakers.

2. Literature Review

The literature on loanword adaptation shows that different researchers regarding loanword phonology have presented many theories about loanword adaptations. These theories explain the role of perception as well as production in loanword adaptation. Although some scholars believe that perception has a very important role in loan adaptation, but there are some other scholars (Paradise, 1996; Paradise & LaCharite, 1997; Ito & Mester, 1995; Davidson & Noyer 1997; Jacobs & Guessenhoven, 2000), who believe in production based approach to loanword adaptation. They propose that loanword adaptation is a phonological process and speakers of the recipient languages use words of donor languages, which slowly and gradually become a part of their native language. Some other studies (Ito & Mester, 1995; Davidson & Noyer, 1997; Jacobs & Gussenhoven, 2000) assume that phonological constraints could be better explained by the production grammar of loanword adaptation. In this regard, a Theory of Constraints and Repair Strategies (TCRS) was also proposed by Paradise and LaCharite (1997), which is based on production phonology. In this theory, they explain that deletion and substitution of a consonant occur in order to satisfy the native language phonology. For example, if a segment is absent in native inventory, deletion may occur, but sometimes preservation involves the substitution of sounds. Brasington (1997) observes that the theory of constraint ranking and strategies easily explains the steps of vowel insertion and consonant deletion, but fails to explain all repair strategies in various contexts. Similarly, Ulrich (1997) also points out that TCRS also fail to explain, loan phonology process in different languages. It is clear from the above discussion that in loaning situation production approach cannot clarify all the perspective involved in loan adaptation. Production approach can better explain the L1 phonology rather than loan phonology.

According to Dupoux and Paperkamp (2002) and Paperkamp (2002, 2003), loanwords are adapted on the basis of perception or misperception by the speakers of the recipient language. For example, if the Japanese listen to an English word of CVC structure, they will pronounce it as CVCV. Another study of vowel epenthesis in Japanese loanwords (Kenstowicz, 2003) indicates that at a perceptual level, they realize the presence of vowel and perception can play a better role in the adjustment of loanwords, according to the native grammar. Some other studies (Takagi & Mann, 1994; Smith, 2004, etc.), propose that although perception is an important factor, but there are some other factors such as orthography and grammar of the native language, which also play a crucial role in loan phonology.

In another approach of loanword adaptation, equal importance is given to both perception and production but they are treated as separate. Many studies (Silverman, 1992; Yip, 1993; Kenstowicz, 2003; Broselow, 2005) explain the importance of both perception and production but treat them individually. It is because perception needs the same phonemic structure and production needs native pronunciation of words in the language of recipient speakers.

Silverman (1992) investigates, English loanwords in Cantonese. He presented two levels or Scansions model. With the help of these two levels, he explains the loan adaptation phonology. In the first level, according to him, the listener is not able to detect the contrast between two languages (receiver and donor languages) and scans all input on Perceptual level. While at the second scansion, output shows the difference between the donor and the native language, as the output operate and adjusted, according to the native language phonology. This level, is also called Operative level. At the Operative level, the scanned input operates and adjusts; it is because the donor word structure is considered as ill formed in the native language phonology. In 1993, Yip proposed her conception of perception and adaptation,

similar to Silverman's (1992) concept of perception and adaptation. She agrees to Silverman's idea that recipient speakers filter loanwords through their native phonology, but she also suggests that mostly those consonants which are less prominent in Cantonese are deleted while vowels never delete. In contrast, Kenstowicz (2003b) suggests that there is a difference between perception and production constraint hierarchies. In perception grammar, the constraint DEP-V (no vowel insertion) is ranked higher than MAX-C (no consonant deletion). However, in production MAX-C dominates DEP-V, which prefers insertion rather than deletion.

Later studies (Fleischhacher, 2001, 2002; Steriade, 2002; Walker, 2003) explain the role of perceptual similarity in loanword adaptation. There are some other studies, which also support the position of perceptual similarity in loan adaptation (Kang, 2003; Adler, 2004). Kenstowicz (2003a) explains the importance of perceptual similarity in the Fijian adaptation of English words. In this study, Kenstowicz explains, the most salient feature 'stress' in loan adaptation. The study explains that stress is mostly imitative for Fijian learners of English by adopting different repairing strategies. The English stress system is adopted based on perceptual similarity by lengthening vowel or adjusting the rhyme of a word. Kang (2003) conducts a similar study on this approach. This study shows Korean adaptation of English post-vocalic final stops. She explains that perceptual similarity causes various repairing strategies, which may include insertion or deletion of sounds. She also suggests that insertion of vowel occurs both in phonetic and phonological contexts.

Adler (2004) suggests that loanword adaptation is based on both perceptual and articulatory similarity. He explains the process of English loanwords in Hawaiian. In order to explain the phenomenon, Adler used three approaches, (perceptual map) P-map, (Steriade, 2001), PAM (perceptual assimilation model, (Best, 1994, 1995) and TCRS (theory of constraints and repair strategies: Paradise, 1988). All these theories suggest that output is based on similarity to input but it cannot be determined only on the basis of a single approach. According to Adler, it is difficult to determine, whether the input-output similarity is based on perceptual, articulatory or phonological grounds. Best explains that learners can easily perceive those sounds, which are 'gesturally similar' to their L1 phonology. Although none of these approaches can solely explain the process of adaptation but perceptual and articulatory approaches are most appropriate to explain the process of loanword adaptation. Adler (2001) also explains that adaptation of sounds and modification of place and voice is possible but that of nasality and sonority are not. For example, /b/ changes into /p/ but not into /m/. It means that sonority and nasality have stronger perceptual cues than voicing.

This approach is more suitable for the study of loan adaptation and can be find in the loanwords phonology, which properly explains the process of perception than production. It is also obvious that there is no universal generalization of adapting a segment, which is based on one thing (either perception or production). It is also widely observed that studies in favor of perceptual similarity approach explain the reasons of deletion, insertion and substitution, which mostly occur in loanword adaptations. However, to my knowledge, literature in Saraiki loanword is not presented before and this is the first study of its nature. So this study fills the gap with respect to loanword phonology in Saraiki language.

3. Research Methodology

An acoustic analysis of diphthongs in English loanwords adapted by Saraiki speakers are presented here. The first three formants (F1, F2, and F3) which are very necessary to understand the nature of vowels and diphthongs are studied in this article. Only focus remained those English loanwords which has the target diphthongs and mostly used by Saraiki speakers. Three different words carrying each target sound were

selected as stimuli. Well known Software PRAAT (Boersma & Weenink, 2012) was used to determine the formant values (F1, F2, and F3). These values were further analyzed through SPSS in order to determine the required values (mean, std. deviation). The F1 formant signifies the height of vowels. The front and back vowels are discriminated by formant F2 and [+round] feature shows low F3 value. The formant values from Saraiki male illiterate participants are compared with the formants values of British speech recorded by Deterding (1997). The p value of the test against a standard of .05 was use to differentiate the formant values of English and Saraiki speakers statistically. If the p-value is above .05 then the differences are considered non-significant which means that there is no meaningful difference between the two means. A significant difference between the two sets of data is assumed if the p value is less than .05.

3.1. Data Collection and Analysis

Picture naming task was used for data collection in this study. The participants were 30 (mean Age= 27years, range= 19 – 50, st dev. = 7.16) in number and all were illiterate. Three loanwords for each sound were used for data collection. The pictures of the target words, which were used as stimuli, taken from the internet (see pictures in appendix A) were shown to the participants, and they were asked to tell the names of the items in the pictures and their voices were recorded through an I-Phone S-5. The purpose of recording was to see the difference between pronunciation of British[1] and Saraiki speakers in the target sounds. A paired sample-t- test is used to compare the mean values of British and Saraiki speakers. The population for this research is native Saraiki speakers of central variety, which is spoken in the Taunsa Shrif, D.G Khan District of Southern Punjab. These target sounds along with the carrier words, and pronunciation of Saraiki and English speakers, are given in the table below.

Target diphthongs Sounds	Phonetic transcription	Words
/ei/	/keik/,/ʤeil/, /breik/.	cake, jail, brake
/əʊ/	/kəʊk/,/ rəʊl/,/kəʊʧ/	coke, roll, coach
/aʊ/	/faʊl,/paʊdər/, /aʊt/	Foul, powder, out
/ai/	/piap/, /fial/, /raifl/	Pipe , file, rifle

Table 1: List of stimuli

The data was analyzed through PRAAT (Boersma & Weenink, 2012) software.

3.2. Paradigms of data analysis

Diphthong is a combination of two vowels, which are differentiated based on their formants. Therefore, there is a difference between the starting and the final point of first formant (F1) in the production of diphthong. While Gay (1968) explained that, the rate of change of frequency in formants is a better way to explain the nature of diphthongs. However, Fry (1979) claims that a diphthong is measured by taking the values of on-glide (the starting point) and the off-glide (the final point) on the first formant (F1). The current study follows the idea of Fry.

The first formant explains the height of the vowels. Low vowels have greater F1 as compared to high vowels. In other words, frequency of F1 decreases with the increase of height of vowels. The front vowels have greater F2 frequency and it decreases when it goes to the back vowels. The third formant (F3) explains whether the vowels have rounded feature or not. The Rounded feature decreases the frequency of third formant. The average formant values of British speakers (Deterding, 1997) are given in the table below:

[1] The frequencies of British speakers recorded by Deterding (1997) were compared with the formant values of Saraiki speakers.

Vowels	F1	F2	F3	Vowels	F1	F2	F3
i:	280	2249	2765	**ɒ**	558	1048	2481
I	367	1757	2556	**ɔ:**	415	828	2619
E	494	1650	2547	**ʊ**	379	1145	2473
Æ	690	1550	2463	**u:**	316	1119	2408
ʌ	644	1259	2551	**ɜ**	478	1436	2488
ɑ:	646	1155	2490				

Table 2: Formant values of British speakers

Hypothesis 1

It is noted that the Saraiki speakers substitute /əʊ/ '/kəʊk/' sound with /o:/ '[kok]' vowel. Therefore, it is hypothesized that in production of Saraiki speakers there will be no difference between the initial and the final values of the first formant (F1) of this sound. It is because formants frequency of monophthongs remain the same from the start to the end while it may change in diphthongs as latter is related to change of vowel quality. The second hypothesis was that there should be no difference between initial and final phase of F2 of the Saraiki speakers in the target diphthong. However, the values (initial and final) of the F2 formant of British speakers are significantly different in the /əu/ diphthong.

Hypothesis 2

Saraiki speakers modify /aʊ/ sound while producing English loanwords. It is also observed that Saraiki speakers substitute /aʊ/ '/faʊl' sound with /əo/ 'fəol'. In order to confirm the observation it was hypothesized that in the production of Saraiki speakers, there should be no/slight difference at initial and final phases on the first formant of the target sound because the height of /ə/ and /o/ is same. On the other hand, there is a significant difference at initial and final phases in the production of /aʊ/ by native English speakers. Therefore, it is assumed that there will be a significant difference between the production of English and Saraiki speakers at initial point of F1.

Hypothesis 3

It is observed that /ei/ 'keik' diphthong is substituted with /e:/ 'ke:k' monophthong by participants. There is a difference between the starting and the final point of first formant (F1) in the production of /ei/ by native English speakers but the Saraiki speakers are expected to produce it without difference in initial and final phase of formants.

Hypothesis 4

Saraiki speakers substitute /ai/ diphthong with another diphthong. Sometimes it is also realized that they produce /əi/ 'pəip' instead of /ai/ 'piap' in the target words. It was hypothesized that if Saraiki speakers substitute diphthong with any monophthong their F1 for this diphthong will show no difference at initial and final phases but there is a significant difference at the initial and the final position of F1 of English speakers as they change the height of vowels from high to low position. Second, if Saraiki speakers produced /əi/ then the initial phase of the first formant of Saraiki speaker should be lower than British speakers in /ai/ diphthong, because of the height of /a/ to /ə/ vowel.

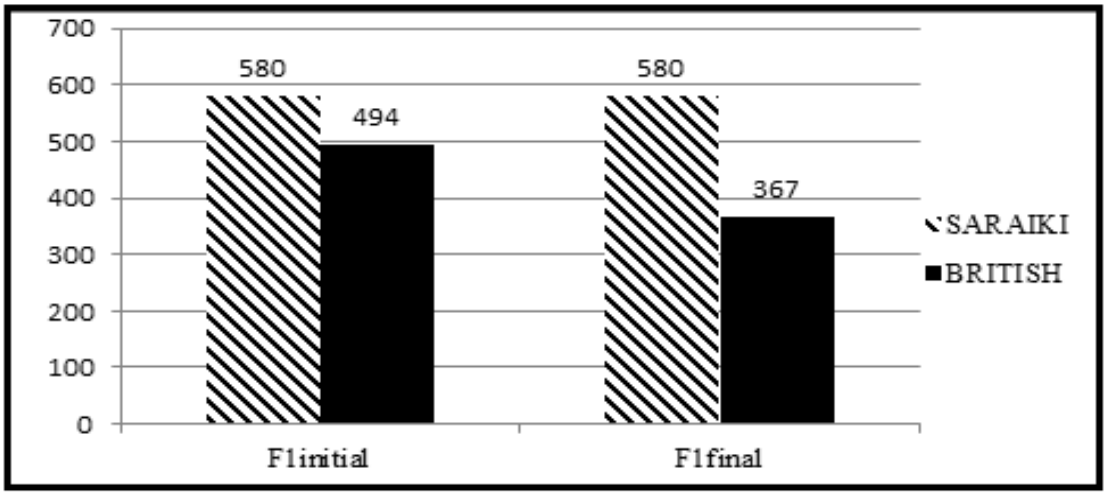
3.3. Results

The significance of difference between formant values of English and Saraiki speakers were determined through p value of the test against a standard of .05. If the p-value is above .05 the differences are considered non-significant, which means that there is no meaningful difference between the two means.

The results and analysis of all variables are explained in the following sections. In the following subsections, the data are presented and analyzed. Each subsection is based on the study of one of the target sounds.

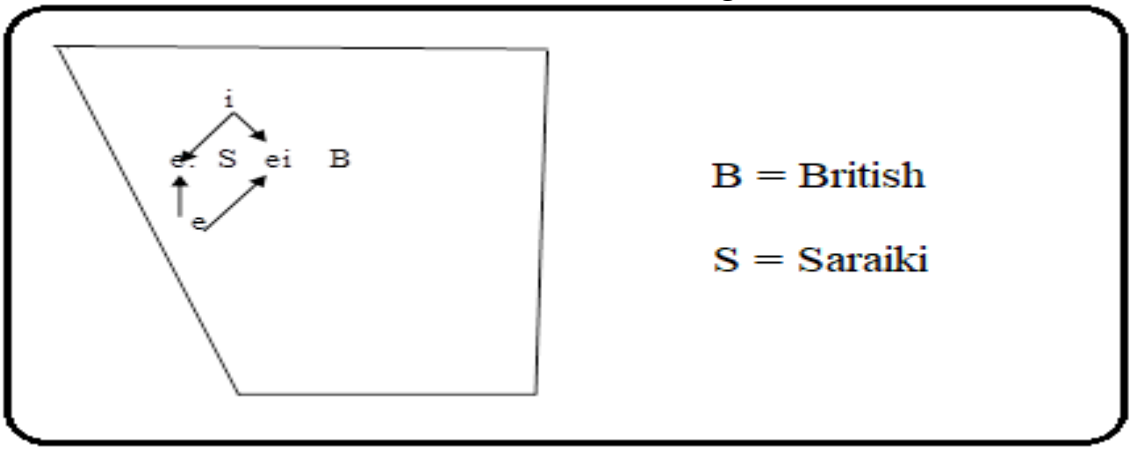
3.3.1. Diphthong/ei/

The results show that the mean F1 initial (mean=580,) of the Saraiki speakers is significantly different (p-value=.001, t-value=11.41) from the British speakers (mean=494) in the target diphthong /ei/. Similarly the results of the F1 final value (mean=580) of the first formant of the Saraiki speakers is significantly different (p-value=.001, t=28.75) from the British speakers (mean F1 final=367). For this purpose three loanwords *cake, jail* and *brake* are analyzed through PRAAT software. In order to note a difference between the initial and the final value of F1 of Saraiki speakers in the target sounds a paired sample t-test was applied. The results of the paired t-test of the stimuli *cake* (t-value=.367, p-value=.716) *jail* (t-value=.360, p-value=.721) and *brake* (t-value=1.00, p-value=.326) show a non-significant difference between the final and the initial values of the F1 of Saraiki speakers. The difference of pronunciation of British and Saraiki speakers is reflected in the graph below



Frequencies of first formant of British and Saraiki speakers '/ei/ into /e:/.

The difference in the initial and final values of F1 is evidence that Saraiki speakers produce monophthong instead of diphthong, which is according to the hypothesis. The substitution of /ei/ with /e:/ vowel is shown in the figure below:

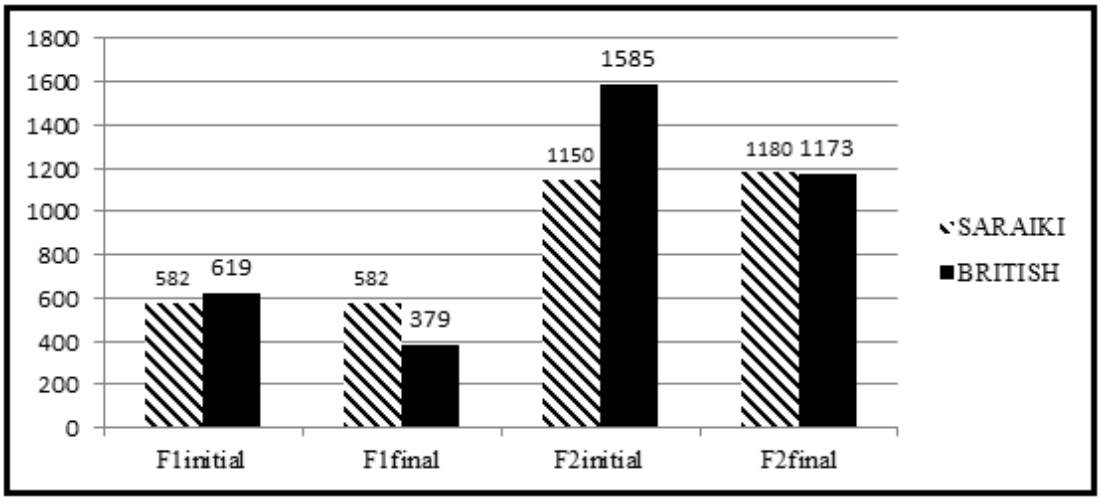


Substitution of /ei/ with /e:/

3.3.2. Diphthong /əʊ/

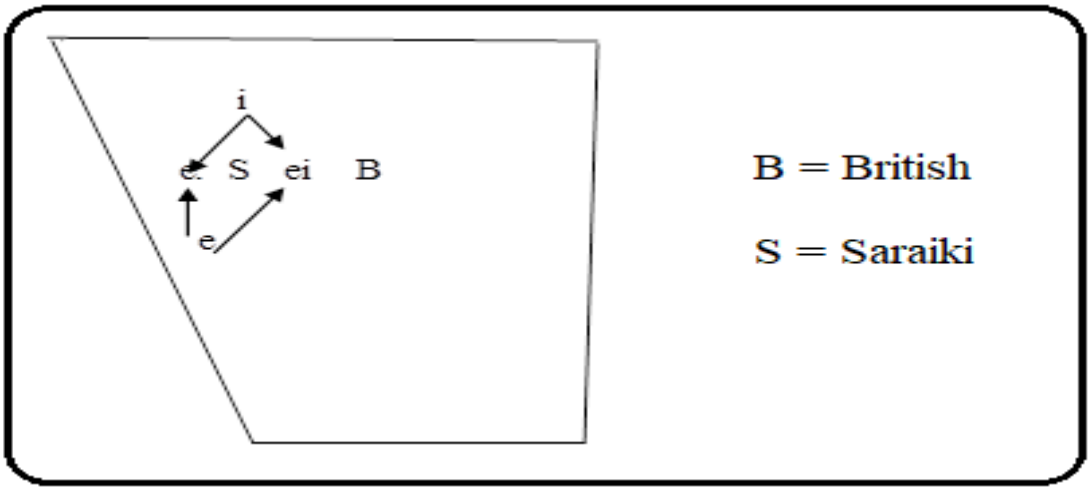
The mean F1 initial (mean=582) and final (mean= 582) phases of the participants of this study show no significant difference whereas a significant difference between the initial (mean=619) and final (mean=379) phases of F1of British speakers in noted.

The measurement of F2 initial phase of the words *coke* (mean=1039, std. dev.=102.8) *coach* (mean= 1067,std. dev=115.) and *roll* (mean=1343, std.dev=615.8) shows that these values are different from the mean F2 initial (mean=1585) value of British speakers. Similarly, the F2 final phase of these words (coke, mean=1069, std.dev=97.9, coach, mean=1238, std dev=88 and roll, mean=1234.3, std.dev=122) are different from the mean of F2 final value (1173) of the British speakers. The difference of two formants, which reflect the pronunciation of British and Saraiki speakers, is reflected in the graph beneath.



In the above graph, initial and final frequencies of first formant of Saraiki speakers show a non-significant (t-value=.028, p-value=.978) difference. It means Saraiki speakers produce the sound with the same frequency (i.e. producing it as a monophthong) instead of changing the rate of frequency in final and initial phases of the target sound (producing it as a diphthong). While on the other hand, in order to observe the difference between initial and final phase of the Saraiki speakers of F2 a paired sample t-test was applied and the results indicate that there is a non-significant (t-value= -.815, p-valu=.422) difference between the initial and final values of the target diphthong. For further confirmation, the values of the stimuli are compared with the values of the British speakers by applying the one sample t-test.

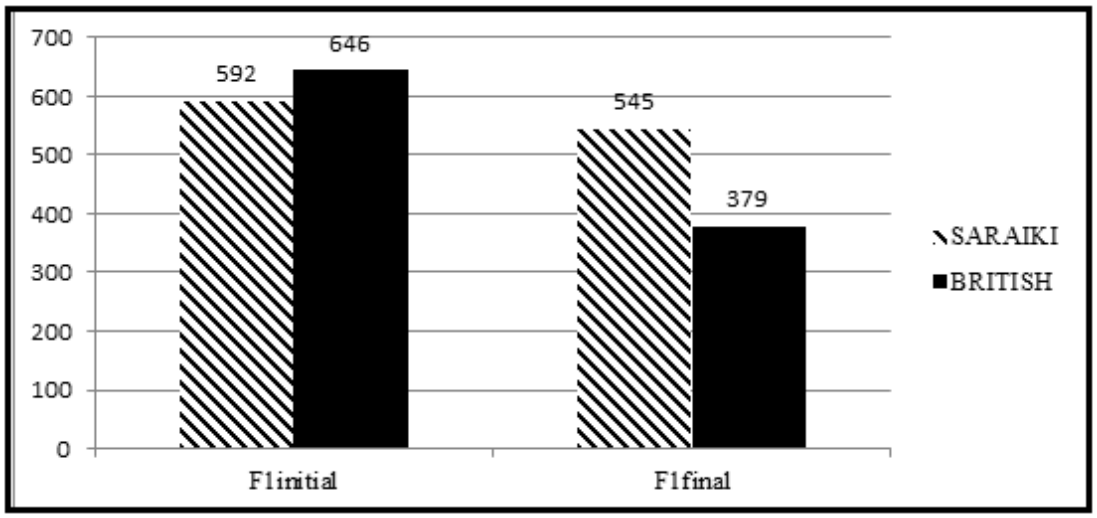
The results also indicate that the mean value of F2 of the Saraiki speakers (mean=1149) lies between the mean value of the /ə/ (mean=1585) and the /u/ (mean=1173) vowels. Although both these vowels have distinctively, different positions in the vocalic inventory of British speakers but their F2 values show an insignificant difference. It is because the constriction in the oral cavity in the production of /u/ is relatively greater than that of the /o/ vowel, which decreases the value of second formant. The above results indicate that Saraiki speakers replace /əu/ diphthong with /o:/



Change of /əu/ into /o:/

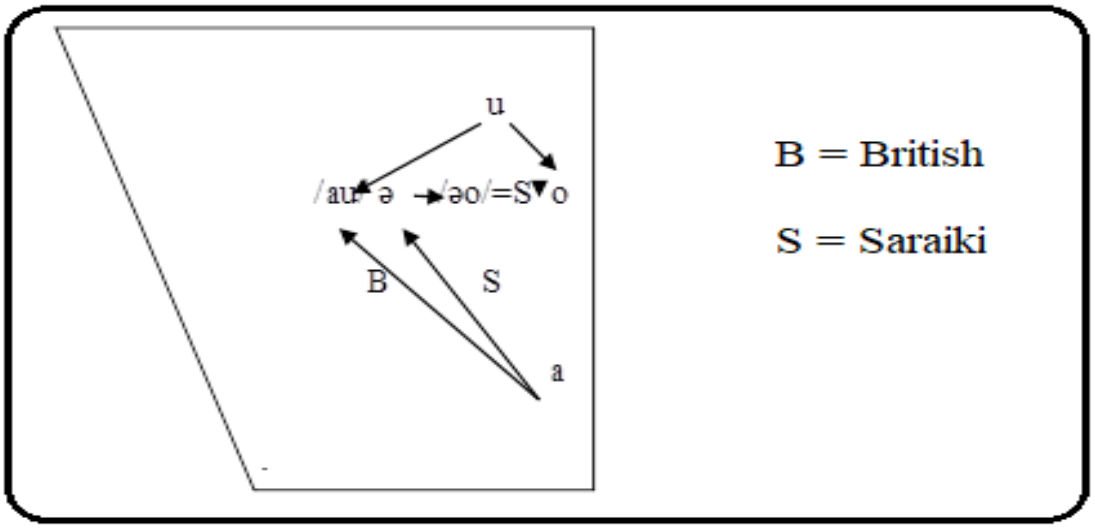
3.3.3. Diphthong /aʊ/

In British English, this is the only diphthong in which the tongue position changes from lower to higher. In this diphthong, the initial phase starts from the lowest tongue position /a/ to the highest position/u/. The results show that the initial phase of the first formant value of British speakers (mean=646) is significantly different (t-value=5.16, p-value=.001) from the Saraiki speakers in the target diphthong. From the analysis it is obvious that mean value of the initial phase of the first formant (mean=592) of Saraiki speakers is less than the value of initial phase of the F1 of British speakers (mean=646). Similarly the F1final value (mean=545) of the Saraiki speakers is greater than the value noted in the final phase of the first formant (mean=379) of the British speakers in production of the target words. Both initial and final values of F1of British and Saraiki speakers indicate that there is a wide difference between their pronunciations. The difference of formant frequencies of both speakers is explained in the graph below.



The difference between F1 initial values of both speakers indicates that Saraiki speakers produced the initial sound, which is higher than the vowel produced by British speakers. The initial F1 value of Saraiki speakers is closer to the F1 value of /ə/ vowel (mean=619) rather than /a/ in the target words. Similarly, in the above graph, final frequency of F1of Saraiki speakers is greater than that of British speakers, which indicates that Saraiki speakers produced relatively low vowel than that of British speakers. The results seem to prove the prediction that Saraiki speakers shorten the first vowel in the target diphthong and also lower the position of second

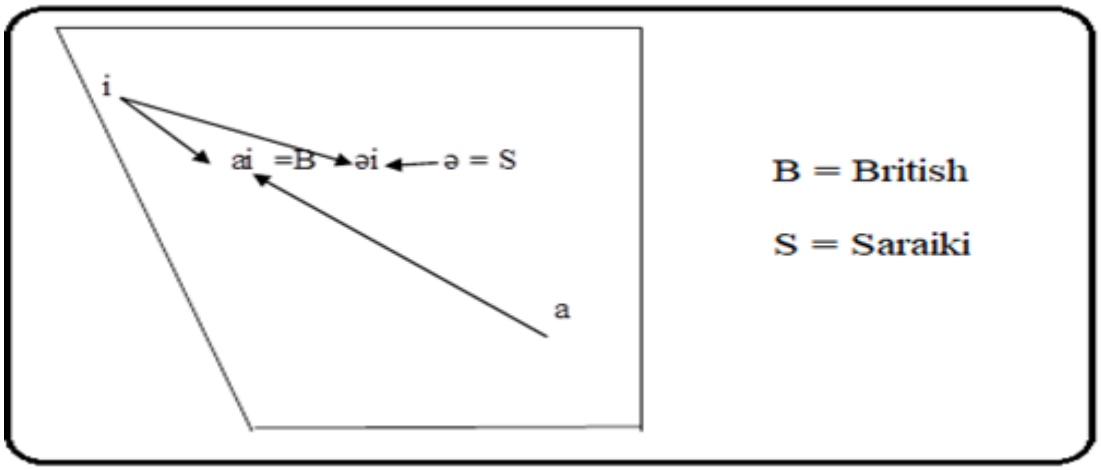
vowel in production of the target diphthong. The substitution process is shown in figure below:



Change of /au/ into /əo/.

3.3.4 .Diphthong /ai/

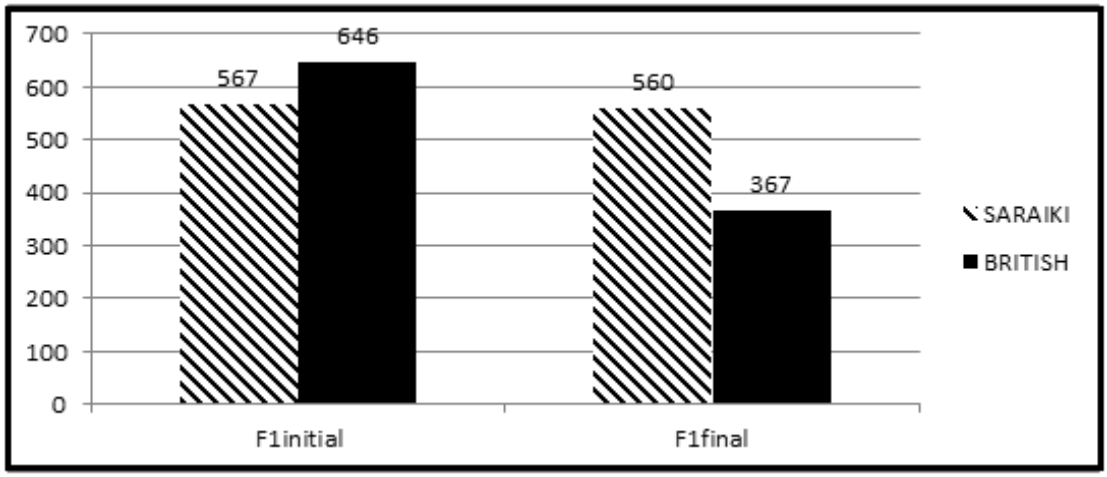
In order to confirm the hypotheses, three English loanwords 'pipe', 'file' and 'rifle' were used as stimuli. The difference between the initial and the final phases of F1 of the target sounds indicate that out of three, two (pipe, file) words have a significant difference (pipe, t-value=2.9, p-value=.007, file, t-value=3.31, p-value=.002) from that of British speakers. The results indicate that the mean value of the initial phase of F1 of British speakers (mean=646) is different from Saraiki speakers (mean=616, std.dev.=48) which indicates the difference of pronunciation. The difference in the initial phases of both British and Saraiki speakers indicates that Saraiki speakers produce the vowel, which is at higher position than that produced by British speakers in the target sounds. The following figure reflects the substitution of /ai/ with /əi/ in the speech of Saraiki speakers.



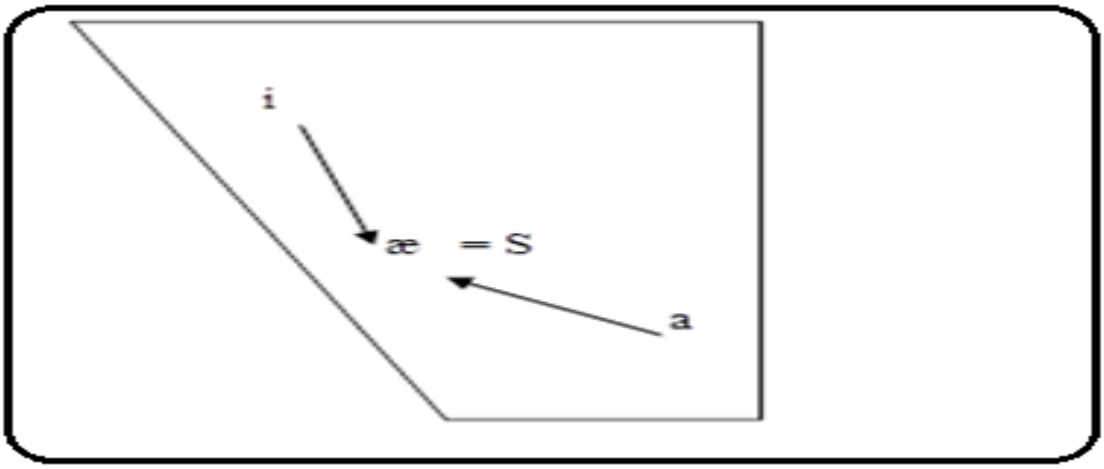
Change of /ai/ into /əi/

From the above figure, it is clear that Saraiki speakers produce /əi/ instead of /ai/ in the target words. However, the F1mean values of the stimuli (pipe, file, and rifle) vary from each other. The results of two stimuli ‘pipe’ and ‘file’ leads to the conclusion that Saraiki speakers substitute /ai/ with /əi/. But the initial (mean=567) and final (mean=560) mean values of the formants of the diphthong produced in the third stimulus ‘rifle’ indicate a non-significant (t-value= -.361, p-value=.721) difference. This non-significance difference proved that Saraiki speakers also produce /æ/ sound

instead of /ai/. The difference of initial and final frequencies of first formant is mirrored in the graph below.



The difference between the initial and final phases is compared by applying a paired sample t-test. The results of the first two words show that Saraiki speakers produced a diphthong but their F1initial values are lower than the British speakers. In contrast, the difference between initial and final phases of word 'rifle' indicates that Saraiki speakers substitute the target diphthong with a monophthong. The process of substitution of /ai/ with /æ/ is explained in the figure below



Substitution of /ai/ with /æ/

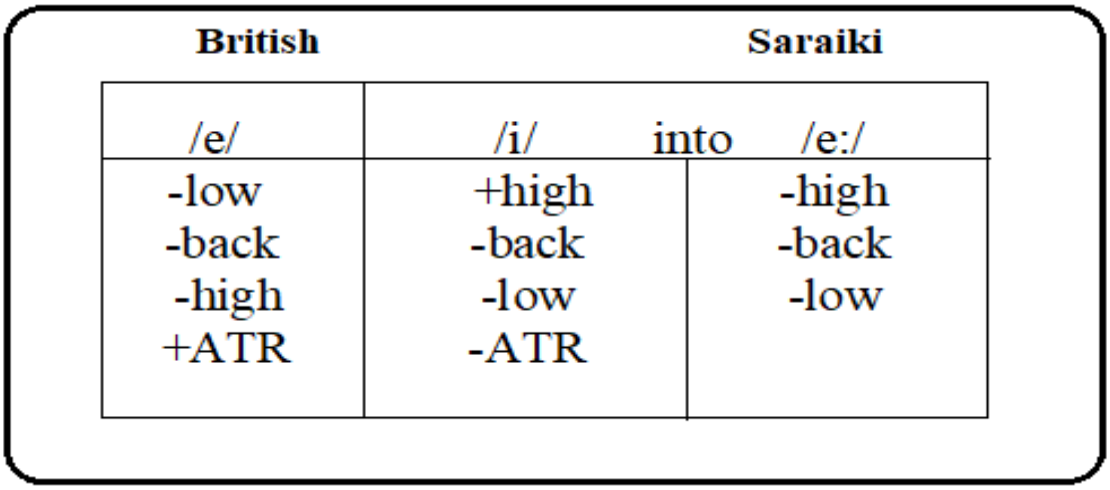
4. Comparison and discussion

The above discussed results show that the Saraiki speakers produce English diphthongs like /ei/ as /e/, /əʊ/ as /o/, /aʊ/ as /əo/ and /ai/ as /əi/ respectively.

It means British speakers produce gliding vowels and Saraiki speakers pronounce a monophthong in some words and different diphthongs in others. It is because the diphthong /ei/ is not a part of Saraiki phonemic inventory and is substituted with /e/ (also a long vowel in Saraiki) by the participants in loanwords of English containing the target diphthong /ei/. As diphthongs are two vowels and are produced consecutively in one nucleus, they need relatively more force and articulatory gestures as compared to monophthongs. This is one of the reasons that Saraiki speakers go to the easier option and produce monophthong for a diphthongs, which does not exist in their language. Hence, the replacement of English diphthongs with Saraiki diphthongs, in some words, suggests that they are categorically absent in Saraiki language.

Another reason in term of Feature Geometry is that English speakers start the target diphthong with tense vowel and end with an open vowel/ tense vowel. It means the

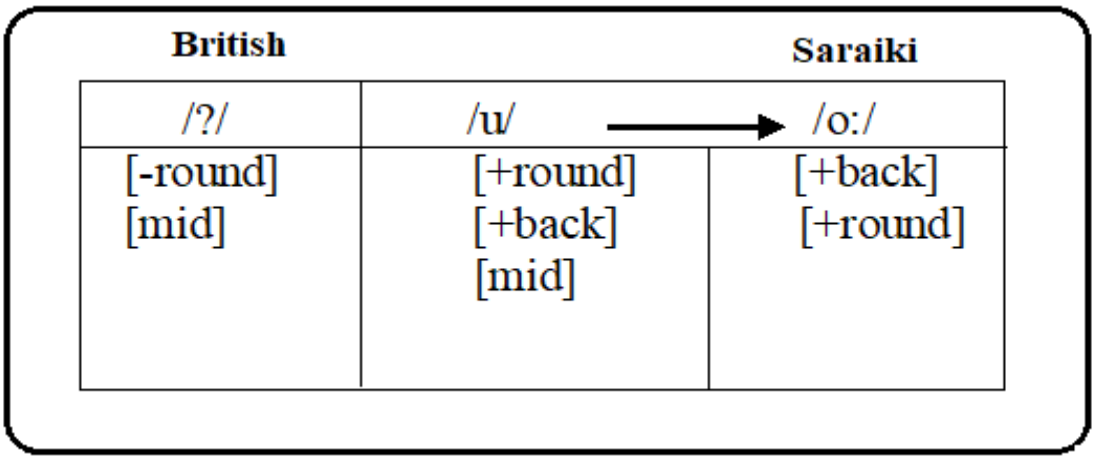
radical feature [ATR] remains active in the production of the /ei/ sound in pronunciation of British speakers while the Saraiki speakers produce this as /e:/ monophthong. In other words, the feature [ATR] remains absent in the pronunciation of participants. It can be said that it is because of the absence of feature [ATR] in the sound system of Saraiki language that they cannot produce tense vowels but they can perceive the difference of tense and lax vowels. In order to compensate the loss of the feature [ATR] Saraiki speakers increase the quantity of the tense vowels, this is considered as the differentiating feature between tense and lax vowels. As this diphthong is at lower position or start with tense vowel in British English and starts with tense vowel that is why, the Saraiki speakers substitute it with a monophthong. In terms of FG the substitution of features are explained below in 4.9.



Change of /ei/ into /e:/

When the process of substitution occurs, the output loses [+high] and [ATR] features but retains rest of the features in the output. In the above analysis it is clear that the community under discussion substitute a diphthong with a monophthong. Another important thing, which is essential to note is that in production of the target sounds Saraiki speakers maintain the weight of a syllable. In British English the weight of /ei/ is two moras and Saraiki speakers maintain the prosodic structure of the word by producing long vowel /e:/ (at the cost of loss of the feature [ATR]).

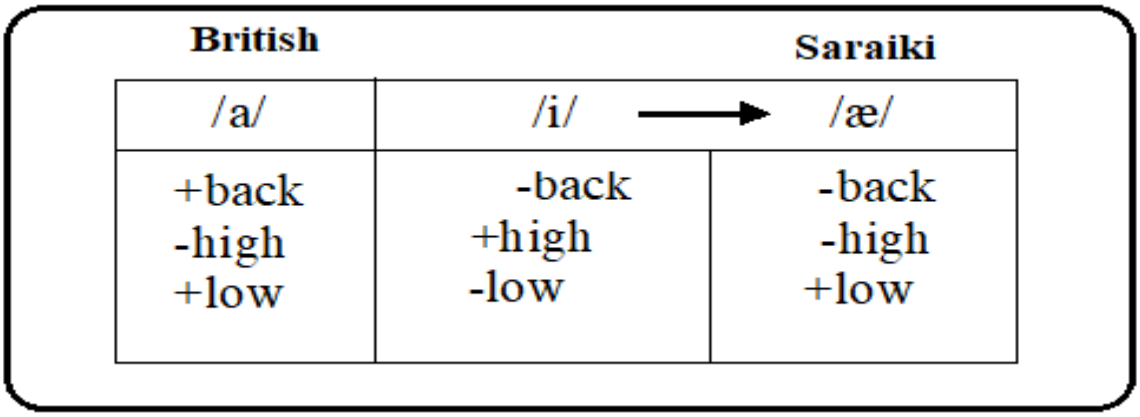
In substitution of /əu/ with /o:/, Saraiki speakers also maintain weight of vowels in the same way. Saraiki language does not have /əu/ diphthong; therefore they do not perceive it and assimilate it with the closest sound of their L1 or the sound which retains maximum features of the input. The production of /o:/ for target words is a result of coalescence. The features [+back] and [+round] are retained in the output along with place [high] feature. The output shares first two features ([+back] and [+round]) from the /u/ vowel and takes the height feature ([mid]) of the /ə/ vowel. The process is reflected below in the diagram below.



Change of /əu/ into /o:/

The above analysis of /au/ shows that participants do not produce /au/ diphthong accurately, in English loanwords. The diphthong /au/ is not a part of Saraiki language; therefore, they do not produce it in the loanwords containing this sound. However, this is not as simple as it is said rather a long discussion is needed to explain the issue. It is clear that /au/ is not a part of Saraiki language but is it the only way to substitute this sound. Second question is why they substitute /au/ with /əo/ and not with any other sound. It is clear from the existing literature on loanword phonology that when words of other languages are adopted, they go through different phonological processes. Some of these common processes are deletion and substitution. Here Saraiki speakers select the second option and give preference to substitution over deletion. The second reason for giving preference to substitution over deletion is that here, the most important part of a syllable (nucleus) is involved and nucleus deletion means the deletion of the whole syllable. Because of these reasons, Saraiki speakers perceive /əo/ diphthong for /au/, which is a part of their own language. It means at perceptual level, Saraiki speakers are able to understand the real nature of diphthong but because of the absence of /au/ in their vocalic inventory, they misperceive. They produce the sound (/əo/) which they have in their vocalic inventory.

In case of /ai/ it is obvious that /ai/ is substituted with both /əi/ and /æ/ vowels. This leads to the question that why Saraiki speakers produce the one sound in two different ways? This is very important to note that because of the absence of /ai/ diphthong in Saraiki phonemic inventory, they substitute it with other sounds. The sound /æ/ exists in between /a/ and /i/. So, as a result of coalescence, they produce /æ/ sound. The results of the word 'rifle' support that Saraiki speakers produce /æ/ instead of the target diphthong. The substitution of /ai/ with /æ/ is simplified below in terms of FG.



Change of /ai/ into /æ/

The results of the other two words (pipe, file) indicate that in the production of Saraiki speakers the initial and final phase of F1 is significantly different. But the value of initial phase of F1is lower which indicates that Saraiki speakers produce initial sound which is at higher position than the sound produced by the British speakers. As the adaptation of loanwords is a cyclic process and mostly these words come from literate people and the illiterate people try to follow their pronunciation but their already existing sound system does not accept it and as a result, they shorten the first phase of the diphthong and produce /əi/ instead of /ai/.

The results show that the pronunciation of Saraiki speakers in target English loanwords is strongly different from the original /native pronunciation. The analysis also shows that the difference of pronunciation is because of different factors. Some of these factors, which strongly influence the pronunciation of loanwords, are involvement of Urdu and English orthography, interference of L1and markedness. The most important reason, which is noted in the analysis, is the involvement of a third language Urdu that in the current scenario plays the role of mediator between English and other local languages of Pakistan. In Pakistan Urdu is the national language, which has a great influence on all indigenous languages. Like other Pakistani languages, Urdu also does not have alternatives of English loanwords. These loanwords are written in Urdu orthography and literate people pronounce these English loanwords like Urdu words. Although the present study focuses on the illiterate people but it is also a fact that these loanwords come from literate people. Therefore, the illiterate people follow the pronunciation of literate people that is also not native like but in some words, the illiterate people further change this non-native pronunciation because of the interference of L1. For example, some illiterate people produce /æ/ and some produce /əi/ instead of English /ai/ in the target loanwords. Those who produce it as /əi/ actually follow the educated class. Apart from Urdu orthography, English orthography also causes to change pronunciation. It is because the people pronounce English loanwords according to its orthography.

Markedness is also one of the major factors, which are responsible to change native pronunciation. In the current study, the process of substitution occurs and marked sounds are substituted with the unmarked ones i.e diphthongs are more marked than monophthongs. Some sounds may be unmarked in one language but they are substituted when produced by non-native speakers because they are considered more marked for foreigners.

One of the most important factors is interference of L1, which influences pronunciation of loanwords. As Flege (1987) explains that because of ‘equivalence classification’, learners cannot perceive a difference between the L1 and L2 phonemes and the already existing sound pattern of L1 prohibits the correct production of new sounds. It is obvious that the interference from the L1 cause misperception of the non-native sounds and this misperception results in change in the original pronunciation.

5. Conclusion

The study indicates that the change of pronunciation of English words is simply is the matter of L1 transfer and role of Urdu in loanword adaptation. All these findings suggest that English diphthongs are either absent in Saraiki language or substituted for ease of articulation.

An experiment based on learning in native environment is needed to prove whether these are the only factors or there may be some other reasons that cause to change the pronunciation of English loanwords.

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The Interdisciplinary Nature of Research

Maya Khemlani David

Abstract

How does a researcher move from an interest in Sociolinguistics to Discourse Analysis and to topics which are normally considered within the realm of Social Psychology? Are these disciplines really distinct and separate? In this presentation I would like to discuss my research first starting on an important topic in Sociolinguistics - Language Maintenance and Language Shift and the resulting focus on attitudes to heritage languages (attitudes are subsumed under Social Psychology). In observing language choices it was inevitable that discourse and politeness norms of the communities studied came under the scrutiny of the researcher. The interdisciplinary character of research between Sociolinguistics, Discourse Analysis and Social Psychology are closely interwoven and the aim of this presentation is to provide examples of studies undertaken to demonstrate the space shared. The effect of knowledge gained from these disciplines can contribute to one becoming a more creative, innovative and effective language teacher.

Introduction

In many calls for Conference papers, writers are requested to send papers related to the themes of Linguistics, Sociolinguistics, Discourse Analysis, Critical Discourse Analysis, Psycholinguistics etc. These are often seen as disparate fields of linguistics even though there are close links between these disciplines. In this paper I would like to present my personal academic professional development and the studies I conducted to demonstrate how the links between these disciplines were made. Knowledge from these disciplines are useful to the language teacher.

Sociolinguistics

In the 1990s my research interest started with a passion to study my own community language to determine if the community, a minority ethnic community in multilingual, multicultural, multi-religious Malaysia had maintained or shifted away from its ethnic language. The methodology used to collect the data was comprehensive and included a questionnaire administered to about 300 respondents, interviews with grandparents, parents, children of varying ages and leaders of the community, transcripts of recordings in the home domain, home visits and observations of how language was used at religious, social and official functions. Analysing the huge data qualitatively was no easy task as we then did not have electronic tools to help in the analysis of the transcripts. The study resulted in a detailed quantitative and qualitative analysis demonstrating clearly, the movement away from the habitual use of the ethnic language (David, 1999, 2001). What was interesting is that the shift had not brought about a lessening of ties between members of the community. Close and dense networks did not necessarily result in language maintenance as had been claimed by Milroy (1987). Another interesting feature that became clear when collecting data was the responses to questions like “What language do you use when you speak to your children?” The answers given by respondents were not necessarily reflected in real time interactions with their children. For example, a 70 year old grandmother once told me she spoke in Sindhi with her 40 year old daughter and when observing their interactions it was manifestly clear that English was used often, albeit it was pidgin English on the part of the grandmother. Questionnaires asking subjects for their selected language choices with different respondents in different domains, must in my view, always be validated by real time observations of such interactions.

I then moved on to the study of the same community in different locations - in Singapore (David, 2000) and in London (David, 2001). As an insider it was easy to get access to members of my community located in different geographical settings.

The sample and sites in these locations were small and only qualitative research based on observations and interviews was conducted. In addition, in London, in order to determine the proficiency in the mother tongue or heritage language, I asked respondents from different generations to tell me the same story in the heritage language. Much hesitation and codeswitching occurred when younger community members attempted this task. It was clear that language proficiency in the heritage language had fallen perhaps due to the lack of use of the language.

In Malaysia we have many minority communities. I moved on to study the same phenomenon in the Portuguese community (David and Faridah, 1999), the Tamil (Naji and David, 2000; David and Dealwis, 2011) Telugu (Dealwis and David, 2010, David and Dealwis, 2007), Sino-Indian (David, 2008), Pakistani (David, 2003), Bidayuh (Dealwis and David, 2007), and Punjabi (David, Naji and Sheena Kaur, 2003, David and Baljit Kaur, 2004) communities. Eventually this interest in language choice of minority communities in Malaysia led to the publication of a volume entitled *National Language Planning and Language Shifts in Malaysian Minority Communities: Speaking in many tongues* (Mukherjee and David, 2011) by Amsterdam University Press. What became manifestly clear from the research was that many of the Indian communities in Malaysia, like the Punjabi, Sindhi, and, Malayalee (Nambiar and David, 2002) communities, had shifted away from the habitual use of their heritage languages (Mukherjee and David, 2007). Language choices and issues of identity of children from mixed marriages was discussed by Dealwis and David 2010) and issues of identity when a community shifts away from its ethnic language was discussed in David, 2008 when researching Malaysian Sindhis who although have shifted to the English language have maintained other aspects of their cultural identity.

Noticing from the transcripts that much code switching occurred in the shift away from the ethnic language (David and Dealwis, 2009), we began to also notice and to study code mixing and code switching and code shifting in many domains - not only in the homes (David, 2010a and 2010b) but also in the classrooms, courtrooms (Powell and David, 2010) and official meetings (McLellan and David, 2008) and even in newspaper headlines (David, McLellan, Kuang and Ain, 2009) and emails (Kuang and David, 2008). An edited volume on *Codeswitching in Malaysia* by Peter Lang was the result of such research-based studies (David, McLellan, Shameem and Ain, 2009). These studies showed fairly conclusively that in multilingual, multiethnic Malaysia, codemixing and codeswitching has become a norm in both official and unofficial domains (David and McLellan, 2011b).

As the focus of the studies of minority communities emphasised on language choice, I moved on to determine language choices in the linguistic landscape. In one co-authored study, 400 photographs were analysed to determine the strategies used by businesses to circumvent official government policies in Malaysia, regarding the national language policy. These strategies included code mixing and a certain degree of accommodation (see David and Mannan 2015; Mannan, David, Dumanig and Channa, 2017) including the use of American brand names like KFC and McDonalds.

Discourse

Discourse of the elderly

All these studies clearly fell within the ambit of Sociolinguistics. However, in analysing the transcripts where my previous focus was on Language choice in minority communities, I moved on to study the discourse normsof different groups-the elderly and the youth (David, Yee, Ngeow and Gan 2009 and David 2010d)) and these discourse norms of the elderly included off target verbosity, painful self-disclosure and self- handicapping talk.

Politeness Norms in Discourse

Norms of what was deemed polite or impolite discourse of some ethnic communities in Malaysia was also studied (see David, 2008, David and Dumanig, 2009). Slowly I shifted away from community and family studies (see David and Kow 2008 edited volume *Politeness in Malaysian Family Discourse*) to examining and comparing politeness norms as seen in the discourse at service encounters in government and private hospitals in Malaysia (Kuang, David, Lau and Ang 2011) and in government departments like the post office, income tax department (David, Kuang and Dealwis 2012) and in parliament (David, 2007; Ngeow, Kuang and David, 2010). Politeness as seen in the address forms used by Filipino house-help to their employers was recorded and reported (see Gan, David, & Dumanig, 2015).

Gender and LGBT Discourse

Gender Discourse on how successful men and women represent themselves in interviews (David and Yong, 2008), media representations of the elderly (David and Ponmalar, 2013) and the discourse of the LGBT community (Dealwis, and David, 2011) was also the focus of some research studies. Where in the first two we used written discourse, in the case of the LGBT community our data consisted of spoken discourse.

Discourse and Religion

Religion and language choice became the focus of other studies and resulted in research papers focussing on conversation narratives and construction of identity among Christians in Malaysia (see Dumanig, David and Dealwis, 2011). Moves and lexical choices used in the narratives in the form of testimonies were used to analyse the data. Religious and national identities represented in the narratives of migrant Filipino Muslim migrants in Malaysia (Dumanig, David, Orcullo, Hanafi, Jubilado,R. 2016). were analysed using Self Categorisation Theory (Turner, 1985). In the case of majority Islam in multi-religious Malaysia we (David and Yoong, 2011) examined the anti-apostasy rhetoric in the Lina Joy case. Lina Joy was a Malaysian Muslim girl who wanted to convert to Christianity and the case had to be taken to court as this was considered illegal in Muslim dominant Malaysia. Content analysis was used to discuss the anti-apostasy rhetoric used.

Relational and Power Concerns in Professional Discourse

Much of the discourse selected resulted in studies on Relational and Power Concerns in Professional Communications (see David, 2006) which included the discourse of our current Prime Minister (David, 2010c, David and Dumanig 2011c). Ideologies affect power and language plays an important role in constructing and deconstructing ideologies. Presuppositions and implicatures were used by the Prime Minister in his many speeches to sustain the ideology of national unity in multicultural Malaysia.

Discourse in Legal Judgements

We also studied the stance taken by judges as seen in their judgements on rape cases. The excessive use of pathos or emotional appeals in some of the judgements studied led to the further victimization of the rape victim. (logos or the use of logic or factual arguments were not seen in the judgements examined).

Discourse and Human Rights

Issues of citizens and non-citizens being deprived of basic human rights relating to language resulted in an edited volume on *Language and Human Rights* (David, 2007). Intentional mistranslation by an interpreter in a courtroom sometimes led to some injustice meted out to the accused. (David and Baatinathan, 2007)

Discourse and Speech Acts

In examining spoken discourse, I noted the use of Speech Acts. Speech Acts, i.e., what we do when we speak, for example “hello” can be a greeting and “I am sorry to

hear this“ can be a speech act of condolence. Responses to the speech act of compliments vary across cultures and the use of literary texts was used to depict such differences (David, 2002 and 2008, David et al 2016). Even obituaries reflect cultural and religious norms (David and Yong, 2002) as does the language of condolences (David, 2018). In the research on obituaries, our initial data came from newspapers but in 2018 the data came from Facebook and other social media. In more recent times our data base has broadened to encompass data from what's app, emails, twitter etc.

Discourse and Dementia

Today I am moving on to research on the discourse of the elderly and have encouraged my students to focus on the study of parents experiencing dementia. This has helped them to understand and be patient with parents who ask the same questions again and again. Such studies have utility, and hopefully result in better interpersonal relationships due to understanding the effects of dementia.

