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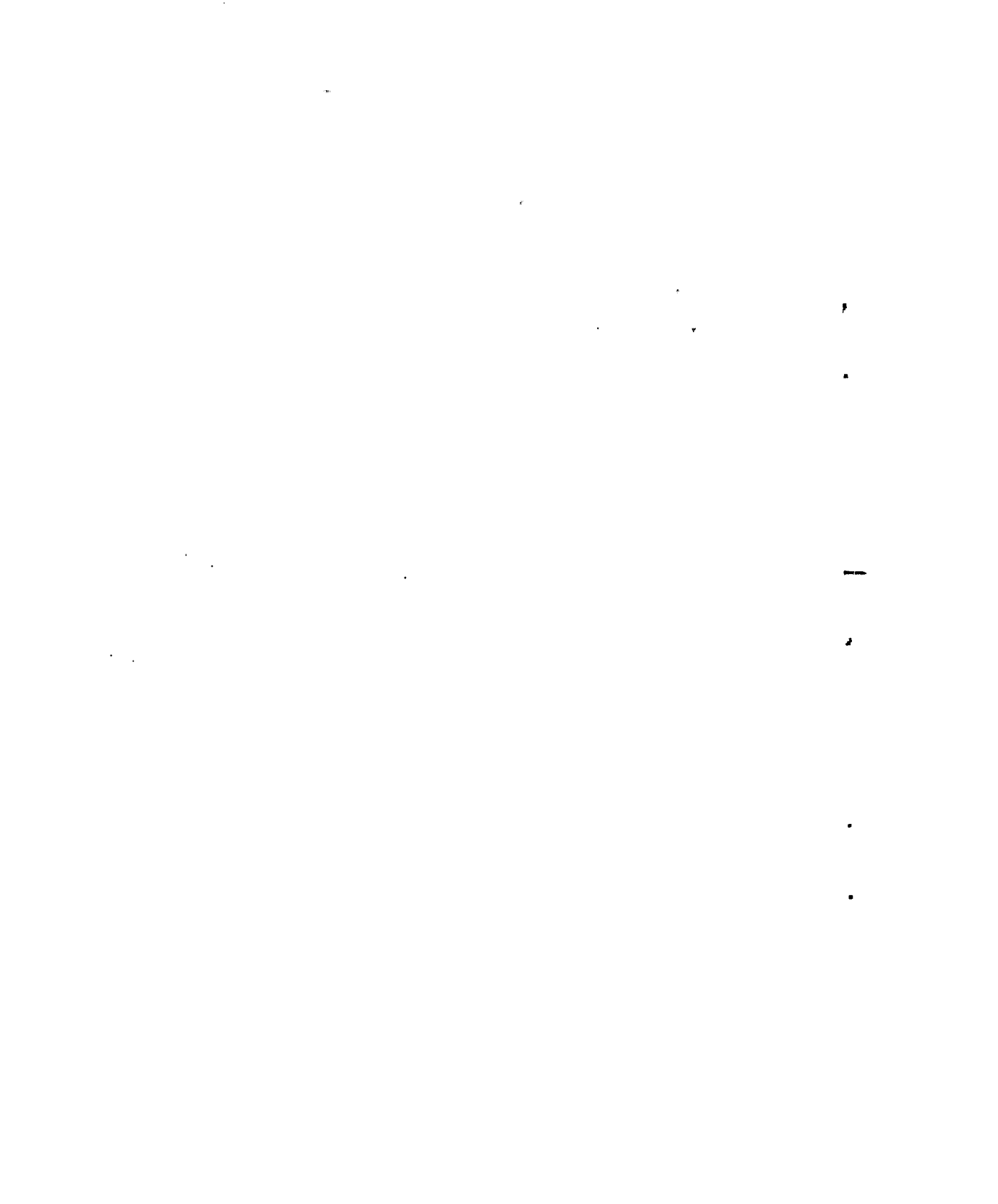
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**Exploring Variations in National Varieties of**  
**German**  
**(Discussion on important terms and theoretical dimensions)**

**Dr Anwer Mahmood**

Professor,  
 The Department of German Language  
 National University of Modern Languages

**ABSTRACT**

*Foreigners who learn German outside a German speaking country have often the misconception that there is one German language which is uniformly spoken all over in German speaking areas of Germany, Switzerland and Austria. However, they are disillusioned after landing in a particular area or city of these countries, like Munich, Stuttgart, Zurich, Bern, Vienna and Salzburg etc, where they are confronted with a particular variety of German language spoken in that area and thus encounter difficulties in various communicative situations of everyday speech.*

*In reality, the German, like any other language, is full of varieties which range from dialect to standard language, from written to spoken form, from everyday speech to German used in specific areas like natural sciences, technical fields, law, economy etc. Even the native speakers of German may face such difficulties while traveling away from their native areas.*

*In a series of articles I intend to explore the variations in the German language specifically with reference to its national standard varieties used in*



*Switzerland and Austria, and compare them with Standard German in Germany. In this article I would discuss some important terms and theoretical parameters which I consider relevant and important for further research on German varieties.*

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## **0. Introduction**

Foreigners who learn German outside a German speaking country have often the misconception that there is one German language which is uniformly spoken all over in German speaking areas of Germany, Switzerland and Austria. However, they are disillusioned after landing in a particular area or city of these countries, like Munich, Stuttgart, Zurich, Bern, Vienna and Salzburg etc, where they are confronted with a particular variety of German language spoken in that area and thus encounter difficulties in various communicative situations of everyday speech.

In reality, the German, like any other language, is full of varieties which range from dialect to standard language, from written to spoken form, from everyday speech to German used in specific areas like natural sciences, technical fields, law, economy etc. Even the native speakers of German may face such difficulties while traveling away from their native areas.

In a series of articles I intend to explore the variations in the German language specifically with reference to its national standard varieties used in Switzerland and Austria, and compare them with Standard German in Germany. In this article I would discuss some important terms and theoretical parameters which I consider relevant and important for further research on German varieties.

### **1. The term 'Standard' and its variations**

#### **1.1 Standard forms of German in historical perspective**

Looking at the history of German language, we come across various terms, which have been used to name its standard forms. The spectrum of these terms is very broad, but among them the most commonly used terms are

'*Hochdeutsch*' (= High German), '*Einheitssprache*' (= Unity language), '*Gemeinsprache*' (= Common Language), '*Schriftsprache*' (= Written Language), and sometimes even '*Umgangssprache*' (= Colloquial Language).

### 1.1.1 '*Hochdeutsch*'

The term '*Hochdeutsch*' (=High German) has been mostly associated with previous nomenclature to specify different historical varieties of the German language. The term '*Althochdeutsch*' (= Old High German) was used to specify the period in the history of German language between 8<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup> Century A.D. It was followed by the period of '*Mittelhochdeutsch*' (= Middle High German) which extends from 11<sup>th</sup> Century to 14<sup>th</sup> century. The period of '*Frühneuhochdeutsch*' (= Early New High German) begins around the middle of 14<sup>th</sup> Century and runs approximately up to the middle of 16<sup>th</sup> century.<sup>1</sup> This period is marked by the invention of the printing press, Martin Luther and the Reformation and the rise of the middle class. According to Bussmann (1996: 187) "several dialectal variants, such as Middle Low German of the Hanseatic league, the 'Common German' of the Hapsburg Chancery in the southern Germany, 'Meissen German' in the territory of Wettin competed against one another for supremacy." The period of '*Neuhochdeutsch*' (=New High German) followed thereupon in the course of 18<sup>th</sup> century. It was based on East Middle German and resulted from leveling processes between north and south. The New High German occurs as a written standard with numerous variants (dialects, sociolects) and levels (idiomatic, technical, etc) which show primarily phonetic and lexical differences. (Bussmann 1996: 187).

The term *Hochdeutsch* was initially used as an antonym to *Niederdeutsch* (= Low German) and denoted German vernaculars spoken in the higher regions of Germany i.e., in the Centre and South of the German-speaking region. Conversely, *Niederdeutsch* refers to the

German vernacular spoken in the Northern part of the German speaking region. However, the term *Hochdeutsch* is more often used as an antonym to *Umgangssprache* (= colloquial language) and refers to a standard form the German language.<sup>2</sup>

### 1.1.2 '*Einheitssprache*'/ '*Gemeinsprache*'

The term '*Einheitssprache*' (= Language of unity) is used to highlight the panregional communicative character of a language variety as opposed to regional dialects. Accordingly, Ammon (1977: 24) considers the terms 'dialect' and *Einheitssprache* as complementary which cannot be separated from each other and explains their relationship with the help of the following diagram:



(Source: Ammon 1974: 24)

The diagram shows that the regional range (German= *regionale Reichweite*) of a dialect (German= *Dialekt*) is limited as compared to that of the *Einheitssprache*. He considers them otherwise linguistically related and their repertoire overlap partially.

The necessity for a unified language was felt when the large number of regional dialects became impediments in the way of communication beyond the dialectal boundaries. The reasons for such a wider communication had been different in different time periods.

The terms *Gemeinsprache* (= Common Language) or *das Gemeindeutsche* (=Common German) are also widely used

in linguistic literature to denote the panregional variant of the German language. These terms are translated in bilingual dictionaries as *Standard language* or *High German*.<sup>3</sup>

### 1.1.3 ‘*Schriftsprache*’

Since the standardization of the German language was mainly based on its written form, the standardized written form is equated with the Standard language and called *Schriftsprache* (= Written Language). This term was quite commonly used in the past, but has been replaced gradually with the term “Standard language”, which is used to encompass both the spoken and written forms of the German.

## 1.2 Standard Language

Since the beginning of 70s the term “Standard language” has started to replace the term *Hochdeutsch* (High German)<sup>4</sup>. It was done due to the reason that the term *Hochdeutsch* used in the sense of a standard language invokes the popular scientific association of being higher as compared to a slang<sup>5</sup>. According to Schäfer<sup>6</sup> the term *Hochsprache* is associated with a language norm which sets too high standards for a considerable portion of German speakers especially from those areas where a dialect or a dialect tinted regional language is still in use as an everyday language. The result is that the *Hochdeutsch* is associated with a negative connotation because it seems unachievable for them and that they want to guard themselves from domination of a certain privileged class.

The term Standard language tries to prevent this danger. As compared to *Hochsprache* the Standard language is attributed a moderate norm claim. Hence, Moser (1982, 328) terms it as *Durchschnittshochsprache*, i.e., average high language.

Jäger (1980,377) terms the “standard language” as a language form, which is used by the high and middle

classes of the society. Moreover, he narrows down the term only to the written language and makes no difference between slang and standard form at the level of spoken language. One can object to the argument based on class difference that it is secondary whether the standard language is practiced in the middle and high classes. We should not forget that the language is realized in situations, hence it should be further differentiated by taking social situations into consideration, which also encompass the spatial (regional - panregional), medial (spoken – written) and functional (everyday language – literary language technical language) aspects etc.<sup>7</sup> Jäger has not considered these aspects in his definition of the Standard language. His definition is in my opinion not suitable for our research. Instead, the following definition by Henne (1972, 47) seems more appropriate for our purpose:

„Standardsprache ist innerhalb einer Gesamtsprache das räumlich nicht begrenzte Sprachsystem der öffentlichen und privaten Kommunikation mehrerer sozialen Gruppen, ...“

*(= Standard language is within an 'overall language' a language system which is spatially not limited and used for public and private communication by several groups, ...)*

When we talk of a Standard language, it is obvious that it follows some language norms. Hence, it is pertinent to discuss this term and differentiate it from the term “language use”.

Following Peter von Polenz (1982, 377) I would define the term “language norm” (in German *Sprachnorm*) as the part of possibilities of the language system, which is considered ‘normative’, ‘correct’, elegant’ and ‘good’ as a result of prescriptive metalinguistic communication<sup>8</sup>. He considers the “language system” as one of the four communicative forms of the language, namely “*Sprachverwendung*” (=language performance),

“*Sprachverkehr*” (=language traffic), “*Sprachkompetenz*” (= language competency) and “*Sprachsystem*” (= language system), which are differentiated<sup>9</sup> with the help of characteristic pairs “*individuell – sozial*” (= individual – social), “*realisiert – virtuell*” (= realized – virtual)<sup>10</sup> as shown in the following Figure, which has been adopted from the original German version of v. Polenz (1982:378)<sup>11</sup>:

|                   | realized             | virtual   |
|-------------------|----------------------|---|
| <b>Individual</b> | Language performance | Language competence   |
| <b>social</b>     | Language Traffic     | Language system   |
|                   |                      | <div style="border-left: 1px dashed black; border-right: 1px dashed black; padding: 0 10px;"> <div style="border-top: 1px dashed black; border-bottom: 1px dashed black; height: 1.2em; margin: 0 5px;"></div> <div style="text-align: center; margin: 5px 0;">Language -</div> <div style="border-top: 1px dashed black; border-bottom: 1px dashed black; height: 1.2em; margin: 0 5px;"></div> <div style="text-align: center; margin: 5px 0;">use</div> </div> |
|                   |                      | Language Norm   |

Figure 1

The language system is for v. Polenz the social virtual way of language existence. It is a system of diasystems over the different language competencies of a language speaker in a given time.<sup>12</sup> Moreover, he differentiates between “language use” and “language norm”. Contrary to “language norm”, which is prescriptive, the “language use” is that part of the language system, which is considered ‘normal’, ‘customary’, ‘known’, ‘prevalent’ and so on.<sup>13</sup> In this sense the partly overlapping relationship between “language use” and “language norm” can be shown in the following Figure:

$$\text{Language use} = A = A_1 + A_2$$

$$\text{Language norm} = B = B_1 + B_2$$

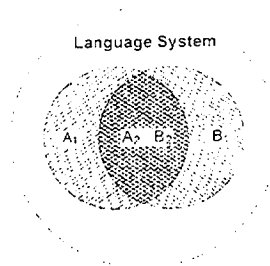


Figure 2

The subset  $A_1$  of the language use and the subset  $B_1$  of the language norm do not overlap, whereas the subset  $A_2$  of the language use and the subset  $B_2$  of the language norm overlap. The overlapping area ( $A_2 + B_2$ ) represents the language use according to the norms of the language. The part  $B_1$  of the language norm which has not been practiced during the language use can be defined according to v. Polenz<sup>14</sup> and Steger<sup>15</sup> as “ideal norm”. Such ideal norms come seldom into use in active language interactions<sup>16</sup>.

“Language use” and “language norm” are rightly considered by v. Polenz as part of the language system, but he places them together in the social-virtual part as shown in Figure 1. The placement of the “language use” into the virtual part seems problematic to me, because even if the judgments ‘normal’, and ‘prevalent’ or ‘normative’ and ‘good’ are made at the metalinguistic level for determining the “language use” and the “language norm” respectively, they are descriptive in nature for the “language use”. Actually the “language use” consists of object language expressions, which are realized in concrete situations. In contrast, the language norms are prescriptive in nature and as such idealizations which belong to the virtual part. For this reason the “language use” can also be placed in socially realized part. On the other hand all concrete utterances during the “language use” are also part of the “language system”, which is placed in the virtual part.



Consequently the “language use” can also claim to be a part of the “language system”. In my opinion this discrepancy can be resolved if the “language use” is placed somewhere in between the realized and virtual parts in the Figure.

In practice it is not easy to determine the borders between the language use and the language norm. Firstly, the question arises, which elements of the language use should be considered as part of the subset  $A_1$  in the figure and which of the language norm ( $A_2 + B_2$ ). Secondly, which authority would be competent to decide it.

In case of Germany it is relatively easy to answer these questions, because the DUDEN publishing house is considered as an authentic institution in matters relating to German language. In Austria the Austrian Dictionary “Österreichisches Wörterbuch” was published in 1951 on behalf of the Federal Ministry of Education as the so-called “Mittlere Ausgabe” (medium-sized edition)<sup>17</sup>. This dictionary along with its smaller version “Kleines Österreichisches Wörterbuch” were mainly intended for use in offices and schools, hence they comprise only the core Austrian vocabulary along with Austrian orthographic rules and German basic vocabulary.<sup>18</sup> Later, revised and enlarged editions were published. The latest version of this Austrian dictionary (40<sup>th</sup> edition) has been published in June 2006. In case of Switzerland such a dictionary or an institution do not exist. Hence, it becomes difficult to determine the norm correspondence of language elements which are in use in Switzerland, vis-à-vis they could be accepted as part of its Standard German variety.

It is evident from the Figure 2 that the language system is not fully covered by the language norm and the language use; it means that these two do not utilize all possibilities which are offered by the language system. For example, the German language system allows the words “*unsagbar*” and “*unsprechbar*”, but only the word “*unsagbar*” corresponds to the prevalent norm, and neither

the language norm nor the language use accept the second word. Similarly, the words “*Güte*” and “*Schönheit*” are accepted but not the words “*Gutheit*” and “*Schöne*”.<sup>19</sup>

Similar examples in English are: “Inseparable” and “unseperable”; “incorrect” and “uncorrect”.

Different varieties of the German language and for that purpose all the languages make use of many possibilities offered by their language systems in quite different ways, quantitatively and qualitatively. Therefore, differences are visible in lexicon as well in semantic field, and to some extent in syntactical field of the German variants of Germany, Austria and Switzerland.

### 1.3 Functional Areas

In every linguistic communication there are many complex dimensions simultaneously at work. Steger (1979, 13f) differentiates the following six dimensions:

- 1) Function: e.g. everyday communication; literary communication; technical or scientific communication.
- 2) Space: e.g. local, regional, panregional communication.
- 3) Social grouping: e.g., inner-group or inter-groups communication
- 4) Medium: spoken or written communication
- 5) Historical level: e.g., present or historical communication
- 6) Social situation: It is again a complex of many different factors. According to Steger all other dimensions converge in this dimension. We experience them all in this one dimension.<sup>20</sup>

A language can be observed and analysed under all these aspects. It would therefore be appropriate to define

and discuss some functional areas<sup>21</sup> which are pertinent to our research.

### **1.3.1 Everyday Language**

An “everyday language” is meant to fulfill the general communication needs of the common people. It is therefore practically oriented. According to Steger (1979, 13), it regulates the cooperative living together of individual members of the society and helps to overcome the practical problems encountered in everyday life. Hence he considers it a “multipurpose language” whose limited words are semantically vague but universal in application of meaning. They have a broad spectrum of usage for communicative expression of all inner and outer needs (leg, eye, run) which are expected to be ‘normal’.<sup>22</sup>

An “everyday language” can be manifested at a given time geographically in a dialect, colloquial language or in a panregional standard language, and sociologically in group languages.

