CHAPTER IV

THE CONCEPT OF SOUTH INDIAN ENGLISH

4.0 **Indian English**

Due to the spread of English in linguistically and culturally pluralistic societies, many Englishes have developed and Indian English is one of them. It is distinct in that it has an obvious Indian flavour. This is because those who learn it do so in the context of other languages which have their own patterns and potentials. So the influence of the speaker's native language tends to perpetuate itself on his use of the foreign language. A native speaker of English listening to the English of a person from the subcontinent (India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka), can easily identify the speaker as speaking Indian English (IE) even without seeing the person. As such IE is a distinct variety.

The uniqueness of English spoken in India to be labelled as a standard variety called 'Indian English' is a very controversial subject and many studies have been done on that topic. Scholars are divided in their opinion over this issue. Kachru having worked on stylistics, Bansal and Masica on pronunciation, Verma on grammar, conclude that IE is a distinct variety. Kachru takes into account the typically
Indian formations of words in Indo-Anglian literature like 'dung-wash', 'salt-giver' etc. and says that though these are formally non-deviant, they are culture-bound. Bansal and Masica list out the phonetic deviations of IE from RP and thus establish their claim that IE is a separate standard entity. Verma takes examples from grammar and says that "Indian English is a self-contained system and follows its own set of rules. This system is closely related to the core-grammar of English English" (Verma 1982:180).

As the main thrust in this thesis is on the pronunciation of English spoken in south India, arguments are limited to the scope of pronunciation.

To a certain extent the claim of the above mentioned scholars that IE is a distinct variety is justifiable when we say that a native speaker easily recognizes a speaker from the subcontinent even without seeing him. This happens because all Indians have certain characteristic features of pronunciation which are different from RP, that they become indicators to the nationality of the person. These conspicuous markers form the pronunciation peculiarities of IE. The analysis of the English spoken in the four south Indian states viz., Andhra Pradesh where people speak Telugu English, Karnataka wherein they speak Kannada English, Tamilnadu where they speak Tamilian English and Kerala where it is Malayalam English, shows the presence of many features
which are shared by the varieties of English spoken elsewhere in the country (central India, north east and north west India etc.). These pan-Indian features that were observed in the speech analysis of South Indian English (SIE) are given below.

4.1 Pan-Indian features

1. The voiceless dental plosives [t] and [d] replace [tʰ] and [d̪ʰ]
   e.g. ['mæθəmætɪks] for mathematics (speaker no.18)
   ['aɪðəl] for authorities (speaker no.3)
   [við] for with (speaker no.5)
   [ə'dər] for other (speaker no.13)

2. The voiced labio-dental frictionless continuant [v] substitutes for the voiced labio-dental fricative [v] and the voiced labio-velar semivowel [w]. For example, almost all Indian speakers of English pronounce [v] and [w] as [v]. But [w] is also present in the inventory of phonemes and occasionally it is used.
   e.g. ['vɪlɪ:dʒ] for village (speaker no.20)
   ['vɒlətɪl] for volatile (speaker no.5)
   ['bɪtviːn] for between (speaker no.12)
   ['wəmən] for women (speaker no.12)

3. [r] is retained in most cases, whenever an orthographic r is present. [r] is retained where it should not be
and dropped in the correct environment as well as in the wrong places.

e.g. [ˈraitəs] for writers (speaker no.3)

[ˈwɜːks] for works (speaker no.3)

[ˈdistɪkt] for district (speaker no.3)- (Faulty dropping)

[ˈdʒərnəlɪzəm] for journalism (speaker no.1) (faulty retention)

[ˈɔrɡənɪk] for organic (speaker no.5)

[ˈjuːnɪvɜːsɪtɪ] for university (speaker no.4)

4. Intrusion of a vowel before a syllabic consonant is a common feature.

[ˈrɪtwən] for written (speaker no.3)

[ˈsetəl] for settle (speaker 20)

[ˈpɜːsen] for person (speaker no.11)

[ˈsiːsn] for season (speaker no.20)