Sociolinguistics and Social Psychology

Whilst interviewing grandparents and parents on their language choice in the home domain I often heard statements like, "What is the use of their ethnic language in Malaysia? Or "The teacher asked me to use English'. It was clear then that attitudes to the value or utility of a language played a pivotal role in determining the language used. In any book on Social Psychology one will find a chapter or two on attitudes. There is therefore, a clear link between attitude and language maintenance or shift (see David and McLellan, 2011) on motivations for language shift.

Another subject that emerges in Social Psychology is the notion of assimilation, both the assimilation of Language and Culture. I was then motivated to conduct a commissioned study of the Indian community in Malaysia (David, 2012) where communities can move away from their language but can yet, maintain their cultures (David, 1998; David 2008), or at times assimilate some aspects of culture of the larger majority of the community (David and Dealwis, 2009).

Sociolinguistics, Discourse Analysis and Social Psychology- Impact on Language Teaching

As a Language teacher I could make the links between attitude, motivation, and language learning. Consequently, as a language teacher my research interests moved on to studies in the field of Applied Linguistics. Capitalising on Language Contact and Borrowing (David, 1993), I was able to produce a paper to demonstrate to Language Teachers how such borrowings could aid learning. Noticing the use of Communicative Strategies (David, 2002, 2006) in the community experiencing shift, I realised that this could be used as a strategy by learners when they faced communication challenges in the target language. Communicative Strategies and Cross-Cultural Awareness were then proposed to serve as core components for the teaching of Business English (David and Govindasamy, 2002). In relation to this, data collected from codeswitching in the courtroom became the raw material for a paper promoting Action Research, and the use of authentic data for the ESP practitioner (see David, 2005).

Our Sociolinguistic research on gender discourse in parliament (David and Ngeow, 2007, 2011) also resulted in an interest on investigating the male voice in an ESL classroom (Govindasamy and David, 2004) and in a paper on gendered discourse and ramifications for English language teaching (Zuraidah and David, 2003). In short, my specialisation in Sociolinguistics heightened the awareness on language choice and the norms of politeness, both of which are useful when teaching languages.

What I am trying to show in this paper is that as researchers, we should not constrain and limit our interests and studies in one field of linguistics. They are intertwined. As

professionals, we will grow and develop as researchers, as language teachers and as educationists if we are flexible and attempt to see the connections between the different subdisciplines of linguistics.

Current Research

These days I am working on research which is cross-disciplinary and cross-country and which has some practical value to professions. For instance, we worked on government published brochures and leaflets in two countries which aimed at encouraging diabetic patients to eat wisely and carefully, and to exercise. We showed these to the public in both countries and asked if such information encouraged them to follow the advice given. They critiqued the information and they were obviously not following the advice provided. Such input could result in better publications which have greater impact and which could reduce diabetes which takes a toll on government resources and the life of many (Azirah Hashim et al 2018)

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Using Portfolio Assessment in a Pakistani ESL Classroom at the University level

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Abstract

In Pakistani context, traditional assessment approach is practiced for teaching and testing writing although it is considered less effective. In fact, educationists have proposed different alternatives and portfolio assessment is one of them. This action research aims to examine the efficacy of portfolio assessment in Pakistani ESL classrooms for learning and teaching of writing skills. For this, 25 undergraduate students of Mathematics Department, University of Karachi, Pakistan, were taught writing skills through portfolios, which were assessed by providing detailed feedback on weekly basis. Also, students' controlled but anonymous feedback was taken on exit slips after every writing class. The findings revealed that it is a useful alternative which makes learning and teaching of writing easy for learners and teachers both since it helped learners to improve. It also taught them the significance of feedback and they benefitted from it too as there was a noticeable difference between their first and final drafts. Even their later write-ups were very much improved as they worked on the provided feedback and took the feed forward. Therefore, this study serves as a source of motivation for the teachers who are resistant to use portfolio assessment for writing skills in Pakistani ESL classrooms.

Key words: Assessment for learning; Portfolio Assessment; Feedback; Feed-forward

Abbreviations:

AoL: Assessment of learning; AfL: Assessment for learning; and AaL: Assessment as learning

Introduction

Assessment has a major role to play in the teaching and learning process. However, the purpose of assessment varies as it aims to award degrees or certificates while in some cases it intends to promote learning and sometimes helps to know how to learn. These purposes are widely known as three approaches of assessment; namely, AoL (Assessment of learning), AfL (Assessment for learning) and AaL (Assessment as learning) (Carless, 2011; Earl, 2003). Nevertheless, in Pakistani context, majority of the teachers focus on summative testing, i.e. AoL, since the purpose of assessment in our context is to grade students. Talking specifically about writing which is considered as the most difficult skill to master for ESL/EFL learners, using Aol only is insufficient (Khan, 2011; Mashori, 2009). Further, traditional writing tests in language courses do not reflect learners' actual writing ability as Bachman (1991) also stated that the kind of tests learners undertake can affect their performance.

On the other hand, process approach to writing does not focus on end-product unlike traditional examinations. Birjandi and Tamjid (2012) believed that teachers must move from the traditional tests to some performance-based tests. In particular, the emphasis is on improving the standards of teaching, more specifically teaching writing, because writing is not a product instead a process. In process approach, steps are followed and in order to teach those steps one has to adopt the formative assessment methodology so that every step can be monitored. Shepard et al. (2005) described formative assessment as "assessment carried out during the instructional process for the purpose of improving teaching or learning" (p. 275). Looking at this more explicitly, many researchers started experimenting with portfolio-based approaches as an attractive alternative to writing assessment and by the late 1980s, it came out as a multiple-purpose tool for both teachers and learners (Park, 2004).

Portfolios are defined as "a collection of texts the writer has produced over a defined period of time" (Hamp-Lyons, 1991, p. 262). In other words, it can be viewed as a

proof of learning or improvement over time as it provides a detailed record of the activities learners were involved in throughout the course. Furthermore, it works as an effective learning tool for learners because it helps them determine their writing abilities and inabilities through self-assessment, peer-assessment and teacher's feedback (Lucas, 2008). Giving feedback does not mean the end of teacher's responsibility. In fact, it is where the teacher's responsibility actually starts as through portfolio maintenance they get to know about learners' deficiencies, which can then help them alter their teaching strategies accordingly or to slow down their pace and focus on a particular sub-skill. Therefore, this portfolio assessment serves as assessment for learning because learners are assessed with the purpose of being taught rather than being tested. Also, it provides room for the modification of pedagogical practices on the basis of learners' needs.

Moreover, feedback acts as the backbone of formative assessment as it tells learners about their performance that can have a direct impact on their future developments (Hattie, 2009; Luik, 2007). Immediate feedback can have a more positive impact as Hattie (2009) states that feedback is actually productive when learners get to know about the accuracy or inaccuracy of their answers as quickly as possible. On the contrary, delayed feedback can be overlooked and it may not leave anyroom for feed-forward. Basically, the purpose of feedback is to fill the gap between existing knowledge and recommended knowledge of a learner (Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006).

Nevertheless, portfolio assessment seems very challenging for many of the Pakistani teachers; therefore, they completely rely on traditional teaching and testing system and they do not want to experiment further (Mashori, 2009). In addition to this, the imposition of prescribed curriculum and assessment system do not allow the teachers to adopt contemporary approaches. "The shortcomings in the curriculum, examination, inefficient teachers, methods and techniques" are some of the issues in the Pakistani education system due to which imaginative writing is not promoted in classrooms (Warsi, 2004, p. 1). Similarly, according to Siddiqui (2007), if teachers are willing to develop this writing ability among their students, they face the other challenges like "large-size classes, lack of resources, untrained teachers, fixed syllabus or forty minutes duration for class" (p. 161). In spite of all these hurdles, if they do, they teach writing through product approach expecting the learners to create masterpieces at once. Furthermore, there is no room for feedback and many of the teachers just grade or score the end-product as it saves their time and energy too. Hence, this issue needs to be given importance by using alternative methods of assessment that are effective in teaching and assessing writing skills as this can provide a room for improvement through feed-forward. Besides this, successful implication of the portfolio assessment as an alternative for teaching and assessing writing skills will benefit the other teachers teaching writing skills to the ESL learners.

The purpose of this research is to adopt alternative assessment approach, more specifically portfolio assessment to teach writing skills to the Pakistani ESL learners and study its usefulness and impact on teaching and learning. Thus, it aims to seek answers to the following research questions:

1. How can the implementation of portfolio assessment improve undergraduate students' writing?
2. What are the learners' beliefs and attitudes towards portfolio assessment?
3. How does the feed-forward help teachers and learners?

Literature Review

Previously, many research studies have been conducted in the field of alternative assessment, particularly related to writing, which have favoured process approach to

writing and portfolio assessment (Forutan, 2014; Lam, 2008; Romova & Andrew, 2011). Therefore, this section deals with the review of a few of those research studies that were carried out in both global and local context.

Alderson & Banerjee (2001) defined altenative assessment as opposite to traditional testing because altenative assessment is less formal and not taken at specific time, which makes it formative in nature and it has positive backwash effect. For instance, Forutan's (2014) comparative study evaluated EFL learners' performance in a traditional writing assessment and alternative writing assessment. The results uncovered that alternative assessment improved the content, style and organisation of the essays written by those learners as they followed a process where the feedback was also given. Further, the learners exhibited a positive attitude towards alternative assessment. This research showed the effectiveness of alternative assessment approach.

Earlier, Short (1993) gave a number of alternatives for assessment such as 'performance-tasks, portfolios, interviews and checklists'. More specifically for the writing pupose, Song & August (2002) in their quantitative study found out that if non-native English learners are evaluated through portfolio assessment rather than standardised final written test, they are more likely to pass their English courses. They stated that portfolio assessment is a suitable alternative for ESL learners. Likewise, Nezakatgoo's (2011) quasi-experimental research disclosed the same results that portfolio assessment has a potential to improve writing in terms of mechanics and learners score high if they are taught through portfolio assessment. In another study, Lam (2008) shared his experience of using portfolio-based assessment, where the students were given proper feedback both oral and written. Through his experience, he found out that writing portfolio serves as an effective assessment tool in assessing learners' language. One of the reasons for this effectiveness of portfolio assessment is feedback because it serves as the most powerful assessment tool to enhance learning (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Lucas (2008) in her qualitative study analysed the reflective essays written by university students to evaluate their performance. During the term those students maintained a portfolio which later helped them improve the identified language problems and their communicative skills. She discovered that through portfolio assessment learners were able to identify their linguistic problems. Hence, portfolio assessment promotes autonomous learning that is also proven with one study of Romova and Andrew (2011), which examined the use and benefits of portfolios by interviewing 44 learners enrolled in academic writing course. The results revealed that learners did not only benefit from the provided feedback but portfolio itself taught them about the importance of prewriting, outlining, editing and proof-reading. Alderson & Banerjee (2001) in their review article, pointed out that writing is a process that involves several stages like 'planning, editing, revising and redrafting', which is the complete opposite of what traditional writing tests offer. It gives an opportunity to the learners to know about their learning.

In addition to this, portfolio assessment is much favoured because of the feedback. However, research has shown that sometimes students do not read it or if they do, they do not understand it. For example, Havnes, Smith, Dysthe, and Ludvigsen's (2012) mixed method study disclosed that the teachers give feedback along with the grades on assignments only if they are complete. Moreover, they had preconceived notion that their students use the given feedback, but the students said that they rarely do it as their teachers never refer back to it in their teaching. This study showed the ineffectiveness on teachers' part. Price, Handley, Millar, and O'Donovan (2010), in their study revealed that many of the students take feedback as an insult if tickbox

feedback is used. Therefore, feedback should be formed in a way that it brings back learners' active involvement in it and opens up the doors of learning. For instance, Zhang and Zheng (2018) studied the methods and usefulness of feedback in a UK university setting. The findings disclosed that the students' work was praised regardless of mistakes and errors and some feedback for improvising their drafts was also given. Besides this, the students knew that the feedback they get is to be taken forward to improve the standard of their future assignments. Similarly, the survey-based study carried out by Dawson, et al., (2018) disclosed that teachers and learners both know that the aim of feedback is improvement. Besides, learners had a belief that detailed feedback has more worth.

In Pakistani context, Khan (2011) carried out a research through collecting data from the students, who were in-service school teachers. The study showed that Pakistani English language teachers do not teach creative writing; instead the focus is on memorising stories and essays from the provided notes or books. In fact, those teachers were unaware of the approaches used for teaching writing in western educational setting. She also identified that those teachers correct their learners' mistakes by themselves. The critical review of this study reveals the ignorance on teachers' part. It also shows that these teachers hamper learners' learning and improvemnet through giving direct feedback. On the other hand, Thomas (2012) revealed no difference in the beliefs of trained and untrained teachers about classroom assessment. The teachers were used to employing traditional methods because they lacked confidence in adopting those alternative techniques of assessing writing. To be critical, it questions the impact and benefit of training because those trained teachers were reluctant to use learner-centred assessment.

As reviewed in this section, many teachers have experimented portfolio assessment for writing skills in global context and ample studies have been published too. On the contrary, in Pakistani context, hardly a few studies have been conducted on teaching and testing of writing. The review of literature has shown that in local context, there are no research studies on portfolio assessment. Hence, this study is an attempt to fill that research gap.

Methodology

The design for this qualitative study is action research. Since I am a teacher, I decided to experiment this portfolio assessment in my own classes rather than being an outsider somewhere else. Therefore, I am one of the participants. The sample was drawn from 25 students who were in first year studying EAP as a compulsory course at Mathematics Department, University of Karachi, Pakistan. Primarily, the consent was taken from the students allowing me, as a teacher-researcher, to conduct this study in my classes for a period of eight weeks. When their writing proficiency in English language was determined through their first write-up, it was observed that many of them had limited English proficiency, which means they could not write more and they had issues in grammatical construction and vocabulary. The participants were then orally given all the details about portfolio and its maintenance as they had no prior experience of maintaining portfolios.

Two instruments were used to collect the needed data for this study. Firstly, students were asked to maintain writing portfolio carrying all the write-ups from unstructured free writings to structured essays. These write-ups were assessed on weekly basis in terms of mechanics, style, content and organization for which detailed feedback was given every time. After each feedback session, I focused on particular sub-skills, which were seen more problematic, like grammar (word classes, subject-verb agreement and tenses), punctuation, cohesive ties etc. Then the students were encouraged to revise their drafts and keep all of them in the portfolio. Nonetheless,

their write-ups were never graded at that time as the purpose was AfL, not AoL. Secondly, along with this document analysis, the participants were asked to provide their anonymous feedback on exit slips at the end of every writing class. Though, this feedback was controlled as they were always given a purposively chosen question (See Appendix A). It, first, helped me reflect and plan my lessons. Later that feedback was analysed thematically keeping the research questions in mind. Following research ethics, learners' names were removed from all the collected data and it has been coded using their initials.

Analysis and Discussion

Primarily, the learners were unaware about writing portfolio, so I discussed the concept of portfolio assessment and told them its advantages. They were made to realize the importance of portfolio assessment and how it is going to be beneficial for them. They were told that two to three writing classes are not sufficient for learning to write. I did not try to impose it on them as I believe, learners should know the purpose behind each strategy of a teacher. Initially, in order to facilitate them, I decided not to point out all of their mistakes. Secondly, they did free writing on the topics they like. The rationale behind this was to see their interest and they wrote on different topics. In fact, some of them discussed several topics in one write-up. This helped me select a few topics for further writing classes. Some of the topics were related to science, honesty, schooling, social media, and transport etc. I formerly used direct feedback then moved to focused feedback by pointing out their major mistakes or the areas I wanted them to focus on. Later with mutual understanding, we developed a key and I started giving metalinguistic feedback. Metalinguistic feedback is a type of corrective feedback in which codes are assigned according to the nature of the error (Ellis, 2009).

There are many advantages of using the portfolio as a form of assessment (Lucas, 2008) when used on a small scale. Problems tend to arise when it involves bigger scales because the grading and feedback process become more complicated when many students are involved. Occasionally, feedback may become coloured by subjectivity thereby affecting the validity and reliability of using the portfolio as an assessment technique. However, as suggested by Herman, Gearhart, & Aschbacher (1996), properly developed instructions and criteria can guarantee reliability in the evaluation of the portfolio. Therefore, I designed a set of criteria at the beginning of this study.

Later part of this section deals with the analysis of the data collected through students' written work and feedback slips. The analysis is structured into three sections, which are divided on the basis of the research questions posed earlier.

RQ1: How can the implementation of portfolio assessment improve undergraduate students' writing?

Portfolio assessment is a continuous process; therefore, I believe it helped the learners develop their writing ability as they wrote through a process approach which helped them gather content at first place so that they do not run out of ideas. Bachman (1991) stated that planning is a part of any task. Thus, preparing an outline for each write up helped them improve organization of their paragraphs and essays, and they really learnt to make a comprehensive outline (See Appendix B). These findings are in line with the earlier literature, which showed that alternative assessment helps to improve the organisation and content of students' writing (Forutan, 2014). The learners also learned the importance of writing through a process approach. Below are a few of their comments:

'Making outline helps me more in writing because I usually run out of ideas while writing' (HA)

'I believe my final version of the essay is better and it is because I wrote many times' (MM)

Besides this, it helped them improve their grammar because it was an on-going process and they were made to revise their drafts due to which they got enough chances to practise certain elements of grammar (such as subject-verb agreement, tenses, run-on sentences, prepositions, articles etc.), vocabulary and sentence structure (See Appendix C). The learners were also able to see their improvement as two of them commented in response to one of the questions:

'Yes, I noticed many mistakes and found final draft more improved than first draft as many grammatical and tense mistakes were corrected' (IF)

'There is a big difference between them, first draft has a bulk of mistakes but last one is more properly structure and better' (AS)

Further, the students accepted that writing portfolio has taught them word order and they are able to make meaningful sentences. In addition to this, it was observed through their write ups that portfolio assessment has taught them how to use different discourse markers and give examples to support main points (See Appendix D). William (2011) also drew a conclusion that assessment has the potential to support learning. In fact, students realised it too. Here is a comment made by a girl: *'At first, I used to write without using connectors and without giving examples. Now that I wrote with it, my essay becomes presentable, interesting and my writing has improved' (HA).*

Thus, I think that this continuous process of writing helped them progress as they all were given timely feedback and as a result their writing ability improved.

Nevertheless, portfolio assessment did not work equally well with all the learners as there were a few students who had very limited English proficiency due to which they could not write more. I tried to help them at every step but because of a number of students and limited time during the class, sometimes they were ignored as I had to give equal time to every learner. Also, there was no possibility of one-to-one mentoring since they had consecutive classes of other subjects too.

RQ2: What are the learners' beliefs and attitudes towards portfolio assessment?

The students' anonymous feedback on exit slips revealed different attitudes, which I have categorised into three phases. Initially, the learners were very much reluctant as they did not like the idea of maintaining portfolio. I think this feeling was there because they were not habitual of writing anything of their own, which they indirectly accepted in my classes too when they said they had always reproduced learned essays. Also, they lacked writing skills as when they were asked to write for the first time, many of them could not write more than 5 lines (See Appendix E). They had a belief that English compulsory course does not require them to write anything as one of them stated, *'I don't understand why we write. My seniors don't write in their English classes' (SU).* In fact, when they were told that they will be maintaining a portfolio, many of them did not agree with this and requested for 100 marks exam. I think it was only because they were habitual of traditional method of assessment. Then I had a discussion with them where I told them that they are much capable and they should give a chance to themselves. I stated that writing is a process and a single exam cannot measure their writing ability especially when you have exam anxiety or you are in stress while taking your exam. They were also motivated extrinsically as I said this portfolio assessment will help them score good marks.

However, after two to three write-ups came the second phase where their perspective changed and many of them felt confident and started liking it. I feel it was all because they were writing on the topics of their choice as Bachman (1991) mentioned that performance can be affected by the choice of topics. They had a feeling that they are

becoming less hesitant and now they can write more easily. I believe this was right because it was evident from their writing as they started writing longer paragraphs. Talking particularly about their attitudes, many of the learners thought that it was a time consuming activity, but, at the same time, they also agreed with the fact that this is actually helping them. They realised the significance of maintaining the portfolio and they started seeing it as a good use of their time. Below are some of the responses they provided on feedback slips revealing their feelings about portfolio writing:

'It's time-taking but it's good that teacher asks us to write, it will improve our way of expressing'(SU).

'I feel that it is a very positive way to express and it is good for our own betterment' (IN)

This finding corroborates the literature that revealed learners' positive attitude towards alternative assessment (Forutan, 2014). Conversely, a few of them found this writing portfolio difficult and felt stressed, but other students responded positively as they had a belief that prior knowledge helps them write more. Following are a few of the responses:

'Sometimes it is very difficult to write' (AS)

'No, it is not difficult at all. If we have knowledge about the topic, we can easily write it' (RI)

I agree that it was very difficult for a few learners. It was not because they lacked ideas but because they had very limited language proficiency. I saw them struggling through words. To address this, I started doing a warm-up activity where we used to gather all the words related to the given topic, which provided the learners with plenty of words in hand. It later helped them write with ease. Without any doubt, I can say that this was all because we have traditional system of teaching and assessing that never allowed those students write their own ideas. Instead, they had always crammed the provided notes.

Nevertheless, almost at the end of this study came the third phase, where most of the learners started believing that they have improved a lot (which was true for some of them, See Appendix F) and now this writing portfolio should come to an end. Also, they had a confidence that their second drafts were much better, so there was no need for the third draft. It was stated by one of the learners, *'I am fed up of it. It is exciting but sometimes I feel enough of it and try to rapidly complete it' (RI)*. In order to find out the reason behind this feeling, students were asked another question to which they answered that writing the same thing for the third time has made them think this way; two of their responses are quoted here:

'It was quite easy to write and I used to be excited about the feedback but when the teacher asked us to rewrite the write up for the third time, it is quite exhausting' (SK)

'Starting of every new topic is good but in the end it becomes boring' (HI)

At this point, I motivated them extrinsically by increasing the marks of the portfolio and by assigning marks for each draft. It worked positively in my classes as marks have always been students' weakness. They suddenly became interested and did not highlight it again.

Overall, they all agreed that their experience of maintaining this portfolio was good. They believed it to be a better way for assessing their writing. In fact, when asked at the end, they replied that they did not want to be assessed through traditional written exam which initially was favoured by many of them. They had a trust that they had developed in terms of their writing through this portfolio assessment.

RQ3: How does the feed-forward help teachers and learners?

One of the benefits of formative assessment is that it provides room for feedback. This writing portfolio benefitted the students mainly in two ways. Firstly, the students

had enough chances to write. Secondly, they were given feedback on each write-up and every time they were asked to revise their drafts for which they had to read and interpret the given feedback because it was metalinguistic feedback as mentioned earlier.

The learners could not overlook the provided feedback because they were told that their third draft of each write-up is going to be marked. Therefore, every time the learners after receiving their writing portfolios read the given feedback and had a discussion with me and together they worked to revise their checked drafts. In addition to this, there were a few students who separately came to discuss their mistakes, which shows their seriousness towards feedback. I strongly feel it helped the students develop their writing skills. One of the students commented on anonymous feedback slip, *'you always have room for improvement' (SK),* which shows they understand this idea of feedback, which validates the earlier research studies (Dawson et al., 2018).

Most of the students tried to work on those specific areas which were pointed out in their write-ups. Due to this not only their final drafts of the marked version were improved (See Appendix C) but also the write-ups they wrote later on carried less mistakes despite the fact that those were their first draft (See Appendix F). Moreover, it lessened my burden as a teacher because their later pieces of writing were much improved and they were actually taking the feed forward. Feed forward does not only imply the improvement of one draft but also helps to improve all the upcoming write-ups because one remembers that feed and take it forward to improve the later pieces of writing. Similarly, it is proved through other studies and papers (Carless & Boud, 2018; Dawson, et al., 2018; Peterson & McClay, 2010).

This study also revealed that if feedback is taken seriously, and learners work on it, it can improve the overall quality of their writing. In this study, the given feedback was taken forward which helped the learners improve their grammar (i.e. tense, agreement, prepositions, run on sentences, articles etc.), vocabulary, sentence structure and over all organization of the essay, which was the last write-up of the portfolio (See Appendix G). They started becoming autonomous learners as they started understanding that the given feedback is to be taken forward.

In fact, while maintaining portfolios, there was a stage when students wrote first draft of their essays and submitted to me with the hope of getting the feedback on them but I just signed and returned them and they were asked to revise and produce the second draft (See Appendix G). It was then they realised the existence of feed forward as they looked for the already given feedback on their previous write-ups and took it forward and improved the second draft of their essays. Hence, I believe, this formative approach, which provided them timely feedback, facilitated many of those learners in excelling their writing abilities.

Conclusion

To sum up, considering writing as a process and introducing portfolio assessment in ESL classrooms provide opportunity to the learners to continue to write, improve and learn through this process approach rather than having a pressure of being marked, which can even hamper their learning by leaving a negative backwash effect. Also, it motivates them and promotes the idea of AaL and AfL as they were provided with the feedback which benefitted them and improved their writing and there was an evident difference between their first write-up and last write-up. It was all because they took the feed-forward. Despite being reluctant at initial stages, the learners became motivated as soon as they understood the worth of maintaining writing portfolio as Wang (2004) said that learners' wish or need to learn a foreign language would make the learners work hard; otherwise, they would not. Additionally, the findings of the

study reveals that the application of the given feedback on later drafts has made them autonomous learners. Being their teacher, I realise that portfolio assessment is a very suitable alternative for second language learners as they are not proficient writers and they need to go step by step. Thus, utilizing portfolio as an alternative for teaching writing skills enhances students' confidence to continue writing and developing their writing skills.

Limitations of the study

This study was conducted successfully although there were a few limitations which became barriers in learning of a few students. Firstly, I had the very first class with them early in the morning and a few learners used to come late as they lived far away. It became a constraint as learners needed time to write especially when they were at initial stages. Had I been allotted another time slot, this would not have been an issue. Secondly, there were three to four students who were very irregular due to which they could not properly maintain portfolio, and they were always a draft behind which was very annoying as I had to guide them separately which affected the performance of other learners. Though now I feel that this limitation can be overcome by rewarding students for full attendance. Despite all these drawbacks, portfolio assessment is still recommended for it provides a true reflection of students' development in terms of writing skills.

Future Recommendations

Keeping the results of this study in mind, following recommendations are made. Firstly, if this study is replicated, duration of the study should be more than ten weeks. It will provide enough chances for learners to write, improve and reflect on their learning and to work on the given feedback more positively. Secondly, students should be given freedom to choose the topics of their choice as it affects their performance. Thirdly, in order to facilitate all the learners, time duration of each class for writing activities needs to be considered. Fourthly, learners should be asked to reflect on their learning as I feel reflections of my learners could have added more value to this study. In last, if this study is replicated, I would recommend the researcher to promote self-assessment so that learners can take responsibility of their own learning.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 'A'

Q1. How do you feel when you are asked to write?

Q2. Have you read the provided feedback? If yes, have you understood it? If not, why not?

Q3. Comment on the given feedback.

Q4. Is it really difficult to write?

Q5. Compare your first draft and the final draft. What differences can you see? Comment on them.

Q6. Why are we preparing the portfolio?

Q7. Is it time-consuming or the good use of your time?

Q8. Provide feedback on my feedback.

Q9. Have you understood the marking criteria that will be used for assessing portfolios?

Q10. Is it helpful to write through process approach? Explain.

Q11. Do you prefer to be assessed through traditional written tests?

Q12. Why do you prefer portfolio assessment as initially you were against it?

Q13. Last time I did not give you the feedback. Did you realise how important it is? Comment on it.

Q14. Compare your very first write-up of this writing portfolio with the current one. What differences can you see?

Q15. How was your experience of maintaining the portfolio?

Q16. What were the major benefits of maintaining portfolio?

Pakistani EFL Teachers' Beliefs and Practices Regarding Pronunciation

Khursheed Ahmad & Asra Irshad

Abstract

Over the past few years, an overwhelming interest has been observed in teaching and learning pronunciation. Although, this resulted in proliferation of pronunciation related studies and resources, more important is to see whether they have influenced EFL teachers or not. The purpose of the present study was to investigate Pakistani EFL teachers' beliefs and practices about pronunciation. To elicit related information, 20 university teachers who were teaching linguistics and communication skills completed a survey questionnaire. The findings showed that EFL teachers had adequate knowledge of pronunciation and were willing to teach it. However, they tended to follow traditional ways of teaching pronunciation e.g. individual sounds, silent sounds in words and especially problematic sounds through repetition and drills. Moreover, EFL teachers asked for more trainings on pronunciation teaching, as reported by prior studies (e.g. Burgess & Spencer, 2000; Foote, Holtby, & Derwing, 2011). This study examines the issues and needs of EFL teacher and identifies directions for future research on belief and practices about pronunciation that will help to establish ways to overcome the issues and address their needs.

Key words: Beliefs, EFL teacher, Pronunciation, training

1. Introduction

Although pronunciation is one of the most important and integral part of language teaching, it has been neglected for decades by both researchers and instructors. On the other hand, teaching of grammar has received a considerable attention from researchers (Borg, 2003). However, it is quite recent that researchers began to address various issues regarding pronunciation such as pronunciation training and professional development for teachers (Burns, 2006; Foote, Trofimovich, Collins, & Soler Urz-ua, 2016; Henderson et al., 2012; Murphy, 2014a), the importance and role of pronunciation features for successful communication (Derwing, Munro, &Wiebe, 1998; Hahn, 2004), how L2 listeners perceive the accented speech (Lippi-Green, 1997; Munro, 2003) and teachers lack of confidence to teach pronunciation (Baker, 2011; Foote, Holtby, & Derwing, 2011; Fraser, 2000; Macdonald, 2002). However, in the recent decades, the availability of related text books, activities, interactive CDs, digital apps and advent of internet made it easier for teachers and researchers to have more focus on pronunciation teaching and explore new dimensions of teaching and learning.

Language classroom in EFL context has two integral parts: teacher and students. The focus of the present study is the former: the EFL teacher. Teachers' classroom practice is the reflection of their beliefs and knowledge about pronunciation. This study has attempted to explore the Pakistani EFL teachers' beliefs and practices at postgraduate level.

2. Teachers' beliefs and practices about pronunciation

Teachers' cognition, beliefs and knowledge, is a vital concept in theory which unfolds their thought processes and teaching practices. It was not earlier than 1970s when research on language teaching tended to show interest in teachers' beliefs generating a considerable body of research. These studies helped to design a new syllabus for future ESL/EFL and modify the older ones to equip them with latest knowledge and development and in the field, material and modern instruction methods. A range of research studies on teachers' cognition have revealed some common findings. However, due to use of varied research methods, different contexts and level of participants and diverse topics, they were hardly comparable.

Breitkreutz, Derwing and Rossiter (2001) recorded the responses of instructors engaged in ESL program in Canada. The study confirmed the beliefs reported by prior studies regarding pronunciation teaching. For instance, teachers believed that pronunciation instruction is important in L2 context. They also argued that pronunciation teaching should focus on intelligibility than attainment of native or near native accent which is further supported by the concept of 'World Englishes'. Teachers confirmed the teaching of segmental and suprasegmental features in pronunciation class. Some of the instructors noted that they had the preliminary level of professional training on pronunciation teaching and asked for more and advanced level of trainings. Interestingly, ten years later, this study was replicated by Foote, Holtby and Derwing (2011) reported the same findings about Canadian teacher beliefs and practices. However, one significant difference was that teachers were having more opportunities of professional trainings.

Baker (2011) interviewed five ESL teachers from language centres in North America. She found that teachers' cognition and practices about pronunciation teaching were positively influenced by research studies emphasising the teaching of prosody in language classroom. Similarly, Burgees and Spencer (2000) conducted a study on pronunciation teaching in UK. They recorded responses from 32 ESL teachers. Most of the instructors reported to have incorporated the teaching of pronunciation with other language skills and taken on spot decision about pronunciation related problems and used various methods and techniques to teach pronunciation. Although the respondents understood the importance of suprasegmental features, they seemed reluctant to teach them.

Similarly, two other studies regarding pronunciation teaching in Australia recorded teachers' voices asking for more training on pronunciation instruction. First study was carried out by Macdonald (2002) where he interviewed eight ESL teachers. He observed that teachers did not give enough pronunciation instruction. After discussion with teachers, he found that they were quite hesitant to teach pronunciation because they did not know how to assess students' pronunciation and correct their errors. Hence, Macdonald concluded that pronunciation teaching trainings were critical for both in-services and pre-service English teachers. Burns (2006) conducted a study on ESL teachers in Australian Adult Migrant English Program. He explored that teachers were quite confident in teaching pronunciation, still were demanding for further training on pronunciation teaching. He further reported that teachers were more focussed on teaching of segmental aspects in their pronunciation classes than supra segmental aspects.

With the advent of the concept of 'World Englishes' including English as International Language (EIL) and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), a range of studies have analysed EFL teachers' cognition regarding native and non-native accents i.e. Indian English, Arabic English and Chinese English. The idea behind the above-mentioned framework was to help EFL teachers and learners to focus on those aspects of pronunciation which could enable them to be intelligible to native and non-native speakers.

In Pakistan, English is taught as foreign language in most institutions, although some institutions with students from elite class may claim to teach English as a second language (ESL). In the pre-dominant and prevailing EFL setting, it might be unproductive to teach them pronunciation using native English pronunciation norms (Deterding, 2005; Jenkins, 2000). This question is always debatable whether EFL teachers would prefer to teach local variety of English (Indian, Pakistani) or Lingua Franca Core? It has generally been observed that EFL teachers tend to prefer native model for teaching (Henderson et al., 2012) because a majority of EFL teachers

believed that native or near accent is the demand of learners and parents as it is considered more correct than any local variety (Jenkins, 2005; Timmis, 2002).

EFL teachers from different contexts in various studies reported pronunciation to be one of the most important components of English language teaching. At the same time, they also expressed concerns over the poor quality of pronunciation training. Similar findings were recorded by English Pronunciation Teaching in Europe Survey (EPTiES), EFL teachers considered pronunciation as an important language skill. However, they expressed dissatisfaction over the quality and quantity of pronunciation trainings. (Henderson, 2013; Henderson et al., 2012; Waniek-Klimczak, 2013).

University EFL teachers in Pakistan receive no pre-service training. There are some training and workshop arranged for in-service teachers by the Higher Education Commission but unfortunately, they are more focused on other language skills than pronunciation teaching. Kluge (2004) argued that although pronunciation is considered an important skill, the amount of pronunciation instruction received by the EFL teacher is inadequate.

Use of activities for pronunciation teaching in an EFL class has been a challenge to teachers but hardly a few studies have addressed the use of activities to teach pronunciation. Hismanoglu and Hismanoglu (2010) in their study with 103 EFL teachers in North Cyprus reported that they taught pronunciation using the techniques of reading aloud, dialogues and dictionaries. Similarly, Buss (2013) reported that in Brazil, EFL teachers mainly teach segmental aspects and use correction, reading aloud and repetition as activities for teaching pronunciation.

Since English is taught in more than 100 countries (Crystal, 2003) and the number of EFL learners is over a billion (Graddol, 2000), it is important to find out more about teachers' cognition and practice in EFL contexts. Prior to this research, no detailed study has been conducted on EFL teachers' beliefs and practice regarding pronunciation. Very little is known about teachers' beliefs and practices in Pakistan. The present study attempted to investigate EFL teachers' beliefs and practices in Pakistan by surveying 20 EFL university and postgraduate college teachers. Following research questions guided the study:

3. Research Questions.

1. What are the self-reported practices of Pakistani EFL teachers regarding pronunciation at postgraduate level in Pakistan?
2. What are EFL teachers' beliefs and opinions about pronunciation learning and teaching?

4. Method

4.1 Instrument and procedure

Data were collected using a modified version of a survey questionnaire originally developed and used by Buss (2013). A total of 50 items (open-&-closed-ended) questions elicited information regarding three main domains including: 1. Demographic information 2. Pronunciation teaching practices 3. Cognition about pronunciation.

The participant consent was obtained through telephone and email. All the selected participants were teaching Phonetics & Phonology and Communication Skills. Moreover, the participants' L1 was Pashto, but they were equally proficient in Urdu and English. Quantitative questions were analysed, and the percentage of responses was calculated using SPSS ver. 24. The responses were then grouped together in broader categories. The analysed data was tabulated according to the category for the sake of convenience and clarity. For the analysis of qualitative data, responses were coded and broader themes were identified using Nvivo ver. 11.

4.2 Participants and the research context

The majority of participants in the current study were male (80%), most of them were between 32 to 45 years of age, and were working either in university or postgraduate college of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KP), Pakistan. The average age at which the participants started learning English was 6.5 years (ranging from 5 to 11 years), 15 of them started to learn English at the age of 5 while the remaining 5 were exposed to English at 11. None of them claimed to have native or near native pronunciation. However, all of them believed their pronunciation was intelligible to both natives and non-natives.

All the 20 participants were experienced EFL teachers. All of them taught English minimum for 10 years. Majority of them were highly qualified – three with a Ph.D. degree in Linguistics, 12 with an M.Phil. Degree in Linguistics while five with a Master's degree in language and literature were currently enrolled in M.Phil. However, only two had Diploma in English language teaching while rest of the teachers lacked formal education in the field.

5. Results

5.1 Teaching practices

5.1.1 Frequency of pronunciation teaching. In response to the item 'how often you teach pronunciation', 50 % reported always, 25 % said often; 15 % opted 'sometimes, and only 10 % answered rarely. None of the respondents answered that s/he had never taught pronunciation. One of the respondents commented that:

> *Teaching pronunciation to my students makes me striving learn pronunciation of new and foreign words which have been borrowed by English language with quite unexpected pronunciation: contrary to how they appear. As an English teacher people expect me to have native like pronunciation, I don't want to be embarrassed. I need to be as perfect in pronunciation as possible, it's the question of my honour in Pakhtun society. I always go for accurate and standard pronunciation and teach the same to my students.*

The comments allow us to infer that EFL teachers wish to maintain positive face before their students and in society. However, it is still unclear whether the pronunciation instructions are explicit. However, majority of EFL teacher believe that, more or less, they did give pronunciation instruction.

5.1.2 Suprasegmental instruction. The teachers were asked to report on how much time they spent on teaching suprasegmental aspects (stress, rhythm, intonation). The responses showed that 70 % teachers answered they spent 10 to 30 % of class time on teaching suprasegmental aspects. Only 20 % said they devoted half of their class time to teaching suprasegmentals. The remaining 10 % answered that they allocated almost 60 % of class time to teaching suprasegmentals because they played crucial role in communicating meaning.

5.1.3 General teaching approaches. Discussing their approaches to pronunciation teaching, 80 % participants revealed that they taught specific features when needed or when students for the same. Similarly, 60 % answered that they incorporated pronunciation instruction in teaching functional English or literature especially poetry.

5.1.4 Teaching of pronunciation features and activities. The respondents were provided a range of pronunciation quries and were asked to record their responses on Likert-scale. They were also asked to encircle the item if they could not understand. It would be explained with appropriate examples.

Table 1. How often different pronunciation aspects are taught?

Features	Never or rarely (%)	Sometimes	Often or always (%)
1. Problematic sounds: e.g. /p/, /f/ and /i/, /e/	10	5	85
2. Suffixes: -ed and –s endings	15	10	75
3. Word stress: present = PREsent, major = Major	20	5	75
4. Syllable structure: uni, bi and tri syllabic words	40	5	55
5. Silent letters	5	10	85
6. Minimal pairs: rat and pat	10	20	70
7. Connected speech	25	10	65
8. Accents difference	20	5	75
9. Intonation: falling and rising	50	10	40
10. Utterance stress: stress on certain words in utterances	70	10	20
11. schwa /ə/ and /ʌ/ difference	60	5	35
12. Weak forms	30	15	55

As shown in Table. 1, the most frequently taught pronunciation aspects were problematic sounds and silent letters (85%). Teachers reported that these two aspects are always or often focused on as Pashto speakers found /p/, /f/and /i/, /e/ challenging because they could hardly differentiate between these phonemes. The second most frequently taught aspects (75 %) were suffixes –ed, -s and –es, word stress and accents difference. Teachers reported that teaching word stress in British and American English was important for intelligibility. Similarly, 70 % said they always or often taught minimal pairs to acquaint the learners with differences among closely related vowels sounds. Among others, connected speech (65 %) syllable structure (55 %), intonation (50 %) was also practised in class. The least taught aspect was utterance stress: it was hardy/never focussed when pronunciation instruction was being given.

Similar to Table. 1, a list of related activities and techniques was given to teachers asking them to mark the frequency of their practice of the listed activities and techniques.

Table 2. How often different pronunciation activities are used?

Activities	Never or rarely (%)	Sometimes (%)	Often or always (%)
1. Imitation and repetition	0	0	100
2. Phonetic alphabet	20	10	70
3. Drills	5	5	90
4. Marking	50	20	30
5. Tactile reinforcement	20	10	70
6. Interactive media	50	5	45
7. Drama and role-play	60	20	20
8. Visual aids	10	30	60
9. Classroom games	50	20	30
10. Focus on rules: English phonetic and phonological rules	20	5	75
11. Recordings	40	20	40
12. Chanting	60	10	70
13. Body movement	60	15	25
14. Mirror: learners to observe own articulator	20	10	70

As shown in Table. 2, the most frequently used technique is imitation and repetition for which the frequency of practice was reported as 100 %. This is the most popular and widely used technique used in Pakistan from primary school to university, said

teachers. They further added that although it helps students to get through the examination, it is also true that it suppresses students' creative abilities to emerge and develop. Similarly, phonetic alphabet (80 %), focus on phonetic rules (75 %), drilling, chanting, tactile and mirror techniques are also very famous (70 %) with teachers to practice. However, they made students to observe their fellow learners' articulators instead of looking their own in mirror. Other than them, 60 % use visual aids, interactive media (45%). The least used activities or techniques reported are the use of classroom games (30%) and body movement (25%). According to teachers, such body movements are considered inappropriate in Pathan culture and teachers and students feel embarrassed performing them.

5.2 Beliefs and opinions

5.2.1 Importance of pronunciation instruction. The EFL teachers were asked to rate the importance of pronunciation instruction in EFL class on Likert scale (from '1' = not at all to '5' very important). It is not surprising that 90 % said it is very important and 10 % answered important. They added that pronunciation instruction meant learning good pronunciation which was equally important for both intelligibility and social status.

5.2.2 Feature difficult to teach and learn. In response to the query 'what are the most serious pronunciation problems experienced by EFL students?' Problems with production of the phonemes /p/ and /f/ was the most frequently reported (75 %). Similarly, 60 % respondents reported that students had difficulty with vowels especially /i/ and /e/. A total of 50 % of teachers mentioned problems with teaching as well learning of rhyme and intonation. Furthermore, 45 % respondents said learners confused the pronunciation of endings like –ed, -s and –es in words like walked (ii and iii form) and use (v) and use (n).

5.2.3 Other related beliefs and opinions. Teachers were provided with a number of statements and asked to show their degree of agreement or disagreement on Likert-scale (from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). These options were merged together into three categories: disagree, neutral and agree. Table. 3 below shows that teachers have positive attitude towards teaching pronunciation. The responses reveal that teachers consider pronunciation very important to teach and learn. A large number of teachers (90 %) disagreed with the view that pronunciation teaching is necessary because learners pick the correct pronunciation when they are exposed to proper input and 85 % believed that teaching pronunciation can help bring permanent change in EFL learners' speech. Similarly, majority of teachers showed interest in teaching pronunciation (75 %), however, 60% expressed that teaching pronunciation is not an easy task to do. Similarly, a considerable number of teachers (60 %) said that native speaker is the most suitable person to teach pronunciation. A majority (70) disagreed with the proposition that it is not possible to teach English communicatively and 70 % agreed that age matters in acquisition of native like pronunciation. A large number of respondents (80 %) agreed that pronunciation teaching should help learners to be intelligible to their listeners: local and foreign. On the other hand, 80% learners like their teachers to correct them when they pronounce incorrectly. Regarding accuracy and communication, 70 % said that pronunciation instruction can help improve language accuracy and communication, and 70 % said pronunciation can be taught communicatively. Teachers' responses for other beliefs and views about teaching pronunciation can be seen in table 3.

Table 3. Beliefs and opinions about pronunciation

Statement	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)
1. Teaching pronunciation does not usually result in permanent changes in the speech of EFL students.	85	5	10
2. Pronunciation teaching is often unnecessary, as most learners are able to pick up on pronunciation when frequently exposed to good input.	90	10	0
3. A heavy accent is a cause of discrimination against non-native speakers.	70	10	20
4. Teaching pronunciation is difficult.	20	20	60
5. The goal of a pronunciation teaching should be to eliminate, as much as possible, foreign accent.	60	5	35
6. The best person to teach pronunciation is a native speaker.	30	10	60
7. It is not possible to teach pronunciation communicatively.	70	5	25
8. There is an age-related limitation on the acquisition of native-like pronunciation.	20	10	70
9. Pronunciation instruction is only effective for highly motivated learners.	50	10	40
10. Native speakers should be the model for pronunciation teaching.	20	5	75
11. Some individuals resist changing their pronunciation in order to maintain their identity.	25	10	65
12. I don't like teaching pronunciation	75	1	20
13. When teaching pronunciation, the teacher should avoid, as much as possible, comparing English to Pashto, Urdu or any local dialect.	65	10	25
14. Pronunciation teaching should help make students comfortably intelligible to their listeners.	15	5	80
15. Pronunciation is best learned through language immersion, without the need for rules or theoretical explanations.	25	10	65
16. Most learners don't like teachers to correct their pronunciation.	80	5	15
17. Pronunciation instruction improves language accuracy rather than communication.	70	10	20

6. Discussion:

Taking into consideration the first question, the Pakistani EFL teachers tend to focus more on teaching segmental features. Problematic sounds and silent letters are the most frequently taught aspects of pronunciation: more time is spent on teaching of segmentals than on suprasegmentals. Although, studies show that suprasegmentals play more important role in intelligibility and comprehensibility (Anderson-Hsieh, Johnson, & Koehler, 1992; Derwing, T.M., Munro, M.J., & Wiebe, G, 1998; Hahn, 2004), certain studies in ESL context have also shown tendency to teach suprasegmental aspects or equal focus on both.

Comparing different responses, it is evident that teachers seem to focus on those aspects of pronunciation which are considered most important and challenging for the students. The most frequently taught four aspects are problematic sounds, silent letters, suffix endings, word stress and accent difference. It is astonishing to note that intonation being one of the most important aspects of pronunciation is among the least taught aspects. Lehiste (1976) described the importance of intonation as follows "Intonation does not change the meaning of lexical items but constitutes part of the meaning of the whole utterance —signalling, for example, a difference between a statement and question." There can be multiple reasons why teachers avoid teaching intonation, for example, they might feel hesitant to teach because most of them considered pronunciation as 'one of the most difficult aspect to teach'. Moreover, English intonation can be challenging for teachers to teach and learners to learn. This

further strengthens the demand of EFL teachers for more professional trainings and workshops on suprasegmentals.

Both quantitative and qualitative responses revealed that teachers expressed their concerns about difficulties their students were having in learning and differentiating between /p/, /f/ and / i/, /e/. These sounds are mostly mispronounced by Pashto speakers. This substitution is considered to have high functional load error (e.g. substitution of /p/ for /f/ and / i/ for /e/) which can seriously affect intelligibility and comprehensibility to both native and non-native listeners (Jenkins, 2000; Munro & Derwing, 2006), e.g. six and sex and feel and peel.

In response to a list of activities used for teaching pronunciation, three activities: repetition, drills and phonetic alphabet are widely used as EFL teachers believe that language learning is the process of habit formation, continuous repetition results in greater learning (Freeman, 2009). The EFL teachers' language learning experience has great influence on their use of activities their classrooms. They prefer to use those activities which they have performed during their graduation as they consider them effective for teaching pronunciation. Moreover, the use of phonetic alphabet seems due to the module on phonetics and phonology they have enrolled during their terminal degree.

Talking about teachers' beliefs and opinion regarding teaching of pronunciation, Pakistani teachers have positive attitude to teaching of pronunciation advocating the view that pronunciation instructions help learners learn good pronunciation. They believe that pronunciation can be taught communicatively and help in attaining accuracy with intelligibility. A number of teachers also suggested that native speaker (teacher) can teach pronunciation better than a non-native teacher. This is in line with the studies on EFL teachers, in which a vast majority of teachers agreed that native speaker can teach better than non-native (Sifakis & Sougari, 2005). One possible explanation that can be offered is that EFL teachers are reluctant to teach suprasegmental features due to certain phonological limitations, native teacher is considered suitable for the job. Similarly, teachers believed that students want them to correct their pronunciation errors because error correction is useful and helps in learning a language (Ellis, 2009). It is worth noting that some students have high level of fluency but have problems with accuracy. Teachers need to focus on their accuracy so that learners can develop a successful and meaningful communication (Fawzi, 2016)

In conclusion, EFL teachers appear to have been positively influenced by the current research and modern trends in language teaching. However, no significant change was observed in classroom practices. The EFL teachers were following the same traditional way of teaching: repetition and drills that have been practiced in Pakistani language classroom for decades. Moreover, on the theoretical side, teachers tend to emphasise segmentals more than suprasegmentals. EFL teachers feel the need for trainings on modern pedagogical approaches and techniques particularly on the teaching of suprasegmentals. Similarly, they also need to be exposed to different language learning activities and their application. These suggestions are however, speculative and further research is needed to address the issues and suggest practical steps to improve the quality of teaching and student outcomes.

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Institutional Challenges Faced by English Teachers' in Government Schools

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Abstract

This study analyses the institutional challenges, faced by the English teachers, at government schools in Quetta city. The need for this study arises because a number of academic studies and government documents point to the low-quality of English teaching in schools in the province of Baluchistan. Therefore, it would be appropriate to highlight the insights of the teachers, whose role could be instrumental in making any policy either a success or a failure. The study aims to investigate the, institutional and challenges in the English teaching and learning practices. The objectives of the study are to investigate the challenges English teachers in the government schools face in teaching English, and seek their suggestions for the improvement of policy and practices. The research sites for this study were 13 Government Urdu medium Girls and Boys school in Quetta city which is the main largest city and capital of Baluchistan (Province) in Pakistan. Using Mixed Method research, the study draws on questionnaire survey, interviews and observation to explore the perceptions they hold about English teaching, and the suggestions they put forward for overcoming challenges they face while they teach English in schools. The study uses non-probability sampling strategy for the selection of respondents. The respondents are selected on the basis researchers' convenience. A total of 140 teachers participated in the questionnaire survey whereas 6 of them responded to interviews. The study employs a triangulation research design for both data collection as well as data analysis. Results suggest that English teachers are faced with numerous challenges. The institutional challenges include management of large classes, challenges of lengthy course completion, dearth of qualified and trained teachers, mismatches between the new policy and its implementation. The participants suggest that the policy making and implementation mechanism be made more inclusive, democratic and all-embracing where teachers are also included in the process. The study concludes that to make English teaching and learning successful and productive, the concerned authorities and policymakers need to take account of the challenges, which this study highlights, and devise a policy mechanism where the highlighted challenges are addressed. This would ideally require more coordination and collaboration between policy designers at the top and policy implementers on the ground. Currently, there is a crisis of disconnect between both of the above stakeholders.

Key words: Policies, Implementation, Challenges, Crises.

Introduction

Pakistan is a multilingual and multiethnic country where so many regional languages are spoken but each region specifies its regional language which represents its cultural and ethnic setting. Urdu is the national language and lingua franca in Pakistan (GOP, 1998; Rahman, 2005). Moreover, Urdu being the national language, has been declared as a medium-of-instruction up to matriculation level, in all provinces irrespectively especially at government schools (Rahman, 1997). The language critics and linguists emphasize on the mother tongue for the medium of instruction to achieve learning purposes (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2009). Vygotsky (1978) Views that Socio-Cultural Theory finds learning and cognitive development as rooted in the social environmental interactions where the learners interrelate with other partners in the collaborative environment. This theory further suggests that the learner must be given conducive environment so that the learner may find maximum interactional opportunities with fellows, teachers, and others. To bring a quest for language,

students of language should be provided a rich-interactional environment and other activities. Vygotsky (1978) Suggests that children are thinking and meaning-making is generally constructed and appears out of their social interactions with their environment. Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) Suggests that the children in mother tongue will reproduce their linguistic and cultural minority. On the other hand, English is considered as the language of success and economic value that it has social mobility and job oriented nature nationally and internationally (S. Canagarajah & Ashraf, 2013; GOP, 1969, 1998; Mahboob, 2002; Manan, David, & Dumanig, 2017; Rahman, 2004, 2005). But English in Pakistan is used by elite class to hold their monopoly exclusively to access the domain of power (Rahman, 2004). The teachers are not themselves well-versed, trained and qualified in the English language, some have the poor academic background or knowledge of respective English subject or language and there are challenges for them to teach English to the students (Coleman, 2010; Manan et al., 2017; Shamim, 2008). There are four types of education levels in Pakistan which include Government Urdu medium school, private elites English medium school, low fee private English medium school and Dini madrassas for religious education (Coleman, 2010; Manan, 2015; Rahman, 2004, 2008). According to (Rahman, 2005) there are three categories of English Medium Schools in Pakistan (i) Elitist Public School and Cadet Colleges which are stately patronized (ii) the second category is private elite schools while the third (iii) category is no elitist Schools. In the first category comes, Federal Public Schools, Cadet Colleges, and Schools of the armed forces. These Schools are specifically for the elites and armed forces children while the civilians can send their children on self-finance basis, the first category of English Medium Schools are under the Subsidy and Patronage of Government the second Category of English Medium Schools is for the wealthy elites, these Schools are for 'A' and O' Levels Students and Studies while Schools run without the patronage and subsidy of the state. The last category of school's is inferior to both above types which are usually joined and preferred by Middle class of society and this is also devoid of the official or state subsidy or patronage (Coleman, 2010; GOP, 1959, 1998; Rahman, 2005; Shamim, 2008). The design of English texts and the provision of memorized written answers to questions about those texts mean that the classroom teaching practices of English neglect the proficiency skills as speaking, listening and critical reading. The English instruction particularly in government schools – have a tendency to impart the English language using bilingualism approach because the teachers own competence in English is the poorer because they have low confidence in their own competence to deliver better English (Coleman, 2010, p. 45).

According to Rahman (2005) there are 65 different kinds of languages spoken in Pakistan and among them, 6 are major and 59 are minor languages. Since Urdu is recognized as the national language while English is practiced as the official language. English is used in the domains of power which are the networks of the administration, judiciary, military, education and media through which the distribution of goods and services and other gratifications is controlled (Rahman, 1996). Coleman (2010) Reports that in government schools education is free of cost and the students are facilitated with textbooks free of cost. The same author adds that the teachers are well-qualified and classes are smaller. However, government school teachers more frequently remain absent from their duties. Despite their huge salaries government schools produce the poor learning outputs. A student in a government school requires more time to learn. (Coleman, 2010).

1.1.Urdu and English in classroom in government schools

In Pakistan, Urdu is the medium of instruction in government schools, English is the medium in elite private schools and English is claimed to be the medium in non-elite

private schools(Coleman, 2010; Rahman, 2004). In Pakistan Of the 71 other indigenous languages, only Sindhi has an official role as a medium of instruction in primary schools in Sindh and Pashto is used in government schools in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Province while English is a compulsory subject from Year 1(GOP, 1998). Consequently, much depends on the availability of teachers; while the students cannot learn English alphabet in their five years in primary school (Coleman, 2010). The same author adds that the ongoing English Urdu policy forms many flaws.