### **1.3.2 Technical or Scientific Language**

Contrary to multipurpose everyday language, there are specific languages of technical and scientific fields which serve specific purposes of those areas (e.g. medicine, psychology, computer technology, sports etc.). As compared to everyday languages the technical or scientific languages have very large number of terminologies and constructions which are characterized by exact and clear meanings.<sup>23</sup>

Some general characterizations of technical or scientific languages are:

- *Lexical characteristics*

The main difference between an everyday and a technical language lies in the vocabulary. The latter has specialized, technical vocabulary which is embedded in sentence structures of everyday

language.<sup>24</sup> In German a technical vocabulary can contain words which are borrowed from foreign languages, e.g. '*Allium achutangulum*' (botany) and '*Source*' (electronics), but also Germanized foreign words like '*Generative Transformationsgrammatik*' (linguistics). To a lesser extent<sup>25</sup> it also uses words of everyday language but with different meanings, e.g. '*Spannung*' (technology and electricity), '*Widerstand*' and '*Anpassung*' (electronics). Such terminologies are generally new formations created by using words and morphological rules of the common standard language, e.g. '*Planspindelzahnrad*' (Technology), '*Abseitsstellung*' (Football, Hockey), '*Rückumlaut*' (linguistics).

- Syntactical characteristics
  - a) The technical or scientific languages show strong tendencies towards nominal style and excessive use of 'functional verb construction' where the verb is semantically empty.<sup>26</sup> For example:
 

*„Bei der Überprüfung der Gültigkeit dieser Hypothese ist der zu geringe Umfang an Ausgangsmaterial in Anschlag zu bringen. Es werden nur 40 Tests dieser Berechnung unterzogen“*<sup>27</sup>
  - b) Often the personal subject is avoided and a passive voice construction preferred,<sup>28</sup> as we have seen in the above example.

### 1.3.3 Institutional Language

The Swiss linguistic, Heinz Rupp complains about widening gap between the democratic state Switzerland and its citizens due to growing language barriers between state and citizen.<sup>29</sup> This problem is not only limited to Switzerland but in fact a global problem. The reasons for this alienation between state and citizens lie in fast and enormous growth of bureaucratic institutions during the last

century though there have been tremendous efforts for more democracy.

Ehlich und Rehbein (1980, 338) consider "Institutions" as forms of social dealings in society for processing the social needs and count as examples 'family', educational, health, juristic and political institutions, civil and military administrative institutions, 'mass media', cultural and religious institutions, ghettos and so on. I consider this definition of 'institutional language' very wide, because it allows to consider also such social groups as institutions whose language either falls within the domain of another functional area, or it cannot be accepted as a standard form of language, e.g. 'family' (functional area 'everyday language')<sup>30</sup> and 'ghettos' (group language). The language of some institutions (e.g. the church) can be classified as the language of the functional area "religious language".

I would narrow down the term 'institution' and limit my research on institutional language to the institutions of 'business', 'banks', 'insurances' and to institutions of state sector. I also consider the legal and administrative languages as well as the language of military as institutional languages.

Wagner (1970, 97ff) enlists the following characteristics<sup>31</sup> of the administrative language<sup>32</sup> in the Federal Republic of Germany, which are in my opinion typical for the functional area of 'institutional language':

- a) Notably frequent use of nominal clauses where the verbal parts have often pure syntactical function and are semantically empty. (p. 98)
- b) A large number of technical words and terms which are used to name its objects. They are constantly increased by building nominal words in place of verbal contents; distinguishing terms are constantly formed by compounding several words. (p. 99)

- c) The institutional language does not contain much artificial words. Rather it takes the words of everyday language and replaces their general meanings with specific und precise meanings.<sup>33</sup>

Whereas the legal language displays similar characteristics as a) and b) of some technical languages (e.g. languages of medicine or technology)<sup>34</sup>, but it is partly different from them as far as the characteristic c) is concerned. Today, a technical language has the tendency of building artificial words or making use of words from foreign languages and it rarely adopts words from everyday language. On the other hand, an institutional language generally tries to build words by means of everyday language but they are defined more precisely to avoid any ambiguities.

#### **1.3.4 Literary Language**

I would define the term 'literature' in its narrow sense according to which it comprises artistic language works like 'belles lettres' (German 'schöne Literatur'), 'bellettristic', 'fiction' and 'poetry'.<sup>35</sup> Accordingly, Busmann (1996, 287) describes the literary language as "a highly stylized and variably contrived (panregional) language as opposed to everyday, colloquial language. Literary language is subject to less strict grammatical norms and makes no claims to authenticity and utility or to economy or semantic clarity."

The theoretically sound, aesthetic world of literature stands on the one hand opposite to the practically oriented everyday language; on the other hand its synthetic and aesthetic character differentiates it from the analytically operating fields of science, technology, institutions etc.

The aesthetic language form of the literature is free from compulsions of economical information transfer and shackles of the semantic clarity and standardizations, which the institutional and technical languages cannot avoid.

Steger (1982: 9) rightly observes that almost in every important text of the German literature new interpretations, new assessments and new combinations of language of different functional and social origins are undertaken in the service of the concerned artistic work and its own synthetic interpretation of the world. Even the semantic variations of similar expressions are an important tool for creating artistic literary works, whose specific meanings can only be derived from the context.

In the functional domain 'literature' the linguistic forms of other functional domains (e.g. everyday language, institutions) are taken out of their original communicative contexts and given a new task to serve the newly created literary text; it has been proved by Steger (1982a, 26f) with examples from the *Alfred Döblin's* novel '*Alexander Platz*'.

Syntactic peculiarities as well as semantic deviations are mostly connected to fictive situations of poetic texts and make that artistic work unique. Hence the linguistic elements of the literary language do not have a general norm character; rather they follow their own diverse aesthetic norms of literary works.

## **2. National Varieties of German**

German is the sole national and official language of Germany and Austria. In Switzerland it is one of the four national languages; the other three are French, Italian and retoromance. According to Dürmüller (1996: 11), the majority of Swiss population (63.7%) speaks German, followed by 19.2% French, 7.6% Italian and 0.6% retoromance. The principality of Liechtenstein, bordered by Switzerland to its west and by Austria to its east, and with a population of ca. 34,000 the smallest German-speaking country in the world.

German is also spoken as a minority language in other parts of Europe. For example, in Luxemburg, it is the official language along with French and Luxembourgish. In

South Tyrol, it is spoken alongside the official languages Italian and Ladin. According to the 2001 census 69% of the 482,650 population speaks German.

It is quite natural that the specific linguistic and extralinguistic conditions in those areas have influenced the German language and led to formation of specific regional varieties. The spoken language in general and functional area of everyday speech in specific is most vulnerable to influence by local dialects which lead to formation of multiple substandard and nonstandard varieties in those countries. It is specially the case in Switzerland where the everyday speech takes place almost exclusively in Swiss German dialects which can be attributed as nonstandard varieties of German. The Standard German in this functional area is almost nonexistent in Switzerland. Moreover, the functional area of 'institutional language' grows out of the necessity for state-specific terminology in consonance with historical developments and political structures of those states and their institutions. Some examples of such differences in institutional terminologies are given below:

| English                       | Germany                                 | Austria                | Switzerland                                 |
|-------------------------------|---|------------------------|---|
| Lower House of the Parliament | <i>Bundestag</i>                        | <i>Nationalrat</i>     | <i>Nationalrat</i>                          |
| Members of the Lower House    | <i>Bundestags-abgeordnete</i>           | <i>Nationalräte</i>    | <i>Nationalräte</i>                         |
| Upper House of the Parliament | <i>Bundesrat</i>                        | <i>Bundesrat</i>       | <i>Ständerat</i>                            |
| Federal Government            | <i>Bundesregierung</i>                  | <i>Bundesregierung</i> | <i>Bundesrat</i>                            |
| Province                      | <i>Bundesland</i>                       | <i>Bundesland</i>      | <i>Kanton</i>                               |
| National Anthem               | <i>Nationalhymne</i>                    | <i>Bundeshymne</i>     | <i>Landeshymne</i>                          |
| School Leaving Certificate    | <i>Abitur</i> or<br><i>Reifeprüfung</i> | <i>Matura</i>          | <i>Matur</i> or<br><i>Maturitätsprüfung</i> |



|                                      |                      |                      |                      |
|--------------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Seminars in University (Plural form) | Seminare             | Seminare             | <i>Seminarien</i>    |
| Passport Office                      | <i>das Passamt</i>   | <i>das Passamt</i>   | <i>das Passbüro</i>  |
| January                              | <i>Januar</i>        | <i>Jänner</i>        | <i>Januar</i>        |
| Air Force                            | <i>die Luftwaffe</i> | <i>die Luftwaffe</i> | <i>die Flugwaffe</i> |
| Oath-taking for Government Officials | <i>Vereidigung</i>   | <i>Angelobung</i>    | <i>Vereidigung</i>   |

Similarly in the functional area ‘Everyday speech’ we find variations in vocabulary, e.g.:

| English     | Germany                | Austria                | Switzerland            |
|-------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| Cauliflower | <i>Blumenkohl</i>      | <i>Karfiol</i>         | <i>Blumenkohl</i>      |
| Potato      | <i>die Kartoffel</i>   | <i>der Erdapfel</i>    | <i>die Kartoffel</i>   |
| Bicycle     | <i>Fahrrad</i>         | <i>Fahrrad</i>         | <i>Velo</i>            |
| Yogurt      | <i>der Joghurt</i>     | <i>das Joghurt</i>     | <i>das Joghurt</i>     |
| Dry cleaner | <i>Die Reinigung</i>   | <i>Die Putzerei</i>    | <i>Die Reinigung</i>   |
| Icing sugar | <i>der Puderzucker</i> | <i>der Staubzucker</i> | <i>der Puderzucker</i> |
| Plum        | <i>die Pflaume</i>     | <i>die Zwetschke</i>   | <i>die Zwetschge</i>   |

In spite of all the regional variations in the language, German speaking people in the Federal Republic of Germany, Austria and Switzerland can be considered as members of one speech community namely ‘German’. German as such is a polycentric and a plurinational language<sup>36</sup> with its German, Austrian and Swiss national varieties differing somewhat from one another in some aspects. I tend to consider the Standard German of the Germany as the main standard language, whose norms are followed to a greater extent also in other German speaking countries or areas. Yet, variations exist in vocabulary, orthographic systems and pronunciation, which would be discussed in detail in my forthcoming articles on Swiss and Austrian national varieties of German.

## End Notes

- 1 See Besch (1980:589)
- 2 See Richter, Helmut: Questions And Answers about German Dialects.  
<http://www.lrz-muenchen.de/~hr/lang/dt-dial.html>
- 3 See Langenscheidts Großwörterbuch (1993: 486)
- 4 See Glinz (1980), p. 609
- 5 See Jäger (1980), p. 375
- 6 Schläpfer (1982), p. 17  
*Schäpfer (1982: 16) writes: „Daß man in der Zeit, als sich eine Regionalsprache (bzw. im Deutschen eine Ausgleichssprache zwischen verschiedenen Schreibdialekten) für ein ganzes Sprachgebiet als allgemeine Schriftsprache, als Literatur- und Bildungssprache durchzusetzen begann, mit diesem Prozeß die Vorstellung verband, eine 'höhere' Sprache überwölbe die regionalen Mundarten, ist verständlich. Heute wachsen die Bedenken gegen eine solche Wertung, insbesondere weil es nicht angeht, eine bestimmte Sprachform wegen ihrer größeren kommunikativen Reichweite, und weil sie (auch) Literatursprache ist, höher einzustufen als die Alltagssprache, (...)”.*
- 7 See Steger / Schütz et al. (1974) and Steger (1979) for a detailed discussion.
- 8 In a metalinguistic communication the speaker describes the language itself and the listener understands and evaluates the language oriented descriptions. Following Lyons (1968: 68 ff), Peter von Polenz (1982: 375) terms them as “prescriptive” if they contain judgments and/ or metacommunicative utterances like ‘permitted’, ‘not permitted’, ‘recommended’ etc., and “descriptive” if the language is made the object of communication without passing judgments.

- 9 See v. Polenz (1982: 357 ff)
- 10 *ibid.*, p. 374:
- ‘individual’, i.e., which concerns an individual member of the language community
- ‘social’, i.e., which concerns a group of the language community
- ‘realized, i.e., what has been actually uttered
- ‘virtual, i.e., what as abstract rules makes the production, communicative use, understanding and evaluation of utterances
- 11 *ibid.*, p. 378. The original German version is given below:

|             |                  |                 |
|-------------|------------------|-----------------|
|             | realisiert       | virtuell        |
| Individuell | Sprachverwendung | Sprachkompetenz |
| sozial      | Sprachverkehr    | Sprachsystem    |
|             |                  | - - - - -       |
|             |                  | Sprach-         |
|             |                  | - -   - - - - - |
|             |                  | brauch          |
|             |                  | Sprachnorm      |

- 12 *ibid.*, p. 376. Compare also Steger (1970: 15), who understands the same under the ‘language system’, but defines it in a more explicit way as follows: „daß Sprecher und Sprache in besonderer Weise auf die Gesellschaft hin angelegt sind, so daß nur das sozial relevant, d.h., für eine optimale Kommunikation tauglich ist, was die ganze Gruppe als ihre potentiellen (virtuellen) Sprachmöglichkeiten bezeichnen würde, und nur diesen kollektiven Anteil dürfen wir das Sprachsystem (LA LANGUE) einer Gruppe nennen.”
- 13 V. Polenz (1982: 377)

- 14    *ibid.*, p. 378
- 15    Steger (1970: 25)
- 16    *ibid.*
- 17    Retti, Georg (1991: 4)
- 18    See Oswald, Peter (3/25) at  
<http://aeiou.iicm.tugraz.at/aeiou.encyclop.o/o797202.htm>
- 19    Example from Moser (1977: 25)
- 20    Steger (1970: 15)
- 21    In German '*Funktionsbereiche*' or also '*Funktiolekte*'  
 (compare *ibid.*). They even called '*Erscheinungsformen  
 der deutschen Sprache*' (see Steger 1982a: 32)
- 22    Steger (1982: 9)
- 23    *ibid.*
- 24    See Rupp (1978: 22)
- 25    Contrary to the 'Institutional language', compare 1.3.3 of  
 this article.
- 26    See von Hahn (1980: 394)
- 27    Example from von Hahn (1980: 394)
- 28    *ibid.*
- 29    Rupp (1978, 13 ff)
- 30    If at all the individual family members use the Standard  
 language for the everyday communication, which is  
 mostly not the case in Switzerland.
- 31    Hereby I have not enlisted the stylistic characteristics of  
 an 'administrative language' given by Wagner (1970: 97  
 f) like "official, impersonal, and functional character" or  
 "endeavor for precision, clarity and objectivity" of the  
 statement.
- 32    Daum (1981: 86 f) and Wagner (1970: 97 f) have  
 enlisted the main characteristics of the 'legal language'

and 'administrative language' respectively. A comparison of both reveals similar features.

- 33 Compare also Rupp (1978: 23) who comes to the same conclusion.
- 34 It also applies to the 'Military language'.
- 35 See Steger (1982a: 13) and von Wilpert (1969: 440)
- 36 See Ammon (1995: 113)

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## **Universal Primary Education (UPE) in Pakistan and its Shifting Targets**

**Dr Muhammad Tayyab Alam**

The Department of Education

National University of Modern Languages

### **ABSTRACT**

*In Pakistan a number of Education Policies were developed and the targets were set for different sub-sectors of education. An analysis of the shifts of UPE targets in Pakistan was made and it was observed that the following major shifts of the targets were made*

- 1 Ist Five Years Plan (1955-60), shifted the target of UPE from the year 1967 to 1975.*
- 2 New Education Policy (1970) shifted this target to 1980.*
- 3 Education Policy (1972-80), shifted it further to 1984.*
- 4 National Education Policy (1979) shifted the UPE target to 1987 for boys and 1992 for girls.*
- 5 National Education Policy (1992) shifted it to 2002.*
- 6 National Education Policy (1998-2010) further shifted the UPE target to the year 2010.*
- 7 ESR plans to achieve this target by 2015.*

*This is the history of UPE shifts; thus spreading the initial 20 year plan of UPE ( 1947 to 1967) to 68 year ( from 1947 to 2015) period and still not*

*hoping to achieve these targets by 2015. This may be named as the history of our failures in the achievement of UPE targets. There is, therefore, a need to set realistic targets and provide a monitoring system to achieve the set targets in future so that Pakistan may develop in different aspects of life.*

The history of shifting targets of UPE in Pakistan is as old as Pakistan itself.

### **1 “First All Pakistan Education Conference”**

The Conference was held from November 27th 1947 to 2<sup>nd</sup> December 1947 and it recommended that a system of Universal Primary Education is imperative. It is essential to the nation as a base for the entire structure of secondary and higher education from which will come leadership in all the walks of life and support for technical developments in agriculture and industry. The target year for UPE in “1947 Pakistan Education Conference” was set as 1967 but while setting the targets of the First Five year Plan (1955-60), the target year of UPE was shifted to the year 1975.

### **2 Report of the Commission on National Education (1959),**

The Report proposed the policy targets of UPE as the year 1974, but when the targets of “Second Five year Plan -1960-65” were set, the target year for the UPE was continued to be set at the year 1975; and thus the target year for the achievement of UPE was not shifted from the target set in the First Five year Plan.

### **3 The New Education Policy (1970)**

This Policy set UPE target year as 1980, which was a shift of Five years from the previous target for UPE set in the Second Five year Plan. The Third Five Year Plan - 1965-70” set its target year 1980 for UPE and that was in

line with the UPE target year set in the “New Education Policy 1970”. The Third Five Year Plan (1965-70) reiterated that: “Heavy investment at the primary level is necessary in order to reveal talent and to lay the basis of attitudes of mind essential to development. This will improve the secondary and higher stages of education, which have been recruiting from too narrow a base in the past. In addition, it will eventually furnish the necessary expanded inflow into technical and vocational institutions”. The objective of the Third Plan was to increase enrollment at primary level in order that Universalization of Primary Education could be achieved as early as possible.

#### **4 The New Education policy (1972-80)**

It was the First Education policy approved by the Government of Pakistan. This was the period of Fourth Five Year Plan (1970-75), and this plan stated that “Mass illiteracy blocks economic and social progress and a nation has to pay heavily for it in every direction. Apart from the fact that free primary education is a fundamental human right, it is by far the cheapest kind of education and its benefits are widely distributed among the entire nation”. The main strategy of the Fourth Plan was to concentrate on accelerating the growth of primary education. This period of 4<sup>th</sup> Five year Plan was changed into the Non-Plan Period (1970-78) by Government and the new targets set for UPE were as under:

|      |               |
|------|---------------|
| 1979 | UPE for Boys  |
| 1984 | UPE for Girls |

In this way the previous UPE target of 1980 was shifted to the year 1979 for boys and 1984 for girls; thus practically shifting the previous target of 1980 for UPE to the year 1984.