[ˈstuːdənts] for students (speaker no.3)

[ˈstuːdɪkos] for studios (speaker no.1)

6. Elision of segments is also usual.

[ˈsuperɪndent] for superintendent (speaker no.5)

[ˈɡəvərnment] for government (speaker no.3)
7. Gemination is a pan-Indian feature.

  e.g. [ˈsaməm] for winner (speaker no.15)
  [ˈnætʃ] for nothing (speaker no.9)
  [ˈjɛssəs] for essays (speaker no.3)
  [ˈæpəzɪʃən] for opposition (speaker no.8)

8. Past tense markers are [d] and [əd] and the plural markers are [s] and [əs]. The rule of plural formation does not seem to hold good for them.

  e.g. [ˈselɛktəd] for selected (speaker no.4)
  [ˈvaɪlɪdʒɪz] for villages (speaker no.13)

9. The usual feature of IE of the diphthong being substituted by long vowels is very much evident in the data.

  [e:] replaces [ei] -

  e.g. [ˈeʤuːtʃən] for education (speaker no.3)
  [ˈleːbə] for labour (speaker no.13)
  [ˈneːtɪv] for native (speaker no.3)

  [eː] in place of [es] -

  e.g. [ˈkæmpʃəd] for compared (speaker no.16)
  [ˌdeːə] for there (speaker no.5)

  [ɔ] and [ɔː] for [əu] -

  e.g. [ˈboːrd] for board (speaker no.3)
  [ˈkoʊrs] for course (speaker no.6)
  [ˈɡrəʊθ] for growth (speaker no.13)
[u:] replaces [uə] -

  e.g. [puː] for pure (speaker 3)
  [ʃjuː] for sure (speaker no.11)
  [ɪ'm metʃjuː] for immature (speaker no.4)

Sometimes [ʌ] replaces [uə] -

  e.g. [ˈmænʃuəl] for manual (speaker no.13)

At times one monophthong is substituted for another. [e] in place of [i] -

  e.g. [ˈdefinətli] for definitely (speaker no.29)
  [ˈvɪl:dʒ] for village (speaker no.20)
  [ˈklɛimət] for climate (speaker no.20)

[ʌ] and [ɑː] replace [o] -

  e.g. [ˈkæmjuːnɪzəm] for communism (speaker no.20)
  [ˈɑːfɪs] for office (speaker no.2)

[ʌ] or [æ] replace [ə] and [ɔː] -

  e.g. [ˈwɜːk] for work (speaker no.10)
  [ˈælɜːt] for alert (speaker no.13)
  [ˈpɜːsənəl] for personal (speaker no.11)
  [ˈʌndərstænd] for understand (speaker no.6)

These above mentioned features form the chunk of pan-Indian English pronunciation. There is another set of scholars who argue that when there are so many sub-varieties like Tamil English, Gujarathi English, Bengali English etc., what then is IE? Krishnaswamy gives some examples to ratify
his argument that there is no standard variety called IE which can be equated with American English etc. The examples are:

- **Bengali English** - Bery bery good. I hab one more phiis.  
  (Very very good. I have one more fish)

- **Kerala English** - It is very simble. I go to temble daily.  
  (It is very simple. I go to temple daily)

- **Madras English** - Sir, you are going to a picture a?  
  (Sir, are you going to a movie?)

- **Gujarathi English** - Babu, I want to enjoy you upto the pawn shop.  
  (Babu, I want to enjoy your company till the shop)

The reasoning for this argument is also justifiable. Within India there are as many sub-varieties of English as there are states, as a result of the dominance or pull of the total system of the first language, i.e., the native language of that state of English. As a consequence intelligibility has begun to suffer even in our inter-provincial contacts. The analysis of the speech of south Indians has thrown light on the features that are singular to each of the four states which are the result of the influence of the languages of those states on English. These features are not pan-Indian. They are unique to each state and the four states do not share these features. They are as follows:
4.2 Characteristic features of English of the four south Indian states

