Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities

About the Journal

Overview

Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities (JSSH) is the official journal of Universiti Putra Malaysia published by UPM Press. It is an open-access online scientific journal which is free of charge. It publishes the scientific outputs. It neither accepts nor commissions third party content.

Recognized internationally as the leading peer-reviewed interdisciplinary journal devoted to the publication of original papers, it serves as a forum for practical approaches to improving quality in issues pertaining to social and behavioural sciences as well as the humanities.

JSSH is a **quarterly** (*March, June, September* and *December*) periodical that considers for publication original articles as per its scope. The journal publishes in **English** and it is open to authors around the world regardless of the nationality.

The Journal is available world-wide.

Aims and scope

Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities aims to develop as a pioneer journal for the social sciences with a focus on emerging issues pertaining to the social and behavioural sciences as well as the humanities.

Areas relevant to the scope of the journal include Social Sciences—Accounting, anthropology, Archaeology and history, Architecture and habitat, Consumer and family economics, Economics, Education, Finance, Geography, Law, Management studies, Media and communication studies, Political sciences and public policy, Population studies, Psychology, Sociology, Technology management, Tourism; Humanities—Arts and culture, Dance, Historical and civilisation studies, Language and Linguistics, Literature, Music, Philosophy, Religious studies, Sports.

History

Pertanika was founded in 1978. A decision was made in 1992 to streamline Pertanika into three journals as Journal of Tropical Agricultural Science, Journal of Science & Technology, and **Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities** to meet the need for specialised journals in areas of study aligned with the interdisciplinary strengths of the university.

After almost 25 years, as an interdisciplinary Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities, the revamped journal focuses on research in social and behavioural sciences as well as the humanities, particularly in the Asia Pacific region.

Goal of *Pertanika*

Our goal is to bring the highest quality research to the widest possible audience.

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We aim for excellence, sustained by a responsible and professional approach to journal publishing. Submissions are guaranteed to receive a decision within 14 weeks. The elapsed time from submission to publication for the articles averages 5-6 months.

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The abbreviation for *Pertanika* Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities is *Pertanika J. Soc. Sci. Hum.*

Publication policy

Pertanika policy prohibits an author from submitting the same manuscript for concurrent consideration by two or more publications. It prohibits as well publication of any manuscript that has already been published either in whole or substantial part elsewhere. It also does not permit publication of manuscript that has been published in full in Proceedings.

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The Pertanika Journals and Universiti Putra Malaysia takes seriously the responsibility of all of its journal publications to reflect the highest in publication ethics. Thus all journals and journal editors are expected to abide by the Journal's codes of ethics. Refer to Pertanika's **Code of Ethics** for full details, or visit the Journal's web link at http://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/code_of_ethics.php

International Standard Serial Number (ISSN)

An ISSN is an 8-digit code used to identify periodicals such as journals of all kinds and on all media–print and electronic. All Pertanika journals have ISSN as well as an e-ISSN.

Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities: ISSN 0128-7702 *(Print)*; ISSN 2231-8534 *(Online)*.

Lag time

A decision on acceptance or rejection of a manuscript is reached in 3 to 4 months (average 14 weeks). The elapsed time from submission to publication for the articles averages 5-6 months.

Authorship

Authors are not permitted to add or remove any names from the authorship provided at the time of initial submission without the consent of the Journal's Chief Executive Editor.

Manuscript preparation

Refer to Pertanika's **INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS** at the back of this journal.

Most scientific papers are prepared according to a format called IMRAD. The term represents the first letters of the words **I**ntroduction, **M**aterials and Methods, **R**esults, **A**nd, **D**iscussion. IMRAD is simply a more 'defined' version of the "IBC" [Introduction, Body, Conclusion] format used for all academic writing. IMRAD indicates a pattern or format rather than a complete list of headings or components of research papers; the missing parts of a paper are: *Title, Authors, Keywords, Abstract, Conclusions*, and *References*. Additionally, some papers include Acknowledgments and Appendices.

The *Introduction* explains the scope and objective of the study in the light of current knowledge on the subject; the *Materials and Methods* describes how the study was conducted; the *Results* section reports what was found in the study; and the *Discussion* section explains meaning and significance of the results and provides suggestions for future directions of research. The manuscript must be prepared according to the Journal's **INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS**.

Editorial process

Authors are notified with an acknowledgement containing a *Manuscript ID* on receipt of a manuscript, and upon the editorial decision regarding publication.

Pertanika follows a **double-blind peer-review** process. Manuscripts deemed suitable for publication are usually sent to reviewers. Authors are encouraged to suggest names of at least three potential reviewers at the time of submission of their manuscript to Pertanika, but the editors will make the final choice. The editors are not, however, bound by these suggestions.

Notification of the editorial decision is usually provided within ten to fourteen weeks from the receipt of manuscript. Publication of solicited manuscripts is not guaranteed. In most cases, manuscripts are accepted conditionally, pending an author's revision of the material.

As articles are double-blind reviewed, material that might identify authorship of the paper should be placed only on page 2 as described in the first-4 page format in Pertanika's **Instructions to Authors** given at the back of this journal.

The Journal's peer-review

In the peer-review process, three referees independently evaluate the scientific quality of the submitted manuscripts.

Peer reviewers are experts chosen by journal editors to provide written assessment of the **strengths** and **weaknesses** of written research, with the aim of improving the reporting of research and identifying the most appropriate and highest quality material for the journal.

Operating and review process

What happens to a manuscript once it is submitted to *Pertanika*? Typically, there are seven steps to the editorial review process:

1. The Journal's chief executive editor and the editorial board examine the paper to determine whether it is appropriate for the journal and should be reviewed. If not appropriate, the manuscript is rejected outright and the author is informed.

2. The chief executive editor sends the article-identifying information having been removed, to three reviewers. Typically, one of these is from the Journal's editorial board. Others are specialists in the subject matter represented by the article. The chief executive editor asks them to complete the review in three weeks.

    Comments to authors are about the appropriateness and adequacy of the theoretical or conceptual framework, literature review, method, results and discussion, and conclusions. Reviewers often include suggestions for strengthening of the manuscript. Comments to the editor are in the nature of the significance of the work and its potential contribution to the literature.

3. The chief executive editor, in consultation with the editor-in-chief, examines the reviews and decides whether to reject the manuscript, invite the author(s) to revise and resubmit the manuscript, or seek additional reviews. Final acceptance or rejection rests with the Edito-in-Chief, who reserves the right to refuse any material for publication. In rare instances, the manuscript is accepted with almost no revision. Almost without exception, reviewers' comments (to the author) are forwarded to the author. If a revision is indicated, the editor provides guidelines for attending to the reviewers' suggestions and perhaps additional advice about revising the manuscript.

4. The authors decide whether and how to address the reviewers' comments and criticisms and the editor's concerns. The authors return a revised version of the paper to the chief executive editor along with specific information describing how they have answered' the concerns of the reviewers and the editor, usually in a tabular form. The author(s) may also submit a rebuttal if there is a need especially when the author disagrees with certain comments provided by reviewer(s).

5. The chief executive editor sends the revised paper out for re-review. Typically, at least one of the original reviewers will be asked to examine the article.

6. When the reviewers have completed their work, the chief executive editor in consultation with the editorial board and the editor-in-chief examine their comments and decide whether the paper is ready to be published, needs another round of revisions, or should be rejected.

7. If the decision is to accept, an acceptance letter is sent to all the author(s), the paper is sent to the Press. The article should appear in print in approximately three months.

    The Publisher ensures that the paper adheres to the correct style (in-text citations, the reference list, and tables are typical areas of concern, clarity, and grammar). The authors are asked to respond to any minor queries by the Publisher. Following these corrections, page proofs are mailed to the corresponding authors for their final approval. At this point, **only essential changes are accepted**. Finally, the article appears in the pages of the Journal and is posted on-line.

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Preface

Welcome to the Thematic Edition of the Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities (JSSH) focussing on "New Perspectives in Language Studies". These are regularly submitted manuscripts; selected and reviewed by the regular system and accepted for publication. There seems to be a large pool of manuscripts falling within linguistics, and putting them together in a thematic edition seems to be the obvious consequence.

The first highlight of this thematic edition is an article entitled "*In Vitro* Fertilisation: Women's Questions and Concerns in a Malaysian Online Forum", by *Puan Wun Chiew* and *Jariah Mohd. Jan*, fellow researchers from Malaysia. This article addresses the issue of infertility among Malaysian women. They studied the inquiries made by Malaysian woman on the issue using a web content analysis method on a local online forum. They found that the concern of these women were of *in vitro* fertilisation, a type of infertility treatment. Other concerns were various solidarity strategies of support and encouragement for infertility treatments. The details of the article is available on page 79.

The second highlight is an article entitled "Understanding Plagiarism from the Lens of First Year Tertiary Level Students", by *Manjet Kaur Mehar Singh* and *Malini Ganapathy*, fellow researchers from Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), Malaysia. The article assessed the understanding of plagiarism among first year Malaysian university students. The method involved administration of a quantitative survey among target group via purposive sampling. They found out that the target group displayed ambiguity in distinguishing plagiarism and non-plagiarism acts. The findings are important for implementation of necessary acts in instilling good academic practices among university students. Details of the article is available on page 159.

We anticipate that you will find the evidence presented in this edition to be intriguing, thought-provoking and useful in reaching new milestones in your own research. Please recommend the journal to your colleagues and students to make this endeavour meaningful.

All the papers published in this edition underwent Pertanika's stringent peer-review process involving a minimum of two reviewers comprising internal as well as external referees. This was to ensure that the quality of the papers justified the high ranking of the journal, which is renowned as a heavily-cited journal not only by authors and researchers in Malaysia but by those in other countries around the world as well.

We thank the authors for agreeing to publish their papers in this Thematic Edition, and the editors and reviewers involved in the publishing process of these papers.

JSSH is currently accepting manuscripts for upcoming issues based on original qualitative or quantitative research that opens new areas of inquiry and investigation.

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Review Article

War Allegory in Narayan Wagle's *Palpasa Café*

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ABSTRACT

This article examines the metafictional representations in Narayan Wagle's *Palpasa Café* (2008). The novel's metafictional elements depict the state of the Nepalese people during the Civil War. Wagle critiques the devastating consequences of the Civil War and how it affected the Nepali individuals' psyche. The study elucidates Wagle's use of metafiction as an indirect commentary on the political status quo. The study also uses allegory to explicate the metafictional elements in the novel in order to highlight Wagle's fictional critique. Allegory is elaborated in terms of paradox. Paradoxical allegory reveals the implicit metafictional authorial presence in the novel's narrative structure to accentuate the author's subjective voice. Such authorial presence is conveyed via insinuating self-reflexivity device which allows the author to intervene in his narrative fabric. The study mainly focuses on the authorial metafictional interference within the fictional text through paradoxical allegory. Both allegory and paradox have an interrelation with metafiction which unravels the author's relative perspective on the tragic consequences of the Nepalese Civil War.

Keywords: Allegory, metafiction, narrative structure, Nepal, paradox, self-reflexivity, Wagle

INTRODUCTION

Narayan Wagle is a prominent Nepalese novelist. He incorporates his experience as a journalist with his fictional writings. Being a Nepalese citizen, he conceptualizes the drastic eventsthat stormed in Nepal during the Nepalese Civil War. Wagle accomplishes distinctive literary compositions about the war and its destructive consequences. In *Palpasa Café,* hetries to depict the political turbulence which had not been given critical journalistic coverage. Consequently, Wagle provides an artistic"literary form which is seen to be a kind of meaning, a description of itself

which the text communicates to its reader, and has all the complex characteristics associated with meaning: uncertainties, ambiguities and contradictions" (Fabb, 2002). Thereupon, Wagle touches upon the need for live coverage of the war.

Accordingly, the novel serves as an emblematic documentation of the Nepalese Civil War, which disrupted the traditional socio-political balance in the country. Among the critical assessments on this matter is the humanistic propagation of the novel as a genre. It represents real human catastrophic visions and their negative consequences upon the Nepalese society. Nepal has always been a peaceful country and rich in diverse cultures as it has so many ethnic people; and the kings have always been referred to as god, but through politics, he becomes corrupted, and some Nepalese decide to take away powers from the king and the royal government. These Nepalese people represent the Communist Party of Nepal-Maoists, which is always abbreviated as CPN-M. They try to establish a republic, thus rupturing the fabric of peacefulness; and this was done by ingraining in themselves Maoist ideology; a political doctrine that depends on revolutions to overthrow the existing monarchy by force. This leads to a long civil disruption and, in the end, Nepal became a republic (Davidson, 1986).

The war was between the government and the Maoist rebels. It started as a 'people's war.' Nepal Communist Party, which was led by Maoist representatives, planned to dethrone the monarchy in order to impose the republican system. The result had been a totally civil insurrection and political upheaval. Social instability dominated the status quo, and monarchy began waning as people proved strong will to reclaim republican government. Thus, the origin of the war was due to people's dissatisfaction against Nepal's autocratic system, and also the caste system. Consequently, this conflict became bloody where around 17.000 people were killed in a war which lasted for almost 10 years.

Mass media has always portrayed the plight of these Maoists as the victims of a corrupted kingdom yet what Wagle is portraying is that this is not the case as each individual has a different opinion for this atrocities and Wagle sees no point of continuing this war as it destroys the peacefulness of the country, not mentioning the destroyed lives, and war will never end as long as there is politics, as Wagle says at the end of the novel: "all written works are incomplete. Something's always missing. There's always more to add…. It's so sad to see war in our country,' he said. It's terrible to see our own people die. Don't you think so, bhai?"

In essence, the novel calls for peace and stability within the national demarcations. Nepal has witnessed a great deal of devastation which has demolished hopes for stability that is reflected in journalism. However, Wagle endeavours to approach the Nepali crisis through literature. Being a literary therapist, he "strives not to introduce his agenda into a session other than in highly unusual circumstances or

in relation to practical arrangements. The therapist novelist makes efforts to hold back his opinions about difficult issues that the patient is trying to resolve, as the therapist's opinions do not belong in the psychotherapeutic session in which the patient has to try to find his own solution" (Lanyado, 2004). Thus, there has always been lack of this critical voice which Wagle has given in his novel. Hence, Wagle uses metafictional style to avoid being attacked by the official political authorities. In addition, he finds "metafiction a self-reflexive writing modes which reflects his own dissatisfaction with the ongoing political turbulence".

This study focuses on the human aspects of the Nepalese Civil War, and shows how it affected the psyche of the Nepali individual. The study of Nepali individuality will be approached through three objectives; first, it tries to explore the metafictional self-reflexivity of the novel, second it aims to examine the allegorical enactment of the main characters' psyche, and third, it intends to study the narrative paradox, whereby the novel's allegorical narrative reflects the author's real insights regarding the Nepalese Civil War.

Therefore, the significance of this study lies in its incorporation of a political and literary critique of the Nepali national affairs. Politically, the study demonstrates how the Nepali politics is corrupted by unfair revolutions. Such affairs destroy the Nepalese sense of social stability. Literary, it tackles Wagle's *Palpasa Café* as an indirect critique of this political corruption. That being so, the novel might exalt the Nepalese hope for social prosperity and, thus, building an advanced country. The argument of this study will also be beneficial for academicians who consider the role of fiction to elevate society. In the long run, the study follows a contextual exposure of the Nepali civil war in terms of allegory which has been hardly applied to analyse the novel.

THE NARRATOR'S COMMENTS ON WAR THROUGH SELF-REFLEXIVITY

Palpasa Café hinges on the story of an artist named Drishya during the Nepali Civil War. It portrays romantic love that develops between Drishya and an American Nepali woman named Palpasa. Their love story begins when the latter arrives in Nepal from the U.S.A. shortly after the tragedy of 9/11. In the main, *Palpasa Café* can be chronicled as an anti-war novel because it exposes the negative effects of the Civil War on the Nepali countryside, as seen through the eyes of Drishya. The novel is originally written in Nepali and it utilizes several literary techniques, such as authorial self-reflexivity, the narrator's comments on the plot's subject, and intertextuality. These structural techniques are representative forms of metafiction.

The novel's narrative is recounted through an anonymous person's point of view deflected through a straight forward approach which makes it impossible to identify the narrator. However, what is significant is the metafictional orientation of events. More specifically, metafictional insinuation falls in the category of self-

reflexive devices. The narrator is strikingly introduced in the beginning of this story; "a paper bird" comes to a man called Coffee Guff whose name is revealed through the opening metafictional lines: "a paper bird came flying down from the balcony and landed by my seat in the Birendra International Convention Centre. On it was written, When's your novel going to be published Mr. Coffee Guff?'".

These lines enhance the metafictional antecedent events of *Palpasa Café*. This is because the most obvious token of metafiction is self-reflexivity (Jweid, Abdalqader, & Termizi, 2015). Metafictional self-reflexivity means that the novel comments on its status as a fictional work and the utilization of metafictional insinuations in literary texts is a trajectory to the self-reflexive quality (Waugh, 1984). As such, by inserting self-reflexive devices, the text draws attention to its status as fictional work. In *Narcissistic Narrative: The Metafictional Paradox*, Hutcheon (1980) argued that "in its most overt form the self-consciousness of a text often takes the shape of an explicit thematization-through plot allegory, narrative metaphor, or even narratorial commentary". *In Palpasa Café*, for example, the paper bird leaves some notes to the narrator. The core of these notes is an interrogation on Coffee Guff's novel. From the beginning, self-reflexivity manifests properly in the narrative structure and draws attention to its fictional nature.

To revert to the analogy of self-reflexivity, metafiction is regarded as an indication of critical fiction. In like fashion,

it reconciles the antithesis of chaos and disorder because "metafiction parodies and imitates as a way to a new form which is just as serious and valid, as a synthesis, as the form it dialectically attempts to surpass" (Hutcheon, 1980).Chaos and disorder also appear at the beginning of *Palpasa Café* when the narrator and his friend console each other while listening to music, as an outlet from their tragic surroundings. The narrator, then, passes his notes to his friends. This is a mere adumbration of textual self-reflexivity: "the curtains would soon be raised and singer Deep Shrestha would begin his performance. Seconds before the lights went down, I passed the note to my friends. They read it and chuckled".

In line with this, *Palpasa Café* directs the reader through textual characteristics. These characteristics link the author's strategic construction of events with the characters' embodiment in the text. Wagle draws upon the suffering of the Nepalese people during the Civil War. He deliberately focuses on journalism and its role in reporting the tragic events of war. Furthermore, he emphasizes the importance of fiction in creating a sense of the war. In this manner, he prefers writing fiction to journalism and projects this need in the novel. The anonymous narrator identifies Coffee Guff as a weekly column in a newspaper; it is not his name. The narrator has quit writing his weekly columns and starts to write a novel depicting the war: "I'd stopped writing my weekly column 'Coffee Guff' in the *Kantipur* daily newspaper to make time to finish a novel. One of my colleagues joked, 'You're a newspaper

editor. What makes you think you can write?' another chided me, 'A journalist shouldn't write fiction (italics in original)".

The narrator's preference for writing fiction is a cogent indication of authorial presence in the novel. In the previous excerpt, the narrator talks about his novel and how he intends to complete it. This is an obvious feature of textual self-reflexivity which is a "process by which texts, both literary and filmic, foreground their own production, their authorship, their intertextual influences, their reception, or their enunciation" (Stam, 1985). The narrator's introduction of the novel embodies Wagle's use of narrative intertextuality. The intertextual peculiarity of fictional works indicates that the text's segments and excerpts are coherent and correspond to each other to carry out the author's intended meaning (Funk, 2015). For example, the narrator accentuates the viability of his novel in dealing with the war status quo. Notwithstanding this, he suffers from what he calls a conspiracy against his fiction. In this way, he exposes the engendered Nepalese individuality. He complains about the current events in his country. Metafictional self-reflexivity emerges when he talks about the protagonist in his novel. The novel's fictional world and the Civil War are a combination of both fact and fiction: "even event in my country seemed to be conspiring against my novel. A series of shocking incidents had occurred at breathtaking speed in the lives of my countrymen and in the life of my protagonist. The line between fact and fiction is blurring".

The narrator continuously remarks on the fabrication of his novel. The authorial comments on the narrative artifact are "a deliberate meta-narrative celebration of the act of narration"(Fludernik, 2003). The narrator further describes the inspiration that prompted the writing of this novel. He asserts that Drishya is the motivation behind the writing of this novel. The novel itself is a "portrait" of the Nepalese individual's wartime suffering. Intrinsically, Drishya is the fictional incarnation of that individuality: "the novel was a portrait of his world. It was the music of his experience and his imagination. A painter, he was my novel's only rightful critic. He was the one who'd inspired me to write it in the first place". Accordingly, the use of symbolic depiction of the Nepalese Civil War is transformed through allegory.

WAR ALLEGORY AS SYMBOLIC METAPHOR OF NEPALESE POLITICAL CHAOS

The use of allegory is deemed an indirect manner by which the author expresses some ideological judgments. In *Palpasa Café*, Wagle gives an allegorical account of the Civil War. One of the tragic outcomes of war was the murder of Nepal's king and queen. This event triggers the imagination of the narrator to mourn the present situation. The murder of the monarchs left a national void which brought on much tumult. Subsequently, he begins to mull over the possibility of an end to this crisis: "The King and Queen had been murdered. The helicopter I'd heard was carrying the Prince,

who'd survived, back to Kathamandu. This much I learned from the crowd. How did the murder take place? When? Who did it? Why? So many questions remained unanswered".