Ellis (1985) defines input as "the language that is addressed to the L2 learner either by a native speaker or by another L2 learner and his interlocutors' (127)." Krashen and Terrell (1983) also debates learning input in their input hypothesis. The same author argued that the learning of a second language required access to comprehensible input in the target language, and the input should extend beyond learners' current competence. Krashen (1985) postulates that 'humans acquire language in only one way as by understanding message, or by receiving 'comprehensible input'…that contains structures at our next 'stage' structures that are a bit beyond our current level of competence. Brown (2007) Explains that learning a second language is a lengthy and complex process. He views that the whole person is influenced as we struggle to get beyond the limits of our mother tongue and into a new language, a new culture, a new way of thinking, practices, and operations while many factors are involved in the learning process. Moreover,Vygotsky (1978) views that the socio- cultural facts play a pivotal role in trying to determine the whole process of learning. The socio cultural, background of the parents, their literacy level are highly important in making learning atmosphere an academic and productive.

1.2. Classroom English: practice and function

1. Existing literature reports that there is no practical function of English at government school level and the students cannot learn with its full skills while the government school teacher function is only nominal to prepare the students only for examination (Coleman, 2010). There has been a shortage of trained and well-qualified English Language teachers in Pakistan (Shamim & Tribble, 2005).

Coleman (2010) views that there is a common perception that the teacher has no command on English subject, they have no teaching passion and competence to achieve those learning and feedback based output and goals. The student's English learning is based on cramming the main lessons for examinations. So at government school level English has been taken an examination subject.

1.3.Objectives of the Study

To investigate the challenges English teachers in the government schools, face in teaching English, and seek their suggestions for the improvement of policy and practices within the government schools.

1.4.Research Questions

1) What challenges do English teachers face in the government schools in Quetta city?
2) How could English Teachers' problems and challenges be overcome in the government schools in Quetta city?

1.5.Research Methodology

In this study mixed research Methodology is used which combines both qualitative and quantitative process in data collection of research inquires and data analysis(Creswell, 2009). This study aims to investigate the challenges faced by English teachers at government schools levels from class 6 to 10th. The research sites for this study were 13 Government Urdu medium Girls and Boys school in Quetta city

which is the main largest city and capital of Baluchistan (Province) in Pakistan. The major largest segment of population and social class send their children to these government schools (Coleman, 2010).

As the study is conducted at the government Urdu medium boys' and girls' schools, the participant or respondents were mainly male and female English teachers at these schools, the teacher may be divided in to two categories as male and female. In the same way, the students were observed in the class when their English teacher was teaching them. However, the main stakeholders in this study were still teachers whose perceptions carry weightage because they are directly linked in practice of classroom teaching process .consequently, teachers were consulted, interviewed, and inquired through questionnaire administrative investigation. Their perceptions and views regarding challenges were noted down during interviews and questionnaires individually. In the same way, the teachers as respondents were selected from grades 6 to 10 on the basis of probability random sampling from government Urdu medium boys and girls schools. The questionnaire administered to the total number of teachers were 140 among them 80 were female while 60 male who responded to the questionnaire items. These all respondents were giving classes differently from grade 6 to 10 at these schools. The questionnaires were administered equally in uniformity but female respondents responded in higher percentage as 80% while the male percentage was 60% but for this study the requirement of probability random sampling through questionnaire administration which was initially planned to be 100 as 50 for male and 50 for female but the numerical difference was that female respondent strength exceeded from 50 to 80% who were noticed and observed more enthusiastic and willingly more interested in taking part in this study. Comparatively, some of the male respondents were observed to be indifferent to some extents on accounts of their academic or natural tendency towards this study.

Table 1: Number of respondents

Group/categories of respondents	Number/strength as per category	Instruments used for data collection
Teachers (Male)	60	Questionnaires :60 Interviews:03
Teachers (Female)	80	Questionnaires :80 Interviews:03
Total respondents	140	Questionnaires: 140 Interviews:06

The numbers of the teachers interviewed for this study were 06 who were 3 male and 3 female from different Government Urdu medium schools of Quetta city. All these teachers were teaching English as a curriculum subject from class six 06 to 10 at Middle and Secondary levels. The process of the interview was to know their professional skills such as pre-service and in service training, their experience of teaching, the pedagogical Methods ,teaching strategies and their academic qualification ; their perceptions about textbooks, about student's feedback and class participation; about the students proficiency levels such as reading, speaking, listening and writing skills in the class. In the same way, they were asked about the institutional challenges or issues which they faced during English subject in class room at school levels. All the teachers were interviewed in English language .Semi-structured technique was used during interviews. The interviews were conducted in their class rooms and offices. These teachers were selected by BPCS (Baluchistan Provincial Public Service Commission) as SSTs (Secondary School Teachers) the name of teachers interviewed and name of schools were kept confidential as part of ethical consideration.

The qualitative and quantitative tools were employed in multiple ways. These instruments were questionnaire, interviews which were further followed by

observation in research field such as class room observation and formal and informal meetings with respondents. A Questionnaire was designed for this study which was specific to the objectives of the study. This questionnaire was self-made. The design of questionnaire was based on many phases and process for validation and cross validation to determine face validity. In this process 4 to 6 experts were asked for their consultancy if the questionnaire was valid to measure what it was supposed to measure (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2003). The same technique was applied for determining content validity which Cohen et al. (2003) have stated as the questionnaire items must cover the whole aspects of research phenomenon.

1.6. The data analysis phases

1. Data analysis during the interviews conducts Questionnaire administration and Observation.
2. Analysis of survey Questionnaire with tabulation, computation process of SPSS.
3. Transcription of Audio taped interviews and coding minor and major themes.

1.7. Theoretical Framework: Top-down & bottom-up policy

As the study comes within Dynamic Theoretical Framework; within the scope of Dynamic approach in which all the stakeholders are taken on board and consulted ,the concept of a new dynamic and micro-level approach to research on language policies and practices(Spolsky, 2009).Language policy and development is as multifaceted as a multilayered 'onion', a metaphor Ricento and Hornberger (1996) used to claim for the dynamic nature of any language policy. In the same way, Spolsky (2004) defines that language policy includes all the "language practices, beliefs, and management of a community or polity". There occurred a new Research approach, which Menken and García (2010)state as 'the new wave of language education policy research', that centers on 'agency in implementation'. The supporters of the new approach call for dynamism, an approach that advocates the central role of stakeholders in policy making processes; they emphasize that language policies should be understood from the operations real practices (A. S. Canagarajah, 2005; Garcia & Woodley, 2009; GOP, 1998; Hornberger & Johnson, 2007; Ramanathan, 2005). Language policy is ''dynamic'' and ''more multilayered'' as there are ''many individuals involved in its design and implementation''; therefore, language in education policy research should shift focus from top-down government policies to bottom-up policy structures focusing on ''local school administrators, teachers, students, parents, and community members''(Manan, David, & Dumanig, 2016; Menken & García, 2010) . The main part of research focuses on macro-level top-down national language development and the purpose of language difficulties (Haugen, 1972).In the same way, the more critical approaches explored the procedures that language policies sidelined languages and communities, and prolonged social inequities and injustices (Phillipson, 1992; Phillipson & Skutnabb-kangas, 1996; Tollefson, 1991). Dynamic approach has been applied as a Theoretical Framework to analyze the Government school Teachers' views about English language teaching in school based on official Education policy, to analyze the current English-medium education policy specifically from the viewpoint of stakeholders' (teachers) views, teaching and learning practices . The study analyzed that all the stakeholders have not been taken on board and consulted for policy making.

Before the implementation of any new education policy design of syllabus or textbook all the stake holders teachers and students are consulted and their suggestion regarded by the policy makers. In the same way an effective process of trainings and refresher courses are launched over the curriculum syllabus and textbook contents but in Baluchistan new Education policy if made, it is implemented by the government, the

stakeholders particularly the teachers are not consulted. The English textbooks from class 6^{th} to 10^{th} have been changed but the teacher have not been trained over the course of English textbook contents which is challenge for English teachers of Govt. schools in teaching and learning practices. Such situations surely lead to an academic failure and education policy drawback or fallacy. There is a general consensus of disagreement over the policy teaching English from grade one permanently from school teachers an account of Govt. Language education policy making operational is 'dynamic' and 'more multilayered' as there are "many individuals involved in its creation and implementation. Consequently, language in education policy research should change concentration from top-down government policies to bottom-up policy making focusing on "local school administrators, teachers, students, parents, and community members,"(GOP, 1998; Menken & García, 2010). Unilateral approach in policy making, unavailability of training over the new courses of English, non-participation and consultation of the teachers in the selection and design of course contents of the English textbook. The top down bottom of approach based policies of Government are criticized for cause and reason of creating challenges for English teachers in teaching and learning practices. such policies, implementation based management have been condemned largely to be responsible for academic failure of both English teachers and Government School students while such official conservative or traditional approaches and tactics have been unanimously proposed to be replaced with dynamic approach in which all the stakeholders are taken on board such as teachers, students, educationist, parents, and policy makers. The students do not show interest in the English textbooks because the contents are tough mismatching of the lesson contents and their exercises. The same way, the lessons are considered lengthy, time taking and boring. Consequently, the students do not show an effective individual participation in the learning practices such factors again cause challenges for English teachers to teach with devotion and interest.

Results and Discussion

1.8. The Challenges

Challenges mean a difficult process which requires mental and physical struggle. According to Cambridge Dictionary (2015)"the situation of being faced with something that needs great mental or physical efforts in order to be done successfully and therefore tests a person's ability".

The factors which cause difficulties in the process of teaching and learning, usually making it a challenge for English teachers to perform a teaching task that requires great mental and physical efforts to accomplish often with unsatisfactory outcomes. Analysis of the data suggests that broadly teachers face a number of challenges.

The Institutional Challenges

Factors which caused challenges for English teachers were that they have not enough time to complete the whole course during an academic year. The lessons in the English textbooks are lengthy and followed by complicated exercises which are again a challenge for a teacher to complete the syllabus. Aly (2007)analyzes the report of the 'National Education policy Review team 2007' that The structure of textbook in Pakistan are both marked by the poor context and contents, such low standard situation is even highlighted by the research survey of Federal Ministry of Education that the textbooks and learning materials are underdeveloped the training process in an official way is also inactive (Aly, 2007). The textbooks are designed with illogical and traditional materials which are not knowledge-based or critical contents oriented but nature of the textbook contents are typically marked by the old, Conservative and historical approach which cannot meet the current challenges (Aftab, 2012). There are usually large size and overcrowded classes which is a great challenge for the teacher

to manage the English teaching and learning activities, consequently, all the students cannot participate in learning activities, the teacher cannot attend each student individually and it is very difficult to get feedback from the students. The class size in Pakistan differentiates the Government schools of Urdu medium and the private English Medium schools: In private schools, the number of the students in the average large class in Secondary Classes is 45 to 43 but it is larger in Urdu Medium Government Schools which is 61 to 61. In the same way, he analyzes the usual class six in English Medium private School as 41 to 87 and the strength of the students as 50 to 74 in government Urdu medium schools. The teachers are not provided academic or teaching material such as Audiovisual Aids, multimedia or digital or print media for better academic outcomes. Teachers are not trained and they have no professional's skills to innovate or update their teaching strategies. For better teaching outcomes, it is important to motivate and select better figures for teaching in the same way to provide such teacher better professional training for change or innovation in education and teaching system (Galton, 1996) .For effectiveness and reform in education system, the teacher's training the foremost step for innovative quality in the education system of Pakistan (Hawes & Stephens, 1990). At very small scale, the Government conducts some short trainings for the school teachers. There has been a three -day schedule training for all teachers of all subjects collectively at one and the same space and time such as conducted by PITE (Provincial Institute for Teacher education) or at NIM (National Institute of management). The context or the content and nature of such trainings for a huge teaching body remain the same .Usually, such trainings are ineffective, insufficient which are commented as irrelevant and not matching to each teacher professionally and his or her respective subject individually. Such small scaled trainings are conducted by Government or often with the mutual coordination of UN or international organizations. The government does not consult the teachers for making education policy or textbook design and change in the course of the syllabus. Consequently, paving the way for the mismatch between policy and practice.

The statements from for investigating institutional challenges were put to analyze the exact perceptions of the respondents were in sequence. The statements were computed, analyzed by SPSS while frequencies and percentages were summed and calculated by MS Excel.

The respondent's perceptions have been analyzed and the percentages of the statement have been discussed.

Problems of Capacity Building and Administration

Many institutional factors exist which cause difficulties for the Govt. School teachers in teaching and learning activities. The syllabus and the lessons are lengthy which cannot be completed during an academic year; large sized classes; Training issues for the teachers and irrelevant subject teachers teaching English without relevant qualification, experience and training. Teacher's views, suggestions and proposals, as the main stakeholder, have not been taken or consulted.

2.4 Training for English teachers

For better teaching outcomes, it is important to motivate and select better teacher for teaching .In the same way, to provide such teacher better professional training for change or innovation in education and teaching system (Galton, 1996). Mundial (2006) Analyses of the Global monitoring reports, 2006 that the existing Global tendency is both towards quality and quantity in education system to meet the future challenges and over the teaching challenges. For effectiveness and reform in education system, the teacher's training the foremost step for innovative quality in education system of Pakistan(Hawes & Stephens, 1990) .The progress in the pre-

Service teacher training and education can lead to improvement in the professional qualities of the teachers, so all the states are required to bring innovative steps for reforms so as to produce quality in education and overcome challenges in teaching particularly, in professional ways. In pre- service training the facilities and management for the teacher enhance the quality and betterment in teaching learning process (Aspin & Chapman, 1994). The provision of teaching and learning practices and effectiveness is leading towards better outcomes in the learning skills and task solving abilities in education (Sallis et al., 1999). The pre- service training are conducted by the Government Elementary Colleges While in-Service trainings are Administered and conducted by the government in each province respectively in separate manner. For training the training offering body PITE (provincial Institute of teacher Education) is offering in service training to all teachers in each province. The private schools manage and administer their own method of training in their private capacity which is only conducted in most influential schools such, as grammar, convent and city and bacon house schools in their various branches to all provinces respectively(Aftab, 2012) .As English is a foreign language in Pakistan and it is learned in institutions academically from various English textbooks, designed under official education policy implemented and taught by national curriculum. The teacher or the students have no any cultural or linguistic ties with English other than learning or teaching environment from the institutions on official level. The main and prime plan of policy makers globally is to emphasis the approach of change and reform in the education system (Hargreaves, 1994). There has been a shortage of trained and well-qualified English Language teachers in Pakistan (Shamim & Tribble, 2005). Innovative steps and reform process showed be focused for quality and enhancement in education process(McLaughlin, 1998). The rationale behind asking this statement was to investigate the teacher's views if they have been trained before the implementation of the new education policy or if there is any training policy program for English teachers at all. Consequently, the data suggest that (n=129 disagree 34.1%) respondents disagree with the statement and believe that they have not received any training for teaching English from class 6^{th} to 10^{th} at school

Figure 1: Respondents perception regarding the Training courses in English teaching

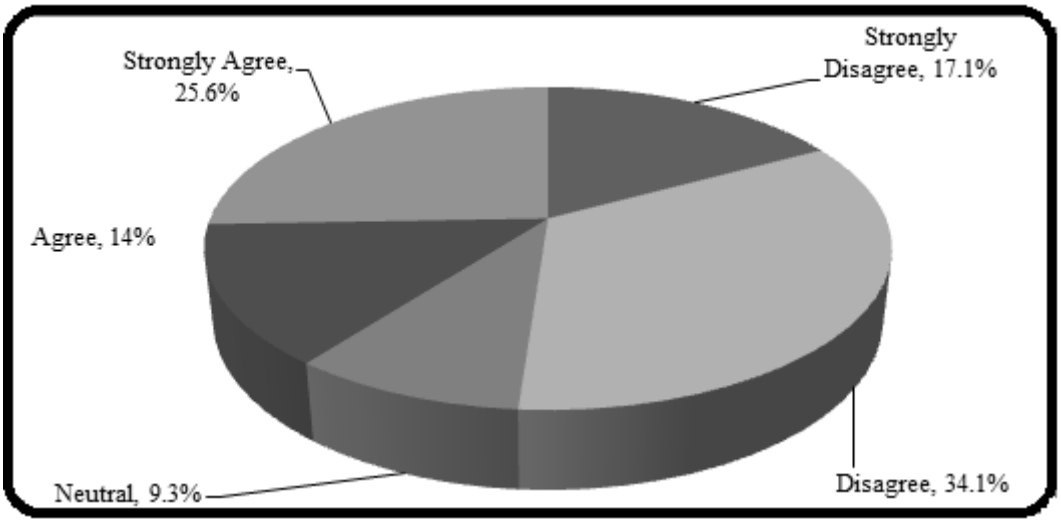

Table 2: Respondents perception Percentage regarding trainings for English Teachers

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	22	17.1	17.1	17.1
Disagree	44	34.1	34.1	51.2
Neutral	12	9.3	9.3	60.5
Agree	18	14.0	14.0	74.4
Strongly Agree	33	25.6	25.6	100.0
Total	129	100.0	100.0	

2.5 Management of large sized classes

At Urdu medium schools, there is usually tendency of large sized classes which creates mismanagement during teaching. Due to high strength and crowd in the classes ,many academic and learning activities get missed teaching process (McLeod, 1989). When the issue was asked through the survey, the respondents perception in percentage was as that (n=129 disagree 35.7%) of the respondents view that There is large sized classes with large strength of the students at Govt. Urdu Medium Schools.

Figure 2: Respondents perception regarding Large or overcrowded classes

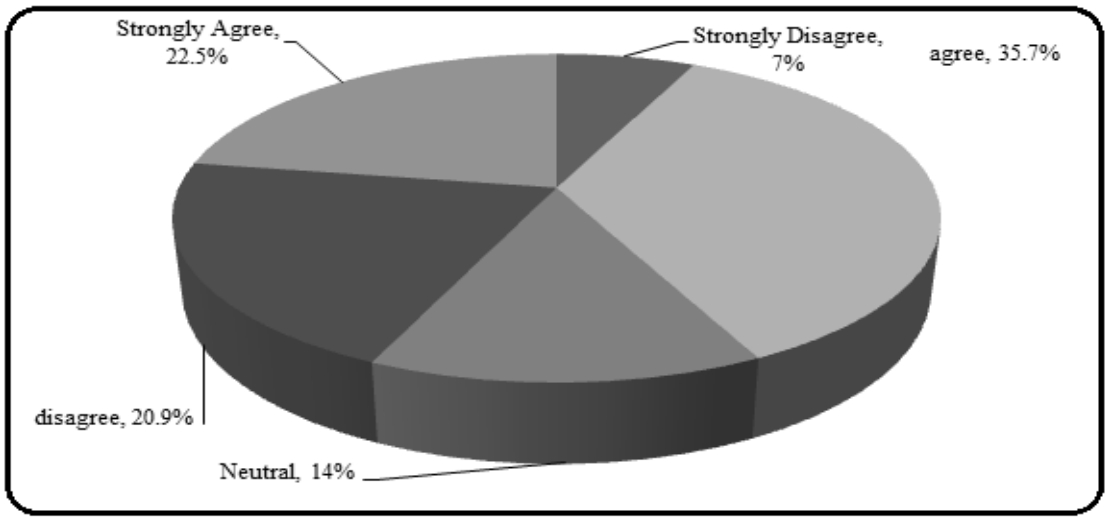

Table 3: Percentage of respondents views for large or overcrowded classes

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly Disagree	9	7.0	7.0	7.0
agree	46	35.7	35.7	42.6
Neutral	18	14.0	14.0	56.6
disagree	27	20.9	20.9	77.5
Strongly Agree	29	22.5	22.5	100.0
Total	129	100.0	100.0	

In such crowded classes, with more than 60 students seating usually get arranged but at some places, the students' strength exceeded to 82 which caused disturbance, to teach, communicate and get feedback in teaching learning processes. Some of the classes were observed in which were disturbing because both the teacher and the student could not take interest in academic process. Regarding mismanagement, improper handling of the teaching activities, the teacher respondent in Interview pointed out about the mismanagement of large classes as

> "The strength of the students in my class is usually more than 60; we have usually large size classes at Government Schools. It is not easy for me to control the class or manage the English teaching activities properly. I cannot attend each and every students of my class, in this way, there is some time mismanagement, improper handling of the

> teaching activities and consequently, there is no proper or the desired feedback or outcomes from the students in my class because the students themselves cannot take interests."

The things such as any teachings or learning activity cannot be seen vividly (Long, 1977).Too much noise is made by large number of students in such large sized classes (Nolasco & Arthur, 1986) .In large size of classes, the teaching activities cannot be organized by the teacher in well justifiable manners (Coleman, 1989; Hayes, 1997; Nolasco & Arthur, 1986) .The learning practices in such teaching environment remain less effective. In such environment of large size classes, the teacher cannot deliver teaching materials or take feedback from students or analyses their presentations because of the timing issue for teacher to deal with such large member of students (Nolasco & Arthur, 1986; Peachey, 1989; Watson Todd, 1999). Some affective factors are emerging with such large size student class where the teacher is discomforted and dissatisfied because of burden and stress (Coleman, 1989).

> RESPONDENT-8. In her open-ended expression, Stated that "the important issue is one that the large size class and large strengths of the students in a small class room. The high strength of the students in classes should be minimized to an ideal and reasonable level."

2.6 Textbooks and Instructional Approaches: Pedagogical Concerns

As in observation of the English classes, interviews from the teacher respondents, the data suggest that the new English textbooks have been designed with complex grammatical terms and vocabulary even the teachers do not understand such complicated terms to teach .The data of the questionnaire survey when analyzed, suggests that (n=129 agree 44.2%) of the respondents view that the English textbooks, especially for class 9th and 10th have been designed in mismatching and there is identified irrelevancy between unit's contents and its exercises. A respondent in this regard viewed as

> "the syllabus changes and replaces with many tough and complicated contents but the teachers are not trained over the new textbooks, as a result, the students do not understand, in such conditions, the outcomes will be zero." (Teacher .26)

In pedagogical terms, the data of the questionnaire survey suggest that (n=129 agree 51.2%) respondents face challenges in teaching English textbook and language activities. The students face problems in all proficiency skills such as English reading, writing, speaking and understanding. A teacher viewed in this way,

> "The students of 9th class face problems in all proficiency skills such as English reading, writing, speaking and understanding." (Teacher respondent .4)

The textbooks are designed with illogical and traditional materials which are not knowledge based or critical contents oriented but nature of the textbook contents are typically marked by old, Conservative and historical approach which cannot meet the current challenges (Aftab, 2012). In some of the lessons in class 9th and 10th there is repetition of instances of as conditional sentences of class 9th page 72 and class 10 pages 103 are the same and repeated. The data of the questionnaire survey suggest that(n=129 agree 55.8%) of the respondents pointed out that the arrangement of the textbook contents have not been designed in logical way from easy to difficult but from difficult to difficult to difficult even more difficult. The terminologies such as the imagery, figure of speech, similes are included which cannot be learned easily by Govt. Schools students. The students cannot pronounce the words correctly though the teachers teach phonetic and phenology and know the rule of pronunciation

because the students have no exposure to English learning oriented facilities either at home or at schools. A respondent in this regard viewed as,

> "There are included complex grammatical terms and vocabulary in English new textbook, in reality, even the teachers do not understand such complex terms not speak of the students." RESPONDENT-3.

The structure of textbook in Pakistan are both marked by the poor context and contents, such low standard situation is even highlighted by the research survey of Federal Ministry of Education that the textbooks and learning materials are underdeveloped (Aly, 2007). As for English proficiency skills specially, speaking and understanding, the students are helped by the print and digital media which are not available at Govt. Urdu medium schools. There are complicated lessons followed by lengthy exercises consequently the teachers do not have enough time to complete these units though they teach the basic grammar such as tenses active voices and passive voices, the students do not understand this basic grammar because they have not any prior knowledge about it and the teacher cannot focus all the basic grammar because of time factor.

The designed Textbooks in Pakistan are not caused towards refining on the linguistic requirements of the learner, viewing whether or not the learner is at the positive development level to learn the target language structure. (Warsi, 2004). The same author further views that suitable English Language textbooks can bring quality in learning.

The authorities of Government and Education can play a key role in publishing textbooks which are designed relevant to generative Grammar and structural Method, including with suitable pictures and ordered Exercise. Luckily, everywhere, there is an excess of English language textbooks, making it relatively easier for educators and policy makers in Pakistan to make these materials according to the learner's level of ability and exact academic objects (Warsi, 2004, p. 6).

A report on textbooks by OECD (1994) analyzed the contents of course books along with fallacies and shortcomings in English teaching materials. They report that English textbooks cannot encourage or motivate the students and cannot move their interests and such course books or texts cannot appeal to their intellectual capacity for changing their minds to creativity. These textbooks are designed in the poor language without dated contents. Such textbooks cannot prepare the students for further challenges but cannot make them creative or intellectual for future prospects. Such textbook can only prepare the students for examinations. The same author says that

There are many instructive complications in school textbooks, the concerns of which on students are huge. Many textbooks have been designed with the main concepts obscure, unclear, with ambiguous arguments lacking logic, explanations are lacking, and the focus is on rote learning and blind care to the power of the teacher and the textbook, and the requirements of examinations. These are all solid peculiar to inquiring minds that pursue understanding and truth via objectives facts, logical opinions and discussion (OECD, 1994).

2.7 Infrastructure's and students' problems

At government schools, there is usually lake of infrastructure; there are large number of the students and poor seating arrangements that cause disturbance in teaching process.

Some time, there are seating issues; there is very congested or small spaced rooms in which large number of students cannot be roomed or accommodated. The students feel uneasy in such large classes (Hayes, 1997).there are the unavailability of Teaching Aids; lack of well-equipped Digital Libraries; Multimedia with sound system which is the requirement of present day teaching and learning practices. The

seating arrangements are the poor and found not satisfactory at Govt. schools. in such classes all the students cannot find the opportunities, to present or speak and the students often talk in or use their respective mother tongues while the teaches usually pay focus to individual learners (Coleman, 1989; Woodward, 2001). There are usually associated the problem of discipline, seating, space, stress to teacher created by heavy classes, teaching staff shortage such as teacher feels exhausted after giving class to such large size classes and he cannot spare some free time for student's assessment consequently, the students cannot fully participate in learning practices in teaching process (Al-Jarf, 2006). In Pakistan all the above problems exist, especially in Urdu Medium Schools which are causing teaching challenges for teachers.

2.8 Other subject teacher teaching English

In Pakistan, usually, the English teachers are qualified with master in English Literature or language from any HEC recognized university which is requirement to teach English at College level (Mansoor, 2003). There are many irrelevant subject teachers who do not have the relevant English qualification and teaching experience to teach English at Govt. schools which is a serious academic flaw and mismatch between policy and its practice. Such teaching and learning practices become challenge for the students and surely leading to constant academic failure. In the context of Baluchistan, at School level, the English language or as a subject is taught by SST General (Social Science Teacher) who has come to this post through PCS (provincial Public Service Commission) where B.A /B.SC or equivalent degree in Bachelor of Arts & Science is required while at school level for teaching English is not necessarily considered, if the English teacher is Master Degree Holder in English or not. There has been a shortage of trained and well-qualified English Language teachers in Pakistan (Shamim & Tribble, 2005). In the same way, in all Government Schools of Baluchistan including Quetta City, there have been and are, service wise, experienced teachers who teach and can teach English as a subject at School level irrespective of teacher's qualification or requirement of Master Degree in English Language or literature.

2. Limitations of the Study and future direction

This fact may be established that this research is not free of certain limitations. The researcher believes that a diverse and relatively expanded sampling would have served a lot better in terms of getting much deeper insights into this issue. However, due to constraints of time and resources, the researcher could not manage to opt for a diverse form of sampling which could ideally have included students, parents, and government authorities, who take most important decisions about teacher training and their capacity building. Finally, a survey of the other districts of Baluchistan would have helped gather more information about the challenges which teachers face there.

Given the afore-stated limitations of this study, the researcher would like to put forward a couple of recommendations for those researchers who might need to work on the same topic. They could reach to teachers from across the province so that they could explore more about the challenges, and probably identify better solutions for addressing teachers' challenges in the respective areas.

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Code-Switching in Pashto: An Analysis of Hesitation and Filled Pauses as a Consequence of CS

Usman Ali and Muhammad Kamal Khan

Abstract

Spoken communication is characterized by a sizable portion of breathing and hesitation pauses and fillers. When used as a strategy, pauses and fillers appear to facilitate word selection and organization during speech. However, they are also a sign of disfluency, particularly when speakers imbed words and phrases from foreign language through code-switching (Tissi, 2006). The difficulty in selecting an appropriate foreign word, deciding its syntactic position and pronouncing it correctly result into a great deal of hesitation which is largely ignored in researching CS. The present study explores hesitation phenomenon in Pashto L1 bilinguals' communication. By recording and scanning the spontaneous communication obtained from 12 informants selected through the 'Social Network' sampling, the study examines hesitation as an essential phenomenon of CS. The qualitative analysis shows that hesitation markers are the signs of disfluency that are more manifested in participants' communication with switched elements from foreign (English) language. Finally, the study concludes that the incorporation of hesitation pauses and fillers are the essential features of bilingualism- both as a strategy and consequence of CS. The study brings forth a sizable, but mostly ignored portion of bilingual' speech by identifying and enlisting various types of pauses and fillers.

Keywords: Code-switching, disfluency markers, filled pauses, hesitation, Pashto

1. Introduction

On the surface, spoken language is thought to be carefully produced, words cautiously selected and uttered, just like it is presented in its written form. Those who are not able to communicate in an appropriate way are said to have some speech disorder. But this supposition is far removed from the underlying assumption of the actual nature of speech. Human speech is, after all, surprisingly disfluent, and marked by frequent restarts, stops, silences, hesitations and fillers like 'ers' and 'erms'. A sizeable portion of normal human speech (from 30 to 50 per cent) is occupied by these hesitation pauses and fillers (Clark & Foxtree, 2002). Though in some cases hesitations in speech may appear to be the result of some mental lapses, it is mostly the result of poor communication skills. The phenomenon of hesitation is an essential feature of spontaneous speech where it is forgivable and sometimes even unnoticed. It may more likely occur while communicating in foreign tongue, or embedding words of foreign language to one's own through 'code-switching' (Tissi, 2006).

Code-switching (CS hereafter) is the practice of moving back and forth between multiple languages, or between several dialects or registers of the same language. It is the concurrent use of more than one language, or language varieties in conversation in a manner consistent with the syntax and phonology of each variety. Multilingual often use elements of multiple languages in conversing with each other. Although most of the researchers focus on verbal CS, astonishingly, the abundant occurrence of fillers or disfluency markers found in the spontaneous conversation of multilingual speakers, especially while switching codes, has not received researchers' attention so far. The considerable hesitation experienced by the speakers while embedding linguistic items from foreign language into their native tongue has not been explored yet. The area of CS in spoken Pashto has been dealt by some researchers (e.g. Khan, 2015), who investigated the strategies Pashto speakers use in imbedding elements of foreign language (English) into their native tongue. Yet, a great deal of disfluency markers found with CS has been ignored. This study is likely to fill this gap by investigating the

nature of hesitation as a phenomenon in relation to CS in the speech of Pashto L1 speakers in their spontaneous communication. It holds that hesitation markers in CS are the signs of difficulty in selecting and pronouncing foreign words while switching the code from native to foreign language.

The study presents the comparative analysis by quantifying of various sorts of hesitation pauses and fillers produced in participants' communication in both situations i.e. holding conversations with switches made to foreign language and vice versa. It is followed by detailed analyses of pauses and fillers produced in CS only. The twelve respondents interviewed were the native speakers of Pashto with varying ages and the status of English is that of the foreign language in the context of the present study. The focus of the study is to:

- Explore the substantial use and patterns of hesitation pauses in Pashto L1 speakers' speech with CS as compared to their speech without CS, and,
- Examine the significance of the use of hesitation pauses both as a strategy and consequence of CS.

In order to address the above objectives of the study, the following two research questions (RQs) were formed:

RQ1: How is Pashto L1 speakers' speech with CS elements marked by hesitation pauses differently from their speech without CS?

RQ2: How do hesitation pauses appear both as a strategy and consequence of CS in Pashto L1 speakers' communication?

2. Background to the Study

As a common practice in Sociolinguistics, research into CS emphasizes social and linguistic variables that are crucially involved in preferring one language or variety over another in switching code. Social factors such as ethnic background, age, class, context, occupation and education indeed shape speakers' choice of a particular language. Speakers' choice, however, can be limited for switching code to language other than their native tongue when hindered by linguistic factor such as knowledge of semantic use, and grammatical or strategic competence in switching code to foreign language. Due to the vital role played by social or linguistic factors in CS, imbedding foreign words in both intersentencial and intrasentencial CS is not always easy and smooth. Whereas, hesitation pauses are an essential part of spontaneous speech and forms a sizable portion of it, these pauses can also be taken as indicators of difficulty in switching codes to foreign language in communication process. It is the latter assumption that provided the basis for the present study.

2.1. Importance and Frequency of Disfluency Markers in Speech

Human communication is carried out by using more than what has been explicitly defined as 'words' in the traditional sense. It includes gestures, juncture, change of tone, words of unprepared spoken language and a range of unintentional errors (Hartsuiker, Corley & Martensen, 2005). Any spontaneous speech contains disfluencies, false starts, repetitions, and hesitations that accompany the words planned and uttered by speakers. They vary according to the speaker's cognitive activity and a number of socio-linguistic variables (Tissi, 2006). The non-lexicalized fillers e.g. 'er' and 'erm' are found different in American English, British English and Spanish (Weiling, Grieve, Bouma, Fruehwald, Goleman & Liberman, 2016). The hesitation phenomena are not only used in spontaneous speech but also in carefully designed dialogues in movie scenes (Rosa & Rosa, 2013). Approximately 6% of words are affected by some form of disfluency (Clark &Fox Tree, 2002). Disfluencies may affect 5-10% of all words and one third of all utterances in natural speech (Shriberg, 1994). Silence and pauses collectively constitute forty to fifty per cent of the spontaneous utterance. They are of two types i.e. breathing pauses and

hesitation pauses of the “er. . .” and ‘um’ variety. Breathing pauses account for five per cent of a normal spontaneous utterance and come mostly on grammatical boundaries (Henderson, Goldman-Eisler & Skarbek, 1966). Formerly, hesitation pauses were considered as signs of disfluency, but later on, it was viewed as an important aspect of communication and attracted the linguists (Teiller, Stam, & Bigi, 2013).

2.2 Occurrence of Hesitation Pauses in Speech

Wang and Li (2014) define hesitation as a break during speaking or a period of silence that occurs between linguistic units of an utterance. Hesitation pauses are difficult to measure and researchers disagree upon the points of its occurrence and frequency. According to Boomer and Ditman (1962), they occur after the first word in a clause or sentence. Other researchers illustrate that hesitation pauses come just before the important lexical item in any utterance (Goldman-Eisler, 1972; Beattie &Butterworth, 1980). But a host of researchers do agree that hesitation pauses do not come on clause boundaries, but rather inside them. This point is indicative of the fact that planning speech overlaps clauses (Strangert, 2004).

2.3 The Taxonomy of Hesitation Pauses

Hesitation pauses and silences are studied now in a separate field of the 'temporal variables in speech'- with the pioneering contribution of Goldman-Eisler with her studies of speech rate and silent pauses (Griffiths, 1991). Following her lead, a number of researchers of this field have classified hesitation pauses into various types. Hesitation as a phenomenon takes the form of a variety of disfluent features; it results in slowing the transfer of lexicalized information in spontaneous speech. Researchers divide them into the following types:

2.3.1 False starts

As termed by Leech and Svartvik (1994), a false start occurs when a speaker utters few words, stops in the mid-sentence, and discards the first attempt at lexicalization. Such a start is usually followed by a revised attempt to lexicalize the same idea being discarded, or by silence.

2.3.2 Repeats

In repeat, a speaker iterates a lexical item in the mid of the same sentence in which it had already occurred. Repeats are further sub-divided into 'prospective repeats' that are produced to take time for speech planning, and 'retrospective repeats' to correct errors or recreate link with the item already uttered (Tissi, 2006).

2.3.3 Restarts

Restarts are found when a speaker utters few words and then repeats the same before saying next (Leech & Svartvik, 1994).

2.3.4 Self-corrections

Very often, one word is uttered and then immediately replaced by another word as retraction. This is called self-correction. These four types, namely 'false starts, 'restarts, 'repeats' and 'self-corrections' are sometime referred as 'repairs' (Leech & Svartvik, 1994).

2.3.5 Lengthening

In lengthening, a speaker prolongs the articulation of a word, particularly vowel sound (Clark, 1994).

2.3.6 Pauses

As one of the fundamental features of spontaneous speech, hesitation also takes the form of pauses. They include several types; some of them are the subject of the study of articulatory process and speech pathology. One such type is breathing pauses. Recording and measuring these pauses require special instruments (Wingate, 1987). An important type of pauses is the one which occurs either after a complete

speech act, sentence, clause, word or a significant grammatical boundary. These can be either silent or unfilled pauses (SP), or filled or voiced pauses (FP) (Leech & Svartvik, 1994). FP's can be realized by a number of phonetic but non-lexicalized combinations or communication fillers (Bortfeld, Leon, Bloom, Schober & Brennan, 2001).

2.3.7 Parenthetical Remarks

Watanabe and Rose (2012) put that parenthetical remarks are evident when a speaker utters a sequence of one or more words; this sequence is to be understood as a replacement with the aim of correction or explanation of the immediately preceding equivalent sequence. Parenthetical remarks are used in order to make the material clearer and easy to be understood by the listeners, through specifying or giving more simple words to describe it. Some typical parenthetical remarks in English include "I mean", "Well", "That is", etc.

2.4 Reasons and Functions of Disfluency Fillers

A number of researchers in the area of 'speech production' have assigned different reasons and functions to disfluency fillers. There are a large number of intertwined variables in the nature of pauses and the mechanism of words selection - either within the same language or going for another one. One possible explanation is provided by the 'spreading activation' or 'interactive activation' theory (Motley& MacKay, 1975). They remark that activation of phonetically and semantically similar words spread out and disperse in a chain reaction. Since the task of the speaker is to select the required word and to suppress the unwanted, this process is resulted in hesitation pauses. Silent and filled pauses function as devices to take time before an increase of information, while repeats and false starts come to temporise before a correction (Tannenbaum, William & Hillier, 1965). Some fillers take place in communication when speakers are uncertain (Smith & Clark, 1993; Brennan& Williams, 1995). Others consider them as the consequence of choices available to the speaker (Schachter, Christenfeld, Ravina & Bilous, 1991). Fillers also serve the function of facilitating understanding (Bortfeld et al., 2001); they also allow the listener to amend their predictions about what is being said next (Arnold, Tanenhaus, Altmann, and Fagnano,2004; Corley, MacGregor & Donaldson, 2007). They also help the listener in evaluating the speaker's confidence in what they are saying (Brennan& Williams, 1995). Speakers produce fillers when they experience a delay to the speech plan (Smith & Clark, 1993), and it may be the case that any plausible interruption to fluent speech will affect listeners in the same way as filler (Bailey & Ferreira, 2003; Brennan et al. 2001). Clark and Fox-Tree (2002) assert that fillers transmit interpersonal messages. Similarly, hesitation is by no means contradictory to fluency; it is an integral element of a good speech which is more error-free and of high-quality (Corrà, 1982). Some disfluency markers with a semantic function may be subject to inter-language effects (Schmidg & Fägersten, 2010). Bortfeld et al. (2001) argue that disfluency markers are not always the result of incompetence or difficulty in planning speech. They may be speakers' tools for continuity in communication or editing their own speech. Some disfluency markers such as um and uh have communicative value and are interpreted differently in different contexts (Abbas, Jawad & Muhi, 2018). Nevertheless, few researchers into SLA consider pauses and other hesitation phenomena to be one of the greatest impediments to intelligibility in communication in second language; they associate them with poor speech performance (Albrechtsen, Henriksen, & Faerch, 1980).

2.5 Hesitation Pauses in CS

There is scarcity of research into the tendency of hesitation in CS. Very few researchers have examined hesitation pauses and fillers in relation to CS. For instance,

Hlavac (2011) puts that bilingual speakers who about equally fluent in both languages produce CS utterances without hesitation pauses, restarts, repetitions and corrections etc. It suggests that intra-sentential code switching is not some random interference (Hlavac, 2011). He concludes that Hesitation phenomenon is more a consequence of CS than a strategy to facilitate it. On the whole, hesitation in CS has not attracted researchers who dealt with CS in general. The present study is a step in this direction.

3. Methodology

The study was carried out in Malakand Division, Khyber-Pakhtunkhwa Pakistan, a representative Pashto multilingual community. Respondents were selected via 'Social Network' sampling; they were Pashto native speakers with English language as compulsory subject during their 14 or 16 years of schooling. Their demographics are given in Table 1 below:

Table 3.1 Demographics of the Respondents

Number of Respondents	Age	Males	Females	Education	Linguistic Profile
12	22-35	08	04	14-16 years of schooling	Pashto-English-Urdu Multilinguals

Primary data were obtained by audio-recording the naturally occurring conversation of the respondents. Each respondent spoke for an average of approximately ten minutes. The subjects were informed that their speech samples were being gathered for research purpose before each interview. No mention was made to them of FP's as a specific target of the study to ensure that subjects may not become overly conscious of hesitation in their speech and possibly affect the data. The recording was rectified and the total duration of seventy-five minutes communication was obtained, by omitting the disruptions and unnecessary elements that formed 45 minutes. It was scanned and rewind several times for careful analysis. Subsequently, examples from the recording for illustrations were transcribed in the form of transliteration in English alphabets. For making clear distinction among CS utterances, hesitation pauses and fillers and Pashto words other than FP's, examples were composed in three different font styles. English words were written in italics, FP's in bold font, and other Pashto words without italicizing or bold (regular) fonts. English glossary for Pashto words was also given where necessary.

4. Results

Recording of the nine audio clips of twelve participants constituted the total duration of seventy-five minutes of communication. The average of 99% word per minute was recorded by scanning the total volume of their speech. The simple frequency counts of the occurrences of English words embedded into the communication of the subjects showed the use of the substantial amount of 24% English words in their communication. On the whole, subjects uttered 7425 words --both content and functional--, which include the use of 1800 English words. This amount of English words suggests that almost every fourth word in the speech of an average Pashto speaker was English. What is more important here, that the instances of hesitation pauses were larger in number than the instances of CS. Analysis of the E-recording showed that instances of hesitation pauses were occasioned 2250 times, as compared to occasions of CS which is 1500 times. It is important to mention here that the total number of recorded words (7425) was inclusive of filled pauses. Findings reveal that switching to English was not made smoothly for the participants; they confronted difficulty in switching code. The embedding of English words were marked by the hesitation pauses- both on pre-embedding and post-embedding positions. Only 305 switches were exclusive of any sort of hesitation pauses among the total number of 1500 switches to English. Though lesser in number (1055 times), subjects showed the tendency to use hesitation pauses without changing the code to English. As instances

of pauses constituted 41 per cent of the total recorded communication in present study, the results of this study are loosely in accordance with Henderson et al. (1966), who estimated that pauses and fillers of all sort constitute 40 to fifty per cent of a normal speaker's utterances. However, this study was exclusive of breathing pauses which usually constitute only 5 per cent of a normal communication.

Some English words, imbedded into Pashto, were sometimes marked by inflectional Pashto morphemes, mostly for plurality. Others were used more or less in their original forms by the subjects. Comparative analysis of the three varieties i.e. pauses recorded in switches to English words roughly used in their original form, assimilated English words inflected for plurality, and hesitation pauses experienced without switching codes also substantiates the fact that FP's are the result of difficulty in selecting and pronouncing English words during CS. The greatest number of FP's were occasioned in CS to uninflected English words (67%), medium average of FP's were recorded in assimilated English words (20%, and the lowest number of FP's were produced without switching code (13%). However, the below analyses are exclusive of assimilated English words that were inflected for plurality like "messeguna" = messages, "paguna" = pages, "leaderan" = leaders, and so on.

4.1 Repeats

Repeats were the mostly frequently used strategy applied by the subjects in CS with the largest ratio (46%). Repeats were observed when subjects made switches to English compound words or phrases. Repeats occurred mostly were retrospective type i.e., that are used to correct errors or link the items. There were only 15 possible prospective repeats i.e. that were produced to take time for speech planning. On the whole, switches to English marked by repeats constitute 7 per cent of the total switches.

(01) ***Out form*** na wo, *out of form* na wo kho game ye nakaw.
(02) Che result rashi nu ***supply*** **DMC**, *pass DMC* ba darki.
(03) Parcha pa *over-**drive*** ham, na, pa *over-load* ham nawarky.

A very typical instance of repeats, which constitute 38% (the largest number of 680 instances of the total repeats) in making switches to English was observed in the communication of the majority of the respondents. It took the form of substituting the desired English word(s) with FP made of Pashto syllables in first attempt of uttering the sentence, and then mentioning the missing English word(s) after the sentence completion. It was observed that the substitution of English word by FP's was not deliberate, which is indicative of the fact that participants encountered difficulty in imbedding English words into Pashto sentences in their first attempt.

(04) Har yaw kas khpal **dagha** ky. *Try*.
(05) Cha pe desi kha **dagha** war-na-kra. *Comments*.
(06) Da di **agha dagha** pa khpal zai shta. *Value*.

Another strategy, similar to repeats, was the substitution of the desired English words by FP's in the first attempt of uttering the sentence, followed by the repetition of the unit of the same sentence starting from the missing English word, as illustrated in the below given examples.

(07) Mung tolo der **dagha** kaw... *Insist* kaw.
(08) Staso **dagha** ta ba pa tama yoo... *Call* ta ba pa tama yoo.

It was also observed that subjects sometimes produced gap-fillers without repetitions of picking up the desired words-- whether English or Pashto--, leaving those fillers open to listeners for rendering. Their intention of using this sort of fillers and listeners' anticipation can be explored by a follow up interview by further research.

4.2 False Starts

False starts were observed when subjects had to start a sentence with an English word or switching to English had to be made immediately after first word. Interestingly, all the revised attempts followed took the form of replacing the FP segment with the required English word(s). Switches to English marked by false starts were found 195 in number which constitute 13 per cent of the total switches to English (1500).

(09) **Da che dai**...(1st attempt) da *fly-over* che dai da aghe na makhke chowk dai. (2nd attempt)

(10) **Dagha kho**.... (1st attempt) *Merit* kho da zal der high na dai. (2nd attempt)

(11) **De** ki kho gap na ye... (1st attempt) *Exam duty* ki kho gap lagawal na ye. (2nd attempt)

4.3 Reduplication

A unique kind of strategy of its nature used during switches made to English was found in this study. It was the reduplication of English words by using the syllabic reduplication strategy of Pashto. There occurred 35 instances of this tendency- as illustrated in the examples below.

(12) Ka sok charta *visit*-**misit** ky.

(13) Kala-na-kala ba warta agha *load*-**moad** ham kao pakhpala.

4.4 Lengthening

The phenomenon of lengthening was recorded both in Pashto words, directly affected by making switches to English, as well as, in English words. The neighbouring sounds of Pashto syllables, proceeding English words were marked by the tendency of lengthening. There occurred 180 instances of lengthening (12%) on the whole in making switches to English by the subjects. the authors excluded the lengthened fillers where they were not clearly distinguishable from instances of paralanguage. However, lengthening took other different forms. In about two-third (145) cases, subjects prolonged the vowel sounds of both Pashto and English words. Vowel and consonant sounds in Pashto syllables were lengthened just before the imbedded English word as a strategy to mark the occurrences of CS. On only 15 occasions they lengthened the consonants occurring just before English words. In ten cases they lengthened the unvoiced alveolar fricative sound [s] and bilabial semi-vowel sound [w] in a single instance. Lengthening the nasal bilabial [m] occurring in Pashto interrogative pronoun [kam], usually inserted as an FP for emphasis before English words, was recorded 15 times. In none of the occasion subjects lengthened Pashto syllables following the CS elements. Examples taken from each category are given below.

(14) Tolo la ye **daaaa** *worning* warko che ma razy.

(15) Da zal ba **wasssss** *last try* ky pa test ki.

(16) Ma ta kho der *bent* ***toooo*** *earth* khkara sho.

(17) Sta *power* ***offffff*** *convincing* zama na kha dai.

(18) Da tolo che **kammmm** *objection* che di.

Note: in (17), the speaker mistakenly replaced the bilabial voiced fricative /V/ with its unvoiced counterpart /F/.

4.5 Pauses

Subject produced FP's consisting of a number of phonetic, non-lexicalized combinations as communication fillers before making switches to English words and phrases. The occurrences of fillers of ‘er’ and ‘erm’ variety were found 190 times (13%). All these instances were clearly distinguishable from the other strategies of lengthening Pashto morphemic syllables followed by English words. Another similar category of FP's includes the integration of non-lexical lengthened filled pauses of ‘umm’ and ‘urr’ variety with in English words and phrases. Participants incorporated these FP's in English compound words, such as combination of adjective-noun or

other two and more than two words combination. Instances of this pattern were recorded 20 times; they were distinguishable from the FP's that occurred between the two codes (Pashto and English) in inter-sentential CS. Examples of each category and sub-category are given below.

(19) Da makhkeni clerk *work* **erm** *experience* ti ham kam wo.

(20) Da yaqeenan der *hectic* **urm** *routine* ye bia.

4.6 Parenthetical Remarks

The boundary between the different types of FP's and proper content words of Pashto, occurring typically along with CS utterances, was sometime difficult to draw. The occurrence of such Pashto words accompanying English words can loosely be categorized as parenthetical remarks. They make 8% of the total FP's of all sorts and mostly served the functions of specifying the switches to English, confirming the accuracy and appropriateness of CS utterance. Some subjects found switching code from Pashto to English and vice versa difficult, and used these parenthetical remarks to maintain the continuity in their speech. The following words were clearly identified as parenthetical remarks in subjects' speech.

Table 2: A List of Pashto Parenthetical Remarks

No.	Parenthetical Remarks	English Version
01	Kana	Or not
02	Chedai / Chekamdai	That is / The one that is
03	Laka /	Like / For example
04	Sa wartawai	What it is called

(21) Asal ki *competitive Exams* **che kam di**, da tol da *writing game* dai.

(22) Ma ve **laka**, *I dont want to kill my time***kana**.

4.7 Restarts

There were total 75 restarts (5 %) in switches to English, evident mainly for emphatic purpose by the subjects. They repeated English words and phrases to emphasise their point being made, or to attract their interlocutors' attention.

(23) Kho serf ***white*** aw ***red color***, serf *white* aw *red color rate* na ghurzy.

Based on these analyses, this study holds that the phenomenon of hesitation pauses found in Pashto while making switches to English would consist the different types of hesitation markers (by excluding SP's) in the below given proportions.

Table 3: Proportion of All Categories of Hesitations and Pauses

No.	Category	Percentage
01	Repeats	46
02	False starts	13
03	Pauses	13
04	Lengthening	12
05	Parenthetical remarks	08
06	Restarts	05
07	Reduplication	03

The above given table shows the hesitation phenomena proportionately- resulted by CS from Pashto to English. It illustrates that hesitation took various forms in subjects' communication; proportion of each form of hesitation was loosely identical in the speech of each participant of this study. The largest ratio of repeats (46%) among all types of FP's is indicative of the fact that switches to English was harder and could not be accomplished in first attempt mostly. Eventually, it took double effort and time on the part of the participants. False starts and pauses came in equal proportion (13%); both collectively constitute 26% of all FP's. It is worth-mentioning that the difficulty in making switches to English was encountered by all participants; it

manifested differently in the speech of the subjects- either by taking the form of pause or false start. Instances of incorporating hesitation with CS utterance by lengthening the syllables of English words or individual sounds (both consonants and vowels),, or Pashto words syllables followed or preceded by CS utterances constitute 12% of the total FP's in switches to English. Parenthetical remarks recorded in the data form 08% of the total FP's. It is important to note here that all the parenthetical remarks, either before, in middle or after switches to English, were in Pashto. Cases of restarts were occasioned seventy-five times (05%) - mainly for emphatic purposes, not necessarily as signs of difficulty in CS. The strategy of reduplication, though in very few cases (03%), was observed as subjects' tendency to nativise English words by treating them the way similar to Pashto words.

4.8 Grammatical Categorization of FP's in Pashto

Most of the FP's were consisted of Pashto referring expressions, deixes and demonstrative, and interrogative pronouns. Some FP's took the form of question tags. Interestingly, most of them were produced just as sign of hesitation, not for the role they usually perform in traditional sense in communication. It was found that Pashto deictic expressions like "da", "agha", "dagha", "de" etc, meaning this, that and it respectively, were produced as fillers, not for making references to directions and points in time. Similarly, tags like "kana", "tek da" and "humm" usually meant to elicit response or demand confirmation from listeners, were not uttered for the roles assigned to them. They were instead produced as hesitation pauses in CS.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

It can safely be argued on the basis of these findings that Pashto L1 speakers produced hesitation pauses and fillers while switching code from Pashto to English as signs of disfluency markers- since the ratio of the production of FP's accompanying CS utterances is considerably greater than the FP's in holding communication in Pashto without switching code to English. The FP's produced without switching code to English can be termed as fluency markers as a strategy to avoid disruption in communication. Subjects encountered difficulty only in selecting the appropriate words during switching code to English and thus produced FP's and hesitation pauses in their first attempt. It is worth-noticing that they had no such difficulty in selecting the position of English words at syntax level. The appropriate positions for English words were filled by FP's and replaced by the desired English words in their second or subsequent attempts. Pronouncing correctly the English words appeared another challenge before participants which is mostly accomplished by inserting FP's before, after or with in English words and phrases to eas themselves. Since English was a foreign language to all the participants, they were not very confident and thus willing to repeat English words once used by them. Consequently, hesitation pauses and fillers also performed the role of pronouns in order to avoid repetitions of English words once introduced into communication through CS i.e. subjects used FP's to refer to the English words previously mentioned. This replacement of English words by FP's as demonstrative pronouns also indicates that subjects found the use of FP's easier than repeating English words. The integration of FP's to English compound words hints the subjects' tendency to nativize English words in their communication. Investigating the pauses during CS caused by difficulty in pronouncing foreign words may yield significant results. In doing this, distinction can be drawn between the nature and ratio of hesitation pauses produced during pronunciation of comparatively difficult English words, as well as, pauses occurring with easier English words. Moreover, producing FP's in switching code to English in the way similar to producing FP's in communicating throughout in Pashto without switching code can be

treated as indicators of subjects' strategic competence in imbedding English words into Pashto.

As all the participants had roughly the same linguistic proficiency, they were cognisant of the difficulty they confront in getting English words if introduced suddenly to them. Therefore, the study holds that hesitation pauses produced during CS in communication are in some measure the result of the anticipation on speaker's part of being unintelligible by the interlocutors. Therefore, hesitation pauses are partly the result of the attempt to avoid confusion and to facilitate not only the speakers but also the listeners. Yet, identifying each type of hesitation pause with obvious purpose is subject to further research.

By adopting the similar approach, measuring the silent pauses (SP's) and their comparative analysis produced during communication with CS utterance, and without CS utterance may further explore the nature of hesitation phenomenon in CS.