Telugu English

1. Addition of a vowel: At the end of a word, a vowel [u] (usually) or i is added.

   e.g. [śabdʒektu] for subject (speaker no.3)
   [doladzi] for college (speaker no.5)
   [ʃaiyu] for five (speaker no.4)
   [ʃeʃi:ʒu] for affairs (speaker no.4)
   [ʃmeʃe:dʒu] for marriage (speaker no.4)
   [ʃɪntʃɛstu] for interest (speaker no.4)

2. [z] substituted by [dʒ]: This feature is noticed in the speech of one Telugu speaker. He pronounced [z] as [dʒ].
   e.g. [dʒelAs] for zealous (speaker no.6)

3. Hypercorrection of [dʒ] to [z]: Being aware of the very common mistake of pronouncing [z] as [dʒ] (e.g. [dʒi:Jo]) by Telugus, some speakers used a [z] in place of [dʒ].
   e.g. [ʃeṃsiz] for M.C.J. (speaker no.1)
   [ʃzu:lozi] for zoology (speaker no.2)
   [ʃi'mæzin] for imagine (speaker no.6)

Kannada English

Use of a glottal stop: This feature is seen only in Kannada English. When a negative answer is preceded by a no it is accompanied by a glottal stop.
e.g. [no2 aistadi:d in maIs0:ra o:nli]  
(no. I studied everything in Mysore only)  
[no2/s0 fa:j natting]  
(no. so far nothing)  
[no2a1 don't hau 'tait tu du eniting]  
(no. I don't have time to do anything)  
[no2. natting // no signetjor is ...)  
(no. nothing. No signature is ...)  

(speaker no.9)  

(speaker no.7)  

Tamil English  
There was no particular feature confined to Tamil English in the data. The only striking feature is the way [e0]is pronounced as [E:] . This is done by Malayalees also but not as much as the Tamilians.  
e.g. [de:r ] for there (speaker no.14)  
[pæ:sents] for parents (speaker no.12)  
[ve:r ] for where (speaker no.13)  
[rem] for rare (speaker no.11)  

Some of the Tamilian speakers taken for recording were from Kanyakumari district of Tamil Nadu which is on the border of Kerala State. As such in spite of being Tamilians, with Tamil as their mother tongue, their English is as good as or as bad as Malayalee English, i.e., they share the feature of voicing which is peculiar to Malayalee English.
The last example is from the data of the speaker from Pondicherry.

Malayalee English

Voicing is a very distinctive feature of Malayalee English, particularly when a voiceless plosive follows a nasal it is voiced. The dental plosives also get voiced, so does the affricate.

e.g. [ˈɪmˌbætənd] for important (speaker no.13)
[ˈætˈenʃən] for attention (speaker no.13)
[ˈempləd] for employed (speaker no.13)
[ˈʌŋkəl] for uncle (speaker no.15)
[ˈbjʊːdɪfəl] for beautiful (speaker no.16)

In order to strike a balance between these two arguments, a region-wise grouping together of states within India can be made. The basis for this grouping can either be geographical proximity or linguistic closeness. Geographically India can be divided as north east India, north west
India, central India and south India. As a result of this grouping, the different sub-varieties within India which correspond to the number of states can be drastically reduced to four or five varieties. The difference in pronunciation of the English spoken by regionally bound states is minimal and there are a few shared features which can be the markers of the English spoken in that region. This research on SIE is the beginning of such a region-wise research in India. There is a linguistic commonness among the four states as all the four languages are Dravidian languages. In spite of some differences, the sound systems of these four languages -- Telugu, Kannada, Tamil and Malayalam -- share many common features. Tamil and Malayalam are closer as are Telugu and Kannada. A characteristic feature of Dravidian languages is the proximity of their sound inventories. The consonant system of a Dravidian language has four or five pairs of stops (voiceless and voiced), two or three fricatives, along with the corresponding nasal sonants, plus retroflex lateral and liquid sounds.