#### **5 The New Education policy (1979)**

Another shift of UPE targets is observed in 1979 with the introduction of “The National Education Policy

(1979)". This period is coincided with the Fifth Five Year Plan (1978-83) and the new targets set for UPE under this policy were as under:-

1987 for the UPE of Boys

1992 for the UPE of Girls

In this way a shift of eight years is observed in the UPE targets both for boys and girls. The 5<sup>th</sup> year Plan marked "A fundamental re-ordering of the national priorities in favour of primary education and vocational and technical training ". The Fifth Five Year Plan lamented that "as a consequence of neglect of primary education, Pakistan has a high illiteracy rate, illiteracy has been a major factor contributing to economic and social backwardness".

#### **6. The 6<sup>th</sup> Five Year Plan (1983-88) emphasized**

It emphasized that Access to primary education is the key to equality of opportunities. The quality of university students visibly improves as a result of wide choice provided by primary education". This 6<sup>th</sup> Five Year Plan did not very much shift the previous UPE targets and kept the UPE target year of 1992 for girls. However it shifted the UPE target year for boys from 1987 to 1988.

#### **7. The National Education Policy (1992)**

proposed another shift of ten years and fixed the year 2002 for the achievement of combined UPE for boys and girls. Further a target of the 99.1 percent of the UPE was planned to be achieved in this policy.

The 7<sup>th</sup> Five year Plan (1993-98) and 8<sup>th</sup> Five Year Plan (1993-98) were committed on UPE.

In the Seventh Five Year Plan (1988-93), strategy was to increase the literacy rate through improvement and expansion of primary education. One of the objectives of the Seventh Plan was to universalize access to primary education. Primary Education was adopted as the main

instrument for achieving mass literacy. The Seventh Plan envisaged to provide primary education facilities to all children in the age group of 5 to 9 years. The school facilities were to be provided to every child within a radius of 1.5 Km, so that no child is deprived of basic education due to unavailability of a school within a reachable distance. The target year set for UPE was 1993.

The focus of Eighth Five Year Plan (1993-98) was to universalize access to primary education for all boys and girls of 5 – 9 years of age. Universalization of primary education, both for boys and girls, over a minimum period of time was adopted as the main instrument for achieving mass literacy in the long run.

The target year set for UPE in the 8<sup>th</sup> Five year Plan was 1998, with 95% literacy rate in boys and 82% literacy rate in girls with respect to UPE.

## 8      **National Education Policy (1998-2010)**

It came with new targets for UPE; the year 2002-3 being the year for achievement of 90 percent of literacy rates and the year 2010 being the year for the achievement of 105 percent of literacy rate with respect to UPE.

“Where we stand to-day with respect to UPE?” is very well known to us. ESR has been shifting its targets and the year 2015 has been fixed for the achievement of UPE.

This paper shows the history of the shifts of our targets for the achievement of UPE. The first target set in 1947 for UPE was 1967 i.e. a plan of 20 years for the achievement of Universal Primary Education was developed. This target has continuously been shifted from the year 1967 to the year 2015. This is the history of our failures in achieving the set targets and still no one can predict the achievement the UPE by the year 2015. Setting the targets, monitoring the plans and ensuring the

achievement of the targets are the secrets of success in the national development.

### **Conclusion**

From this discussion it can be safely concluded that the implementers of the Policies and Plans in Pakistan have not been sincere and vigilant. There were continuous shifts of UPE targets from 1967 to 2015 with the result that a twenty year Plan was spread over a period of 68 years and still the UPE targets are not likely to be achieved by the year 2015. It is estimated that the maximum achievement is likely to be 80 percent by the year 2015, if the past trend of UPE development continues. It is, therefore, recommended that special efforts be made for the achievement of UPE targets if we are serious in the national development. Moreover continuous monitoring of the plans needs to be made and those who are responsible for the failure of UPE targets need to be taken task through some system of accountability.

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## **Intrinsic, Extrinsic and General Job Satisfaction of Head Teachers**

**Dr Safdar Rehman Ghazi**

Assistant Professor

University of Science and Technology

Bannu

### **ABSTRACT**

*The purpose of this study was twofold. One, the study was to document intrinsic, extrinsic and general levels of job satisfaction of elementary school head teachers. Two, the influence of selected personal and unit-related characteristics (age, degree status, experience, and school size) on job satisfaction was investigated.*

*The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, Long Form (MSQ) 1967 was chosen to measure satisfaction levels of job satisfaction. An individual data form was used to collect information about selected personal and unit characteristics. Frequencies, percentages and appropriate summary statistics were computed for the personal and unit-related characteristics. The reliability and content validity of the MSQ were determined through a pilot run. Cronbach's alpha was computed to measure the internal consistency of the MSQ intrinsic, extrinsic and general job satisfaction scales. An Urdu version was viewed by experts committee to explore the instrument's content validity.*

*The mean and standard deviation for the purpose were documented in addition to the frequencies, percentages, ANOVA, Scheffe Post Hoc test, t-test,*

*Least Significant Difference and summary statistics for the scale.*

*The findings of the study indicated that the head teachers were intrinsically, extrinsically and generally satisfied with their positions. The younger and older head teachers were more satisfied than head teachers of middle age and head teachers with minimum and maximum experience were more satisfied than the head teacher with medium experience. Moreover, degree status and school size were not found the predictors of job satisfaction. Recommendations were made to maintain the present level of satisfaction or to increase it to a higher level in order to promote positive perceptions for this important position. Recommendations were also made for further researches to investigate the reasons why satisfaction increases in younger age with low experience and in older age with higher experience while decreases in middle age with medium experience. It was also recommended to investigate more predictors and facets/dimensions of job satisfaction.*

## **Introduction**

To meet the challenges effectively and efficiently, government must retain and, when needed, hire talented administrators, faculty, and support staff. Organizations that are successful could be considered healthy. Wood (1976) asserts, "The health of an educational institution depends on the job satisfaction of its employees" (p. 58). Cranny, Smith, and Stone (1992) estimated that more than 5,000 relevant job satisfaction studies have been published during the twentieth century. Many articles and dissertations credit Hoppock's (1935) study of job satisfaction as pioneering work, but his review of other job satisfaction investigations already included 32 studies. Employees from manufacturing, retailing, and service

firms; local, state, and federal government agencies; and schools, colleges, and universities have been participants in job satisfaction research.

Why the strong interest in job satisfaction? Roznowski and Hulin (1992) believe that after an individual is hired, knowledge of his or her job satisfaction becomes the most important piece of data a manager or organizational psychologist can have. Robbins (1998) recently concluded that impressive evidence exists concerning the significance of job satisfaction. A satisfied workforce leads to higher productivity because of fewer disruptions such as absenteeism, departure of good employees, and incidences of destructive behavior. The presence of satisfied employees also translates into lower medical and life insurance costs. Society in general benefits too because satisfaction on the job contributes to satisfaction off the job. High job satisfaction as a goal can lead to saving dollars and cents as well as increasing social responsibility.

### **Statement of Problem**

This research sought to investigate two areas of job satisfaction. First, the study investigated the intrinsic, extrinsic and general job satisfaction levels of head teachers as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). Second, the researcher sought to determine the influence of the variables age, education, experience, and school size on the head teachers' intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction levels.

### **Objectives**

Following were the specific objectives of the research.

- To assess the intrinsic, extrinsic and general job satisfaction levels of head teachers.

- To identify the intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction levels among head teachers according to the demographic variables age, degree, experience, and school size;
- To suggest measures to improve practices to develop job satisfaction; and
- To make recommendations for further research.

### ***Procedure of the Study***

#### **Review of the Related Literature**

The study included the general review of the related literature especially with the following aspects.

- Concept of job satisfaction
- Job satisfaction as a predictor variable
- Measurement of job satisfaction
- Research studies in education where MSQ was used
- Intrinsic/content and extrinsic/context factors associated with job satisfaction
- Theoretical frameworks of job satisfaction
- Job satisfaction and demographic variables
- Strategic studies of job satisfaction promotion

In the light of this review, a theoretical framework was developed which was used as a criterion to evaluate the current level of intrinsic, extrinsic and general job satisfaction and influence of the demographic variables on these dimensions of the job.

#### **Reserch Guiding Questions**

The research was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction levels among head teachers as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)?
2. What are the intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction levels according to the demographic variables; age, degree, experience, and school size?

### **Delimitations of the Study**

On the basis of the availability of facilities, time and resources the research was delimited to:

- A survey of government elementary school head teachers in district Toba Tek Singh of the Punjab,
- Data about the head teachers and unit related characteristics; age, qualification, experience, and school size, and
- The respondents' responses on given dimensions of intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction were also delimited by the nature of the MSQ.

### **Hypotheses of the Study**

Following twelve were the null hypotheses for this study.

- H<sub>0 1</sub>:** There is no significant difference among younger, middle, and older age groups of head teachers' level of intrinsic job satisfaction.
- H<sub>0 2</sub>:** There is no significant difference between bachelor and master degree holder head teachers' level of intrinsic job satisfaction.
- H<sub>0 3</sub>:** There is no significant difference among minimum, medium, and maximum experienced

groups of head teachers' level of intrinsic job satisfaction.

- H<sub>0 4</sub>:** There is no significant difference between smaller and larger school head teachers' level of intrinsic job satisfaction.
- H<sub>0 5</sub>:** There is no significant difference among younger, middle, and older age groups of head teachers' level of extrinsic job satisfaction.
- H<sub>0 6</sub>:** There is no significant difference between bachelor and master degree holder head teachers' level of extrinsic job satisfaction.
- H<sub>0 7</sub>:** There is no significant difference among minimum, medium, and maximum experienced groups of head teachers' level of extrinsic job satisfaction.
- H<sub>0 8</sub>:** There is no significant difference between smaller and larger school head teachers' level of extrinsic job satisfaction.
- H<sub>0 9</sub>:** There is no significant difference among younger, middle, and older age groups of head teachers' level of general job satisfaction.
- H<sub>0 10</sub>:** There is no significant difference between bachelor and master degree holder head teachers' level of general job satisfaction.
- H<sub>0 11</sub>:** There is no significant difference among minimum, medium, and maximum experienced groups of head teachers' level of general job satisfaction.
- H<sub>0 12</sub>:** There is no significant difference between smaller and larger school head teachers' level of general job satisfaction.

## **Instrumentation**

Self developed Individual Data Sheet and one of the most popular measures of job satisfaction, Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was used as a research instrument. It is a standardized questionnaire. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was developed by Weiss, Dawis, English, and Lofquist (1967) to measure the individual's satisfaction with intrinsic, extrinsic, and general aspects of the work environment. Keeping in view the environments and situations of sampled population some necessary and minor changes were made in the questionnaire and then it was translated into Urdu. A pilot study was also conducted for the reliability and validation of the questionnaire.

## **Data Collection**

To get a high response rate, personally and by mail using both means relevant information were collected.

## **Population**

The population of this study consisted of all government elementary school head teachers located at district Toba Tek Singh in the Punjab.

## **Sampling**

Hundred percent sampling was made for this study, and the teachers of all categories who were working as head teachers in government elementary schools in district Toba Tek Singh of the Punjab filled in the questionnaire.

## **Statistical Treatment**

The collected data was entered in SPSS-10 and was computed accordingly. Collected information was treated statistically using percentage, mean, standard deviation, Analysis Of Variance (ANOVA), t test, Scheffe Post Hoc Test, and Least Significant Difference (LSD) and presented in the tabulation form according to the objectives of the



study. A detailed interpretation for each table was also written to help in concluding the results of the study.

### **Findings**

1. Intrinsically, the head teachers resulted with a percentage 51.67 and a mean satisfaction score of 3.26 (SD = .39), shows that the head teachers were satisfied for this aspect of their job.
2. Extrinsically, the head teachers resulted with a percentage 37.44 and a mean satisfaction score of 2.73 (SD = .46), shows that the head teachers were satisfied for this aspect of their job.
3. Generally, the head teachers resulted with a percentage 44.44 and a mean satisfaction score of 3.08 (SD = .36), shows that the head teachers were generally satisfied with their positions.
4. Data collected for this study shows that the mean scores for all age groups were between 3.03 (SD = .25) and 3.61 (SD = .42); means that the head teachers of all ages were intrinsically satisfied with their positions.
5. All of the respondents for degree status categories scored between 3.24 (SD = .39) and 3.29 (SD = .38); indicating that head teachers, regardless of their level of education, were intrinsically satisfied with their jobs.
6. The respondents' mean scores according to their years of total experience were between 3.10 (SD = .30) and 3.43 (SD = .47); indicating that the head teachers were intrinsically satisfied with their positions.
7. The head teachers with smaller and larger school categories obtained means between 3.22 (SD = .36) and 3.28 (SD = .40); meaning that head teachers

located in the smaller and larger schools were intrinsically satisfied with their positions.

8. Data collected for this study shows that the mean scores for all age groups were between 2.56 (SD = .32) and 3.09 (SD = .35); means that the head teachers of all ages were extrinsically satisfied with their positions.
9. All of the respondents for degree status categories scored between 2.72 (SD = .48) and 2.77 (SD = .43); indicating that head teachers, regardless of their level of education, were extrinsically satisfied with their jobs.
10. The respondents' mean scores according to their years of total experience were between 2.63 (SD = .40) and 2.89 (SD = .45); indicating that the head teachers were extrinsically satisfied with their positions.
11. The head teachers with smaller and larger school categories obtained means between 2.68 (SD = .46) and 2.76 (SD = .46) meaning that head teachers located in the smaller and larger schools were extrinsically satisfied with their positions.
12. Data collected for this study shows that the mean scores for all age groups were between 2.86 (SD = .21) and 3.41 (SD = .23 & .38); means that the head teachers of all ages were generally satisfied with their positions.
13. All of the respondents for degree status categories scored between 3.06 (SD = .37) and 3.11 (SD = .35); indicating that head teachers, regardless of their level of education, were generally satisfied with their jobs.
14. The respondents' mean scores according to their years of total experience were between 2.93 (SD =

.29) and 3.24 (SD = .38); indicating that the head teachers were generally satisfied with their positions.

15. The head teachers with smaller and larger school categories obtained means between 3.03 (SD = .36) and 3.10 (SD = .37) meaning that head teachers located in the smaller and larger schools were generally satisfied with their positions.

### **Conclusions**

1. The head teachers were Intrinsically, Extrinsically, and Generally satisfied with their positions.
2. The younger and older head teachers were Intrinsically, Extrinsically, and Generally more satisfied than the head teachers of middle age.
3. Intrinsically, Extrinsically, and Generally no satisfaction differences were found for degree status and school size. So these demographic variables were not found the predictors of job satisfaction in this study.
4. The head teachers with minimum and maximum experience were Intrinsically, and Generally more satisfied than the head teachers with medium experience.

### **Recommendations**

***Recommendations for Practitioners:*** The following recommendations are based on the results of this study. It is hoped that Government of the Punjab, Pay and Pension Committee, Policy Makers, Directorate of Staff Development and other authorities will take initiative steps in this regard. The results of this may also generalized at secondary level and for any other district in the Punjab. As the school education has gone under district governments, so the results of this study are especially much authenticated and useful for elementary school head

teachers located at district Toba Tek Singh with hundred percent sampling from the said district. So the hierarchy of district government in educational setup {District Nazim, (D.C.O) District Coordinate Officer, (E.D.O) Executive District Officer (Education), (D.E.Os) District Education Officers (Secondary & Elementary), (Dy.D.E.Os) Deputy District Education Officers, and (A.E.Os) Assistant Education Officers} should initiate actions that would enhance the satisfaction of head teachers.

On the basis of the responses to the MSQ, it appears that the head teachers are intrinsically, extrinsically and generally satisfied with their positions. Policy makers and other concerned authorities should put forth effort to either maintain this level of satisfaction or increase it to a higher level in order to promote positive perceptions for this important position. This may be done by increasing satisfaction for different dimensions of job.

***Recommendations for Further Research:***

1. Studies on satisfaction and age should be conducted to investigate the reason why satisfaction increases in younger and older age while decreases in middle age.
2. Studies on satisfaction and experience should be conducted to investigate the reason why intrinsic and general satisfaction increases with minimum and maximum experience while decreases with medium experience.
3. Studies on satisfaction should be conducted to investigate more predictors to job satisfaction.
4. Studies on satisfaction with respect to different dimensions of job should be conducted to find which aspects of one's job contribute high/low satisfaction.

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## Non-Verbal Communication

**Mr Muhammad Khan**

Principal,

Government H.S.S. Shadi Khan,

District Attock

### **ABSTRACT**

*Verbal and non-verbal interaction among people is meant using more or less all skills of language and facial expression cum body language respectively. On the other hand, animals, birds and insects also communicate but purely non-verbally in their own ways. Among human being, there are two modes of communication, i.e. verbal (reading and writing) and non-verbal (non-linguistic features like gestures, facial expression and body movements). Moreover, eye-contact, touch and smell both in man and animals, are part of non-verbal communication. In real life situations, verbal and non-verbal communication go on simultaneously though usually unnoticed. The interesting thing is that non-verbal communication often proves more effective as it says more than words. For example, someone visits you, may be weekly or quarterly, and from the core of your heart, you don't like his coming and if you apologize verbally, being unable to see him or to its extreme, the visitor may be advised never to come again on certain pretexts. Certainly that fellow will not mind your straightforward expression. But in another situation, whenever that visitor comes to see you, you say nothing verbally and just simply turn your face aside with contorted excuse. Definitely he*

*will stop coming, no more visits and no more disturbances.*

### **Significance of non-verbal communication**

The significance of this useful skill is self-evident as non-verbal communication is the part and parcel of verbal communication. This makes the communication both effective and ineffective. Unfamiliarity with the skill may result in communication failure and sometimes disappointment is experienced through a culture shock. The article has been attempted realizing its importance in the drama of social life. Its competency is crucial towards effective communication. At the same time its possible teaching/learning is also beneficial at inter cum intra-nation levels.

Though non-verbal communication plays a vital role in our everyday lives yet its importance as a useful communicative skill has not been realized and recognized so far. Whereas it is easy to learn and practise as compared to verbal skills. Here a few questions arise:

- (a) Is non-verbal communication a real problem?
- (b) What is its importance with regard to effective communication?
- (c) Can non-verbal communication be imparted in the way verbal communication is taught/learned?
- (d) Can non-verbal communication be evaluated?
- (e) What are the advantages of familiarity with non-verbal communication at national and international level?