The sudden and tragic end of the monarchy makes it a metaphor for a very unstable Nepal on the brink of chaos and destruction. Wagle critically expresses his perception through an allegorical elucidation. Allegory provides a practical means of symbolic writing as a "way in which a community structures a formative text, then, can expose not only the form of inquiry, but the institutional character of the interpretive community itself" (Whitman, 2003). Here, the instrumental validity of allegory can be handled by metafictional "ultimate and extreme representation of self-conscious fiction" (Rivkin & Ryan, 1998). The typical figuration of allegory with metafiction constitutes a regular narrative potential; whereby "the author distances himself from this common language, he steps back and objectifies it, forcing his own intentions to refract and diffuse themselves through the medium of this common view that has become embodied in language".

In *Palpasa Café*, the dimensional personification of allegorical objectivity disseminates the common turmoil in the course of the plot. The narrator describes one of his saunters in the streets. He is surprised by a noisy outburst between the police and people. He is flustered by this turbulence wherein people suffered persecution at the hands of the police. The narrator himself experiences violence when he is hit during a demonstration:

It was a cool evening for early June. Evading a police patrol, I entered a narrow alley. Here and there, people were pelting stones at the police. Riot troops were out in force. Some people were arrested. Some were beaten. The police fired over the heads of the crowd but people still refused to clear the streets. I heard the sirens of police vans but couldn't make out which way they were heading. Ambulances roared through the streets. A brick thrown at one of the police officers hit me in the back. I couched in the doorway of a shop with closed shutters. When a police van sped past, I pretended to be passed out, drunk.

This comprehensive picture offers an integrated impression about the sufferings of Nepalese individuals. The narrator exemplifies the sole Nepalese individual in terms of personal experiences. He directly confronts the outgoing violence. Yet when he tries to escape adverse situations, he ends up conceding to its inevitable consequences. He eventually surrenders to the inimical state of affairs. The narrator's agitated state typifies the author's vision and encompasses the allegorical arrangement of fictional events. By the same token, fictional pieces and real experiences entangle; an "interpretation meant always finding new ways of saying the same thing" (Brittan, 2003). The author's vision is inextricably linked to the fictional events he creates. From an allegorical prospect, the author embeds crucial symbolical hints in the text to express his ideology; only then, "should we ask whether they necessarily carry a further, allegorical meaning".

The author's allegorical meaning appears most obviously in *Palpasa Café*. Wagle is obsessed with the Nepalese Civil War. His obsession leads him to establish a self-reflexive story comprising both his critical ideology and national concerns. In so doing, "the totalizing symmetry of the substitutive pattern is thrown out of balance: instead of merging into a higher, general Self, two selves remain confronted in a paralyzing inequality" (De Man, 1979). The equivalent symmetry in the novel involves both the fictional narrator and the abstract authorial critique. Furthermore, through allegory, "the categories that are thus being challenged are precisely those of self and other, the ground of the system. If these polarities have only beenposited in order to eliminate their opposition, then the failure of the synthesis, the persistence of their antagonism, reveals the fallacy of their position".

The narrator's story is punctuated with authorial comments. As argued previously, metafictional writings allow the author to intervene into his linear narrative. In his definitions of metafiction, in *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Literary Terms*, Baldick (1990) discussed the self-referential nature of metafictional texts. According to Baldick, the "self-conscious" fictional text focuses on the relationship between the text and the reader: "the term is normally used for works that involve a significant degree of self-consciousness about themselves as fictions, in ways that go beyond occasional apologetic address to the reader".Baldick also connects the study of metafiction with

the allegorical contrivance through "fiction about fiction, or more especially, a kind of fictional that openly comments on its own fictional status".

Metafiction and allegory correlate with each other on the textual scale. For example, when the narrator starts writing his story at the beginning of *Palpasa Café*, he affords a straightforward plan of his story. The story's content would tackle the tumultuous disorder in Nepal. He highlights his beginning by introducing lines in italics as a fitting prelude to his novel: "what timing! I picked up a napkin to jot down the story: '*A patrol of the unified command lost contact with district headquarters after being ambushed by Maoists this morning about eight kilometers to the east*….' (italics in original)". Hitherto, metafiction unravels the allegorical references made by the author.

In *Metaphor in Psychotherapy: Clinical Applications of Stories and Allegories*, Close (1998) asserted that allegory connected "stories which address specific different part of the psyche". In like manner, allegorical "stories came easily, perhaps because they involved memories of people". Such stories comprise a metaphorical topology of "several dichotomies". Unmediated dichotomy presence percolates through an "interplay between polarities, the balance between one mode of functioning and another: the heart and the mind; the realistic and the worthwhile; the directions and energy". As a matter of fact, allegory reconciles opposite perceptions of reality in "story fabrics". Similarly, Wagle makes

deliberate use of allegorical nuances in *Palpasa Café* by depicting the Civil War using metafictional topology. On the subject of topology, allegory yields a metaphorical sketch of reality. For example, the narrator wants to dedicate his novel and other works to his beloved Palpasa: "I'd just started a series of works dedicated to Palpasa's memory".

Reconciliation of opposite situations extends to metaphorical meanings interpolated within "allegorical fragments" (De Man, 1979). Notwithstanding this, "sensation" plays a crucial role in discerning the extent to which metaphor is used; and also "can reconcile night and day in a *chiaroscuro* that is entirely convincing". In this regard, allegory initiates implicit statements through passages which "play for higher stakes". Connecting allegory to textual reconciliation "breeds in the passage on reading that has to attempt the reconciliation between imagination and action and to resolve the ethical conflict that exists between them". Allegory, above all, allows metafictional comments to intercept with "metaphorical performances".

In *Palpasa Café*, the tragic consequences of war inflict painful memories. People experience hopeless and upsetting situations. Being one of those people, the narrator talks about his fans who want to support him. But he suffers the consequences of war and could not fulfill his aspirations. This experience is introduced into the novel via subjective comments in a metafictional manner. In the following example, he describes one of his fan's disturbing calls at night. The man's actions provide a token of metaphorical intervention within the novel's symbolical representation of the Civil War: "'That's not all!' he was getting really worked up. 'I get so many phone calls. Some people call at midnight to say 'I love you'. I even got a letter written in blood! It scares me that some of my fans say they'd be willing to die for me. That's part of the reason I want to leave'".

Whitman (2003), in *Interpretation and Allegory: Antiquity to the Modern Period*, contended that "acts of interpretive allegory are transactions between fluctuating critical communities and formative texts. While these transactions regularly draw upon shared interpretive methods, they are situated in times and places, marked by tensions and polemics that are specific to each historical community and its developing canon". Whitman ascribed the use of allegory to "fluctuate" or changing mode of textual dramatisation of real life in "provisional figures". Allegory, moreover, fulfills an imaginative augmentation through "conditions under which it has developed".

Wagle construes the apparent utilisation of imaginative allegory in *Palpasa Café*. For example, the narrator finds peace following some turbulent events in the country, when he states that "peace returned to my gallery once more". The narrator's predilection for stability has yet to be obtained. The whole political agitation prevents him from pursuing his objectives. Consequently, he is simply contented to be an onlooker to the unravelling drama, from a distance:

"I looked out the window and saw the crowd of young men still milling around in front of the man power agency. If I went down, I'd be sure to meet someone who'd ask me if I could give him work or get him a job by pulling some stings. Coming to the gallery today, I'd talked to a young man who said, 'I've just filled out the application form to go abroad. I sold all my land to do it.'"

The narrator finds solace in his art. He conveys his feelings through harmonic description. In the same way, the use of allegorical implications formulates an "oscillation in allegory between being a hegemonic or recuperative dogma and a mode conveying the emblematic complexity of juxtaposed scenarios and discourses fulfills an important but under examined function in aesthetic projects that narrativize identities" (Sugg, 2008).In addition, because allegory is often considered a "reductive" and even "regressive" narrative mode, it is particularly interesting to note "its growing role in cultural production, especially in minority expression". Civil War allegory, in this regard, manifests properly through the narrator's revelation of devastating political changes (Abu Jweid, 2016).

THE SEARCH FOR STABILITY DURING WAR: THE BINARY FACTS OF ALLEGORICAL PARADOX

The allegorical depiction of the Nepalese Civil War appropriates within paradoxical insights. Paradox suits the allegorical representations in fictional works since the "understanding of allegory as paradoxical and affecting consciousness in new ways runs counter to its reputation as a "dogmatic" mode of representation that is often "aligned easily with reactionary rhetoric or ideological hegemony" (Stevenson, 1984). Furthermore, paradoxical consciousness provides substantial discerning of particular modes of consciousness" in literary works (Danvers, 2006).

More importantly, the use of paradoxical allegory circulates "the change to which paradox pointed was both spiritual and intellectual" (Godman, 2009). Such spiritual and intellectual aspects of allegorical paradox juxtapose with crafty fictional "images" to create the impression of a refined and rigorous conscience which "involves examining apparently contradictory statements and drawing conclusions either to reconcile them or to explain their presence" (Alcocer, 2005).

Paradox, by definition, is a "contradiction that somehow proves fitting or true" (Mikics, 2007). At the surface meaning, paradox is self-contradictory and impossible, but it is logically true in its indirect meaning. Intellectual and spiritual dimensions of allegorical paradox appear in the romantic remembrance of Palpasa in *Palpasa Café*. The narrator keeps remembering his beloved amidst the political upheaval: "I continued working, paying no attention to her. I was, trying to paint a *tika* on Palpasa's forehead but it looked crooked. I could change a line in my painting by covering it with colour but sometimes that made the paint too dense (italics in original)". In addition, Palpasa is remembered more for her virtual attributes which the narrator immortalizes in his art:

"she pointed but I didn't bother to turn round. I already knew which painting she wanted. It was one called *Palpasa Café*. Café-gallery-resort with internet facilities. I'd decided that each room in the resort would be a gallery in itself. I'd hang my art in these galleries. I wanted my guests to feel they were living in a gallery".

Here, allegorical paradox culminates in a contradiction when the narrator searches for stability in an unstable milieu. Similarly, paradox is about "impression conveyed in everyday uses of the term 'moment' which is of something ephemeral, fleeting and elusive – however poignant or potent it might also happen to be" (Collits, 2005). Additionally, the impressive "effects of paradox [represents] the evaluative question of their relative stature" (Ahmad, 2000). In *Palpasa Café*, Wagle conceptualizes the "everyday" Nepalese life and how it affects them. Yet, the narrator still clings to his imaginary stable and serene life which is an obvious contradiction to the devastating war: "I was going to build two types of rooms: studios and the suites". The use of secluded "clichés" in literary works encompasses "connotations became extremely negative" (Ahmad, 1992).

In *Palpasa Café*, the conspicuous dramatic abruptness is discernable in the narrator's dreamy life. He constantly connects his life to the foreigners who come and visit his art gallery: "I like explaining art to Nepalis more than to foreigners. It's even more satisfying if they're young. Foreigners visiting art galleries already have set tastes

and the ability to appreciate art, but very few Nepalis do that. Very few Nepalis visit art galleries for a start".

Burnd (2004) asserted that in metafiction "categorical fragments could be mingled with paradoxical connotations within fictional mimesis". The most productive means of metafictional insights result in "moderation of materialist polarisation of extra-meanings in the text" (Swirski, 2007). Accordingly, the latent meaning of metafictional texts "could be inferred in relation to allegorical paradoxes". Metafictional texts foreground "a multi-relational and a reciprocally illuminating relationship. And it would be another humbling reminder that the interpretative process knows no closure" (Aldama, 2011).

Multi-relational metafictional "fragments" appear in *Palpasa Café* as a postscript. The story of Drishya comes back: "Drishya disappeared long ago. Tired of vainly searching for him, I've completed this novel based on whatever information I've been able to piece together. I haven't been able to stick to the traditional style of most novels since this is the story of a man's life". In essence, the essential token of metafictional fragments is the authorial comments on completing his novel and annexing it to Drishya's presence in the narrative fabric: "after completing my novel, I went to spend the evening at a restaurant in Thamel". Very explicitly, Wagle concludes *Palpasa Café* with a direct metafictional description of the novel which he intends to publish: "and I handed her the manuscript,

printed on A4 paper. She took it, and looked at it, incredulous. On the first sheet inside the transparent plastic cover was written in big bold letters – PALPASA CAFÉ (capitals in original)".

CONCLUSION

This study has examined the portrayal of the Nepalese Civil War. It has focused on the tragic consequences of the war upon the Nepalese individuals' psyche. The main rationale for the study has been the human relations in Wagle's *Palpasa Café,* relations that range from romantic to humane reciprocal affairs. The core conceptual methodology has been the use of metafictional elements in the novel and how they harmonise with allegorical and paradoxical depiction of such affairs.

The discussion of authorial self-reflexivity distinguishes Nepal "as a culture, we are enamored of freedom, self-determination, and variety, and we are reluctant to give up any of our options" (Schwartz, 2004). Most significantly, authorial self-reflexivity reveals the latent authorial nuances and relative perspective on the Civil War and its catastrophic consequences on the Nepalese people. . Correspondingly, the discussion has exposed the authorial intervention within the narrative structure which accentuates his viewpoint on the ongoing events.

The analysis of the narrator's psyche is studied in relation to "individual creativity which can only be measured by the presence of norms, whose task it is to discipline subjectivity, to enable it to communicate both with others and with options untaken within its own self" (Nielsen, 2002). Thus, a great deal of emphasis is placed on the allegorical depiction of the Nepalese Civil War and the paradoxical discrepancy between the turbulent homeland and the narrator's predilection to seclusion and serenity.

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Review Article

Problem-Based Learning in Action: Review of Empirical Studies

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ABSTRACT

Problem-based learning (PBL) is an innovative approach to language learning. Its effectiveness has been the subject of empirical studies in English as a foreign language and second language contexts such as Malaysia, Taiwan, Singapore, Pakistan, Iran, and Nigeria. Although the results have been promising, research in this area is still very scant. This paper examines studies that have been done on PBL with the aim of ascertaining what has been achieved and what areas warrant further research. The researchers conducted an online search using scientific databases to identify studies that had dealt with problem-based language learning. They found that most studies focused on the effect of PBL on the productive skills of speaking and writing, and were conducted mainly using quantitative and experimental approaches. They suggested that more studies could be done using qualitative approaches that examined the processes involved, as well as studies on PBL assessment.

Keywords: Cognitive thinking, English as a foreign language (EFL), English as the second Language (ESL), higher order thinking skill, language learning, problem-based learning (PBL)

INTRODUCTION

Trends in language teaching and learning have undergone so much development in recent years that they heralded a new era in language education termed the "post-method era" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). The traditional three-dimensional approach to learning in which learners, teachers, and learning materials formed 3 angles of the education triangle is no longer an accepted paradigm in education (Tan, 2004). Indeed, new approaches to education have de-emphasized the teacher's role, from being "a sage on the stage" to a role with less authority in the class. On the other hand, learners' pivotal role in education has been further emphasized by

attempting to get them involved in their own learning process, listening to their voice and using approaches that involved the use of their cognitive and metacognitive skills (Ansarian, Adlipour, Saber, & Shafiei, 2016; Savery, 2006). Banning (2005) called this new trend a movement from didacticism to constructivism. Simply put, the lecture-based approach to teaching and learning has been challenged by more cognitive approaches to learning (Hmelo-Silver, 2004).

In congruence with this shift in education, new philosophical paradigms challenged the traditional definition of reality. The positivist approach to observable reality was challenged by social constructivists who preferred the approach through which reality is formed in the mind of learners (Creswell & Poth, 2017). Not only did this issue pave the way for constructivist approaches to learning to emerge, but it also began to solve problems with traditional and didactic forms of education.

One of the constructivist approaches which has held well against lecture-based education is problem-based learning (PBL) (Lee & Kwan, 2014). PBL is an innovative, student-centered, self-directed approach to learning in which learners are asked to solve real-life problems in order to encourage learning (Shin & Azman, 2014). Among the main characteristics of PBL are; leaners taking an active role in learning, diminished role of teachers to facilitators (tutors), involvement of cognitive and metacognitive skills, scaffolding through peer feedback and various team dynamics in PBL groups,

and later, well- structured and defined PBL processes. Empirical evidence so far has proven that the approach is promising (Hmelo-Silver, 2004; Hung, 2006; Savery, 2006; Savery & Duffy, 1995).

PBL's success in medical education in North America in 1970s and its subsequent adoption by other medical schools in other countries paved the way for this approach to enter other disciplines such as engineering, geography, nursing and mathematics (Larsson, 2001). At the same time, not only was PBL used at postgraduate level, but also it was used at undergraduate level (Biggs, 1987). However, it took PBL some time to enter language education.

The inception of PBL in language classes dates back to less than two decades ago. At the beginning, educators were skeptical about the effectiveness of this new form of tutorship (Ansarian et al., 2016). The main problem with PBL in language classes, as stated by Larsson (2001), was the simultaneous use of language as learning target and learning tool. Simply put, the answer to the question of whether language can be used to learn language was uncertain. Another problem with implementing PBL in language classes was its open structure. PBL, similar to other inquiry-based approaches to learning, does not assume one correct answer to learning problems. As long as an answer can be used to solve the learning problem, it should be accepted by the tutor. Educators have used main characteristics of PBL and designed their own PBL tutorship models. Some of them, it was found, have misunderstood the concept of PBL and

misapplied it (Maudsley, 1999). The main problems with these studies are improper problem-presentation, not following rules of higher order thinking, excessive aid by tutors and ignoring delicacies of learning language through PBL (Ansarian et al., 2016; Lantolf & Poehner, 2004; Larsson, 2001).

In addition, a need for a new approach to language education is being felt. Against widespread use of recent language teaching methods such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), these methods have failed to successfully grow independent learners. for example, Koosha and Yakhabi (2013) who study language teaching methods in Iran state that CLT is the dominant approach used in Iran; yet not very successful, as the learners suffer from a number of issues such as lack of practice time and lack of autonomy. Other scholars (e.g., Griffiths & Oxford, 2014; O'malley and Chamot, 1990) who have elaborated on the issue of language learning strategies have emphasized the role of cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies which get learners' involved in the learning process. Despite the already discussed significance of these strategies in the literature, many language teachers in various parts fail to provoke the use of these strategies by the learners (Oxford, 1994; Rivers, 2001).

In view of the issues stated, this paper reviews previous attempts to implement PBL in language classes to guide future tutors and researchers. Understanding approaches to implementing PBL in language classes can help reduce problems with misapplication of PBL.

What is PBL?

One of the main questions confronting educators is how successful education has been in terms of its practicality in real life. The problem with many traditional approaches to learning was that students' performance was below their achievement scores in the final exam (Lee & Kwan, 1997). There is thus a need for an approach that deals with education in real life. As a result, PBL was introduced to education.

PBL tutorship utilizes real-life learning problems as its main learning objectives (Barron, Lambert, Conlon, & Harrington, 2008; Cooper & Carver, 2012). Students are exposed to an ill-structured real-life problem to solve (Schmidt, 2012). Ill-structured problems are preferred over well-structured problems, as they can represent unsystematic problems people encounter in their day-to-day life. The problems can be presented to the learners in a variety of forms such as dilemmas, designed problems, policy analysis problems, and strategic performance problems. One of the most used forms in classes is story telling (Jonassen, 2000). Here, leaners attempt to decode the problem and search for ideas to solve the problem. Later they discuss their ideas with group members and create a map to solve the problem (Hung, 2006). The results are applied to the problem situation and their effectiveness is observed (Hmelo-Silver, 2004). The classes are also replete with peer feedback and tutor guidance (usually after students have found the answer). An example of ill-structured problem is challenging the learners to buy or adopt a

pet. In this example, the learners are asked to consider this issue as a real-life problem and attempt to take necessary steps to bring the right pet home. They should create conversations that may occur in such an occasion. Through these conversations, they can elicit information from friends, pet shop sellers, or even from family members. These conversations are finally performed in front of the class and learners receive feedback on the quality of their conversations in terms of linguistic and non-linguistic features of the conversation.

Indeed, PBL is based on two major theories in education, i.e. higher order thinking skill and zone of proximal development (ZPD). Contrary to traditional approaches to learning, higher order thinking theory accords focus to cognitive thinking through evaluation of the problem, analysis, synthesis, application, and knowledge. In the first step of the process, the learners should be exposed to a real-life ill-structured problem which is based on an imaginary problem. This allows the learners to evaluate the problem and attempt to understand the underlying construct which is being discussed. Next, the learners analyze the problem. Through analysis they should think about the problem, its consequence and possible solutions. They can make a list of possible solutions or significant aspects of the problem. Next they attempt to create the situation in which the problem can be solved. In terms of language classes, they attempt to create a conversation (synthesis) and solve the problem. They should then use their findings and receive feedback to find out how successful they have been. In language classes, for example, they can present their conversation to the class and receive feedback from other peers and the teacher. This eventually results in creation of knowledge. Although the model has been challenged due to its linearity (Anderson et al., 2001), it has survived the criticisms and is being used as an innovative approach to learning. Higher order thinking also has proponents (e.g., Boud & Feletti, 1997; Hmelo-Silver, 2004; Savery, 2006) who advocate its use in education.