The four states of south India share certain features in the English spoken. These features are not shared by the English spoken in the rest of the country. As such, they are pan-South Indian and not pan-Indian.
4.3 Pan-South Indian features

Retroflexion:

The most characteristic feature of the Dravidian consonantism is the retroflex sound system which projects itself in the production of the English sound system. There are two scales in this feature. One is the degree of retroflexion (the hollow resonance) which differs from person to person, wherein one has a high degree of retroflexion and the other much less. The number of retroflex sounds also varies from person to person. In the speech of some only a couple of sounds are retroflex, whereas others use many more [t, d, l, n]. They are used extensively in Tamil and Malayalam English but traces of them are also found in Telugu and Kannada English (mostly [ŋ] and [l]).

Telugu English and Kannada English have less number of retroflex sounds and also the degree of retroflexion seems to be less compared to Tamilian and Malayalee English. Examples from Tamil and Malayalee English:

e.g. [frætənɪtɪk] for fraternitic (speaker no.13)
['bjuːdɪfʊl] for beautiful (speaker no.16)
['kænsərŋ] for concerned (speaker no.18)
[ 'hoːt ] for hot (speaker no.18)
['kʌltɪvət] for cultivate (speaker no.20)
[ 'ləʊnli ] for lonely (speaker no.18)
[ 'rɛrəli ] for rarely (speaker no.11)
Examples from Kannada and Telugu English:

e.g. \[ 'l\text{\texttheta n} \] for \textit{learn} (speaker no.3)
\[ 'm\text{\texttheta n}g \] for \textit{morning} (speaker no.9)
\[ 'd\text{\texttheta n}no \] for \textit{don't know} (speaker no.18)
\[ 'd\text{\texttheta n}m\text{\texttheta l}ism \] for \textit{journalism} (speaker no.1)
\[ 'm\text{\texttheta d\texttheta n}n \] for \textit{modern} (speaker no.5)
\[ 'm\text{\texttheta n}gl \] for \textit{mingle} (speaker no.10)

\textbf{s/z distinction}

In place of \[ s \], \[ z \] is used and vice versa. Sometimes the correct segment is used and sometimes the voiced or voiceless counterpart is used.

\begin{itemize}
  \item e.g. \[ 'r\text{\texttheta z\texttheta n}l\text{\texttheta l} \] for \textit{recently} \[ s \rightarrow z \] (speaker no.4)
  \item \[ 'd\text{\texttheta j\texttheta n}l\text{\texttheta m}\text{\texttheta l}ism \] for \textit{journalism} \[ z \rightarrow s \] (speaker no.1)
  \item \[ i:si \] for \textit{easy} \[ z \rightarrow s \] (speaker no.12)
  \item \[ r\text{\texttheta z\texttheta \texttheta d\texttheta \texttheta e:jen} \] for \textit{reservation} \[ z \rightarrow s \] (speaker no.7)
  \item \[ zen8 \] for \textit{sense} \[ s \rightarrow z \] (speaker no.13)
  \item \[ 'f\text{\texttheta i\texttheta k\texttheta l} \] for \textit{physical} \[ z \rightarrow s \] (speaker no.15)
  \item \[ 'r\text{\texttheta i\texttheta s\texttheta n\texttheta s} \] for \textit{reasons} \[ z \rightarrow s \] (speaker no.7)
  \item \[ 'sp\text{\texttheta e\texttheta j\texttheta e:jen} \] for \textit{specialisation} \[ s \rightarrow z \] (speaker no.5)
\end{itemize}

\textbf{j/w prosodies:}

The Dravidian feature of preceding \( \varepsilon \) front vowel by \[ j \] and back vowel by \[ v \] is very much evident in the data. In the Dravidian languages the use of semivowel \[ j \] before front vowel and the labio-dental frictionless continuant \[ v \] before
back vowel does not make any difference word-initially. For example, in Telugu, there are two possibilities for the words -- house and town.

illu/jillu   u:ru/ûu:ru
(house)       (town)

The [j] before [illu] and the [u] before [u:ru] do not alter the meaning of the words. This system makes its appearance in the English spoken by the South Indians.