There is also a good deal of shared implicit knowledge among the participants as evident from the use of fillers with no semantic value e.g. 'dagha', followed by no clarification or elaboration by the users (speakers). Though an apparent consensus was viewed among participants regarding the use of such fillers, there is possibility of relative mismatch between the meaning and intention of non-lexicalized fillers with mere phonetic value when comprehension of both the listeners and speakers are compared. Lastly, this study was exclusive of viewing the direct impact of social variables on the use of hesitation pauses. Investigating the correlation between the nature and frequency of hesitation pauses and linguistic and social factors e.g., factors affecting communication, and social traits of speakers such as age, gender, education etc, is a wide area open for future research.

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Mother Tongue or the Other Tongue? The Case of Dhatki-Speaking Urban Youth

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Abstract

Languages are the main pillars of the society. Within the Sindh province, many indigenous languages are spoken, however within the urban domain i.e. Karachi, the majority languages (English and Urdu) are institutionalized and less exposure is given to the minority languages. With the advent of foreign language (Chinese) in the educational sector, maintaining the mother tongue is really a challenging task. As a result, the native mother tongue speakers are learning and acquiring the dominant languages to fit in the society and serve various purposes. The present study explores the language choice patterns, reasons of language choice and status of language shift and maintenance from the mother tongue to the other tongue in various domains. So far the studies have been conducted in urban domain on minority language groups belonging to the northern areas of Pakistan and mainly after a shift have been noted by the community leaders. The case of Dhatki language is unique, as the language has not been studied before and therefore a qualitative case study have been conducted to know about the language phenomena of the native speakers residing in the urban domain, as they are the actual stakeholders. The research site selected for this study was one of the Public Sector Universities of Karachi and the target population is native Dhatki language speakers. The initial data for the study was gathered using sociolinguistic profile from 30 undergraduate Dhatki-speaking urban youth using purposive sampling; finding the native speakers was not a problem as many of them are enrolled in the university. However for comprehensive data, in-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted from 06 participants using purposive and snowball sampling, to gather accurate results, the data was transcribed for thematic analysis. The present study provides an insight of such a situation where indigenous speakers are exposed to multiple languages in different domains and are acquiring majority language for academic and social needs, while adopting minority language at the same time due to close affiliation and frequent language contact. Hence the speakers are losing the essence in their native mother tongue. The findings provide an interesting data for language policy makers and mother tongue speakers who can shape future action about mother tongue using this comprehensive data. However, a large scale study can be conducted to know more about the Dhatki language for language documentation.

Key terms: domain, mother tongue, language maintenance, language shift

1. Introduction

Indigenous languages form the core elements within a society as these languages add more diversity in the nation's cultural outlook. South Asian states are the true representative of such a philosophy where in each corner; there is a distinct culture which is represented by its linguistic diversity. Pakistan appears to be a true representative of this ideology, as 74 languages are spoken in this land (Siddiqui, 2019). Urdu is its national language while English is the co-official language. However, this multilingualism feature has several drawbacks within each province in Pakistan; despite the fact that each province enjoys linguistic plurality; preference is given to majority language. The scenario within the urban domains in each province was more conflicting; as indigenous language speakers migrate to the urban areas for better economic and social facilities; hence they also acquired the dominant language within the urban centers for various purposes (Abbasi and Zaki, 2019; Ivengar 2013). Such a scenario possesses great threat to the indigenous languages within Pakistan as Siddiqui (2019) observed that many languages were at the language loss stage. Hence,

the younger generation has an influential role in this scenario; but the youth was shifting towards the dominant language due to various needs (Wadho, 2018).

Karachi is one of the biggest metropolitan cities of Pakistan where different communities reside. These communities speak different languages like Memoni, Gujarati, Sindhi, Marwari, Kutchi, Balochi, Pashto, Punjabi, Saraki, Brushaski, Balti and Shina. Table 1 shows the linguistic data of the province of Sindh according to the Census 2017 data where only six major languages are shown while Kashmiri, Brahvi and Hindko are not included.

Table 1

Census 2017 Data of Language in Sindh Province

S. No	Language	Population	Percentage
1.	Sindhi	2,94,87,297	61.60
2.	Urdu	87,12,215	18.20
3.	Pashto	26,13,664	5.46
4.	Punabi	25,42,860	5.32
5.	Balochi	9,57,386	2
6.	Saraiki	10,67,485	2.31
7.	Other	24,89,204	5.2
	Total	4,87,69,314	100

Source: *Daily Pahenjiakhbar 2019*

Hence, within Pakistan there is no accurate data for the indigenous languages other than the regional languages included in the linguistic survey in Census 2017. Therefore, over the years researchers have started exploring the indigenous languages and communities within Karachi in particular. In this regard, Ali (2017) conducted an ethnographic study on the Memon community to explore the language shift and maintenance phenomena among *Memoni* language and a similar study was conducted by Ali (2015) on the four indigenous communities from northern areas but migrated to the urban center Karachi. Also, researchers have started exploring the majority languages within the urban setting as well, David, Ali and Baloch (2017) explored Sindhi language across the province of Sindh but, the languages with few number of speakers are yet to be explored; as the exact status of the language is not known. The present study explores the Dhatki-speaking community residing in Karachi originally from the desert area of Tharparkar and Umerkot in Sindh; the community has not been explored before and is considered as a dialect of Sindhi language (Joyo, 2009; Phuloo, 2017). However, Dhatki is a separate language and is not a dialect or variety of Sindhi language. (Rahman, 2002)

Dhatki is a South-Asian language belonging to Indo-Aryan branch of the Indo-European language family. It is spoken in Barmer districts of Rajastan, western parts of Jasilamer (India) and eastern part of Sindh (Pakistan). Within the regions of Sindh, it is mostly spoken in Sanghar, Umarkot and Tharparker region with 65% percent Hindu, 30% Muslims and 5% of desert religion speakers. (Phuloo, 2017). Therefore, Dhatki is a diverse language of the Sindh province that is spoken by people of different religions. The exact population is not known about the Dhatki speakers in Sindh; as the Census-2017 included it in the ‘other languages’ category.

Dhatki language has implosive consonants and its phonological system is quite much similar to the other Indo-Aryan languages (Phullo 2017). However, the language does not have any written script and it only exists in the speaking and oral folks. Dhatki language is quite different from Sindhi language and its dialects but as no extensive literature is available therefore research scholars considered it as a variety of Sindhi language (Rahman, 2002). The present study explores the preference and perceptions of Dhatki-speaking urban youth in the context of Karachi; where these language speakers are enrolled in various Public-Sector Universities for achieving higher education.

2. Rationale of the Study

Dhatki speakers living in the remote areas of Sindh mostly migrate to the urban setting like Hyderabad, Sukkur and Karachi for better economic life and to meet their educational needs. Usually, the young generation shift to the urban setting mainly for business and education purposes as within their areas; the basic facilities are not sufficient for a better life. When these Dhatki-speakers move to the urban settings; they have to acquire the majority language like Urdu and English in the academic institutes and these days foreign language Chinese as well in the institutes. Also, due to close affiliation with other regional languages, they acquire the minority languages as well like Sindhi, Marwari and Gujarati for interpersonal communication. Hence, Dhatki speakers acquire multiple languages in the urban settings. Consequently, the mother tongue faces great threat in the urban setting; where language change is quite common in each domain of language use. Wadhi (2018); Ali (2017) and (Ali 2015) believed that in the province of Sindh particularly in the urban domains of Karachi there are many indigenous languages spoken, and the sociolinguistic behavior of these indigenous languages has not been studied as mostly the focus is towards measuring perceptions and attitude towards English language. Therefore the present study fills the research gap identified and aims to explore the following objectives in this study:

- To explore the language preferences of Dhatki speakers in different domains of language use.
- To determine the reasons for using the Dhatki language or other languages among Dhatki speaking urban youth
- To investigate the current status of mother tongue among Dhatki speaking urban youth

3. Research Questions

i. What are the language preferences of Dhatki speakers in different domains of language use?
ii. What are the possible factors for using other languages among Dhatki speaking urban youth?
iii. What is the status of mother tongue usage among Dhatki speaking urban youth?

4. Literature Review

Language shift is a phenomenon in which speakers belonging from one community having their own language adopt another language prevalent in the society due to various, political, social, economic and psychological reasons. Research in this area has mostly focused the micro and macro factors prevalent in the society. However, the present study approaches this concept in the light of Fishman word's (1991); who referred to it as 'the non-use of a language in the favor of another language'. Hence, the view that Fishman takes is broadly seen in the number of domains a language is used. As the number of domains of a language reduces from its common use; language change is taking place. A similar stance was taken by Umrani and Memon (2016) who defined this process in terms of language contact philosophy. Therefore, the present study also seeks to analyze the language use in different settings where Dhatki is used frequently.

There is enormous amount of literature available on the indigenous languages in different parts of the world. A number of studies has been conducted all over the world to identify the various factors and status of language; some argue that there are both local and global factors for change in language use (Fishman, 1991), while other argue that it is the change in the domains of language use along with the change in identity as a close affiliation with another social group (Fasold, 1984). In this connection many scholars have explored and studied the phenomena of language shift

and maintenance and tried to trace why languages replace each other in different domains in a language contact situation (Aitchson, 1991; Denison, 1997; Dorian. 1980; Gal 1979; Schmidt, 2002; Jagodic, 2011 & Kasatkina, 2011). The macro societal features were explored by most researchers. Fishman (1991) and Crystal (2000) denoted that there were physical, demographic, cultural and immigration as the prime causes of language shift. Similarly, Fasold (1984) contributed that the major reasons for shift were migration, industrialization, language of education, urbanization and prestige. In the same way Romaine (1994) claimed that the numerical strength, social class, religion, ties with family and language policy within a state were the prime causes of language shift.

Gal (1979) was the first sociolinguist to explore the phenomenon of language shift. The study traced the role of German language which was replaced by Hungarian. The findings showed that there were different factors responsible for shift like urbanization, social context, prestige and language used by women. Subsequently research models developed regarding measuring the use of language and researchers started investigating the role of majority languages. Similar findings were reported by David, Naji and Kaur where English and Malay were replacing Punjabi language due to low-socio-economic value the language carries with it. Consequently, Cheng (2003) and Zaid, Mee and Hei (2012) explored language use patterns among mixed communities and reported that mixed marriages and code-switching has enabled the speakers to completely switch the language in many settings. It concluded that language choice depends on the societal factors especially exogamous patterns within family than the individual factors. Comparatively, Kasatkina (2011) explored a different version by studying the psychological phenomenon and role of external factors which were effecting the Russian immigrants' language choice in society and at family level.

However research in the recent past has greatly shifted its attention to the languages spoken in the South Asian region. David (1999; 2000; 2001; 2003) is considered as the pioneer researcher in this area who has explored the indigenous languages by analyzing the different factors working in a society. As the Sindhi community resides in different parts of the world along with the other communities, the heritage language faces great challenges in the society. Also research within the urban domains for studying the language use patterns has begun too (Abbasi & Zaki, 2019; Ali 2015; Ali 2017; David et al 2017; Wadho 2018). A representation of the researches conducted on the indigenous language in various parts on the Sindhi diaspora has been shown in **Table 2.**

Research Aim/Question	**Research Design & Tools**	**Finding**
David (1999) Is the Malay Sindhi community experiencing a language shift or not?	Mixed Method Questionnaire Interview Observation	Total shift towards English & Malay. Use of Sindhi shrink to private lives and even in that context, a mixture of Sindhi & English Sindhi is being replaced by an International language which is nether the national nor the majority language Language choice and functions varied across generations
David (2000) Sindhi being maintained or marginalized in favor of English in Singapore? Explore language choice in home, intercommunity	Mixed Method Questionnaire for language use in domains Observation Proficiency	Use of English in all domains. Factors: Mixed Marriages & Language choice of older generation is the heritage language while that of younger generation is English Mixed discourse appears to be the language

members & religious domain among family and Sindhi friends		of the community : Older using Sindhi with English Lexical Younger using English with nominal Sindhi lexical item Loss of writing skills
David (2001) Measuring language maintenance of a minority Sindhi speaking community in London Exploring the language choice of the speakers in different domains, range of functions it performs and internal & external factors for shift	Questionnaire (73 items) : Purpose choice of language in Home, business, religious domains ethnic friends language literacy Oral Interviews Language Attitude (self-report data) Language Proficiency (reporting joke in Sindhi) Participant Observation: Range of activities & Speech Events (Transcripts: natural conversations in domains)	Language choice in different domains is English. Resort to Sindhi for maintain privacy. Young generation moving away from their heritage language. Functional Use: Sindhi cuisine, kingship terms and pragmatic use. Mixed Discourse. Parents concern with proficiency in English Loss of language competence is the road mark to Language shift
David (2003)		There are combination of reasons working in tandem over time and working differently for different families, eventually cause a language shift. Elder promote English language as they believe it holds the transactional value.
David et.al (2017) Explored the extent to which the use of Sindhi language has been shifted or maintained by surveying the patterns of language use in domains of home, school, workplace, media, market & professionals	Questionnaire In-depth interviews from Professionals	Sindhi enjoy higher ethnolinguistic vitality than other groups and behold sentimental affiliation.

Figure 2 Research Conducted on Sindhi Diaspora (Dr. Maya 1999; 2000; 2001b; 2003; 2017)

The research conducted by Ali (2015) focused on the sociolinguistic behavior of Brushaki, Balti, Shina and Khowar languages that were away from their native environment using Perceived Benefit Model developed by Karan and Stadler (2001). The study using sociolinguistic profile and semi-structured interviews explored the language choice and factors responsible for it. It was reported that the speakers of the indigenous language used dominant language like Urdu in the home domain. The study reported several reasons for shift in the language frequently conveyed by the participants was the distance from the hometown and individual choices to fit in the society were the major constraints in the maintenance of their native language and the language has been merely reduced to a identity marker for the community. The economic factor was also one of the major factors for language shift among the four languages explored.

The present study draws it foundation from the study conducted by Ali (2015) and explores the sociolinguistic behavior of another indigenous community in the urban

settings who have migrated from their home town. However, the study is innovative as it explores a community which has not been explored by researchers, as it has few numbers of speakers. Also, it has been associated with the Sindhi language, which is the majority language in the Sindh province and minority language in the urban centers and Karachi more prominently. Therefore, the present study is distinct as it explores the language use, reasons for language use and status of an unexplored Dhatki community.

5. Theoretical consideration

The theoretical model selected for the study is the Perceived Benefit Model of Language shift and Stability developed by Karan and Stadler (2000). The model studies the role motivation plays in the decision of making a language choice in each domain. It is asserted that people's choices are derived from some internal motive and benefit and the basic pillars of this motive are derived from the societal needs, economic and political stability in the society; hence speakers are encouraged to use the language in different domains; according to the purpose it serves in each situation for them. Therefore, the individual's role in the speech community became highly effective. Hence, this model focuses on the individual who select from their linguistic repertoire the language variety that best serves his interest in particular speech environment or domain. For the present study the model is adopted for studying the language usage patterns and the different factors responsible for it, to know about the status of the Dhatki language among the urban youth.

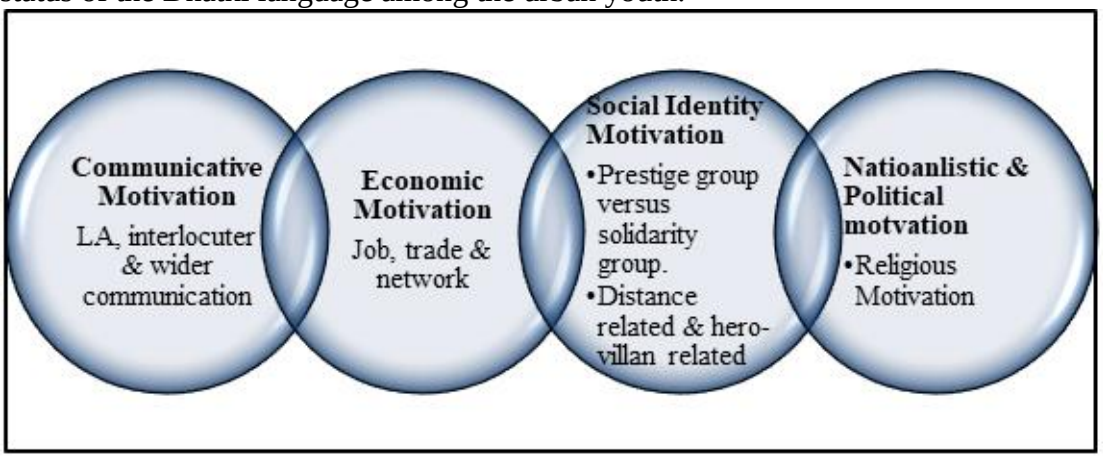

Figure 2 Language Choice Decisions (Perceived Benefit Model, 2000

6. Methodology

This section briefs about the participants and context of the present study with the addition of details about research tools used to collect data for the study.

6.1.Context and research methodology

Dhatki-speakers after completing their secondary education usually migrate to the cities; where they get enrolled in different public and private sector universities. For the present study, the research site includes a Public Sector University of Karachi where the Dhatki-speakers are enrolled in different departments. Since the Dhatki-speakers are not in great majority in the university and they only get enrolled after securing admission through reserve seats for Mirpur Khas Board and Dinshaw quota. Therefore, the present study was qualitative case study; as it has provided a comprehensive data. As, the speakers are in minority in the university, therefore maximum number of students available were targeted to be part of the study. Hence, multiple case studies have been conducted; as it provides a detailed and reliable data from the participants about their behavior and attitude. Case studies are known to be significant in providing detailed information relative to target unit of analysis

(Creswell, 2015). Henceforth, case study is selected as the most appropriate research method since it provides the real world perspective from an individualistic view.

6.2. Participants and Sampling

In case study the researcher is responsible for the selection of unit of analysis. The educational researcher's unit of analysis can comprise a learner, a classroom of learners or an entire learning institution, depending upon the research questions and objectives (Creswell, 2015). In case study research mostly purposive sample is used because the researcher wants to understand and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned.

Since the target population of the present study is Dhatki-speakers enrolled in different departments in the Public Sector University. Therefore, the data was collected using purposive sampling technique followed by snowball sampling from Dhatki-speakers who are living in the urban setting and have migrated from their hometown for a considerable period of two to three years; it was not difficult to find the speakers; as many of them are enrolled and appointed in the university. However, this study only focuses on the young generation enrolled in different programs. Initially data was collected from thirty participants who filled the sociolinguistic profile; based on the answers and consent of the participants in-depth interview were conducted from eight participants.

6.3.Research tools

Sociolinguistic profile form (adapted from Ali, 2015 & Abbasi & Zaki 2019) and semi-structured interviews were the research tools used for the present study. Data was collected in two phases. During the first phase, sociolinguistic profile was used in order to collect initial information from thirty participants. The profile comprised basic demographic and other relevant information about their language use in each setting and language proficiency through self-rated mechanism. In the second phase of data collection, semi-structured interviews were conducted from eight participants selected after analysis of the profile, to provide comprehensive data on the language choice made by the participants in different domains and the factors responsible for its use. The interviews were audio-recorded with consent of the participants. The participants were given the freedom to respond in any language they are comfortable. Later, the interviews were fully transcribed for thematic analysis.

7. Data Analysis

The sociolinguistic profile was analyzed using descriptive statistics. It provided the initial stimuli to conduct the in-depth study through semi-structured interview. Interview is considered as an essential tool to collect data in in depth case studies. Therefore, the major data for the present study is extracted from semi-structured interviews which lasted for fifty minutes with each participant. The data collected through the interviews was recorded; coded and thematic analysis was done to discover different factors responsible for using the mother tongue or the other tongue**.** Confidentiality of the participants was maintained, as pseudonyms were given to each participant.

The data collected after descriptive analysis using sociolinguistic profile provides information about the preference of participants in home and other domains. It shows that about 50% of the participants use their mother tongue in the home domain; while 45% of the participants use Sindhi language in the home domain. It reflects that a great number of the population is not even using their mother tongue in their homes; which according to Fishman (1991) is considered as the most important domain in the language use. It was interesting to note that 4% of the population is using Urdu in their homes and ironically 1% is using English at their home. Hence, this data reflects

that the language used in the home domains about the Dhatki-speaking urban youth is changing. A summary of the data collected from the participants is shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Percentage of Language use in Home setting	
Setting	**Dhatki/Sindhi/Urdu/English**
Use of Dhatki in home setting	50%
Use of Sindhi in home setting	45%
Use of Urdu in home setting	4%
Use of English in home setting	1%

N= Percentage is determined by total no. of Participants

The participants were also asked to report their proficiency in the language through self-reported proficiency as it is considered more appropriate; also because it was not the major research question. The participants reported about their proficiency in Dhatki, Sindhi, Urdu and English language. It was found out that only 1% percent of the participants are highly proficient and rated excellent proficiency in their mother tongue and 49% rated as Good. However, about 10% of the participants reported excellent proficiency in Sindhi and 40% reported very good proficiency in Urdu. It is interesting to know that more than 2% reported to have excellent proficiency in English language. The data provided an interesting data about the proficiency of the participants that can further be explored altogether in a different research using the same data.

Table 3

Self-reported Proficiency in Language					
Language	**Poor**	**Average**	**Good**	**V. Good**	**Excellent**
Dhatki		10%	50%	39%	1%
Sindhi			30%	60%	10%
Urdu		30%	30%	40%	
English	1%	40%	40%	17%	2%

While reporting for the domains of language use, the Dhatki speakers reported that they use their mother tongue Dhatki mostly in home domain with parents; while some reported that they also use in the neighborhood, canteen and hostel. However, Sindhi language was predominant in all the situations. And the national language Urdu is used with friends, classroom, media, canteen and lab. It has been observed that Dhatki language has been reduced to home domain only and has been replaced by Sindhi and Urdu in all the other domains. Most importantly; Sindhi has become a language used in all the settings with great frequency. Hence, the participants are using Urdu, English, Chinese and Sindhi in the academia, workplace, friends, market and canteen.

The descriptive analysis was used as an initial stimulus for the study; in order to know about the domains of language use, proficiency and demographic data. However, the major data is extracted from in-depth interviews using thematic analysis.

7.1. Stereotypes

One of the common factors that most the participants informed that the speakers of other tongue who are in greater majority tend to make fun of their language. They are being named as *maro ~, saie~* or *dhati (DMT07)* because most of the community members belong to rural setting and other tongue speakers believe that they are uneducated and low-class people as DMT22 says *humein kehte ha kya kro ge parh kr, tmhara koi future nahe ha* and DTM16 says '*they think we belong to loewer-midle class so we donot have any rights'.* DTM02 narrated that because of their skin-color, they are harassed and often neglected as part of the society when they communicate in their mother tongue as DTM22 said 'bus *ahewe asan khe pasand na kenda ahen'*. Hence, they gradually acquire new languages to fit in the society.

7.2.Academic need

The participants narrated that the urban lifestyle demands more from minority speakers and in order to fit in the society they have to adopt society's norms and most importantly its language to be recognized as the member of the larger academic community. As DTM22 says *'we are unconsciously forced to use Urdu and English and there is little opportunity to use Dhatki'.* The respondents in response to the question of why do they acquire the dominant language, responded that 'learning Urdu and English because these languages hold institutional prestige' (. DTM22, DTM07 and DTM02). Respondents believes if they speak Dhatki in academic institutes then they would not speak Urdu or English fluently. And it will affect their proficiency as well as their coming generation would be effected as well, as DTM07 says that 'hamare bachon ko bhe hum Urdu seekhei~ ge'

7.3.Prestige

The research participant's major emphasis was laid on the fact that Sindhi is the language of prestige and power, DTM22 and DTM02 said that 'Sindhi ek institutional bole ha aur yahan Sindhi buhat ha jo humein hamare ghar walon ke yaad dilate ha; esleye hum Sindhi seekhte aur bolte ha'. Therefore, they have acquire Sindhi language as it is the most populist language in the province of Sindh and also because of the fact that the provincial government is of Sindhi elite class. As one of the respondent said, "*We speak Sindhi language to be in the majority and to gain access to people*." (DTM07). As DTM 01 *said 'being a Sindhi speaker is more favorable than a Dhatki speaker'.*

7.4. Sense of association

The particiapnts believe Sindhi is close to Dhatki language so it makes the intercultural communication easy with Sindhi friends and community members. However, the other reported that Dhatki is a more complex language than Sindhi and the Sindhi speakers are not able to understand their language so we speak Sindhi language. Hence, they adopt another language for removing the language barrier. However, ultimately they are affecting their mother tongue; as the numbers of domains are reduced.

7.5. Social acceptance

Dhatki speakers believe they do not have acceptance in the society as they associate themselves as Sindhi's because the society and professionals are unaware of Dhatki language. It may be due to the fact that Dhatki language has no written script and mostly Sindhi script is followed. Only upon recognition from the person, mostly Sindhi speaker they disclose their identity and that is when they feel it is safe to disclose it and they won't be judged on it. There is an unusal fear in their mind. It is mostly due to their professional field. As most of the speakers in the research site are clerks and also due to religious factor as well.

7.6. Economic Factor

According to the respondents majority of the community members are migrating from native land to metropolitan cities like Karachi in search of job opportunities. However, most of them are running their own business as well. DTM22 said that '*yahan hamara apna karobar ha and kuch Dhatki speakers Karachi mein karobar he krne aate ha'.* And in the competent market area, they mostly communicate in Urdu and in some cases Sindhi. Dhatki is rarely being used in the market place or workplace.

7.7. Perceptions about language learning

One of the most interesting finding is the inclination of Dhatki speakers towards learning Chinese language; '*we want to learn Chinese, as it is a language of opportunity and interest fr future'* (*DTM22, DTM02, DTM07*). On the other hand they

show no interest towards learning or even improving their mother tongue and English language.

7.8. Language Contact with their Community

Most of the respondents are living as bachelors or in small speech communities away from their home town. Majority of them are habitual of living in urbanized areas. Consequently, they avoid travelling back to their hometowns due to underdevelopment in their respective areas. It was also noted that they don't listen to their local folk songs as well.

7.9. Self-Identity

Most of them do not associate themselves with their identity. As they prefer to be recognized as 'Sindhi Speakers.' Even the Professionals identify themselves as Sindhi Speakers. They do not even wished to disclose their mother tongue in professional forms and their resume. As being associated with Sindhi language offers more perks than being a Dhatki. Hence, the Dhatki speakers are losing their self-identity and they have adopted an economic-oriented identity.

7.10 Intergenerational transmission

Few of the speakers considered their native language as a hindrance in learning English and Urdu language which is the institutional language at all levels. Therefore a lot of a participants reported that they will make their children learn English and Urdu; as one of the participants said 'English is everywhere' and from early education till university level; everything is tested and acquire in English and there seems to be no benefit of having a different mother tongue. Even providing the mother tongue education to their future children seems baseless; as it does not have the institutional or even community acceptance in the urban center.

8. Discussion

The role of language use in different settings has been studied in different setting by scholars to know the status of a language (David, 1999; David, 2000; David 2001; David et al 2017). The findings of the study reported that use of Dhatki in the home domain has been reduced to 50% only as shown in Table 2, while Sindhi, Urdu and English are replacing the mother tongue in the home domain. This similar shift in the home domain was noted by Ali (2015) and Ali (2017) where Urdu language is replacing the four indigenous language of the northern areas and Memoni language in home setting in the urban areas. Wadho (2018) also noted a shift in the attitudes of native speakers and most of the speakers are inclined towards Urdu and English while they have negative attitude for their own mother tongue.

Similarly, the results indicates that the participants have less proficiency in Dhatki language and are more proficient in Sindhi, Urdu and English as shown in Table 3. As, Sindhi is the predominant language while Urdu being preferred in educational settings while Dhatki has been restrained and reduce to home that too among few speakers. The same trend was observed by David (2000) where the language was confined to home only. However, a comparatively different version was put forward by David et al (2017) where 89% are using their mother tongue in the home setting.

Simultaneously, the results show that there are economic, societal, language power and prestige and communicative motivations for language use in a particular setting as mentioned in the theoretical framework by Karan and Stadler (2000). The same factors were reported by Ali (2015) and Abbasi and Zaki (2019) where the societal pressures and economic needs were motivating the native speakers to adopt the dominant language. Hence, in the urban domains speakers of minority language especially the youth is more inclined towards learning and acquiring new language than their mother tongue (David 2000; 2001; 2003; Ali 2017; Ivengar 2013).

9. Conclusion

The analysis of the data shows that Dhatki speakers are using and speaking Sindhi, Urdu and English languages in different settings; according to the variety of benefit it serves. Most of the speakers associated themselves with Sindhi language due to political and social pressure and economic benefit it provides in the different domains. Their responses revealed that they have negative attitude towards their language and most often they do not identify themselves as Dhatki speakers.

As the Dhatki speakers residing in urban centers have to shift the language in each domain. Ultimately they are acquiring new languages that are dominant in the society, academia and workplace. It is reported that most of the young generation who are residing in different areas of the urban centers have adopted Sindhi and Urdu language, hence a language shift might be taking place but it was reported that some of the participants maintain the language as well; whenever the situations were feasible. However, the exact status of Dhatki-language cannot be accurately defined without any preventive measure to know the actual number of speakers in urban domains and the total population of these speakers as well. Also, language has its deep roots in its literature; therefore the unavailability of it is also a barrier to know the exact status of the language.

It has been analyzed that there are several individual, social, economic & cultural factors responsible for adopting the other tongue. Also the research draws attention of the mother tongue speakers to take immediate measures to transform and maintain their language in urban environment. Therefore, steps should be taken by speakers and researchers to promote and preserve their historical language.

10. Limitations of the study

The study is limited in its context as takes input from few case studies, therefore it cannot be generalized on the whole population as it has analyzed the view of Dhatki-speakers residing in the urban settings only.

11. Recommendations

The study raises the issue of language policy for indigenous minority speakers and steps should be taken for teaching the mother tongue in rural and urban centers of Sindh. Also communities and government should take some measures for Language documentation, cultural promotion and sessions on the indigenous minority languages in future. A further longitudinal study can be conducted to know about the language use, attitudes and the total number of language speakers in Sindh.

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Hiding 'Their' Positives and 'Our' Negatives: An Analysis of English Print Media's Coverage of 2014 Islamabad Sit-ins

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Abstract

Media is considered as one of the most powerful pillars of a modern state. Having more control over public discourse, it has more powers of making public opinion. A critical study of media discourse urges a need of exposing underlying ideologies instead of relying on the surface analysis of textual and linguistic features. One of the basic assumptions of such studies remains that power relations are discursive and discourse structures not only index social structures but social structures are also constructed, maintained, and challenged by discourse structures. In this regard, media may either enact the discourse of powerful or challenge it. All over the world, the media discourse structures are determined by its relationship with other groups. Instead of being factual, it constructs discourse according to a group policy. Pakistan is no exception in this regard. Although the concept of a free media is not very old here, yet it has assumed unimaginable powers in a very brief history of its freedom. In recent years, the county has seen some stronger and louder voices of political and social change than ever before. The August 2014 Azadi and Inqilab Marches and sit-ins of PTI and PAT were significant movements which influenced a palpable change in politics of the state. Owing to importance of these movements, it becomes very important to study how they were portrayed by the elite media of the county. This research planned to study the underlying ideological discourse structures which worked behind the coloring of the marches in a desired certain way. It applied the ideological square model of Van Dijk with particular focus on polarization in discourse. The data, i.e. the top stories of the front pages, was collected from the selected editions of the four major English newspapers-Dawn, The News, The Nation, and Daily Times. A critical examination of the data rendered that the media supported status-quo and enacted the discourse of the government instead of resisting and challenging the existing political and social narrative.

Key Words: Critical Discourse Studies, Ideological Discourse Structures, Polarization in Discourse, Ideological Square

1. Introduction

Media plays a vital role in determining, enacting, maintaining, or challenging power relations in modern societies. In the ever ongoing war between the protagonists of status-quo and advocates of change, it has assumed self-determined role to function as the key arbitrator in settling disputes. With the power to color a picture and represent anything in line with its own policy, this center of power can represent devils as angel and angels as devils. The success of mass movements depends upon how media's discourse constructs them for common people.

The mass media in Pakistan acquired new dimensions, redefined its role, and started functioning as a powerful center of the state as soon as it was enfranchised by Pervaiz Musharaf. Now reporting certain political and social events of momentous importance, it appears to function on the principle: 'Absolute freedom gives absolute power, and absolute power is unstoppable'. Its role in shaking the most unflinching and unyielding centers of power can be studied by the researchers of discourse, mass media, and the social and political movements. After this newly assumed duty of redefining power structures, all the institutions which have a stake in the game of power cannot ignore its strength.

In recent years, Pakistan's political system has undergone a conspicuous change. The voices of change in system have got more momentous; however, it would be quite early to determine whether they got more maturity even. The 2014 Anti government

long marches and sit-ins of Pakistan Tehreek-e-Insaf (PTI: the political party led by cricketer turned politician Imran Khan) and Pakistan Awami Tehreek (PAT: the party led by the religious cleric Dr. Tahir-ul-Qadri) were movements of grave political repercussions. Determined to take revenge of the alleged rigging in 2013 general elections and killings of 14 workers of PAT at Minhaj trust in Model Town, Lahore, PTI and PAT under the leadership of Imran Khan and Dr. Tahir-ul-Qadri planned the Azadi and Inqilab Marches respectively. They had a plan to march towards the capital and remain in a sit-in until they remove the then PM Nawaz Sharif from power. During the coverage of these events, different media groups appeared to assume the role of supporters of either of the sides: the government or the opposition. The discourse on media was of crucial importance for mobilizing or demobilizing the public of the county. So, media was one of the key arbitrators of the whole event.

Adopting a more problem oriented instead of discipline and method oriented approach as compared to other critical approaches, Critical Discourse Studies and their scholars are more socio-politically committed to social equality and justice. They are particularly interested in (re) production of power abuse and resistance against it. They conclude that some forms of dominant text and talk are illegitimate or unjust as they snatch basic social and human rights. (Van Dijk, 2015, p.63)

Under Critical Discourse Study paradigm, this research aimed to study the long march discourse of four major English newspapers of Pakistan-Dawn, The News, The Nation, and Daily Times. The focus of the study was to highlight the underlying ideological discourse structures by applying Van Dijk's (2015) ideological square model which sought to highlight emphasis on positive self-description and negative other description and mitigating negative self-description and positive other-description causing a polarization in discourse. The research strived to find answer to the following research questions:

i. How did media utilize ideological square model to construct a polarized discourse in its coverage of the long marches- Azadi and Inqilab?
ii. How did the media's discourse function to enact, maintain, or challenge power relations in the society?

2. Literature Review

In late 70's a group of four linguists rendered a new framework for discourse analysis focusing particularly on media discourse. They named their framework as Critical Linguistics (Fowler, Hodge, Kress, & Trew, 1979). In their opinion, discourse carries both linguistic and ideological processes, and ideological meanings depend on linguistic choices (Trew, 1979).They saw a deep relationship between linguistic structures and social structures. Discourse is inseparable from social meaning (Kress & Hodge, 1979).

Further studies in critical linguistics led the scholars to view language in relation to social factors. Language was no more considered a mere a tool of communication, rather a two way relationship between language and society established. Bakhtin (1981) and Bell (1997) observed that language constituted social reality while at the same time social factors constituted language. Roger *et al*. (2005) observed that language indexes, expresses and challenges social relations. Therefore, according to Ives (2004) our notion that we are free in our choice of language is a misleading even though it is not predominantly imposed by government, or state institutions. (Shojaei et. al, 2013, p. 859)

Exploring the relationship between language and media has been one of the major concerns of Critical discourse studies. Popp (2006, as cited in Shojaei et.al, 2013, p.859) viewed that "media's language is an institutionalized meaning of framing reality". The works of critical linguists removed the possibility of neutrality and

impartiality of media. The works of Trew (1979) and Fowler (1979) studied how different linguistic choices e.g. syntactic structures through different techniques like 'passivization' and nominalization might blur the bad actions, and the agent of the action was relieved from the responsibility of such actions.

Bloor and Bloor (2007) argued that 'much social practice in a complex modern society is institutionalized' (p.5). If we analyze the working of highly structured organizations which hold power and control our way of thinking, we will come to know that language is an inevitable part of this practice. Before this Fowler (1991) claimed that some texts play their role in molding attitudes and ideas within a particular society.

According to Van Dijk (2015) Critical discourse studies give paramount importance to those groups and organizations which have a special access to public discourse. Having more power on discourse, these groups control public opinion and make the common people believe in the way the former want the latter to believe. An example of such domination is mass media. A particular media group covers an event according to its relationship with different stakeholder involved in that event like-government, political parties, and other social groups. So, the structure of news is determined by the social relations between these groups.

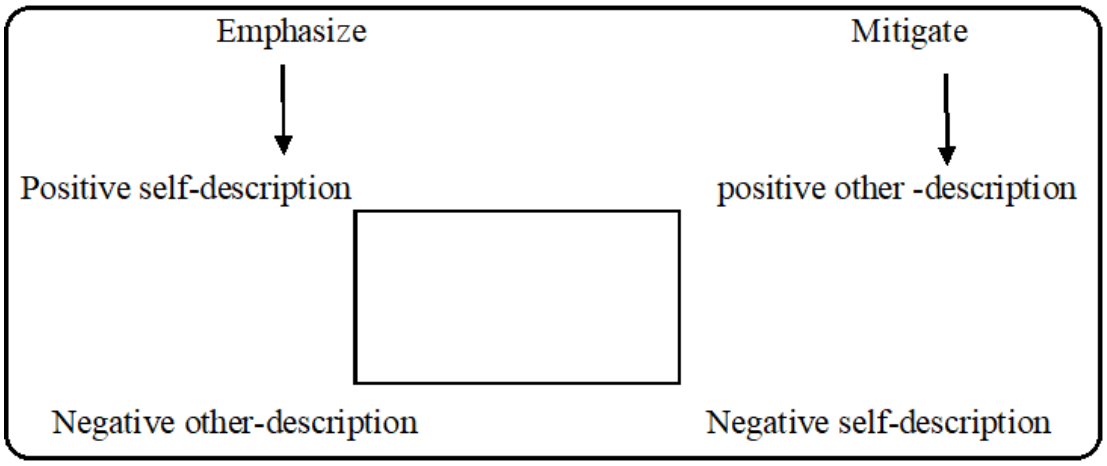
In the context of Pakistan, different studies have been conducted on media's discourse under Critical Discourse Studies framework. With particular focus on English print media's role in fabricating political reality during the 2014 Anti government sit-ins of PTI and PAT, Khan & Nawaz (2015) studied the role of metaphors in creating the picture of different stakeholders of the event. They concluded that the media utilized the metaphors to caricature the marching leaders i.e. Imran Khan and Dr. Tahir-ul-Qadri as weak creatures in front of a powerful government, and such use of literary figures helped in supporting the stance of the government and status- quo. Khan et al. (2016) studied how English print media utilized 'passivization' as a technique for hiding the agency of sever actions and reliving a particular party from the burden of any bad action in the coverage of 2014 Islamabad '*sit-ins'*. Their study rendered that the English print media hided the severe actions of the government more than they hided the severe actions of the opposition parties. In a recent study, Khan & Khan (2018) highlighted how the sit-in activity was caricatured by cartoons of English print media as a funny activity.

The studies conducted on English print media's coverage of the 2014 anti government sit-ins were restricted in their scope as they focused on the role of a particular aspect of discourse e.g. use of metaphors, use of 'passivization', or use of political cartoons in creating a desired picture in the mind of the reader. Their results might lack a claim of authenticity if they were not confirmed by a study conducted under a larger discourse perspective. To fill this gap, the current study aimed to broaden the scope of analysis by taking into account a larger aspect of discourse i.e. the absence of significant macrostructures from the overall news discourse. This broadening of scope was expected to yield more authentic and specific results in comparison to the previous studies.

3. Methodology

This is a qualitative study which seeks to highlight the ideological discourse structures which are identified by Van Dijk (2015) in his discussion of the discourse structures that particularly take part in (re)production of power abuse. According to his model, power and power abuse are determined by the relationship between different groups, and discourse is based on certain ideologies. Therefore, the primary concern should be exposing those discourse structures which underlie the ideologies of the dominant or more powerful groups. From a list of ideological discourse

structures, this research focuses on polarization techniques which are based on positive self- descriptions and negative other descriptions. These structures may be demonstrated through a concept of ideological square which summed up in *figure 1*.



The data is collected from the three editions, i.e. August 14, 15, and 16, of Pakistan's mainstream English newspapers: Dawn, The News, The Nation, and Daily Times. In the selection of data, primary importance is given to the headlines and the lead stories as these sections of newspapers influence the public opinion more strongly. The data is then analyzed to expose ideological discourse structures on the model of ideological square. Unlike most of the researches which lay stress on what is highlighted in discourse, this study primarily focuses on the structures that are mitigated to hide the negative aspects of one group and positive aspects of the other group to support a particular group in line with the ideology of a the media group.

This research also integrates Van Dijk's (1988) framework of semantic macrostructures in his ideological square model (Van Dijk, 2015) for a comprehensive analysis of ideological discourse structures. The former framework distinguishes between macrostructures and superstructures in a news item. Macrostructures are the thematic structures or the global topics that represent the content of a text and refer to the overall meaning of the text. The meaning of discourse is not restricted by the meaning of isolated lexical items and syntactic structure; rather it consists of more global meanings such as themes or topics. These thematic structures (macrostructures) represent the overall gist or semantic content of the discourse and tell us what the discourse is about; these structures may be presented in the form of propositions which are complete sentences or clauses. The thematic structures are hierarchically organized in the form of superstructures (headline, lead, super-lead, etc) which arrange different interrelated news items (macrostructures) on the basis of their news value, immediacy or any other motive like bias of the language user. Integrating the macrostructure framework (Van Dijk, 1988) with ideological square framework (Van Dijk, 2015), this study focuses on which macrostructures are kept absent from the superstructures of the discourse to obtain the ideological square according to the policy of a particular media group which led to the support of a particular stakeholder involved in the August 2014 long march/sit-ins of Pakistan, and how such polarization in discourse helped in maintaining or redefining power relations.

4. Analysis & Discussion

In English print media's coverage of the long march/sit-in events we found some very important macrostructures (thematic structures) missing from top positions of the newspaper discourse. The reason behind this absence was not the poor news value, but that the mentioning of those thematic structures might not produce the intended effect. The presence of those macrostructures might go in favor of a group which the

newspaper did not intend to support. The whole story about the long march can be summed up as following.

After May 2013 general elections, Pakistan Tehreek-e-Insaf (PTI) charged the winning party Pakistan Muslim League N (PML-N) with allegations of rigging in the elections. The government of PML-N gave deaf ears to the voice of the allegations. After All efforts of getting justice which went in vain, PTI chief decided to march on capital in order to snatch the justice forcefully. Meanwhile Dr. Tahir-ul-Qadri, an old friend of Imran Khan, appeared on the scene. A very unfortunate incident occurred at Minhaj Trust which is the religious/educational headquarter of Dr. Qadri's mission. Approximately 14 followers were ruthlessly killed by the Punjab police. The video footages of the tragic scene revealed that police kept on beating people even when they were being taken to the first aid treatment by the rescue 1122 teams. Gullu Butt was breaking and destroying the front and side screens of the cars fearlessly even when the police was present there. Soon after the incident Dr. Qadri joined hands with the politicians who wanted to remove the Nawaz Government at the spur of the moment. These politicians were Sheikh Rasheed of Rawalpinidi and the 'Chaudharies' of Gujrat.

Before analyzing the discourse of English newspapers on long marches according to ideological square model, the possible macrostructures of news may be divided into two groups. Group A consisted of those macrostructures which are against the government, and if hided would certainly harm the cause of the movement and if highlighted would undoubtedly harm the legitimacy of the government to remain in power anymore. On the other hand, group B macrostructures consisted of the weak points of the marching parties. If these macrostructures were mitigated by media, it would benefit the opposition parties, and if highlighted, they would certainly go in the favor of the government.

Group A:

- Rigging in May 2013 general elections.
- Ruthless killing of PAT followers in June 2014 tragedy of Minhaj Trust
- Gullu Butt and Pomi Butt assailing PAT and PTI workers respectively
- Unlawful detention of the PTI and PAT followers by the government
- Government's act of depriving the protesters of their democratic right of protest by putting containers in their way

Group B:

- The prevailing fear of political instability caused by the two marches
- Protesters' plan to paralyze whole system of government
- The undemocratic behavior of the protesters

The following sub-sections 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4 present analyses of the data collected from the four newspapers: Dawn, The News, The Nation and Daily Times respectively.

4.1 Dawn

August 14, 2014

This edition of Dawn gives a very little space to the macrostructures mentioned in group A. This was the day when PTI and PAT were departing for the capital. The electronic media had dedicated most of its space and time to the leadership of protesting/marching parties. One night before the departure of marches Imran Khan and Dr. Tahir-ul-Qadri occupied TV screens for most of the time. On the night of August 13, Dr. Qadri made a long speech which should have been given coverage in the newspapers of August 14, but Dawn did not spare a lot of space for PAT's 'Inqilab' march. In their speeches Imran Khan and Dr. Qadri repeatedly mentioned the atrocities of the government enlisted in '*group A'* macrostructures, but Dawn

quoted very little extracts from their speeches. On the front page, only one column, which appeared on extreme right, was dedicated for the coverage of long march.

August 15, 2014

The headline position of this edition was dedicated to a statement of the Prime Minister who said, "A decade of peace must for progress". The top position given to PM's statement urging for peace means that the newspaper also favored peace, and it accepted the idea that long marches were a threat to the peace of the country. The statement of the PM had no particular significance with regard to his policy to tackle the existing political situation in the country. Prime Ministers give such statements, so it did not contain something unusual. The top position given to this statement, when the country was facing most crucial situation of political turmoil, carried ideological meaning.

In spite of the above mentioned fact, the Dawn gave two separate positions to the coverage of marches. Therefore, it was important to analyze the two news stories which covered the long march event. A close reading of the news stories revealed that the 'group A' macrostructure remained almost absent from these news items. Instead of telling people the agenda of the marches, which was repeatedly told by their leadership, the Dawn portrayed it as a festive event. This is evident from this extract taken from the lead story of August 15, 2014 edition:

> **"The march turned out to be a festive occasion for PTI workers as they danced to the tune of party songs in front of a truck carrying their leaders, including Imran Khan.**
> **The youths sported caps carrying the colors of their party's flag, headbands and wristbands. Woman also sported colorful dresses. They chanted slogans against the government."**

Such depiction of 'Azadi March' created an image in the mind of the readers that this march lacked a serious agenda behind it. It showed all the participant of the march as jubilant and joyful. This portrayal of the long march camouflaged the agenda of the march and mitigated the group 'A' macrostructures.

August 16, 2014

This edition of the newspaper emphasized on *'Group B'* macrostructures as the headline story read **'Marches keep capital on tenterhooks'**. These words were critical of the march adventure as the act of keeping capital city on tenterhooks could never be appreciated. On the other hand the search for the 'Group A' macrostructures in the headline and lead stories again went in vain. The top story and lead gave coverage to the Azadi and Inqilab march events but they were presented in a way as if they were responsible for spreading chaos. A lead story covering 'Inqilab' march of PAT was headlined in these words: 'PAT sit-in marred by confusion'.

This sense of confusion and perplexity did not allow the newspaper to highlight the issues which provoked the protesters to go out for a long march. The agenda behind the marches remained in background of the discourse of the newspaper. The leaders were continually putting forth their rationale for the marches, but the newspaper was still confused to give any proper space to those issues. It was more conscious about the facts like: the dressing of march participants, their late arrival in the capital, the confusion lying amongst the march followers etc. The mitigation of the 'Group A' macrostructures and depiction of a chaotic situation were the factors which could only serve to demobilize the people.

4.2 The News

August 14, 2014

The headline of The News of August 14 read: **'No unconstitutional march, Sit-in, orders LHC'**. This structuring of discourse carried ideological meaning as it twisted

the discourse and blurred the facts about the real verdict of honorable Lahore High Court which did not say that the sit-ins/marches were unconstitutional; rather the court restrained the two parties from launching their marches in an unconstitutional way. This fact was conspicuous in the words of Justice Muhammad Khalid Mehmood while making the decision, He said, "The respondent No 4 and 5 (PTI and PAT) are restrained meanwhile from launching the Azadi March and the Revolution march or holding Dharnas in Islamabad, in any unconstitutional way, keeping in view the sanctity of the Independence day and the current chaotic and uncertain situation prevailing in the country." These remarks of the head of the bench did not mark the two marches as unconstitutional. This maneuvering of facts was an open instance of angularity in the coverage of the events. The choice of LHC's decision as the headline of the newspaper and presenting it in a maneuvered way signified that the newspaper clearly supported the government. Moreover, the newspaper did not give proper space to the statements of the two leaders-Imran Khan and Dr. Qadri.

'Group A' macrostructures remained away from this edition of The News. Following were the Lead story headings on the front page of the August 14, 2014 edition.

'Double March' if issues not resolved forthwith: Siraj

PTI allowed to march on Capital

Imran exposes his real agenda by demanding technocrats govt: Mashhood

The selection of thematic structures for headline and lead stories clearly revealed that the newspaper mitigated statements which went in favor of PTI and PAT, and twisted discourse in favor of the government.

August 15, 2014

The headline of this edition consists of the statement of the Prime Minister. It says, **"Country can't afford negative politics, subversions: PM"**. The headline position allotted to the Prime Minister is in continuity with the policy of the newspaper which has been discussed in the analysis of the previous edition. The News gave relatively preferred position to Azadi March of PTI while it spared a little extreme right side column to the Inqilab March of PAT. It mentions Group A macrostructures in its coverage of Azadi March. Unlike other newspapers' editions of the same day, The News quotes those extracts from the speech of Imran Khan which expressed the rationale of the long march. Following is the lead story which covered the Azadi March.

PTI's Azadi March leaves for Capital

"Imran persists with his demand for resignation of Nawaz ECP officials, warns Gullu Butts of arrest; Punjab govt agrees on security covers for marches, not hindering them; more PTI activists held across Punjab."

The lead contains three macrostructures form *Group A*: Resignation of Nawaz ECP officials, arrest of Gullu Butts, and detention of PTI activists across Piunjab. Gullu Butt Macrostructure/Frame remained a significant absence from almost all the mainstream English newspapers of 15th August. Only The News gave proper space to the speech and opinion of PTI chief Imran Khan. However, it did not give the same coverage to Dr. Tahir-ul-Qadri. The rolling out of PAT's cavalcade was marginalized on right column, and the statements and speeches of their leaders could not find a good position in the edition.

August 16, 2014

The headline of this edition was the statement of Supreme Court of Pakistan which said: **"Violation of Constitution is treason: SC"** It was an abstract statement which generalized that in principle the violation of constitution, done by whosoever, was a treason. It confused the real target of this statement. Although in details we found that SC passed these orders for the government, but the above mentioned statement might

confuse the situation. It might imply that Supreme Court was urging both sides not to violate constitution. The generalization of a targeted statement mitigated its effect of targeting the government.

The top stories which appeared on the front page of this edition were following:

PML-N, PTI activists clash in Gujranwala
CM takes notice of stone-pelting incident
Imran to give up Nawaz resignation demand
Political stability must for uplift, Erdogan tells Pakistan
LHC issues detailed order on Plea against PTI, PAT marches

Even a surface level analysis of these lead headings revealed that The News selected macrostructures to emphasize the positive-description of the government. From top to bottom, the paper presented attack on PTI workers as a clash; appreciated CM for taking notice of the tragic stone-pelting incident; suggested Imran to give up Nawaz resignation demand; and highlighted the statement of Tayyab Erdogan, Turksih President, in which he urged for a need to maintain political stability in Pakistan. All the macrostructures structured in this sequence seemed to urge the long marchers that there was no need for such adventure. Moreover, PAT's Inqilab March failed to secure ample space in print.

4.3 The Nation

August 14, 2014

The headline of this edition of The Nation read: **Govt allows Azadi March to enter Islamabad**. The positive side of government is again highlighted by the newspaper. The government was generous enough to allow Azadi and Inqilab march to enter Islamabad. In reality, there was a lot of activity on the part of the government to hinder the long marches. The whole such activity could be summed up in container macrostructure included in Group A. The absence of those themes and presence of positive aspect of the government blurred the real happening of the march activity and polarized the discourse in favor of the government.

This edition of the Nation also misrepresented the LHC's decision about the marches. The headline story contained a sub story which told about the decision of the LHC. The sub heading said: **'LHC Bars PTI from staging 'unconstitutional' protest.** The News committed the same mistake in presenting this news. The Nation reported the comment of the Court as if Court was suggesting that the march was unconstitutional. Contrary to that Court had restrained the two parties form staging their marches in an unconstitutional way. The discourse structure used by The News and The Nation misrepresented the fact, hence the facts were ideologically maneuvered in the favor of the government.

August 15, 2014

Unlike the previous day's coverage of *The Nation*, this edition gave coverage to both the marches in one headline which dominated the whole above half of the front page. A lengthy discussion followed the headline which mentioned the details of the setting off of marches. A peculiar aspect of this coverage was that unlike Dawn and The Nation, this coverage treated both the marches equally. However, the overall impression of headline discourse showed that the newspaper was not in favor of the marches. A clear example of this discursive practice was the absence of killing/ murder (of PAT's followers) macrostructure from the speech of PAT chief Dr. Tahir-ul-Qadri. In reality Dr. Qadri stressed on the killing of his followers and demanded the filling of a F.I.R against the government, but the coverage of Dr. Qadri's speech on the Nation mitigated this most crucial macrostructure. The Nation mentioned some very minor issues from the speeches of Dr. Qadri, and hided the most important cause

of the 'Inqilab march'. The following extract from the detail of the headline makes this fact conspicuous.

> "One of his main complaints is that violence against his supporters by police is not being properly investigated. About 2,000 of his supporters have been arrested, police say." (The Nation, August 15, 2014)

This extract witnesses a very significant absence. The main complaint of Dr. Qadri was not the ongoing violence of police against his followers, but the cruel killing of tens of his followers at Minhaj Trust, Model Town. Here for a motivation of public in favor of the 'Inqilab March' Dr. Qadri needed an exact mentioning of his speeches which The Nation did not provide to him. So, the Group A macrostructures were not highlighted in the August 15, 2014. This sidelining or absence of such macrostructures molded the discourse in the favor of the government.

August 16, 2014

The second paragraph of the headline story of this edition of The Nation read:

"Khan and preacher Tahir-ul-Qadri say the May 2013 general election that brought Prime Minister Nawaz Sharif to power in a landslide victory was rigged, and are demanding he resign and hold new polls."

Dr. Qadri said something more than this. He mentioned the rigging in 2013 general elections, but it was not his major allegation. His allegation was ruthless killing of his followers by the Punjab police and Gullu Butt. The absence of the real allegation of Dr. Qadri was again significant. The above mentioned extract exhibited a very ridiculous ignorance from the facts. Did it happen because of ignorance or because of intention? No one knew but it was a big blunder on the part of a mainstream English newspaper. Dr. Qadri never demanded new polls during his inqilab March adventure. What he demanded was a revolution which would ensure bread, home and fundamental human rights for every human being living in the country. This easygoing way adopted by the reporter might not be taken as an act done in ignorance as he was constructing top position discourse of a prestigious newspaper.