Here mainly it is the reader who is to think about the answers to these questions. Nevertheless, the author has given suggestions/answers to the questions ibid throughout the text of the article, the reader is to find them

out. In addition to this, specifically tentative short answers to the questions have been given in section '3' below.

### **Tentative short answers to the questions**

- (1) In response to the question 2(a), it can be safely commented that non-verbal communication is a problem particularly in some unfamiliar situations even within Pakistan with regard to different sub-cultures of all four provinces. The problem multiplies beyond temporal and spatial boundaries. It is a common experience that a speaker is in trouble when his verbal and non-verbal communication does not match instead goes contrary to each other.
- (2) Answer to the question 2(b) is also based on everyday experience that only verbal communication (while speaking or listening) is not possible because both the speaker and the listener cannot act just like a statue or inanimate object. That is how non-verbal communication is so important for effective communication. Also see 3(1) above.
- (3) Question 2(c) may have a simple answer that formal teaching/learning of non-verbal communication like verbal one does not seem possible. However, its importance and practice can be emphasized orally and with practical examples in real-life-like situations, commenting on its affects on verbal communication.
- (4) Answer to Question 2(d). Yes, non-verbal communication can definitely be evaluated especially by the interlocutor and to some extent by the speaker himself where he has to evaluate a two-way non-verbal communication, i.e. his own body language and that of his interlocutor/addressee. This is evaluation where linguists say that many

people are unaware of how loudly they communicate with their bodies.

- (5) Answer to Question 2(e). Wherever the people are, it is obligatory rather essential for them to have familiarity with a variety of non-verbal communication to avoid culture shock where things are misinterpreted through certain gestures. Its advantages may include: (i) a successful and effective communication, (ii) the more knowledge of non-verbal communication, the more confidence in verbal interaction, (iii) no disappointment, (iv) no culture shock, and so on. Social conventions also count a lot towards disappointment, frustration, action and reaction, for example, when some English lady wants a shake-hand with Maulana Tariq Jamil, he will certainly shrink back to avoid this, here the lady has experienced a social convention shock.

### **Linguists and non-verbal communication**

The linguists are taking keen interest in the study of non-verbal communication considering it the most important aspect of verbal communication. One's communicative performance may not be up to the mark if one fails to use and at the same time understand certain gestures, facial expressions and body movements, being exchanged between the interlocutor and himself. In case we are well conversant with different non-verbal gestures and signals, we can be better in understanding what the people are really communicating and what we ourselves convey to the world with non-verbal cues. Grocie<sup>1</sup> comments on the significance of non-verbal communication that: "A person's body posture, movements and positions more often tell us exactly what they mean and which may be the exact opposite of what they are saying. Many people are unaware of how loudly they communicate with their bodies."

Body language can also be influenced by culture and environment. For example, in Pakistan, all the four provinces have their own distinctive sub-cultures, and their non-verbal clues may differ and cause communication problems. Non-verbal communication is greatly successful if the source and the receiver are from the same culture and environment. If the people of the sub-continent proceed to western world, no doubt they will come across 'culture shock' particularly with regard to non-verbal cues. But an interesting phenomena is that in case of animals' birds and insects, there may be no cultural and national boundaries despite the fact that a variety of birds migrate to different areas of the world with their favorite climate. This creature has instinctive non-verbal cues.

Special children have their own specific ways of non-verbal communication though it is different to a great extent from the ordinary one. Some of the cues may be "autistic cases, e.g. gaze aversion, spinning, opening and closing eyes rapidly, sticking fingers down throat, biting, scratching, pinching, kicking, pulling hair, hugging, kissing, tickling"<sup>2</sup>, and so on. This sort of non-verbal communication is thought universal and has no cultural, regional or other so called boundaries. Nevertheless all people are generally not capable to understand autistic cases except the one who has a special training or to some extent parents and sibling of the special children or adult.

Animals and birds and a few well known insects (as per the author's experience) have some sounds, gestures and body language but quite different from that of human being. These creatures communicate in a variety of their instinctive ways, e.g. ox, dog, etc. rub their hooves and claws on ground respectively to convey their emotions and feelings. The sound system of animals is universal. When there is a comparison between the sound system of human being and that of animals, it is concluded that animals have limited sounds and that these sounds can be used only for

the present moment, e.g. first they feel and then communicate either it is fear, terror, pleasure, mating or merry-making. Past and future with regard to communication do not exist in the world of animals. Whereas human sounds with linguistic signs enjoy an additional feature of displacement and can easily express past, present and futurity wherever and whenever they want to. Man has another distinctive feature of communication, i.e. his arbitrariness in signaling system. Aitchison<sup>3</sup> aptly says that: "There is no link between the signal and the message among men necessarily. But there is a strong link between actual message and signal of animals." The third feature of communication which makes man distinctive from animal is that he masters his language both informally and formally but the animals have their inbuilt/instinctive system of communication. They do not have to learn with conscious efforts like man. Combination of sounds is also benefited by man and animals lack it. Animals inevitably have different sounds for different messages, they cannot communicate two or more (different) messages with the same sound. Human language is creative, i.e. changing and developing which is not limited to sounds as is the case of animals.

Here are some examples of non-verbal communication taken from real life-like situations in Pakistani community. These examples reflect Pakistani culture, its sub-cultures, different social situations. An interesting thing is that even illiterate people have their own non-linguistic/non-verbal communication. Similarly various registers have their own peculiar non-verbal cues.

### **1. Different social situations in Punjab (Pakistan)**

- a. A son standing before his father very obediently, looking downwards, saying nothing verbally, is in fact communicating just through 'facial expression that he wants to say something but cannot dare to say anything. After some

moments, his father will certainly as his problem or may simply look aside (right or left) with goggling eyes, communicating his son to go away and that he does not want to listen him for the moment. The father may also send his son away with the gesture of his hand, or may ask him to sit with a different gesture of hand.

- b. In a junior class when a child seeks permission to go out saying, "May I go out sir", the teacher in the classroom usually says nothing verbally, instead he simply nods up and down or right/left, communicating yes or no respectively.
- c. If students in classroom are making a noise, the teacher says nothing, he just puts his forefinger on his lips vertically, there will be dead silence.
- d. A teacher's close lips, eyes inward with down stretched eye-brows, communicates that the teacher is angry/not in a good mood.
- e. In defense forces, when an officer or a personnel wants to call someone, says nothing, rather puts his hand's finger-tips on the top of his head, communicating to come and listen to him.
- f. When a person sits in a posture i.e. resting his head on right/left hand (Allama Iqbal's posture), communicates that the person is worried and thinking about something.
- g. Simply waving of hand right/left in our situation (not in cricket ground) communicates greeting or good-bye.
- h. Putting hands' palms together in the sub-continent, communicates excuse/apology.
- i. Stretching eye-brows upward and opening eyes more than their normal position, communicates surprise/astonishment.



- j. Twinkling of eyes (facial expression) indicates that the individual is in some trouble and solution seems difficult.
- k. Pressing fore-finger (or any finger except thumb) between front teeth by a girl indicates her shyness in a particular situation.
- l. Tapping forehead with fingers of one hand or putting head between fingers of both hands, both these cues show that the individual is repenting upon something and now he is helpless.
- m. When someone rubs his arms and legs himself, communicates that he is much tired and needs rest and massage.
- n. Shrugging slightly indicates doubt, indifference or ignorance about something.
- o. Shuddering (body language) communicates that the source (communicator/opposition) is feeling cold or fearing General Musharaf that he will definitely be selected as President in October, 2007 along with his uniform respectively.
- p. When a child touches a kettle, withdraws his hand with a jerk, communicates that the kettle is too hot to touch.
- q. When a bridegroom covers his nose with handkerchief in his mother-in-law's house, communicates that he is feeling shy, (bridegrooms of today are exception).
- r. Patting someone on head (in case of girls) or shoulder (in case of boys) by males (females are exception, they may pat as they please), communicates that the receiver is being consoled, or encouraged or appreciated.

- s. Simple clapping communicates wishing welcome, appreciation, encouragement or feeling pleasure on some achievement.

## 2. Sports

- a. In cricket when umpire waves his hand in semi-circle, communicates about the success of 'four runs'. When he raises his both hands very straight above his head, indicates that the batsman has got 'six runs'. When a player is declared out, the umpire raises his one hand. Striking of hands among players, communicates their pleasure on success.
- b. In the game of hockey or football, a penalty corner is communicated by umpire's whistle and stretching his both hands towards the goal-post simultaneously.
- c. In boxing, crossing of the umpire's hands communicates that the boxers should start the fight.
- d. In wrestling when a wrestler is severely beaten down and seems half-conscious, the referee strikes one of his hands on the ground, communicating and asking the wrestler either he wants to continue wrestling or not.

## 3. Traffic Police

- a. When a police constable spreads/stretches his right or left arm, communicates that the traffic should go this way but when he raises his hand upward showing palm to the traffic in front of him, indicates that the flow of the traffic should stop forthwith.
- b. With hands gestures, a constable can reverse or make the traffic move right or left as needed.
- c. The traffic is stopped and moved for the purpose of checking merely by gestures. Non-verbal communication is common in traffic. All non-verbal signs boards on the road side with certain directions/suggestions is also a form of non-verbal communication.

These are some of the most common examples of non-verbal communication through facial expression, hand/head gestures and body movements. To cover each and every thing related to non-verbal communication throughout the world is a hard job. However, non-verbal communication across cultural and national boundaries is a genuine problem. There are so many gestures that have inter/intra nation cultural differences and may cause certain confusion and misunderstanding. For example, in France, when a woman puts her forefinger on her cheeks, communicates that she does not believe the interlocutor. On the other hand the same gesture in Punjab (Pakistan) shows astonishment/worry. That variety of gestures includes angry gestures, obscene gestures, secret gestures, embracing gestures and so on. In Japan, when a person puts both of his hands on head with fore-fingers upward, communicates that the man/woman is angry but in Pakistan this gesture does not mean anything, hence confusion/misunderstanding and failure of non-verbal communication. In Iran the thumb up gesture indicates extreme obscenity and roughness but in Western world probably this gesture means okay/well-done job and in Pakistan this gesture is not commonly understood.

The face is the organ of emotions and people constantly read facial expressions to understand what others are feeling. Knapp<sup>4</sup> is of the view: "Our identity is captured in our features and our eyes reveal important truths about us even those we would prefer to conceal." Face is perhaps the most powerful channel of non-verbal communication. It is a common experience that a speaker encodes messages in his own facial expression and on the other hand he decodes the faces of his addressees. All this goes simultaneously. One can judge through facial expression whether a person likes or dislikes one/him. Face is an indicator of one's identity, regional and national background. Non-verbal communication has a broad influence over social environment. It is a very effective

tool for conveying very accurate messages without the use of verbal language. Sometimes non-verbal cues have an edge over verbal signs. For example, during some interview, a psychologist regularly and closely observes/interprets non-verbal messages being conveyed by the interviewee, in addition to the verbal communication just to determine the real position of the interviewee with regard to his confidence, honesty, steadfastness and natural aptitude towards a particular field.

In everyday life, there are so many situations where non-verbal communication plays very effective role but it is not recognized by common people except the one who is deeply concerned and interested in a specific case. For example, when an accused is interrogated at a police station, the police authorities do not rather never believe in what the accused says verbally. They trust in the weapon of non-verbal cues, conveyed by the accused through his facial expression, eye-contact, certain gestures and body movements.

### **Common views on non-verbal communication**

Clinical psychologists has been exploring the phenomenon of non-verbal communication for about the last 42 years and their conclusion is that 93% of our verbal communication is loaded with the cues of non-verbal communication wherein true message is sent and received simultaneously. Knapp<sup>5</sup> says, "True meaning of a communication is indicated not from '*what is said*' but from '*how it is presented*'."

But the reality is that the majority of people do not know the uses and advantages of this useful tool and its expression. The people who are unfamiliar with non-verbal communication they may lose a lot unnoticed. In the art of oratory also 'action speaks louder than words', i.e. action says more but people pay less or no attention to that. A speaker on the stage communicates a lot of things through

non-verbal messages in addition to what he says in verbally. Moreover, his facial expression, gestures and overall body language show the speaker's loyalty and confidence in what he says and his competency in the art of speech. Here eye-contact, tone of voice and body posture and body movements communicate a lot of information about the occasion and the speaker himself if the people are eager to interpret all the non-verbal cues. Our hair cut, dress and overall turn out speak about our personality non-verbally but very effectively.

When there will be contradiction and incongruity in the spoken (verbal) message and non-verbal cues, it will result in ineffective and unreliable communication. In everyday life, people frequently use some sort of combination of words, gestures and facial expressions to communicate meaning accurately and comprehensively. For example, we call someone *idiot* with a cue of *smile*, it means something else and when we say simply 'idiot', it carries different meaning. As it has been said earlier that certain gestures have different meanings in different cultures, e.g. 'nodding head up and down' in Pakistan means 'yes' but in Kuwait, this gesture communicates totally opposite message, i.e. 'no'. Then in Pakistan, if a woman touches forefinger to her nose, communicates 'astonishment' but in middle east the same gesture means 'at your service'. In Iran a totally different gesture is used for the wish 'at your service' and that is 'putting palm of one's right hand over one's right eye'. So for an accurate and exact communication, understanding of cultural differences with regard to non-verbal gestures, facial expression, is a must otherwise communication failure will likely happen and may be sometimes insult or disappointment is experienced.

Body language is thought quite secret but most powerful means of non-verbal communication. Our body communicates all that one cannot communicate through the

verbal communication. Only words convey the least and they need much more to communicate. Allen<sup>6</sup> concluded that: "Our non-verbal language communicates about 50% of what we really mean (voice tonality contributes 38%) where words themselves communicate only 7%". In a nutshell, non-verbal communication is inevitable while having verbal communication. It adds a lot towards effective communication. It is fruitful for the people who are familiar with non-verbal cues and at the same time proves harmful for the speakers/listeners who may not use it appropriately. This neglected art of communication demands due attention as in addition to gestures, facial expressions and body movements, our senses rather sixth sense (telepathy) are reliable sources of non-verbal communication. Naturally man has some internal senses for communication, e.g. when we are hungry how do we know it? Non-verbal communication has a vast scope for research studies.

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## **The CRUX of Homophones in Chinese Language** **and Recommended Solutions**

**Ms Misbah Rashid**

Assistant Professor,  
The Department of Chinese Language  
National University of Modern Languages

### **ABSTRACT**

*Those who learn Chinese language know very well that one of the most prominent characteristics of Chinese language is that it has the much larger numbers of "HOMOPHONES" than any other language of the world. The large numbers of homophones are due to the small number of Base Syllables. Therefore, each base syllable presents many characters with different meanings. This article deals with the homophones of Chinese language and provides the complete list of Chinese homophones covering all the parts of speech i.e Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, Adverbs and Measure words etc, as well as indicates different methods to overcome this problem and learn the language efficiently.*

### **Key words:**

Homophones   Characters   Sino graphs   Base syllables  
Monosyllable   Acoustic recognition   Visual recognition  
Elucidative additions   Disyllables   Polysyllables



### Introduction to Chinese Language:

Chinese is a Sino-Tibetan language. It is different from Indo-European languages. Urdu, English, French, German, Persian etc, all fall in the category of Indo-European language. Being Sino-Tibetan language, Chinese differs from these languages in various structural features, which are mainly:-

1. Chinese is a *non- Alphabetic Language*
2. Chinese Characters are *Ideographic Symbols*
3. Each character or ideograph symbol is a *Syllable*
4. All the characters are pronounced as *Monosyllables*
5. Except for a very a few syllable, every Chinese syllable (character) is a *morpheme* which conveys its own individual meaning.
6. Chinese is a tonal language. Each syllable has a precise tone (there are four tones plus a neutral tone)
7. The tones associated with a syllable implies *lexical meaning*.

### What are the **HOMOPHONES**?

When two or more words different in origin and signification, are pronounced alike, whether they are alike or not in their *shape* (in case of Chinese characters 把 ba 爸 ba 耙 ba 罢 ba 鲙 ba 霸 ba ) or *spellings* (in case of Alphabetic languages i.e. English: sale, sail. Urdu: كل, قل, etc) they are called “HOMOPHONES”. Such words, if spoken without context, are of ambiguous signification. In easy terms “Homophones” can be defined as: *Different words or Characters having the same pronunciation.*

In Chinese language, there are a large number of homophones. Chinese homophones are almost 80% more than they exist in any other language of the world and they actually force the speaker and listener to keep track of various possible meaning of any spoken syllable in the conversation.

For instance, if a Chinese says Zhū (猪) it means 'pig', if he says Zhú (竹) 'bamboo', Zhǔ (主) means 'master' or 'God' and Zhù (住) means 'to live', 'to reside', 'to dwell'. Again Mā (妈) means 'mother' Má (麻) means 'hemp, jute', Mǎ (马) is a 'horse' and Mà (骂) means 'to abuse' 'to curse'. If spoken with out context, it is very difficult for the listener to differentiate between the meanings of these words, sharing the same sound as in 'zhu' and 'Ma'.

It is true that we find the similar examples of homophones in other languages as well, For example, the following words are the most frequently used homophones of English language:-

|                            |                                     |                                |            |
|----------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------|
| Aunt, ant, aren't          | accept, except                      |                                |            |
| buy, by, bye               | Berth, birth                        | boy, buoy                      |            |
| deer, dear                 | desert, dessert                     | due, dew                       |            |
| foul, fowl                 | hair, hare                          | heel, heal, he'll              | hear, here |
| may (month), may (v.)      | male, mail (post)                   | meet, meat, mete (adj. and v.) |            |
| night, knight.             | Our, hour                           |                                |            |
| pair, pear, pare.          | pearl, purl (flow), purl (knitting) |                                |            |
| right, write, wright, rite | rain, reign, rein.                  |                                |            |
| sum, some                  | sun, son                            | sale, sail                     |            |

|                                     |  |                     |  |
|-------------------------------------|--|---------------------|--|
| there, their                        | tyre (of wheel),<br>tire (fatigue),<br>tire (attire) |                     |  |
| till (cash drawer),<br>till (until) | vale, Vail, veil.                                    | vain, vein,<br>vane |  |
| won, one                            | wake (awake),<br>wake (watch),<br>wake (of ship)     |                     |  |
| waste, waist.                       | wait, weight   |                     |  |
| well (good), well<br>(spring)       | weak, week   |                     |  |
| war, wore                           | would, wood.<br>etc.                                 |                     |  |

Similarly the words سدا (always), صدا (call, sound), قل كل علم (flag), علم (sorrow), نظر (sight) or نظر (present) are the examples of the Urdu language homophones. In French the words ‘vin’ and ‘vian’ have the same pronunciation. Examples of such homophones are found in every language, but as far as the other languages of the world are concerned, the homophones of such kind are either very rare or very few in number and they do not pose so serious a problem as to lead to ambiguity in speech, whereas this problem is very serious in Chinese language. It is estimated that there are nearly 7000 homophones in Chinese language.