e.g. ['jesse:s] for essays (speaker no.3)
     ['jæktʃjuːval] for actual (speaker no.3)
     ['jemdɪ] for M.D. (speaker no.5)
     ['boːnli] for only (speaker no.12)
     ['jenɪvɪ] for anyway (speaker no.20)
     ['jemmessɪ] for M.Sc. (speaker no.5)
     ['jemfɪl] for M.Phil. (speaker no.15)
     ['jamsɪz] for M.C.J. (speaker no.1)
     ['jeɪt] for eight (speaker no.4)

This then is the core of South Indian English pronunciation. These are definite markers for South Indian English.

Palatalization:

This feature has been observed in three speakers: one is a Telugu speaker of English, the other is a Tamil speaker of English and the third is a Malayalam speaker of English.
e.g. \[\text{en\k^j\j\j}\] for \text{encash} (speaker no.2)

\[\text{b^j\j\j\j}\] for \text{bad} (speaker no.20)

\[\text{m^j\j\j}\] for \text{match} (speaker no.15)

As this feature has been noticed in the data of speakers from three out of the four south Indian states, it can be taken to be a pan-south Indian feature.

4.4. **South Indian English vis-a-vis North Indian English (NIE)**

That the South Indian English is a distinguishable variety from that of the varieties of English spoken in the northern parts of India is evident from the features of North Indian English (includes north east, north west, central etc.), that have been culled from the theses available on these varieties.

**Pronunciation of /ʃ/**

It is a difficult zone for the north Indians. \[\text{ʃ}\] is not pronounced labio-dentally with the friction that it is to have but it is made into a plosive (aspirated or not) and voiceless bilabial fricative. Hence there are three variants.

\[/ʃ/ \rightarrow [p^h] \rightarrow [p] \rightarrow [\phi]\]

This is done by many north Indians including Marathis,
Bengalis, Oriyas, Hindi speakers, Dogri speakers, etc. But this phenomenon is not noticed in South Indian English. [f] is very much a labio-dental fricative and is part of the repertoire of the sound system of South Indian English.

**Pronunciation of /t/ and /d/**

The English alveolar [d] is a problem for North Indians. They either use a post-alveolar variety [d] or a retracted variety [d]. They use a retracted form of [t] which is [t] also. In some places retroflex [t] and [q] are also used. Dravidians are said to have settled in a couple or more places in North India apart from their native region -- the South India. As such the Dravidian influence of retroflexing is seen in the retroflexion of [t] and [q] in a few pockets in North India.

**Pronunciation of /b/**

This segment also has two variants. It is pronounced as a plosive as well as a voiced bilabial fricative. This feature of pronouncing [b] as a fricative is completely absent in South Indian English.

e.g.

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/b/ \                 \ [b] \\
    \                  \   \\
      \                [g]
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s/j distinction:

Some north Indians do not maintain the s/j distinction in their English. Hence a ship and a sip or same and shame are the same for Oriyas, Bengalis, etc.

Pronunciation of /ʃ/:

/ʃ/ has four variants.

\[ \text{[dʒ]} \]
\[ \text{[z]} \]
\[ \text{[ʃ]} \]
\[ \text{[ʒ]} \]

e.g. measure is pronounced as mayor.

This is not noticed in SIE. They generally replace \[ \text{[ʒ]} \] with \[ \text{[ʃ]} \]. It is observed that \[ \text{meʒə} \] is pronounced as \[ \text{meʃə} \] by south Indians.

Pronunciation of /h/:

\[ \text{[h]} \] is occasionally released as \[ \text{[ɦ]} \] in the medial intervocal positions and sometimes initial too.

e.g. \[ \text{[haʊ]} \] for how

\[ \text{[biʃaɪnd]} \] for behind

Due to the presence of breathy voiced stops in the north Indian languages, some speakers introduce breath with 'g' when it is followed by 'h' in spelling—e.g. ghost, ghastly.