4.4 Daily Times

August 14, 2014

The headline position in this edition of Daily Times was allotted to the statement of the interior minister Nisar Ali Khan as a spokesperson of the government. The headline said:

Long march only after all legal requirements are fulfilled: govt

Nisar says govt will implement LHC verdict in letter and spirit. Tells Imran to seek clearance for protest rally from every district government *en route* to Islamabad

On the very day when long Marches were leaving to achieve their aim, the top position given to the statement of Interior minister implied that the newspaper did not give a lot of heed to the agenda and program of the protesters. Had it been in the favor of their agenda, it would have given the headline position to the statements/speeches of Imran Khan and Dr. Qadri. Instead of highlighting the demands and allegations put forth by the leaders, the newspaper gave importance to a statement which was a matter of routine for an Interior Minister. This statement showed that government was very fair in abiding by the decisions of the Law Courts; therefore, it would implement LHC's verdict in letter and spirit. He also urged Imran Khan to seek clearance from the district governments to make his long march legal. So far as the news value was concerned, this statement might not have deserved the same position if the newspaper had given the due prestige to the march leadership.

This headline served to sideline the agenda of long marches. Group A macrostructure remained absent from the front page coverage of Daily Times. Following were a few

top stories which appeared on the front page of Daily Times' edition of August 14, 2014.

Govt strategy on long march wrapped in ambiguity

Altaf appeals Qadri not to enter 'red zone'

MQM chief asks PAT leader and his followers to make their 'march' peaceful

Both the leads did not mention anything about the rationale of the long marches. The only place which PAT and its leadership was able to earn in this edition of Daily Times was the statement of Altaf (MQM chief) wherein he urged PAT leader and his followers to remain peaceful during their march and not to enter the 'red zone'. It meant that the newspaper did not give proper coverage to the allegations and demands of the PAT and their leadership. The absence of Group A macrostructures showed that like the other elements of English Print media, Daily Times did not report the speeches of the leaders which mentioned the cause of protesters; rather it alleviated the zeal of the protesters which was inculcated in them by their leadership.

August 15, 2014

The front page of this edition was completely dominated by the Azadi and the Inqilab march. A half page headline, with pictures, appeared on the page. The headline was followed by a long report which told the happenings of the previous day. In the leading paragraph of the story the newspaper could not help giving its own verdict on the situation. Following was the first paragraph of the headline story.

"Tens of thousands of anti-government protesters under the banner of "Azadi March" and "Inqilab March" began moving to the capital Islamabad on Thursday, raising fears for political stability and political rule in the country." (The Daily Times, August 15, 2014)

The newspaper gave its opinion that long March would be a threat to the current political stability in the country. This extract was analyzed in the analysis of the choice of macrostructures. However, it remained the fact that newspaper gave a very little credit to the long marches. A search for Group A macrostructures on the front page coverage of this edition of Daily Times went useless. We find a mentioning of a few of Group A macrostructures, but they appear in the last paragraphs of the lead stories. The important macrostructures which justified the cause of the two marches remained away from the headline position. The newspaper printed two separate stories on the front page which reported what the two leaders said.

Will return from Islamabad in triumph: Imran

PTI chief reiterated demands for resignation of PM and ECP

Qadri spells out 10-point pro-poor reforms agenda

PAT chief says his 'Inqilab' will end poverty. Poor to get cheaper electricity.

The analysis of two above mentioned leads showed that the newspapers kept the real agenda of the marches in background. This was done by highlighting the issues of lesser importance. For instance the part of Imran's statement highlighted by the newspaper was not the most important thing which he said. He uttered some more important issued in his statements/speeches which found no place in the news story. This marginalization of the facts lessened the effect of his statements in the mind of the reader. It is a principle of media discourse that most important macrostructures secure a place in the headings. If less important macrostructures were given top position and more important were sidelined, it could only be taken as ideological structuring of discourse.

Similarly, the perpetual demands of Dr. Tahir-ul-Qadri of filing an F.I.R and an impartial probe into the matter of the killings remained absent from the headline as well as lead coverage of the 'Inqilab' march. The 10-point poor agenda of Dr. Tahir-ul-Qadri could do a little to motivate his followers and the masses of the country.

Every now and then politicians put forth such ideas. So it was not something unusual in the case of Dr. Qadri. The demand which provided a justification to his act of advancement on capital with his followers was, however, found absent from the top position coverage of the edition.

August 16, 2014

The front page of this edition contained two important news items. The headline told the decision of the honorable Supreme Court of Pakistan in which it ordered all the state functionaries to act within the limits of constitution. However, Daily Times imparted this news in most peculiar way as its headline said: '**SC intervenes to rescue 'democracy'**. This statement was very implicative. It evoked an image in the mind of the reader that democracy was in danger due to the advancement of the long marchers on the capital. SC had to intervene because of the prevailing threat to democracy. This statement implicated that the sitting government was an ideal of democracy incarnated. A threat to it would be a threat to democracy, and by virtue of long march advancement it was not government but an ideal of democracy was under threat.

Rallies reach 'ground Zero'.

March parties likely to present their demands during public meetings today.

This news story got the second top most position which told the arrival of Marches at ground zero, Islamabad. The headline of the story used the word 'Rallies' instead of 'marches'. Rally is usually associated with the gathering of a comparably very small number of people as compared to a long march. The big gatherings, however, were not termed as rallies. This lexical choice suggested that the two parties remained unsuccessful in motivating a lot of people for joining their protest. The sub heading eclipsed a much known fact and needed more concentration of a critical researcher of discourse. The marching parties had been presenting their demands for last few months. It could be said here that Dr. Qadri still had to give the details of his 10-point agenda, yet the demands were crystal clear. There was no confusion about the demands of the protesters at that stage of the long march event. So the absence of some very well known demands from a very important front page story on a very crucial day of march movement mitigated the cause of marches.

Another very important fact was witnessed in this news story. It imparted the news of the attack on PTI march by the PML-N activists. The news story conveyed the incident in the following words:

> "Earlier in the day, the situation took an ugly turn when PTI rally and Imran's container itself came under by PML-N workers in Gujranwala, in which some people were injured. Police sprung into action very late as usual prompting the PTI to call it connivance between the police and government. PTI chief Imran Khan termed it a pre-planned attack, claiming he was himself attacked three times during the day. Punjab Chief Minister Shahbaz Sharif later on ordered arrest of the alleged mastermind and brother of local PML-N MPA, Pomi Butt, and around 10 of his companions."

This was the fifth paragraph of the lead story. This edition of Daily Times conveyed the Gujranwala incident as an attack not as a clash as it was presented by The News. However, it justified the government by putting the fact in most unfamiliar way if compared with the other newspapers. It represented the late arrival of police as a matter of routine not as a matter of pre-planned conspiracy. The police came late as it was a routine. Who told the reporter that police came late because of its routine? This was an assumption which replaced the fact. Furthermore, the discourse about the clash seemed to award a clean chit to the government in this matter. The piece of

discourse '**PTI chief Imran Khan termed it a pre-planned attack'** showed that it was termed as a pre-planned attack by the PTI chief; however, in reality it was not so. The very next sentence emphasized the positive stance of the government by telling that the CM ordered to arrest the alleged masterminds of the incident.

5. Conclusion

The analysis of the data selected from four mainstream English newspapers of Pakistan revealed that the English Print media predominantly emphasized positive-description of the government and mitigated the negative-description of the same; on the other hand, it mitigated the discourse structures which could favor the opposition parties-PTI and PAT. This ideological discourse structures were achieved by polarizing the discourse by several techniques. At times less important macrostructures were given top headline positions instead of the most important ones. For instance, the speeches of the opposition leaders were particularly mitigated in effect by ignoring most crucial aspects of their demands. In addition to the marginalization of the two marches from top positions, Inqilab march of PAT was further sidelined as compared to Azadi march of PTI. Most of the papers did not spare the top position for PAT even though they had more severe issues against the government.

This research concluded that the leading discourse of English print media of the county remained polarized and partial in favor of status-quo and the government. The ideological discourse structures constructed during the coverage of the whole issue functioned to enact and maintain the discourse of the powerful instead of resisting it by giving an equal and just space for coverage to the groups who raised a voice for the change of power relations.

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Determining the Challenges of Strategic Competence in Oral Communicative Competence of Undergraduate Students in Pakistan

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Abstract

Strategic competence is considered as an integral element of communicative language ability and second language speaking proficiency as it is comprised of the strategies to be used whenever there is any difficulty in communicative process or task. The present study investigated the challenges of strategic competence in oral communicative competence of undergraduate students of Pakistan and to explore students' perceptions on strategic competence in OCC. The study was based on mixed methods research design. In order to determine the ability of students in using strategic competence in their oral communication, the students were given tasks in pairs and groups to perform. The researcher then analysed the performance of students on a scoring rubric developed on Bachman and Palmer's model (1996) on communicative language ability. The performance of students was scored on the scoring rubric of strategic competence developed by the researcher for her PhD research. The achieved scores determined students' ability in strategic competence. The scores also determined which of the component of strategic competence was more challenging. The individual interviews of the students were also conducted to seek students' perceptions on their difficulties and problems regarding strategic competence.

Key Words: Strategic Competence, OCC, Bachman & Palmer Model, Coping Strategies, Sociolinguistics**.**

1. Introduction

Strategic competence is defined by different theoreticians as "Coping strategies" or any attempt that enhances the effectiveness of communication. A comprehensive definition of strategic competence is given by Bachman and Palmer (1996) as a plan of action to accomplish a communication goal. According to Bachman & Palmer, (1996), the aspect of strategic competence is important element in communicative language ability. The similar aspect was carried into research by Bygate (1987) & Fulcher, (2003) as a vital instrument in second language speaking proficiency. The concept of Strategic competence has vital significance in learning of a foreign language. Al-Twairesh (2011) stated that it comprises of those strategies employed, when a difficulty arises in communicative practice of a given activity. However, still the perception of strategic competence involves communication in to a confused order. Every other researcher and previous studies have defined it differently. Savignon (1979) stated strategic competence as strategies that are coped. Canale (1983) further states that it is an attempt that could develop skills of communication. Later, the studies of Dörnyei and Scott (1997) tried to show on Tarone's (1977); Faerch and Kasper's (1983) contributions, they have further extended the actual definition of realizing the essence of strategic competence and referred to devices of verbal and nonverbal passions. In few studies, the subtle concept of strategic competence is mentioned in terms of solving issues and fills the required gaps. However, brief and most valuable presentation of strategic competence was given by model of Bachman and Palmer (1996). According to it, this is a plan that accomplishes actions towards perceived communicative goals.

1.2 Objectives

The Study will try to investigate main challenges of strategic competence in oral communicative competence in undergraduate students of Pakistan**.**

1. To find about the challenges in competence of strategies within oral communicative competence of undergraduate students.

2. To determine which component of strategic competence is more challenging for students.
3. To explore students' perceptions on strategic competence in OCC.

1.3 Theoretical Framework of Strategic Competence

The logical illustration of multi-componential nature of communication with communicative language teaching (CLT) has been proposed by number of theoreticians. They direct communicative competence (CC) to communicative language ability (CLA). The aspect of Strategic competence is provided by almost all primary positions within presented models. Canale and Swain (1980) presented topic of strategic competence in model of competence in communication. The derived model of CC along with suggestions of regular conceptualization in CLA have explained the terms of items in lexis, morpho-syntax and rules of semantics in model but it also emphasises on information within raw discourse of data and rules in socio-culture that are named as sociolinguistic competence in the model of communication strategies (strategic competence). The notion of Strategic competence in this model is termed with coping strategies that are used by its interlocutors in order to overcome any communicative hindrance. Later, Canale (1983) extended the model of Canale and Swain's (1980). He separated the two components into two main forms of competences. The discourse competence and competence in sociolinguistic phases. Hence, the novice model of Canale (1983) recommended four special criteria in terms of components that describe communicative competences, compared to three in Canale and Swain's model (1980).

One of the benchmark works on CLA was model of Bachman (1990) along with Bachman and Palmer (1996). These are comprehensive and essential models of present era. Bachman and Palmer's model (1996) fundamentally taken from Bachman model of (1990). These models consist of strategic and language competences. The competence of Language has been further sub categorized to competence of organization. These comprises of structural knowledge that have competences of grammar and text, pragmatics, illocutionary with sociolinguistic phases. Bachman (1990) represented various other stages in strategic competence. The stages were divided into planning of an idea, its proper execution and overall assessment. It was drawn by Færch and Kasper's (1983) approach that describes strategies of communication orally. Basically, the model of Bachman and Palmer (1996) have depicted the strategic competence with refer to meta-cognitive approaches which are adopted to achieve certain communicative goals, assessments and planning.

Later, implementing the model of Palmer (1996), Fulcher (2003) designed a communicative specific model. In this, he defined strategic competence as strategic capacity and techniques to avoid or overcome the communicative issues. Further, his framework includes four main components of speaking. These were competence in language use, knowledge of textual analysis, the knowledge of pragmatics and sociolinguistic influence.

2 Literature Review

The competence of oral strategies is a significant part in linguistic models of communicative competence. According to Huang, (2013), this part of competence has been generally ignored within language assessments and specifically to speaking skill. The main reason behind its ignorance is lack of research in this respective field. Few of the research designs have pursed to verify the relation of speakers' proficiency skills with relation to different variables of tests and present situations. The work of Shohamy (1994) focused to highlight the investigation of strategies common in communication with respect to semi and direct proficiency in oral interviews. The acts of recorded interviews were then studied and later analysed for the verification of

differences in strategies applied for communication. The results have shown that only specific varieties of strategies were employed by the speakers. They were self-correction and paraphrasing techniques. One of the studies based on exploratory design was contributed by Cohen and Ohlstain (1998) that focused on the present underlying processes that are involved to assess interlocutor's speech. The important features that could be analysed and state is of every other individual's own perspective of thinking and making choices of different strategies in order to satisfy communicative demand. Yoshida-Morise (1998) in her study on strategic competence employed observatory tool to analyse students' acts of using communicative strategies. According to her observation, only four main strategies were identified with addition of two more of them which were achievement and reduction communicative strategies. The results of the study by Wagner (1983) have shown that use of different strategies in communication was based in student's low and high proficiency skill levels. The group of low proficiency skills used more strategies compared to high one. This study was also failed due to over reliance on observance of communicative strategies. The various strategies for Learners were studied by O'Malley & Chamot, (1990) and lastly one of the vital strategy of assessing L2 literature was presented in study of Fulcher, (2003); Purpura, (1999); and Yoshida-Morise, (1995). The results of these overall strategies were taken too complex with refer to competence of strategies employed for communication. It was affirmed by Barkaoui et al. (2013) in studies taken later. They validated that these strategies were most crucial in comprehending tests conducted for speaking skill. However, according to Swain et al. (2009), the analysis on this topic further did not paid attention on in-depth validation of other aspects as of why, when, where and how one uses different sorts of communicative strategies. However, the analysis did not go beyond mere frequency counts and could not explore more in-depth questions such as who uses each strategy, why, where, when, and how to use these strategies.

Based on the previous research, Huang (2013) examined the strategic competence specifically in speaking skills IELTS tests. This session was based on two sections, the integrated and independent tasks. The face to face interaction involved in the session to examine the results. Huang (2013) investigated the strategic behaviour through using the different strategies of testing and non-testing contexts, the three tasks included having intermediate and advance proficiency levels. The taxonomy was adapted from the study of Barkaoui et al. (2013), because of the interactive task, the group of social strategies was also merged in it. Based on the results, it was assured that findings were out of that Metacognitive. The communicative tasks were used as compare to social strategies, On the other hand, Barkaoui et al. (2013) used well-organized strategies in order to investigation Multivariate Analysis of Variance in the classrooms compare to that of non-testing, different strategies were used with specific task. However, the effects of interaction suggested that task is directly affected by the context. According to the study of Huang's (2013) the relation among the variables are most difficult task to understand. One of the weak points of his study is that it does not include the social strategies in process of analyses because of violating the assumptions for MANOVA.

All the above researchers discussed about the nature of strategic competence and all other factors that directly influence and particular strategies of oral communication to pursue the task. Simultaneously, different approaches can be illustrated through strategic competence. The researcher of L2 assessment(e.g., De Jong, Steinel, Florijn, Schoonen, & Hulstijn, 2012; Hulstijn, 2011; Van Moere, 2012) have hypothesized strategic competence as an facilitator of language processing (e.g., processing skills or

processing competence) drawing attention on the importance of measuring the processing speed.

De Jong et al. (2012) defined the strategic competence as a processing skill, the capability to process the linguistics information that is mainly concerned with oral skills. Their study highlights the different ways of linguistic competence including linguistic knowledge, pronunciation and processing skills predicted oral proficiency. Moreover, it also adds those linguistic components that are based linguistic knowledge, though measured through grammar and vocabulary tests. The processing skills of language were used in which the speed of processing was measured by a naming a picture and completing the sentence completion task. There are three linguistic skills that mainly contribute in the oral skills i.e. pronunciation, knowledge, processing. It is measured through the process of mono-logic speaking tasks, were studied. The findings showed that the speaking proficiency is central to the linguistic skills. It explains about 76% of the variance. However, the researchers assert that processing skill is the key component of speaking proficiency.

Similarly, Van Moere (2012) also advocated the constructs of psycholinguistic assessment (i.e., processing competence) for the component of speaking. To measure the automaticity in producing fluent and accurate language, proposed the use of self-designed imitation in order to measure the accuracy. The scores were analysed through multi-faceted measurements. The results ensures that (1)the task succeeded in separating the participants according to their ability and level (2) there was a significant different in performances between natives and second language learners. According to author, the task is not designed to measure the communicative construct, it measures the processing automaticity which is the key component speaking.

In CLA models, the strategic competence is considered as component of speaking capability and rationally it has been usually labelled as strategy which is used to incorporate both meta-level as well as doing strategies. Most of the studies are based on different mind-set that vary, not necessarily concerned with and Psycholinguistic and any other related cognitive model that results in unconvincing results. Similarly on the other hand, in order to comprehend the strategic competence, various other approaches are used for conceptualizing, the process knowledgeable and producing speech occurs. In conclusion, in L2 assessment there is need of more constructive work and dire need empirical evidences to understand its nature. However, strategic competence is being discussed here theoretically and empirically and other measures of strategic competence must be taken into account.

3 Methodology of the study

The study was conducted on mixed methods research design. In order to determine the strategic competence of students in their oral communication, they were given tasks in pairs and groups to perform. The researcher then analysed the performance of students on a scoring rubric developed on Bachman and Palmer's model (1996) on communicative ability. Performance of students was then measured on the scoring rubric of strategic competence developed by the researcher for her PhD research. The achieved scores determined students' ability in strategic competence. The scores also determined which component of strategic competence was more challenging for undergraduate students. In order to answer the third question of the study, the researchers conducted semi structure interviews from the students who participated in the tasks to seek their perceptions on difficulties and problems regarding strategic competence. The questions of the interview were designed from the strategic competence part of Bachman and Palmer's model. The semi structured interviews and responses helped to understand the phenomenon of strategic competence in broader aspect in perspective of Pakistan.

4 Findings

The quantitative findings of this study have been analyzed in SPSS version 23. These findings after having analyzed are then discussed briefly.

4.2 Strategy of avoidance in oral communication

Table: 1 Avoidance/Reduction					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Poor	8	26.7	26.7	26.7
	below Average	20	66.7	66.7	93.3
	Average	2	6.7	6.7	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

According to the statistical report of employing strategy (avoidance) in Table 1, which shows that majority of participants were below average to recognize this strategy with 20 of them out of 30 with ratio of 66.7% respectively. It was followed on with 8 participants that comprised the ratio of 26.7%. It overall shows that participants have very low knowledge of adopting this strategy in their oral communication.

4.3 Interactional strategy in oral communication

Table: 2 Interactional Strategy					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Poor	13	43.3	43.3	43.3
	Below Average	13	43.3	43.3	86.7
	Average	4	13.3	13.3	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

The strategy of interaction is one of the most important amongst all other related strategies of oral communication. According to the results revealed after analyzing it with SPSS version 23, it shows that the use of this strategy by participants has almost near to comparable responses between the two. 13 out of 30 have below average acknowledgement of this strategy with ratio of 43.3% and similarly it was followed by other 13 participants who presented themselves poor in using this strategy within their communication to 43.3% of ratio in both respects. This shows that overall participants of Pakistan are poor and below to average in knowing to practice interactional strategy within their oral communication.

Achievement strategy in oral communication

Table: 3 Achievement/Compensatory Strategy					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Poor	10	33.3	33.3	33.3
	Below Average	11	36.7	36.7	70.0
	Average	8	26.7	26.7	96.7
	Good	1	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

The third communicative strategy is referred to one's achievement strategy to communicate orally in accordance to it. The relative response of 30 participants has revealed that around 11 are below average to acknowledge this strategy with ratio of contribution to around 36.7%. It was followed with response of 10 participants, who stated that they are poor in posing this strategy in their communication strategy with 33.3%. However, 1 participant was aware of employing this strategy in its communication tasks. It overall has revealed a result that majority of participants failed to achieve this strategy as their oral communication strategy demands.

4.4 Strategy of self-monitoring in oral communication

Table: 4 Self-Monitoring Strategy				
Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	

Valid	**Poor**	9	30.0	30.0	30.0
	Below Average	10	33.3	33.3	63.3
	Average	11	36.7	36.7	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

Self-monitoring is one of the evaluative strategy in oral communication. This needs to be employed by the speakers in their oral communication. However, according to the result revealed of responses by participants, it was stated that majority of participants are not aware of this strategy. 10 out of 30 participants were below average to acknowledge this practice and followed by 9 participants who claimed to be poor in use of this strategy within their speaking communication with contribution of response ratio to around 33.3% and 30.0% respectively. It shows that the notion of evaluation in their speech making and its analyzing is missing within participants.

4.5 Time-gaining strategy in oral communication

Table: 5 Stalling/Time-Gaining Strategy

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	**Poor**	11	36.7	36.7	36.7
	Below Average	12	40.0	40.0	76.7
	Average	6	20.0	20.0	96.7
	Good	1	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	30	100.0	100.0	

The last strategy taken in study for analyzing of oral communication was time-gaining strategy. The time gaining is one of important aspects in turn taking principle. According to the results revealed, out of 30 participants, 12 of them responded that they state to have below average knowledge of using this strategy. It was followed by responses of 11 participants who claimed to be poor in employing this communicative strategy within their speech production with contribution of response to 40.0% and 36.7% respectively. This also phases the overall poor state of participants, who failed to adopt turn taking principles in their communication.

4.6 Qualitative Analysis

As mentioned earlier, this study was conducted on mixed methods procedure. The qualitative part of this study highlights the perceptions and responses of students towards strategic competence, difficulties and challenges in strategic competence. This method is used following the views of Pope and May (1995) that through qualitative research, the researcher develops the concepts which help them to understand the situation in natural setting and brings out the meaning, experiences and perceptions of the targeted population. Hence, in present research the perceptions, views and experiences of the students about the strategic competence are observed to investigate the issue vividly. The findings of interviews are presented using thematic approach of qualitative analysis. Thus, the following themes are derived from the data.

The findings of the data revealed that for majority of the participants the practice of strategic competence was new thing in their academic career. Most of the respondents told the researcher that they had never learnt or experiences such strategies. In words of participant C;

> *Ye nai cheez thi thori mushkil lagi smjhna start main…* (This was a new thing, so felt it difficult to learn) *(participant C).*

The phenomenon can be better understood from the response of participant A;

> *These things should be taught from beginning but we are only taught English tenses, grammar and vocabulary not strategies like this. (Participant A)*

According to Kennan (2009), the educational system in Pakistan does not encourage the development of creative skills in students rather makes them learn the cramming

of rules and formulas. Same is the depicted by the findings of this research. Since the beginning, the students are taught the formulas and rules of grammar, tenses, parts of speech and vocabulary cramming, they are never made practice the strategies to communicate or overcome the communicative barriers or hindrances. As participant B puts it;

> *strategic competence has never been mentioned before so it was little hard to understand but after the completion of module we learnt a lot that how much it is important for oral communication to learn these strategies*. (Participant B)

As mentioned earlier, strategic competence was something new for the participants as compare to linguistic competence and sociolinguistic competence. It was strange to find that participants were more inclined to learning linguistic and sociolinguistic competence. E.g Student A responded;

> *it was right to learn those strategies but more necessary is linguistic and sociolinguistic.*

Bachman and Palmer (1996) believe that oral communication can not be complete without the strategies to communicate and to overcome the oral communicative barriers. But the responses of the participants are more in favor of learning grammatical competence. This, as mentioned earlier is due to the teaching methods and syllabus of English in Pakistan that teaches students only grammar. On the other hand, participant B illustrated;

> *Although sociolinguistic competence in my point of view is more important in our culture but we must not ignore the learning of strategies to communicate.* (Participant B)

The respondents also stated that lack of English language proficiency and confidence is also hindrance in oral communication and learning sociolinguistic competence and strategies to communicate are affected by those problems too. The response of participant B and C supported above statements and pointed out towards the mentioned problem.

Student B thinks that strategic competence comes with the continuous practice and he mentioned the requesting, responding to different people was more necessary, in his words;

> *'There should be same topic for two guys we see that make request to someone as teacher, parent, elder, neighbour and how to response someone's request and how to deal with misunderstanding in us ..by these strategies we can learn communicative strategies and goals very well.'*

Student D showed the positive attitude for strategic competence but suggested that there should be more videos about the strategic competence so that the students can learn more from the examples.

5 Discussion

Strategic competence focusses on the strategies for effective communication such as achievement strategies, compensatory strategies, self-monitoring strategies and interactional strategies etc. Respondents' view varied on this competency. Student A responded that it was good to learn those strategies but more effective was linguistic and sociolinguistic. Student B thinks that strategic competence comes with the continuous practice and he mentioned that the requesting, responding to different people was more necessary to learn. He suggests that there should be videos on different strategies of strategic competence to make it more effective to learn.

Strategic competence is regarded as an essential element of oral communicative competence as these are considered as goal seeking strategies (Bachman & Palmer,

1996; Celcie Murtia et al., 1995). According to Bachman and Palmer (1996), all communication and communicative task should be goal oriented, it should seek a goal to accomplish, otherwise the communication is not complete. All the strategies in their module such as achievement strategies, compensatory strategies, self-monitoring and interactional strategies strive towards that goal achievement. In this regard, this competency cannot be ignored for enhancement of communicative competence. The findings of the current research indicated that more focus and attention is needed for better comprehension of this competence in Pakistan.

The research in oral communication points out the lack of focus in inclusion of OCS in syllabus, curriculum and assessment system in Pakistan (Warsi, 2004; Alam & Bashiruddin, 2013). The findings of this study also support the previous research as participants reported poor English proficiency, lack of confidence, hesitation and no exposure to oral communication as the hindrance in achievement of communicative goal. The response of Student D in this situation can be taken as an eye opener for policy makers and academic experts in order to make oral communication and such modules part of curriculum and assessment system since beginning. The majority of researchers in oral communication blame educational policies, lack of interest of policy makers and academic experts for the failure of EFL oral communication in Pakistan (Shugri, 2007; Alam & Bashirudin, 2013; Kakepoto et al., 2013; Zeeshan, 2013).

6 Conclusion and Suggestions

The study was conducted following the Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model of communicative language ability. Although the model is comprised of four competencies for oral communicative competence, but the present research only focussed on strategic competence component. The rational behind this selection was the ignorance or strategic competence in the oral communicative pedagogy and approaches in educational system of Pakistan (Bilal, 2013; Memon, 2012)

The data revealed that strategic competence of undergraduate students need to be improved as they are very poor due to negligence and proper training. It was also found out that students performed better in Self-Monitoring strategies of strategic competence as 36% of the participants reached to average level while interactional or achievement strategies of students were the weakest with 43% and 36% scored poor. IT was also observed in qualitative data that students found the strategic competence as new and difficult experience, but they were keen to learn these strategies in order to overcome the communicative barriers and goal achievement in the communication.

It is highly recommended in light of the findings to include training of oral communicative competence in the syllabus of university level. The inclusion of sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence is the dire need of the time keeping in mind the emerging needs and demands of national and international market. It is also suggested that the audio-video aids, interactional activities, well planned teaching activities and methods can enhance students' strategic competence.

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A Comparative Study: Acoustic Analysis of English and Pashto Vowels Produced by the Native Speakers of Pashto

Aamir Saeed, Arshad Saleem, Munir Khan & Ihsan Kakar

ABSTRACT

This study aims to investigate the acoustic properties of the native Pashto and English vowels spoken in District Mianwali. The main purpose of the study is to pin down the similarities and dis similarities in acoustic properties of both the languages vowels. The study adopts a quantitative approach. The participants of the study are selected by convenient based sampling and then categorized into two groups (Group A and Group B). The data was collected through two stimuli, lists of words (Pashto and English). The analysis is carried by applying the speech learning model (SLM). The present study shows that Pashto and English have different number of vowels and these are in dissimilar position on their respective inventories. The comparison of acoustic properties of English vowels with Pashto speakers' acoustic properties proves that these are significantly dissimilar from each other. An analysis of vowels produced by the native speakers of English shows that out of eleven vowels of English, /i:/, /e/ and /ɒ:/ are like Pashto vowels and F1 for /ɪ/ and /ɑ:/ of English are like L1 Pashto vowels. F1, F2 for /u:/ and duration values of the vowel /æ/ are also like the native English speakers' corresponding vowels. In addition, F1 for vowel /æ/, F2 for vowel /ʊ/, /æ/ and /ɑ:/ of Pashto learners are neither like L1 Pashto nor like native speakers of English. This work will initiate further linguistic investigations on Pashtoon learners of English. The study concludes that the SLM is valid for the context of English L2 speakers in acquisition of some of the vowels but the model does not account for some dimensions of acquisition of some other vowels of English by Pakistani learners who speak Pashto as L1.

1. Introduction

Pashto is one of the old languages of the Indo-European family. On the basis of its current Writing style, Hallberg (1992) claimed that Pashtu language is 2500 years old. It descends from the Iranian branch of the Indo-European Language Family (Tegey & Robson, 1996). Other major languages close to Pashto are Persian, Kurdish, Balochi and Tajik. All these languages are spoken in different areas of Pakistan, Afghanistan, and Iran. Table 1.1 exhibited the major branches of the Indo-European language, with one or two important languages from each sub-division below.

Table 1.1:Indo-European Language Family.

Celtic	Germanic	Italic	Hellenic	Baltic	Salvic	Indic	Iranian
Welsh	English German	Italian French	Greek	Latvian Lithuanian	Russian Polish	Hindi Urdu	Persian Pashto

As it is evident in the table above, Pashto is less related to English as compared to Italian or French (Tegey & Robson 1996). In addition, although it is written in a different type of Arabic alphabets, however, Pashto is not even related to Arabic language (Tegey & Robson, 1996). It can be considered as one of the most conservative languages of the Iranian family as it retains some archaic elements that the other sister languages have lost (Tegey & Robson, 1996). For instance, ergative constructions, gender system in nouns, and. the retroflex consonants are present in Pashto only whereas other Iranian languages have lost these elements to a great extent. The absence of retroflex consonants in other Iranian languages supports the linguists' claim that Pashto belongs to the Eastern Iranian family of languages (Williams, 2010). Further, Pashto shares a great part of its vocabulary with Dari (Persian). It is due to the fact that Pashtoons and Dari speakers are neighbours for centuries. Both languages heavily borrowed from Arabic (Tegey & Robson, 1996).

Other than that, Pashto also shares some linguistic characteristics with the Indic languages.

Moreover, Pashto has dialects and sub-dialects like any other languages. The three major dialects of Pashto language are the Kandahar or western dialect, the Kabul or central dialect and the Ningrahar or Eastern dialect (Tegey & Robson, 1996). The Kabul dialect is spoken in Kabul, Logar, Ghazni, and Parvan provinces of Afghanistan. The Kabul dialect heavily borrows from Persian, while the Eastern dialect (spoken mostly in Pakistan) borrows from Urdu and English. The dialectal differences between these dialects are minor. Phonological differences are the main differences among these dialects. The Pashtu dialect spoken in District Mianwali is a sub dialect of Kandahar dialect which is also known as North Westren (Central) dialect of Pashtu (Khan, 2011).

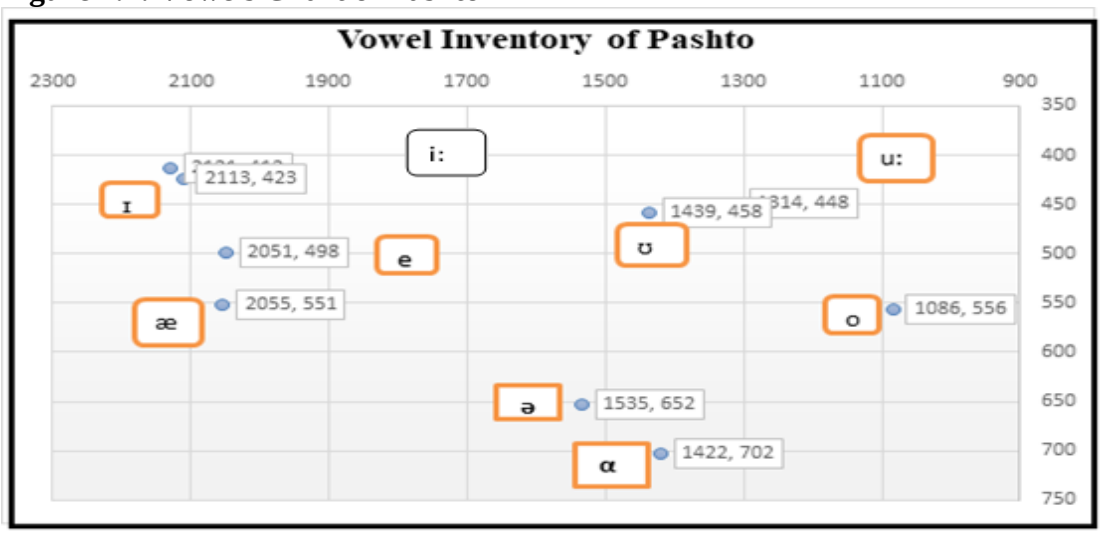
1.1.Pashto Vowels

As for as the quantity and quality of Pashto vowel sounds are concerned, there is no overall agreement observed among the studies over a variety of vowel inventories. These inventories are based on different dialects of Pashto. For example, the vowel inventory of Hallberg (1992) is based on the Yousafzai dialect of Pashto. According to this inventory, there are nine vowel sounds in Yousafzai dialect of Pashto. However, Rehman (2012) found eleven vowels in the Yousufzai dialect during the acoustic analysis of Pashtu vowels. This difference appeared because of the absence of minimal pairs for the two of the vowels in the Yousafzai dialect.

Additionally, the inventory based on the combination of Kandahar and Kabul dialects consists of seven vowels (Levi, 2004).

Penzl (1955) and Bell and Saka (1983) also found seven Pashto vowels whereas Tegey and Robson (1996) included nine vowels in their vowel inventory. Tegey and Robson (1996) research was based on the central dialect of Pashto. The Central dialect of Pashto comprised nine oral vowels. Khan (2011) argued that the difference of opinion on the number of vowels is due to the difference of quality in two low vowels /ɑ:/ and / æ / in their suggested inventories. The vowel inventory based on the acoustics frequencies of F1 and F2 of Pashto of Yousaf zai dialect is taken from Riaz & Rehman (2011).

Figure 1.1: Vowels Chart of Pashto



Source: Riaz & Rehman (2011)

Above chart shows that in Pashto, there are total nine oral vowels. In these nine oral vowels of Pashto, five are long and four are short. In oral vowels of Pashto, vowel [i:], [o], [ɑ:], [u:], [e], [ɪ] and [æ] can occur at initial middle, and final positions of

words however, short vowels [ə] and [ʊ] can only occur at initial and middle positions of words (Khan, 2011).

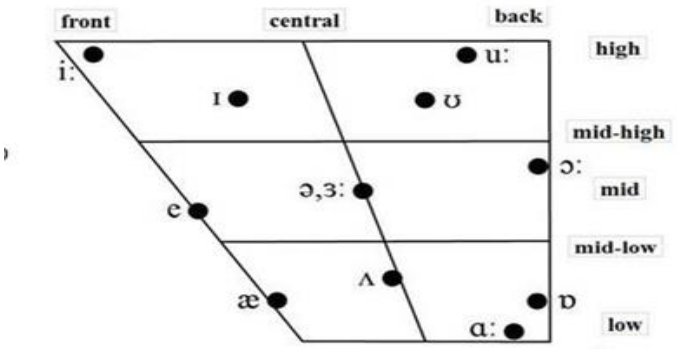
1.2.English Vowels

English is the lingua franca in the world of today (Dewey, 2007, Seidlhofer, 2004). Apart from the two canonical varieties i.e. British and American, English language is now having as many varieties as its speakers. Our focus in this study is, however, on oral monophthongs of British variety (RP). British English has twelve oral (monopthong) vowels namely /i:/, / /, /e/, /æ/, /ʊ/, /u:/,/ə/, /ɒ/, /ɜ:/, /ɑ:/, /ʌ/ and /כ/. Out of these, seven vowels are long/tense and five are short/lax. Out of these, four are front, five back and three central vowels.Vowels /i:/ and /ɪ/ are high-front vowels but Vowel /i:/ in word like 'see' is typically 50%longer than its counterpart lax vowel /ɪ/. However, in some varieties of English like (Australian, Northern) vowel /i:/ is realized not as a pure monophthong because in production of this vowel, tongue tends to lower and is centralized due to which this vowel is heard as /ii/ (Roach, 1997). Besides, mid-high vowel /e/ in word like 'pet' was found earlier in all varieties of English. However, today most Southern British English speakers use this particular vowel in words like 'fair' 'bear' and 'bare' (Lodge, 2009). In prior form of the RP, these words would have a diphthong /eə/. In addition to this, for different varieties of English, the actual quality of this vowel varies. For example, mid-front /e:/. The Scottish, Irish and Northern varieties have this particular vowel in words like 'day'. Many languages of the world do not differentiate between long vs. short vowels. For example, in Northern Irish and Scottish English, pairs of words like 'rowed' /rɒ:d/ 'road' /rɒd/ or 'daze' /des/ and 'days' /de:z/ are homophones (Roach, 1997).

Vowels are shaped in a different way due to the regional origin of the speakers. For Example, In the RP, the word 'book' is uttered with the short-high-back rounded /ʊ/ but for many speakers of northern part of England and Scotland, the same word is pronounced with long-high-back /u:/ (Lodge, 2009). English front vowel /æ/ in words like 'bag' is considered long and lowest front vowel. Front vowels /i:/, /e/ and /æ/ are in close position to each other on the inventory (Roach, 1997).

In comparison to Pashto Central vowels English has three central vowels. Out of these vowels /ɜ:/ in word like 'girl' is considered long and mid high. The vowel in word like 'girl' does not exist in Pashto language. The remaining two vowels /ʌ/ in word like 'hut' and /ə/ in word like '<u>a</u>bout' are short vowels in English and Pashto. In some areas of England, there are words which have vowel /ʌ/ replaced by the vowel /ʊ/ (Roach, 1997). Moreover, English has five back vowels. Two of them are high vowels. One of the two vowels namely /u:/ in words like 'root' is long or tense and the other namely [ʊ] in words like 'shoe' is 'lax' or short. The vowel [ɒ] in words like 'pop' is mid-high and [ɔ] in words like 'saw' is a back-mid-low vowel. Vowel [ɑ:] in word like 'car' is considered on low back long vowel. Figure 1.2 shows vowel inventory of English.

Figure 1.2: Inventory of English Vowels taken from Roach (2004)



English Vowels (Roach, 2004, p242)

1.3.Frame Work of the Study

This study follows the prediction of Speech Learning Model (SLM) described by Flege (1995) to assess the L2 learner's acquisition. In general, the speech learning model is concerned with ultimate attainment of L2 pronunciation, and studies using its framework have generally focused on experienced learners, who have spoken the L2 for many years. This study also documents the learner's approximate *initial state*, which may or may not grasp the model's supposition that an L2 learner begins with only L1 perceptual categories.

An important prediction of the Speech Learning Model relevant to this study is that L2 learners are able to understand differences based on dialect or idiolect or vocal organs (Flege, 1992, pp.593-594). The SLM predicts that if a learner perceives some phonetic difference between two sounds, s/he may develop two separate phonetic representations for the two sounds in her/his L2 phonemic inventory.

We can contextualize the predictions of models of second language acquisition with the current study. According to Brown (1998, 2000) if the relevant feature is active in the L1 of learners, the L2 contrast may be acquired easily. In Pashto, the phonological features are active. In other words, the feature model predicts that Pashto learners of English may not face any big difficulty in acquisition of English Phonological constituents.

Finally, the SLM predicts that if L2 learners perceive the sounds of L2 as different, they can acquire these sounds. Pashto learners of English can easily discriminate phonological vowels of English on account of positive transfer from the L1. Thus, the SLM also predicts learning of English vowels for Pashto learners of English. In the light of these predictions it is hypothesized that Pashto learners of English may acquire English sounds with relative ease. The current study aims to test this hypothesis.

According to this model, the acquisitions of similar sounds are difficult in comparison to dissimilar sounds. The SLM categorizes all L2 sounds into three different groups such as 'New', 'Identical' and 'Similar'. New sounds are not found in the native speakers' language, identical sounds are acoustically same as the sound in the L1 and similar sounds are close yet not identical to sound in the L1. According to this model, for L2 speakers, new and identical sounds are easier than the 'Similar' sounds. Speakers pronounce L2 identical sounds in a native like manner, if L2 sound is similar to a sound in the L1. The learner will perceive it as part of the existing phonemic category with little modification. In a case if L2 sound does not correspond

to the L1 phonetics category, the learner will create a new category. The reasons for selecting this model is that it concerned with ultimate attainment of L2 pronunciation, and have generally focused on experienced bilinguals, who have spoken the L2 for many years. This study also documents the learner's approximate *initial state,* which may or may not grasp the model's supposition that an L2 learner begins with only L1 perceptual categories.

Before going to analyze the acoustics properties of English vowels it is mandatory to analyze the acoustics properties of Pashto vowels thus, the study intends to achieve the following objectives:

- To identifying the acoustic properties (Duration, Formant patterns and acoustic space) of vowel of Pashto Language.
- To find out the differences in acoustic properties of English vowels produced by Pashto speakers.
- To investigate the problems of acquisition of English vowels by adult Pashto speakers based on the predictions of Speech Learning Model.

2. Literature Review

Lodge (2009) classified vowels sound on the quadrilateral in three dimensions, e.g. height of the tongue, frontness/backness and with orientation of position of lips. According to Ladefoged (2003), acoustic analysis explores visual representation of sound waves properties like, formants frequencies, durations and vibration patterns. Based on these properties, vowels' characterization in terms of their respective inventories is possible. The classifications of vowels using spectrographic analysis are supported by better evidences. It is considered better method for the identification of vowel on their respective inventory. Besides, Delattre (1964) illustrated that vowels in the vocal track are modified by means of adjusting the position of the tongue. He indicated that the role of F1 and F2 in distinguishing the vowels is crucial. F1 corresponds inversely to tongue height and F2 values of vowels is related directly to tongue frontness/backness (Delattre, 1964).

Previous studies (Gass & Selinker, 2001; Flege*et al*., 1995b) illustrated that speakers with varying L1 background pronounce vowels differently whereas Gimson (1970) and Flege*et al.* (1995b) argued that bilingual speakers face problems while pronouncing English vowels. The difference in their pronunciation can be observed by comparing acoustic characteristics like vowel duration, space and formant frequencies of L1.

It is observed that L2 learners face difficulties in distinguishing and producing non-native vowels. Previous comparative acoustic studies conveyed and tried to solve the problems in acquisition of target L2 vowels. For L2 learners, variability in vowel quality, vowel deletion, labialization and vowel-laxing in word-final position are main modification in vowel related phenomena (Lodge, 2009). For instance, Gottfried (1984) studied American English vowels spoken by L2 learners of French speakers. All vowels were embedded in a CVC context and pronounced by two groups (L1 French and L2 learners of English). The results indicated that native French speakers were more perfect in pronouncing French vowels as compared to American English learners of French. The study also verified that the native French speakers were better in discriminating French vowels than the American English learners of French (Gottfried, 1984). Polka (1995) also found contrastive dissimilarity between high front and back vowels of German language. The researcher argued that the monolingual Canadian English speakers exposed native like performance for the German tense vowel contrast /u:/-/y/. But for the lax contrast /ʊ/-/y/, their performance is not satisfactory. This difficulty was attributed to differences in English speakers' assimilation of the German vowels to English vowel categories. Same effect

has been found in Spanish learners of English in discrimination of English /i:/-/ ɪ /. One of the reasons can be the lack of such a contrast in their L1, and having a single vowel category in the F1/F2 vowel space occupied by the two English vowels (Flege et al., 1997). The shift in vowel quality is inspected in number of contexts. The phenomenon is also observed in other languages like some varieties of Mexican (Disner, 1980). However, in Colombian Spanish mid vowels are raised in diphthong formation (/e.o/ > /jo/). In addition, Disner (1980) also investigateded mid-vowel variation in Dominican Spanish. Similarly, Park (1997) explored the Australian English vowel spoken by Male NI (North Indian) speakers. Spectrogram for such vowels, like /æ/,/i:/ and /ɑ:/ on the basis of their acoustic properties emerged in different vowel patterns. The difference in vowel pattern suggested the possibility that it can be a separate variety of Indian English. Flege et al. (1997) highlighted the speaker's first language (L1) affected construction and perception of English as a second language (L2). They have argued that these effects were experience dependent. In the same fashion, Baker, et al. (2002) analyzed English vowels spoken by L1 English and L1 Korean Bilingual speakers. It was found that L2 vowels of late bilinguals were influenced by the L1 system while the influence was bidirectional for early bilinguals. At the segment level, L2 learners usually shift the L1 sound system into L2 speech.

There is no commonly accepted techniques to determine 'New' or 'Similar' sounds. And there is no commonly accepted techniques for measuring the distance between sounds of two languages in order to determine 'new' 'similar' sounds existed. Flege (1987) suggested a "phonetic symbol" criterion. Similar L1 and L2 sounds are represented by the same IPA symbol, even if they have some statistically significant audible differences. An example of a similar sound is Pashto /i:/ and English /i:/ . Though the Pashto /i:/ differs from its English counterpart still the same phonetic symbol is used for both (Vergun, 2006). Fleged (1995) also argued that similar vowels are perceived equivalent to the existing phonetic category. This practice asserts that Speech Learning Model's prediction of new category formation for similar vowels is blocked by equivalence classification. As for as vowels of Pashto are concerned, it has nine vowels sounds. In comparison to English language, vowels /ɜ:/ (in word 'girl') and /ɔ/ (in word like 'college') do not exist in Pashto language. Similarly, the vowel /ʌ/ (in word like 'cut') does not exist in Pashto language. This is one of the difficulties Pashto speakers face in producing certain English vowels because these are not found in their native languages. Second, the most crucial difficulty in pronouncing the sounds in target language is the differences in acoustic space. The dissimilarity in acoustic space in native and target language acoustic space directs the mispronunciation of vowels.

3. Research Methodology

The target population for this research was Pashto L1, and English L2 Speakers. Total thirty (15x2=30) participants were chosen for this study, and then categorized into two groups. The selection of the participants was based on the stratified convenient sampling. In each group, numbers of the participants were fifteen. In selecting participants, primary focus was given to their native language. All the participants used for the current research were male which can be one of the limitation of the present study.

1.1. Participants

Group A consists of monolinguals Pashto speakers having no formal education. They belonged to District Mianwali. Moreover, their age range was between 20-25 years. Group B consists of L1 Pashto speakers and L2 learners of English. They were

bilingual and having college level education. All speakers of this group were also from District Mianwali and their age range was between 20-25 years.

3.2. Stimuli

Total two stimuli lists were designed in monosyllabic words for the two groups. In each stimuli list, vowels were placed at the medial position of the words. In each word, a target vowel was presented after the voiceless plosives stop. Following are the list of words which were incorporated in the stimuli.

Table 3.1: Pashto Vowels

Vowel	Word	Meaning
/iː/	/kiːr/	Sweet
/ɪ/	/kɪɽ/	Left side
/e/	/kes/	Warm cloth
/ə/	/kəl/	To cut
/uː/	/kuːɽ/	Deaf
/ʊ̃/	/kʊ̃ l/	Powder
/æ/	/kæp/	Powder
/ɑː/	/kɑːt/	camp bed
/o/	/kor/	Home

In Pashto, there are nine oral monopthongs (Kamal, 2011). The above stimuli list was designed for Group 'A'. All vowels were in CVC context after the voiceless-velar (Plosive) stop /k/.

Table 3.2: English Vowels

Vowel	CVC	Word
/iː/	/hiːd/	Heed
/ɪ/	/hɪd/	Hid
/e/	/hed/	Head
/ æ/	/hæd/	Had
/ ɑː /	/hɑːd/	Hard
/ɔː /	/hɔːd/	haw'd
/ɒ/	/hɒd/	Hod
/uː/	/huːd/	who'd
/ʊ/	/hud/	Hood
/ʌ/	/hʌd/	Hud
/ɜː/	/hɜːrd/	Heard

The above stimuli list (Table: 3.2) adopted from Wells (1962) was selected for Group B. In English, there are twelve oral monophthongs. Central vowel /ə/ in word like 'about' did not include in the stimuli list. For the reason [ə] does not exist in the stressed syllable of English word (Roach, 1997; Lodge, 2009). Total forty five (3 repetitions* 15 participants) token for each vowel were recorded by using Praat software [2] version 4.4.13**.**

3.3. Reliability test results

A Cronbach's alpha reliability test was applied on the data to determine the level of reliability. The following tables show group wise result.

Table 3.3: The reliability results of Group A

Vowels	F1	F2	Duration
/iː/	.943	.943	.780
/ɪ/	.821	.860	.667
/e/	.732	.396	.964
/uː/	.807	.894	.562
/ʊ/	.328	.938	.954

[2] A speech processing tool which creates a spectrogram from the wave files sound wave. It is designed by Boersma and David Weenink (1999) (University of Amsterdam). This software can record sounds and display acoustic properties (voicing, formants, time duration etc).

/æ/	.827	.835	.446
/ ɑ: /	.919	.990	.934
/o/	.768	.865	.966

The above table shows the reliability coefficient and it is above .7 in most cases which denotes 70 percent reliability (consistency) (Larson-Hall, 2010). In only three cases the reliability is below the cut of point .7. For instance, the reliability co efficient for F1 of short /ʊ/ and duration of mid vowel /æ/ is .44 and .32 respectively. Twenty-one results out of twenty-four are reliable. Thus the results have sufficient reliability.

Table 3.4: The reliability results of L2 learners of English

Vowels	F1	F2	Duration
/i:/	.920	.987	.972
/ɪ/	.881	.984	.928
/e/	.879	.987	.353
/æ/	.984	.967	.814
/ɑ:/	.978	.991	.801
/ɔ:/	.892	.888	.982
/o/	.982	.988	.976
/ʊ/	.969	.988	.994
/u:/	.987	.979	.745
/ʌ/	.992	.995	.767
/ɜ:/	.920	.989	.951

Larson Hall (2010) denoted reliability of the data results by mentioning co-efficient values above the level of .600 in 'good shape'. However, from below .500 level shows reliability of the data results in 'poor shape'. The reliability co-efficient for Duration of short [e] is .353. Out of 33 cases in the above table, only one value for vowel shows poor reliability. Remaining 32 values are above the cut of point of .700 which is good according to Larson-Hall (2010).

4. Data Analysis

Data analysis is presented in two main parts. The first part on the one hand shows the acoustic properties of oral vowels. Average frequencies and time duration of vowel sounds are presented in tabulated form. Graphical representations differentiate a vowel from its adjacent vowel. This section recognizes vowel space on the basis of their results uttered by two groups (A-B). Further, their relevant inventories provide notion for the placement of vowels. On the other hand, part two analyzes the data according to the predictions of SLM. The focus of this section is on acoustic characteristics of Pashto and English vowel system produced by groups A and B.

4.1. Pashto Oral Monopthongs

The selected parameters for acoustic analysis are vowel duration and the formant frequencies (F1, F2). Table 4.1 shows mean vowel duration and the formant frequencies (F1, F2) of Pashto vowels spoken by the native speakers. The measurements of three tokens of each participant are also averaged.

Table 4.1: F1 andF2 (in Hz) for Pashto vowels

Vowels	F1	Std. Deviation	F2	Std. Deviation	Vowel Duration	Std. Deviation
/i:/	298	(34.92)	2078	(80.68)	201	.01826
/ɪ/	421	(51.96)	1962	(64.65)	92	.00526
/e/	505	(35.12)	1836	(58.29)	155	.03231
/u:/	357	(29.57)	1075	(73.45)	226	.01718
/ʊ/	487	(20.55)	1141	(91.20)	139	.04385
/æ/	590	(44.04)	1701	(46.59)	233	.01994
/ɑ:/	695	(44.70)	1174	(105.85)	255	.02958
/o/	524	(23.96)	1031	(71.60)	236	.03430

The data given in table 4.1 show that there are total nine vowels in Pashto in which five vowels are long and three are short. The longest vowel in Pashto is [ɑ:] (255 ms).

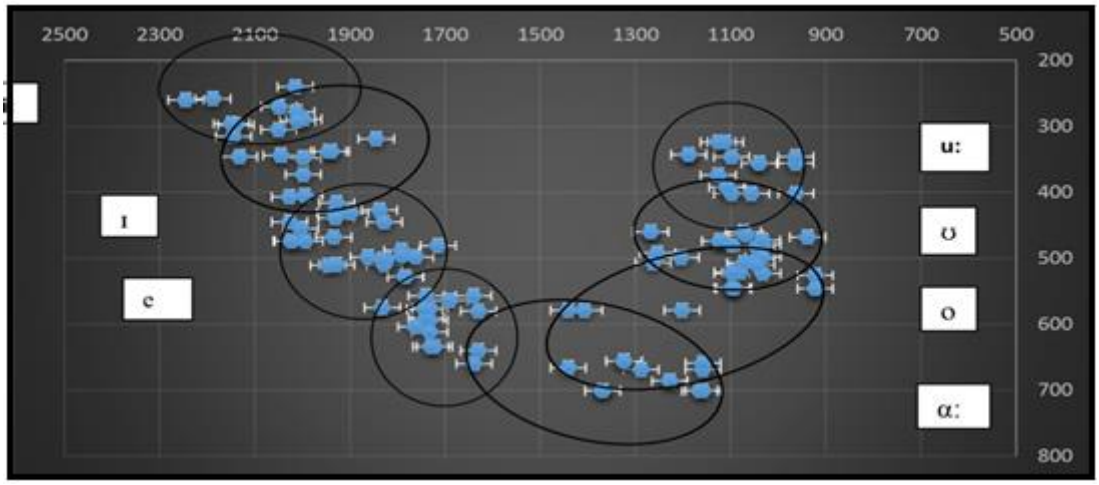
Vowels [ɪ], [ʊ], and [e] are short vowels. The duration values of the short vowels are below 110 milliseconds. The shortest vowel in Pashto is [ɪ] (92 ms). The highest F1 695(Hertz) is noted for vowel [ɑ:] and lowest F1 298 (Hertz) is eminent for front-high Vowel [i:]. Moreover, the highest F2 2078 (Hertz) is noted for high vowel [i:] and lowest F2 1031 (Hertz) is noted for back Vowel [o]. Additionally, the table 4.1 also illustrates the average duration of each short and long vowels. The average duration of long and short vowels is in range of 92 ms to 255ms. The data further express the increase in length with vowel openness. /æ/ has 233 ms duration that is longer than that of two other long / i:/ and /u:/. A significant difference in terms of duration is found between long and short vowels, but no significant difference is found within long vowels and same is for the short vowels with each other.