### **The Difference of Chinese Syllables and the Syllables of other Languages:**

As mentioned earlier, Chinese language, in its nature is a *monosyllabic language*. Unlike the syllables of other languages, each syllable of Chinese is a complete meaningful word in itself and it is known as ‘Character’ or ‘Sino graph’. Let’s compare the syllables of Urdu, English and Chinese language. In Urdu language the word روشن has two syllables رو and شن; in English the word ‘Brilliant’ has three syllables i.e. ‘Bril-li-ant’, but when

learnt individually, none of these syllables in رو-شن or 'Bril-li-ant' bear any particular meaning, whereas the Chinese monosyllable 明 'Ming' which also means 'brilliant' or 'bright'; is not merely a syllable but a meaningful word as well, and this is the main difference between Chinese syllables and the syllables of alphabetic languages. Difference:-

***Syllables of Chinese language are morpheme and meaningful words, whereas the syllables of Alphabetic languages are not meaningful words.***

In Chinese, 'Ming' is a base phonetic syllable. It has 13 homophone characters inclusive tones. ( míng 名 明 鸣 茗 冥 铭 溟 盟 瞑 螟 míng 酩 mìng 命 ) Same is the case with all the rest of the syllables of Chinese language; each and every syllable of Chinese has many homophones, some of them have even 30 to over 100 homophones.

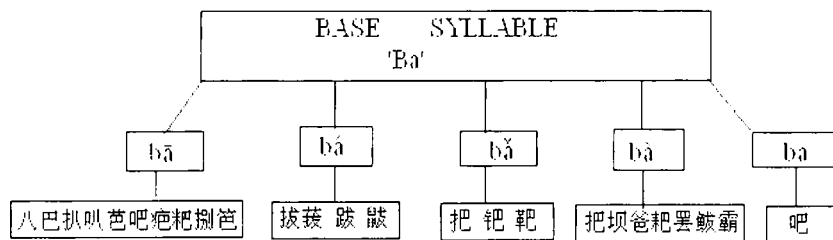
According to the 'Scheme of Chinese Phonetic Alphabets'\*, There are approximately 412 '**Base Syllables**' (base phonetic syllables) in Chinese language.

| <b>THE BASE SYLLABLES IN CHINESE PHONETIC ALPHABET SCHEME</b> |  |
|---|--|
| a   | a ai an ang ao   |
| b   | ba bai ban bang bao bei ben beng bi bian biao<br>bie bin bing bo bu  |
| c   | ca cai can cang cao ce cen ceng cha chai chan<br>chang chao che chen cheng chi chong chou chu<br>chua chuai chuan chuang chui chun chuo ci cong<br>cou cu cuan cui cun cuo |
| d   | da dai dan dang dao de dei den deng di dian diao<br>die ding diu dong dou du duan dui dun duo  |
| e   | e ei en eng er   |

|   |   |
|---|---|
| f | fa fan fang fei fen feng fo fou fu  |
| g | ga gai gan gang gao ge gei gen geng gong gou gu<br>gua guai guan guang gui gun guo  |
| h | ha hai han hang hao he hei hen heng hng hong<br>hou hu hua huai huan huang hui hun huo  |
| j | ji jia jian jiang jiao jie jin jing jiong jiu ju juan<br>jue jun  |
| k | ka kai kan kang kao ke kei ken keng kong kou ku<br>kua kuai kuān kuang kui kun kuo  |
| l | la lai lan lang lao le lei leng li lia lian liang liao<br>lie lin ling liu lo long lou<br>lu luan lun luo lǔ lǚ   |
| m | ma mai man mang mao me mei men meng mi mian<br>miao mie min ming miu mo mou mu  |
| n | na nai nan nang nao ne nei nen neng ng ni nia<br>nian niang niao nie nin ning niu nong nou nu nuan<br>nun nuo nǚ nǔ   |
| o | o ou  |
| p | pa pai pan pang pao pei pen peng pi pia pian<br>piao pie pin ping po pou pu   |
| q | qi qia qian qiang qian qiao qie qin qing qiong qiu<br>qu quan que qun   |
| r | ran rang rao re ren reng ri rong rou ru ruan rui<br>run ruo   |
| s | sa sai san sang sao se sen seng sha shai shan<br>shang shao she shei shen sheng shi shou shu shua<br>shuai shuan shuang shui shun shuo si song sou su<br>suan sui sun suo |
| t | ta tai tan tang tao te teng ti tian tiao tie<br>ting tong tou tu tuan tui tun tuo   |
| w | wa wai wan wang wei wen weng wo wu  |
| x | xi xia xian xiang xiao xie xin xing xiong xiu xu<br>xuan xue xun  |
| y | ya yan yang yao ye yi yin ying yo yong you yu<br>yuan yue yun   |

|   |   |
|---|---|
| z | za zai zan zang zao ze zai zen zeng zha zhai zhan |
|   | zhang zhao zhe zhei zhen zheng zhi zhong Zhou zhu |
|   | zhua zhua zhuai zhuang zhui zhun zhuo zi zong     |
|   | zou zu zuan zui zun zuo                           |

With the addition of tones the number of these base syllables rises to more than 1300 syllables. If an average is drawn, then there are over five homophones per Chinese syllable. This means that there are nearly 7000 homophones in Chinese language. The fact that there are a large number of homophones in Chinese; means that those learning Chinese must distinguish Characters or Sino-graphs which have very different written forms but which sound identical. Thus, the major task for a learner or a listener of Chinese language is the *Acoustic recognition* as well as the *Visual recognition*. The acoustic recognition is based upon *syllabic recognition* i.e. the recognition of the sound of a syllable with different tones, **bā bā bā bā bā**; the visual recognition means the recognition of the *ideographic difference* of the homophone characters i.e. **bā** 八 巴 扒 叭 芭 吧 疤 杷 捌 芭 **bá** 拔 拔 跋 跋 **bǎ** 把 把 把 **bà** 把 坝 爸 耙 罢 霸 霸 **ba** 吧



|                      |  |    |    |    |    |    |
|----------------------|--|----|----|----|----|----|
| Acoustic Recognition | ba   | bā | bá | bǎ | bà | ba |
| Visual Recognition   | bā 八 巴 扒 叭 芭 吧 疤 杷 捌 芭   bá 拔 拔 跋 跋   bǎ 把 把 把   bà 把 坝 爸 耙 罢 霸 霸   ba 吧 |    |    |    |    |    |

Thus the acoustic and visual recognition means that learner or listener has to know that:

*what character is associated with which **spoken syllable** in context, and to clarify a given meaning from among several choices of Characters(ideograph) for a **single sound**.*

According to the “CHINESE- ENGLISH DICTIONARY”, published in 1988 by the Commercial Press Beijing, the syllables ‘yi’ and ‘ji’ have 102 and 98 homophones respectively; the syllable ‘fu’ has 88 homophones, where as the syllable ‘li’ 81, ‘lu’ 57, ‘qi’ 87, ‘shi’ 60, ‘xi’ 69, ‘yu’ 85, ‘zhi’ 79, and ‘zhu’ has 52 homophones. Out of these over 1300 syllables, according to the Commercial Press dictionary, there are only 15 syllables in the whole dictionary which have no homophones at all. These are:

děi 得, dèn 扈, fó 佛, gěi 给, kǎi 剋, lǎ 咯, me 么, néng 能, nín 您, nòu 耨,  
nuǎn 暖, rì 日, sēn 森, sāng 僧, tèi 忒 etc.

Now the question is that:

*How is it in practice possible to use a language having so many homophones?*

Out of 102 homophones, in hearing an ‘yi’ pronounced, how can a listener know whether the speaker means to say ‘dress-yi’ (衣), ‘cure-yi’ (医), ‘to rely on-yi’ (依) or ‘one-yi’ (一)? There is only one answer to this question; that unless and until the speaker adds some *elucidative additions* to homophones to make them different *disyllabic* or *polysyllabic* words, he can not make himself clear to the listener. These elucidative can be of different kinds:

1. Addition of synonym to homophone
2. Addition of verb to homophone
3. Addition of suffix or prefix to homophone
4. Addition of number + measure words to homophones

### **Addition of Synonyms:**

According to the Oxford Advance Learner's Dictionary of Current English, 'synonym' means "words with the same meaning as another in the same language."

Now let's take three homophone characters 衣, 医, 依 having the same base syllable 'Yi' and add their synonyms after them, e.g. 服 fú, 靠 kào and 疗 liáo etc. The new disyllabic words formed are: yifu 衣服, yikao. 依靠 and yiliao 医疗.

In the light of the above definition, if we analyze the words 衣服 (yifu). The yi-衣 means 'cloth' and fu-服 also means 'cloth'; in 依靠 (yikao), yi-依 means 'to rely', 'to depend on' and kao-靠 means 'to lean on', 'to depend on'; in the word 医疗 (yiliao), yi-医 means 'to cure' liao-疗 also means 'to treat, to cure'. Hence the synonyms 服 fu- (cloth), 靠 kao (to lean) and 疗 liao (to cure) are added to the homophones yi-衣, yi-依, and yi-医, to make these homophonic 'yi' characters into disyllabic words 衣服 yī fú- clothing 医疗 yī liáo- medical treatment, 依靠 yī kào-depend upon, lean on etc.

This method not only clarifies the meanings of these words but also differentiate the syllable yi-医 from yi-依 and 衣. This method of adding synonyms to homophone thus eliminates the chances of confusion or ambiguity. It is also adopted by the Chinese language input soft wares.



Now when one inputs these disyllable words using Pinyin key board as *Yi fu, Yi liao, yi kao*; one automatically gets the characters 衣服 依靠 医疗 and there is hardly any chance of ambiguity.

### Addition of Verb to Homophones:

In this method, a verb is added before or after the character to change it into a disyllabic word and to differentiate the meaning of one word from the other, for example in the word 起义 (qiyi - revolt) 起 -qi is the verb which means 'to rise, to get up' and 义 -yi means 'just, justice, righteousness'. When these two syllables 'qi' 起 and 'yi' 义 are joined together as 'qiyi' 起义 they change into a disyllabic word and convey the meaning of 'rising up for justice or to revolt'. Similarly the word 析义 -(xiyi) means 'to analyze the meaning of a word'; xi-析 is a verb, which means 'to analyze', and yi -义 means 'just or right', thus the addition of two different verbs before the homophone "Yi" convey two different meanings. Qiyi- 起义 becomes 'to revolt' and Xiyi-析义 becomes 'to analyze'

In conventional Chinese dictionaries and in the vocabulary fed in to the computers, there are 102 homophones for the syllable YI. Let's see how they are made different for a listener when various verbs, before and after the "YI", are added to make them disyllabic words.

#### *Addition of verb before the homophone*

|    |         |                                  |
|----|---------|----------------------------------|
| 奴役 | nú yì   | enslave; keep in bondage         |
| 评议 | píng yì | appraise sth. through discussion |
| 增益 | zēng yì | gain                             |
| 免疫 | miǎn yì | immunity (from disease)          |

决议      jué yì      resolution.

nù 奴; ping 评, miǎn 免, zēng 增, and jué 决 are verbs which are added *before* the homophones 役, 议, 益, 疫, etc, to make seven different disyllabic words which have the same ending syllable ‘yi’.

*Addition of verb after the homophones*

意见      yì jiàn      idea; view; opinion; suggestion;  
objection;

移动      yí dòng      move shift.

遗传      yí chuan      heredity; inheritance..

已然      yǐ rán      be already so; have already  
become a fact.

The verbs 见- (jiàn- see) , 动-(dòng- move; stir; act;), 传-( chuán- pass; pass on; hand down) and 然-(rán- right; correct; like that; but; nevertheless; however), are added *after* the four “YI” homophones to make them into four different disyllabic words starting with base phonetic syllable “YI”.

Thus the addition of different verbs, *before and after* the homophones ‘yi’ clarifies the meaning of each word and lessens the possibility of any ambiguity. This is the most common method used in Chinese language to make homophones into disyllabic words.

**Addition of Suffix**

In this category different types of suffix are added to the homophones to distinguish them from one another and make them clear to the listener. Suffixes are of two types: functional (grammatical) or semantic (lexical).

|   |  |
|---|--|
| 者 | zhě (suffix, used after a verb or adjective, or a verb or adjective phrase to indicate a class of persons or things) |
| 性 | xìng (suffix, designating a specified quality, property, scope, etc )  |
| 品 | pǐn (noun suffix to indicate articles or products)   |
| 子 | zǐ (noun suffix, used with other nouns,)   |
| 长 | Zhǎng (noun suffix used for chief; head)   |
| 头 | tóu (noun suffix, added to noun, verb, adjective or to a word of locality; also indicates beginning of something)    |
| 法 | fǎ (noun suffix, used to indicate method, mode .etc)   |
| 化 | huà (verb suffix, used to show the change or transformation)   |
| 生 | shēng (noun suffix ,used in names of occupation or stations of persons)  |
| 员 | yuán (noun suffix used for a person engaged in some field of activity ,or for a member of collective)                |
| 师 | shī (a person skilled in a certain profession)   |
| 士 | shì (noun suffix for person <i>trained</i> in a certain field )  |
| 家 | jiā (noun suffix to indicate a specified kind or class of people )   |
| 手 | shǒu (noun suffix used for a person doing or good at certain job)  |
| 学 | xué (noun suffix used for subject of study,)   |

Now let's take two homophone characters 'du-毒' which means 'poison' and 'du-读' which means 'to read'; and add three different suffixes zhě 者 (person), xìng 性 (nature) and pǐn 品 (product) after them to see what meanings the new disyllabic words convey.

|    |        |   |
|----|--------|---|
| 读者 | dúzhě  | (reading + person) reader.                      |
| 毒性 | dúxìng | (poison + nature) toxicity, poisonous<br>ness.  |
| 毒品 | dúpǐn  | (poison + product) narcotic drugs;<br>narcotics |

## BU-

|    |         |   |
|----|---------|---|
| 部长 | bùzhǎng | (department + head) minister; head<br>of a department                   |
| 布头 | bùtóu   | (cloth + beginning ) leftover of a bolt<br>of cloth; odd bits of cloth. |
| 步法 | bùfǎ    | (foot + method) footwork.   |

The method of adding suffixes to homophones is generally used with the homophones which represent nouns, but some times these suffixes are also added with the verbs; but then the disyllabic new word which is the combination of verb and suffix becomes a **noun**. Please see the example of disyllabic word 读者 (dúzhě). ‘Dú’ is a verb which means ‘to read’, and ‘zhě’ is a suffix which indicates a person; together they form a noun which mean ‘the person who reads’.

**Addition of Measure Words:**

In this category different measure words are added to homophones characters that represent *nouns* of Chinese language, to distinguish one homophone noun from the other. For instance, the syllable ‘shu’ in Chinese Language has 40 homophones:

shū 书 受 抒 枢 叔 殊 候 淑 菽 梳 舒 疏 输 蔬 shú 秫 孰 赎  
塾 熟 shǔ 黍 属 暑 署 数 蜀 鼠 薯 曙 shù 术 戍 束 述 树 竖  
恕 庶 数 漱 墅 澍

The syllable 'Shu' without context can mean 'shu' 书 - a book', and it can mean a 'tree' 树, a 'mouse' 鼠 or a 'potato' 薯. When '— yi' (numeral one) is combined with 'shu' as 'yi shu', it is simply impossible for the listener to judge wither the speaker means to say, 'one book' 'one tree' 'one mouse' or 'one potato'. Now there exists a word 'ben- 本' that means 'volume', it is always used with books, magazines, novels and dictionaries; and another word 'ke- 棵' which means 'a trunk' and by using these two words before the syllable 'shu' we surmount this difficulty. 'One book', we express by saying 'yi ben shu - 一本书 (one volume book), and for 'one tree' we say 'yi ke shu - 一棵树 (one trunk tree), Thus the measure words 'ben 本' and 'ke' 棵 eliminate the chance of the emergence of any ambiguity. The words 'ben 本' and 'ke 棵' are known as "Measure words" in Chinese language. (Measure words are, generally used before nouns when the number or quantity of a noun is to be mentioned.)

The method of adding different measure words with the homophone nouns helps to change the homophone characters into *polysyllabic* words and the possibility of mixing up the meaning of different *homophone nouns* is eliminated.

Each one of these elucidative mentioned above has its own importance in Chinese language, because they help to distinguish the phonically same but morphologically different characters. With the help of these methods one can easily overcome the ambiguity of speech and select the right and exact character from this huge pile of homophones.

It is worth mentioning here that on the basis of monosyllable and disyllable or polysyllable words, the Chinese dictionaries are also divided into two types. One that deals with monosyllable words (monosyllable

characters) are called 字典- Zi Dian . Zi Dian is also known as 'Character Dictionary' among foreign learners. In 'Character Dictionary', each entry is monosyllabic and deals with the standardized (ideographic) form of character, its exact meaning and pronunciation. All the characters provided earlier in the list of homophone characters can be found as single entry in any Zi Dian 字典. The second type of dictionary is known as 词典- Ci Dian or 'Word Dictionary'. Word dictionary deals with disyllabic or polysyllabic words as its main entry and defines the pronunciation, meaning and usage of the word. The above mentioned four methods apply to all the words of such 词典 word dictionaries.

### Suggestions:

1. It is suggested that while teaching or learning Chinese words, especially the homophone words, no matter they are monosyllabic or disyllabic, they should always be learnt with their *lexical reference*. It should be made clear that the word learnt is a verb, a noun, an adjective or an adjectival verb etc. For example if the four homophone words laoshi-老师 (teacher) and laoshi-老实 (honest), shi-是 (verb-To be) and shi-十 (numeral ten), are used in one sentence as :

这 十 位 老 师 实 在 是 很 老 实  
zhè shí wèi lǎoshī shí zài shì hěn lǎoshí

(These ten teachers are very honest.)

The lexical significance of each word should be taught. It should be clarified that the character 老师 (laoshi) is a *Noun* and the character 老实 (laoshi) is an *Adjective*, similarly the character 是 (shi) is a *Verb* and 十 (shi) is a *Numeral* and the character 实在 (shizai) is an *Adverb*. The five homophone

characters bearing the same sound ‘shi’ 老师- laoshi, 老实-laoshi, 实在- shizai, 十- shi and 是-shi, if learnt with this method, then the chance of confusion becomes very rare.