ZPD was suggested by Vygotsky (1987, as cited in Chaiklin, 2003). The theory emphasizes that learning without external help is partial and incomplete, therefore, successful learning depends on one's ability to enter other zones of learning (the aided zone). Many class activities such as group work, team work, feedback sessions and many approaches to learning such as problem-based and project-based learning are based on this approach. As explained above, as learners are directed through higher order thinking skills in PBL classes, they are asked to represent their results to the class. This allows other members of the class and the teacher to aid the learners by providing them with feedback. Thus, PBL uses ZPD to enhance learning and understanding among the learners.

Moreover, it should be mentioned that PBL is different from conventional language teaching methods which are being used in language classes. For example, although both PBL and CLT are considered to be meaningful approaches to learning L2,

they are different from many perspectives. Firstly, the inception of a PBL process is by presentation of an ill-structured problem. Secondly, the role of teachers in PBL is diminished to a 'tutor' who guides learners rather than teaching content. In PBL classes, learners are expected to have more autonomy, as the teacher does not teach. Indeed, learners should form learning hypotheses and delve into the answer of their questions (Hung, 2006).

The Research Study Compilation Method

In order to find studies that dealt with PBL in language classes, we searched scientific databases (Springer, SCOPUS, Science Direct, Taylor and Francis, and Sage Journals) which published articles on education and language learning. The main keywords used in this search were "problem-based learning", " PBL and language learning", "inquiry-based language learning", "cognition and metacognition in language learning". We also traced article citations in order to find other papers dealing with problem-based language learning. As there is no specific journal dealing with problem-based language learning, finding articles dealing with this issue was cumbersome. In addition, research on problem-based language learning is quite scant. We found 29 articles dealing with this issue in ESL/EFL contexts such as Malaysia, Singapore, Taiwan, Thailand, Pakistan, Iran, and Nigeria which were published since 2001. Out of the articles, only those that were related to language education were

identified and presented in this study. We also found 2 books by Tan (2004), and Wee and Kek (2002) which dealt with the issue of problem-based learning; however, these books had not targeted language learning. In addition, we ignored empirical studies which had failed to represent the research information properly and attempted to select articles which were published by well-recognized publications.

We acknowledge that the articles presented in this paper might not represent all studies conducted with regard to problem-based language learning. Nevertheless, they provide a useful guide for researchers in the field and for future research.

Effect of PBL on Language

Generally, scholars (Abdullah, 1998, Larsson, 2001) are of the opinion that PBL can be effectively employed with the productive language skills of speaking and writing. Therefore not many researchers have delved into the effects of PBL on the receptive skills of listening and reading as compared to its effects on the speaking and writing skills.

Lin (2017) conducted a study to determine whether PBL tutorship delivered via a web-based English course had any effect on the reading comprehension of English language learners. In addition, the participants' perception of the tutorship was also gauged. The study compared the results of the pre-test and post-test on reading comprehension conducted on a PBL group and a non-PBL group that had been taught a reading course using two different

modes. A questionnaire that gauged learners' perception of tutorship of the PBL reading course was also administered at the end of the course. The results revealed that PBL has a positive effect on reading comprehension of language learners who underwent the PBL-based reading course. The participants' perceptions about the course using the PBL mode were positive and they asserted that they enjoyed their active role in learning that synthesized their cognitive processing. Lin not only investigated the effect of PBL on reading comprehension, but also examined the strategies used and active learning attitudes. In addition, the learning problems were well presented in the paper. The overall results showed the effectiveness of the approach. Lin drew this conclusion by calling for more studies into the use of the PBL approach in the fostering of reading skills. The researcher also presented a model for small group scaffolding in PBL process which was used in the study. Although the model represents a well-defined step-by-step procedure to implement PBL, it seems to have excluded some aspects of higher order thinking skills. The stages presented in the model are: 1) confronting the problem, 2) examining the problem, 3) re-examining the problem, 4) reviewing the problem, and 5) presenting the solution. While steps 1 to 4 refer to the first stage of Bloom's Taxonomy of higher order thinking model (Evaluation) and the last stage refers to another stage of the model (Application), little attention has been given to two other stages (Synthesis and Comprehension). Hung (2006) felt that

all stages of the higher order thinking model should be attended to in order to achieve effective results.

Aliyu (2017) examined the use of PBL in the development of metacognition and writing performance among Nigerian Undergraduates. In this PhD study, the researcher had two main objectives, to determine if PBL could enhance writing among Nigerian students and to examine how it affected participants' metacognition. Ill-structured problems in this study were formulated based on the criteria proposed by Gallagher and Gallagher (1994) and Candlin (1987). Using a convergent parallel design and an intact class of second-year university ESL learners, this study was conducted over a 12-week duration. The researcher administered a metacognitive thinking questionnaire adapted from Kim (2013) before and after the treatment and reported significant positive change in the participants' metacognitive knowledge. In addition, there was improvement in the participants' writing in terms of knowledge of content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics of writing. This study is among the first studies on PBL in the Nigerian context.

Fonseca-Martínez (2017) implemented PBL on basic-level language classes to find out whether it could increase participant's talking-time. The study was a reaction to behaviorist approaches to learning and a response to the need for meaning-focused learning. However, the researcher used TBLT interchangeably with PBL on the

mistaken notion that PBL and TBLT were similar forms of learning as she wrote, "problem-based learning for language learning, i.e. task-based language learning". Although the study concluded that PBL can positively affect language learners' talking-time it seems that the study has not used the higher order thinking model correctly. Again, ill structured problems were absent when they should have been included. This glaring weakness resulted in low cognitive engagement with learning content. It should be mentioned that PBL tutorship begins with presentation of an ill-structured problem; however, TBLT does not necessitate the use ill-structured problems.

Another study was conducted by Mohammadi (2017) who gauged the effects of PBL on vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL learners. The researcher had hypothesized that increasing the participants' cognitive and metacognitive engagement with the learning content through PBL may result in increased level of vocabulary learning. This experimental study made use of 47 participants who were homogenized into a control group and an experimental group out of 64 participants using NELSON language proficiency test. Through 10 sessions of treatment conventional vocabulary tasks were given to the control group participants and PBL vocabulary tasks were given to experimental group learners. The study revealed that PBL vocabulary tasks can have positive effects on both recall of vocabulary and retention of vocabulary. In the paper, the researcher has explained the process of implementing PBL vocabulary tasks,

and believed that language teachers should provoke the feeling of need in learners in the first place, so that they become more eager to learn.

Ansarian et al. (2016) conducted a study on the effect of PBL on speaking proficiency of Iranian EFL learners at both intermediate and advanced levels. The study was based on the constructivist theory, and Hmelo-Silver's (2004) PBL tutorship model was the main model used. A speaking test was administered as a homogeneity test, and a second speaking test as a pretest. After 30 sessions of treatment, a post-test was conducted and the data revealed that PBL could affect speaking proficiency of the learners at both levels, however, the intermediate level learners' speaking improved more than advanced learners. It should also be mentioned that the researchers had modified the learning materials as they believed that stapled language learning books result in low cognitive engagement with content. Another notable feature of the study is that it considered two different proficiency levels in PBL classes. Previous studies have not considered this issue as the general belief is that the implementation of PBL in low proficiency level classes is not feasible. Interestingly, this study revealed that intermediate level learners benefited more than advanced learners from the implementation of PBL in language classes. The authors believed that intermediate learners had enough autonomy to conduct online search and find the answers to their learning hypotheses.

In an innovative study, Beltran, Perez, and Yucely (2016) used PBL to teach values in EFL classes. The study had its focus on a different perspective of human education. i.e., values in society. A total of 20 fifth-grade language learners who took part in this study carried out language tasks related to vocabulary dealing with the lack of respect in society. Real life situations were presented to the participants and they were asked to find solutions to the problems. Besides practicing language, another aim of the study was to prepare the students to deal with situations where they face lack of respect. The results of the study revealed that such training can be useful for family members who have problem understanding each other and who disrespect other family members. At the same time, it also increases the learners' ability to communicate in the target language. In addition, the authors used the PBL model suggested by Bueno and Fitzgerald (2004) which considered PBL tutorship in eight stages but seemed to have ignored the significance of synthesis, and comprehension. The stages in the model are: 1) reading and analyzing the problem, 2) brain storming, 3) making a list of what is already known, 4) making a list of what is unknown, 5) making a list of what is necessary to solve a problem, 6) defining the problem, 7) getting information, and 8) presenting the results. It was found that the learners were more aware of the strategies they could use and this issue affected their language learning awareness.

In a Taiwanese study, Lin (2015) focused on the effect of PBL on elementary language learners with regard to vocabulary learning. Not only the experimental group participants' vocabulary knowledge was improved, but they could also produce longer essays after the intervention. The study also revealed that the implementation of PBL in language classes increased language learners' talk-time in the class. This study is one of the rare studies that dealt with PBL tutorship at the elementary level.

Shin and Azman's (2014) study aimed to gauge the effects of PBL on language learning in the English as the Second Language (ESL) context of Malaysia. The researchers designed and used ill-structured problems in this study. The results revealed that PBL could have positive effect on language learners. Since ill-structured problems were used, it was to determine learners' cognitive thinking ability prior to the treatment to ensure that the problems suit the cognitive thinking ability of the students. Although this study revealed that PBL could have significant positive effect on learning English as L2, focus had not been accorded to any particular language skill in the study.

Sy, Adnan and Ardi (2013) attempted to examine how implementation of PBL could increase language learners' speaking skill with regard to describing places, people and things. This experimental study utilized 60 language learners who were divided into two groups, 30 in the experimental group and 30 in the control group. Grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, and fluency were the main components considered in this study. By comparing the results of the

post-tests, they found out that the difference between the participants in the control group and the experimental group was significant in terms of giving description. In congruence with this study, Ansarian et al. (2016) reported on the positive effect of PBL on speaking proficiency of the learners by considering the same rubrics based on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). Abdullah (1998) had also noted that PBL could have significant effect on communicative skills.

Other researchers such as Othman and Shah (2013) conducted an in-depth investigation of PBL and language learning. They targeted the effects of PBL on course content and language development and employed an experimental research design with 128 participants. Although no obvious difference was observed with regard to the effect of PBL on course content (as both groups showed progress), PBL had significant effect on experimental group learners' language development.

Having realized that PBL is a challenging procedure for the learners, elsewhere Othman et al. (2016) studied these challenges. Using an open-ended survey, they analyzed qualitatively the responses of 30 respondents to the survey. They concluded that learners generally assumed that PBL is costly. They also found it very time-consuming.

Coffin (2013) believed that the answer to the question of whether PBL could be used in writing classes is ambivalent. Therefore, she conducted a study with 166 EFL language learners in a Thai University. She investigated the participants and teachers' perceptions regarding the use of PBL in writing classes. Comparing the results of the pre and post surveys, the study revealed that the participants believed that PBL could be beneficial in terms of self-directed learning, critical thinking, communicative skill, and collaborative skills. The researcher also triangulated the data collected from teachers' survey, interviews and final scores and concluded that PBL had positive impact on learners' writing. One of the novel aspects of the study is that the researcher used both qualitative and quantitative data. Another is that the researcher considered the local culture (Thai culture) as one of the main variables considered in this study. Other researchers like Aliyu (2017) and Ansarian (2015) who also examined PBL and writing skill had concluded that PBL could impact it positively.

Elizabeth and Zulida (2012) implemented PBL in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in Malaysia. Their study used semiotic approach with a focus on co-construction of meaning in a social context. The researchers observed and video recorded 12 weeks of an ESP course that implemented PBL. They also conducted unstructured interviews with lecturers and learners and collected field notes and journals from the participants. The results of data analysis through triangulation revealed that PBL had linguistic and affective benefits for the participants. Communication was stimulated in PBL classes and classes were are replete with discussions. Learners became more cooperative and gained confidence in

learning. The researchers made use of Torp and Sage (2002) concept as the framework for their study. Although details of the method of implementing PBL were not given in the paper, the study provided a more in-depth look at PBL tutorship as the sessions were video recorded. The study could also be considered innovative as it looked at PBL in ESP courses.

Huang and San (2012) incorporated PBL in an English language class with university freshmen. The focus of this qualitative study was on participants' perception, satisfaction and motivation. Interview questions were adopted from Marcangelo and Gibbon's (2009). The results of the interviews with 42 freshmen revealed that the participants perceived PBL as an effective approach to language learning. Most of the students disclosed that they felt more independent in their language learning. The participants' response to questions regarding motivation was indeterminate as they had mixed feelings. However, the majority of them asserted that they had gained self-confidence. Participants' interest in language learning also increased as they developed their language learning skills. The findings in this study are in line with Jin and Bridges (2016) who conducted a qualitative meta-analysis on PBL. They concluded that not all learners perceive PBL as a motivator to learn in medical education. And, a number of studies (e.g., Aliyu, 2017; Hmelo-Silver, 2004; Savery, 2006) acknowledged that PBL results in more independence in learning.

Boothe, Vaughn, Hill and Hill (2011) believed that a feature of PBL, being based on real life, is very beneficial in language classes. They focused on the issue of PBL in language classes and discussed its benefits and challenges. The main benefits of PBL, as identified by the authors are: 1) construction of useful knowledge, 2) effective collaboration of the learners, 3) meaningful and authentic interactions, 4) focus on communicative and argumentative skills, and 5) becoming skillful language users. The main challenges are: 1) use of first language within the groups, 2) not being appropriate for very basic learners, 3) difficulty in designing authentic tasks, and 4) lack of resources for the educators.

Hussain, Nafees and Jumani (2009) examined the effect of PBL in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context of Pakistan. Using an experimental study (pretest/posttest), they designed ill-structured problems (case-based PBL) and compared the effect of PBL instruction to traditional lecture-based instruction. The researchers focused on the achievement of the learners (n=67) and found that PBL could significantly affect their language achievement. They also concluded that the learners had developed cognitive learning skills such as analysis and evaluation. The study, however, provided very little information about the main approach to implementing PBL, and more importantly, the approach to assessing the problem-based performance of the learners.

Abdullah and Tan (2008) focused on the effect of PBL on the learning of linguistic features of the language. They developed asynchronous online conferencing forums

and attempted to increase learners' cognitive engagement with learning content. This study proved that PBL had effect on both linguistic features and affective factors of the learners. The concluded that PBL could increase self-directed learning among learners.

In Singapore, Tan (2004) focused on the features of PBL tutorship and attempted to investigate how familiar the learners were with three main components of PBL, the ill-structured problem presented to them, facilitation process and problem-solving process. The researcher made use of survey questionnaire, case vignettes and interviews and found that although PBL was a significant approach with high possibility of positive impact, misapplication of PBL, especially at the problem creation level, could lead the whole study astray.

In a paper discussing implementation of PBL in language classes Hearn and Hopper (2008) introduced strategies for implementing PBL. The authors believed that PBL could be a gate to authentic language learning (if implemented correctly). They discussed the difference between PBL and TBLT and elaborated on how ill-structured problems could be presented to the learners. They believed that the concepts presented through ill-structured problems should enhance systematic inquiry and be modified based on the language learners' proficiency level. As they believed that the most beneficial component of PBL in language classes was group discussion. They came up with a table for enhancing group discussion within PBL groups.

Ab Rashid, et al. (2016) studied the use of PBL in language teacher training program in Singapore. The study lasted for 8 weeks (20 sessions). After the study, the participants were interviewed. The participants acknowledged that through PBL they could increase their level of critical thinking, and they became independent learners. They also believed that PBL could contribute to the development of four language skills.

This section has discussed the studies conducted on the use of PBL in language classes in an ESL/EFL context. A summary of these studies is presented in Table 1.

As Table 1 shows, a number of studies have been conducted with regard to PBL and language learning. These studies were conducted in various EFL/ESL contexts though most of them were conducted in the East Asian context. Both qualitative, and quantitative analyses were used to study the use of PBL in language classes. Among favorite sources based on which ill-structured problems were designed were Gallagher and Gallagher (1994), Candlin (1987), and Hmelo-Silver (2004). Although many studies have only focused on language learners, some studies (i.e., Coffin, 2013; Shin & Azman, 2014) also focused on language tutors in PBL classes. Moreover, observation field notes, video recording, interviews and survey questionnaires were among the most frequently used instruments for qualitative data collection by the researchers. On the other hand, quantitative data was mostly collected through tests (usually researcher-made). It

Table 1
Summary of studies on PBL

N	Author and Date	Main Theme	Sample Size and Location	Instruments	Research Design	Main Findings
1.	Lin (2017)	Reading Comprehension through a web-based English course	60/ Taiwan	Reading test, Instructional questionnaire	Mixed-Mode	PBL has effect on reading comprehension of language learners. The participants enjoyed their active role in learning and PBL synthesized their cognitive processing.
2.	Aliyu (2017)	Writing and metacognition	18/ Nigeria	PBL questionnaire adopted from Tan (2004) metacognitive questionnaire (Kim, 2013), Writing samples, Audio-video recording, Semi-structured interview, Reflective journal	Mixed-mode	PBL has positive effect on writing and metacognition of ESL learners in Nigeria.
3.	Fonseca-Martínez (2017)	PBL in basic-level language classes and its effect on talking time.	47/ Peru	Systematic observation form Lessons' video-recordings , Lesson transcripts	Independent Group Design (Control vs. Experimental)	PBL can positively affect language learners' talking-time
4.	Mohammadi (2017)		60/Iran	vocabulary pretest and posttest	experimental	PBL can positively affect recall and retention of vocabulary.
5.	Ansarian, et al. (2016)	Speaking Proficiency	95/Iran	IELTS speaking test	Quasi-Experimental	PBL has positive effect on speaking proficiency of both intermediate and advanced language learners.
6.	Bejarano, et al. (2016)	Used PBL to teach Social Values (disrespect) and effect of PBL on Vocabulary learning	20/ Colombia	Observation field notes, Students' artifacts	Mixed-Mode	PBL has positive effect on learning how to deal with disrespect and also enhanced English vocabulary

Table 1 *(continue)*

N	Author and Date	Main Theme	Sample Size and Location	Instruments	Research Design	Main Findings
7.	Lin (2015)	The effect of PBL on vocabulary learning	28/ Taiwan	Pre- and post-tests on vocabulary knowledge, Topic-based composition, Self-report	Experimental	Participants' vocabulary knowledge was improved. In addition, they could produce longer essays after the study.
8.	Shin and Azman (2014)	The effect of PBL on language learning	32 students/ 2 teachers/ Malaysia	Interview, Speaking test	Experimental	PBL can positively affect language learning.
9.	Sy, et al. (2013)	The effect of PBL on language learners' speaking skills with regard to describing places, people and things.	49/ place not mentioned	Speaking test	Experimental	PBL increases learners' ability to describe people, places and things.
10.	Othman and Shah (2013)	The effect of PBL on course content and language development	128/ Malaysia	Pre-writing test Post-writing test	Experimental	PBL does not have any effect on course content but can facilitate language development procedure
11.	Othman, et al. (2016)	Challenges of learning through PBL	30/Malaysia	Open-ended survey, Video recording	Qualitative	PBL is costly and time consuming for the learners.
12	Ab Rashid et al. (206)	Language Teacher Training Through PBL	Singapore	Interview	Qualitative	PBL could increase their level of critical thinking, and they became independent learners. They also believed that PBL can contribute to the development of 4 language skills.
13.	Coffin (2013)	The effect of PBL on writing	182students/ 3 teachers/ Thailand	Pre and post survey	Mixed-mode Triangulation of interview results, survey results and writing test	PBL is beneficial in terms of self-directed learning, critical thinking, communicative skills, and collaborative skills

Table 1 *(continue)*

N	Author and Date	Main Theme	Sample Size and Location	Instruments	Research Design	Main Findings
14.	Elizabeth and Zulida (2012)	The use of PBL in ESP courses	25/ Malaysia	Video recording, Unstructured interviews, Field note, Reflective journal	Qualitative through field note, interview, and video recording.	PBL has linguistic and affective benefits for participants
15.	Huang and San (2012)	The effects of PBL on participants' perception, satisfaction and motivation.	42 / Taiwan	TOEIC diagnostic reading tests, Interview	Qualitative/ interview	PBL has positive effects on learners' perception and satisfaction; however, not all learners agreed that it affects their motivation.
16.	Hussain, et al. (2009)	The effect of PBL on language achievement	67/ Pakistan	Researcher-made pretest and posttest	Quantitative/ experimental	PBL has positive effect on language achievement of university language learners at postgraduate level.
17.	Abdullah and Tan (2008)	The effect of PBL on learning linguistic features of the language.	19 groups/ Malaysia	Asynchronous text	Quasi experimental/ data obtained from asynchronous online conferencing forums)	PBL has effect on both linguistic features and affective factors of the learners
18.	Tan (2004)	Familiarity of learners with ill-structured problem, facilitation process and problem-solving process	100 students/ Singapore	Questionnaire	Qualitative/ survey questionnaire, case vignettes and interviews	PBL is a significant approach with high possibility of positive impact but misapplication of PBL, at the problem creation level can jeopardize the whole study.

was also found that scant research had been conducted with regard to PBL assessment. Research on PBL assessment is significant, as PBL tutorship should be followed by PBL assessment.

Considering the findings of the studies, a number of justifications can be presented on why PBL affects language learning, i.e, 1) PBL increases the learners' practice time, 2) PBL creates a learning gap in the minds of the learners, 3) learning in PBL is meaningful, as the context of use is already presented to the learners through the ill-structured problem, and 4) unlike conventional learning materials which usually provide the language learners with one conversation model, the conversations created in PBL language classes vary; thus, learners get acquainted with more approaches to discuss an issue.