Table 4.1 further illustrates that, for front vowels, F1 turns out to be lower as the obstruction in the oral cavity increases. As /i:/ is the front vowel, it has the lowest F1 and highest F2. First formant frequency increases gradually as the tongue position gets lower for front vowels i.e. F1 of front-high vowel /i:/ is 298 Hz, whilst F1 of front-mid vowel /æ/ is 590 Hz In case of the back vowels, F1 reduces by height of the tongue for example, low back long vowel /ɑ/ has 695 Hz, while long high-back /u:/ has 357 Hz. In contrast to F1, /i:/ has the greatest F2 and /u:/ has the lowest F2 values. This proposes that high vowels hold low F1and low vowels contain high F1 values. Table 4.1 exhibits the utmost separation between F1 and F2 with the front vowels.

4.1.1. Vowel space

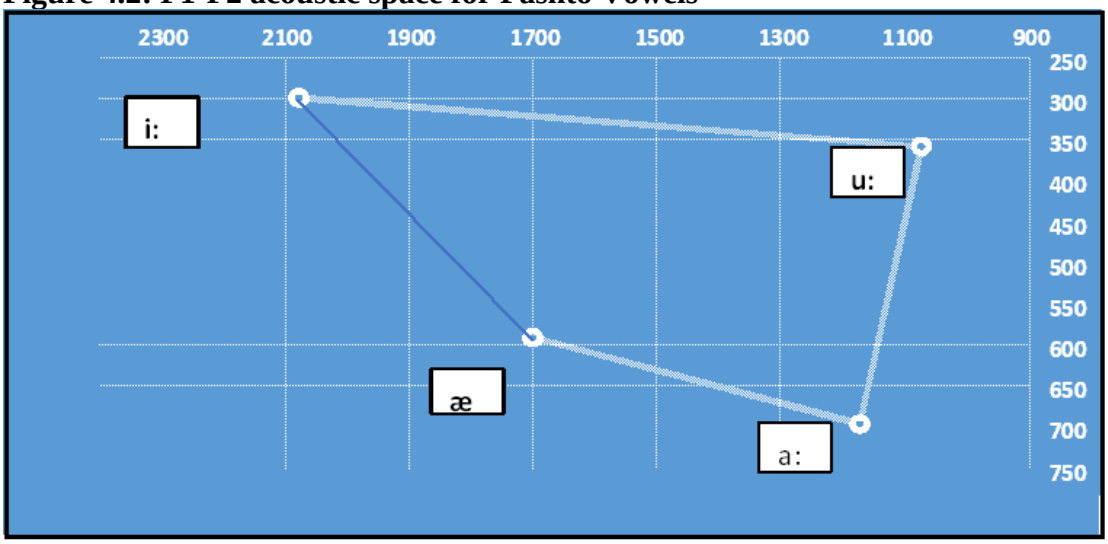
This sub section shows the vowel scheme that was generated on the basis of Plotted Formant frequencies. Figure 4.1 displays the tokens of Pashto vowels. It also specifies the vowel region on the formant chart.

Figure 4.1: Formant Chart of Pashto vowels



In figure 4.1, Pashto vowels are plotted on the basis of average obtained frequencies of each participant of Group A. It also identifies the range of occurrences of Pashto oral vowels. Figure 4.2 informs about the acoustic vowel space in Pashto vowels. Acoustic vowel space was also generated based on four extreme vowels' measured formants frequencies. On the chart, F2 is placed on the horizontal axis and F1 is on the vertical axis.

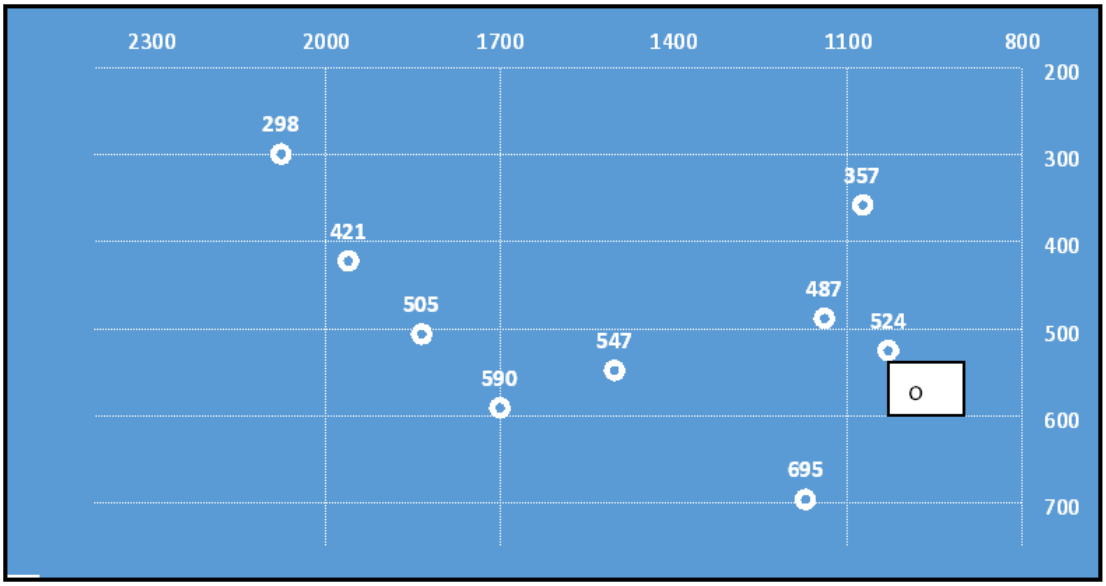
Figure 4.2: F1-F2 acoustic space for Pashto Vowels



As it is observed, the short vowels are slightly lowered and centralized. In contrast to their corresponding short vowels, long vowels are dispersed peripherally inside vowel space.

4.1.2 Vowels Token of Pashto Speakers

Figure 4.3: Pashto vowels inventory



Above chart is arranged to resemble the vowel quadrilateral of Pashto. On the edges of quadrilateral, vowel signs show the Cardinal vowels whereas, dots show the token of Pashto vowels.

Vowel	Word	Meaning
/i:/	/ki:r/	Sweet
/ɪ/	/kɪɽ/	Left side
/e/	/kes/	Warm cloth
/ə/	/kəl/	To cut
/u:/	/ku:ɽ/	Deaf
/ʊ/	/kʊ l/	Powder
/æ/	/kæp/	Powder
/ɑ:/	/kɑ:t/	camp bed
/o/	/kor/	Home

Pashto vowels have three sets of front vowels: a close-front, mid-front and low-front. It has two high front vowels: long /i:/, in words like '/ki:r/ ' and short vowel /ɪ/ in words like '/ki:r/. One mid-vowel /e/ in words like '/kes/' and one low-front /æ/ in

words like ‘bag’. These vowels differ in length as well as in quality. English vowel /i:/ in words like ‘feet’ exist in Pashto language. For the group A, this similar vowel is articulated in a dissimilar way. The differences lie in their position of occurrences. While in articulation of the vowel, for both speakers position of the tongue is in the close-front position of the mouth which causes the position of lips open or spread. In addition to this, groups A designate the vowel /ɪ/ somewhat lowered, backward and short in length to its corresponding long vowel /i:/. Duration of short vowel / ɪ / demonstrate, that /ɪ/ is approximately fifty-sixty percent shorter than its corresponding long vowel /i:/. As displayed vowel /e/ in English words like ‘pet’ is spoken on the same height of the tongue position by the group A. Second formant frequency of vowel /u: / pronounced by the group A is 1075Hz. The variation anticipated that vowel /u:/ in English words like ‘pool’ uttered on backward position than the vowel spoken by the group A.

This next section of the study investigates how Pashto learners of English speakers (Group B) pronounced English vowels. Particularly, this sub section provides an acoustic explanation of English vowels spoken by Bilingual speakers (Pashto) to answer the second research question: what are the differences in acoustic properties of English vowels produced by Pashto L1 speakers (Bilingual)? All English vowels tokens were analyzed in English words by group B. All English vowels frequencies are presented in a tabulated form. Further, obtained frequencies are compared with standard frequencies of English vowels. Each vowel is exhibited in the first column, against the average acoustic properties for each vowel as given.

4.2. English oral monophthongs

English language has eleven oral monopthongs. Out of twelve, seven vowels are long and five are short. The table below compares three acoustic properties of English vowels spoken by the group B to the standard properties of RP Vowels measured by Wells (1962). The aim of the comparison is to find out the potential acoustic differences for the same vowels. Table 4.2 also demonstrates English vowels which have greater differences among frequencies and misidentified by Pashtoon learners of English in the group B of the study. In order to comprehend these particulars vowels, obtained acoustic properties (F1, F2, and Dur) for each vowel is shown below in table 4.2.

Table 4.2: F1, F2 (in Hertz) and Duration (in millisecond) of English Vowels.

	Standard RP			Group B					
Vowels	**F1**	**F2**	**Duration**	**F1**	**Std. Deviation**	**F2**	**Std. Deviation**	**Duration**	**Std. Deviation**
/i:/	285	2373	293	310	(34.76)	2078	(144.02)	229	.02969
/ɪ/	356	2098	139	399	56.97)	1850	(208.69)	106	.01317
/e/	569	1965	170	547	(81.49)	1748	(130.36)	141	.00929
/u:/	309	939	294	332	(84.43)	904	(69.62)	237	.01896
/ʊ/	376	950	142	424	(58.17)	1124	(85.78)	158	.05722
/æ/	748	1746	210	664	(83.99)	1625	(104.65)	200	.02201
/ɑ:/	722	1236	335	674	(64.58)	1175	(67.90)	239	.02546
/ɒ/	599	891	178	496	(53.79)	998	(78.55)	241	.04616
/ɔ/	652	997	283	559	(88.48)	1144	(122.76)	228	.01192
/ʌ/	677	1083	148	675	(42.29)	1165	(57.95)	126	.03586
/ɜ:/	581	1381	261	612	(35.17)	1309	(91.41)	245	.02539

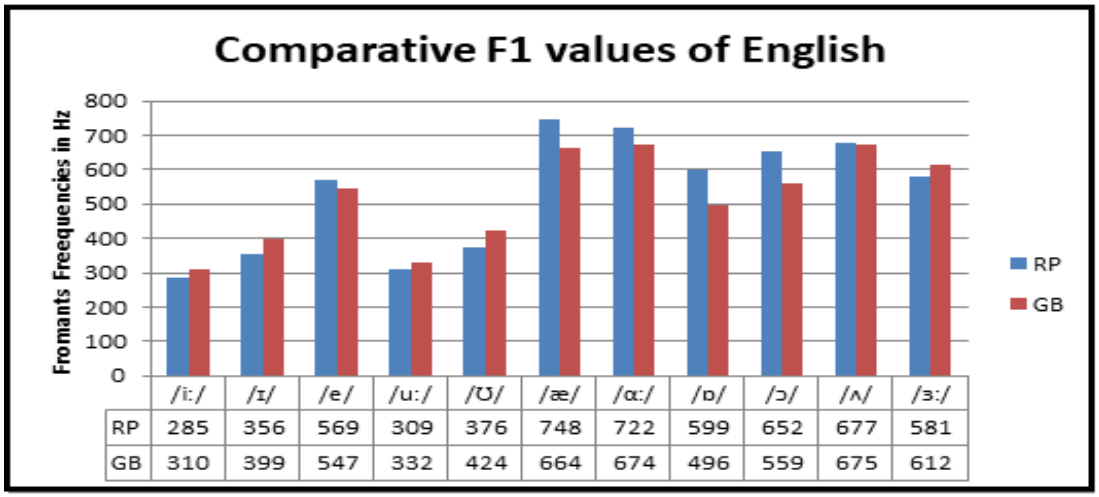
Table 4.2 denotes standard pronunciation by the native English speakers and Pashtoon learners of English. The durational difference of long /i:/ between the group B and native English speakers is of 60m/sec. Similarly, all vowels F1 and F2 values are different from the native speakers of English. Most importantly, the group B speakers’ F2 values of vowel /i:/ 2078 Hz, /ɔ/ 1144 Hz, F1 values of /ʌ/ 675 Hz and /ɜ:/ 612 Hz

in comparison to the native speakers values are significantly different. Based on these results, it can be claimed that these vowels are misidentified by the group B.

4.2.1. Comparison of F1 of English vowels

The figure 4.4 below depicts the comparison of F1 values of English vowels spoken by the native speakers and the Pashtoon learners of English.

Figure 4.4: F1 Values of English Vowels



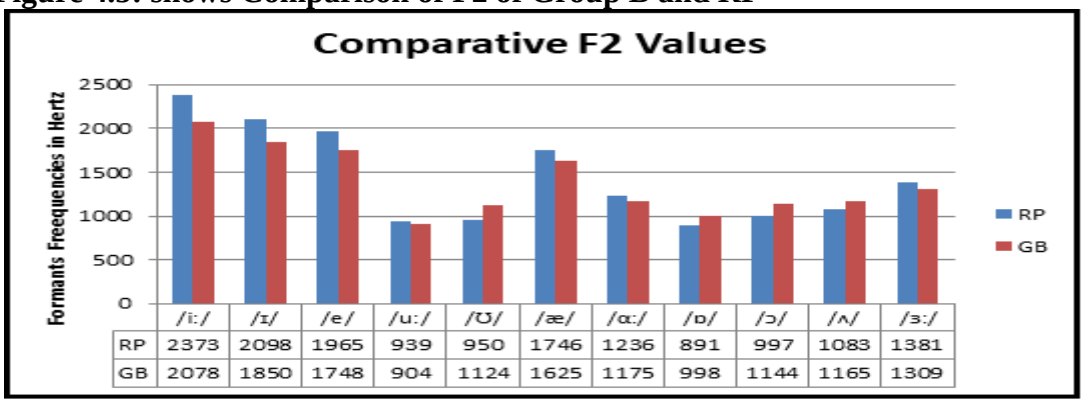
	/iː/	/ɪ/	/e/	/uː/	/ʊ/	/æ/	/ɑː/	/ɒ/	/ɔ/	/ʌ/	/ɜː/
RP	285	356	569	309	376	748	722	599	652	677	581
GB	310	399	547	332	424	664	674	496	559	675	612

Note: For high vowels bar is lowered conversely to this, for low vowels bars is higher.

Figure 4.4 denotes all English high vowels spoken by the Pashto speakers in comparison to RP vowels that were found lowered. Moreover, the difference in the high front vowels is an adequate amount in comparison to the back-high vowels /uː/ and /ʊ/. English central vowel /ɜː/ in words like 'furr' does not exist in Pashto speaker's native language. Due to the absence of this vowel in their native language, the group B speakers misidentify this particular vowel. Above bar /ɜː/ indicates, that for group B speakers, this particular vowel is tend to be lowered and more retract towards vowel /ɑː/. Conversely to this, in comparison to RP, another central vowel /ʌ/ spoken by the group B is in higher position. Similarly, English long back /ɒ/ in words like 'pot' spoken by RP speakers is lowered in position as compared to the vowel spoken by the group B. In addition, all English low vowels /æ/, /ɔ/ and /ɑː/ in English words like 'bag' 'paw' and 'cat' are also higher in position than the vowels spoken by the group B speakers.

4.2.2 Comparison of F2 of English vowels

Figure 4.5: shows Comparison of F2 of Group B and RP



	/iː/	/ɪ/	/e/	/uː/	/ʊ/	/æ/	/ɑː/	/ɒ/	/ɔ/	/ʌ/	/ɜː/
RP	2373	2098	1965	939	950	1746	1236	891	997	1083	1381
GB	2078	1850	1748	904	1124	1625	1175	998	1144	1165	1309

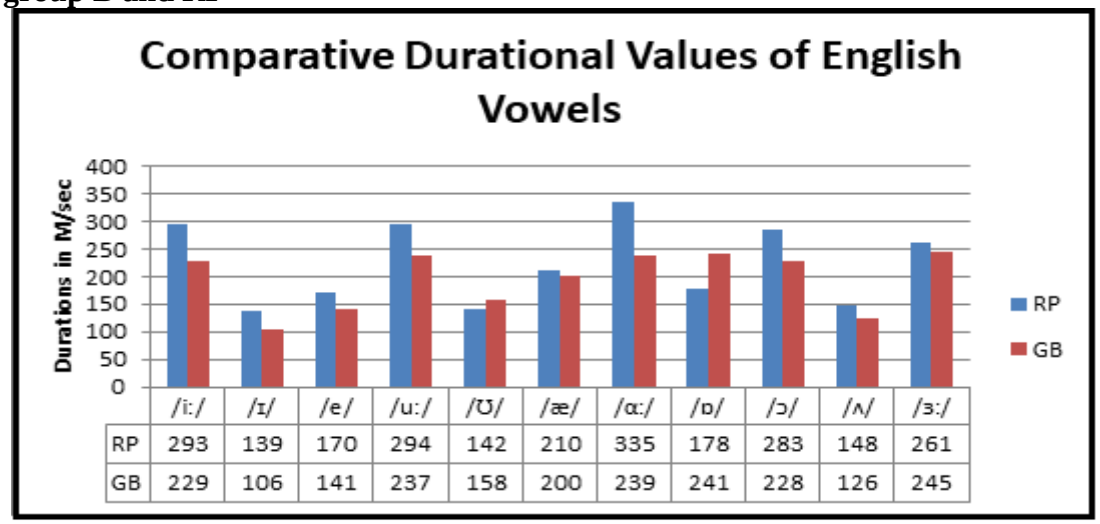
NOTE: Above graph shows that for the front vowels bar is high and for the back vowels bar is lowered.

For group B, all front vowels of English are in the backward position in comparison to vowels spoken by the native RP speakers. Vowel /ɜː/ in words like 'girl' spoken by the group B is on the backward position than the vowel spoken by the native English

speakers. In addition to this, English vowel /ɑ:/ in words like 'car' spoken by RP speakers is on the forward position than the vowel spoken by the group B speakers. For RP speakers' mid-low back /ɔ/ and mid-high /ʊ/ are backward in comparison to group B. As results indicate, bilingual subjects tend to articulate fine approximation of most of RP vowels when there is close or equivalent vowel exist in their L1. However, their attempts at articulation of vowels /ɜ:/,/ʌ/, /ɔ/ and /ɪ/tend to create confusion.

4.2.3. Comparative duration of English vowels

Figure 4.6: comparison of duration of English vowels spoken by the speakers of group B and RP



	/i:/	/ɪ/	/e/	/u:/	/ʊ/	/æ/	/ɑ:/	/ɒ/	/ɔ/	/ʌ/	/ɜ:/
RP	293	139	170	294	142	210	335	178	283	148	261
GB	229	106	141	237	158	200	239	241	228	126	245

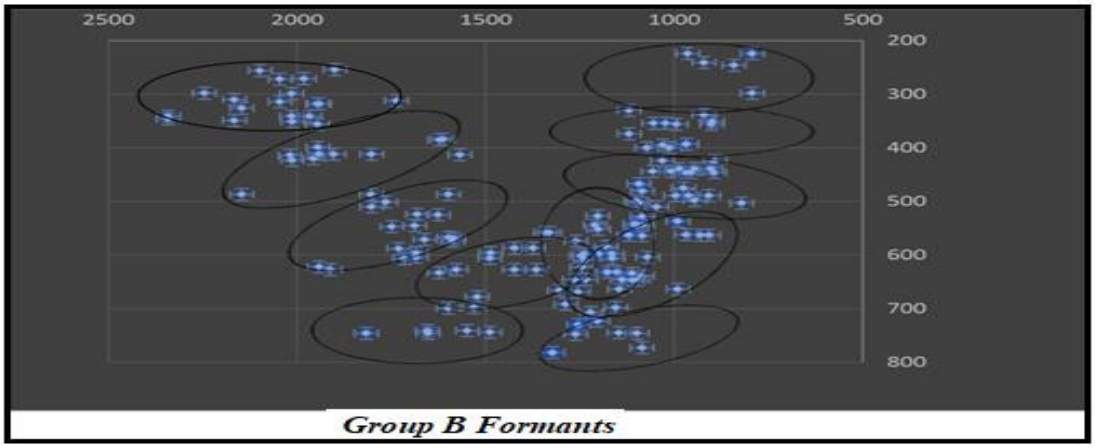
(Note: The above graph is arranged according to RP vowels duration where shorts vowels are shown on the right side of the chart and long vowels are shown on the left side of the chart.)

Graph 4.6 indicates that all RP vowels in comparison to the group B tokens have the longer duration. However, English vowels spoken by the speakers of group B show significant difference among them. Results also show that all English vowels spoken by the group B are clearly differentiated in term of their tense-lax distinction. However, short back /ʊ/ is not always clearly differentiated by the speakers of group B.

4.2.4. Comparison of English Vowel Space

In below charts, English vowels are plotted on the basis of average obtained frequencies of Group B. It also identifies the range of occurrences of English oral vowels on the quadrilaterals for both groups.

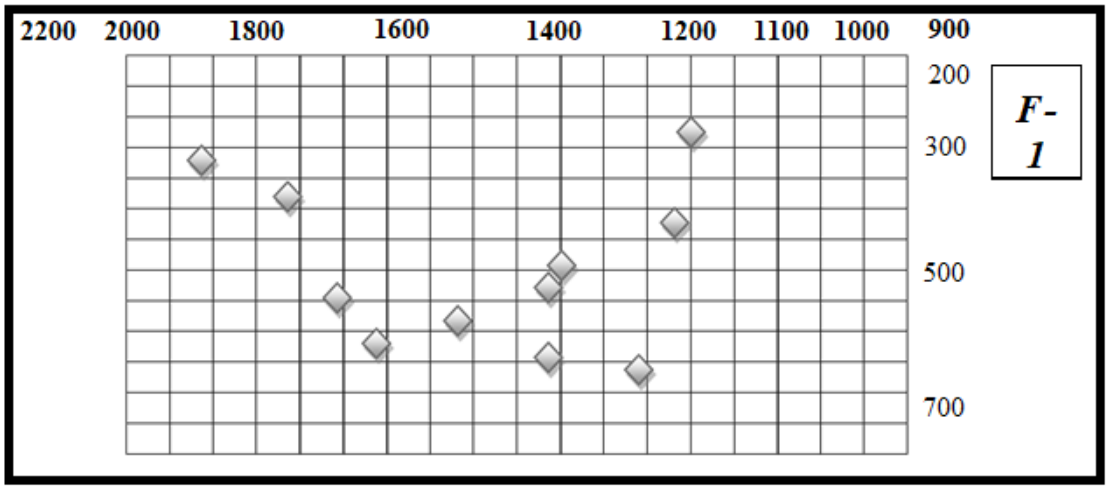
Figure 4.7: The formants chart of English vowels produced by Group B (Pashto Bilinguals).



4.2.5. English Vowels Inventories

This section displays definite place of English vowels on their respective inventories uttered by the group B. In order to pin down faithful position of the vowels, vowels are clearly separated among each other. These inventories are developed on the basis of the overall obtained mean F_1-F_2. Inventories screening the frequency of the first formant on the vertical axis plotted against the second formant on the horizontal axis for eleven English vowels.

Figure 4.8: Vowel inventory of Group B



This frequency chart forms the basis for developing the quadrilateral of English vowels spoken by the speakers of group B which is given above: The oral vowels of English in the light of the chart given above are described as under;

/iː/	Front	Close	Spread	Long
/ɪ/	Front	Close	Spread	Short
/e/	Front	Half-Close	Spread	Short
/æ/	Front	Half-Open	Spread	Long
/ɔ/	Tend to lowered	Half-open	Spread	Long
/ɜː/	Tends to backward	half-close	spread	long
/ʌ/	central	half-close	Neutral	short
/ɑː/	Central	Open	spread	Long
/ɒ/	Back	Half-close	Rounded	Long
/ʊ/	Back	Close	Rounded	Short
/uː/	Back	Close	Rounded	Long

5. Analysis of data according to the predictions of SLM

This study follows Flege's (1995a) Speech Learning Model which hypothesizes that learners acquire L2 sounds depending on the concept of new or similar phonemes as compared with the L1 system. According to this model, acquisitions of similar sounds are difficult in comparison to new sounds. The SLM divides all L2 sounds into new, identical and similar. New and identical sounds are easier than 'similar' sounds (Flege, 1987). So, in order to develop hypotheses, a one-sample t-test was applied on values of F1, F2 and duration of Pashto vowels produced by the monolingual participants. T-test determines whether the formant values and duration of Pashto vowels are significantly different from the values of the corresponding English vowels or not. All those vowels of English which do not exist in L1 of the participants are classified as new for the bilingual participants of this study. If the formants and duration of L1 and L2 vowels were not significantly different from each other, the vowels were categorized as 'identical' and if the L2 vowels were found to be significantly different from the corresponding L1 vowels, they were categorized as 'similar'. The following tables show the results of t-tests. The values of English vowels were taken from Wells (1962).

Table 4.3: Comparison of Vowels of Pashto and English produced by the monolinguals

Vowels	F1		F2		Duration	
	T-Test	P-Value	T-Test	P-Value	T-Test	P-Value
/i:/	1.54	.146	14.15	.000	19.49	.000
/ɪ/	4.87	.000	8.502	.000	49.08	.000
/e/	6.55	.000	8.698	.000	2.19	.046
/u:/	6.75	.000	7.350	.000	18.62	.000
/ʊ/	20.60	.000	7.749	.000	.442	.665
/æ/	13.83	.000	3.397	.004	2.19	.046
/ɑ:/	5.44	.000	1.756	.101	10.91	.000
/ɒ/	32.29	.000	7.652	.000	7.87	.000

Table 4.3 shows results of eight oral vowels of Pashto and English. The results exhibit that Group A pronounces all vowels except /i:/, /ɑ:/ and /u:/ as significantly different from English speakers. It suggests that s these vowels (i.e. /i:/, /ɑ:/, /ʊ/) of English are produced as if they are in category of identical vowel category. Based on these results, English vowels for Pashto speakers are classified in the following way;

Identical: vowel /i:/ (F1), /ɑ:/ (F2) and /ʊ/ (duration values)

Different: /ɔ/. /ɜ/, /ʌ/

Similar: /ɪ/, /ɪ/, /e/, /æ/, /ɑ:/, /ɒ/, /ʊ/, /u:/

The SLM predicts that identical vowels are easier, different vowels are difficult and similar vowels are extremely difficult for L2 in this current case learners. To evaluate the learner's production, English vowels were produced by Pashto English Bilinguals (Group B). T-tests were used to determine whether L2 learners of Pashto establish English-like or L1-like phonetic categories for English vowels. Below tables compare English vowels spoken by the group B in comparison to the native English vowels.

Table 4.4: English vowels in the speech of Pashto Bilinguals compared with English Monolinguals.

Vowels		F1		F2	Duration	
	T-Test	P-Value	T-Test	P-Value	T-Test	P-Value
/i:/	2.815	.014	7.926	.000	8.339	.000
/ɪ/	2.950	.011	4.586	.000	9.704	.000
/e/	9.090	.000	6.435	.000	11.898	.000
/u:/	1.061	.307	1.914	.076	11.563	.000
/ʊ/	3.231	.006	3.374	0.005	2.744	.016
/æ/	3.867	.002	4.451	001	1.676	.116
/ɑ:/	2.830	.013	3.525	0.003 .000	14.601	.000
/ɒ/	7.416	.000	5.301	.009	5.34	.000
/ɜ:/	3.472	.004	3.022	.000	2.420	.000
/ɔ/	8.485	.000	9.842	.021	6.105	.000
/ʌ/	.067	.947	2.595		9.292	.000

This table demonstrates that out of the eleven vowels of English, three vowels are somehow produced like the native speakers of English by the speakers of Group B. It suggests that the speakers of group B uttered these vowels without any significant difference from the English speakers. Besides, Table 4.4 demonstrates thats p-values in most of the cases is below .05 which denotes that the speakers of group B could not produce the vowels /ɜ/ and /ɔ/ accurately. P-value of F2 for /ɜ:/ is .068 that indicates that speakers of group B uttered this particular vowel near to the native English speakers. For vowel /ɜ:/ mean of the group B and English vowel is the same. The significance level of the mean difference of Duration for /ɜ:/ is .936 and /æ/ is .174 which is also greater than .05.

Another t-test was applied to compare the vowels of English by bilingual participants with their L1 vowels. This test was only applied on those vowels which are common in L1 and L2. However, the participants could not produce accurately. The purpose of

the t-test was to determine if the participants produce these vowels like their L1 vowels. The results of these tests are given in the table below.

Table 4.5: Comparison of paired vowels between Pashto Monolinguals and Pashto Bilinguals speakers

Vowels	F1		F2		Duration	
	T-Test	P-Value	T-Test	P-Value	T-Test	P-Value
/i:/–/i:/	1.143	.272	.000	1.000 .078	-2.835	.013
/ɪ/–/ɪ/	1.301	.214	1.901	.058	-8.841	.000
/e/–/e/	1.464	.165	2.064	.002	1.278	.222
/ʊ/ – /ʊ/	4.036	.001	3.873	.041	1.748	.102
/æ/ – /æ/	3.104	.008	2.248	.004	1.146	.271
/ɑ:/ – /ɑ:/	.746	.468	3.501	.299	527	.607
/ɒ/ – /ɒ/	1.645	.122	1.079		-3.454	.004
/u:/ – /u:/						

Table 4.5 postulates that Pashto vowel /i:/, /e/ and /ɒ/ are produced like Pashto vowels by the Pashto bilingual speakers. In addition to this, F1 for /ɪ/ and /ɑ:/ are also produced like L1 Pashto vowels. All these values are above the level of significance (0.05). However, F1, F2 for /u:/ and duration property of the vowel /æ/ is produced near to English native speakers and their values are not mentioned in the table. P-values of F1 for vowel /æ/, F2 for vowel /ʊ/, /æ/ and /ɑ:/ are neither like the L1 Pashto vowels nor like the native English vowels. Results suggest that they are in the direction towards English vowels. The following table summarized the result of English vowels produced by the speakers of group B.

Table 4.6: Results of Pashto Bilinguals

Sounds	F1	F2	Duration
/i:/	L1 like	L1 like	L1 like
/ɪ/	L1 like	L1 like	Different from L1&L2
/e/	L1 like	L1 like	L1 like
/u:/	Acquired	Acquired	Different from L1&L2
/ʊ/	Different from L1&L2	Different from L1&L2	L1 like
/æ/	Different from L1 & L2	Different from L1&L2	Acquired
/ɑ:/	L1 like	Different from L1&L2	L1 like
/ɒ/	L1 like	L1 like	L1 like.
/ɜ:/	Not acquired	Not acquired	Not acquired
/ɔ/	Not acquired	Not acquired	Not acquired
/ʌ/	Acquired	Not Acquired	Not Acquired

These results shown in the table partly support, and partly contradict the Speech Learning Model. The bilingual speakers of the study did not form a category for the new vowel /ɜ:/, /ɔ/ while according to the SLM, they should have formed category for new sounds. This may have been due to their beginner status in learning English, or it may be due to the local dialect. The previous studies conducted by Aoyama et al. (2004) and Flege (1987) are based on traditional method of new and similar vowel classification. These studies get their support from Speech Learning Model of Flege (1987). We must bear in mind that Flege (1987) claims "new category formation for similar vowel is not possible by equivalence classification due to the reason that the similar vowels are perceived to be equivalent to the existing phonetic category". Flege's (1987) claim is based upon the adult Dutch learners of English who could not show vital differences in the pronunciation of the similar vowels /ɪ/, /ʊ/, and /ʌ/ (beat, boot, cut). Another study of Flege (1992) also supports Speech learning Model on the basis of experienced and inexperienced German learners of English. The primary difference between the groups was exposure to the native English speakers. Both groups studied English in school for about the same period of time (inexperienced: 6.6 years; experienced: 7.6 years), but they spend different amounts of time in an English-speaking environment (inexperienced: 0.6 years; experienced: 7.5 years). As predicted

in Speech Learning Model, no group was able to achieve the phonetic level of the native-English speakers. For example; in case of similar vowels /i:/ (beat) and /ɪ/ (bit). However, in case of vowel sound /æ/ (cat) for German experienced speakers did affect the pronunciation of above mentioned vowel. But the inexperienced group, was able to produce /æ/ near to the native speakers. This supports the evidence that experienced L2 learners can form new phonetic categories and eventually produce those sounds corresponding to the new category. Moreover, these studies also support the model's claim that phonetic learning takes place in adulthood. The investigation into the acquisition pattern for the similar vowels also goes very close to Pashto language but at the same time at certain places it does not reach to the native level. Hence it is not possible to determine or speculate whether bilinguals (Pashto) are modifying their pronunciation of similar vowels or not. It has often been observed in this study through the analysis and comparison of vowels of different languages that Pashto speakers fail to attain the correct level of pronunciation and accent of those vowels which are absent in their L1,. Therefore, Pashto learners commits pronunciation mistakes in handling such vowels while speaking English.

5. Findings

This section reviews the findings and presents the possible implication of the research. And at the same time, it also reflects a look at L2 learners' progress in attaining accuracy in English vowels. Hence it could be an idea for further research to focus L2 learners' acquisition of English vowels.

Following are the finding of the current research;

1. The dialects of Pashto language have different number of vowels. Their acoustic analyses confirmed that Pashtoon learners of English in Group A pronounced their oral vowels in dissimilar position.
2. Results of duration values confirmed that in 'Pashto', /ɪ/ has the shortest vowel duration among short vowels of Pashto.
3. Acoustic analysis of English vowels confirmed that all English high vowels and central vowel /ɜ:/ spoken by the speakers of group B, in comparison to RP vowels, are in lowered position. The bilingual speakers of Pashto adopt almost comparable contour approach towards RP English vowels. There is minimal difference between vowels produced by both groups. English native speakers articulated vowels in wide constituency in comparison to the group B.
4. All English high vowels namely /i:/, /ɪ/, /ʊ/ and /u:/ spoken by the speakers of group B, in comparison to RP vowels, are in lowered position. The level of difference in high front vowels /i:/ and /ɪ/ is enough in comparison to back-high vowels /u:/ and /ʊ/.
5. All English Mid-Vowels except /ɜ:/ and low-vowels spoken by the group B are placed on higher position than the vowels spoken by RP speakers. However, vowels on back and central part of the inventory pose some serious problems, e.g. central vowel /ɜ:/, back vowel /ɔ/.
6. All front vowels and back vowel /ɑ:/ of English spoken by the speakers of group B are in backward position than the vowels spoken by the native RP speakers. The bilingual participants generally tend to articulate fine approximation (in term of their frontness/backness) to RP vowels when there is close or equivalent vowel in their L1. But the speakers of group B who attempted articulation of vowels /ɜ/, /ʌ/, and /ɔ/ and /ɪ/ tend to get confused. Their frequencies show that they merged into other vowels.
7. English vowels /ɜ:/ and /ɔ/ do not exist in the L1 of the speakers of group B. Due to the absence in their L1, the bilingual speakers have frequently faced difficulties in production of the vowel. These results exhibit that these vowels have lowered tendency and more retraction towards vowel /ɑ:/.

8. All RP vowels in comparison to the speakers of group B have the longer duration. English vowels spoken by the group B shown significant difference between each other. Results also show that all English vowels spoken by the bilinguals clearly differentiate in term of their tense-lax distinction. However, short back /ʊ/ spoken by native L1 speakers is not as much longer as uttered by the group B.
9. In the standpoint of SLM, for the speakers of group B results confirmed that vowels /i:/, /e/ and /ɒ/ are produced Like Pashto vowels. Moreover, F1 for /ɪ/ and /ɑ:/ are also produced like L1 Pashto vowels. However, F1, F2 for /u:/ and duration value of the vowel /æ/ is produced like English native speakers. Results also show F1 for vowel /æ/, F2 for vowel /ʊ/, /æ/ and /ɑ:/ are neither like L1 Pashto nor like the native English vowel.

6. Conclusion

This study performed acoustic analyses of the vowels of Pashto and English. The researcher has identified Pashto vowels through Praat software. The main focus of the study was on whether there is any similarity between English and Pashto vowels by applying the speech learning model of Flege (1995a). After the analysis, the results of the study partially confirm the SLM predictions. As some vowel sounds were new for the Pashto learners so these vowels were easy for them to learn and produce according to the predictions of SLM, while some sounds were similar and hence were difficult for the L2 learners to acquire the native like ability. Since the findings of the study highlighted the similarities and differences between the vowel system of Pashto and English language, the study may prove helpful for course designers as well as teachers and English L2 learners. As the findings highlighted these facts, the study may be used as a guide by teachers of English to learners of Pashto. The results of the current study also suggested that the role and the characteristics of vowels in words is crucial. These segments (vowels) provided listeners with more prosodic information in words than do consonants (Polka, 1995). To be able to differentiate between disorders and typical differences in L2 learning language users must be aware of differences in languages. That will be helpful to determine discrimination difficulties in these L2 learners.

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Influence of Hindi Cartoons on the Language Development of Pakistani Urdu/English Schoolchildren

Ayesha Saddiqa & Muhammad Shaban Rafi

Abstract

Not surprisingly, children expand their linguistic repertoire with the maturation of their cognition and their daily activities such as watching cartoons influence their language development. Many if not all parents fear that the Hindi cartoons are contaminating the linguistic repertoire of their children. Eventually, Pakistan Media Electronic Regularity Authority has banned Hindi dubbed cartoons. However, it is quite paradoxical that they always wish to improve the English language skills of their children but they have negative grounding towards the Hindi language. With this background in minds, the present study was carried out to examine the influence of some popular Hindi cartoons (such as *Doraemon*, *Motu Patlu*, and *Chota Bheem*) on the phonological development of children from middle and upper-middle class schools located in Lahore. By taking the Labovian apparent hypothesis as a theoretical lens, a sample of 84 Urdu/English bilinguals of different age groups was selected to investigate a prevalence of most commonly occurring phonological variants (such as /kʰ/ for /x/, /g/ for /ɣ/, / d͡ʒ/ for /z/, and /f/ for /pʰ/) in their speech. The study revealed that the influence of the Hindi phonology remained temporary on the language development of the participants. They were open to the usage of Hindi phonemes unless they developed alternatives phonological system in their first language (Urdu) and second and the most prestigious language (English). The participants who were around 10 years of age were found relatively less prone to using the Hindi phones. We may not rule out completely whether or not the above-mentioned phonological variants were part of their linguistic repertoire when they reached to puberty. It was observed, on the other hand, that some low-level phonological variations recycled invariably in the speech of the participants. Hence, the study suggests investigating these variations beyond this age bracket. The study takes a diametrically opposite stance and suggests an exposure to multilingual vocabulary as a correlate of cognitive development during the early childhood education.

Keywords: Hindi cartoons, Urdu/English bilingual children, phonology, Pakistan, language development

1. Introduction

Meri sahaili! ***Gussa*** *(*گصہ*)* *kyon hoti ho,* ***Chinta*** *mut kro…agar tumhara* ***gubara*** *(*گبارہ*) phatt gya hai to apnay* ***pita*** *say* ***ja kr kay*** *kaho.* ***Fir*** (***فر***) *wo tumhain naya le dain gay. Abto* ***khush*** *(*کھوش*) hojao.* (My friend! Why are you getting angry? Don't worry? If your balloon is blown-up you may request your father to buy one for you.)

A five years old girl was consoling her friend, while I was eavesdropping her lexical choices and phonological elements e.g., *Gussa* (for Anger), *Chinta* (for worried), *Gubara* (Balloon), *Pita* (for father), *Fir* (for then) and *Khush* (happy). These lexical and phonological variations highlight a kind of influence of the Hindi language on the language development of Pakistani schoolchildren. It was observed and reported by parents as well that children tend to replace the Urdu phonemes e.g., 'خ' /x/, 'غ' /ɣ/ and پھ /pʰ/ with the Hindi counterparts e.g., 'کھ' /kʰ/, 'گ' /g/ and 'ف' /f/ particularly in their informal interactions with their peers. A prevalence of Hindi words and phones in the communication of schoolteachers instigate the researchers to investigate how far this influence lasts in their phonological system. The investigation would help us to vouch for the observation or/and fear of parents whether their children's language

is being meshed up by the Hindi cartoons. The findings of this study would also reflect on the decision made by the competent authority to ban the Hindi cartoon channels across Pakistan.

Parents allow their children to watch cartoons perhaps to keep them engaged while they are into other things. Pakistani children enjoy watching Hindi dubbed cartoons (e.g., *Doraemon*, *Motu Patlu*, and *Chota Bheem*) mostly because of linguistic affinity. It is important to note that the Hindi language is in many ways similar to the Urdu language in its spoken form. There are some phonological and lexical differences between Urdu and Hindi which become intelligible to folks with the passage of time. Rahman (2011) argues that there is much similarity between Urdu and Hindi. He claims that Urdu is a pidgin of Hindi which was creolized and standardized over several hundred years. It seems as there are more similarities than differences between Hindi and Urdu, which help children enjoy Hindi cartoons in their leisure hours.

There is abundance of literature that considers cartoons as a source of entertainment and education. Research (Hassan & Daniyal, 2013; Stamou, Maroniti & Griva, 2015; Raza, Awan & Gondal, 2016) has established that cartoons influence children's dressing style, language, and behavior. They prefer to buy watches, caps, shirts, pencil boxes and other various accessories based on these cartoon characters. The cartoons are effective in teaching basic linguistic abilities to children, (Uchikoshi, 2005; Linebarger & Vaala, 2010; Rai et al., 2016) enriching their imagination, ripening their esthetic inclinations, providing them with multidimensional insight, making children's learning long-lasting, and, introducing to and providing them national and worldwide culture (Yagli (2013) cited by Gedik & Akin, 2016; See also Saxton, 2010; Gupta, 2013; Ukpong, Uyanga & Nyorere, 2015; Sezer, 2016).

Most of the parents who are from the Punjabi speech community of Pakistan fear that Hindi cartoons are 'contaminating' the linguistic choices of their children. The issue was discussed in the national Assembly of Pakistan and vis a vis reported by various media houses. Eventually, Pakistan Media Electronic Regularity Authority banned Hindi dubbed cartoons on October the 19th, 2016. However, it appears to be paradoxical that Punjabi parents would like to enroll their children in English medium schools to improve their English language skills but they have negative grounding towards the Hindi language. Pakistan is a country with dual national languages (Urdu and English) while hosting over 70 regional languages where a changing and post-colonial world is placing demands on Punjabi folks among others to communicate and do business in English. Needless to say, the divide between Urdu and Hindi is more political and ideological than linguistics. The studies cited in the next section unarguably acknowledge the impact of Hindi dubbed cartoons on the language of children.

2. Literature Review

As noted above, watching cartoons for long hours is reported to bring change in children's language. Aslam, Rehman, Qasim and Abbas (2012) conducted a study on 'Media and the language shift: Urdu speaking children's use of Hindi words as viewed by their parents' to find the impact of Hindi dubbed cartoons on the language of children. Based on structured interviews, the data was gathered from the parents of 3 to10 years old children. The study revealed that children frequently used the Hindi words in their conversations. They articulated Hindi kinship titles such as *deedi* (sister), *pita* (father), *pati* (husband) *patni* (wife) among religious terms such as *aishwar* (god), *devi* (goddess), *rakshas* (satan), *aarti* (A Hindi ritual), *pooja* (worship) including greeting words such as *namastay* (Hindi greeting) and expressions like *vishwas* (trust), *shakti* (power), *shama* (forgive me), *svadish* (tasty), etc. among

others. The study demonstrated that most parents disliked the use of Hindi language by their children.

Malik and Arslan (2013) investigated the impact of the Hindi language cartoons on the language of Pakistani students. A questionnaire was used to obtain parents' observation regarding the Hindi language use of their children. One hundred parents of 3 to 10 years old children residing in Lahore, Pakistan were involved in the study. As many as 90% parents admitted that their children love to watch cartoons and 10% were of the view that they sometimes watch cartoons. They enlisted *Doremon*, *Ben 10* and *Chota Bheema* among the favorite cartoon shows. 60% parents disclosed that the Hindi cartoons have affected their children's language. Among others, the most used phrases were *shanti rakho* (38%) (Don't panic), *namastay* (24%) (Hindi word for Greeting). Another study was undertaken by Yousaf, Shehzad and Hassan (2015) on 100 male and female children of 7 to 12 years of age who were residing in Gujrat, Pakistan. The results revealed that 60% of the participants experienced a change in their accent after regularly watching cartoons. Similarly, Chaudhry (2017) found that the Hindi dubbed cartoons influence the language of children. She noted most frequently used Hindi words *sunndar* for *khobsorat* (beautiful), *Guffa* for *Ghaar* (cave), *Raaj kumar*/*Raja* for *Badshah* (king) in the linguistic repertoire of the participants. She further claimed that this influence was temporal – as the participants reached to teen age bracket and eventually had more exposure to first language (Urdu) and the regional language (Punjabi) their native language, the use of Hindi words was dramatically decreasing.

Islam and Biswas (2012) investigated the use of Hindi words by the Bangladeshi 3 to 8 years old children as an outcome of watching Hindi dubbed cartoon show *Doremon* through critical discourse analysis. The study revealed that 93% of the participants used Hindi words more fluently than English. The study concluded that the first language of the participants was getting 'polluted' due to code-mixing of Hindi words, which may lead on to hampering their cultural values – kind of linguistic imperialism.

The abovementioned studies and those cited therein have investigated lexical influence of Hindi on the linguistic repertoire of children, however there is scarce literature on phonological impact of Hindi dubbed cartoon on the language development of children. Moreover, these studies represent a synchronic impact of Hindi dubbed cartoons. Hence, by taking the Labovian apparent time hypothesis as theoretical lens the present study explores what is the influence of Hindi dubbed cartoons on the speech of Urdu/ English bilingual schoolchildren of Lahore, Pakistan? This study, in a way would endorse or counter the perspectives that the Hindi language has negative impact on the language development of children. Furthermore, the study would provide us basis to argue the grandiose assumption the Hindi language has long-term impact on the language of Pakistani children.

3. Methods

3.1 Data Collection

A pilot study was carried out before the main study to improve the data collection strategies. Eighteen participants from 5 to 10 years of age were involved to enlist words including phonological features such as پھ /pʰ/, خ /x/, غ /ɣ/ and ز /z/ which have a different realization in Hindi. They were also asked to name their favorite cartoons. They named *Doraemon*, *Motu Patlu*, *Chota Bheem*, *Abdul Bari* and *Vir: The Robot boy* among their favorite cartoon shows. The researchers watched these cartoons to decide how frequently the selected phonemes were pronounced in these cartoons shows. Both in *Doraemon* and *Motu Patlu*, Hindi phones such as کھ /kʰ/ in place of خ /x/ [کھوبی→خوبی (*Khoobi*-quality)] and گ /g/ for غ /ɣ/ [غصہ → گصہ (*Gussa*-anger)]

were used overwhelmingly. *Doraemon* was one of the favorite cartoons shows of the participants. The pilot study showed that children preferred *Doraemon* and *Motu Patlu over Abdul Bari*. One reason of its less popularity is that it highlights socio-religious values which guide children about morality and ethical practices. Unlike this, children like naughty and mischievous characters which take them into fantasy world.

The participants were also asked about the number of hours they watch their favorite cartoons in a day. As many as 50% of the participants between 5-6 years watched cartoons from 5 to 6 hours in a day and rest of the participants' (7-10 years) watching time was from 3 to 4 hours in a day. The pilot study revealed that older the participants, lesser the watching time was. Pearson Chi-square 002<.05 shows a significant difference between the cartoon watching time and the age group. This result is in-line with previous studies (c.f., Yousaf et al. 2015; Ergun, 2012; Buyukbaykal, 201; Gunter, Charlton, Coles & Panting, 2000) which demonstrate a positive correlation between the watching time and the age bracket of children.

Table 1 shows the words and Urdu and Hindi phones used to elicit the data. It is important to note that the selected phonemes have some unique manner of articulation in Urdu: (a) 'خ' /x/ is unaspirated, voiceless, velar/ uvular fricative unlike 'کھ' /kh/ which is aspirated, voiceless and a velar stop, (b) 'غ' /ɣ/ is unaspirated, voiced and velar fricative, whereas 'گ' /g/ is unaspirated, voiced and a velar stop, (c) 'پھ /pʰ/' is aspirated, voiceless and a bilabial stop, in contrast to 'ف '/f/ that is unaspirated, voiceless labiodental fricative and (d) 'ز' /z/ is fricative alveolar voiced, however 'ج' /d͡ʒ/ is unaspirated, voiced, palatal stop.

Table 1: Urdu phones with their Hindi variations and their usage in words

Urdu phoneme	Hindi sound	Words with their meanings
خ /x/ خوش	کھ /kʰ/ کھوش	خوش (*Khush*-happy); خربوزہ (*Kharbooza* -melon); خالی (*Khali/Khatam*-finished); خرگوش (*Khargosh*-rabbit); ناخن (*Nakhun*-nail); خون (*Khoon*-blood); *خراب (Kharab*-out of order)
غ /ɣ/ غبارہ	گ /g/ گبارہ	غبارہ (*Ghubara*-balloon); غائب (*Gaib*-vanished); غصہ (*Ghussa*-anger); غلط *Galat* (wrong); مرغا (*Murgha*-cock); فارغ (*Farigh*-free); غریب(*Ghareeb*-poor)
پھ /pʰ/ پھونک	ف /f/ فونک	پھونک (*Phoonk*-blow); پھلانا *(Phulana*-blow); *پھول* (*Phool*-flower); پھسل (*Phisal*-slipped); پھٹ (*Phat*-torn); پھینک (*Phaink*-throw); پھاڑنا *Pharna* (tear apart)
ز (/z/) زور	ج /d͡ʒ/ جور	*زبان(Zaban*-tongue); زردی (*Zardi*-Yolk); زرافہ (*Zarafa*-Giraffe); زمین (*Zameen*-Earth); زیادہ *Ziada*-more); زکام (*Zukam*-Flu); زور (*Zor*-strongly)

The data was collected from participants through picture naming technique (see e.g., Tavakoli, 2011). The picture naming technique motivated them to produce the data required to address the underlying research question. Mannay (2013) argues that picture naming technique is valuable being objective and free from researchers' influence. Throughout the data elicitation process, the sequence of each picture was kept identical. One of the researchers acted as an observer while recording the data that was transcribed later and assigned pre-decided codes such as; Urdu pronunciation= 1, Hindi Pronunciation= 2, and any other pronunciation=3. This pre-coded-number-marking technique was devised and adopted to keep the process simple, clear and uncomplicated. Some additional demographic information (such as age, favorite cartoon shown and watching time) was also taken from the participants to interpret the findings.

The data was drawn from 5 to 10 years old participants. This age group was further classified into six subgroups (such as five-year-old, six-year-old, seven-year-old, eight-year-old, nine-year-old and ten-year-old) that covered the span of one-year. A sample of 84 participants including 14 participants from each year were selected to study the phonemic variation demonstrated in table 1. They were attending middle class English medium schools. Although most of them were from Punjabi parents, Urdu was their school and home language. They are not encouraged to speak Punjabi for various reasons. But most of them if not all acquire Punjabi from informal discourses. In many ways, the sample was homogenous and sufficient to address the research question.

3.1.1 Ethical Considerations

Murphy and Ding wall's ethical guidelines: respecting the participants' rights, confidentiality and autonomy, avoiding any harmful effects to them, and trying to treat them fairly and equitably were considered while collecting, handling and analyzing the data (cited in Uwe Flick, 2009, p.37). The consent of the schools' administration was taken prior to the data collection as it was very difficult to approach each parent in this process. The phonemic variation was marked by one of the researchers without giving any hint about the appropriateness of the pronunciation. The participants were not guided about the true nature of the study as it could have steered their responses in undesired directions. They were distracted by the impression that this is only an easy everyday picture naming activity. British Association for Applied Linguistics (2016) does not term this distraction as deception as it is in-line with the research objectives and is not harmful to the participants apparently. The researchers used the Urdu language for communication (Crowley, 2007) with the participants throughout the data elicitation process. This helped build up a rapport with the participants.

3.2 Data Analysis

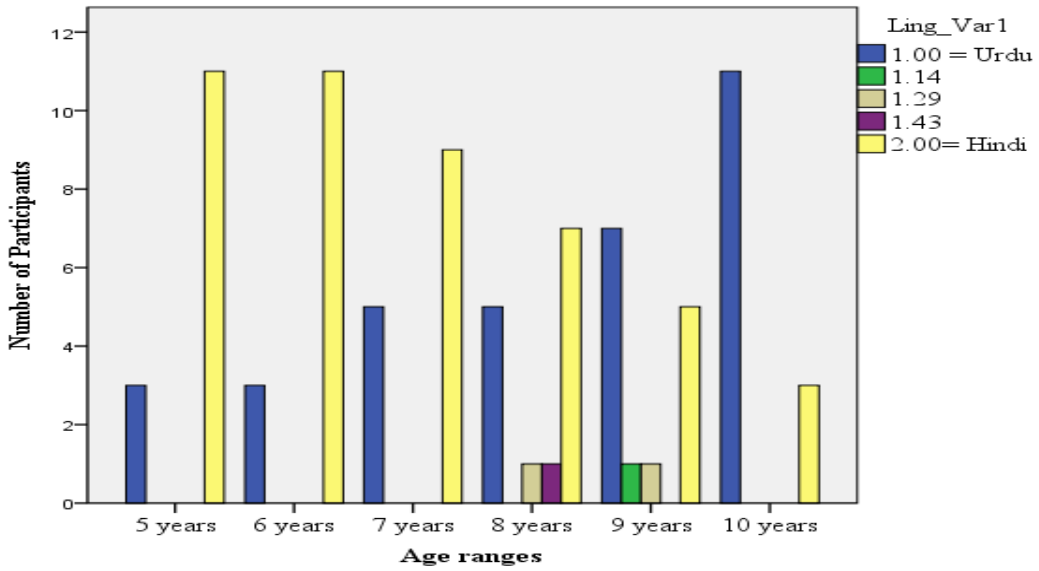
Labovian Apparent Time Hypothesis was used as theoretical lens to analyze the data gathered from six age groups. As many as 28 words from each participant were recorded based on the above-mentioned four variants. The data was assigned pre-coded numbers for SPSS analysis. Initially, a descriptive analysis was done to find out what are the phonological alterations in the speech of the children by calculating frequencies. Afterwards, the variation patterns were classified in each age group. The Chi-square Pearson was calculated to measure the correlation between the linguistic variants and the age groups. However, in order to gauge the strength of the relationship, the symmetric measure was also calculated. This was useful to show how powerful the relationship is between the two variables. The quantitative measurement of the data led to generalization of the findings beyond the selected sample.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Use of 'خ' /x/ or 'کھ' /kʰ/

The data analysis regarding the linguistic variable 'خ' /x/ reveals that of 14 participants from 5 to 6 years old, 11 of them pronounced 'خ' (/x/) as 'کھ' (/kʰ/) and the remaining 3 articulated Urdu phonemes. They pronounced کھرگوش instead of خرگوش. However, relatively less variation was observed in the pronunciation of these variants by seven-year-old participants. That is; 9 out of 14 participants chose Hindi variant. The pronunciation of Hindi variant 'کھ' (/kʰ/) was gradually decreasing in rest of the age groups. Although the older participants especially from 8 to 10 years old articulated some words such as *kharbooza*, *khargosh*, and *nakhun* with the Urdu phoneme خ /x/, they also pronounced *khush*, *khali/ khatam*, *khoon*, and *kharab* with the Hindi phonemes 'کھ' (/kʰ/).