2. While learning a new character in the same sound, the ideographic difference must be noticed, i.e 十 and 是. This implies the *visual recognition* of character. Similarly, the word 老师, and 老实 although have the same sound syllable ‘shi- 师’ and ‘shi- 实’ as their end syllable but the ideographic difference of these two characters is very clear. This *dissimilarity of shape* is the real point of difference between all the homophone characters and the real *crux of Chinese homophones* as well.
3. While encountering a new character in identical sound one must compare this learning with the learning of the homophones of ones’ own language. It should be pondered that why do we not mix the meanings of different homophones when we say: بارش برس چکی ہے۔ وہ اس سال پچاس برس کا ہو چکا ہے۔  
and اسے برس کا مرض ہے۔ ; or ‘ everybody will accept your offer except me’ ? What is the logic behind, which helps us to distinguish their meanings? Is it acoustic, visual or lexical recognition of our native language homophones? If it is so, then apply the same logic while learning Chinese language.

**Conclusion:**

The problem of homophones in Chinese language is due to the limited number of base syllables, which are 412. With addition of tones the number rises to over 1300. The edifice of whole Chinese language is based on these over 1300 syllables. The Chinese homophones are monosyllabic in nature; except for a few, all the syllables of Chinese language are morpheme and meaningful words. The number of Chinese base syllables is limited to 412 syllables, where as the number of the syllables of alphabetic languages is infinite. While learning Chinese every new homophone character should be learnt with its lexical reference and the ideographic difference should also be kept in mind. The speakers of alphabetical languages, whose language's written form have no major visual graphic changes and differences, are accustomed to the acoustic recognition of homophone words because they don't have to recognize the shape of the word but only to memorize the spellings of the word in their respective languages. They find it easy to learn and grasp the 412 base syllables as well as over 1300 tonal syllables of Chinese. But the Chinese homophone characters have major graphic difference and require the visual recognition beside the acoustic recognition of the characters. This skill can be mastered by understanding the formation of monosyllabic homophones into disyllabic words in Chinese language.



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## Appendix 1

A List Of Chinese Homophones

|           |  |
|-----------|--|
| <b>A.</b> |  |
| ā         | 阿啊钢腌 á 啊 ǎ 啊 à 啊 a 啊   |
| āi        | 哎哀埃挨唉诶 ái 呆挨駮捱皑癌 ài 欵矮暖蔼霭 ài<br>艾砦唉爱隘碍暧暧                               |
| ān        | 哎哀埃挨唉诶 ái 呆挨駮捱皑癌 ài 欵矮暖蔼霭 ài<br>艾砦唉爱隘碍暧暧 安按氨谳庵鹌鰲鞍 ǎn<br>俺铵掩揞 àn 岸按案胺暗黯 |
| āng       | 肮 áng 昂 àng 盎  |
| āo        | 凹熬 áo 敖遨嗷熬熬熬磬磬磬磬 ǎo 拗袄媪 ào<br>拗拗傲奥陂澳懊整                                 |
| <b>B</b>  |  |
| bā        | 八巴扒叭芭吧疤耙捌笆 bá 拔菰跋鼯 bǎ 把钹靶<br>bà 把坝爸耙罢钹霸 ba 吧                           |
| bái       | 掰 bái 白 bǎi 百伯佰柏裨摆 bài 败拜裨   |
| bān       | 扳班般颁斑搬瘢瘢 bǎn 阪板版 bàn<br>办半扮伴拌绊瓣  |
| bāng      | 邦帮浜梆 bǎng 绑榜膀 bàng 蚌谤傍棒旁磅磅   |
| bāo       | 包苞孢炮胞剥咆褒 báo 雹薄 bǎo 宝饱保鸬葆堡褓<br>bào 报刨抱豹鲍暴爆                             |
| bēi       | 杯卑背悲碑鹩 běi 北 bèi<br>贝狈备背钹悖被倍焙辈惫蓓褓鞣 bei 呗臂                              |
| bēn       | 奔贲铍 běn 本苯奋 bèn 奔笨   |
| bēng      | 崩绷嘯 béng 甬 bēng 绷 bèng 迸泵蚌绷鏊蹦  |

|      |   |
|------|---|
| bī   | 逼 bí 苳鼻 bǐ 匕比毗妣彼枇笔俾鄙 bì<br>币必闭毕庇岢陛贲毙秘敝婢悞弼竿跽痹裨蓖脾<br>辟浞碧筭蔽弊薛蓖避壁臂髀壁襞 |
| biān | 边砭编编蝙编鞭 biǎn 贬窆扁匾褊 biàn<br>卞弁忤汴苒变便遍緌辨辩辩                           |
| biāo | 标彪膘膘镖飙鏖 biǎo 表婁裱 biào 鏖   |
| biē  | 憋瘪鳖 bié 别鳖 biě 瘪 biè 别  |
| bīn  | 宾彬傩滨缤殡濒 bìn 殡腴殡鬓  |
| bīng | 并冰兵檠 bǐng 丙秉炳柄饼屏禀 bìng 并病摒  |
| bō   | 波拨玻剥钵饬菠播 bó<br>伯驳泊帛勃钹铂舶脖渤博鸫搏魄箔膊簿薄礴 bō<br>跛簸 bò 柏薄壁壁簸 bo 卜         |
| bū   | 逋 bú 醯 bū 卜扑补捕哺鹈 bù<br>不布步怖钜部埠瓿簿                                  |
| C    |   |
| cā   | 拆擦嚓 cǎ 礲  |
| cāi  | 猜 cái 才材财裁 cǎi 采彩睬睬 cài 采菜蔡                                       |
| cān  | 参餐 cán 残蚕惭 cǎn 惨惨 càn 灿孱粲璨  |
| cāng | 仓伧沧苍舱 cáng 藏  |
| cāo  | 糙操 cáo 曹漕嘈槽糟 cǎo 草  |
| cè   | 册厕侧测侧策筴   |
| cēn  | 参 cén 岑岑  |
| céng | 层曾 cèng 蹭   |
| chā  | 叉杈差插馐锒嚓 chá 叉茬茶查擦楂槎察碴擦 chǎ<br>叉衩蹉蹉 chà 汉杈岔詫衩刹姪差                   |
| chāi | 拆钺差 chái 侪柴豺 chāi 𧈧 chài 蚕瘥                                       |

|        |  |
|--------|--|
| chān   | 觊揆 chán 单婵谗馋孱禅缠蝉廛潺蟾巉 chǎn<br>产谄铲阐蒯 chàn 忤颤韃      |
| chāng  | 伥昌菖猖娼觥 cháng 长场肠尝常偿倘裳嫦<br>chǎng 厂场昶敞犖 chàng 怅畅倡唱 |
| chāo   | 抄吵钞绰焯超剿 cháo 巢朝潮嘲 chǎo 吵炒<br>chào 秒              |
| chē    | 车砑 chě 尺 chè 彻坼掣澈撤                               |
| chēn   | 抻琛瞋瞋 chén 尘臣沉忱辰陈晨谌橙 chèn<br>衬称岬趁椽讫 chen 伧殄       |
| chéng  | 桎称蛭铛撑瞠 chéng 丞呈诚承城乘盛程惩媵醒<br>澄橙 chěng 骋 chèngh 称  |
| chī    | 吃哧蚩鸱眵笞痴嗤媼 chǐ 池弛迟迟匙踟<br>chǐ 尺齿侈耻豉 chī 叱斥赤饬炽翅敕啻   |
| chōng  | 冲充忡茺舂懂 chóng 虫重崇 chǒng 宠 chòng<br>冲銃             |
| chōu   | 抽 chóu 仇俦惆绸畴愁稠酬筹踌 chǒu 丑瞅<br>chòu 臭              |
| chū    | 出初 chú 刍除厨锄蚰雏橱踰踯 chǔ<br>处杵础楮楮褚楚 chù 于处怵绌畜搐触慥黜黠   |
| chuā   | 欸*   |
| chuāi  | 揣掇 chuǎi 揣 chuài 揣踹                              |
| chuān  | 川沅穿 chuán 传船遄椽 chuǎn 舛喘 chuàn<br>串钏              |
| chuāng | 创疮窗 chuàng 床幢 chuǎng 闯 chuàng 创怆                 |
| chuī   | 吹炊 chuī 垂陲捶槌锤篦                                   |
| chūn   | 春椿椿 chún 纯唇莼淳鹑醇 chǔn 蠢                           |

|      |                                   |
|------|-----------------------------------|
| chuō | 戳 chuò 噉绰辍齧                       |
| cī   | 刺差毗疵 cí 词祠茨瓷辞慈磁雌鹌糍 cǐ 此 cì 次伺刺赐   |
| cōng | 从匆囱苁枞葱聪 cóng 从丛淙琮                 |
| còu  | 凑辏                                |
| cū   | 粗 cù 促猝酢簇醋簇蹙蹴                     |
| cuān | 尢擗镗蹕 cuán 攢 cuàn 窜篡篡              |
| cui  | 崔催摧 cui 璀 cui 脆淬悴萃啐蠢粹粹翠           |
| cūn  | 村皴 cùn 存 cǔn 忖 cùn 寸              |
| cuō  | 搓磋撮蹉 cuó 痤挫 cuò 挫厝措铍错             |
| D    |                                   |
| dā   | 叮耑搭嗒答答 dá 打达沓答瘩鞞鞞 dǎ 打 dà 大 da 埖瘩 |
| dāi  | 呆待 dǎi 歹逮傣 dài 大代岱迨玳玳带殆待贷怠袋逮戴黛    |
| dān  | 丹单担耽耽殚殚 dǎn 胆疸殚 dàn 石旦但担诞淡啖蛋弹惮氮   |
| dāng | 当瑯裆裆 dǎng 挡党诳 dàng 当宕荡挡档若         |
| dào  | 刀叨亢 dǎo 导岛倒捣祷蹈 dào 到倒悼盗道稻纛        |
| dé   | 得得德 de 地的得                        |
| děi  | 得*                                |
| dèn  | 掇*                                |
| dēng | 灯登瞪蹬 dēng 等戥 dèng 邓凳澄瞪蹬蹬          |
| dī   | 氏低堤提滴滴滴                           |

|      |  |
|------|--|
|      | dí狄的 纓迪荻敌淅笛觊嘀嫡嫡 dǐ 诋邸底<br>抵砥砥 dì 地弟帝递帝第棣蒂締睇磔 |
| diān | 掂滇颠颠  diǎn  典点碘跣  diàn<br>电佃甸店玷垫钿淀怙奠殿靛痼      |
| diāo | 刁叨凋貂碉雕鲛 diào 吊钓调掉锦                           |
| diē  | 爹跌 dié 迭谍喋喋喋叠碟蝶蝶                             |
| dīng | 丁叮叮玳疔叮叮叮酊 dǐng 顶酊鼎 dīng<br>订钉定淀腴淀錠           |
| dīu  | 丟鈺   |
| dōng | 东冬咚氧 dǒng 董懂 dòng 动冻伺洞恫峒栋豚                   |
| dōu  | 都兜 dǒu 斗抖陡蚪 dòu 斗豆逗痘读窦                       |
| dū   | 都督嘟 dú 毒独读读读读读读读读读 dǔ<br>肚笃堵赌睹 dù 杜肚妒度渡镀蠹    |
| duān | 端 duǎn 短 duàn 段断缎煅榷锻簪                        |
| duī  | 堆 duì 队对兑怼敦碓                                 |
| dūn  | 吨敦墩蹲 dǔn 盹趸 dùn 沌囤炖盾钝顿遁                      |
| duō  | 多咄哆掇 duó 夺度铎踱 duǒ 朵垛躲 duò<br>驮剝垛舵堕惰蹉         |
| E    |  |
| ē    | 阿屙婀 é 讹俄峨娥鹅娥蛾额 ě 恶 è<br>厄扼呃萑轳噩饿鄂愕萼遏愕愕噩鳄è欸    |
| èi   | 欸 ěi 欸 èi 欸                                  |
| ēn   | 恩葱 èn 摠                                      |
| ér   | 儿而鹑 ěr 尔耳迺饵洱珥珥 èr 二贰                         |

|      |  |
|------|--|
| F    |  |
| fā   | 发 fá 乏伐伐罚阙筏 fà 法砧 fà 发珐  |
| fān  | 帆番幡藩翻 fán 凡矾钒烦蕃樊繁 fǎn 反返 fàn 犯泛饭范贩贩梵                                       |
| fāng | 方坊芳妨妨 fáng 防坊妨房肪魴 fǎng 访仿纺舫 fang 放   |
| fēi  | 飞妃非菲啡啡扉蜚霏鲱 féi 肥淝腓 fēi 诽匪俳菲斐翡榧 fèi 吠沸废拂肺费荆扉溃                               |
| fēn  | 分芬纷纷氛酚 fén 汾坟焚焚颯 fēn 粉 fèn 分份奋忿粪愤  |
| fēng | 丰风枫疯矾封峰烽锋蜂酆 féng 冯逢缝 fèng 讽 fèng 风奉俸缝                                      |
| fó   | 佛*   |
| fǒu  | 缶否   |
| fū   | 夫呋肤赍跗孵敷 fú 弗伏鳧扶芙孚佛拂拂服 氟俘浮袱符匍幅福辐蝠蝠父甫抚府斧拊釜俯 脯辅腑腐簠fù父讣付负妇附阜服附赴复副富赋傅腹 缚鲋膊覆馥fu咐 |
| G    |  |
| gā   | 夹𪔐伽咖嘎 gá 轧轧 gà 尬   |
| gāi  | 该赅 gǎi 改 gài 丐芥钙盖溉概  |
| gān  | 干甘杆肝汩𪔐柑甘竿疳酩酊 gǎn 杆秆赶敢感橄 gàn 干绀𪔐  |
| gāng | 冈扛刚纲缸缸钢 gǎng 岗港 gàng 杠钢  |
| gāo  | 高羔膏辜糕篙 gǎo 杲搞搞稿稿稿 gào 告郅诰诰膏  |

|       |   |
|-------|---|
| gē    | 戈仡圪疙咯哥路格鸽割搁歌gé革阁格路葛蛤搁隔隔<br>膈裼貉 gē个合舸葛 gè 个各屹铬咯              |
| gěi   | 给*  |
| gēn   | 根跟 gén 根 gēn 艮 gèn 亘萁                                       |
| gēng  | 更庚耕羹 gěng 埂耿哽梗颈鯁 gèng 更                                     |
| gōng  | 工弓公功红攻供肱宫恭蚣躬龚觥 gǒng 巩汞拱珙<br>gòng 共贡供                        |
| gōu   | 勾沟佝钩篝鞣 gǒu 苟狗枸 gòu<br>勾构购诟垢够媾馐靛                             |
| gū    | 估沽咕呱孤姑骷骨咕菇祛菰辜觚萑箍 gú 骨 gǔ<br>古汨沽谷股骷骨贾 骷祛蛊鹄鼓馐馐瞽 gù<br>固故顾桔雇痼锢 |
| guā   | 瓜呱刮胍括鹄 guǎ 寡 guà 卦挂褂  |
| guāi  | 乖掴 guǎi 拐 guài 怪  |
| guān  | 关观官冠倌棺鰓 guǎn 馆管 guàn<br>观贯冠惯贯盥灌鹳罐                           |
| guāng | 光桃胱 guǎng 广犷 guàng 桃逛                                       |
| guī   | 归圭龟规皈闺硅瑰蛙罄 guǐ 宄轨庀诡匱癸鬼晷<br>gui 刽刳柜贵桂桧跪鳃                     |
| gǔn   | 袞緄辊滚磙 gùn 棍   |
| guō   | 过郭蛄聒锅蝓 guó 国掴帼膈 guǒ 果椽裹 guò<br>过guo 过                       |
| H     |   |
| hā    | 哈钐 há 蛤 hǎ 哈 hà 哈   |
| hāi   | 咳嗨 hái 还孩骸 hǎi 海骸 hai 亥骇害氦嗜                                 |



|       |  |
|-------|--|
| hān   | 殢蚶酣熬𦵏 hán 汗含函涵烔琰寒韩 hǎn 罕喊 hàn 汉汗旱悍捍焊颌憾撼翰瀚                |
| hāng  | 夯 háng 行吭杭纒航 hàng 沆巷                                     |
| hāo   | 蒿薅嗑 háo 号蚝毫嗥貉豪壕嚎 hǎo 好郝 hào 号好耗浩皓                        |
| hē    | 诃呵喝嗒hé合纒何河和劬诒曷闾荷核涸盒颌阖貉翻 hè 吓和贺荷喝褐赫鹤壑                     |
| hēi   | 黑嘿   |
| hén   | 痕 hěn 很狠 hèn 恨   |
| hēng  | 亨哼哼 héng 恒珩桁鸺横衡衡 hèng 横 heng 哼                           |
| hng   | 哼  |
| hōng  | 轰哄匈烘薨 hóng 弘红宏泓洪虹虹鸿 hǒng 哄 hòng 诨哄                       |
| hōu   | 𦵏 hóu 侯喉猴痼篸𦵏 hǒu 吼 hòu 后厚逅候塍                             |
| hū    | 呼忽杼惚糊 hú 圉狐弧胡壶核斛湖葫瑚鸬鸬瑚鸬鸬 𦵏 𦵏 𦵏 hǔ 虎 浒 唬 琥 hù 户互沪护怙辱拈笏匾瓠糊 |
| huā   | 化花哗 huá 划华哗铍滑猾 huà 化划华话画桦                                |
| huái  | 怀徊淮槐踝 huài 坏   |
| huān  | 欢攴 huán 还环桓缓寰圉鸬鸬 huǎn 缓 huàn 幻宦浣涣唤焕患痪蓼𦵏                  |
| huāng | 育荒慌 huáng 慌 huǎng 皇黄凰惶惶惶惶潢潢璜惶璜 𦵏 𦵏 huàng 恍晃谎愧 huang 晃    |
| huī   | 灰诙恢恢挥晖辉麾徽驷 huí 回洄茴蛔 huǐ 悔毁 huì 汇卉会讳诲荟绘烺贿慧晦秽惠喙慧蕙螳         |
| hūn   | 昏荤婚阍 hún 浑琿混馄魂 hùn 浑混                                    |