CONCLUSION

Many of the studies that have been conducted with regard to implementation of PBL in language classes have reported promising results (e.g., Aliyu, 2017; Ansarian et al., 2016; Fonseca-Martínez, 2017; Hussain et al., 2009, Tan, 2004, etc.). It seems that PBL is a suitable approach to enhance communicative skills, specifically speaking and writing (Abdullah, 1998, Ansarian, et al., 2016). It has also been observed to have a positive effect on learning vocabulary (Lin, 2015), grammar, pronunciation and fluency (Sy et al., 2013). Qualitative studies that have been conducted with regard to PBL and language learning have also reported promising results with regard to

its impact on language learners' perception and learning interest (Huang & San, 2012).

Studies on PBL in language classes have mostly focused on productive language skills such as speaking and writing. Thus, research on other language skills such as the reading skill and the listening skill is very scant. Another issue is the lack of qualitative studies. Most studies have had their focused on quantifying the effect of PBL, whereas there are only a few studies that have focused on the learners' voice. This shortcoming in current research results in highlighting products and ignoring processes. Indeed, more insights are needed on the dynamics of learning process while language learners attempt to achieve independence and find answers to their own problems.

More research is also required with regards to problem presentation. The problems presented to the learners should match their cognitive level or they would be overwhelmed. Though this issue can determine the success or failure of PBL tutorship, it has been taken for granted in the field.

PBL requires problem-based assessment. However, little research has focused on assessment through PBL. Research on this issue is in no uncertain terms a significant milestone with regard to PBL in language classes.

Finally more research is required to find out how culture can be integrated in PBL classes. Learning culture is a sine qua non in language classes, however, as researchers mostly make use of PBL models designed for medical courses, the role of culture is often neglected.

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An Ideology of Crossing Nation: From Conflict to Emergence

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ABSTRACT

The present study deeply analyses the different perspectives of the immigrants towards their country of destination which results in the categorisation of immigrants as either diaspora or transnationals. It also explores the way in which diaspora and transnationalism begin to swerve in their paths; the immigrant's roots and routes are alike but their standpoints are unlike. The act of crossing nation is shared between the two but the different perspectives of the immigrant enable them to develop distinct ideologies which streams to assorted conclusions such as diaspora or transnationals. The channel of diaspora is brimmed with thorns and speed breakers like loneliness and estrangement, that dwindles the speed of the progressive status of the migrants to authorise their identity and they wander in-between the social spaces influenced by the host community and migrated society. Whereas, the boulevard of transnationalism is suffused with restricted speed breakers like nostalgia; it is a smooth lane filled with opportunities of being in more than one place simultaneously to the migrants and ends in acquiring the global identity by overcoming all the impediments in their lives. The objective of the present study is to identify the distinctions of the two concepts and analyse the different perspectives of the immigrants through the novels Zadie Smith's *White Teeth* and Colm Toibin's *Brooklyn* under the light of the conventional assimilation theory and assemblage theory.

Keywords: Diaspora, differences, immigrants, perspectives, transnationalism

INTRODUCTION

Migration is considered as one of the innate human natures from the time of human evolution. Humans started to migrate from one place to another for their survival and later for their betterment of life and to enhance their socio-economic status. Migration has taken finite transformations; along with it, the perspective of the

immigrants has also transmuted, because those migrated people exhibited certain characteristics on their non-native land. Migration is a "form of ethnic change, focusing on three boundary processes—boundary crossing, boundary blurring, and boundary shifting" (Tran, 2016). Based on the differences seen in the immigrants with the host society certain theories were formulated under the umbrella term immigration theories, such as Assimilation theory and Assemblage theory.

At present, in the age of globalisation, transcending nation has become a common factor which allows people to maintain multiple connections with numerous countries and defining their identity has become complicated; identity is blurred leading to identity crisis. Identity crisis is one of the most common issues that all immigrants encounter in their host state; some remain with identity crisis and some overcome the issues. When people remain with identity crisis they lose their relationship with the origin land, and they integrate partially with the migrated land, having their provenance only in their memories. This type of people is called as diasporic people. Michel Bruneau says that, "through migration, diaspora members have lost their material relationship to the territory of origin, but they still preserve their cultural or spiritual relationship through memory" (Baubock & Faist, 2010) When people overcome the crisis by accepting, adapting and emerging with both the identities making dual identity and

multiple connections with other nations then they are termed as transnationals or trans-border communities. As of Bruneau's views, "Dual nationality and migratory circulation … favour the emergence of new trans-border communities differing from the long-term diasporas" (Baubock, & Faist, 2010) There are concrete differences between diaspora and transnationalism and the present paper is framed to list out the differences between the two communities through the novels *White Teeth* and *Brooklyn*.

METHODS

The paper describes the differences between the two theories of diaspora and transnationalism and explores the distinctions in the novels *White Teeth* and *Brooklyn*. Textual analysis was employed to analyse and interpret the content of the novel.

Migration Theories – Assimilation Theory and Assemblage Theory

Migration theories expound the process of adaptation, identification and incorporation of the immigrants in the host society. The process of incorporation followed divergent pathways which can be interpreted though assimilation and assemblage theory. Assimilation theory is developed by an American sociologist Milton Myron Gordon who studies the process of Assimilation and states that the first generation was less assimilated and less exposed to host culture. Assimilation theory propounds that the immigrants navigate through the cultural

identities of their host and native land. "Assimilation may be incomplete because it is blocked outright, delayed, or merely unfinished..." (Brown & Bean, 2006).

The other immigration theory is the Assemblage theory which emphasises on the flow of migrants and the fluid identity of the trans migrants, who balance between the adapted estranged culture and the inherent culture of the provenance country. Assemblage theory is an ontological framework created by Gilles Deleuze and was presented in *A Thousand Plateaus* by Felix Guattari. This theory analyses social complexity by emphasising fluidity, exchangeability and multiple functionalities. It also states that within a body, the relationships of component parts are not stable and fixated rather they can be displaced and replaced within and among other bodies, thus approaching systems through relations of exteriority. "Assemblages are composed of heterogeneous elements or objects that enter into relations with one another" (Little, 2012). "DeLanda suggests that the social does not lose its reality, nor its materiality, through its complexity. In this way, assemblages are effective in their practicality; assemblages, though fluid, are nevertheless part of historically significant processes" (DeLanda, 2006). Manuel DeLanda states that "assemblages are made up of parts which are self-subsistent and articulated by relations of exteriority so that a part may be detached and made a component of another assemblage" (DeLanda, 2006).

Diaspora and Transnationalism

The beauty of the nature can be admired through the sunlight and moonlight, likewise, assimilation theory and assemblage theory has been manipulated in literature and conceptualised in to models of identity to study and analyse the journey of the characters in their migrated world. The non-acceptance and partial integration of the immigrants are termed as diaspora and, acceptance and adaptation of the immigrants are named as transnational. Diaspora reflects the sense of loss and alienation, which emerged as a result of migration and Transnationalism reflects acceptance and cultural assemblage. There are substantial differences between diaspora and transnationalism. Diaspora and transnationalism are like two lateral lines of a railway track, which provides dichotomic experience to the migrants: hostility and emergence, seclusion and exhilaration, Catch-22 and sanity, turmoil and clarity. The variations between diaspora and transnationalism start from the perspective of the migrants towards the country of their destination which leads them to grapple with the reality and remain confused as diaspora or to accept the reality and adapt themselves to their migrated community as transnationals. Diasporic people try to recreate themselves in their migrated land which leads to iteration of identity. Homi Bhabha considers 'identity as iteration, the re-creation of the self in the world of travel' (Bhabha, 1994). Ciprut (2008) argued that transnational citizenship replaced an individual's single national loyalties with

multiple nation states which was made visible in the political, cultural, social and economic realms. Ozkul' states that, "In diaspora studies migrants' identity and belongings are fixated into one place and society, transnationalism studies reveal that migrant's attachments are flexible and that their belongings are fluid" (Ozkul, 2012). Diasporic people integrate partially with the host state but transnationals exhibit complete integration with the host state.

Diaspora is 'a primordial reflection of ethnicity' (Safran, 1991) and it points to the 'circularity, continuity, and multidirectional movements of people' "Diaspora is a space of real and imagined relations between diasporic communities and the homeland. But this space is composed of places and of localities that are both sites of settlement and nodes in a transnational network of mobility and communication" (Kokot, Khachig, & Carolin, 2004). Tololyan highlights not only of mobility but also "the political discourse of uprootedness and dispersal among diaspora elites and states, the pure diasporic identity, permanently endangered by threats of assimilation, must be contrasted with the studies of day-to-day experience of individual actors, balancing the various claims brought to them by diasporic elites, society of residence and personal situation alike" (Tololyan, 2004). These diasporas may transcend boundaries, but space, place and locality remain important points of reference, on a symbolic as well as on a physical level.

The transnational communities and diasporic cultures are far from being a new sociological phenomenon, the rise of transnationalism today is influenced by the scale of intensity and simultaneity of current long distance, cross-border activities (Vertovec, 2009). "Transnationalsim studies explore networks pertinent to individuals across borders" (Ozkul, 2012).The life and experiences of transnational communities are reflected through literature known as transnational literature. Transnational literatures are open to different social and political fields of engagement that ultimately develop into new rapports between the individual and local space (McLeod, 2000). There are depictions of individuals' awareness of de-centred attachments, of being simultaneously in home away from home, here and there, maintaining several identities that link them with more than one nation (Vertovec, 2009). This creates a loosening of the bonds between people, wealth, and territories which is concomitant with the rise of complex networks has altered the basis of many significant global interactions (Wakeman, 1988) Faist's views on the differences of the two concepts: "Moreover, while diaspora and transnationalism are sometimes used interchangeably, the two terms reflect different intellectual genealogies. The revival of the notion of diaspora and the advent of transnational approaches can be used productively to study central questions of social and political change and transformation" (Baubock & Faist, 2010) These variations of both the frameworks are handled by various writers in their novels exhibiting the distinct features of both the communities.

Diaspora and Transnationalism in the Novels

Innumerable writers have dealt with the distinct characteristics of diaspora and transnationalism in their writings. In diaspora novels, the characters picturised by the writers, experience a crisis and survive with the crisis till the end of the novel. Kogawa's (1981) novel, *Obasan*, is a semi-autobiographical novel focusing on the Japanese-Canadians, the novel focuses on issues of identity and belonging of the Japanese diasporic community in Canada. Sky Lee's novel (1990), *Disappearing Moon Café*, narrates the cultural differences faced by the diasporic community in Canada. Bapsi Sidhwa's (1993) novel, An *American Brat* focuses on the cultural shocks experienced by the immigrants in the settled society, with the sense of alienation and estrangement. The novel, *The Bonesetter's Daughter,* by Amy Tan (2001) focuses on the cultural clash and problems that exist between first and second generations of the diasporic community. Jhumpa Lahiri's (2007) *The Namesake* focuses on the problems between first and second generations of the diasporic community, cultural clash and mainly on the identity problem faced by the diasporic community. Monica Ali's (2003) novel, *Brick Lane*, looks at the discrimination faced by the Bangladeshi community in London, cultural clash and problems between first and second generations of the diasporic community.

In transnational novels, the characters created by the writers, identify their crisis and overcome their crisis to live their life. *Naomi's Tree* by Joy Kogawa (2008) explores the emotional connection in between a cherry tree and Naomi which happens in Canada. Though by birth she belongs to Japan, she leads her life in Canada by bearing her dual identity as Japanese Canadian. *Discontent and its civilizations: Dispatches from Lahore, New York and London* by Mohsin Hamid (2014) expresses the emergence of the protagonist considering UK, US and Pakistan as his homeland. *No Longer at Ease* by Chinua Achebe (1960) explores the action of leaving a country and returning to the homeland and it also gives a sense that people are changed by migration—that home is no longer the same because people are no longer the same, which denotes the fluidity of identity. *Burnt Shadows* by Kamila Shamsie (2009) revolves around a Hiroshima survivor who travels across Japan, India, Turkey, Pakistan, Afghanistan and America and spends her every stage of her life in these countries adapting their cultures. *Woman Who Breathed Two Worlds* by Selina Siak Chin (2016) looks upon a Malaysian Chinese woman who balances herself and her children to adapt both the cultures of Malaysia and china. The novels *White Teeth* and *Brooklyn* are taken to study the different features of diaspora and transnationalism in the light of two literary theories.

THE BASE LINE OF THE TWO NOVELS

Zadie Smith' *White Teeth*

The novel *White Teeth* was written by a British writer, Zadie Smith (2000) which circles around three contrasting multicultural families: Bangladeshi Muslim, Samad Iqbal; an Englishman, Archie Jones with his Jamaican wife, Clara Jones; and Jewish catholic, Marcus Chalfen; wherein all the three families reside in London. Samad Iqbal being a waiter in a restaurant tries to meet the two ends of the two cultures in the Multicultural British society and he suffers in-between the past and present, where the past refers to the ancestry culture and present refers to the estranged culture. Samad's desire is to be a genuine Muslim but he couldn't follow the rigorous principles of Islam in British society, and so he implants one of his twin sons in Bangladesh to be brought up as an authoritarian Muslim. The twin sons of Samad are trapped in-between the cultural conflicts and thus, one of the twins denies to follow his religion Islam; becomes an atheist, and the other twin pledges himself to a militant Muslim fundamentalist brotherhood known as "Keepers of the Eternal and Victorious Islamic Nation". The turmoil of Samad and his sons regarding their culture in the new, dissimilar society and the deadlock in emerging non-British cultures in a British topology are expressed with humour and pathos with the touch of Zadie Smith's novelty. Smith has also satirised the middle class and the working-class British cultures through the characters Chalfens and Archie Jones.

Colm Toibin's *Brooklyn*

The novel *Brooklyn* was written by an Irish writer, Colm Toibin (2009). It won the Costa Novel award in the same year and it was selected as one of the top ten historical novels of the year. This novel creates a social network between two countries Ireland and America and it revolves around a young girl named Eilis Lacey, born in Ireland and gets a job in America, not only to make her future better but also to upgrade her family's economic status. She covertly marries an American man and returns to Ireland to attend her elder sister's funeral. She is cornered by certain situation to reveal her covert marriage to her mother. Later, she boldly reveals to her mother about her secret marriage and returns to America to live her life with dual identity as Irish American. Lacey has adopted a fluid identity by acquiring both the cultures, setting an example of transnationalism. It has a historical background of Irish people migrating to America to earn money and make their future better. Lacey suffers from nostalgia but she considers both Ireland and America as her 'home', which shows that she has accepted both the cultures and balances herself with dual identity; remains as an American in America.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The research work done in the novels on diaspora and transnationalism emphasises the conflicts of the characters and their inner struggles to lead a life of an immigrant are enlisted.

According to Taryn Beukema, Zadie Smith's *White Teeth* examines the masculine experience by reflecting on the complex effects that cultural history can have on identity. The struggles of Male characters, to assert their identities amidst the confusion of what it means to be a man in contemporary British Society is also analysed (Beukema, 2008).

Mara Maticevic engages Zadie Smith's *White Teeth* with the ideas of postmodernism saying that "after decades of postmodernist irony and insecurity, contemporary literature is again focusing on portrayals of stable forms of subjectivity within a social community" (Maticevic, 2015).

Katina Lynn Rogers interprets Zadie Smith's *White Teeth* as a novel of cosmopolitanism and deals with the complexity of situations of the characters in the novel and the clashes between the traditional and modern culture (Rogers, 2008).

Dilek Inan analyses Colm Toibin's *Brooklyn* as a portrayal of inner struggle and loneliness of the protagonist in an unfamiliar city where she is caught in between home and exile. The article also explores the immigrant's relationship with people and place, dislocation, melancholy and depression, and the struggle in understanding the distance between inner and the outer selves (Inan, 2012).

Marisol Morales Ladron compares Colm Toibin's *Brooklyn* and O"Brien's *The Light of the Evening* and advocates the experiences of post-famine female emigrants to the U.S, in their unsuccessful attempts to find better living conditions either in their promised land or in their homeland. Considering the bond to the land as a metaphor of the bond to the mother the article portrays the conflictive mother figures that mirror their own motherland (Ladrón, 2013).

Stephanie Bunbury deals with the film adaptation of Colm Toibin's *Brooklyn* as a Irish diaspora in America as nomads. The film Brooklyn tells the quintessential Irish diasporic story expressing the immigrant experiences through the female character Ellis Lacey where she is pushed to choose either home or the world. In the interview of Colm Toibin, he says that "we're not nomadic! but then, once we become nomadic, that becomes really interesting, because things happen then that are really strange." The article also emphasises on the characteristics of the Irish people, their behaviour and tradition (Bunbury, 2016).

The present study varies from other works and aims to make a difference between the two concepts diaspora and transnationalism through the analysis of the two novels of Zadie Smith and Colm Toibin.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS: THE CONTRAST FEATURES OF DIASPORA AND TRANSNATIONALISM

The Conflict and the Clarity

Every diasporic individual undergoes a basic dilemma within himself whether to assimilate with the host society or to stick to the kin culture. When an individual is caught in between these two, the conflict

arises in his inner mind which makes him to feel inferior with the host society which is considered as one of the features of assimilation theory and the same can be seen in Zadie Smith's novel *White Teeth*. Samad is a waiter in a restaurant which makes him to feel inferior than other characters which made him to get corrupted, losing his moral codes of his religion and this can be evidently seen when Samad says,

> "I am not a waiter. I have been a student, a scientist, a soldier, my wife is called Al Sana we live in east London but we would like to move north … I'm not sure. I have a friend Archie and others. I am forty-nine but women still turn in the street. Sometimes" (Smith, 2000).

The inner struggle of Samad can be experienced through these lines and he sees himself through the eyes of the society which makes him to feel inferior in the British society, thinking that his identity as a Bangladeshi muslim is a complex one. Samad's horror feeling of losing this identity can be experienced when Samad says, "And then you begin to give up the very idea of belonging. Suddenly this thing, this belonging, it seems like some long, dirty lie" (Smith, 2000). Through these lines it is evident that he tries to imitate the British culture and tries to transform into an Englishman. The hatred in Samad's perspective towards his migrated British society and the sense of lost in the in-between spaces is evident when he says,

> "You hand over your passport at the check-in, you get stamped, you want to make a little money, get yourself started…but you mean to go back! Who would want to stay? Cold, wet, miserable; terrible food, dreadful newspapers. In a place where you are never welcomed, only tolerated. Just tolerated. Like you are an animal finally house-trained…it drags you in and suddenly you are unsuitable to return, your children are unrecognizable, you belong nowhere" (Smith, 2000).

Through the above lines Smith exhibits the doomed reality of an immigrant which he has to undergo in his non-native state. The perspective of the migrants keeps fluctuating according to the circumstances that they experience in the host state which makes their life more complicated. Samad's feeling of losing his identity and torn apart from the dominating community shows that he is just surviving and not living his life.

When a migrant has a clear idea of ones identity and future in the host society like crystal-clear water, then the migrant can be called as a transnational and this clarity of ideology can be considered as one of the key factor of transnationalism and assemblage theory. This clarity of ideology can be seen in Colm Toibin's novel *Brooklyn*. Ellis Lacey had an idea of completing her night classes on bookkeeping and accountancy and pass her exams, and once she is done with the exams, she can get a job in the same shop floor.

"She thought, she could talk about her mother and maybe even discuss the possibility of moving into the office at Bartocci's were a vacancy to arise after she passed her bookkeeping exams" (Toibin, 2009).

Georgiana, one of the boarders in the boat, shared her views about traveling to Ireland and America, and the way she accepts the horrible journey to visit her loved ones.

"I go home once a year to see my mam. It's a lot of suffering for a week. By the time I've recovered I have to go back. But I love seeing them all. We're not getting any younger, any of us, so it's nice to spend a week together" (Toibin, 2009).

When Ellis feels nostalgic, Father Flood, the priest convinces her by giving her suggestions of keeping herself busy always. "You're homesick, that's all. Everybody gets it. But is passes. In some it passes more quickly than in others. There's nothing harder than it. And the rule is to have someone to talk to and too keep busy" (Toibin, 2009). "she was looking forward to thinking about home, letting images of home roam freely in her mind, but it came to her now with a jolt that, no, the feeling she had was only about Friday night and being collected from the house by a man she had met and going to the dance with

him in the hall, knowing that he would be walking her back to Mrs. Kehoe's afterwards" (Toibin, 2009). Through these lines it is clear that Ellis has learned the American culture and she lives the life of an American without avoiding her native Irish Culture, where an assemblage takes place. Since assemblage occurs trans migrants have clarity of ideology about their future in the host country which makes them more comfortable even if they are away from their country.

The Fixed and Flexible Identities

The major characteristic feature of diaspora is that the kin state identity is glued with the migrant's mind which remains as a hurdle to accept the reality and assimilate with the culture of the host state. When Archie Jones asks Samad about his future in Britain, Samad states about his religion and his believes and replies that, he would continue to survive with the same ideologies, "I will survive the last days" (Smith, 2000). This shows that diasporic migrants are hooked with their provenance culture. Samad's bitter words on his sons' assimilation and transformations,

"The one I send home comes out a pukka Englishman, white suited, silly wig lawyer. The one I keep here is fully paid-up green bow-tie-wearing fundamentalist terrorist. I sometimes wonder why I bother," said Samad bitterly, betraying the English inflections of twenty years in the country" (Smith, 2000).