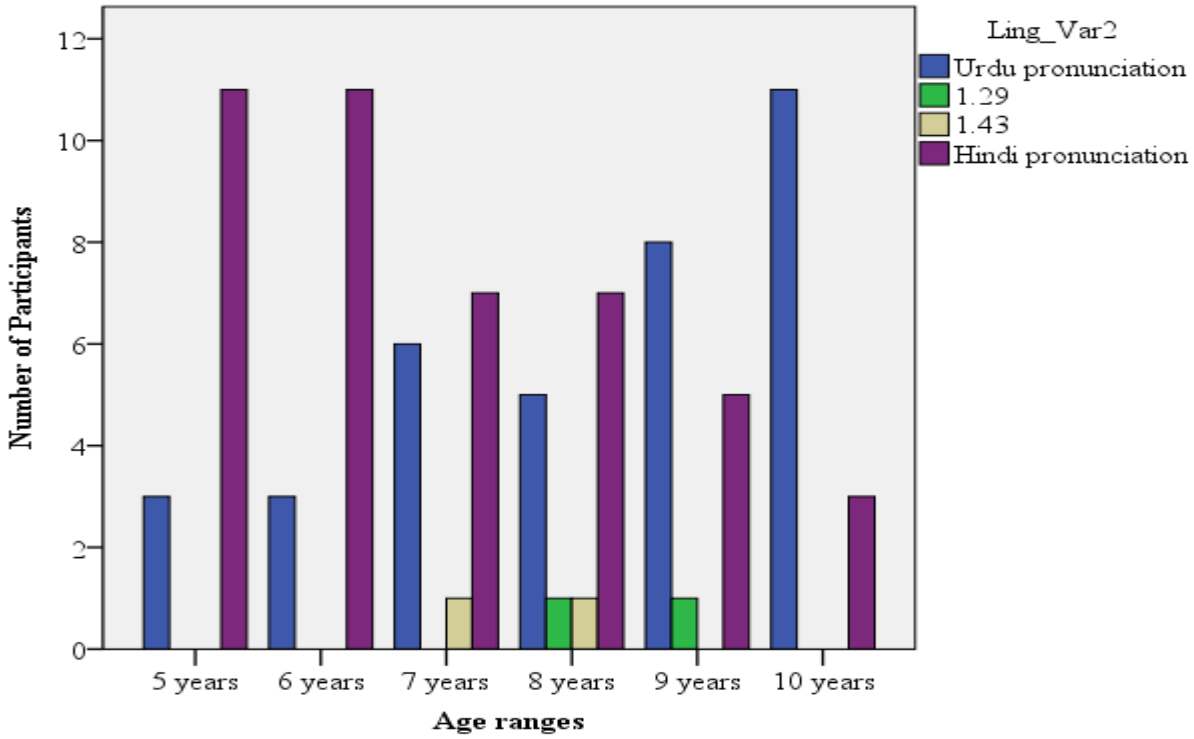
Storkel and Morrisette (2002) assert that phonology and lexicon keep on influencing each other in the phase of language development. They have cited Girolametto, Pearce, & Weitzman (1997) whose research vouch that the process of a child's phonological acquisition is likely to be influenced by the lexical knowledge and vice versa. So, once a lexical representation is activated, it will also activate its corresponding phonological representation. Therefore, when children frequently listen to some lexical items in the cartoon shows, their corresponding sounds also get installed into their memory and they start associating those specific sounds with those lexical items. Pearson Chi-square value (.009<.05, .02<.05, .01<.05) which is less than .05 across the age groups shows statistically significant relationship between var-1 and var-2 as demonstrated in figure 1.



1= Urdu Pronunciation 'خ' (/x/), 2= Hindi Pronunciation 'کھ' (/kʰ/)
Figure 1: Variation in Pronunciation of 'خ' (/x/) Across Age Groups

4.2 Use of 'غ' (/ɣ/) or 'گ' (/g/)

The second linguistic variable 'غ' /ɣ/ was pronounced 'گ' (/g/) by 11 out of 14 participants from 5 to 6 years. They pronounced 'غائب' as 'گائب' and 'غلط' as 'گلط'. Of 14, only 3 of them pronounced the Urdu phoneme 'غ' /ɣ/. As many as 50% of the participants articulated words such as *Ghubara, Murgha, Farigh* and *Ghareeb* with 'غ' /ɣ/ and the remaining 50% chose 'گ' /g/ phoneme in the pronunciation of these words. In two different age groups, 9 participants pronounced 'غصہ' as 'گصہ' and 'غلط' as 'گلط' and 8 participants pronounced 'غائب' as 'گائب'. Moreover, Pearson Chi-square value (.009<.05, .006<.05, .014<.05) which is less than .05 across the age groups shows statistically significant relationship between var-1 (age) and var-2 (linguistic variable 'غ'/ɣ/) as demonstrated in figure 2. Moreover, the symmetric measure that ranges between 41%-44% also reveals a strong relationship between this variant and age.



1= Urdu Pronunciation ‘غ’ (/ɣ/), 2= Hindi Pronunciation ‘گ’ (/g/)

Figure 2: Pronunciation Variation of ‘غ’/ɣ/ Across Age Groups

As it is evident in figure 2, the participants who were five-year-old, six-year-old and ten-year-old exhibited the pronunciation variation in all words containing ‘غ’ /ɣ/. A majority of the participants of five and six years pronounced ‘گ’ (/g/) in place of ‘غ’ (/ɣ/), unlike them those who were ten-year-old chose Urdu phoneme, overwhelmingly. Interestingly, some participants who used Hindi phoneme in the pronunciation of ‘غلط’, ‘غصہ’ and ‘غائب’, pronounced the rest of the words using Urdu phoneme. As noted in the following excerpt drawn from *Motu Patlu*, there is a repeated use of ‘گ’ (/g/) phoneme, which in many ways reinforces its presence in the linguistic repertoire of young participants. This example clearly illustrates how children frequently listen to some words and their pronunciation more often as compared to others which resultantly leaves a certain impact on their minds sometimes leading to phonemic variation.

اگر یہ کامیاب رہی تو گریب سے گریب آدمی بھی اسے کھرید سکتا ھے

[If it proves successful even a poor man can buy it.]

موٹو: یہ سموسہ گائب ہو جائے

Motu: I wish this samosa gets vanished.

پتلو: ارے! سموسے کھالی نہیں مانگ سکتے تھے کیا؟

Putlu: You could have wished for the samosas alone?

پتلو: سارے سموسے گائب ہو جاءیں

Putlu: I wish all samosas are vanished.

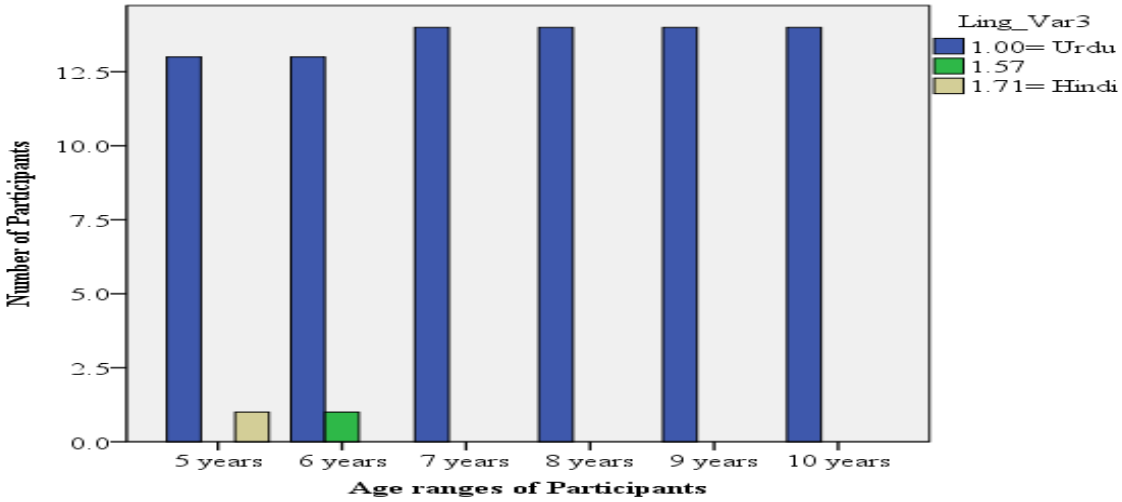
موٹو: یہ کیا سارے سموسے گائب کردیے۔

Motu: What? Why did you get all samosas vanished?]

4.3 Use of ‘ز’ /z/ and ‘ج’ /d͡ʒ/

The five years old pronounced five words having ‘ز’ (/z/) as ‘ج’ (/d͡ʒ/) i.e. ‘زرافہ’ as ‘جرافہ’, ‘زمین’ as ‘جمین’ ، ‘زیادہ’ as ‘جیادہ’ ، ‘زکام’ as ‘جکام’ and ‘زور’ as ‘جور’. On the other hand, 6 years old participant pronounced these four words using Hindi pronunciation except ‘زمین’. The data exhibits the phonological impact of the Hindi language cartoons on the speech of these two participants. Whatever input they had

from the Hindi dubbed cartoons, they tried to imitate it and the influence of cartoons is evident in their speech. All participants pronounced ‘زبان’ and ‘زردی’ with Urdu phones. Other five words containing ‘ز’/z/ were also pronounced properly by eighty-two participants. Pearson Chi-square value (.53>.05, .40>.05) which is more than .05 across the age groups shows statistically insignificant relationship between var-1 and var-2 as indicated in figure 3. Furthermore, the symmetric measure that ranges between 22%-24% also supports an insignificant relationship between the variant and age.

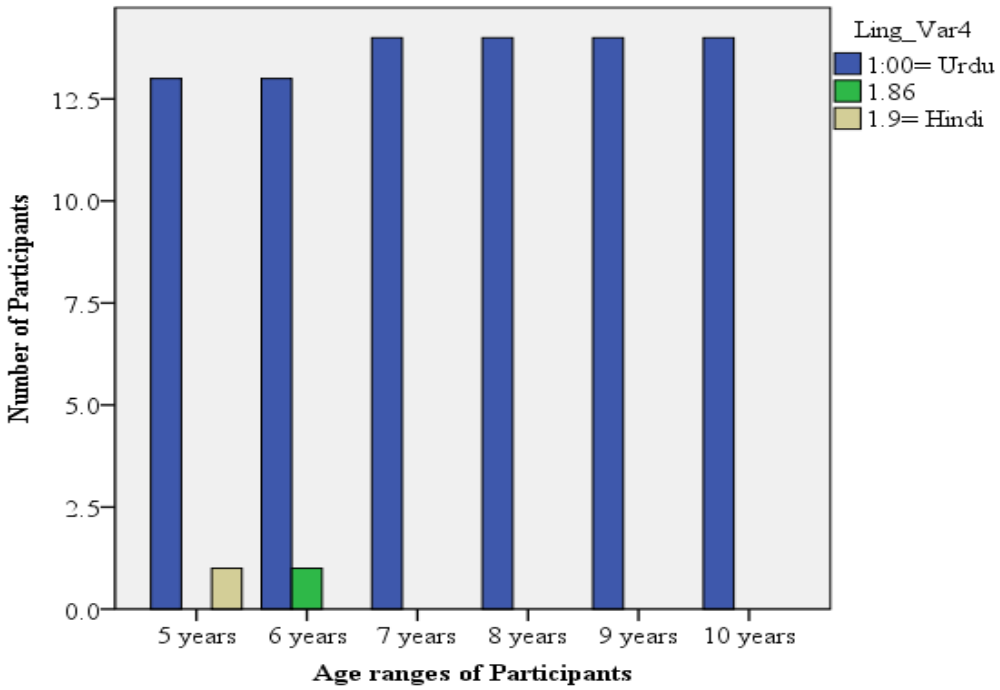


1= Urdu Pronunciation ‘ز’ /z/, 2= Hindi Pronunciation ‘ج’ /d͡ʒ/

Figure 3: Phonological Variation of ‘ز’ /z/ Across Age groups

4.4 Use of ‘پھ’ /pʰ/ and ‘ف’ /f/

Although ‘ف’ (/f/) is frequently pronounced in Bollywood movies, songs and Hindi drama shows, there is more use of Urdu phoneme ‘پھ’ /pʰ/ in the Hindi dubbed cartoons. For example; the Urdu phoneme ‘پھ’ /pʰ/ is used in *Doraemon*. Unlike this cartoon show, the characters in *Abdul Bari* pronounce all ‘پھ’ /pʰ/ words with ‘ف’ /f/’. Hence, the participants who were not watching *Abdul Bari* could pronounce ‘پھ /pʰ/’. On the other hand, two of the participants who were exposed to *Abdul Bari* pronounced پھلانا as ‘فلانا’ and ‘پھونک’ as ‘فونک’. Moreover, five-year-old participants pronounced ‘پھ’ /pʰ/ in all seven words as ‘ف’ /f/ whereas the six-year-old participant pronounced ‘پھول’ correctly while other six words were pronounced with Hindi phones. Pearson Chi-square value (.53>.05, .40>.05) across the age groups is greater than .05 which shows statistically insignificant relationship between var-1 and var-2 as demonstrated in figure 4. The symmetric measure that ranges between 22%-24% also supports a weak relationship between the variant and age.



1= Urdu Pronunciation ‘پھ’ /pʰ/, 2= Hindi Pronunciation ‘ف’ /f/

1.1.1.1.1.1.1 Figure 4: Phonological Variation of ‘پھ /pʰ/’ Across Age Groups

5. Conclusion

Although Hindi dubbed cartoons influence the language of Urdu/English bilingual children, there is no evidence of its long-term impact. However, the short-term impact is only due to the initial excessive linguistic exposure to the cartoons shows in case. Not surprisingly, children tend to imitate the pronunciation of their favorite cartoons until the maturation of their linguistic competence in Urdu (as their primary language of communication), English (one of the academic languages or the most prestigious second language), Punjabi (the regional language for an informal communication) and Arabic (for worship and to recite the Holy Quran) as supported by Bloomfield (1933) that the process of addition and deletion undergoes until the age of puberty. This study counters the parental fear about the use of Hindi words and sounds by their children which was politicized and sensationalized by Pakistani media. Both Urdu and Hindi share a lot of common linguistic properties. The difference between them is only ideological and political so this a growing fear of Pakistani parents about the Hindi dubbed cartoons. Needless to say, a language is mere a structure of words. It is its use that can be invasive. Cartoon programs, however, due to their immense popularity in children, can act as an effective communication tool in delivering the national and the regional languages as well as teaching them multilingual skills for national cohesion.

6. Limitations of the Study

The data was gathered from 5 to 10 years old schoolchildren over four linguistic variables only. The researchers used the picture naming technique for data elicitation than lived experiences of children and parents.

7. Direction for Future Research

The study suggests investigating the underlying research question with more than four variants and beyond this age bracket of 5-10 years old school children. The study suggests promoting multilingualism and cultural cohesion through local cartoon productions.

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Gender Difference in the Use of Request Strategies by Urdu/Punjabi Native Speakers

Hussain Muzaffar, Firdos Atta & Zahid Ali

Abstract

This paper investigates differences in the use of request strategies by Urdu/Punjabi male and female native speakers, who are learning English as a second language. The data were collected from 68 graduate students. They were given an online close-ended questionnaire, based on (Sh Hause, & Kasper, 1989) Discourse Completion Test (DCT). After analyzing the data, it was found that the L1 male Urdu/Punjabi speakers are inclined to use more direct request strategies while the female Urdu/Punjabi speakers use indirect request strategies. The data showed that in some situations female participants used more direct strategies than male counterparts. This study indicates that cultural stereotypes, social status and power distribution in a society influence the use of request strategies, even in a single linguistics community.

Keywords: Gender, variation, request strategies, face-threatening, second language, pragmatics, language competence.

1. Introduction

Language is fundamental to humans and a powerful tool to communicate in social settings. The success of communication heavily realises on the appropriate use of the language in a given context. Request strategies are understood as a part of the speech acts (Austin, 1962). Request strategies are frequently used during on /offline communication. Gender difference in linguistic studies is not a new topic. There is a substantial amount of literature supported by empirical studies that show gender based linguistic variations between male and female speakers. These studies also claim that the language abilities of females are better than males. Slutsky (1942) for example, found that females are linguistically superior to males from infancy to adulthood. (Maccoby & D'Andrade, 1966) found that during preschool females showed better verbal performance, including when they utter their first words. They are also able to produce rather long and clear sentences. (Reznick & Goldsmith, 1989) reported that females score higher than males on the measurement of vocabulary. Later these results were also confirmed by (Reynell & Gruber, 1990), (Reznick & Goldsmith, 1989) and (Fenson et al., 1994). (Huttenlocher, Haight, Bryk, Seltzer, & Lyons, 1991) studied two years old children and found that females acquire new words at a faster rate than males during the early two years. In recent years, cross-cultural studies have shown that there are differences in the use of request strategies. However, to the best of my knowledge, there is no study which has examined gender-based variation in adult Urdu/Punjabi speakers, who are learning English as the second language.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Request strategies

Requests are frequently used in everyday communication. A request is understood as a polite demand (Nelson, 2002). Requests are face threatening acts which threaten the hearer's negative face (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Speech acts are performed by the utterances such as: giving an order; making promises; complaining and requesting (Austin, 1962). Searle, (2962) regards that the requests are a part of the second category of classification of illocutionary acts, 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).

The use of request strategies is influenced by socio-cultural factors. A requestee has to be careful about the linguistic resources and request properly in given situations (Suh, 1999) Request strategies have been classified into three categories:

(i) Indirect Requests applied for pragmatic impersonal expression/s or practice opportunities.

(ii) Conventionally Indirect Requests are the use of "polite language, conditional tense, modal verbs, and optional use of please".

(iii) Direct Request, the use of imperatives or present and future tense.

2.2 Theoretical concerns

2.2.1 The Speech Act Theory

"Speech Act Theory" suggests that many utterances instead of conveying information are considered as equivalent to actions (Austin, 1962). Such utterances are called speech acts. Speech acts are categorized into four classes:

i. Verdictives
ii. Exercisitives
iii. Expositives
iv. Behabitatives

Searle, 1969, argued that speech acts are rule governed and carry meanings. They are performed by illocutionary force, indicating devices which are created by constitutive rules. (Searle, 1983) suggests that speech acts such as "request" and "apology" are governed by four types of felicity conditions, "preparatory conditions, sincerity conditions, prepositional content conditions, and essential conditions".

The idea of an indirect speech act was propagated by (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The hearer sometimes hears both direct and indirect speech acts. To attain politeness in speech, the speaker uses some level of indirectness (Naz et al., 2014).

To be polite in communication is difficult because speakers have to consider the cultural and social values simultaneously. This situation becomes more challenging when the idea of politeness in request strategies is compared with other language speakers.

2.3 Previous studies on request strategies

Previous studies identified social norms playing a role in the use of request strategies, for example; (House & Kasper, 1981) compared German and English native speakers. The found that that English speakers are indirect, while German speakers are more direct in the use of request strategies. (Sh et al., 1989) compared Hebrew with Canadian and American English. She discusses that social power and social distance play an important role in the use of request strategies. The selection of request strategies seems more culturally specific than the influence of a language that a community speak. The politeness in speech is not suggested by the language form, but it is more linked with the understating of the context of a speech act.

(Wierzbicka, 1985) hypothesized that request strategies are mainly influenced by cultural norms. He compared request strategies by native English and Polish speakers and found that English request strategies are influenced by the interrogative sentences and avoidance of the direct use of imperatives. While on the other hand, Polish native speakers consider that interrogative moods are associated with hostility and distance. In some cases, the presence of specific linguistic aspect in a language might make a language direct or indirect. The Arabic language has fewer model verbs which make it more direct (Atawneh, 1991).

Request strategies are also influenced by mother language, and a positive transformation of pragmatic rules plays a role in the use of request strategies (Kim, 1995). The politeness in speech is decided by the higher degree of

obligation (Fukushima, 1996). If a native language uses longer request strategies and the second language speakers might use the same patterns in the second language (Byon, 2004).

The present study investigates the use of request strategies between native speakers of Urdu/Punjabi who are learning English as a second language. This will help in understanding that even in the same linguistic community there might be a difference between male and female in the use of request strategies.

2.4 Research Question

i. Do L1 Urdu/Punjabi male and female speakers use different request strategies?

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

The data were collected from a total number of 68 postgraduate students (46 male and 22 female) at the University of Sargodha Campus Gujranwala. Their ages range from 18- to22. All participants are native Urdu/Punjabi speakers. They are learning English as a second language from primary schools and now can be labelled as multilingual.

3.2 Data collection procedure

The data were collected by the DCT (Discourse completion Test) after some amendments to serve the purpose of the present research. Originally this test presents an open-ended situation to the participants; however, we have made it close ended by presenting different options to the participants. All the given options carry the same possible responses which were expected from the participants (see Appendix I). This questionnaire presents 9 situations on 3 different levels:

i. Higher to lower ranking
ii. Equal to equal ranking
iii. Lower to higher ranking

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:

i. "**Mood derivable:** utterances in which grammatical mood of the verb indicates illocutionary force (Clean up the mess).

ii. **Performatives**: utterances in which illocutionary force is clearly mentioned (I am asking you to close the window).

iii. **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).

iv. **Obligation statements**: utterances which state the hearer's obligation to perform the act (You have to clean the mess).

v. **Want statements**: utterances which indicate the speakers desire that the hearer performs the tasks (I really wish you'd stop smoking)

vi. **Suggestory formulas**: utterances which include a suggestion to do something ('How about lending me some money!).

vii. **Query preparatories:** utterances containing a reference to preparatory conditions (e.g. ability, willingness) as conventionalized in different languages (Would/Could you lend me five pounds, please?

viii. **Strong hints**: utterances containing a partial reference to an element needed for the performance of the act (You have left the kitchen in a terrible mess).

ix. **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 (Sh et al., 1989)."

Therefore, each response of the participants was analyzed and classified accordingly by considering it directness or indirectness.

4. Results

4.1 Male participants

4.1.1 Higher to lower ranking

This level presents 3 different situations to the participants:

Higher to Lower						
Strategies	Situation 1 Frequency	(%)	Situation 2 Frequency	(%)	Situation 3 Frequency	(%)
1 Mood derivable	12	26%	3	7%	3	7%
2 Performatives	3	7%	0	0%	3	7%
3 Hedge performatives	1	2%	2	4%	1	2%
4 Obligation statements	4	9%	1	2%	0	0%
5 Want statements	0	0%	3	7%	1	2%
6 Suggestory formulas	4	9%	2	4%	2	4%
7 Query preparatories	17	37%	18	39%	7	15%
8 Strong Hints	3	7%	0	0%	28	61%
9 Mild Hints	2	4%	17	37%	1	2%
	46	100%	46	100%	46	100%

i. Situation 1:

"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?"

The above chart shows that on higher to lower level, male participants used 26% mood derivable request strategies on situation 1, while 37% query preparatories request strategies. The other note able use of request strategies is mild hint, which is 4 %.

ii. Situation 2:

"You have bought a pair of shoes for your mother, and s/he does not like it. You want to exchange it with another, how would you request/ask to the manager of the store to exchange the pair of shoes?"

On situation 39% male participants chose the query preparatories request strategies, and 37% mild hint, 7% percent mood derivable and 7% want statement.

iii. Situation 3:

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

On situation 3, the most used request strategy is strong hints, which is 61% by the male participants, 15 query preparatory, and 7% for mood derivable and performative request strategies.

4.1.2 Equal to equal ranking

Equal to Equal						
Strategies	**Situation 1 (N)**	**Situation 1 (%)**	**Situation 2 (N)**	**Situation 2 (%)**	**Situation 3 (N)**	**Situation 3 (%)**
1 Mood derivable	23	50%	2	4%	4	9%
2 Performatives	3	7%	1	2%	14	30%
3 Hedge performatives	1	2%	2	4%	2	4%
4 Obligation statements	0	0%	0	0%	3	7%
5 Want statements	1	2%	3	7%	1	2%

6 Suggestory formulas	2	4%	0	0%	0	0%
7 Query preparatories	4	9%	31	67%	12	26%
8 Strong Hints	3	7%	7	15%	8	17%
9 Mild Hints	9	20%	0	0%	2	4%
	46	100%	46	100%	46	100%

i. Situation 1

"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?"

On equal to equal level the participants produced 50% mood derivable and second highest percentage is mild hint with a total of 20%. They selected 9% query preparatories ; performative 7% and similarly 7% strong hint. They also selected 4% suggestory formulas; 2% hedge performatives and want statements.

i. Situation 2

"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?"

Against the situation two 67% participants selected the query preparatories request strategies, and then 15% strong hint. The want statement 7% and mood derivable 4% and hedge performatives are also 4%. Lastly performatives are 2%.

ii. Situation 3

"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?"

On third situation of level 1, these male participants selected 30% Performative query preparatories 26% and then strong hint 17%. The other notable use of request strategies is mood derivable with 9% and similarly 7% obligatory statement. Lastly 4% mild hint and hedge performative.

4.1.3 Lower to higher-ranking

Lower to Higher						
Strategies	**Situation 1 (N)**	**Situation 1 (%)**	**Situation 2 (N)**	**Situation 2 (%)**	**Situation 3 (N)**	**Situation 3 (%)**
1 Mood derivable	0	0%	0	0%	3	7%
2 Performatives	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
3 Hedge performatives	4	9%	1	2%	2	4%
4 Obligation statements	2	4%	0	0%	0	0%
5 Want statements	14	30%	4	9%	7	15%
6 Suggestory formulas	1	2%	1	2%	0	0%
7 Query preparatories	14	30%	38	83%	26	57%
8 Strong Hints	4	9%	2	4%	8	17%
9 Mild Hints	7	15%	0	0%	0	0%
	46	100%	46	100%	46	100%

On this third level of lower to higher ranking, the participants also respond in the form of selecting request strategies:

i. Situation 1

"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?"

In response to the first situation, the male participants selected 30% Want statement 30% and query preparatories 30% request strategies. mild hint 15% and strong hints

and hedge performative 9%. Lastly, they selected 4 % percent obligation statements and 2 suggestory formulas.

ii. Situation 2

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

On situation 2, male participants selected 83% query preparatory request strategies and want statement 9%. Strong hints 4% and 2% hedge performatives.

iii. Situation 3

"You want to request to the Principal of your department to write you a recommendation letter. What would you say to him?"

Male participants on situation 3 selected 57% query preparatory request strategies and 15% want statements. They also selected 17 strong hints. Lastly, they selected 7% mood derivable request strategies.

4.2 Female participants:

4.2.1 Higher to lower ranking

Higher to Lower						
Strategies	**Situation 1 (N)**	**Situation 1 (%)**	**Situation 2 (N)**	**Situation 2 (%)**	**Situation 3 (N)**	**Situation 3 (%)**
1 Mood derivable	9	41%	0	0%	2	9%
2 Performatives	4	18%	0	0%	0	0%
3 Hedge performatives	0	0%	3	14%	0	0%
4 Obligation statements	0	0%	0	0%	1	5%
5 Want statements	0	0%	1	5%	0	0%
6 Suggestory formulas	0	0%	0	0%	2	9%
7 Query preparatories	6	27%	4	18%	0	0%
8 Strong Hints	0	0%	1	5%	17	77%
9 Mild Hints	3	14%	13	59%	0	0%
	22	100%	22	100%	22	100%

i. Situation 1

"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?"

Female participants selected Mood derivable 41%l; Query preparatories 27% Performatives 18% and lastly 14% mild hints.

ii. Situation 2

"You have bought a pair of shoes for your mother, and s/he does not like it. You want to exchange it with another, how would you request/ask to the manager of the store to exchange the pair of shoes?"

On situation 2 female participants selected 59 mild hints and 18% Query preparatories. About 14% hedge performative request strategies are used. Lastly 5% strong hints request strategies are selected.

iii. Situation 3

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

In order to order a pizza on this situation 77% female participant selected strong hints request strategies; 9% mood derivable and similar 9% suggestory formulas; 5% obligation statements.

4.2.2 Equal to equal ranking

Equal to Equal						
Strategies	**Situation 1 (N)**	**Situation 1 (%)**	**Situation 2 (N)**	**Situation 2 (%)**	**Situation 3 (N)**	**Situation 3 (%)**
1 Mood derivable	13	59%	5	23%	0	0%
2 Performatives	2	9%	0	0%	0	0%
3 Hedge performatives	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
4 Obligation statements	2	9%	0	0%	0	0%
5 Want statements	1	5%	0	0%	0	0%
6 Suggestory formulas	0	0%	0	0%	1	5%
7 Query preparatories	0	0%	9	41%	8	36%
8 Strong Hints	0	0%	7	32%	11	50%
9 Mild Hints	4	18%	1	5%	2	9%
	22	100%	22	100%	22	100%

i. Situation 1

"You are walking with your friend, who is slow; you want to walk quickly because you have to reach somewhere in time. What will you say to your friend to make him walk as fast as you are?"

On this situation female participants selected 59 mood derivable request strategies and 9% performative hedge; again 9% obligation statements; 5%want statements and lastly 18% mild hints.

ii. Situation 2

"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?"

Female participants selected 23% moods derivable request strategies and 41% query preparatories; 32% strong hints; and 5% mild hints.

iii. Situation 3

"In your neighborhood, 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?"

On situation 5% suggestory formulas request strategies were selected; 36% query preparatory and 50% strong hints were selected. Lastly, 9% mild hints request strategies were selected.

4.2.3 Lower to higher-ranking

Lower to Higher						
Strategies	**Situation 1 (N)**	**Situation 1 (%)**	**Situation 2 (N)**	**Situation 2 (%)**	**Situation 3 (N)**	**Situation 3 (%)**
1 Mood derivable	1	5%	0	0%	0	0%
2 Performatives	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
3 Hedge performatives	1	5%	1	5%	4	18%
4 Obligation statements	1	5%	0	0%	0	0%
5 Want statements	4	18%	0	0%	0	0%
6 Suggestory formulas	1	5%	0	0%	0	0%
7 Query preparatories	1	5%	14	64%	12	55%
8 Strong Hints	6	27%	5	23%	6	27%
9 Mild Hints	7	32%	2	9%	0	0%
	22	100%	22	100%	22	100%

i. Situation 1

"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?"

On lower to higher level, situation 1, the female participants selected 5% mood derivable request strategies; 5% hedge performatives; 5% obligation statements;18% want statements, 5% suggestory formulas;5% quesry preparatory and 27% strong hints, and lastly 32% mild hints request strategies are selected.

ii. Situation 2

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

On situation 2, 5% hedge performative request strategies were selected and 64% query preparatories; 23% strong hints and 9% mild hints were selected.

i. Situation 3

"You want to request to the Principal of your department to write you a recommendation letter. What would you say to him?"

On situation 3 of lower to higher level, female participants, selected 18% hedge performative request strategies and 55% query preparatories; 27% strong hints.

5. Discussion

As mentioned earlier, the present study investigates the gender-based difference between adult male and female English language learners. They were given an online questionnaire, and their responses in electronic form were received.

5.1 Higher to lower

Situation 1

In this situation, these male and female participants were asked to select the best option. They were asked this question, "*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".* In response to this question 37 % query preparatory request strategies were chosen. Female participants on the same situation selected 41% mood derivable and 27% query preparatory and 18% performative and 14% mild hints request strategies.

The data against the first situation on higher to lower level shows that male English as second language learners have shown an inclination to be indirectness by using 37 % query preparatory, while most female participants are direct in selecting about 41% mood derivable request strategies. But the selection of 27% query preparatory and 18%mildhints make them direct in using request strategies.

Situation 2

In situation 2 the participants were given a condition where they have to return the pair of shoes, "*You have bought a pair of shoes for your mother, and s/he does not like it. You want to exchange it with another, how would you request/ask the manager of the store to exchange the pair of shoes".* The male participants on situation 2 selected 39% query preparatory request strategies, which indicates that they are inclined to use indirect request strategies, similarly, they selected 37% mild hints request strategies, which is again a sign of using indirect request strategies. While on the other hand, it can be noticed that 59% mild hints request strategies were selected by female counterparts, this indicates that the female participants are also using indirect request strategies. They also showed an inclination of using 18% query preparatory, which is also an indication of using indirect request strategies. In situation 2, it can be noticed that most male and female English learners prefer to use indirect request strategies.

Situation 3

Here these participants were supposed to order a pizza, "*You need to order home delivery pizza. You call the food shop, what would you say to order a pizza".* The

result shows that 61% of participants used strong hints request strategies, "Would/ could you deliver a pizza please?". This shows an inclination towards indirectness in the request to order a pizza. While the female participants used 77% strong hints "I want to order a pizza delivery", this also shows that they are indirect in the use of request strategies.

In this level, we see that the participants were given an opportunity to suppose themselves on a higher rank. There data on these 3situation show that on situation 1 male participants were indirect and female direct and on situation 2 both showed a similar tendency to use indirect request strategies. Lastly, In the situation, 3 both groups again showed the tendency to use indirect request strategies.

5.2 Equal to equal level

Situation 1

On equal to equal level is put the participants in a situation, where they were supposed to request their peers, friends or class fellows...etc. In this situation 1, the participants were asked, that "*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?"* The data show that male participants 50% selected mood derivable request strategies, which is a clear sign to be direct with friends. They selected 20% mild hint request strategies which are considered as to be inclined towards indirectness. The female participants also showed a similar tendency by selecting 59% mood derivable request strategies and 18 mild hints request strategies. This shows that both male and female English language learners are inclined to use direct request strategies when they speak English as a second language.

Situation 2

This situation is about asking someone to open the door, "*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?".* The results show that 67% used query preparatory request strategies, which is a sign to be indirect the use of request strategies. On the other hand, female participants used 23% mood derivable request strategies, which show their directness in use of request strategies. Furthermore, female participants selected 23% moods derivable request strategies and 41% query preparatory; 32% strong hints; and 5% mild hints. This indicates that they fluctuate between directness and indirectness.

Situation 3

This situation is related to social life when someone finds a loud music in his/her neighbourhood and he wants to stop it, "*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?".* The selection of the responses show that male participants selected 30 % performative request strategies, which is second in DCT scale, this is an indication of directness in communication and second highest use of request strategies is query preparatory (26%). Female participants remain overall indirect on this situation. They selected 50 strong hints and 36% query preparatory, which show an inclination towards indirectness. In this situation, it is can be seen that male remain direct and female showed an indirectness in their use of request strategies.

5.3 Lower to higher level

Situation 1

On this level, the participants were put into a lower ranking in social status, in the family, college. in situation 1, they were asked to request to father, "*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?". The male participants selected 30% wants statements request strategies, which is inclined to direct use of request strategies, and 30% query preparatory request strategies, which is an inclination towards indirect request strategies. They also selected 15% mild hints request strategies, which established them to be indirect overall. On the other hand, female participants, 32% mild hints, which is a clear sign of indirectness in the use request strategies. They also selected about 27% strong hints request strategies. In this way, mostly female participants in situation 1 remain indirect, while male counterparts remain direct.

Situation 2

On this situation participants have to ask their teacher for a pencil, "*You are sitting in your teacher's office and you need a pencil, unfortunately, you do not have one at that moment. How will you say/request to your supervisor to lend a pencil?"* Mostly, the male participants, about 83% selected query preparatory request strategies, which is strong inclination of indirectness. While on the other hand female participants also selected 64% query preparatory request strategies, which is a sign of indirectness in the use of request strategies. The other noticeable selection of request strategies is mild hints with a percentage of 23. Therefore, both groups are having an inclination towards indirectness.

Situation 3

In this last situation, the participants were supposed to ask a recommendation letter from their supervisor, "*You want to request to the Principal of your department to write you a recommendation letter. What would you say to him?".* The data shows that 57% of male participants selected query preparatory request strategies and 15% want statements. This indicates that they have a tendency to use indirect request strategies. The female participants have a similar tendency in the selection of request strategies, they selected 55% query preparatory and 27 strong hints and 15 want statements. This shows that these male and female English as second language learners are indirect in the use of request strategies when they on lower ranking.

Request strategies are most commonly used communication strategies (as mentioned in the beginning). Native English speakers generally use indirect request strategies, and indirect strategies appear to them impolite or rude. However, the present study showed that there is a clear difference in the use of request strategies between male and female. L1 Urdu/Punjabi speaker, who are learning English as the second language showed variation in the use request strategies. The use of request strategies seems language specific, for example, Urdu/Punjabi or Punjabi (both belong to the same family), speakers normally use direct request strategies. The data also indicate that they are direct in some situation. This can be interpreted as the influence of L1 on L2.

5.3 Further direction

This study leads to some more interesting research questions. For example, it will be interesting to see if the same use of request strategies is investigated among the socio-economic poor classes, in the context that request strategies are social class specific. The use of request strategies can also be investigated cross-linguistically. Urdu/Punjabi language can be compared with other languages, like Arabic; Persian; Hindi...etc.

6. Conclusion

The study has shown that there is there a gender-based difference in the use of request strategies among Pakistan English second language learners. Though generally females are considered more polite in the use of request strategies, this study shows that they are more direct in the use of request strategies. A possible explanation of this

phenomenon might be understood as because they live in a male dominant society, therefore, they have developed a tendency to react against this male dominance and they began to use direct request strategies.

In conclusion, it can be said that studies related to the use of request strategies are useful in giving insight about the social functional aspect of request strategies. The use of request strategies was assumed to be language specific. However, the present study concludes that there is a gender difference in the use of request strategies.

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Appendix I

Please select the best option

Recently, I am working on a researcher paper about the difference in the use of request strategies by Native English and Urdu/Punjabi / Punjabi speakers. This is an on-line questionnaire based on daily communication. You please think yourself in these different situations and select your best answer. Thanks for serving science.

Your mother language

Urdu
Punjabi

Your age

20-30
31-40
41-50
Other

Gender

Female
Male

Degree level

Intermediate
Graduation
Mater
M Phil/PhD
Other
…….

1. "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?"

- Open the window.
- I am asking you to open the window.
- I would like to ask you to open the window.
- You have to open the window.
- I really wish you'd open the window.
- How about opening the window?
- Would / Could you open the window, please?
- There is extremely no fresh air in the room.
- I feel suffocation.
- Option 10

2. "You have bought a pair of shoes for your mother, and s/he does not like it. You want to exchange it with another, how would you request/ask to the manager of the store to exchange the pair of shoes?"

- Change this pair of shoes.
- I am asking you to change the pair of shoes.
- I would like to ask you to change the pair of shoes.
- You have to change this pair of shoes.
- I really wish you change this pair of shoes.

- How about changing this pair of shoes?
- Would/ could you change this pair of shoes please?
- I don't like this pair of shoes.
- Do you have some other designs?

3. "You need to order home delivery pizza. You call to the food shop, what would you say to order a pizza?"

- Hello Deliver a pizza.
- I am asking you to deliver a pizza.
- I would like to ask you to deliver a pizza.
- You have to deliver a pizza.
- I really wish you deliver a pizza.
- How about delivering a pizza?
- Would/ could you deliver a pizza please?
- I want to order a pizza delivery.
- I am hungry.

4. "You are walking with your friend, who is slow; you want to walk quickly because you have to reach somewhere in time. What will you say to your friend to make him walk as fast as you are?"

- Walk quickly, I have to reach somewhere in time.
- I am asking you to walk quickly.
- I would like to ask you to walk quickly.
- You have to walk quickly.
- I really wish you walk quickly.
- How about walking quickly.
- Would/ could you walk quickly please?
- I want to reach there quickly.
- I am getting late.

5 "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?"

- Open the door.
- I am asking you to open the door.
- I would like to ask you to open the door.
- You have to open the door.
- I really wish you'd open the door.
- How about opening the door?
- Would / Could you open the door, please?
- I am carrying books open the door.
- My hands are busy.

6. "In your neighborhood, 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?"

- Slow down the music.
- I am asking you to slow down the music.
- I would like to ask you to slow down the music.
- You have to slow down the music.
- I really wish you'd slow down the music.
- How about slow down the music.
- Would / Could you slow down the music, please?
- I am studying, slow down the music.

- You are playing the music on very high volume.

7. “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?”

- Replay that scene.
- I am asking you to replay that scene.
- I would like to ask you to replay that scene.
- You have to replay that scene.
- I really wish you’d replay that scene.
- How about replaying that scene?
- Would / Could you replay that scene please?
- I like that scene.
- That was wonderful scene.

8. “You are sitting in your teacher’s office and you need a pencil, unfortunately you do not have one at that moment. How will you say/request to your supervisor to lend a pencil?”

- Give me your pencil.
- I am asking you to give me your pencil.
- I would like to ask you to give me your pencil.
- You have to give me your pencil.
- I really wish you’d give me your pencil.
- How about giving me your pencil.
- Would / Could you give me your pencil please?
- I don’t have pencil.
- I want to write something.

9. “You want to request to the Principal of your department to write you a recommendation letter. What would you say to him?”

- Write a recommendation letter for me.
- I am asking you to write a recommendation letter for me.
- I would like to ask you to write a recommendation letter for me.
- You have to write a recommendation letter for me.
- I really wish you’d write a recommendation letter for me.
- How about writing a recommendation letter for me?
- Would / Could you write a recommendation letter for me please?
- I need a recommendation letter.
- I will submit a recommendation letter.

1

English Language Borrowing in Sindhi Language

Dr. Panhwar Farida Yasmin

Abstract

The hypothesis of the current paper is that in Sindhi language there is extensive usage of lexical borrowing from English, specially, and other languages. The present study explores the percentage of the English lexical borrowing and the reasons of its use in the informal conversations among educated Sindhi speakers in Sindh, Pakistan. Following the established theories on loan borrowing, this paper is poised on the quantitative methodology. The data is collected using audio recordings and the questionnaires and it is analysed using SSPS to know percentage of the lexical borrowing and its reasons. The results reveal the extensive use of English borrowing and a few instances of Urdu and Arabic borrowing. Findings disclose two types of English borrowing, first is the cultural borrowing, also known as loanwords (without equivalent word) and second, core borrowing (in presence of equivalent word). Findings show that to fill lexical gaps is the main reason behind the use of loanwords while English core borrowing is used to achieve many interactive goals including construction of identity, fashion, taboo expressions etc.

Keywords: Loan words, cultural borrowing, core borrowing, lexical gap, identity.

Introduction

Pakistan is a multilingual society where a major population speaks their local language as their mother tongues (Sindhi, Punjabi, Balochi, Pashto, Dhatki, Kacchi, etc.), and national language Urdu; while the educated Pakistanis also speak English, the second official language and medium of instructions after grade 10th in the academic institutions (Rahman, 2006). Due to the multilingualism the code-switching (shift from one to another language) and lexical borrowing (loanwords) are the common linguistic features. The hypothesis of the current paper is that in Sindhi language there is extensive usage of lexical borrowing from English, specially, and other languages. The current study explores the use of English lexical borrowing and its reasons in the informal conversations among educated Sindhis in Sindh, the second largest province of Pakistan. Poised on the quantitative methodology, this research relies on audio recording and questionnaire as the data collection methods. Following are the research question of the current study:

1. What is the percentage of lexical borrowing in the informal daily interaction of Sindhi participants?
2. What are the common types of lexical borrowing used by Sindhi participants?
3. What are common reasons behind such borrowing?

In Sindh borrowing from English is more related to the historical aspects when India was colonized by the British Empire in 1832 and English was declared the official language (Farida, et al, 2018). The colonizer also brought their administrative system in the Sub-content along with English vocabulary which was penetrated as loan words, despite the presence of equivalent in local languages (Farida, 2018). English borrowing was further facilitated by the elite class to gain favour of the colonizers (Mansoor, 1993). Although on 14th August 1947 Pakistan was declared as an independent but country carries on educational, social and political English administrative systems and its terminology (Farida, 2018). In recent decades the borrowing is further enhanced due the internet, social media, print and electronic media. In the same line the mushrooming of English medium schools is facilitating English borrowing in the local Pakistani languages.

Aims and scope of the study

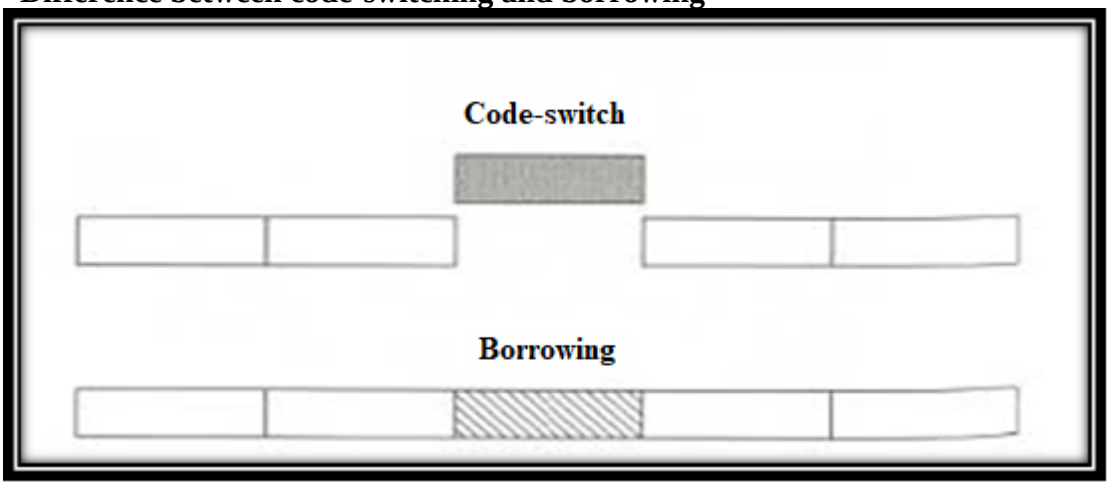
Unfortunately, research on lexical borrowing is still in primary stage in Pakistan generally, and in Sindh, specially. The current research is significant because it is the first study that explores the percentage of lexical borrowing and its reasons in the daily interaction of educated Sindhi speakers. In the previous studies scholars, like Baluch (1962); Panhwar (1988); Allana (1963) etc., have investigated Arabic and Persian borrowing in Sindhi language, however, this study is focusing on English borrowing. In doing so, the intricate, linguistic and sociolinguistic topography of Sindh and significance of borrowing from English or other languages, if any, into Sindhi language will be discovered.

Literature review

The lexical borrowing is defined as the integration of words from one to another language (Romaine, 1989 and Poplack, 1980). Generally borrowed vocabulary is the loanwords and it integrates according to "phonological, morphological and syntactic rules of recipient language" (Muysken, 1995, p. 1990). Hence, to some extent "borrowing involves mixing the [languages] systems" (Hudson, 1996, p. 55).

Some scholars hardly distinguish between code-switching (shift from one language to another) and borrowed items (loanwords). Pfaff (1979) and Auer (2005) Hoffer (2005) assert that if borrowed item has the equivalent then it is code-switching. Poplack (1980) considers that the integration of single word from one language to another is the lexical borrowing but use of stretched items in a single utterance is code-switching. However, Poplack's definition is not applicable to all languages. For example, in Pakistan, code-switching at word-level, like loan borrowing, is more common than the stretched lexical items (Farida, 2018). Grosjean states that code-switching is the temporary shifting of lexical items that acts as an independent unit in the base language, contrary, borrowing is the assimilation in the recipient language as illustrated in the following figure (2010, p. 58):

Difference between code-switching and borrowing



Same concept is introduced by Haugen (1950, p. 212) as *importation* for loan borrowing and *substitution*. Poplack (1980) considers multi-linguistic competence of the speaker as a fundamental requirement for code-switching, contrary linguistic competence does not necessitate for borrowing.

The characteristics feature of lexical borrowing is that majority of speakers pay no heed to the origins of loanwords due phonological and semantic assimilation in their language (Hudson, 1996, p. 56). Similar is the findings of Farida (2018) who states that Sindhi speaker are ignorant about the origin of loanwords in their language. Illustrating an example she states the *plate* is a loanword and its equivalent is *raqabee*. Yet, Sindhi speakers consider *plate* as a native due to its assimilation in

native language while *raqabee* is an obsolete vocabulary, even not listed in latest dictionaries (Farida, 2018).

Generally lexical borrowing is explored from the diachronic and synchronic perspectives. Gumperz (1982) stresses the diachronic perspective i.e. investigates historical development of lexical items while Myers-Scotton (1993a) and Romaine (1989) stress the social norms of speech communities because. In their opinions power-class frequently switch to lexical items from prestigious languages as a symbol of social status and this language behaviour is followed by lower class. Consequently at one stage the frequently code-switching items integrated into the recipient language as borrowed vocabulary (Bloomfield, 1933).

On the other hand the synchronic perspective explores grammar constraints of recipient and donor languages (Poplack, 1980). In this regard Farida (2018) discovers that English functional words such as determiners, pronouns, preposition and auxiliary verbs cannot be borrowed in Sindhi because both languages have different grammar and phonological systems. For instance, English verb is either rarely borrowed or its bare form is borrowed in Pakistani languages due to its irregular nature (Farida, 2018). Combining diachronic and synchronic approaches, Poplack and Sankoff (1984) adopt a midway position and state that one hand, grammatical constraint restricts or facilitates loanword and on other hand, socio-cultural conditions are also pivot to scrounge or reject a word. In a recent study of Windford (2013) explores borrowing from psycholinguistic perspective in which speakers borrow from a prestigious language to construct their high status identity.

Types of lexical borrowing

The various linguistic scholars explain the different types of borrowing using the varieties of terminology. Bloomfield (1933) states two types of borrowing: *dialect borrowing* and *cultural borrowing*. *Dialect borrowing* occurs from 'same speech-area' while *cultural borrowing* occurs between the languages when they come in contact (p. 444). Haugen (1950), using terms *necessary* and *unnecessary borrowing,* states that *necessary borrowing* is without equivalent in recipient language and *unnecessary borrowing* is the frequent use of a foreign vocabulary in the presence of equivalent (p. 220).

In the same line Myers-Scotton (2002) states two types of borrowing: *cultural borrowing* and *core borrowing*. *Cultural borrowing* is the loanword used by the host culture in the absence of equivalents and the *core borrowing* is "more or less duplicate words already existing in the L1" Similarly Poplack and Sankoff (1984) used the terms *established borrowing* and *nonce borrowing*. *Established borrowing* is similar to *cultural borrowing* while *nonce borrowing* is used in presence of equivalent but they are *"*widely recognised in the community as loanwords" (Poplack et al, 1995, p. 12). In other words *nonce or core borrowing* positioned in-between loanwords and code-switching (Myers-Scotton, 2006, p. 258).

Reasons of borrowing

Exploring the reasons of the lexical borrowing, scholars agreed that the main function of cultural borrowing acts as loanword which is used to fill the gap in the absence of equivalent in the recipient language, while core borrowing performs multifaceted functions, such as economic expression, for greetings, construction of identity etc. (Gumperz, 1980). Farida enlisted another function of core borrowing for euphemistic expressions; specially the vocabulary which, culturally and religiously, is considered as taboo words in Sindhi language. Kachru (2005) explains two types of hypothesis: *deficit and dominance hypotheses*. The former used to fill the lexical gap and latter is related to carry social prestige.

Unfortunately, there is not any study on the English loan borrowing in Sindhi language except one carried by Farida (2018) that focuses on code-switching and loan borrowing among the multilingual Sindhi women. Some works are written by Nowadays when the world is turning into a global village and English is appearing as the lingua franca, there is an urgent need to study loan borrowing in the multilingual context of Sindh. The current research represents the first step to achieve this goal.

Methodology and research questions

The hypothesis of the current paper is that in Sindhi language there is extensive usage of lexical borrowing from English, specially, and other languages. On this account, a quantitative methodology under the frameworks of Myers-Scotton (1993, 2005), Poplack (1980) and Haugen (1950) is applied in order to explore answers of the research questions

As explained earlier, the current study adopts two data collection methods: (i) audio recordings in informal setting, and, (ii) questionnaire. The data analysis of audio recordings of informal interaction deemed to explore the percentage and types of lexical borrowing. This will answer the first two research questions. The closed-ended questionnaire listed the various reasons of core borrowing and participants were given choice to tick more than one reason, if they like. Immediately after the audio recording a closed-ended questionnaire was filled by the participants in order to know the reasons of the use of lexical borrowing to answer third research question.

For the present research 20 audio recordings of informal interaction were collected from six cities including Karachi, Hyderabad, Dadu, Larkano, Benazirabad, and Kotri. The reason to collect the data from the big cities is that in urban parts the people have exposure of many languages and linguistic communities. As explained earlier, the participant were educated people who have exposure of English and Urdu languages. The duration of every recording was 60 to 80 minutes, making total 21 hours recordings. Total 67 people participated. The participants were the male and female Sindhi students of grade 10^{th} to 12^{th}. The participants' Sindhi ethnicity was a key factor because this study focuses on the use of borrowing in Sindhi language. The selection of the students of grade 10 to 12 was under the assumption that participants have received 10-12 years' of education in Sindhi, Urdu and English and they would use the English loanwords related to current modern technology. All the recordings took place in the informal settings like, canteens, library's social zones, college common rooms, get-together events etc.

For data analysis audio recordings were transcribed word by word and focusing on foreign vocabulary, the loanwords and core borrowing are identified and categorized into their respective groups. The four categories were formulated as indicated in the following table:

English Loanwords	Urdu Loanwords	Loanwords from any other language

Special care was taken that there should a clear bifurcation between code switching and loan borrowing. Therefore, foreign lexical items which appear in Sindhi-English Oxford Dictionary (2008) are recognized as loanwords. It is point to be noted that Sindhi has borrowed the words from the local languages like Urdu, Seraiki, Pubjabi etc. However in the absence of the Sindhi-Urdu/Punjabi, etc, authentic dictionary, such borrowing is categorized on the basis of researchers' observation, experience and being a linguistic scholar and professor.

Finally, data is analysed using the SSPS to count the total words and then take out the percentage of loanword and core borrowing. In the second phase the questionnaire is analysed using SSPS to identify the reasons behind the borrowing.

Ethical issues:

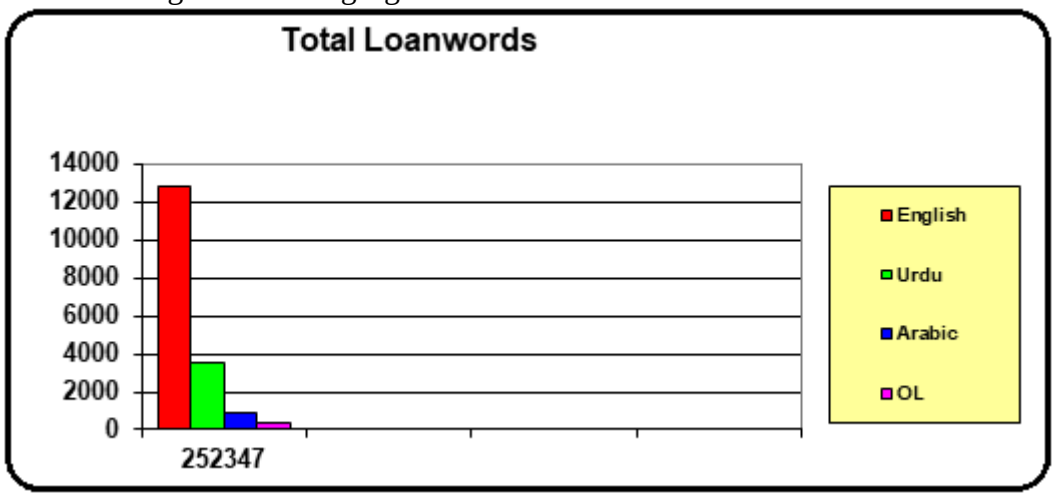
The consent was taken from all the participants before the audio recordings. To maintain the confidentiality of the participants, I have given the assurance in verbal and in writing that data would be used for academic purposes only. Participants were made aware of their right to withdraw at any time or to skip any question in the questionnaire. I provided them with email and contact numbers so they could approach me in case they wanted to withdraw.