|       |  |
|-------|--|
| huō   | <p>           耘薊嘍豁擢 huó 和活 huǒ 火伙伙夥 huò<br/>           或和货获祸惑霍豁藿蠹         </p>   |
| J     |  |
| jī    | <p>           几讥击叽饥圾芑机玑乚肌矶鸡奇迹唧积屐姬勣基绩<br/>           倚稭期缉跻畸箕稽齏畿激羁jǐ及汲吉岌级极即亟佶<br/>           急疾脊棘殛集楫戢辑蒺嫉瘠藉籍jǐ几己纪虬济挤给<br/>           脊戟麇jì计记伎技芑系忌际妓季剂济莽既覬继寄<br/>           寂悸祭薊霁暨鲚稷唧髻冀鯨驥         </p> |
| jiā   | <p>           加夹伽佳迦茄枷浹家家茄袈笈傢葭嘉稼 jiá<br/>           夹荚夏蛱颊 jiǎ 甲岬胛贾钾假 罨痕 jià<br/>           价驾架假嫁稼         </p>  |
| jiān  | <p>           尖奸间歼坚肩艰兼监笺渐菅健緘煎缣鯮鯨 jiǎn<br/>           拣茧柬俭捡检剪减硷脸铜 碱翦 jiàn<br/>           见件间饯建剑荐贱润舰监健谏渐溅践健健鉴键檻僭<br/>           箭         </p>   |
| jiāng | <p>           江将姜𣎵浆僵纒鲚疆疆jiǎng讲奖浆蒋莠臙jiàng<br/>           匠降绛将浆 强强酱鞑鞑         </p>   |
| jiāo  | <p>           茆交郊茭浇娇骄皎胶教蛟焦椒蛟蕉礁鹈 jiáo 矫嚼<br/>           jiǎo 角侥佼狡皎皎皎 较脚矫搅湫剿缴 jiào<br/>           叫觉校较轿教窖酵醪醪         </p>  |
| jiē   | <p>           节阶疖皆结接秸揭嗟街jié子节讦劫杰诘洁拮结桔桀<br/>           捷睫竭 截 碣羯 jiě 姐 解 jiè 介芥戒届疥诫界借解<br/>           jie 价家         </p>  |
| jīn   | <p>           巾今斤金津矜筋禁襟 jīn 仅尽罨紧堇锦谨瑾瑾 jìn<br/>           尽进近矜劲荇浸烬晋靳 禁覲噤         </p>   |

|       |   |
|-------|---|
| jīng  | 泾京茎经荆旌惊惊菁晶睛粳精兢鲸鲢 jǐng<br>井阱到阱颈景倣憬警jìng劲净径经胫痉竟敬靖境静<br>镜          |
| jiōng | 炯脞 jiǒng 迥炯窘  |
| jiū   | 纠究鸠赳阄揪揪鬻 jiǔ 九久玖灸韭酒 jiù<br>旧臼疚咎柁柏救廐就舅髡                          |
| jū    | 车拘狙居驹疽掬据锯超裾鞠 jú 局枯菊铜橘 jǔ<br>沮咀举枸矩蒟赳樗踽 jù<br>巨句詎拒苴具炬钜俱剧倨惧据距颍锯聚锯遽 |
| juān  | 涓捐娟圈鹄镌 juǎn 卷 juàn 卷倦绢隼眷圈                                       |
| juē   | 蹶jué决决抉角玦珥觉绝倔掘厥谏蕨獾橄噓爵蹶瞿嚼<br>juě 蹶 juè 倔                         |
| jūn   | 军均君龟钧菌鞣 jùn 俊郡浚峻骏菌竣   |
| K     |   |
| kā    | 咖喀咔 kǎ 卡咔喀拏   |
| kāi   | 开揩钊 kāi 凯剡铠慨楷 kài 忝   |
| kān   | 刊看勘龛堪戡 kǎn 坎侃砍莼槛 kàn 看瞰   |
| kāng  | 康慷糠糠鯨 káng 扛 kàng 亢伉抗炕炕   |
| kāo   | 尻 kǎo 考拷烤拷 kào 铐犒靠  |
| kē    | 珂苛珂柯科痾珂棵颀窠稞颗榼磕瞞蜥 kē 壳咳喀<br>kě 可珂渴 kè 可克刻客恪课氮骠缙裸嗑嗑               |
| kēi   | 剋*  |
| kěn   | 肯垦恳啃  |
| kēng  | 坑吭铿   |
| kōng  | 空筌 kǒng 孔恐控 kòng 空控   |

|       |  |
|-------|--|
| kōu   | 莠抠脬 kǒu 口 kòu 叩扣寇筍蔻  |
| kū    | 刳枯哭窟骷 kū 苦 kù 库裤酷  |
| kuā   | 夸 kuǎ 垮垮 kuà 挎胯跨   |
| kuǎi  | 蒯 kuài 会快块诨脍筷鲙   |
| kuān  | 宽髀 kuǎn 款  |
| kuāng | 匡诓框筐 kuáng 狂诳鸬 kuàng 况旷矿框眶   |
| kuī   | 亏岢盔窥 kuí 奎隗逵馐揆葵喏睨睨蛙 kuǐ 傀 kui<br>匱潰饋饋喟愧贐簣  |
| kūn   | 坤昆醺覬 kǔn 捆 kùn 困   |
| kuò   | 扩括蛞阔廓  |
| L     |  |
| lā    | 拉拉啦邐 lá 晃拉喇 lǎ 拉喇 là 刺落腊辣蜡痢痢痢<br>la 啦蓝   |
| lái   | 来来莱徕睐 lài 赛睐赖癞籁  |
| lán   | 兰岚拦栏婪阑蓝澜澜滥篮澜澜 lǎn 览揽揽揽罨懒 làn<br>烂滥   |
| lāng  | 榔 láng 郎狼廊琅榔银鄯螂 lǎng 朗 làng 郎浪莨  |
| lǎo   | 捞 láo 牢劳唠痨镑醪 lǎo 老佬姥姥姥 lào 涝烙落酪  |
| lé    | 乐勒蠼 le 了咯  |
| lěi   | 勒擂 léi 累雷擂擂羸罍 lěi 垒累磊蕾儡 lèi<br>肋泪类累醅醅  |
| léng  | 棱楞 lěng 冷 lèng 愣愣  |
| lǐ    | 哩 lì 厘离狸骊梨犁喱鹎蜊漓璃犂黎鲚罹篱藜藜蠹 lì<br>礼李里俚哩迤 鲤鲤醴醴 lì<br>力历立厉吏沥丽励利舐戾例隶痲痲痲荔俐郢俐莉<br>莅砾砾栗砾砾粒笠喉蛎雳痢僊 lì 哩 |

|       |  |
|-------|--|
| liǎ   | 俩*   |
| liǎn  | 连袂帘怜涟莲联链廉鲢赚镰镰 liǎn 敛脸 liàn<br>练炼恋殓链棟   |
| liáng | 良凉莠梁凉量梁粮 liǎng 两俩魑 liàng<br>亮凉凉辆晾量跟  |
| liǎo  | 撩liáo 辽疗聊寥僚寮撩嘹撩撩燎鹌 liǎo 了钉蓼潦燎<br>liào 了杓钉料摺廖镣  |
| liē   | 咧 liě 咧 liè 列劣冽冽烈鷲捩猎裂趯躞  |
| lín   | 邻林临淋琳琳粼遴磷霖磷磷磷 lín 凜廛檣 lìn<br>吝赁淋蔕麟躃  |
| líng  | 拎líng 灵苓囿玲瓴凌铃鸫陵矜聆菱棖蛉翎绫零龄鯨<br>檣líng 令岭领 líng 另令聆                                      |
| liū   | 溜溜liú 刘浏流留琉硫馏榴瘤榴鹳鋈liǔ 柳绉liù 六陆<br>溜碌遛馏鸫  |
| lo    | 咯*   |
| lōng  | 隆 lóng 龙茏咙珑咙栊咙咙耆聾笼隆癯隆 lǒng<br>陇垄拢笼 lòng 弄  |
| lōu   | 搂 lóu 娄倮喽楼喽楼髅 lǒu 搂篓 lòu 陋漏痿髅露 lou<br>喽  |
| lū    | 噜lú 卢芦炉庐庐钆鸬钆颅鲈lǔ 芦卤虏掳鲁櫓 lu<br>陆录赂 绿禄碌路漉辘戮璐鹭麓露lù 犷 lú 驴间榈lǚ<br>吕侶旅捋铝倮屨缕缕缕膂 lù 律虑率绿菼葭蓿 |
| luán  | 峦孪滦挛鸾鸬鸾 luǎn 卵 luàn 乱  |
| lùè   | 掠略   |
| lūn   | 抡 lún 仑伦论沦囷纶轮 lùn 论  |

|      |  |
|------|--|
| luō  | 罗捋 luó 罗萝罗逻罗箩罗骡螺 luǒ 裸瘰 luò<br>莘洛咯络骆珞落掣    |
| M    |  |
| m    | 姆 m 嘤                                      |
| mā   | 妈抹麻摩嬷 má 吗麻麻蟆 mǎ 马吗玛码蚂<br>mà 骂蚂 ma 吗嘛      |
| mái  | 埋霾 mǎi 买荚 mài 迈麦卖脉                         |
| mān  | 颀 mán 埋蛮漫蔓馒瞞鳎 mǎn 满螨 màn<br>曼漫漫蔓慢慢慢慢       |
| máng | 忙芒忙盲氓茫茫 mǎng 莽蟒                            |
| māo  | 猫 máo 毛矛茅牦猫锚髦螯螽 mǎo 卯铆 mào<br>茂冒贸耄袤帽瑁貌懋    |
| me   | 么*   |
| méi  | 没玫枚眉莓梅媚媒煤楣酶鹈楣霉糜 měi<br>每美镁 mèi 妹袂昧寐谜媚魅     |
| mēn  | 闷 mén 门打钉 mèn 闷焖懣 men 们                    |
| mēng | 蒙 méng 氓虻萌蒙盟濛濛檬矇朦矇 měng<br>猛蒙锰蛄蛄蒙懵 mèng 孟梦 |
| mī   | 咪咪 mí 弥迷谜猕醅糜糜糜靡靡 mǐ 米弭眯眯靡<br>mì 泌泌觅秘密冪谧蜜噤  |
| mián | 眠绵棉 miǎn 免勉婉冕泐缅腴鲢 miàn 面                   |
| miāo | 喵 miáo 苗描瞄鹞 miǎo 杪秒渺淼缈邈藐<br>miào 妙庙缪       |
| miē  | 乜咩 miè 灭蔑篾                                 |
| mín  | 民 mǐn 皿闵泯抿闽悯敏瞢                             |

|       |  |
|-------|--|
| míng  | 名明鸣茗冥铭溟盟瞑螟 míng 酩 míng 命                               |
| miu   | 缪缪   |
| mō    | 摸 mó 漠 馍 麽 摹 模 膜 摩 磨 蘑 魔 mǒ 抹 mò<br>万末没沫茉抹殁陌脉莫秣漠寞募墨默磨獾 |
| mōu   | 眸 móu 牟谋眸眸缪 mǒu 某                                      |
| mú    | 模 mǔ 母亩牡拇姆 mù 目佻沐苜牧钼募墓幕睦慕<br>暮穆                        |
| N     |  |
| nā    | 那 ná 拿捺 nǎ 哪 nà 那呐纳呐衲钠捺 na 哪                           |
| nǎi   | 乃茆奶氛迺 nài 奈奈耐萑鼐  |
| nān   | 因 nán 男南难喃楠 nǎn 赧腩蝻 nàn 难                              |
| nāng  | 嚷 náng 囊攘 nǎng 囊攘攘 nàng 鼈                              |
| nāo   | 孬 náo 呖挠哢饶蛲獠 nǎo 恼脑瑙 nào 闹淖                            |
| nè    | 讷那 ne 呢  |
| něi   | 哪馁 nèi 内那  |
| nèn   | 恁嫩   |
| néng  | 能*   |
| ng    | 嗯 ěng 嗯 ng 嗯   |
| nī    | 妮 ní 尼泥昵昵倪铍霓颀 nǐ 拟你旎 nì<br>泥逆昵匿溺睨腻                     |
| niān  | 拈蔫 nián 年粘鲇黏 niǎn 捻犖碾撵 niàn<br>廿念埧                     |
| niáng | 娘酿 niàng 酿   |
| niào  | 鸟莛袅 niào 尿脬  |
| niē   | 捏 nié 荼 niè 聂涅臬啮噉镊镍颞蹀孽孽                                |
| nín   | 您*   |

|      |   |
|------|---|
| níng | 宁 拧 泞 苕 柠 柠 貯 凝 níng 拧 nìng 宁 佞 泞 拧   |
| niū  | 妞 niú 牛 niǔ 扭 扭 扭 扭 扭 niù 拗   |
| nóng | 农 依 浓 浓 脓 秊 nòng 弄  |
| nòu  | 耨*  |
| nú   | 奴 孥 孥 nǚ 努 弩 孥 nù 怒 nǚ 女 钗 nǚ 衄   |
| nuǎn | 暖*  |
| nüè  | 虐 虐   |
| nuó  | 挪 娜 傩 nuò 诺 喏 孥 诺 孥 孥   |
| O    |   |
| ō    | 喔 噢 ó 哦 ǒ 欧 洲 共 同 体 ò 哦   |
| ōu   | 区 讴 欧 瓠 殴 鸥 ǒu 呕 偶 耦 藕 òu 沕 怄   |
| P    |   |
| pā   | 趴 啪 葩 pá 扒 杷 爬 耙 琶 霹 箬 pà 怕 帕   |
| pāi  | 拍 pái 排 徘 牌 pǎi 迫 排 pài 派 哝 湃   |
| pān  | 潘 攀 pán 片 胖 盘 槃 磐 蹒 蟠 pàn 判 叛 盼 畔 攀   |
| pāng | 乓 滂 膀 páng 仿 庞 旁 膀 磅 螃 螃 pǎng 榜 膀 pàng 胖  |
| pāo  | 抛 泡 脬 páo 刨 庖 咆 咆 炮 袍 pǎo 跑 pào 泡 炮 疱   |
| pēi  | 胚 胚 péi 陪 培 赔 赔 裴 pèi 沛 佩 帔 配 旆 霈   |
| pēn  | 喷 pēn 盆 pèn 喷   |
| pēng | 怦 抨 砰 烹 澎 péng 朋 棚 彭 蓬 棚 鹏 澎 蓬 膨 膨 pēng 捧<br>pèng 碰                                   |
| pī   | 丕 批 批 坯 披 砒 劈 霹 pí 皮 枇 毗 铍 疲 虺 啤 琶 脾 裨 鲋 婢<br>黑 貔 髒 pǐ 匹 圮 仉 否 疲 劈 癖 癖 pì 屁 辟 媲 僻 臂 髀 |
| piān | 片 扁 偏 偏 翩 篇 pián 便 骈 胼 蹁 piǎn 编 piàn 片 骗  |
| piāo | 剽 漂 缥 飘 藻 嫖 piáo 朴 嫖 瓢 piǎo 殍 漂 嫖 piào 票 漂 嫖 嫖  |



|       |   |
|-------|---|
| piē   | 气撇瞥 piě 茎撇  |
| pīn   | 拼拼 pín 贫频嫔蘋颀 pǐn 品 pìn 牝聘   |
| pīng  | 乒娉 píng 平评坪苹凭屏瓶萍鲮   |
| pō    | 朴朴泊坡泼颇 pó 婆鄱幡 pǒ 叵钹筐 pò<br>朴迫珀破粕魄 po 栲                            |
| pōu   | 剖 póu 坯 pǒu 培   |
| pū    | 仆扑铺噗 pú 仆匍苦脯葡蒲璞璞 pǔ 朴浦埔圃普溥谱<br>瞽瞍蹶 pù 铺瀑曝                         |
| qī    | 七沏妻柒凄栖恺萋戚期欺漆嘁械蹊愈  |
| qí    | 齐祁芪析其奇歧荠俟耆脐淇其畦崎骑骐琦琪棋螭旗<br>蜃蜃鳍麒麟 qǐ 乞岂企启杞起綺稽 qi<br>气讫迄汽弃泣亟契 砌歧葺磬器憩 |
| qiā   | 掐恰堊 qiǎ 卡 qià 洽恰豁   |
| qiān  | 千仟阡迁迂钎牵慳铅谦签愆qián前钤筌钳虔钱掎乾<br>潜黔 qiǎn 浅遣讪繾 qiàn 欠纤芡茜倩塹嵌歉            |
| qiang | 抢呛羌枪戕戕腔蛸锵强 qiáng 强墙蔷樯 qiǎng<br>抢羟强襁 qiàng 呛炆戕踉                    |
| qiāo  | 悄跷跷蹻敲剿锹皛橇 qiáo 乔侨荞桥翘憔憔瞧<br>qiǎo 巧悄雀愀 qiào 壳俏俏窍峭翘撬鞘                |
| qiē   | 切 qié 茄 qiě 且 qiè 切妾怯窃挈愜超篋钶                                       |
| qīn   | 亲侵钦衾 qín 芹秦琴覃禽勤嗔擒噙擒qǐn 侵寝 qìn<br>沁                                |
| qīng  | 青轻氢倾卿清蜻蜻 qíng 情晴氘擎 qǐng<br>苋顷请qing 庆亲罄罄                           |
| qióng | 穷穹茺琼  |
| qiū   | 丘邱秋蚯湫楸鳅 qiú 仇囚狃求沔酋球遁裘   |

|      |  |
|------|--|
| qū   | 区曲岖驱屈祛蛆痊躯趋蚰黝駮 qú 劬鹄渠渠磔瞿匏癯<br>衡蠓 qǔ 曲苎取娶龋 qù 去阕趣覷 |
| quān | 俊圈 quán 权全诠泉拳痊筌蜷醛髻颧 quǎn 犬缦<br>quàn 劝券           |
| quē  | 缺阙 qué 瘸 què 却雀阙确阙鹊榷                             |
| qūn  | 逡 qún 裙群麇  |
| R    |  |
| rān  | 然髡燃 rǎn 冉苒染                                      |
| rāng | 嚷 ráng 攘瓤 rǎng 壤攘嚷 ràng 让                        |
| rāo  | 茕饶绕 rǎo 扰绕 rào 绕                                 |
| rě   | 惹 rè 热   |
| rén  | 人壬仁任 rěn 忍荏稔 rèn 刃认仞任妊纫韧饪甚                       |
| rēng | 扔 réng 仍   |
| rì   | 日*   |
| róng | 戎荣茸绒容嵘溶蓉熔榕蝶融 rǒng 冗                              |
| róu  | 柔揉糅蹂鞣 ròu 肉                                      |
| rú   | 如茹锄儒濡孺孺蠕颯 rǔ 汝乳辱 rù 入溥縻蓐褥                        |
| ruǎn | 阮阮软  |
| ruǐ  | 蕊 ruì 芮桼桼锐瑞睿                                     |
| rùn  | 闰润   |
| ruò  | 若偌弱箸   |
| S    |  |
| sā   | 仨掌撒 sā 洒撒 sà 卅飒豚萨                                |
| sāi  | 塞腮噍鳃 sài 塞赛                                      |
| sān  | 三叁 sǎn 伞散 sàn 散                                  |
| sāng | 丧桑 sāng 操噪颯 sàng 丧                               |