Samad, being a Bangladeshi Muslim, wishes to follow the strict codes of his religion, but he is unable to do so in the new host country. Samad also expresses his attachment to his tradition and the importance of his tradition in British society. He desires his twin sons to be a traditionalist but the second-generation immigrants have assimilated with the host society which Samad calls it as corruption.

> "All their children are nothing but trouble. They don't pray, they speak strangely, they dress strangely, they eat all kinds of rubbish. No respect for tradition. People call it assimilation when it is nothing but corruption." (Smith, 2000).

Samad's twin sons, the second-generation immigrants have completely lost their tradition, customs and culture and integrate themselves with the British society. To be precise, the migrants have begun to adapt the culture of the host country by letting to slip the native culture of their country from their memory, which sets an example for the difference of the two concepts and also for assimilation theory.

In transnationalism, the migrants adapt themselves to the culture of host state when they are in host state and kin state when they are in kin state, and this is the key factor of assemblage theory. This is evident when Jack, Lacey's brother says about his experience in his country of destination.

> "In the first few months I couldn't find my way around at all and I was desperate to go home. I would have done anything to go home. But now I'm used to it and I like my wage packet and my independence" (Toibin, 2009).

Through the above lines, Jack has expressed his acceptance and emergence with the host society which makes him happy and comfortable. Ellis Lacey changes her attitude to overcome her nostalgic feeling by making herself busy all the time.

> "She had been keeping the thought of home out of her mind, letting it come to her only when she wrote or received letters or when she woke from a dream in which her mother or father or Rose or the rooms of the house on Friary Street or the street of the town had appeared" (Toibin, 2009).

Thus, through the above lines Ellis Lacey has a control over her nostalgic feeling and tries to overcome her problems by finding a solution of engaging herself with a job and keeps herself busy all the time. Ellis after moving to Brooklyn had learnt to eat a spaghetti with a fork like Americans and this denotes that Ellis is emerging herself with the migrated land. "Eilis had received instructions from Diana about how to eat spaghetti properly using a fork only, but what was served was not as thin and slippery as the spaghetti Diana had made for her" (Toibin, 2009). Ellis's perspective towards her migrated land is more optimistic when compared to Samad's views. Through these illustrations

it is understood that people of diaspora and transnationalism have different perspectives in accepting, adapting and emerging with the other society.

CONCLUSION

The contradictions of Diaspora and Transnationalism show the way in which both the frameworks remain detached from each other and the distinct perspective of the migrants enables them to develop distinct ideologies which streams to assorted conclusions such as diaspora or transnationals. It also distinguishes the distinct sufferings, acceptance, adaptations, emergences and transformations of the immigrants in their migrant state. Diasporas have fixed identity to native culture and not the host culture like Samad sticking to his native identity and religion as Bangladeshi Muslim. But whereas, transnationals have fluid identity and they are open to all cultures like Ellis Lacey because she also learns to behave like an American when she is in America. They adapt themselves to all cultures to become global citizens. Diasporas are struck in-between two cultures and survive in chaos like Samad's character. Whereas transnationals have a clearer idea about their host culture and their transformed identity, like the character of Ellis Lacey. Through the differences in perspective of the migrants, which is illustrated from the novels, it is clear that there are differences between diaspora and transnationalism.

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Sue Bridehead: Hardy's Feminist Figure or a Fallen Temptress

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ABSTRACT

Among Thomas Hardy's female characters, Sue Bridehead (the female protagonist in *Jude the Obscure* 1895) seems very powerful and many readers may consider her as Hardy's feminist female character, who stands against all the existing forces of her time and wants to defend her status quo. Reading this article clarifies that, although Sue wants to say something new in women's case, she is not supported through the story and rather her portrayal shows that a woman, in the Victorian society, is the weaker sex and even if she wants to change or break the rules she cannot simply because she is a woman. Therefore, portrayal of Sue supports this idea that, while Hardy highlights women's problems and inequalities it is merely to emphasise the existing social and religious situations of the Victorian era. In this light, Hardy's portrayal of Sue does not follow the basic tenets of Christian feminism. This article, considering the main images of sin, salvation and Eve (a temptress), illustrates that Hardy's portrayal of Sue is not in accordance with Christian feminism; therefore, Sue cannot be considered as Hardy's feminist figure.

Keywords: Christian feminism, *Jude the Obscure* (1895), Sue Bridehead, Thomas Hardy

INTRODUCTION

Among Thomas Hardy's female characters, Sue Bridehead starts differently and it seems she has something new to say. Sue is independent and works in a shop. Later, when she marries Richard Phillotson, she falls in love with Jude. As she cannot tolerate her ordinary life and wants to break the existing norms of her time, at the beginning it seems she wants to emerge the image of New Woman, who is not weak, inferior, dependant and superstitious. That is why she leaves her husband to follow her heart and starts a new life with Jude (her lover). Through the story she fails and feels as an ill-fated and sinful person who needs salvation. As it is explained in *The Norton*

Anthology of English Literature (1987), the Victorians had an ideal of womanhood which was a concept that they called the 'angel in the house' or the 'relative creature' who maintained the home as a heaven. This ideal of womanhood is clear from the novels, manuals and even government reports of that time. The definition of women during the 1830s and 1840s was primarily related to home and family. Also in the nineteenth century feminism was a dominant and much discussed issue, because at that time there was a great number of women writers and novelists who focused on women's issues in their writings (Abrams et al., 1987). Despite all the efforts of the writers in the Victorian era to produce works in apparent support of the plight of women of the time, it cannot be said that all these writers were feminist just because they wrote about the prevailing social and religious attitudes towards women. The related social and religious matters of the era, justify the use of Christian feminism viewpoint in studying Sue. Therefore, this article takes a critical look at Hardy's (1994), *Jude the Obscure* to introduce a new critical perspective in his description of Sue Bridehead. Considering the framework of the study, the question is: Is Hardy's portrayal of Sue in accordance with feminists' portrayal, since he focuses on Sue's weakness and finishes her story in remorse and need of salvation? In order to solve this problem, this article examines the portrayal of Sue through Christian feminism by considering the main clues of 'sin', 'salvation' and the image of 'Eve' as a temptress.

METHODS

In *Feminism and Christianity: an Essential Guide,* Japinga (1999) asserts that feminist theology begins with the assumption that women are fully human, made in God's image, loved and valued by God. There are three main tasks in feminist theology; first, feminist theology provides a critique of the tradition, pointing out the ways the Christian tradition has been limiting or destructive for women. Second, it tries to recover women's stories from the past and the present in order to express the gifts and insights of women throughout history. Third, feminist theology revises and reshapes traditional Christian doctrines and practices in order to help the tradition and the church to be more responsive to the needs and experiences of all its members (21). Christian feminism is a branch of feminism that focuses its frames on theology, following the same routes as feminism but narrowing on the theological frames. Feminism recognizes the importance of women's stories and the need to find examples of strength and courage in both the past and the present. Thus all the feminists look for equal rights for women, but their final goal is a social direction in which women and men of all races and classes can live together in justice and harmony (12). In Japinga's view most of the Christian feminists' goal is:

> To empower and encourage women by helping them to find inner strength, a clear sense of identity, and freedom from stereotypes. Feminism recognizes the importance of women's stories

and the need to find examples of strength and courage in both the past and the present (13).

In the nineteenth century some people believed that women who used their brains for education and scholarship drew energy from the uterus and made themselves sterile. According to them, man was created first to exercise headship over the woman, and woman was designed to be man's helpmate, to cook his food, wash his clothes, and bear his children and this is her purpose in life. She does not need an education because she will not have a public role, and she cannot exercise authority over men. As long as the woman accepted the man's headship, she was perfectly happy. When she did not, sin entered the world (76). According to Evans (2001) in *Feminism: Critical Concepts in Literary and Cultural Studies*, the main ideals of a good woman were brought to the Victorian era through evangelicals, which defined women with recognizable characteristics, which were being modest, unassuming, unaffected and rational, and being 'Rational' meant not to be 'sentimental' or have violent feelings. To evangelicals, it was clear that man was the wiser partner and could guide woman into the appropriate area (11). In *Coelebs in Search of a Wife,* More (1809) declares that while men could introduce women to new ideas, women were considered as private property, who had their main household duties (23).

Now that the framework of study is explained, it is good to consider the definition of sin, salvation and the image of Eve (the temptress). As sin is considered to be rebellion against God through pride, self-seeking, and haughtiness, then salvation requires a breaking of the self. Therefore, sinful people must distinguish their weakness and failure, and try to admit their inability to save themselves or their world and finally confess their need for God (Japinga 107). According to Christian feminists, human relationships have been blemished by sin, but the sexism, racism, and classism present in our world are not God's will (13). Christian feminists argue that as the Christians believe salvation sets individuals free from the outcomes of sin and allows their souls to enter heaven when they die, while the unsaved person is separated from God, the saved person has a relationship with God that offers happiness and security. The definitions of salvation and sin are closely connected. Sin is a broken relationship between God and an individual and the evident key for their reunion is the individual's salvation. Salvation takes place by the individual's regret, change, 'getting right with God', and developing a personal relationship with Christ. Salvation comes when the self is broken and gives up its own desires, then the saved people need to be self-sacrificing and unselfish in a way that they do not demand their own way (110).

RESULTS

Keeping in mind the qualities of Christian feminism, in approaching Sue, first and foremost it is important to take note that portrayal of Sue is closely related to Christian attitudes of Hardy himself and

then *Jude the Obscure* has some qualities of Christian feminism within itself. With a close reading of the text, a reader may discover that Hardy's Christian beliefs are deeply effective on Sue's portrayal. Although Christian feminism is a modern theory, reading *Jude the Obscure* and studying the way Hardy portrays Sue, provide much evidence of Christian feminist tracks. *Jude the Obscure* is closely related to women and the inequalities they face in a patriarchal society at a time when strict Victorian Christianity was established through the existing notions of evangelicalism. In this context, the use of Christian feminism proves to be the appropriate theoretical framework to approach Sue.

DISCUSSION

Considering Sue's portrayal, proves that she is a changing and unstable character, who is neither rational nor stable. She is not powerful and conveys the image of a temptress. Through the discussion it becomes clear that, unlike many readers' conceptions, Sue cannot convey the image of a modern woman who is familiar with her right and that is why she surrenders her life to Richard Phillotson (her husband) and goes to him despite her feelings towards Jude. From a close reading of *Jude the Obscure*, the reader discovers that Hardy's Christian beliefs influence his female portrayal and make them dependant. Hardy portrays the male characters as people who have religious jobs or studies, while the females (Sue and Arabella) are portrayed as temptresses. As an example, Jude is a religious and studious man, who is very ambitious and wants to go to Christminster to study and learn as much as possible. Jude wishes to become a scholar next to be a Christian divine (p. 36). Through the story the presence of the two mentioned women, ruin all his dreams and future. When Jude first sees Arabella (Jude's wife) and talks to her, he gradually forgets all about his dreams and says to himself that it is not bad to have fun for a while (p. 46). The role of a woman as a temptress in Hardy's *Jude* seems to be the best way to explain and justify a man's failure or instability in achieving his future goals, and it is the woman who stands accused. This part highlights Japinga's view point that as men historically and religiously were considered as the main cause of creation, in all patriarch religions, they always consider women as the persons who need to be accused. This is because in patriarch religions men consider women as the origin of sin and know them as temptresses (p. 12).

In *Women in Christianity* (Miller et al. 2009), on one hand, Bible is considered as the only literature in the world, up to our century, that looks at women as human beings, no better and no worse than men; however, it cannot be said that the society of Old Testament times were consistently favourable to women. There is a male bias and priority in both the private and public life of women (p. 34). On the other hand, according to Japinga, one image that is very significant in patriarch religions is the image of woman as one of men's possessions. As men consider women as

one of their possessions, they always feel superior to them and they think women's life and destiny should be in their control (p. 13). As a woman, Sue completely feels this inferiority and although she does not like this, she has to accept it. As it is custom and convention in Christianity, when a couple is getting married, a male (who is father of the bride or one of her close relations) should give her away to the bridegroom. Sue asks Jude in a letter to give her away on her wedding day. Sue mocks this custom and thinks it makes her inferior to have to be 'given away', much as one gives away an animal. However, she ultimately agrees to follow the custom because she has to do it (p. 203).

In many parts of the story (as on p.2 30) when Jude is alone, he returns to study for priesthood. Hardy, as a writer, casts the female characters as being responsible for distracting the male characters from their personal goals and their relationship with God. Whether directly or indirectly, Hardy portrays Sue in the image of Eve. A case in point is on page (p. 260) when Jude kisses Sue and confesses his feelings for her, then he goes to the yard and brings out all his ethical books and burns them. As if symbolically he ends his ambition to study for priesthood. It is significant that whenever Jude is with a woman, he forgets all about his ambitions and religious beliefs. Sue is portrayed as an irritating and distracting figure, who is a barrier in Jude's way to his success and career.

When Jude falls in love with Sue, she goes to him and says that she has to marry Richard (p. 159). The very arguable matter here is that, although Sue seems to be Hardy's only female character who wants to break the marital rules and live a life that she likes, her personality and life are completely under the direct or indirect control of the males. Most of the parts throughout the story, Hardy tries to show his inner feelings about men and women indirectly, but with a close attention the reader can see the many parts in this novel that support the claim of his female portrayal not being in accordance with Christian feminism tenets. On one part, when Sue and Jude are talking about the books that they have read, Jude asks her how she has read this much and she says:

> I have no fear of men, as such, nor of their books. I have mixed with them – one or two of them particularly – almost as one of their own sex. I mean I have not felt about them as most women are taught to feel – to be on their guard against attacks on their virtue; for no average man – no man short of a sensual savage – will molest a woman by day or night, at home or abroad, unless she invites him. Until she says by a look 'Come on' he is always afraid to, and if you never say it, or look it, he never comes. [...] When I was eighteen I formed a friendly intimacy with an undergraduate at Christminster, [...] He left me a little money – because I broke his heart, I suppose. That's how men are – so much better than women! (p. 177).

The last sentence can be considered as the pick of the above paragraph, which shows how Hardy tries to describe a man through his female character. Sue's sentences introduce men as harmless characters who do not get close to women unless the women let them. In one sentence, Hardy brings a conclusion to all his portrayals and descriptions and says: "men are – so much better than women". With this definition he affirms the matter that it is the women who always attract and tempt men and cause many problems both for themselves and men. The main image of Sue continues to be the image of a temptress who causes males to lose sight of their religious attitudes and abandon their future goals. As in the following quotation, Jude says:

> "I am awfully ignorant on general matters, although I have worked so hard," he said, to turn the subject. "I am absorbed in Theology, you know. And what do you think I should be doing just about now, if you weren't here? I should be saying my evening prayers. I suppose you wouldn't like" (p. 179).

Obviously, Jude is supposed to have religious attitude and on the contrary Sue is the main reason for his religious ignorance. This image becomes a cliché in this novel. The other matter which is very considerable and dominant about Sue is that, Hardy portrays her character as an unsure, unstable and changing woman. Sue does not know what is right and what is wrong. She always commits irremediable mistakes.

Sue's instability is very troublesome for the two male characters in her life. Both Jude and Richard face many problems because of her unstable, changing and unsure character.

The image of 'salvation', based on Japinga's theory, is another patriarch belief that claims – as men consider women the origin of sin in this case – women should suffer more than men in order to obtain salvation, but even after their salvation church fathers, historically, questioned this matter that, 'can women be saved?' (p. 110). In this case according to Miller, gender neither privileges nor curtails a believer's gifting or calling to any ministry in the church or home. It does not imply that women and men are identical, but it just affirms that God designed men and women to complement and benefit one another (p. 19). Although Jude and Sue are both married and have illicit relationship, significantly, the image of salvation is stronger for Sue than Jude and that is why she suffers more. When Jude's son kills their children and himself, Sue's sadness is compounded by the memory of her last child was born prematurely and a stillbirth (p. 408). Sue's loss of her children is therefore total and it makes her feel depressed and sinful. Finally, she says:

> "We must conform!" she said mournfully. "All the ancient wrath of the Power above us has been vented upon us, His poor creatures, and we must submit. There is no choice. We must. It is no use fighting against God!" (p. 409)

[...] "No, no, Jude!" she said quickly. "Don't reproach yourself with being what you are not. If anybody is to blame it is I." (p. 410)

Sue feels really sinful here. She feels as Eve, a temptress who has tempted Jude to agree to all her decisions and now she feels guilty. She abandons all her ideals and beliefs, because she feels they are against God. Sue is a woman who seeks salvation because she thinks she has done something against God's wish. As Japinga argues, the Christians are taught to believe that whatever is written in the Bible is God's word so it must be followed (p. 62). They see such a belief as patriarchal ideas for patriarchal reasons but for Hardy, it is just a matter of presenting well-known and well-accepted patriarchal images of the time. Sue considers the loss of all their children as her punishment and subsequently changes her attitude. She even tells Jude that she belongs to Richard not to him. This is because firstly, she is still married to Richard and religiously she is his not Jude's (p. 415). Jude is shocked and Sue tells him that, they should not stay together any longer because she is planning to return to her husband and it is better for Jude to stay with his wife, Arabella. After all, Jude and Arabella were formally and properly married. Sue wishes for salvation and for this she does whatever she can. Sue completely follows the process of salvation through forgetting her feelings, breaking the self and confession for the need of God. She wants to set herself free from the outcomes of her sins in order to save herself. Reading

these lines, gives the reader the impression that Hardy's patriarch beliefs are still alive and with him. He is clear in his message that readers should be warned not to be fooled by women who are temptresses that bring misfortune to men and in the process, lead them away from God. The patriarch notions are so strong that they even affect Sue's decisions and thoughts. She consequently forgets about all her dreams, because she comes to believe that whatever she did was wrong. So, she wants to change her ways and do anything that makes her closer than ever to God and that is why she completely ignores Jude's feelings. On the other hand, Jude, in listening to her and doing what she wished, has forsaken his old conventions and beliefs. It is significant to note Hardy portrays Sue seizing the time and opportunity to seek salvation, while Jude drifts even further away from church and God. As later Sue says:

[...] I see marriage differently now. My babies have been taken from me to show me this! Arabella's child killing mine was a judgment – the right slaying the wrong. What, what shall I do! I am such a vile creature – too worthless to mix with ordinary human beings! (p. 419)

For obtaining salvation, Sue does whatever she can. She thinks as she did not follow the so-called conventions she sinned and acted against God. This is just because the patriarch notions are so strong that even Sue feels sinful in not following them, thus

she finds herself duty bound to make up for all her religious misdoings to save herself. When Sue goes to Richard she says:

> My children – are dead – and it is right that they should be! I am glad _ almost. They were sin-be-gotten. They were sacrificed to teach me how to live! – their death was the first stage of my purification. That's why they have not died in vain! . . . You will take me back? (p. 435)

Sue considers herself as the most sinful person who has broken her relationship with God through following her own way and breaking marital rules. As it was mentioned earlier, according to Christians, sinful people must distinguish their weakness and failure in order to admit their need for God and that is why Sue ignores her feelings towards Jude and goes back to Richard. Through Hardy's characterization, it is proven that in all ways Sue is ignorant, once with forgetting about the religious rituals and another time by ignoring Richard, Jude and finally her own feelings. Sue is unable to moderate her attitudes and feelings and acts in extremes. Interestingly, when she tries to be closer to God her behaviour completely becomes in agreement with evangelicals' notions of a good woman. That is she becomes unassuming, modest, unaffected and rational which is non sentimental. Contrary to the unstable and unkind female characters in this story, Hardy portrays both Jude and Richard as calm, logical and kind characters. They do just as their wife or lover wish. As an example, when Richard's

friend asks him why he let Sue to go with her lover, he tells his friend that he did it because of humanity, although it is not in accordance with religion or the routine doctrines (p. 275) – as if religion and its doctrines are not in a way in accordance with humanity. He continues that, in reality he should kill her lover and lock her up, but according to him, it is not right so he lets her go. He lets Sue free to go and experience the wrong way and later to return as an ignorant and wrong child to her father. The repetition of kind and merciful male characters contrasted against unstable and unreliable female characters in Hardy's *Jude,* are very non-feminist and rather patriarchal. Sue is rather selfish and jealous who seeks freedom just for herself. When she leaves Richard and goes to Jude, she cannot tolerate Arabella coming to see Jude (p. 315). She goes to Richard and sees him but applies a different standard on Jude, forcing him to do as she wishes. Eventually, Jude tells her that she is not his wife and therefore cannot expect him to follow her wishes. In this case Sue is forced to tell him that she will marry him (p. 318). When Sue loses all her children, she becomes rather changeable and forces Jude to do just as she says (p. 423). Sue again acts in a wrong, selfish way and Hardy shows how her changing character in a way ruins Jude's life. Sue does not pay attention to Jude's feelings and she does whatever she wants. Even now that she wants to behave religiously, she behaves immorally. Finally, when she wants to go to Richard, she says: "I don't love him – I must, must, own it, in deepest remorse! But I shall try to learn to love

him by obeying him" (p. 432). Indirectly, Hardy shows the non-feminist features of his female portrayal; that is, Sue is a changeable character who does not know what is right and what is wrong. This is because of her selfishness as when she forces Jude to accept her decisions.