Pronunciation of /v/:

\[ \text{[v]} \] is absent. It has many variants.

\[ \text{[v]} \]
\[ \text{[v]} \]
\[ \text{[b]} \]
\[ \text{[β]} \]
\[ \text{[w]} \]
The difference between SIE and NIE there is that in SIE [v] is replaced only by [u] whereas in NIE it has five substitutes, the prominent of which is [v] being substituted by [b] which is never done by a south Indian.

Consonant clusters:
Another problem areas for the north Indian speakers of English is the presence of consonant clusters. When /s/ is followed by /p, t, k, m, n, f/ they add /i/ before /s/.

e.g. esnake, estrain, eschool

south Indians (excepting a few Urdu speakers) never prefix a vowel to /s/ in such cases.

The consonant system of north Indian languages controls the consonant system of English spoken by them.

4.5 Suprasegmental features of South Indian English

4.5.1 Word accent

Regarding word accent a majority of the speakers stressed the first syllable of a word. Though the general tendency was towards the stressing of the first syllable of a word, some of the speakers used the correct pattern of stress on some words.

Examples of wrong stress pattern:

're provision (speaker no.6)
're continental (speaker no.1)
're flexibility (speaker no.12)
'Christianity (speaker no.6)
atmosphere (speaker no.19)

Examples of correct stress pattern:
correction (speaker no.6)
reservation (speech no.7)
disruption (speaker no.12)
notorious (speaker no.19)
anatomy (speaker no.6)

In compound words or phrases the tonic accent (the most important accent) is put on the first syllable of the first word.

e.g. Executive Council member (speaker no.4)

    U.G.C. Lecturer (speaker no.5)
    M.C.J. (speaker no.1)
    L.K.G (speaker no.5)

The difference in the location of stress between a noun and a verb as in RP is not observed in SIE. Whether a noun or a verb the stress is on the first syllable.

e.g. "The basic test we conduct is ..."
(It should have been conduct) (speaker no.6)

"Both come in close contact with each other." (speaker No.12)
4.5.2 Rhythmic features

In SIE, in addition to content words, structure words are also stressed. Personal pronouns, prepositions etc. are stressed.

E.g. "For me I won't mind is difficult.
The problem of English only for me.
But I can no doubt I can speak.
I will go to Shivajinagar...from there I...
will catch." (speaker no.9)

Unlike in RP, short forms are not used. Words like I'm, I'll etc. are expanded.

E.g. "I am interested in sports." (speaker no.15)

"I am a lecturer in school of optometry." (speaker no.6)

Because all the words in SIE are stress potential (different words for different people), and as there is no difference of stressing between structure and content words as in RP, the rhythmic flow is hampered.

4.5.3 Intonation

It is right to study intonation in connected speech, i.e., spontaneous conversation, but there are limitations to this study. Because it is a spontaneous speech, the speaker may not come out with all sentence types like requests, exclamations, interrogative sentences, question
tags etc. Generally conversations comprise statements, a few question tags etc. As such it becomes difficult to describe the intonation system of the speaker.

According to Halliday, (Halliday, 1967:18) intonation is a network of three choices, viz., tonality, tonicity and tone. The division of a sentence into tone groups is 'tonality'. The location of the tonic syllable is 'tonicity'. The choice of tone (falling, rising or a combination of both) to be used on the tonic syllable is 'tone'.

**Tonality:**

All speakers to a large extent conformed to the norms of tone group making (according to R.P.) in most of the sentences. The words were grouped together by taking the grammatical boundaries into consideration.

*E.g.* "Duration around three months/weekly twice/ ... there are around twentyfive members/ its a part time course/ part time housewives course/ mm ... they normally conduct it in summer/" (speaker no.1)

"So ... in the process/ N.T. Rama Rao/ was not so confident enough to deny/ the charge levelled against by the Congress/" (speaker no.8)

"I mean the village, development/ and their adamant ... attitude/ have stood in the way/" (speaker no.13)
One speaker (no.20) spoke long stretches of sentences without giving a break thereby make it one long tone group.

e.g. "/And once after coming here only we find these I mean you know not getting here we get maximum three four rains in an in an year/" but there a .../ (speaker no.20)

**Tonicity:**

The speakers in the location of the tonic accent were erratic. In some places they highlighted the information giving words but in other places they put the tonic accent on structure words. Context, in some cases, has not been considered in locating the tonic accent.

e.g. "The 'more important is the community 'development programme / and the 'crash programme/.