|       |   |
|-------|---|
| sāo   | 搔骚縲臊 sǎo 扫嫂 sào 扫臊  |
| sé    | 色涩蒿艳瑟穉  |
| sēn   | 森*  |
| sēng  | 僧*  |
| shā   | 杀沙纱衫刹砂痧裳煞鲨 shǎ 傻 shà 啥厦歃煞霎  |
| shāi  | 筛 shǎi 色 shài 晒   |
| shān  | 山芡杉刪衫苫珊杉珊舢扇跚煽潜膾shǎn<br>闪陕shàn 讪疝单苫扇善禅蹇繕擅膳嬗贍蟾蜍   |
| shāng | 伤殇商觞墒墒 shǎng 上垧晌赏 shàng<br>上尚缒shang 裳   |
| shāo  | 烧捎稍稍筲鞘鞘 sháo 勺芍韶 shǎo 少<br>shào 少邵劬绍捎哨梢   |
| shē   | 奢猗除畲 shé 舌折余蛇 shě 舍 shè<br>设社舍涉射赦摄慑霸  |
| shéi  | 谁*  |
| shēn  | 申伸身呻绅参砵莘娠深鲔 shén 什甚神鉶 shěn<br>沈审哂谗婢 shèn 肾甚脾渗甚慎蜃疹   |
| shēng | 升生声牲笙甥 shéng 绳 shěng 省 shèng<br>圣胜乘盛剩   |
| Shī   | 尸失师虱诗狮陂施湿蓍嘘鯢虱shí什石识时实拾食<br>蚀鲚 shǐ 史 豕使 始驶屎 shì<br>士氏市示世仕式似试势事侍视饰室恃拭柿是适逝蒔<br>铎弑释嗜蓍噬螫 shì 匙 |
| shōu  | 收 shǒu 手守首 shòu 寿受狩兽授售绶瘦  |

|        |   |
|--------|---|
| shū    | 书受抒枢叔殊倏淑菽梳舒疏输蔬 shú 秫孰塾塾熟<br>shǔ 黍属暑署数蜀 薯曙 shù<br>术戌束述树竖恕庶数漱墅澍 |
| shuā   | 刷 shuǎ 耍 shuà 刷   |
| shuāi  | 衰摔 shuāi 甩 shuài 帅率蟀  |
| shuān  | 闩拴栓 shuàn 涮   |
| shuāng | 双霜孀鸬 shuǎng 爽   |
| shuí   | 谁 shuǐ 水 shuì 说税睡   |
| shǔn   | 吮 shùn 顺舜瞬  |
| shuō   | 说 shuò 烁铄朔硕数蒴   |
| sī     | 司丝私啞思鸱嘶斯锶嘶厮嘶嘶 sǐ 死<br>sì 巳四寺似祀伺饲驷食俟笥嗣肆 sì 厕                   |
| sōng   | 松松松嵩 sǒng 忪悚耸 sòng 讼宋送诵颂                                      |
| sōu    | 搜搜搜搜艘艘艘 sǒu 叟嗽藪藪 sòu 嗽  |
| sū     | 苏酥率稣 sú 俗 sù<br>夙诉肃素速宿粟溯塑嗦悽鹈便簌                                |
| suān   | 酸 suàn 蒜算   |
| suī    | 尿虽蒹睢 suí 绥隋随遂 suǐ 髓<br>suì 岁崇遂碎隧隧遂穗                           |
| sūn    | 孙孙 sǔn 笋损隼棒   |
| suō    | 娑莎唆拏杪梭唆蓑缩 suǒ 所索琐琐锁 suo 嗦                                     |
| T      |   |
| tā     | 它他她铤趺榻榻榻 tā 塔塔獭鲑 tà<br>拓沓闼挞嗒榻踏蹋                               |
| tāi    | 苔胎 tái 台邙抬苔殆灸鲐臺 tài 太汰忒汰钦泰酹                                   |

|      |   |
|------|---|
| tān  | 坍贪滩摊瘫 tán 坛昙谈弹覃痰谭潭檀 tǎn<br>忐坦袒钽毯 tàn 叹炭探碳   |
| tāng | 汤汤啻踉蹉 táng 唐堂棠塘塘搪搪糖铿螳 tāng<br>帑倘淌耄躺 tàng 烫趟 |
| tāo  | 叨涛绹掏滔韬饕 tāo 逃桃陶淘萄陶 tǎo 讨 tào 套              |
| té   | 忒忒特铎  |
| tēi  | 忒*  |
| tēng | 腾罍 téng 疼誊腾滕藤滕                              |
| tī   | 体剔梯梯踢鵬 tí 缁提啼缁鵞题醍蹄蛄 tǐ 体 tì<br>屈剃涕悌涕惕替嚏     |
| tiān | 天添黏 tián 田恬钿甜填 tiǎn 忝殄腆裼舔                   |
| tiāo | 挑挑挑 tiáo 条苕迢调笤髻 tiǎo 挑窈 tiào 眺巢跳            |
| tiē  | 帖贴帖 tiě 帖铁 tiè 帖餐                           |
| tīng | 厅汀听烃程 tíng 廷亭庭荳停蜓婷霆 tǐng 挺艇艇                |
| tōng | 通 tóng 同佟彤茼桐铜童酮瞳 tǒng 统捅桶筒 tòng<br>同恫通痛     |
| tōu  | 偷 tóu 头头投 tòu 透                             |
| tū   | 凸秃突莸 tú 图涂荼途徒屠酴 tǔ 土吐钚 tù<br>吐兔埭菟           |
| tuán | 湍 tuán 团转                                   |
| tuī  | 忒推 tuí 颓 tuǐ 腿 tuì 退褪蜕褪                     |
| tūn  | 吞噉 tún 屯囤饨豚鲑臀 tūn 忖 tùn 褪                   |
| tuō  | 托拖脱 tuó 驮陀驼沱坨陀陀陀酞橐鼈 tuō<br>妥度橐 tuò 拓柝唾蕻魄箨   |
| W    |   |
| wā   | 洼挖蛙 wá 娃 wǎ 瓦佻 wà 瓦袜媪 wa 哇                  |

|      |  |
|------|--|
| wāi  | 歪 wāi 崴 wài 外  |
| wān  | 弯 剡湾婉碗 wán 丸纨完玩顽烷 wǎn<br>宛莞挽惋莞晚腕婉輓綰皖碗 wàn 万万腕蔓   |
| wāng | 汪 wáng 亡王芒忘 wǎng 网枉罔往惘辋魍 wàng<br>妄忘旺往望   |
| wēi  | 危委威透萎偎隈煨微薇巍 wéi<br>为韦圩违围围桅惟唯维伟嵬 wěi<br>伪伟苇纬尾炜玮委娓痿萎唯猥痿韪<br>wèi 卫为未位味畏胃谓尉遗喂渭猬蔚慰魏尉              |
| wēn  | 温瘟瘟 wén 文纹闻蚊 wěn 勿汶吻紊稳 wèn<br>问汶璽  |
| wēng | 翁嗡鹁 wěng 莛 wèng 瓮薤鼈  |
| wō   | 挝涡倭莠窝喔蜗趺 wǒ 我 wò<br>沃肱卧渥握砬幄斡   |
| wū   | 乌污邬巫呜诬屋钨 wú 无毋吾芜吴梧鸪蜈 wǔ<br>五午伍妩忤武侮 wù<br>兀乌勿戊务芴坞物误悟恶晤焐瘃鹜雾寤鹜                                  |
| X    |  |
| xī   | 夕兮汐西吸希窳昔析矽郗唏奚牺息浙惜烯晒晞歔悉<br>晰翕稀腊犀溪锡惕皙僖熄晞熙蜥嘻膝嬉蹇熹螭歔蹊<br>蟋谿曦 xī 习席袭媳檄 xǐ 洗玺徙铎喜葦 屣禧 xī<br>xì 戏系细闳隙 |
| xiā  | 呷虾瞎 xiá 匣狎侠峽狭遐瑕暇辖霞黠 xià<br>下吓厦厦  |

|       |  |
|-------|--|
| xiān  | 仙先纤氍氇荃掀锨跹酖鲜xián闲贤弦涎咸娴舷銜鹇<br>痼嫌 xiǎn 洗险显铄跣鲜藓 xiàn<br>苋县现限线宪陷馅羨献腺霰 |
| xiāng | 乡相香厢湘箱箱襄镶 xiáng 详降样翔 xiǎng<br>享响饷飨想鲞 xiàng 向巷项相象像橡               |
| xiāo  | 肖杲枵削晓晓哮消宵逍鴞萧硝销蛸萧箫霄魑器xiáo<br>淆xiǎo小晓筱xiào孝肖效校笑啸                   |
| xiē   | 些揆楔歇蝎 xié 协邪挟挟谐偕斜携鞋颞 xiè 写血<br>xiè 写泻泄卸屑械谢袞解榭懈邂蟹濞                |
| xīn   | 心芯辛欣铎新薪馨 xín 寻 xìn 芯信衅   |
| xīng  | 兴星惺猩腥 xíng 刑邢行形型 xǐng 省醒擗xìng<br>兴杏性幸姓悻                          |
| xiōng | 凶兄芎匈汹胸 xióng 雄熊  |
| xiū   | 休咻修脩羞鸩馐貅 xiǔ 朽宿 xiù<br>秀岫袖绣臭宿锈溴嗅                                 |
| xū    | 圩戍吁胥须虚需嘘墟歔 xú 徐 xǔ 许诩栩醑 xù<br>旭序恤叙畜酖绪续絮 婿蓄煦 xu 蓍                 |
| xuān  | 轩宣萱喧喧煊 xuán 玄旋悬 xuǎn 选烜癣 xuàn<br>洵券炫绚眩眩旋渲榷                       |
| xuē   | 削靴薛 xué 穴学噓 xuě 雪鳐 xuè 血谖  |
| xūn   | 勋坝熏薰熏薰 xún 旬驯寻巡询洵岫浔荀循鯨 xùn<br>讯训汛迅逊徇殉熏葺                          |
| Y     |  |
| yā    | 丫压呀押哑鸦桠鸭yá 伢芽涯崖涯衙 yǎ 哑雅 yà<br>轧亚压讶趺砑埡娅 盍揠ya 呀                    |

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| yān  | 咽恢烟殷咽淹淹焉湮腌鄢嫣燕yán延言严芫妍沿炎<br>岩研盐阎筵 蜒颜檐 yǎn 奄俨衍掩眼偃演魇讪 yàn<br>厌治砚咽彦宴晏艳唁验谚焰雁堰 酖贻燕贻   |
| yāng | 央泱殃秧鸯 yáng 羊阳扬杨佯疡洋徉烺 yǎng<br>仰养氧痒 yàng 怏恙样漾   |
| yāo  | 么夭吆约妖要腰邀yáo 尧肴姚挑窑遥摇徭瑶螯yǎo<br>杳咬窈窕 yào 疟药要钥鸫曜耀   |
| yē   | 耶椰掖椰噎 yé 爷耶揶 yě 也冶野 yè<br>业叶页曳夜咽烨晔液掖谒腋膺   |
| yī   | 一衣伊医依咿猗猗揖壹漪噫繫夥 yí<br>匱儀圯夷沂诒宜怡迤迨迨迨貽萑唳姨胰瘕移蛇遗颐疑<br>嶷彝 yǐ 乙巳以钇矣尾苡迤蚁醅倚椅旖 yì<br>弋义亿忆艺刈艾议亦屹异译抑啮邑佚役诣易绎奕<br>弈疫轶益谊挹悒逸翌翊勗溢意裔肄镒蜴瘞镒毅薏薏<br>臆翼翳瘕瘕懿 |
| yīn  | 因阴音茵姻姻荫氲殷铤堙喑yín吟垠谄淫寅银龈龢   |
| yǐn  | 尹引饮蚓隐瘾 yìn 印饮茆荫胤鯢鯢  |
| yīng | 应英莺婴婴嚶嚶樱鹦膺鹰yíng迎莹盈荧莹莹莹莹莹<br>楹漾蝇羸羸羸 yǐng 郢颖影瘳 yìng 应映硬脍  |
| yō   | 育哟唷 yō 哟  |
| yǒng | 佣拥雍邕庸雍慵壅臃龋yóng隅yóng永甬泳咏佣勇<br>涌恣蛹踊踊 yòng 用佣  |
| yōu  | 优忧攸呦幽悠yóu尤由邮犹油疣柚筱铀蚰游鱿魺魺<br>螭yǒu友有酉酉莠销牖黝yòu又右幼有佑侑宥柚囿诱<br>蚰蚰蚰   |



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| yū   | 迂淤淤yú与于予余欤孟奥鱼俞芋谗娱涂隅喁莼渔渝<br>腴愉逾揄愚瑜榆觐虞舆翳鹣yǔ与予宇屿羽伛雨语禹<br>圉圉庾庾龉窳yù与玉驭芋吁姬育郁语昱狱浴峪预欲<br>域谕尉阍寓裕遇喻御鹄誉蕨焄愈域豫鹢鸛 |
| yuān | 鸢冤鸳渊yuán元芄园员垣爰原袁圆媛援鼋源猿缘辕<br>獮螭椽   |
| yuǎn | 远 yuàn 苑怨院垸愿  |
| yuē  | 曰约 yuè 月乐刎岳钥悦阅钺跃越粤  |
| yūn  | 晕薰 yún 云匀芸纭昀耘 yún 允陨殒 yùn<br>孕运邗恹晕酝愠韵熨蕴   |
| Z    |   |
| zā   | 扎匝砸拶攒 zá 杂咂 zǎ 咋  |
| zāi  | 灾咄哉栽 zǎi 仔宰载崽 zài 再在载   |
| zān  | 簪簪 zán 咱 zǎn 拶攢攢攢 zàn 暂簪赞 zan 咱   |
| zāng | 脏脏臧 zǎng 馐 zàng 脏葬藏   |
| zāo  | 遭糟 záo 凿 zǎo 早枣蚤澡藻 zào<br>灶皂造糙簪噪燥躁  |
| zé   | 则责泽择啧愤酢簪贻 zè 仄  |
| zéi  | 贼贼  |
| zěn  | 怎 zèn 譴   |
| zēng | 曾憎增增罍 zèng 综程甌赠 zhā<br>扎咋查晰渣渣渣渣 zhá 扎札轧闸炸铡 zhǎ<br>炸眨咋鮓 zhà 乍诈咋咋炸柵咋咋榨                                |
| zhāi | 斋摘 zhái 宅择翟 zhǎi 窄 zhài 债砦寨   |

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|-------|---|
| zhān  | 占沾毡粘詹谵瞻 zhǎn 斩展盍崭振辗黯 zhàn<br>占战栈站绽湛颤蘸   |
| zhāng | 张章彰漳漳樟樟 zhǎng 长涨掌掌 zhàng<br>丈仗杖帐胀涨障漳漳漳  |
| zhāo  | 钊招昭着啁朝 zháo 着 zhǎo 爪找沼 zhào<br>召兆诏赵策棹照罩肇  |
| zhē   | 折蛰遮 zhé 折哲辄蛰蓍蛰谪磔辙 zhě 者锗赭褶<br>zhè 这柘浙蔗鹈 zhe 着   |
| zhèi  | 这*  |
| zhēn  | 贞针侦珍疹桢桢真砧斟甄榛箴臻颀 zhěn<br>诊枕疹疹疹疹 zhèn 阵鸩振朕赈震镇   |
| zhēng | 丁正争怔征诤诤诤症钲睁铮箢蒸 zhěng 拯整 zhèng<br>正证诤郑政诤整地症  |
| zhī   | 之支汁只卮芝吱枝知肢织指祗砥脂擿蜘蛛 zhí 执直<br>侄指值植殖跖蹠蹠蹠 zhǐ 止只旨址芷纸祉指枳咫<br>趾蒺藜微 zhì 至伎识志豸治帜炙帙郅质制栉峙桎桎<br>致秩挚贲擿窒鸷痔滞痣蛭智戥锁置雉稚解蹶 |
| zhōng | 中忠终盅钟衷鑫 zhǒng 肿种冢踵 zhòng<br>中众仲种重   |
| zhōu  | 州舟诹周洲啁粥 zhóu 轴轴轴 zhòu 肘帚 zhòu<br>纣宙绉咒胃昼轴皱骤籓   |
| zhū   | 朱诛侏茱珠株诸猪铄蛛渚 zhú 术竹竺烛逐筑舳蠲跼<br>zhǔ 主拄渚属煮嘱瞩 zhù 伫苙助住注杼贮驻炷祝柱疰<br>著蛀筑铸翥箸                                       |
| zhuā  | 抓 zhuǎ 爪  |

|        |  |
|--------|--|
| zhuāi  | 拽 zhuǎi 跬 zhuài 拽                        |
| zhuān  | 专砖 zhuǎn 转 zhuàn 传转啮赚撰篆                  |
| zhuāng | 妆庄桩装 zhuǎng 奘 zhuàng 壮状撞幢懋               |
| zhuī   | 追椎锥 zhuí 坠缀惴缳赘                           |
| zhūn   | 肫庵淳 zhǔn 准                               |
| zhuō   | 拙卓捉桌 zhuó 灼茁浊斫酌啄着啄琢斲濯擢镯                  |
| zī     | 仔吱孜咨姿兹资资缁滋孳辘趑镞蚩髭zǐ子字仔姊<br>籽梓紫滓訾 zì 字自恣渍眦 |
| zōng   | 宗综棕踪鬃 zǒng 总惣 zòng 纵粽                    |
| zōu    | 邹陬 zǒu 走 zòu 奏揍                          |
| zū     | 租 zú 足卒族簇 zǔ 阻诅组祖俎                       |
| zuān   | 钻鑽 zuǎn 缵纂 zuàn 钻赚攥                      |
| zuǐ    | 嘴 zuì 最罪醉                                |
| zun    | 尊遵樽罇 zun 搏                               |
| zuō    | 作喙 zuó 作昨琢 zuǒ 左佐撮 zuò<br>坐作柞胙座唑做酢凿      |