CONCLUSION

In analysing Sue's character through theoretical framework of Christian feminism it is significant that, while Hardy highlights the woes of Sue, he also portrays her as a rebellious woman who rebels against the social and religious norms of her time that eventually fails and cannot break the so-called social clichés and religious norms. In portraying the miserable situation of Sue, Hardy arouses the readers' pity in order to relieve himself of the burden of his personal reactions towards the society of his time. In no way; however, does Hardy show personal support for women or stand up for their rights. Instead, his stand appears to be that woman is the weaker sex and even if she wants to change and break the rules she cannot, simply because she is a woman. Hardy just highlights the many ways in which Sue is mistaken and sins in a patriarchal dominant and overly-strict society influenced by Christian evangelicalism, and he just shows her suffering as a consequence. Although Hardy pretends not to accept the existing religious values of his time and wants to react towards them, in the case of women he in fact subscribes to all the existing notions of his time without trying to change

the unfortunate position of the female characters. That is why Sue cannot save herself by following her way and forgetting about marital rules and the only way for her survival is seeking salvation. This reminds Japinga's viewpoint that the fathers were not sure that women could be completely free from the effects of their sin. According to them Eve's sin in eating the forbidden fruit meant that women could not be trusted in leadership. Thus women were considered dangerous temptresses who needed to be controlled and be subordinate to men (p. 12).

As Elvy (2007) asserts in *Sexing Hardy*, Hardy's narrator puts much of the blame of the tragedy on Sue (p. 144). She is the most changing personality, sometimes she is a New Woman and acts as a librated thinker and sometimes she is strongly superstitious about religion and marriage (p. 147). In *A Companion to Hardy*, Taylor (p. 2013) declares the same idea about Sue; according to her, at first Sue is liberal despite she works in a shop that Jude describes it ritualistic. But later in the novel, she undergoes a sudden 180 degree turn and reverse to a religious person after her children death (p. 348). Sue cannot find her inner sense of identity and cannot become independent. Her personality and life remain under the control of the patriarch society of her time and she cannot flourish. Not only Sue is unsuccessful in her own way, but also she fails in a very bad way. Sue is portrayed based on the inevitable Victorian viewpoint that a woman should not behave the way Sue behaves and challenges the existing social and religious norms of the day. The result

is that if she rebels against the conventions of her time, she will suffer for it. In Elvy's opinion: "The tragedy of Sue and Jude is that there is no social or cultural space in which their special, two-in-one spiritual love can exist, let alone flourish" (p. 143). Sue's story becomes a lesson to all the other women in order to never break the conventions or even think of it. Initially, Sue may appear to be a strong and brave female character who wants to be independent and different, but her firm personality changes through the story and she ends up tragically. Her shear role is the temptress who ends as a weak woman that needs a man's supervision, control and guidance to live her life. What is significant is that, it is Sue who seeks salvation more than any other characters in the story, and the problem is she thinks she deserves it.

Unlike Christian's reasoning, Christian feminists believe that God wants men and women to be people of truthfulness, wisdom, passion, and compassion. God wants human beings to use the gifts God has given them to make a difference in the world, in a way that they respect and know how to behave and value each other. God provides the beauty to help people turn from restricted, burdened, limited lives to discover the freedom that God provides for them. Finally, according to Christian feminists, God's salvation helps people to stand up straight, break free of the rules and expectations that fasten them and live freely, responsibly, and joyfully in the world God has created. This can be achieved if people try to understand their equalities in the

view point of God, religion and the whole world (Japinga 177). Hardy is seen to act away from these tenets, keeping Sue in her place by repeating old and cliché patterns in her portrayal. In a way, the reader feels that Hardy really wants to repeat the idea that it was 'Eve' as a woman who tempted Adam, so women deserve the punishment more - an idea which is rejected by Christian feminists. Hardy does not try to introduce a good and new image of woman. Overall, therefore, this analysis confirms that Hardy's portrayal of Sue, does not follow the basic tenets of Christian feminism. The manner in which he portrays the males as superior and better and also his use of old, non-feminist clichés, all go to support his non-feminist portrayal. Hardy does not try to set Sue free from the existing inequalities and miseries. Rather, with his hidden religious outlook and beliefs, he directly or indirectly keeps Sue in her place and does not promote her situation; therefore, she cannot flourish and defend her status quo. She just ends up as an example to all women who read her tragic story. In other words, all struggles by Sue for equality with males seem to be forbidden and futile in Hardy's *Jude*.

Sue is described as the origin of sin in *Jude the Obscure*, and that is why she tries to go against herself and her feelings, because she believes that, she lost her children and her life for she followed her own feelings and ideas instead of the word of God. The truth is that, Sue does not mean to go against God. From the very beginning she just tries to be a different woman, who wants to break the existing

marital rules which constrain women and make them feel inferior. According to Elvy "For Sue, marriage is a horrible and sordid undertaking" (p. 142) and it seems the most irritating issue about marriage for her is that marriage legitimizes the man's desire for sex and the wife must always be available to him (p. 145). That is why Sue just wanted to find her own way to live a life without having to conform to the strict religious and ceremonial codes of the society of her time, but it ends in her failure. On the whole as a conclusion, this article proves that Sue fails in emerging the image of New Woman and retreats to recompense her mistakes and sins by following the stereotype image of a woman as 'the angel in the house'. Sue starts as a rebel and eventually ends as a timid and superstitious woman who can be considered as a fallen rebel not as Hardy's feminist figure.

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Verbal Agreement in Mehri Word Order: A Feature-based-Inheritance Model

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ABSTRACT

This paper discusses agreement in syntactic order of Mehri. It investigates how VSO and SVO are derived and proposes an alternative analysis based on Chomsky's (2008) feature-based-inheritance approach which seeks to provide a unified account on the subject. It shows that regardless of whether the DP is located in [Spec-v*P] in VSO order or in [Spec, TP] and [Spec-TopP] (Topic Phrase) in SVO order, the Agreement can be applied and unvalued uninterpretable features are valued and deleted by matching them with their valued interpretable counterparts. We argue that since the edge feature of the head C of the CP phase is inherited by the Top head or T head, the (in)definite DPs in Mehri are raised from [Spec, v*P] to [Spec-TopP] and [Spec, TP] in SVO order, which can be dominated by CP projection, as assumed in Chomsky (2008). Besides, we contend that T in VSO order lacks an edge feature inherited from C. Therefore, the genuine DP must stay in-situ in [Spec, v*P], while the lexical verb moves higher to T in TP layer, not to Foc in FocP (Focus Phrase) as argued by Musabhien (2009), and show full agreement with the post-verbal DP. We also assume that in SVO order the definite DP is a Topic, whereas the indefinite DP is a Pre-verbal subject. In VSO order, the post-verbal DP is a subject. Given these, Top and T heads inherit probe features from C and immediately agree with DP via either short-distance agreement in SVO order or long-distance agreement in VSO order.

Keywords: CP phase**,** edge feature, feature inheritance, full agreement, Mehri

INTRODUCTION

The interaction between word order and agreement in Mehri[1] language is a

[1] Mehri is one of six Modern South Arabian languages spoken in the southern-central region of the Arabian Peninsula. Mehri is spoken in eastern Yemen, southern Oman (Dhofar), parts of central-southern and eastern Saudi Arabia,

phenomenon that has not attracted much attention. This may be due to many reasons. For instance, as Mehri is a minority language spoken among a huge community of Arabic language in Yemen, it does not contain formal scripts (i.e., written system), and it is banned from use in government agendas. Despite the lack of attention, a number of analyses within different theoretical frameworks of the syntactic theory have been conducted on the phenomenon. Among these analyses, Ouhalla (1997), and Doron and Heycock (1999) had been concerned with the relative positions of subject with regard to the verb, while others had explored extensively the interpretation of the post-verbal and the pre-verbal subjects assuming the preverbal were best analyzed as left dislocated items (Aoun, Benmamoun, & Choueiri, 2010; Plunkett, 1993). Between these two streams, many scholars have tackled the correlation between the subject position and its agreement with a predicate (Benmamoun, 1999; Fehri, 1993, 2005; Mohammad, 2000; Soltan, 2006, 2007, 2011). This correlation between verbs and

and in diasporic communities in parts of the Gulf. The language does not have a formal script, and is threatened by the majority language, Arabic. It is banned from use in government agendas. The number of Mehri tribe members is estimated by the Mehri Language Center in al-Ghaydhah as c. 100,000. However, through modernisation, education in Arabic, migration patterns and increased communications, code switching into Arabic has become the norm, threatening the language from within. Mehri community members have traditionally been involved in agriculture, fishing and livestock husbandry. The speakers of Mehri have a rich tradition of oral folklore. This linguistic heritage is increasingly under threat from the dominant national language, Arabic, and from increased urbanisation and contact with Arabic speakers.

pre-verbal or post-verbal subject in Mehri is the main concern of this paper.

Due to the morphological features that overtly mark an agreement between the post-verbal or the pre-verbal subjects and the predicates, Mehri allows diverse word orders. In particular, the two prevalent word orders of Mehri that have constituted an intriguing topic of discussion in this study are VSO and SVO. As the following structures show, the masculine and feminine markers can appear elsewhere on verbs in the pre-nominal position as in (1a) and (1c) or in the post-nominal position as in (1b) and (1d).

(1) a. *raḥāl   a-ġayg   ḥa-mōh man ḥabrōt*

collected.3ms   the-man.3ms-Nom the-water.Acc from ḥabrōt

'the man collected the water from ḥabrōt'

b. *a-ġayg   raḥāl   ḥa-mōh man ḥabrōt*

the-man.3ms-Nom   collected.3ms the-water.Acc from ḥabrōt

'the man collected the water from ḥabrōt'

c. *raḥl-ōt   a-ġīgēt   ḥamōh man ḥabrōt*

collected.3fs the-girl.3fs-Nom the-water.Acc from ḥabrōt

'the girl collected the water from ḥabrōt'

d. *a-ġīgēt   raḥl-ōt   ḥamōh man ḥabrōt*

the-girl.3fs-Nom collected.3fs the-water.Acc from ḥabrōt

'the girl collected the water from ḥa brōt'

The behaviour of the examples above is straightforward because the verb exhibited appears with the same agreement features regardless of whether it precedes or follows the nominal subject. Similarly, the morphological agreement is also shown on verbs associated with plural subject, as exemplified in (2a) and (2b) below.

(2) a. ***raḥāl-am***   *hā-būn*
      ḥa-mōh   *man ḥabrōt*

     collected.3mp the-people.3ps-Nom the-water.Acc from ḥabrōt

     'the people collected the water from ḥabrōt'

   b. *hā-būn*   ***raḥāl-am***
      ḥa-mōh   *man ḥabrōt*

     the-people.3ps-Nom collected.3mp the-water.Acc from ḥabrōt

     'the people collected the water from ḥabrōt'

The structures in (2a) and (2b) show that the post-nominal or pre-nominal verb √*rḥl* 'to collect' is marked by a suffix ***-am***. This marker expresses the plural masculine feature agreeing with a given subject ***hā-būn*** 'the people' in two positions. Nonetheless, agreement on a verb is conversely recognized when the nominal subject takes plural feminine features:

(3) a. ***raḥāl***   *ha-ynaṯ*   *ḥa-mōh*   *man ḥabrōt*

     collected.3fp   the-women.3fp-Nom the-water.Acc from ḥabrōt
     'the women collected the water from ḥabrōt'

   b. *ha-ynaṯ*   ***raḥāl***
      ḥa-mōh   *man ḥabrōt*

t h e - w o m e n . 3 f p - N o m collected.3fp the-water.Acc from ḥabrōt

'the women collected the water from ḥabrōt'

In (3a) and (3b), the verb ***raḥāl*** 'collected' is a pattern. It embeds plural feminine features. The existence of these features is only interpreted when the verb correlates with a plural, feminine subject, such as ***ha-ynaṯ*** 'the women'. According to Rubin (2010), both 3mp and 1ms are characterized by an internal vowel change */ū/* as in ***šənḏūr*** 'made a vow', or ***ksūh*** 'found' (Watson, 2012). In a similar way, the internal vowel */ā/* in ***raḥāl*** 'collected' works simultaneously as the 3mp and 1ms marker with respect to the subject in a given structure.

The affixes[2] ***-ā-***, ***-ōt*** and ***-ām*** appear

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[2] According to Rubin (2010) and Watson (2012), verbs in Mehri inflect for person, number and gender. The current paper only focuses on perfective form. Watson (2012, pp. 85-87) demonstrated the main difference between both forms. She explored that the perfective form usually appear with suffixes, while imperfective form appears with both prefixes and suffixes. Consider the templet below:

Perfective Form		
	Singular	Dual	Plural
1	*-ak*	*-akī*	*-an*
2m	*-ak*		*-akam*
2f	*-aš*		*-akan*
3m	***-0***	***-ōh***	***-am***
3f	***-ūt***	***-tōh***	***-0***

Imperfective Form		
	Singular	Dual	Plural
1	*a-*	*na-...-ōh*	*na-*
2m	*ta-*	*ta-....-ōh*	*ta-...-am*
2f	*ta-....-i*		*ta-...-an*
3m	*ya-*	*ya-....-ōh*	*ya-...-am*
3f	*ta-*	*ta-....-ōh*	*ta-...-an*

in both word orders: SVO and VSO. This appearance becomes a significant issue in the study of agreement in two orders. In the spirit of the literature on the word order of Arabic, there are two strands of analysis that have been discussed this issue. These are topic and subject analyses. In terms of the former, the preverbal category is excluded from the sentence as the subject (Alotaibi, 2013; Musabhien, 2009; Ouhalla, 1999). Rather, it is determined as a topic that is followed by a complete verbal sentence that functions as a comment. Consequently, it is considered that the pronominal clitics on verbs are subject markers which highlight the null subjects in a comment, while the original subject is topicalized and then moved to the left periphery of the structure, and functions as a topic. The second strand of analysis is undertaken by Mohammad (2000), Fehri (1993, 2005) and Aoun et al. (2010). It is assumed that the preverbal nouns in structures such as those in (1b), (1d), (2b) and (3b) are merely subjects, while the affixes attached to the verbs are agreement markers.

In this study, we argue that both SVO and VSO are merged in the inner v*P phase. From this, the occurrence or the non-occurrence of the edge feature on C, inherited to T or Top, plays a significant role to reconstruct the word orders regardless of whether it is SVO or VSO. Moreover, we contend that C in Mehri is the sole provider of agreement, tense and case features to T. Hence, T head becomes an active probe that contains unvalued features such as φ-features. These features will become valued when T probes down searching for the matching goal, in its Spell-Out domain. In this paper, we adopt the latest advances within the minimalist framework of the linguistic theory introduced in Chomsky (2008) to account for how agreement is established under a Feature Inheritance, and to explain how the pre-verbal and the post-verbal noun phrases achieve their surface positions in Mehri language.

This paper is organized as follows. Following Section 1, introductory section, Section 2 provides a methodological background for the study. It also reviews some related studies of verbal agreement in Standard Arabic. Section 3 results in a morphological agreement between verbs and post-verbal or preverbal subjects in Mehri. Section 4 discusses the analysis of the derivation of SVO and VSO word orders in Mehri on the bases of Chomsky's (2008) minimalist framework. Section 5 summarizes and concludes the study.

METHODS

Insights of Minimalist Program

One of the most important contributions of the Minimalist Program is that it is the only linguistically indispensable levels are the interface levels (Chomsky, 2000). A linguistic expression in the Minimalist enterprise is defined as the optimal realizations of the interface (PF, LF) conditions, where the optimality is recognized through the principles of derivational economy. These principles allow the computational system to select the optimal derivations from a set of computing derivations (Kitahara, 1995).

According to Chomsky (2000), Universal Grammar gives a set of linguistic properties (features) and operations that derive the set of features to generate expressions.

According to Chomsky (1995) and Jubilado (2010), the computational system maps some lexical arrays to linguistic expressions. These arrays are called numeration (i.e., a pair of lexical items which are selected from the lexicon). The computational system selects a lexical item for one time, which is then introduced into the derivation by the operation Select, which incorporates it to the set of syntactic objects formed. In other words, the derivation makes a one-time selection of a lexical array from the lexicon and then maps the lexical array to the expressions, dispensing with further access to the lexicon (Almansour, 2012). Lexical items, though, are drawn freely from the lexicon throughout the building of a sentence, and thus a level of Deep Structure is no longer available. Chomsky (1995) postulated that within a numeration, both case and φ-features were specified, by lexical entry (intrinsic features) or by derivational operations such as Agree and Move.

In addition to the operation *Select*, the computational system includes three operations which are Merge, Agree and Move. The operation *Merge* takes two syntactic objects (α, β) and form K(α, β). The operation *Merge* is asymmetric, projecting either α or β, the head of the object that projects becoming the prominent label that determines the syntactic and semantic information of the syntactic product (Boeckx, 2006; Haegeman, 2006). For example, the pre-nominal modifiers in Arabic such as Numerals are the head of the Numeral Phrase, while the post-nominal numerals are the specifier of head noun. The operation *Agree* establishes a relationship between a lexical α and a feature F in some restricted search space (its domain) (Chomsky, 2000). For a syntactic outcome K with a label LB(K), LB(K) is the sole category of K that is immediately accessible to a language L. Therefore, it must be the category that activates Agree. By the virtue of uninterpretable feature (Chomsky, 2000), the functional elements are active probes that start searching for the matching goal within the domain of LB(K) (Taha & Sultan, 2016). According to Chomsky (2001), this relation is termed Probe-Goal Matching that induces Agree between categories and eliminates the existing uninterpretable features in the syntactic object. The operation *Move* establishes agreement between α and F, and merges P(F) to αP, where P(F) is a typical phrase that is dominated by F, and αP is a projection headed by α. P(F) then becomes a Spec-α (Chomsky, 2000), for example, by moving DP from the [Spec, VP/v*P] to the [Spec, TP] in order to satisfy further morphological requirements such as EPP on T (Wahab, Razak, & Sultan, 2016).

Feature-based Inheritance Approach

Contra Chomsky (1995, 2000, 2001), Chomsky (2008) claims that T lacks φ-features and tense in the lexicon. Therefore, TP is incapable to form a single phase (Taha, Sultan, & Yasin, 2017).

Nevertheless, he contends that TP is a derivative phase in the sense that it inherits features from C. Put conversely, if selected by C, T projects these features. Otherwise "it is a raising […] infinitival, lacking φ-features and basic tense" (Chomsky, 2008). When T probes down searching for the matching goal, it actually acts to value the features of C. In other words, both C and T form a complex probe which agrees with the matching goal. This matching goal should be the closest DP in a search space. It is the [Spec, v*P] because it has intrinsic φ-features. The matching goal can remain in its situ with its unvalued features deleted via Agree, forming a VSO word order, "it can raise as far as Spec-T, at which point it is inactivated, with all features valued, and cannot raise further to Spec-C" (Chomsky, 2008), producing a SVO word order.

In a parallel to a relation between C and T, Chomsky (2008) argued that the head v transmitted features to lexical V. Therefore, the v*P phase could be formed. He claimed that both v and C comprise two types of features: agree features (φ-features), and edge feature. In addition to these, both T and V inherit case feature from C and v. This feature acts to value the unvalued case feature on both external and internal DPs that will result in nominative subject and accusative object. On the other hand, the edge feature is used to trigger movement of the [Spec, v*P] to the left periphery of the clause forming a SVO word order.
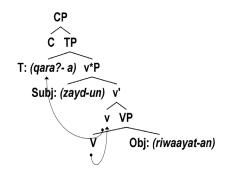
Verbal Agreement in Recent Minimalist Analysis

In his phase-based analysis of agreement in Standard Arabic, Al-Shorafat (2012) assumed that SVO word order did not create a problem with Chomsky's (2008) Phase Theory. According to his assumption, the SVO word order in SA is straightforward, where the subject is attracted from its canonical position in the specifier of v*P to the specifier of TP in order to satisfy an edge feature on T. Besides, he argues that VSO word order is problematic and poses a challenge for Chomsky's theory. He builds an argument that the edge feature always exists on T. This feature must trigger movement of the subject to the left periphery. Therefore, it has to make a violation to the VSO word order. But differently, Alenazy and Saidat (2015) refered the difference in derivation between SVO and VSO word orders to the loss of edge feature in VSO structure. They argued that the non-existence of edge feature on T allowed the subject to remain in situ, thus, the VSO was formed. Fakih (2016) clarified this issue and assumed that the SVO order was marked, while the VSO order was unmarked. In line with Chomsky's (2008) minimalist framework, he proposes that C transmits both φ-features and edge feature to T. These features obtain agreement relation between the post-verbal or preverbal subject and the lexical verb. As for the VSO order, Musabhien (2009) and Fakih (2016) postulated that C lacked an edge feature. However, T category became unable to attract the subject, hence it remained *in*

situ within v*P phase, while in SVO order it moves to the left periphery of the clause because the edge feature is inherited to Top or T. Consider the derivations adopted from Fakih (2016), in (4) and (5) below.

(4) a. **qara?- a**   Zayd-un riwaayat-an

     read 3ms.   Zayd 3ms. Nom novel.Acc

     'Zayd read a novel'

b.

(5) a. al-walad -u   **?akal-a**   al-tuffaah- a

    the-boy.3ms.Nom   ate.2ms.   the-apple.Acc

    'the boy ate the apple'

b.