Findings and Discussion

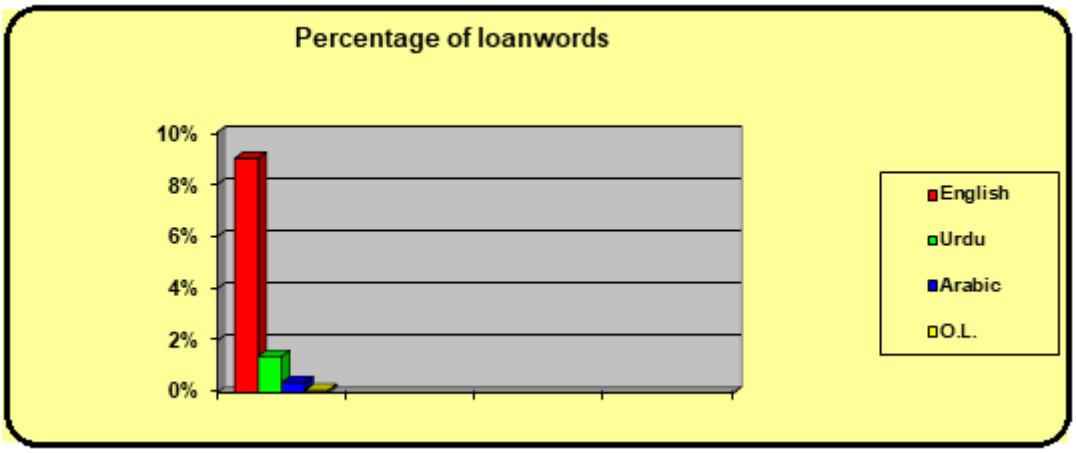
The findings of the current study explore the percentage and reasons of English and other, if any, lexical borrowing in Sindhi language. The findings of current audio recordings highlight the occurrence of two types of lexical borrowing: (i) cultural borrowing, also known as loanwords (henceforth loanwords) and (ii) core or nonce borrowing (henceforth core borrowing). As explained earlier, loanwords are borrowed vocabulary from one to another language in the absence of equivalent in the recipient language while core borrowing is foreign vocabulary items which are extensively in use in the presence of equivalent in the recipient language (Myers Scotton, 1993 and Treffers-Daller, 2007).

Loan borrowing

As explained earlier, using the SSPS the data is analysed to get the percentage of the borrowed items in the daily interaction of Sindhi speakers. This will answer first research question of the current study. The findings reveal the extensive instances of English loanwords which are used to fill the gap in the absence of equivalents in Sindhi language. Findings also indicate a few instances of loanwords from Urdu, the national language of Pakistan, Arabic, the religious language of the state, and local languages. Participants uttered total 252347 including 21859 English loanwords, along with 511 from Urdu, 9055 Arabic and 326 words from local languages as illustrated in figure following figure:



The data analysis reveals that English loanwords constitute a noticeable portion around 9%, Urdu 1.40%, Arabic 0.4 %, and 01% are loanwords from indigenous languages as displayed in the following figure:



The above figure displays that English is the generous loanword donor which are related to new concepts and terminology in medicine, technology, business, diplomacy, education, administration etc. Although to investigate the syntactic and phonological integration of lexical borrowing was not in the purview of the current study, but as an ELT teacher and being the native Sindhi speaker, I noticed that English loanwords are syntactically and phonologically integrated in Sindhi language as indicated in the following examples (English loanwords in bold):

1. Moonkhe **messaga** aeen **calloo** na kando kar.
   (Don't send me messages and calls.)
2. Cha **caallage** khulio ahe?
   (Is college opened?)

These examples display that English loanwords */messaga/* (messages) and */ka:loo/* (calls) are pluralized according to Sindhi grammar rules. The loanwords are also pronounced as */ca:l/* (call) and */ka:laɡ̃e /* (college) instead of */kɔ:l/* and */kɒl.ɪdʒ/* respectively.

The data analysis also reveals the hierarchy of nouns, adjectives and verbs loanwords while absence of functional English words i.e. auxiliary and model verbs, preposition, pronoun, etc. English noun is the most common loanword used by Sindhi participants followed by adjective and verb. Poplack et al. (1995) state that noun is the most flexible item to borrow compared to other parts of speech. The current findings also indicate that English verb is less borrowed as loanword in Sindhi language. Explaining the main constraint to borrow the English verb Farida considers the difference in word-order between English and Sindhi languages, "as English follows an SVO (subject-verb-object) word order whereas Sindhi follows SOV (subject-object-verb)" (2018, p. 201). Other reasons include the irregular nature of English verb and its participle and affixes forms (i.e. brows, browsing, browses) which restricts its borrowbility because "verb in Sindhi is regular and it designates the tense, number, and gender" (Farida, 2018, p, 200). One such example is illustrated below:

Iha **practice** kandee ahe.
(She does practice.)

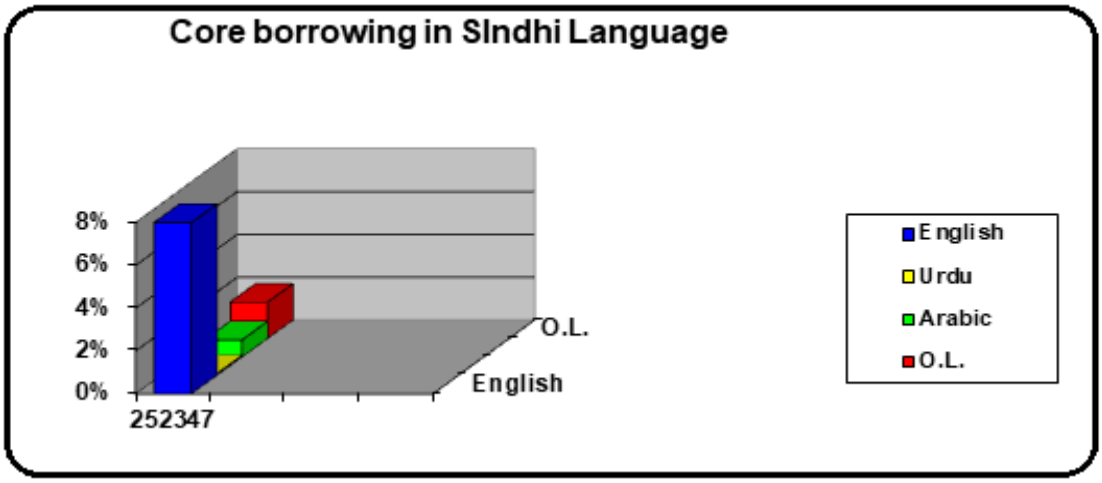
In this example the participants used *practice* as bare infinitive verb form along with compound auxiliary verbs from Sindhi [*kandee ahe*] to designate gender and tense.

Interesting finding is the less use of loanwords from Urdu and local languages which are similar to Sindhi in terms of grammar and phonology. Most such loanwords are related to customs, culture and food items. It indicates that Urdu as well as indigenous languages lack the terminology related to technology, medicine, politics, education etc. The findings also suggest the use of a few Arabic loanwords comprising greetings or Islamic religious expressions as sign of speaker's Muslim identity. The findings of

the current study are more prevalent in single as well or compound loanwords rather than larger constituents such as phrases or clauses.

Core borrowing

Findings of the current research indicate that Sindhi participants frequently rely on core borrowing from English, followed by a few instances from Urdu, Arabic and local languages. Total 18723 English core borrowing is used followed by 202 from Urdu, 11 Arabic and 45 words from local languages as illustrated in the following figure:



This figure displays the rampant English core borrowing is making 8%, while Urdu constitutes 0.08%, Arabic 0.008% and other languages are making 0.017%. These other languages, which are making an untocibal insertion in Sindhi, are the local language like Seraiki, Punjabi, Balochi, Burahavi, Makrani, etc. The reason of borrowing from these languages is based on the close cultural ties with theses languages communities who are settled in Sindh since centuries. Interesting finding is that the core borrowed from local languages is high compare to Arabic. The reason may be that the language-contact of Sindhi is close with indigenous languages compare to Arabic which is a distance language.

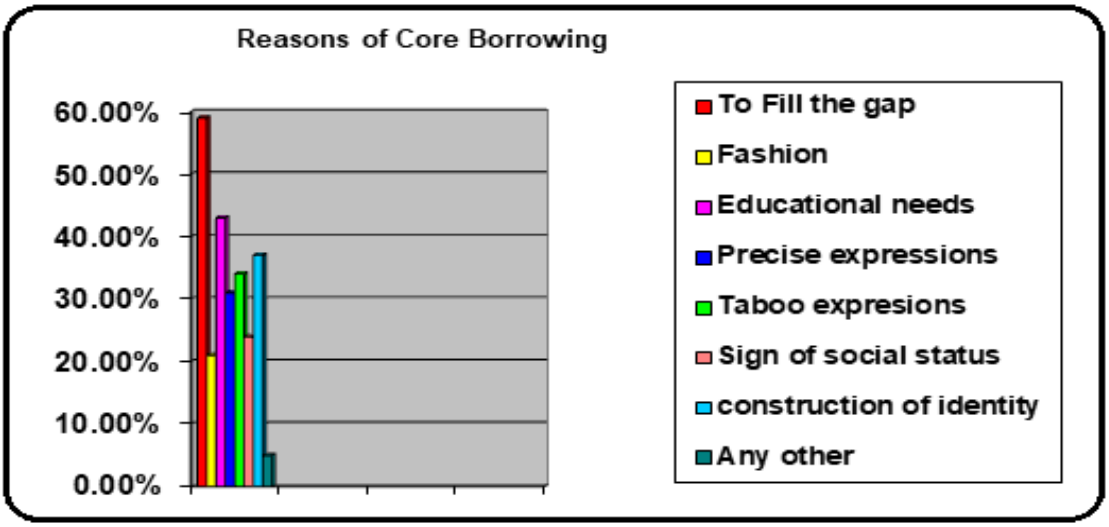
As explained earlier, in some cases it is hard to distinguish between core borrowing and code-switching. However, the researcher, being the ELT teacher as well as the member of Sindhi speech-community can easily distinguishes the core borrowing from code-switching keeping in view the ratio of the use in the daily interaction and their morpho-syntactical phonetical integrated in Sindhi language. For instance, English core borrowed vocabulary like *student, teacher, table* etc, is more frequently in use compare its Sindhi equivalent *shagrid, ustad, maiz* respectively. Although core borrowed words are not included Sindhi dictionaries as lemmas but findings show that linguistically and culturally they are widely accepted.

The data analysis shows that most English core borrowing constitutes the greeting words like *hello, thank you, sorry;* the academic vocabulary *examination, teacher, student, fail, library, school, practical, college, university, pen, copy* etc.; the romantic and taboo expressions such as *I love you, sweet heart, breast feeding* etc.; the conjunction: *yes, no, and, but;* and other common words used in daily interaction such as *mood, bore* etc. The Urdu core borrowing is related to tag words and interjections, such as *Acha* (ok), *Halanke* (although) etc. The core borrowing from other indigenous languages related to cultural and customs in nature while Arabic core borrowing constitutes greeting and islamic expressions.

Reasons for borrowing

To answer the third research question of this paper, the questionnaire is filled by those 67 participants who contributed in 21 audio recordings. The closed-ended

questionnaire listed the various reasons and participants were given choice to tick more than one reason, if they like. The findings indicate that the various factors are contributing in the use of borrowing as indicated in the following figure:



The results show that most common reasons of borrowing is the lack of equivalent in Sindhi language, as 59% participants affirms. There is discernible paucity of the vocabulary related to new scientific socio-economic concepts in Sindhi. Same is vacuum exists in other native languages, thus, English acts as generous donor in Sindhi language.

Next 45% people believe that educational need is the reason of borrowing. In Pakistan educational system follows the American and British models. English is petering out the local educational vocabulary. Nowadays, students are ignorant that the *library, pen* and *copy* are equivalent of Sindhi *kutubkhano, qalam* and *bandee* respectively (Farida, 2018).

Furthermore, the findings reveal that 37% participants confirm the use of borrowing for construction of identity. Hence, they are using borrowing for self-ascription and social identities like social class (i.e. educated, elite, etc.), as well as for polite expression to construct their cultural identity. In the way 34% state they use borrowing for taboo expression. By using the foreign language for taboo expressions such as *sex, pregnant, breast feeding, toilet, child birth* etc., participants have constructed implicit cultural identities that they avoid the use of culturally considered impolite or naked vocabulary. This figure displays that 31% people use English borrowing for precise expressions because "English is known as the precise language (Bloom and Gumperz, 1971, p. 424). In the same line 24% people related borrowing with status symbol. It confirms the findings of Rahman (2006) and Farida (2018) that in Pakistani context English is the code of power and elite community and they use it as symbol of status. The use of borrowing for the fashion is the new trend among the educated Sindhi people and 21% consider borrowing under the compulsion of fashion. As explained earlier, the electronic and print media is projection the new English terms and vocabulary as sign of new repertoire and people are adapting such trend for the fashion. Last is use of borrowing for other reason is only 5%.

Finally the findings of the current study demonstrated that the Sindhi participants triggered multilingual lexical borrowing according to their linguistic and motivational needs in order to express themselves in an appropriate language.

Limitation of the study

The current data is collected from the cities of Sindh which are presenting the diversifies from linguistic perspectives. The people are generally multilingual and have exporue of varies linguistic communities. Hence, the linguistic borrowing is

common phenomenon in the repertoire of urban people. Moreover, if the data were collected from rural areas the results could have been different because the in rural parts of Sindh the less is the exposure of other languages and also rural people maintain the virginity of the language. However, for authentic results there is a need to investigate the rural repoitore to know the comprehensive loan borrowing phenomenon.

Conclusion

The present study is conducted to identify the percentage, kinds of borrowings and its reasons of usage. The participants' use of multilingual code-switching can be understood as being a product of 'contact and necessity', where Sindhi tends to function as their L1, Urdu as their lingua franca, English as the language of officialdom and academia, and Arabic as the language of religion (Edwards, 2011, p. 39). The findings reveal lexical borrowing in four languages: English, Urdu, Arabic and indigenous languages. It reveals the linguistic history of the Sindhi language which came in contact with English as language of colonizers, Arabic as code of conquerors and Urdu as the lingua franca of Pakistan.

The findings suggest that there are two types of lexical borrowing: loanwords used in the absence of equivalent and core borrowing which is extensively in use in the presence of equivalent Sindhi vocabulary. English is a major loanword-donor and it is phonetically and syntactical integrated according to Sindhi grammar rules. This result confirms the notion of 'categorical hierarchy' of Poplack, et al. (1988) that some word classes, specially nouns and adjectives are more easily borrowed because they demonstrate a greater propensity to be integrated in the recipient language than functional words. Contrary, Urdu is lingua franca and taught as compulsory subject in the school but the ratio of Urdu loan words are very fewer. Most Urdu loan words are related to culture, food, and tradition indicating deficiency of technical terms or modern science and business concepts in Urdu. Similarly the use of Arabic borrowing participants constructed implicit Muslims identity. Hence, lexical borrowing is not simply a language needs but it also expose linguistic intricacies of the Sindhi language.

The current paper has demonstrated the innumerable linguistics and sociolinguistics reasons of borrowing including filling the lexical gap, identity construction, taboo expression fashion, social status, educational needs etc. However, the psychological factors cannot be ignored because the use of core borrowing is more related to speaker's intentions for such language behaviour.

The exceptional contribution of this study is that it investigates the use of borrowing in four languages i.e. English, Urdu, Arabic and local languages which is providing the opportunity to analyse borrowing not only as a language behaviour but as a social phenomenon where at one hand loanwords are enriching and filling the gap in Sindhi language in the absence of equivalent, on the other hand the extensive use of core borrowing rendering a potential threat of fossilization to a large number of Sindhi vocabulary (Farida, 2018). If the situation remains that it is assumed that significant Sindhi vocabulary may be replaced by English loanwords.

Finally I would say that borrowing is the extraordinary language characteristics indicating "the power of a, rich and fertile language that has the ability adapt and adopt the foreign terminology for emerging concepts and augmenting itself" (Farida, 2018, p. 172).

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Native Languages and Education in Balochistan: A Bottom-Up Analysis of Theory and Practice

Zia-ur-Rehman, Dr. Syed Abdul Manan, Jaffar Shah, Afzal Khan & Muhammad Khan

Abstract

Positive cognitive outcomes, enrichment of minority languages, culture and ethnolinguistic identity are often associated with learning of native languages but, more than 65 to 77 native languages across the country are suffering in every government department particularly in education. This study examines the role and importance of native languages from theory to its practice in education, and to explore the opinions of teachers about getting education in native languages particularly at early stages, in multilingual Balochistan. The Bottom-up approach will enable us to investigate the concern and opinions of teachers. Mostly, teachers remain blind followers of the policies mandated by the language policy planners. Employing mixed methods, the study investigates the views of teachers in 30 government schools in three districts of Balochistan. The data (quantitative and qualitative) overwhelmingly endorse the importance of native languages in education particularly in the development of cognitive skills in students at early stages of their education. They further argue that teaching of native languages in government schools will only be successful if they teach them as a language rather than as a subject. The study concludes that the policy about native language needs to be reviewed, taking into account their importance in the learning of subject matter easily and quickly. In the end, the study proposes a dynamic policymaking mechanism where all the stakeholders from both the top to bottom could coordinate in the policy formulation about native languages and its effective implementation.

Keywords: Native languages, Language Planning and Policy, Language-in-education policy, Multilingualism, Language-as-a-resource

1. Introduction

A young student becomes literate when he/she starts connecting the idea behind a word with its written form. Whereas, if the same student can speak or write a word but do not understand the word, only rote learning will happen. As Pennycook (2001) defines literacy as "the process of linking the ideas associated with spoken words to written text". In other words, cognitive skills only develop in students' home/native languages. In contrast, education in school language leads to cramming, poor performance in studies and often resulted in students' dropout from schools particularly in rural areas (Pinnock & Vijayakumar, 2009). Among the 7,097 known languages across the globe (Simons & Fennig, 2019), less than 500 languages are used and taught in schools (Hornberger, 2008) and 2,464 languages are listed as endangered languages (Moseley, 2010). Consequently, the majority of students are getting education other than their home language. In such countries where language-in-education is mostly either in national or in the official language, the survival of native languages becomes a great challenge across the world, when the government's machinery, institutional supports to the official or national languages make them ladder to socio-economic upward mobility and bright future. Whereas, language policy massively fails to improve the status of native languages and speakers, leaving them illiterate and oppressed in their own land (Hornberger, 2008).

The article 29 of United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) states:

> "All education programmes for Indigenous children and youth [should provide mother tongue medium instruction] based on the insights from solid research over many years [that show] that mainly mother tongue medium bilingual education (MTM) is superior to all other forms of

> education practices in order to achieve literacy and generally effective learning, including 'the development of the child's personality talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential"(cited in Hirvonen, 2008)

Literature associates education in native languages with positive cognitive outcomes, enrichment of minority language, culture and ethnolinguistic identity (Baker, 2001). Nettle and Romaine (2000) termed native languages as 'verbal botanies' because they carry within them a wealth of knowledge about the local culture, history, traditions, and arts. Kamwangamalu (2008) viewed that 'a man's native language is almost like his shadow, inseparable from his personality' when a language is lost, much of the wealth of knowledge it embodies is also lost. Cummins' (1984) 'Interdependence theory' suggested that the acquisition of second language/foreign language in bi/multilingual settings depends on the level of development of students' first language/mother tongue. When the first language has developed sufficiently well to cope with decontextualized classroom learning, a second language may be relatively easily acquired. When the first language is less developed, or where there is an attempted replacement of the first language by the second language (e.g. in the classroom), the development of the second language may be relatively impeded (as cited in Baker, 2001). There are many types of bilingual education according to various scholars. For example, Baker's (2001) weak forms and strong forms that aim bilingualism and biliteracy. Skutnabb-Kangas (cited in Kamwangamalu, 2008) stated that a good educational program should be able to accomplish:

> "… high levels of multilingualism; a fair chance of achieving academically at school; strong, positive multilingualism and multicultural identity and positive attitude towards self and others; and a fair chance of awareness and competence building as prerequisites for working for a more equitable world, for oneself and one's own group as well as others, locally and globally."

On contrary to education in native languages, education in school language is linked with rote learning, weak in studies and often resulted students' dropout from schools (Pinnock & Vijayakumar, 2009). According to the same authors, in multilingual countries, a large proportion of students are out of the school where national or international languages are used as school language. For instance, a total of 54 million out-of-school children live in 'highly linguistically fractionalized' countries and 58% students belonging to primary-school-aged group. The most linguistically fractionalized countries contain 72% of out-of-school children around the globe. Similarly, in India Panda and Mohanty (2009) criticize the language-in-education policies as a whole, which they believe exclude tribal children in Orissa state from crucial mainstreams "social, political, economic, and educational domains, leading to serious language disadvantage of tribal children and large-scale failure and 'push out' in dominant language classrooms, where their mother tongues have little space. Further, MacKenzie (2009) concludes in her study that in the Indian states of Andhra Pradesh and Orissa, the drop out ratio among the tribal children are quit high verses their performance in school comparing to other children due to lack of mother tongue education. The learning and teaching of native languages depends on several interconnected factors such as the political will, economic returns, grassroots support, involvement of non-governmental organizations, availability, and allocation of human and material resources, and many more (Kamwangamalu, 2008).

2. Demography of Balochistan

Demographically, Balochistan hosts only 5% of the country's population. According to the census 2017, the population of Balochistan is only 12.34 million (Government-

of-Pakistan, 2017). Moreover, it is the home to many ethnic groups and languages such as Pashto, Balochi, Brahui, Persian, Sindhi, Punjabi, Urdu, Seraiki, and many other micro languages but it has three main and dominant languages i.e. Pashto Balochi, and Brahui (Government-of-Balochistan, 2011, 2013).

2.1 Language policies in Pakistan

Since 1947, the central government has issued at least 22 major educational reports and language policies (Rahman, 2004). But, all these language policies have constantly been changed and reversed throughout history. Thus, the researchers termed them as 'dilemma' (Mansoor, 2004) and 'enigma and conundrum' (Mustafa, 2011). From 1947 to 2018 all the language policies mostly focused and promoted English and Urdu languages and put aside native languages of the country which represent 92% of the population (Manan, David, & Dumanig, 2015). After the 18th amendment in the constitution on April 19, 2010, devolved education department to provinces along with many others (Siddiqui, 2010). Onward, language policy and planning, curriculum designing, syllabus designing and standards of education will fall under the purview of the provinces (Government-of-Balochistan, 2013, 2014; Siddiqui, 2010).

2.2 Educational policies in Balochistan

After the 18th amendment, along with many other departments education was also devolved to the provinces. Now language policy planning, curriculum, syllabus and textbooks designing, provision of quality and standard education, and Islamic education all lineup with National Education Policy 2009, and which are now the provincial subjects. The first educational report of the province after 18th amendment was, Education for All Plan Balochistan 2011-2015 published by the education department Balochistan. The aim of this report was to provide quality education, early childhood education (ECE), primary education and to promote adult literacy in the province to eradicate poverty in the province (Government-of-Balochistan, 2011).

Balochistan Education Sector Plan (2013) was the first step toward policy planning and implementation strategies in the education sector. This report aims to provide free quality education, on the basis of equity, across all the children of Balochistan with strict monitoring of the policy plans. The education institutions include schools, colleges, universities, and *Madaris* (religious seminaries).

The final report, Balochistan Education Sector Plan (2014) is a comprehensive document which discussed many new areas than previous reports. It discussed the current situation of education suggested policy recommendations, implementations strategies to overcome the issues in formal schooling (preprimary, primary, elementary, secondary, and higher secondary education) and policy documents (curriculum and textbooks) and teachers training (pre-service and in-service), providing facilities (buildings, drinking water, toilets, electricity) and students learning development facilities (libraries and laboratories), bringing equity and quality to both public and private education setups and ensuring fair and effective assessments in examinations.

It is the first report in the province which gives immense importance and role to native languages in education. The sector plan explained that the previous language policies were based on "unrealistic assumptions, students learning processes, learners need and teachers' competency in public schools" (Government-of-Balochistan, 2014). Further, the sector plan stated that the NEP 2009 gave immense importance to English language and Urdu. Urdu is the communication language of the country and Balochistan but it cannot be treated as the mother tongues of students in the province. This policy failed to accommodate new learners of the school language. Moreover, due to the same policy, the students at secondary level or higher secondary level

failed to learn both the languages (English and Urdu) just because they have poor cognitive development in the absence of mother tongues based medium-of-instruction policy. In addition, the students also failed due to poor teaching practices and unrealistic courses at higher classes. The BESP (2013-18) drew a separate language-in-education framework for students of primary, middle, secondary and higher secondary as per their needs in Balochistan. The base of this policy is:

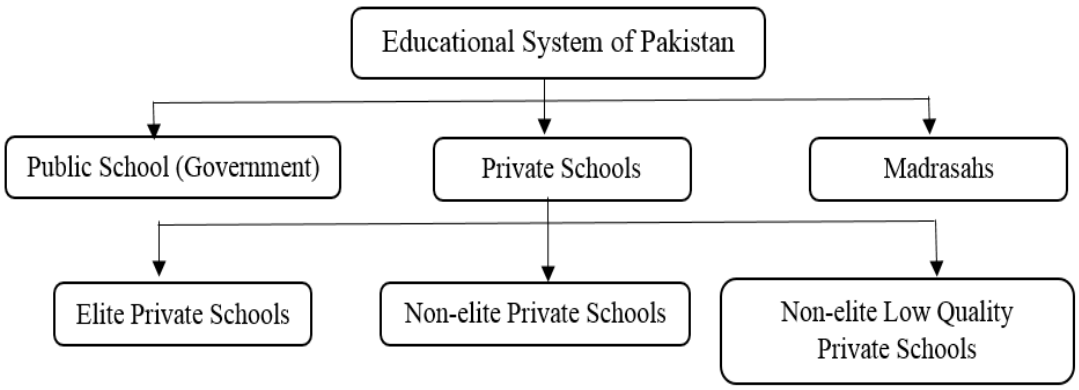
(a) Mother tongues will be taught at primary level to improve cognitive skills of the students. Mother tongues will also be encouraged at middle and secondary levels.
(b) English and Urdu will be introduced at later stages (unknown from which Grade orlevel). Separate curricular courses for those students who are learning English or Urdu at later stages as compared to children who start learning the language in early stages.

But, the sector plan failed to implement in practice.

2.3 Educational setup in Balochistan

The educational system of Balochistan is similar to the country. As the National Education Policy 2009, divides the educational system of Pakistan into three main streams i.e. public sector schools, private sector schools and *Madrasahs* (religious seminaries). The private sector schools are further divided into: (a) elite private schools, (b) the non-elite schools and (c) non-elite low quality private schools (Government-of-Pakistan, 2009). The Figure 1.2 illustrates the educational system of Pakistan.

Figure 2: Educational Systems



Source: (Zia-ur-Rehman, 2018)

Many scholars across the country have discussed the educational system of the country in details Government-of-Pakistan (2009); Coleman (2010); Manan (2015); Rahman (2008); Zia-ur-Rehman (2018) and many others.

2.4 Current educational situation in Balochistan

Balochistan has the lowest literacy ratio in the country by comparing it with other provinces which is 41% for the year 2016-17 (Government-of-Pakistan, 2018). According to the same source, the male literacy rate is 56% whereas the female literacy rate is just 24%. Moreover, the urban literacy rate is 61% whereas the rural literacy rate is just 33%. It also has the highest ratio of the gender gap with very low enrolment rate in the country (Government-of-Balochistan, 2014) and the highest dropout ratio in the country. the dropout rate of Balochistan (from Grade 01 to Grade 12) is significantly higher than other provinces of Pakistan. According to Pakistan Education Statistics (2016), the total out of school children ratio of the province is 1,891,596 (70%) in which male students are 909,171 (63%) and female students 982,424 (78%). However, the ratio in Alif-Ailaan's report is higher than in the

previous report 75% (SDPI & Alif-Ailaan, 2016). As the data from above reveal that the educational situation in Balochistan is worse and the quality of education is very poor. The increasing growth of private schools in the province indicates the low-quality education and low confidence of people over the government schools in the province.

2.5 Linguistic landscape of Balochistan

Though, Balochistan is home to only 5% of the population of the country but, many languages are spoken here. The people here speak Pashto, Balochi, Brahui, Urdu, Sindhi, Punjabi, Persian and other micro languages. But, the major languages are Pashto, Brahui, and Balochi which are the major languages here. The people of the province can speak and understand two or more native languages (Government-of-Balochistan, 2019). The linguistic hierarchy of Balochistan is as under:

2.5.1 English

English language enjoys the status of an official language, the most authoritative and esteemed language in the province. The language is used in all the important domains of the provincial government like law and bureaucracy, commerce and media, education and many other departments. Due to the economic value of English language, it is considered as 'passport to privileges' and a prominent career. It is perceived as a ladder for socioeconomic upward mobility for those who have English language proficiency and education (Channa, 2014; Coleman & Capstick, 2012; Manan et al., 2015; Manan, David, & Dumanig, 2016; Shamim, 2011; Zia-ur-Rehman, 2018). Similarly, Mahboob (2002) affirms that the English language is necessary for a bright future because there is no future without English language in Pakistan. Rahman (1997) views that English language is the language of power and social status, it is a gateway to the white-collar and elitist jobs in the country. On the other hand, English language excludes those from the job market who are educated in Urdu or in other native languages (Coleman & Capstick, 2012). English language is taught as a foreign language in Balochistan.

2.5.2 Urdu

The national constitution of Pakistan declared that the Urdu language is the national language of Pakistan in article 251 (Government-of-Pakistan, 1973). Mansoor (2004) explains that Urdu is a symbol of unity and identity across the country. It welds the people of Pakistan in one whole and avoids separation and regional or provincial autonomy (Government-of-Pakistan, 2009). Urdu language is the lingua franca of the country and of the province. It is the language of media (print and electronic) radio, and most importantly Urdu is the medium of instruction in public/government schools and low fee private schools across the country (Coleman, 2010; Government-of-Pakistan, 2009; Manan & David, 2014; Mustafa, 2015). However, Urdu language is the mother tongue of very tiny portion of the population i.e. 7.56 % (Government-of-Pakistan, 1998).

2.5.3 Native language of Balochistan

As it is discussed above, Balochistan is home to many languages such as Pashto, Balochi, Brahui, Sindhi, Punjabi, Urdu, Persian, Seraiki and many other micro languages. But, here we will discuss the major/'Environment languages' (Mustafa, 2015) of the province.

2.5.3.1 Pashto

Pashto, also known as Pakhto, Pashtu, and Pushto, is a member of the Indo-Iranian branch of the Indo-European language family (Simons & Fennig, 2019). It is spoken in, Pakistan, Afghanistan and a large diaspora encompassing India, Iran, the United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, and the United States and many other countries of the world (Government-of-Balochistan, 2014, 2019). According to an estimate it is

spoken by around 50 million people worldwide and according to the census of Pakistan 1998, there is 15.42% population of Pakistan speaking the language (Government-of-Pakistan, 1998). Pashto language is divided into various dialects such as Southern, Central, Northern Pashto (Simons & Fennig, 2019).

2.5.3.2 Balochi

Balochi language is also a member of the Indo-Iranian branch of the Indo-European language family. It is spoken in, Pakistan, Afghanistan, Iran and a large number of migrated people in United Arab Emirates, Saudi Arabia, other Arabian countries, Europe and other countries of the world (Government-of-Balochistan, 2014, 2019; Simons & Fennig, 2019). According to the census of Pakistan 1998, Balochi language is spoken by 3.57% population in Pakistan (Government-of-Pakistan, 1998). Balochi language is also divided into various dialects such as Eastern, Southern, Western Balochi (Simons & Fennig, 2019).

2.5.3.3 Brahui

Brahui language is a member of the Dravidian language family. It is widely spoken in Balochistan and Sindh provinces of Pakistan and in some countries of Arabian Peninsula, Afghanistan and Iran (Government-of-Balochistan, 2014, 2019). According to Ethnologue; languages of the world (2019) the total number of speakers of Brahui language in Pakistan are 2,210,000 and in the world are 2,433,600. According to the UNESCO Atlas of the World's Languages in Danger, Brahui is included in the list of endangered languages in the category of 'vulnerable' which is defined as "most children speak the language, but it may be restricted to certain domains (e.g., home)" (Moseley, 2010).

3. Theoretical Framework

This study employs Bottom-up/Dynamic Approach, a new approach in the field of Language Planning and Policy emerged which Menken and García (2010) describe as "the new wave of language education policy research" (p.02). Previously, Language Planning and Policy was regarded as a linear process, where top-level entities such as government officials and ministries who were in the center gave directives to teachers and educators to follow their prescribed policies. But, in contrast to this dominant approach, Menken and García (2010) put the teachers and educators in the center of LPP, Manan (2015) explains regarding the bottom-up analysis that, it is "providing alternative insights of how teachers from around the globe can enact, adapt, or transform language policies to their own context, beliefs, and constraints" and how the teachers, stir this onion (LPP) by locating ideological and implementational spaces within their own practices (Ricento & Hornberger, 1996). The dynamic approach focuses on teachers and educators to whom Shohamy (2006) called 'soldiers of the system', as language policymakers, rather than just blind followers who implement policies mandated from government officials (Menken & García, 2010). Bottom-up approach shifts the role of government officials (macro-level) in language planning and policy to educators and teachers in policy planning at micro-level. Though, there is little scholarship on the dynamic approach, but its proponents stress on that language policy should be assumed from classrooms (Canagarajah, 2005; Hornberger & Johnson, 2007; Ramanathan, 2005; Ricento & Hornberger, 1996). The research objectives of this study are:

i. To explore the views of government schools' teachers about importance and role of native languages in education in Balochistan
ii. To investigate the orientations of government schools' teachers about institutional challenges in the implementation of native languages.

4. Methodology

This study took place in 30 government schools in three districts i.e. Quetta, Killa Abdullah and Mastung of Balochistan. Quetta is the capital city of Balochistan province. It is highly multiethnic and multilingual district of the province where various languages are spoken such as Pashtu, Balochi, Brahui, Sindhi, Punjabi, Persian, Urdu and many other micro native languages. Whereas Killa Abdullah is majorly Pashto dominant district and Mastung is Brahui and Balochi dominant district. The study draws on mixed-method research (Concurrent Triangulation Research Design) which combines and uses the strengths and overcomes the weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative research (Creswell, 2009; Dörnyei, 2007). Numerous research instruments such as survey questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and observation are used during data collection process. The questionnaire survey elicited 187 teachers' information concerning their views regarding the importance and role of native languages in education. The questionnaire items were translated into Urdu language in order to achieve face validity. Maximum variation sampling was used for the questionnaire survey. Whereas 14 semi-structured interviews were conducted in all three districts to triangulate the data. The interviews were taken in Urdu and Pashto languages in order to remove the language barrier and create a friendly atmosphere to get real data. Purposive sampling was employed during the collection of qualitative data. The quantitative data were analyzed with the help of SPSS version 21 to draw descriptive statistics computing percentages, frequencies, and ratios. Interview transcription and classroom observations were used to help in the thematic analysis and to supplement the questionnaire data. The observation of classroom pedagogy was of non-participant nature. It covered 06 classes in 4 different schools, which made up 210 minutes in total.

5. Discussion

5.1 Polyglossia and compartmentalization of languages in Balochistan

During the observation of classes, it was known that the students in the province become bi/multilingual reaching the age of 10-12 years. But, this bi/multilingualism is only limited to speaking and listening of the languages rather than reading and writing. The decision of inclusion of native languages in education was taken in the light 18th amendment in the national constitution of the county. Thus, native languages became a part of the school curriculum and the teaching started in 2014-2015. Similarly, the Arabic language is only limited to reading rather than speaking, writing, listening and understanding and used only for religious purposes. The compartmentalization of languages is shown in the following table 1.

Table 1: Compartmentalization of Languages

Context	English	Urdu	Arabic	Native Languages (Pashto, Balochi, Brahui)
Home and family				✓
At school	✓	✓	✓	✓
For communication at school				✓
Social and cultural activities in community				✓
Correspondence with friends and relatives				✓
Religious activities			✓	
Mass media (TV, Newspaper)		✓		

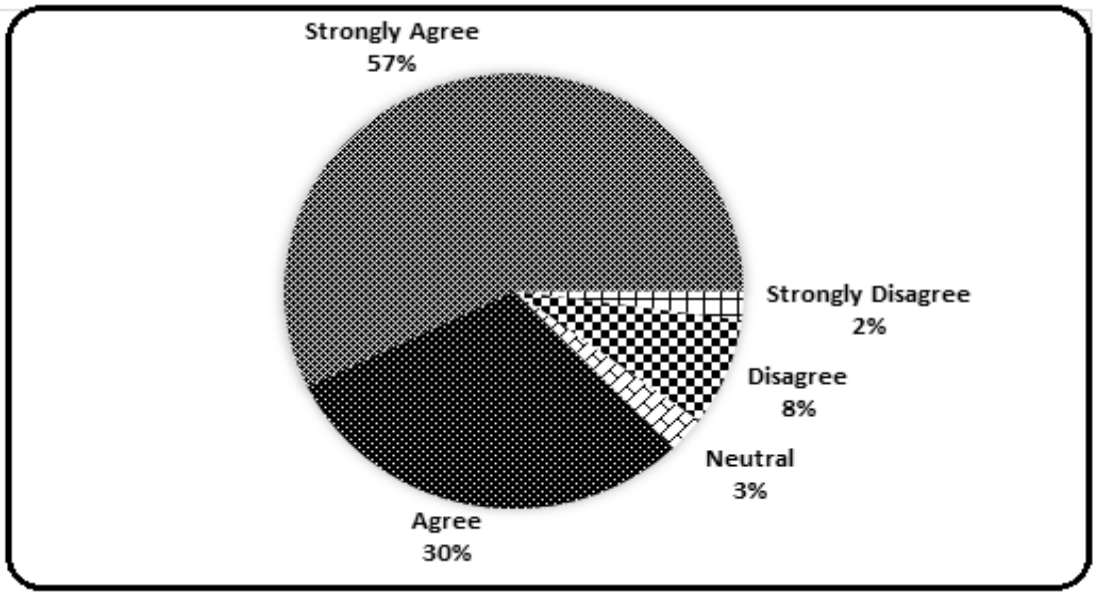
Most of the students learn Urdu after reaching Grade 6 to Grade 8. They can speak, listen, read, write and understand the language but weak in creative writing at this

stage. The National Education Policy (2009) made English to be taught as a compulsory subject from Grade one in schools. But, the students have limited proficiency even after passing secondary or higher secondary exams. They can read and copy English text but their speaking, listening, understanding, and creative writing skills are very poor.

5.2 Importance of Native Languages: Teachers' Views

The majority of respondents as shown in figure 3 were either strongly agreed or agreed with the statement that native language due to their immense importance in education should be taught in government schools along Urdu and English languages. Very few respondents were disagreed and strongly disagreed.

Figure 3: Importance of Native Language in Education



On the other hand, the qualitative data also supported the aforementioned quantitative data regarding the role of native languages in learning. All the participants were agreed that native languages have a very important role in learning and they also agreed that native language should also be taught along with other languages in government schools, especially in the initial Grades. For instance, a participant explained that "*Madri zubaney tulba kay rozana bolchaal ki zubaney hay. Inhee jo bi mazmoon inn ki madri zubanu may parhay jaeen gay tu wo mazameen inn kay liye seekne may intahai assan hon gay"*. (Mother tongues (native languages) are the communication language of students. Any subject taught to them in their own mother tongue, they will easily understand and learn it.) (TCHR 4). Similarly, another participant described:

> *"Madri zubanki misaal aap Angrezi say le sakte hay. Madiri zubaan kiwajah say wo itneeagee hay (British people). Kunkay unhee koi bi cheez dusri zubaan may nahi parhaigae hay. Bache mahol say seekte hay. Jo cheez mahool may mojood ho wo cheez bache jaldi seektee hay. Zuban bi bachee kay liyebahotahamhasiyatrakti hay. Jis smahoolya jiss zubaan kay saath bacha parwan chahrta hay. Uss zubaan may seekne kay mawaqee zyada hote hay"* (English language can be taken as an example of a mother tongue. Due to mother tongue they (British people and Americans) progressed. Because they do not study anything in any other language. Anything present in the environment, children can easily learn it. In the same way, language is very important for children. Any environment or language in which children grow up, there are a lot of chances for learning) (TCHR 6).

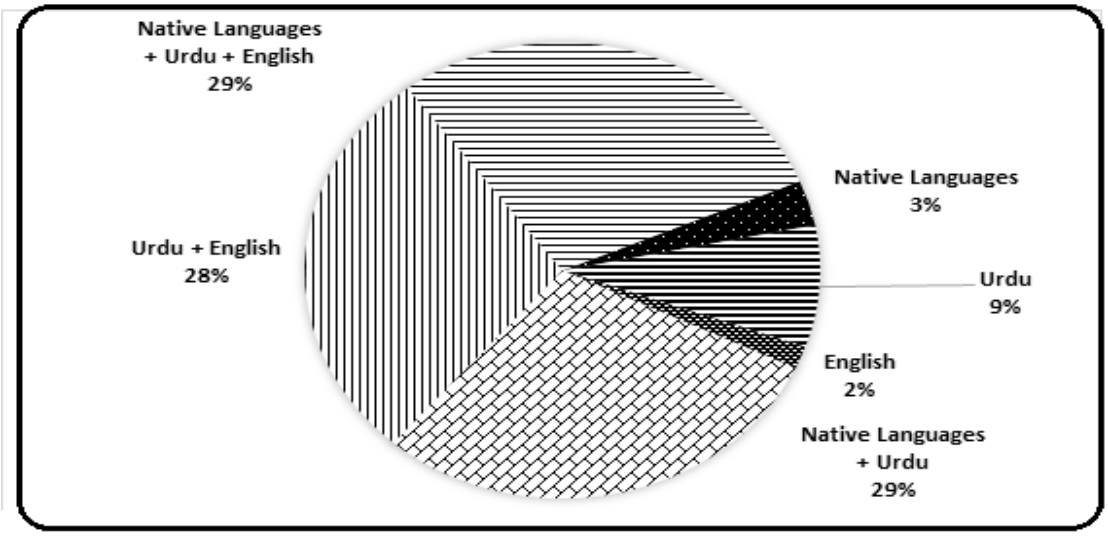
A respondent gave a different reason for using the native languages in schools. He said *"Zmuxh da baad bakhti da chi muxh moranai xhabi ta iss lift na workavo. Deer dasi mulkaan sta balke tol taraqiayafta mulkaan chi aghu taraqi karee da. Da aghu school, college, ao university pa moranai zabaki dai. Deer loi ahmiyat lari moranai zaba"* (It is our bad luck that we forgot our mother tongues (in education). If you see all the developed countries, they have progressed only due to their mother tongues in their schools, colleges, and universities. Mother tongues have get lot of importance (in education)) (TCHR 9).

The respondents in both the qualitative and quantitative data overwhelmingly advocated native languages in government schools, particularly in the initial grades. however, the teaching of native languages needs a comprehensive and sound language-in-education policy. The teaching of native languages should be practiced as a language rather than as a subject. Unfortunately, the province does not have any such policy at the moment. All languages (English, Urdu, Arabic, and one native language) are taught in Grade one. Only two languages, English and Urdu are entirely focused throughout the schooling period. Whereas, the teaching of native languages was started in great hast and for the political point scoring by the provincial government in 2014-15. This study proposes that we can only take benefits from native languages, if we teach only native languages from Grade one to Grade three or four then we can transit to Urdu or English languages later. Moreover, the education department needs either to train existing primary school teachers or to appoint new language teachers who should teach native languages as a subject to develop cognitive skills in students.

5.3 Language-in-education Policy at Primary Level

Language-in-education policy is the most powerful and compelling resource to bring language change in a community and it is the "key implementation procedure for language policy and planning" (Kaplan, Baldauf, & Richard, 1997, p. 122). The data in figure 4 shows the largest number of respondents i.e. 55 (29.4%) were in favor of native languages along with Urdu to be taught at the primary level and then 54 (28.9%) respondents were in favor of all three languages i.e. native languages, Urdu, and English at primary level.

Figure 4: Desired Language-in-education Policy at Primary Level In contrast, the qualitative data divided into two different pools of opinions.



Six participants were in favor of native languages, Urdu and English language group. They argued that all three languages are very important for the students because, in native languages, students can learn conceptually, Urdu as a national language and English as an international language. For example, a participant explained, "*Primary*

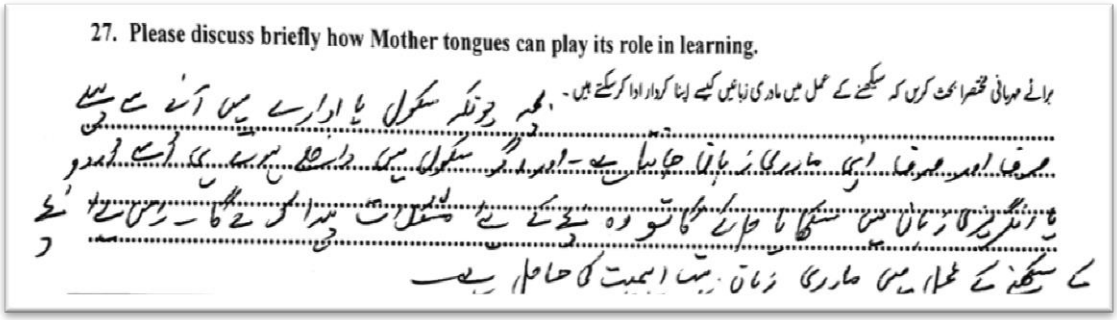
satah par teen zubaney parhany chahiye. Madri zuban, jabkay Urdu (batur-e-qumi zubaan) aur Angrezi (batur-e-Alami zuban) bi parhany chahiye" (at the primary section the language in education policy should be in the mother tongue, Urdu as a national language and English as an international language) (TCHR 4). But, the latter group argued and explained that at the primary level in the government schools there should be only two language i.e. native languages and national language (Urdu) because both languages are used as communication languages across the country. For example, a respondent said, "*Primary satah par sirf 2 zubanee istamal honi chahiye, Qumi aur Madri zubane. Kunkay tulba w taalibaat mahool may jo bi zuban istamal kartee hay wo unhee asani say samaj saktee hay. Chahee wo madri zuban ho ya qumi zuban*" (At the primary level, only two languages should be used i.e. National language (Urdu) and Mother tongues (native languages). Because the students use a language or languages in their environment, they can easily learn things in that language. Whether it is the national language or mother tongue.) (TCHR 7).

We cannot ignore the importance of additive bi/multilingualism at students early age because multiple languages in one's linguistic repertoire will help them in cognitive skill development. For instance, a respondent explained that "*multiple languages pa basic classoki cognition ziyatai"* (multiple languages can improve cognition at early Grades). Unfortunately, here in Balochistan due to the lack of language-in-education policy at primary level classes ignite several interconnected issues: (a) four different languages are taught in Grade one, (b) all these languages are taught in government schools as a subject rather than as a language, (c) native languages considered as source of developing cognitive skills but here they were introduced without any Needs analysis, environment analysis, and the education department has not provided any training session for the teachers, (d) the majority of primary schools i.e. 56% in the province are based on single teachers, in other words a single teacher has to take 42 classes on each day, and (e) majority of primary teachers are non-native speakers, and the problem is how they could be capable of teaching native languages to students.

5.4 Development of Cognitive Skills at Early Stages

As discussed earlier, that native language is like a man's shadow which cannot separate from his/her personality (Kamwangamalu, 2008). Their importance in education is associated with cognitive skills development, enrichment of minority languages, cultural and ethnolinguistic identity (Baker, 2001). In an open-ended question when the respondents were asked regarding the role of native languages in learning, respondent 37 wrote;

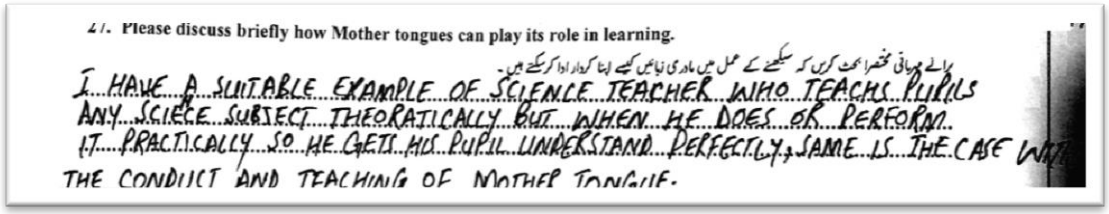
Figure 5: Views of a Respondent


27. Please discuss briefly how Mother tongues can play its role in learning.

(Before getting admission into any school or institution, the child only knows his/her mother tongue. When he/she gets admission in school then he starts learning Urdu and English languages which create hurdle for them. Therefore, for children learning

process mother tongue are very important. RESP 29). Another respondent (116) wrote,

Figure 6: Views of a Respondent

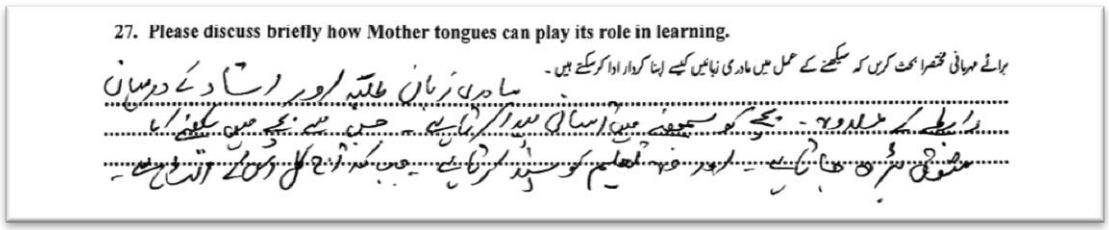

27. Please discuss briefly how Mother tongues can play its role in learning.

براہ مہربانی مختصراً بحث کریں کہ سیکھنے کے عمل میں مادری زبانیں کیسے اپنا کردار ادا کرسکتے ہیں۔

I HAVE A SUITABLE EXAMPLE OF SCIENCE TEACHER WHO TEACHS PUPILS ANY SCIECE SUBJECT THEORATICALLY BUT WHEN HE DOES OR PERFORM IT PRACTICALLY SO HE GETS HIS PUPIL UNDERSTAND PERFECTLY, SAME IS THE CASE WITH THE CONDUCT AND TEACHING OF MOTHER TONGUE.

Another respondent raised an important point that native languages work as communication languages between students and their teachers. He said that,

Figure 7: Views of a Respondent


27. Please discuss briefly how Mother tongues can play its role in learning.

براہ مہربانی مختصراً بحث کریں کہ سیکھنے کے عمل میں مادری زبانیں کیسے اپنا کردار ادا کرسکتے ہیں۔

(Apart from a source of communication, mother tongue makes learning very easy for children. It enhances the interest level of students in learning and then he/she likes to get education. But the situation is reverse nowadays. (RESP 163)).

The majority of respondents were of the opinion that native languages play very important role in learning. They are very important for the development of cognitive skills at the early stages. During the observation of classes, teaching and learning practices, the teachers were the main center of class. They were the only ones who kept speaking in the class (teacher-centered classes), on the other hand, students were mostly silent during the learning practice. The grammar translation method of teaching was the only method of teaching almost in all observed classes. The students' cognitive skills will only be developed when students became the center of learning practice. Students were involved via various activities in the learning process and most importantly when the native languages along the other languages are taught as a language rather than as a subject. Change in the pedagogy will change the learning practices in the province. It will happen when the education department arrange training sessions for the teachers and native languages will bear its fruits.

5.5 Institutional challenges and native languages

Since 2015, the major native languages (Pashto, Balochi, and Brahui) of the province became a part of provincial government school's curriculum. These native languages were started to be teach from Grade one. But, since the very start they have been facing some serious institutional challenges. The end stakeholders (teachers, parents, and students) have various reservations regarding the abrupt and unplanned introduction of native languages in government schools. Major institutional challenges are as following:

First, the language policies in Pakistan have been constantly changing and reversing throughout history and have been favoring both official language (English) and national language (Urdu) only. Thus, the researchers termed language policies in Pakistan as 'dilemma' (Mansoor, 2004) and 'enigma and conundrum' (Mustafa, 2011). The teachers, parents and students have their own reservations regarding the introduction of native languages in government schools in the province. Both parents and students were in favor of only English medium policy in schools as English is a language of higher education and considered as a passport to success (Manan, 2015).

On the other hand, teachers who are the frontline force of implementation of language-in-education policy in schools were in favor of native languages in early grades but they were of the opinion that native languages should be taught as a language rather than as a subject.

Second, Needs Analysis, which is an umbrella term, is considered an important step in Curriculum, Syllabus and textbooks designing. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1989) the aim of Needs Analysis is to survey the students 'lacks', 'necessities' and 'wants' and 'the Needs Analysis of teachers teaching capabilities', As the recruitment of teachers in Balochistan is for the most part associated with corruption, nepotism and political influence (Government-of-Balochistan, 2014). Moreover, the policy of including the teaching of native languages in the province was taken without detailed 'Situation Analysis' (Government-of-Balochistan, 2014), ground realities, teacher teaching capabilities and without providing any training session before or after the introduction of native languages in government schools in province. Therefore, it is very important to know about the teachers and students 'lacks', 'necessities' and 'wants' for the successful and effective implementation of native languages policy at schools particularly in the early Grades to develop cognitive skills.

Third, curriculum which is "a set of courses constituting an area of specialization" (Merriam-Webster-Online-Dictionary, 2018) and it guides and shows the learning pathway to students (Government-of-Pakistan, 2007, 2009). Besides, textbooks which are the basic source of learning for students and most important guideline for teachers. The provincial ministry of education prepared textbooks of native languages for only kindergarten (*Kachi*) without designing curriculum for native languages. As the decision of teaching native languages in Balochistan was taken in great haste and for the number scoring in politics in 2014. Further, the textbooks of native languages were provided for only Grade one (*awal aala*) and Grade two for two years only and the process stopped for higher Grades. In 2018 the education department provided textbooks for only kindergarten and Grade two in very minimum number whereas the Grade one was completely ignored this year. Therefore, in the same year (2018), the teachers in most of the schools stopped teaching native languages due to shortage of textbooks; in the case of students having mixed mother tongues studying in same class; the teachers of the early Grade being non-natives. Surprisingly, neither education department took any action nor enquired about it in their annual inspection of schools. It seems like the teaching of native languages will soon stop in the province.

Last but not least, in recent times only those languages survive and flourish which have economic viability, government, and institutional support. The institutional and governmental support to English and Urdu language made them dominant over the rest of native languages generally in the country and particularly in the province. Until and unless, the provincial and federal government give institutional support and economic viability to native languages like English and Urdu have, all the stakeholders (policymakers, parents, students, and teachers) will happily support the learning and teaching practices. Therefore, low economic viability and less importance to the teaching and learning practices of native languages in government schools are among the major institutional challenges.

6. Conclusion

Education in native languages particularly at the early stages is very important as the development of cognitive skills and (re)vitalization of identity, language, and culture are linked with it around the world. It is also important as they can easily learn content material in the language which they use at home and in the community. Both the quantitative and qualitative data supported the aforementioned views. But, the

implementation of native language policy seems a Herculean task as the country has failed to produce unanimously acceptable language-in-education policy in more than 70 years. If the education department willing to teach native languages in government schools, they should teach them as a language rather than as a subject in government schools or else it will fail like the teaching of English language. More, the institutional support, sound language-in-education policy, economic viability will pave the way for the teaching and learning practices of native languages in government schools.

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