Though sometimes the word on which the tone is located is the right one, the syllable on which it is used is usually the wrong one. By chance sometimes they locate the tonic accent on the right syllable also.

e.g. 1. "/I 'joined as /demonstrator / and /promoted as /UGC lecturer /" (speaker no.5)

In the word demonstrator it is the right syllable, and in the word promoted it is the wrong syllable.

2. "It is 'so 'beautiful / and a ... still 'nature is very 'beautiful / and a ... a ... 'green trees and
"everywhere you can see 'green trees and very good atmosphere / not much hot or not much winter season"/ (speaker no. 19)

Much divergence from RP is seen in words like UGC lecturer, Executive Council member etc. The tone is located on the last word in R.P. But in SIE it is generally on the first word or first syllable.

e.g. UGC lecturer (speaker no. 5)
    Executive Council member (speaker no. 4)
    M.Sc. (speaker no. 5)
    S.K. University (speaker no. 4)

Tone:

The data comprises mostly assertive sentences with very few questions, question tags etc. The tones that have been used are low fall, high fall, low rise and fall rise. The fall rise is either on a single word or is divided over two words.

Assertive sentences:

e.g. 1. "I finish all my household work by ... eight thirty / and my college starts by nine thirty / or nine forty five actually / and we have to be there by nine thirty /" (speaker no. 5)
2. "My native place is Kavali in Nellore district and after my marriage see I was working in ... Sulurpet in Nellore district."

(speaker no.3)

3. "Kerala is situated in ... South part of India and it is near to Sri Lanka a ... it is a coast land and situated near Arabian sea."

(speaker no.19)

For listing items usually a low rise is used. But one person used a low fall and another a level tone.

e.g. "So many items / continental / Indian style / some Chinese styles / we learn / so tasty ... some dishes are /

(speaker no.1)

"In law ... civil / criminal / administrative law / company law / mercantile law like that /

(speaker 4)

"Lot of studies for only L.K.G. / U.K.G. / and first class also/

(speaker no.5)

"Powers vary from zero / one / two / three / plus one / plus two / plus three /

(speaker no.6)

"In these one eighty two days we have got holidays and other / ah / strike / due to ... strikes / and other bandhs we lose class work/"

(speaker no.3)

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Note: -- indicates level tone.
Negative statements

In all the negative statements the speakers used a falling tone on the word indicating negation.

e.g. "/no nothing / no signature is ... / as long as I finish my project before February it doesn't matter / I don't have to ... answer to those people /"

"/not at all /" (speaker no.7)

Wh-questions:

Only one out of the twenty speakers used a wh-question in his speech. He used a falling tone.

e.g. "And why did you select English as your topic?/"

(speaker no.17)

Question tags:

One person's speech (speaker no.12) contained a few question tags. He used a rising tone on some tags and a falling tone on others.

e.g. "Both come in close contact with each other/ That's right / isn't it/"

"No one knows till the result has come out/ Isn't it /"

"Generally you can take in India / that the husband ... has more right than the woman / isn't it/"

(speaker no.12)
"As they come in close contact with each other / it becomes easy for them to adjust after they get married / isn't it /" (speaker no.12)

Exclamation:

One Kannada exclamation was found in the data. The word is 'ayyo' which is like the 'oh my' of English. It is said with a high rise.

/Ayyyo/ (speaker no.9)

It is noticed that low-fall is the predominant tone in the data collected. High fall and low rise have considerable occurrence followed by traces of high rise and level tones.

As in the case of segmental features, the intonation features of SIE have not been compared with the intonation features of North Indian English because of the non-availability of sufficient data on the intonation patterns of North Indian English.