In clause (4a) whose derivation is shown in (4b), it is observed that the unmarked VSO order is derived by movement of the lexical V *qara?- a* 'read' to the higher functional heads v and T, respectively, as demonstrated by movement arrows. In this structure, there is a restriction that C only inherits φ-features to T, which in turn probes down and agrees with the specifier of v*P, i.e., *Zayd-un*. Since C does not contain edge feature, T becomes incapable to attract this subject. As a result, it remains in situ, and the VSO order is structured. On the contrary, the subject DP *al-waladu*[3] 'the boy' moves from [Spec-v*P] to [Spec-TopP] in (5b). As Fakih (2016) explained, "since the edge feature of the head C of the CP phase is inherited by the Top head, the topicalized elements in Standard Arabic are raised from lower positions to the specifier position of TopP". However, there remain two questions. First, why does verb lose number feature in VSO order, as shown in (6b) below? Second, why do pre-verbal and post-verbal subjects show nominative case, as illustrated in (6a & b)?

(6) a. al-awlaad-u[1]   **?akal-uu** al-tuffaah- a

    the-boys 3mp. Nom ate.3mp the-apple.Acc

    'the boys ate the apple'

[3] Musabhien (2009) and Fakih (2015) explore that the structural (nominative and accusative) Case assignment in SA is present. Case marking system is overtly morphologically realized. The overt nominative marker is the suffix

b. **?akal-a** al-awlaad-u   al-tuffaah- a

ate.3mp the-boys 3mp. Nom the-apple.Acc

'the boys ate the apple'

In order to answer these questions and to place the analysis on a concrete footing, Alenazy and Saidat (2015) pose an empirical analysis that shows the distinction between VSO and SVO orders in SA. This is given in (7).

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(7) a. Unlike SVO, in VSO there is a restriction imposed to the post-verbal subject.

b. In SVO, subject movement takes place after all unvalued φ-features of T have valued and deleted.

c. In VSO, the head T also agrees with pronominal element attaching to the verb.

d. In both orders, C is the sole element that inherits case feature to T in order to assign a nominative case to the preverbal or post-verbal subject.

To see how the pattern in (7) works, Alenazy and Saidat (2015) stated that "definite and indefinite noun phrases alike are allowed to function as post-verbal subjects. In SVO on the other hand, the preverbal noun phrase, which is conceived of as a topic or focus, is generally required to be definite". In a similar way, Musabhien (2009) maintained that the definite DP undergoes movement to the [Spec, TopP], while the indefinite DP moves to the [Spec, TP]. The former is considered as a topic because it is topicalized and specified, whereas the latter is merely a preverbal subject. In two contexts, the pronominal marker attaches to the verb, as illustrated by **-uu⁴** in (6a) above. As for (7b), the Agree operation occurs, first. T is an active probe that agrees with a local goal, i.e., [Spec, v*P]. Via edge feature, this goal will be moved to the left periphery, either in [Spec, TopP] or [Spec, TP]. In terms of (7c), it is assumed that T agrees with a pronominal element which attaches to the verb. Given this, we assert that the edge feature does not exist on T. Therefore, the [Spec, v*P] remains in situ. Through a long-distance agreement, T agrees with a verbal complex,?**akal-uu** 'ate 3mp.', that bears nominal sublabels. This verb, furthermore, undergoes a movement to T and losses its pronominal marker -**uu,** as shown in (6b), given the fact that the pronominal clitic is just a morphological marker that refers to the pre-verbal subject.

With regard to the case value, in parallel to light v that assigns accusative case to the internal DPs, in (7d), C determines a nominative case to either post-verbal or pre-verbal DPs. According to Fakih (2015), the structural case relation such as in (6a) and (6b), goes as follows. In SVO word

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⁴ –**u** while the overt accusative Case marker is the suffix –**a**; both markers are suffixed to nominals. Kremers (2003, p. 35) argued that **"**Arabic has three cases: nominative, genitive and accusative**"**, where genitive case is indicated by the suffix –i added to nominals. Against this, though Mehri has three cases: nominative, genitive and accusative, the case marking system is covertly marked in Mehri.

order, the topic *al-awlaad-u* receives its nominative case in the left periphery of the clause, i.e., [Spec, TopP], while the subject *al-awlaad-u*, in VSO order, receives it in the base position of [Spec, v*P] for the reason that T does not inherit edge feature from C, which is responsible for triggering syntactic movement of the subject from [Spec, v*P] to [Spec, TopP]. In both contexts, C inherits case feature to T. This feature, then, serves to value the unvalued case on pre-verbal or post-verbal subjects. A very strong evidence that supports this assumption is Fakih's (2015) example that is shown in structure (8b):

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(8) a. al-kuttaab-**u**   katab-**uu**   al-riwaayat-a

the.writers.Nom   wrote.3mp   the-story.Acc

'the writers wrote the story'

b. ʔinna al-kuttaab-**a**   katab-**uu** al-riwaayat-a

Comp the-writers.Acc   wrote.3mp. Nom the-story.Acc

'the writers wrote the story'

A closer look at SVO example introduced by the complementizer *ʔinna* in (8b) above reveals that *ʔinna* is an overt Case assigner. It assigns accusative to the pre-verbal DP *al-kuttaab-a* 'the writers' which follows it immediately. Historically, this issue is originally expounded by Arab grammarians such as Sibawayh (768 [Reprinted 1973]), IbnHisham (1211) and Hassan (1961). In more detail, C in (8a) inherits case feature to T, and assigns a nominative case to the

preverbal DP *al-kuttaab-a* 'the writers'. But differently, a similar DP appears with an accusative case in (8b). This DP is directly influenced by an overt C, i.e., *ʔinna*, which inherits case feature to the head Top, and assigns an accusative case to the topicalized subject *al-kuttaab-a* 'the writers'. This supports Chomsky's (2008) assumption that states C has full responsibility to inherit features to the lower functional heads such as T and Top. The assumption henceforth, known as *Feature-based-Inheritance*, is used as the analytical framework for Mehri constructions. These constructions are elicited from authentic materials which have collected in May 2015 by a fieldwork conducted in al-Mahrah, Yemen.

RESULTS

Agreement in Mehri Language

As presented in the introductory section that Mehri allows two prevalent word orders: SVO and VSO, this section shows the correlation between the pre-verbal or post-verbal subjects and the verbs, in terms of φ-features. It also aims to present a satisfactory account for the case assignment given to both the external and internal arguments, namely subject and object. For the sake of clarity and ease of discussion, the analysis is presented as follows.

Verbal Agreement in Mehri VSO Structure

In this subsection, we assume the VSO order as the unmarked structure. The sentence begins with a verb and is immediately followed by a post-verbal subject. It can be

observed in Mehri syntax that the subject shows full agreement to the verb in terms of φ-features (i.e. person, gender and number), while the case assignment is covertly marked (i.e., case marker does not exist). The points are illustrated in the following patterns.

(9) a. *[saḫāṭ   aġayg   ḥōz],*
     *wa **dahāk**   agādas*

slaughtered.3ms the-man.3ms.Nom the-goat.mf.Acc, and stripped.3ms. skin-its.Acc

" **سحَاط** أغَيق حُوز و **دحَاك** اقَادس"
'the man slaughtered the goat, and stripped its skin'

b. *maġōran, [**malh-ōt**   atē
t   ḏakamah gād],
wa **ṭarḥ-ōt**   yarēm*[2]

Then,   salted.3mf. the-woman.3mp.Nom that skin Acc, and put.3mf. yarēm.Acc

*barkah,   wa **waṭbat**-ah,
at-tέ wīkā   ḥanīd*

inside-it Gen. and tanned.3mf-it-Acc., until became.3ms water-skin.Acc.

«مغُورن، **ملحُوت** أتِيث ذَكمه قَاد، و**طرحُوت** إرِيم بِركه و **وطبّته** اتى ويقًا حنَيد»

'Then, the woman salted that skin, she put yarēm inside it and tanned it, until it became the water-skin'

c. ***malh**   atēṯ   ḏakamah
gād*

[salted-X]   the-woman.3mp.Nom that skin Acc

The entire sentences in (9) above, which are illustrated in (9a) and (9b), show an agreement between verbs and post-verbal subjects, respectively. In particular, the verbal roots such as √*sḥṭ* 'to slaughter' and √*dḥk* 'to strip' in (9a) are strong triliteral verbal roots. These verbs enter a computation with φ-feature marker, i.e., infix vowel *-ā-*. This marker actually shows agreement in person, singular, and masculine with the post-verbal subject *aġayg* 'the man'. In the bracketed VSO structure, the verb *saḥāṭ* 'slaughtered' comes before the nominal subject *aġayg* 'the man'. Hence, it is assumed that this verb undergoes movement from its canonical position as the head of v*P, to a higher functional head, it is T (see section 5 below). On the other hand, the strong triliteral verbal roots such as √*mlḥ* 'to salt' and √*ṭrḥ* 'to put', and the weak[5] triliteral verbal root √*wṭb* 'to tan' in (9b) appears with a suffix marker *-ōt* in *malh-ōt* 'salted' and *ṭarḥ-ōt* 'put', and *-at* in *waṭbat* 'tanned'. Nevertheless, the *-t* marker is a proto-Semitic feature that shows

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[5] Verbs in Mehri are lexically subcategorized into triliteral verbs and non-triliteral verbs. The former contains two types: simple three radical roots, and derived types (*ha-type, ša-type* and *ta-type*). In terms of the simple type, it can be divided into strong roots and weak roots. In contrast to simple strong roots whose sounds cannot be changed in any grammatical functions, such as aspect and mood functions, Rubin (2010, p. 149) defined weak verbs **"as verb whose conjugation differs from that of the basic paradigm [….] because of the presence of one or more particular root consonants which cause or have caused phonetic changes".** As for the non-triliteral verbs, this type of verbs contains four or five radical roots.

feminine either in verbs or nouns (Lipiński, 2001). In the context of (9b), both markers show a relationship between the derived verbs and post-verbal subject **atēṯ** 'the woman' in terms of φ-features (i.e., person, singular and feminine). In (9c), the structure is ungrammatical because the ill-formed verb **malh** does not show agreement with its post-verbal subject **atēṯ** 'the woman'.

(10) a. [**hagm-ōh**   *aḳayṣar wa akawb   l-habūn],*

attacked.mdu. [the-tiger and the-wolf.mdu.Nom] on-the people.Gen

wa **ḳaṣr-ōh**   *hāybīt   ṭayt,* *wa* **afawt-ōh**

and killed.mdu. the-camel one Acc, and ran way.mdu

"هقمُوه اقَيْضَر واكَوب لِهَابون، وفْضَرُوه هَايبِيت طَيت، وافْوتُوه"

'*Both tiger and wolf attacked the people, they killed one camel and ran away*'

b. [**ġawḵ-tōh**   *ḵāḵatī ṯrayt   man ḥamōh], wa* **aṡġar-tōh** *ṡtrayr ṭāṭ.*

looked.fdu [frog two fdu.Nom] for the-water.Gen, and saw.fdu. channel one.Acc

wa **farḥ-tōh** *bēh*

one.Gen, and liked.fdu. it.Acc

''غُوقْتُوه فَاقَاتي ثرَيت من حمُوه، واشْغَرتُوه اشْترَير طَاط، وفْرحتُوه بِه''

'*two frogs looked for the water, they saw one channel, and liked it*

c. *__hagm__   *aḳayṣar wa akawb l-habūn*

[**attacked.X**] the-tiger and the-wolf.mdu.Nom to-the people.Gen

In a similar way, the strong triliteral verbal roots such as √**hgm** 'to attack', √**ḵṣr** 'to kill' and √**flt** 'to run away' in (10a) are drawn with a suffix marker **-ōh**. The suffix morphologically show agreement between three derived verbs: **hagm-ōh** 'attacked', **ḵaṣr-ōh** 'killed' and **afawt-ōh** 'ran away' (the l sound replaced by w in the Mehri dialect under study), and the genuine subject **aḳayṣar wa akawb** 'both tiger and wolf', in terms of φ-features (i.e., person, dual and masculine). On the contrary, the verbal roots √**ġlḵ** 'to look', √**ṡġr** 'to see' and √**frḥ** 'to like' in (10b) associate with a suffix **-tōh**. This process results in the verbs such as follows: **ġawḵ-tōh** 'looked', **aṡġar-tōh** 'saw' and **farḥ-tōh** 'liked'. In other words, the suffix **-tōh** makes a correlation between the main first verb **ġawḵ-tōh** 'looked' and the post-verbal subject **ḵāḵatī ṯrayt** 'two frogs' in φ-features (person, dual and feminine). A similar suffix in **aṡġar-tōh** 'saw' and **farḥ-tōh** 'liked' also refers to the genuine subject in the bracketed VSO order. Moreover, there is a mismatch between the ungrammatical verb **hagm** and **aḳayṣar wa akawb** 'both tiger and wolf'. Thus, the structure (10c) becomes ill-formed because the verb does not show agreement with its post-verbal subject.

(11) a. *[saḥāṭ-am   aġyūg hārawn],   wa   dḥāk-am tēsan,*

slaughtered.3mp.   the-men.3mp. Nom   the-goats.Acc.   and stripped.3mp them.Acc.

"سحَاطَم اغيوُق هَارون، ودحَاكَم تِيسن"

'The men slaughtered the goats. They stripped them'

b. *maġōran, [mōlah   yanēṯ laykamah gīlēd], wa ṭōraḥ   yarēm*

Then,   salted.3fp. women.3fp. Nom those skins Acc, and put.3fp. yarēm.Acc

barkē-ham, wa waṭb-ēham,   at-tɛ́ waḳā-m   ḥanōd

inside-them, and tanned-them, until became.3mp.   water-skins.Acc

"مغُورن، مُولح إنبث لِيَكمه قِيلِيد، وطُورح إريِم بركِيهَم، ووطبيهَم اتى وقَام حنَود"

'Then, the women salted those skins, they put yarēm inside them, and tanned them, until they became water-skin'

c. **saḥāṭ   aġyūg   hārawn*

[slaughtered.X]   the-men.3mp. Nom the-goats.Acc.

In (11a), the bracketed VSO order is formed. Within this, the verbal root √*shṭ* 'to slaughter' associates with a suffix *-am* in order to agree with its post-verbal subject *aġyūg* 'the men'. Specifically, the suffix *-am* considers as φ-marker (person, plural and masculine) that shows agreement with the

genuine subject. Otherwise, the structure becomes ill-formed as presented in (11c). In contrast, the plural feminine marker in (11b) is shown by vocalic melody. This means that the vocalic sound such as *-ō*, which has been inserted to the verb *mōlah* 'salted' and *ṭōraḥ* 'put' maintains agreement with the subject *aġyūg* 'the men'. However, the agreement in person, plural and feminine features is interpreted between these constituents.

Verbal Agreement in Mehri SVO Structure

As discussed in subsection 4.1 above, the agreement is fully shown in VSO order, where the verb totally agrees with its post-verbal subject. In this subsection, we argue that the pre-verbal subject undergoes movement to the initial position of the clause from its base position in v*P (see section 5 below). As a result, the SVO order in Mehri is formed. It is a marked structure because the nominal subject replaces its base position. Within SVO order, we assume that there is a strong correlation between the verb and its pre-verbal subject in terms of φ-features. The correlation is explored in patterns (12), (13) and (14) below.

(12) a. *[Ahmēd   hagg ḍēr haybīt],   maġōran*

Ahmēd.3ms.Nom pilgrimaged.3ms. on   the-camel. fs.Gen, then

habṭā,   wa wīṣal   m-ḍēr atawḳayf

was late.3ms., and arrived.3ms. after the-day-of-Arafat

"احميد **حق** ظِ؈ِ هَاييبيت، مغُورن **هِبطَا،**
وويِصِل مظِ؈ اتوقَّيِف"

*'Ahmēd pilgrimaged on the camel.
He was late, and arrived
after the day of Arafat'*

b. *wa āmōr,* [*ḏīkmah haybīt*
aḥakṭ-ōt *ḥalakamah], **wa
āmlōt***

And said.3ms., that the-camel.3fs.
Nom gave-birth.3fs. there,   and
made.3fs.

   mēkan šaxōf
   much milḳ.Acc

"وامور ذِكمه هَاييبيت **احڧْطُوت** حلَكمه،
واملوُت مِيكن اِشخوف"

*'He said that the camel gave-birth
there. and made much
milk'*

c. *ḏīkmah *haybīt*   *aḥakṭ
      ḥalakamah*
      that the-camel.3fs.Nom **[gave-
      birth.X]** there,

The sentences in (12) above, which are observed in (12a) and (12a), appear with full agreement between the pre-verbal subject and the rest of verbs in each structure. In (12a), the geminate verbal root √*ḥgg* 'to pilgrimage' and its preverbal subject ***Ahmēd*** are in a SVO word order. This verbal root associates with a vocalic melody, i.e., */a/*, which allows it to agree with preverbal subject in person, singular and masculine φ-features. Following this, the ha-type verb ***ha-√bṭ*** 'to be late' and the strong triliteral verbal root √*wṣl* 'to arrive' show similar agreement with the genuine pre-verbal subject. In particular, the sound */ʕ/* is inflected into a long vowel */ā/* in ***habṭā*** 'was late', while the long vowel */ī/* is inserted in √*wṣl*, as shown in ***wīṣal*** 'arrived'.

In (12b), the strong triliteral verbal root √*ḥkṭ*[6] 'to give birth' is attached to a suffix ***-ōt***. This suffix has a significant function to represent agreement with preverbal subject ***ḏīkmah haybīt*** 'that camel'in that the pre-verbal subject ***ḏīkmah haybīt*** correlates with the main verb ***aḥakṭ-ōt*** 'gave birth', and agrees with it in person, singular and feminine φ-features. Moreover, the suffix ***-ōt*** attaches with the weak triliteral root √*ʕml* 'to make', and result in the second verb in a structure, that is ***āml-ōt*** 'made', which totally agrees with the pre-verbal subject. In (12c), the sentence is ungrammatical because the verb does not maintain φ-feature marker ***-ōt*** that serves to show agreement with the preverbal subject.

(13) a. *[Aššargī wa Ahmēd   **ḥagg-
      ōh**   ḍēr haybīt-i ṯrayt],*

   Aššargī   wa   Ahmēd.3mdu.Nom
   pilgrimaged.3mdu. on the-camel-
   du two.Gen

   *maġōran **habṭ-ōh**,   wa **waṣl-ōh**
   m-ḍēr atawḳayf*

---

[6] Interestingly, there are equivalent verbs that express the meaning of 'giving new birth' in Mehri lexicon. These verbs actually refer to the type of the subject that performs the action; it is either to be camel, goat/cow etc. or women. For example, consider the following:

   a- ***haybīt aḥakt-ōt*** 'the camel gave birth'
   b- ***baḳrēt/ḥōz haġīg-ōt*** 'the cow/goat gave birth'
   c- ***atēt barw-ōt*** 'the woman gave birth'
The verbal root √*ḥkṭ* 'to give brith' is only used for camels, while the two verbal roots: √*brw* and √*hġg* are used in different contexts. The former is used for woman and the latter is used for cow, goat, etc.

then,   were.3mdu. and arrived.3mdu. after the-day-of-Arafat.Gen

,, اشرقي واحميد **حقُوه** ظِير هَايِبيتي ثرَيت، مغُورن **هبطوه**، و**وصِلُوه** مظِير اتوقْيف‚‚

'Aššargī and Ahmēd pilgrimaged on two camels. They were late, and arrived after the day of Arafat'

b. *wa āmr-ōh,   [dnaymah haybīt-i trayt   aḥakṭ-tōh ḥalakamah]*

and said.3mdu., these.fdu camel. fdu. two.fdu,Nom gave birth.3fdu. there

wa āmal-tōh   mēkan śaxōf

and made.3fdu. much milk.Acc

,, وامرُوه ذِكمه هَايبيت **أحفْطُوت** حلَكمه، و**املُوت** مِيكن اشْخوف‚‚

'And they said 'these two camels gave birth there, and made much milk'

c. **Aššargī wa Ahmēd   ḥagg ḍēr haybīt-i trayt*

Aššargī wa Ahmēd.3mdu.Nom **[pilgrimaged.X]** on the-camel-du two.Gen

As for the duality, the pronominal suffix *-ōh* in (13a) attaches to the verbs as in **ḥagg-ōh** 'pilgrimaged', **habṭ-ōh** 'were late' and **waṣl-ōh** 'arrived' in order to show agreement with pre-verbal subject **Aššargī wa Ahmēd** 'two personal names in Mehri'. Particularly,

the correlation between these constituents is defined as follows; the suffix marks agreement in φ-features (person, dual and masculine) between the pre-verbal subject and all verbs which immediately follow it. In a similar way, the pronominal suffix *-tōh* in (13b) attaches to verbs as in **aḥakṭ-tōh** 'gave birth' and **āmal-tōh** 'made'. This suffix shows agreement between these verbs and the pre-verbal subject **dnaymah haybīt-i trayt** 'these two camels'. Specifically, the existence of pronominal suffix *-tōh* has a significant role to show agreement in person, dual and feminine between the preverbal subject and the following verbs, otherwise the sentence will be crashed, as presented by the ill-formed structure in (13c) above.

(14) a. [*Aššargī wa Ahmēd wa bar Madayh   ḥagg-am   ḍēr śahlīṯ habѐr].*

Aššargī,   Ahmēd   and bar   Madayh.3mp.Nom pilgrimaged.3mp. on three camels. Gen

maġōran habṭ-am,   wa waṣl-am m-ḍēr atawḳayf

then,   were.3mp. and arrived.3mp. after   the-day-of-Arafat.Gen

,,اشرقي واحميد وبرمديه **حقَم** ظِير بشهلْيث هبِير، مغُورن **هبطَام**، و**وصِلَم** مظِير اتوقْيف‚‚

Aššargī, Ahmēd and bar Madayh pilgrimaged on two camels. They were late, and arrived after the day of Arafat'

b. wa *āmōr-am*, [*layakama*h *šahlīṯ habè̇r* **aḥḵōṭ** *ḥalakamah*],

said.3mp.   those three camels.3fp.Nom gave birth.3fp. there,

wa **āymal**   mēkan *šaxōf*

and made.3fp. much milk.Acc

„وامورم ليكمه يْشهأَليث هبير **احڤُوط** حلَكمه،
واي**مل** مِيكن اشْخوف"

'And they said 'those three camels gave birth there, and made much milk'

c. **Aššargī wa Ahmēd wa bar Madayh* **ḥagg** *ḏēr šahlīṯ habè̇r*

Aššargī,   Ahmēd   and bar   Madayh.3mp.Nom **[pilgrimaged.X]** on three camels. Gen

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As for the plurality, the pronominal suffix *-am* in (14a) is added to the verbs as in **ḥagg-am** 'pilgrimaged', **habṭ-am** 'were late' and **waṣl-am** 'arrived'. It shows agreement in person, plural and masculine features between these verbs and the pre-verbal subject *Aššargī wa Ahmēd wa bar Madayh* 'three personal names'. In (14c), the ungrammatical verb **ḥagg** lacks a pronominal suffix. It does not agree with its pre-verbal subject that originally bears plural and masculine features. The sentence, therefore, is crashed. On the other hand, the verbs **aḥḵōṭ** 'gave birth' and **āymal** 'made' agree with the pre-verbal subject 'those three camels' in terms of person, plural and feminine φ-features. As discussed in

(12a) and (12b), the vocalic melody */a/* and the diphthong */ay/* are interpreted as the plural feminine markers, which create an agreement between two verbs: **aḥḵōṭ** 'give birth' and **āymal** **'**made', and the plural pre-verbal subject: *layakama*h *šahlīṯ habè̇r* 'those three camels'.

DISCUSSION

Derivation of SVO and VSO Structures in Mehri

In section 4, it should be argued that verbs in Mehri must show full agreement with subjects, regardless of whether they are pre-verbal or post-verbal subjects. Through specific affixes, verbs correlate with the genuine subject in a sentence; otherwise the structure must be crashed, as investigated by (9c), (10c), (11c), (12c), (13c) and (14c) above. In this section, we explore how VSO and SVO word orders are derived morph-syntactically in Mehri and in turn propose two clause structures of these word orders on the basis of Chomsky's (2008) feature-based-inheritance approach. We adopt the analysis of Kufa[7] school grammarians, who have assumed that both a post-subject

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[7] According to Abdul-Raof (2001), traditional Arab grammarians belong to two grammar schools: *Baṣra* school grammarian and *Kūfa* school grammarian (primary schools of linguistics located in Iraq (Shah, 2003)). According to *Baṣra* school grammarian, the post-verbal DP in VSO in Arabic is ***fā'il*** 'agent' while the preverbal DP in SVO is ***mubtada'*** 'that with which a beginning is made'. As for the *Kūfa* school grammarian, post-verbal and pre-verbal DPs would be assigned the same function and denotation ***fā'il*** 'agent' and ***fā'il muqaddam*** 'fronted agent'.

or pre-subject would be assigned the same function and denotation, these are called **fā'il** 'agent' or **fā'il muqaddam** 'fronted agent', respectively (Abdul-Raof, 2001). According to Musabhien (2009), Alotaibi (2013) and Fakih (2016), the subject is topicalized by movement to the specifier of TopP in order to form a SVO word order in SA, as presented in (5b) above. In this paper, our argument for the derivation of SVO structure in Mehri is two-fold. First, we contend that definite subject undergoes movement from [Spec, v*P] to [Spec, TopP]. It is henceforth called a Topic. Second, we assume that indefinite subject moves from [Spec, v*P] to [Spec, TP]. It is, thus, called a fronted subject. Contra Musabhien (2009), We build our argument on that Mehri allows two types of DPs: definite DP or indefinite DP, which occupy the left periphery of the clause. Consider pattern (15) below.

---

(15) a. *aġayg*   *saḥāṭ ḥōz*

the-man.3ms.Nom slaughtered.3ms. the-goat.Acc.

'the man slaughtered the goat'

b. *ġayg*   *saḥāṭ*   *ḥōz*

a-man.3ms.Nom slaughtered.3ms. the-goat.Acc.

'a man slaughtered the goat'

c. *saḥāṭ*   *ḥōz*

slaughtered.3ms.Nom the-goat. Acc.

'he slaughtered the goat'

---

d. *saḥāṭ*   *aġayg/ ġayg ḥōz*

slaughtered.3ms. the/a-man.3ms. Nom the-goat.Acc.

'the man slaughtered the goat'
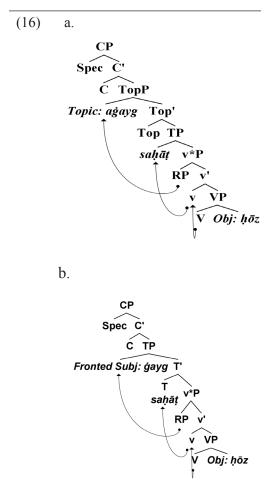
e. *saḥāṭ*   *aġayg/ ġayg ḥōz*

Did-slaughtere.3ms.   the/a-man.3ms.Nom the-goat.Acc.

'Did the man slaughtered the goat?'

(15a) and (15b) show that in SVO the pre-verbal subject must necessarily be a full DP that totally agrees in φ-features with its verb. It can appear in the form of a pronominal clitic infixed to the verb, as illustrated in (15c). In other words, verbs in Mehri are drawn with pronominal references, which are wired with an overt subject such as (15a) and (15b) or a covert/*pro* subject as shown in (15c). The diversity of (in)-definiteness feature in both clauses does not affect the syntactic structures. Rather, it gives a specific interpretation to each clause. For example, clause (15a) is topicalized and specified because its peripheral subject **aġayg** 'the man' is definite DP. In this case, we assume that the presence of the feature on the head Top of TopP motivates the topicalized subject in SVO order in Mehri to undergo movement from [Spec-v*P] to [Spec-TopP]. On the other hand, clause (15b) is a generic structure that begins with an indefinite subject **ġayg** 'a man'. However, the generic subject moves from [Spec-v*P] to [Spec, TP].

Now let us examine how the Mehri data interact with Chomsky's (2008) feature-based-inheritance analysis. The objective is to explore whether the feature inheritance framework can be applicable in Mehri Syntax. Let us take the example in (15a) and (15b) to be derived in (16a) and (16b) in order to illustrate the issue clearly.

(16)   a.

b.

From the geometric tree in (16a), it is obvious that the lexical verb *saḥāṭ* 'slaughtered' moves higher from its base position V to the functional light position v which in turn agrees with object *ḥōz* 'the

goat'. According to Chomsky (2008), light v bears unvalued φ-features and case feature. Based on this view, we argue that light v is an active probe that must search for a matching goal in order to value its -interpretable features (i.e., -mp.). It, then, probes down to agree with the object *ḥōz* 'the goat' that contains intrinsic φ-features (i.e., +mf.). On the other hand, this object contains unvalued case that requires valuation. Upwards, the object agrees with a case assigner, light v, in which the object *ḥōz* 'the goat' is covertly assigned by an accusative case (Mahajan, 2012).
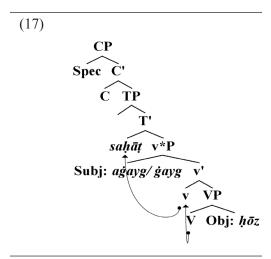
Furthermore, unvalued φ-features on T initiate an Agree relation with the subject in [Spec-v*P], i.e., *aġayg* 'the man'. This subject moves from [Spec-v*P] to [Spec-TopP]. In this connection, we postulate that since the edge feature of the head C of the CP phase is inherited by the Top head, the definite subject in Mehri is raised from base position to the left periphery of TopP, and becomes a topic. Following Fakih's (2016) view, we argue that the topic in (16a) leaves behind a resumptive pronoun (RP) in the specifier position of v*P. Besides, the Mehri clause structure in (16a) above shows that the edge feature (EF) of the head Top of TopP is inherited from C and φ-features of T are also inherited from C in the same manner. Building on Chomsky's (2008) Feature-based-Inheritance, we assume that both heads: Top and T inherit their features from the head C of the CP phase. Specifically, this assumption goes as follows; T inherits φ-features (-3ms.), and agrees with [Spec, v*P] that contains corresponding valued φ-features (+3mp.),

while Top inherits edge feature and case features from C which motivate DP *aġayg* 'the man' to move from [Spec, v*P], and assigns with a covert nominative case (Fakih, 2015). Hence all -interpretable features are valued and deleted in the syntax, thus deriving a topicalized SVO structure in Mehri.

In (16b), it is clear that TopP projection does not exist. We refer this point to the fact that the subject is indefinite that only moves higher from [Spec, v*P] to [Spec, TP]. Building on Musabhien's (2009) assumption that says, in Arabic dialects such as Jordanian dialect, the subject only moves to the specifier of TP, we assume that T in Mehri inherits a set of features from C. These features are unvalued φ-features (-3ms.), edge feature, and case feature. So, T is an active probe that agrees with indefinite subject *ġayg* 'a man', i.e., [Spec, v*P], which in turn is active that is assigned by a nominative case feature on T. Hence all -interpretable features are valued and deleted in the syntax, and the edge feature on T serves to trigger movement of [Spec, v*P] to the specifier of TP, thus deriving a non-topicalized SVO structure in Mehri. In (16b), we assume that the specifier is not a topic, as seen in (16a). Rather, it is a fronted subject that lacks definite feature.

Moving to VSO word order in Mehri, it can be commonly stated that the VSO order is treated as unmarked order. We argue that the genuine subject in this language has to stay in situ, that is, it has to remain in [Spec-v*P]. It does not move higher to either [Spec, TP] or [Spec, TopP], regardless of its in-definiteness feature. Furthermore, given Chomsky's (2008) minimalist analysis, we

explore how VSO in Mehri is obtained in minimalist syntax. It is only derived by movement of the lexical verb from V to the functional head v (i.e. the light verb) and then to the functional head T (Fakih, 2016), not the head Foc, as assumed by Musabhien (2009). The Agree relation occurs between the functional head v (the probe) and the object (the goal), from one hand, and the functional head T (the probe) and the subject (the goal), on the other. However, it should be pointed out that in Chomsky's (2008) Feature-based-Inheritance, the Agree operation operates downward for the sake of feature valuation purposes. As a consequence, the -interpretable features of the functional heads (v and T) and the nominals (object and subject) are valued and hence deleted under the Agree relation. Let us demonstrate the VSO structure in (15d) by the derivational process shown in (17) below.

(17)

The syntactic derivation in (17) shows that the unmarked VSO order in Mehri is derived by movement of the lexical V to the higher functional heads v and T,

respectively. In the spirit of Chomsky's (2008) analysis, we assume that in VSO order in Mehri the post-verbal subject DP *aġayg* 'the man' or *ġayg* 'a man' does not raise from its base position of [Spec-v*P] because it has its features valued and deleted under the Agree relation with the c-commanding T. The justification as to why [Spec-v*P] remains in situ in Mehri can be attributed to the assumption that the head C in VSO order does not have an edge feature (vs. SVO order) (Fakih, 2016; Musabhien, 2009). This means that no movement of the subject is required in this context. In particular, we argue that T in Mehri enters into computation with a set of features inherited from C. These are unvalued φ-features and case feature (i.e., -3ms. and nominative assignment). Therefore, it is an active probe that c-commends with the subject DP *aġayg* 'the man' or *ġayg* 'a man' which in turn has unvalued case feature. Hence, the Agree relation is established between these two elements. Since T lacks an edge feature, the subject has to stay in its original position in [Spec, v*P], and is assigned by a covert nominative case.

Furthermore, the lexical V *saḥāṭ* 'slaughtered' moves higher to light v in order to support non-lexical features. This movement results in a complex verb with both causative and accusative features. As the Agree relation operates downward, the complex verb agrees with object and assigns it with an accusative case. On the other hand, the lexical verb *saḥāṭ* 'slaughtered' has a pronominal reference (i.e., infix; *-ā-* that shows +3ms.). Thus it moves higher to adjoin

with T, forming a full agreement between the T and the valued subject that remains in situ in [Spec-v*P] under long-distance agree (Chomsky, 2008). A piece of strong evidence that supports this assumption is the example shown in (15c) above. In (15c), the subject is a phonologically null element, while its labels are drawn with the lexical verb *saḥāṭ* 'slaughtered'. However, we assume that the lexical verb, in this context, is the only local goal that c-commends with T, and values in unvalued φ-features (-3ms.). Besides, T inherits case feature from C, and assigns a nominative case to the pronominal affix on V, assuming it as the marker for the null nominative subject. Moreover, the lexical verb *saḥāṭ* 'slaughtered' in (15e) is focalized. It is originally located in V and then moves through three functional heads: v, T and Foc in order to satisfy some morphological requirements. Once it reaches head Foc, the Focus Projection (FocP) is formed between CP and TP layers. Hence the structure will be interpreted as an interrogative clause, not a declarative clause since the lexical verb is focalized and inherently shows do-inversion question.

CONCLUSION

This paper has shown agreement in Mehri and pointed out how the syntactic word orders: SVO and VSO are derived on the basis of Chomsky's (2008) feature-based-inheritance approach. This study aims at presenting a satisfactory account on pre-verbal and post-verbal subjects. It argues that Mehri shows full agreement between lexical verb and its subject, wherever it is

located in a sentence. In other words, the lexical verb in Mehri exhibits a complete φ-agreement with its pre-verbal subject in SVO order or post-verbal subject in VSO order. This agreement is obviously marked by specific suffixes attached to the lexical verb when the subject is dual and masculine plural. But if the subject is singular and feminine plural, the lexical verb must contain specific infixes, namely vocalic melodies.

The study has also presented an alternative analysis for the syntactic word order in Mehri on the basis of Chomsky's (2008) feature-based-inheritance approach. In SVO word order, it proposes that because the edge feature of the head C of the CP phase is inherited by the Top head, the definite subject is topicalized in Mehri. It is then raised from a lower position in [Spec, v*P] to a higher position [Spec, TopP]. On the other hand, the edge feature is inherited by T head from C to move the indefinite subject from the specifier of v*P to the specifier of TP. Besides, building on the analysis of Arab grammarians expounded by Abdul-Raof (2001), we proposed that the definite subject in Mehri is a topic, while the indefinite subject is a fronted subject in which the lexical verb must bear pronominal markers which are morphologically linked to the pre-verbal subject. On the contrary, this study argued that the subject in VSO order in Mehri has to stay in situ in [Spec, v*P], while the lexical verb moves higher to T, not to Foc, and totally agrees with its

post-verbal subject. This is because T lacks an edge feature inherited from C of the CP phase.

Moreover, we demonstrated that regardless of whether the subject, i.e. the goal with which C agrees, is located in [Spec, v*P] in VSO or in [Spec, TopP] and [Spec, TP] in SVO, the Agree operation is applied. Hence all -interpretable features on T (-φ-features) and unvalued cases on subject or object are valued and deleted by matching them with their valued counterparts. In this connection, we assumed that the functional light v c-commends the object in [v*P, Comp], and the functional T c-commend the subject in [Spec, v*P]. In a covert syntax, the former is assigned by an accusative case, while the latter is assigned by a nominative case. With regard to the CP phase, we proposed that C is the only element that takes the responsibility to inherit agreement and nominative case to T and Top. In addition, we showed that VSO and SVO in Mehri differ from each other in that the subject in VSO remains in situ while it undergoes movement from [Spec-v*P] to [Spec-TopP] or [Spec, TP] in SVO.

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In Vitro Fertilisation: Women's Questions and Concerns in a Malaysian Online Forum

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ABSTRACT

Studies have shown that infertility may be caused by male factors, female factors, a mixture of both male and female factors, or due to unexplained reasons. Nevertheless, in some societies, infertility is frequently seen as solely a woman's problem and women with infertility problems are often forced to suffer blame and humiliation in silence. For example, in Malaysia, a barren married woman is looked down upon, has a lower status, and may be divorced from her husband. Infertility becomes a taboo topic and therefore, not much is known about Malaysian women with infertility problems. However, with the anonymity afforded by computer-mediated communication (CMC), these women are now turning to the online medium for help. This study uses the web content analysis method to investigate the inquiries made by Malaysian women over *in vitro* fertilization (IVF), a type of infertility treatment, in a local online forum. The findings revealed that the questions asked by women in the forum were primarily concerned with seeking information about IVF. Other types of questions asked include opinion-seeking and questions requesting experience-sharing. These women were also found to use various solidarity strategies to support and encourage one another in persevering with their treatment.

Keywords: Infertility, *in vitro* fertilization, Online, Questions, Solidarity, Women

INTRODUCTION

Producing progeny is important, more so in some societies than others. In the Malaysian society, progeny is considered so important that women with infertility problems feel it is taboo to let anyone know of their predicament lest they be blamed, ostracized, or worse, abused. An infertile

woman is looked down upon (Akhtar, 2011), and is it also common for an infertile wife to suffer abuse and assault by her husband, sometimes divorced to enable the man to marry another wife on the grounds of preserving the family lineage (Sabki, 2010).

Consequently, many Malaysian women with infertility problems are likely to keep their problems to themselves, and are often ignorant of where or how to seek help. In a 2012 research (Starting Families Asia), it was found that about 75% of Malaysian women believed that infertility was God's will (*The Star*, 2012). It was futile to seek treatment as infertility was considered incurable without divine intervention. About 50% of them thought infertility was about luck and thus, women who were unable to conceive were just unlucky (*The Star*, 2012). For these women, they also believed they were just as powerless to initiate any change to improve their situation. The research also showed that 80% of the Malaysian women assumed infertility to be entirely the woman's fault (*The Star*, 2012), putting themselves under a tremendous amount of pressure to have children without realizing that infertility can affect both men and women.

Nonetheless, now concealment of identities is possible with the advent of computer-mediated communication (CMC) (Bae, 2016; Herring 2001; Keipi, Oksanen, & Rasanen, 2015; Misoch, 2015). Malaysian women with infertility problems are finally able to open up about their problems. They no longer need to be worried about being humiliated and degraded by people known to them.

However, as yet, not much is known about Malaysian women with infertility problems, in particular the kinds of questions they may have and would like to ask, if given the chance to openly enquire about their problems and the types of treatment available to them. This study intends to find out the types of issues that matter to Malaysian women when making inquiries over IVF, a form of infertility treatment, in a local online forum.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Women's Online Communication on Health Issues

In terms of seeking support on health-related issues, CMC is gaining increasing popularity as it offers participants opportunities to gain information, obtain support, and discuss on a variety of health concerns while maintaining anonymity (Hanna & Gough, 2018; Hughes, Locock, & Zibland, 2013; Mo & Coulson, 2008; Sillence, Hardy, Briggs, & Harris, 2013). Perhaps what is more important in online support groups is that interaction with other in similar predicament may help reduce feelings of loneliness and isolation in participants. According to Naslund, Aschbrenner, Marsch, and Bartels (2016), the sense of group belonging experienced by participants in online support groups could help "promote recovery, self-esteem and physical wellbeing among individuals".

In relation to men and women participants in CMC, previous research indicate that women are more likely to participate in online patient support groups compared to men (Hallyburton & Evans,

2014; Mo, Malik, & Coulson, 2009). One possible reason for the different ratio of men and women needing and seeking help could be the traditional perceptions of what defines masculinity and femininity (Courtney, 2000). Men are traditionally expected to be self-sufficient and objective while women, on the other hand, are allowed to be dependent and emotional (Murnen, Greenfield, Younger, & Boyd, 2016; Seale, 2006). As such, help-seeking may be seen as a sign of weakness in men, and thus, viewed with disapproval by society. In contrast, women who seek help do not contradict the stereotypical expectation of female behavior (Jan, 1999).

Most studies examining women communication in online support groups focused on discourse strategies of women in breast cancer (Blank & Adams-Blodnieks, 2007; Klemm, Hurst, Dearholt, & Trone, 1999; Owen, Klapow, Roth, & Tucker, 2004; Seale, Ziebland, & Charteris-Black, 2006; Sillence, 2013) and ovarian cancer online support groups (Sullivan, 2003). The findings of the studies showed that online messages written by the women were generally emotion-focused, with a higher frequency of words related to emotional disclosure (Mo et al., 2009; Owen et al., 2004). It was found that the women tended to discuss their feelings (Seale et al., 2006) and shared personal experiences (Klemm et al., 1999). Hence, these findings seemed to concur with Herring's (1996) description of typical female CMC language that inclines toward elements of "supportiveness" and "community building".

There were, however, fewer studies conducted on other types of health topics. For instance, Burri, Baujard, and Etter's (2006) study on an online forum for ex-smokers reported similar findings on women's discourse strategies that emphasized personal disclosure, sharing, reaching out, and positivity, with discussions on therapy and offering of emotional support. Interestingly, in their investigation of women's online depression support group, Salem, Bogat, and Reid (1997) found women tended to make structure or process comments, while men were more inclined to reveal and share personal experiences (Nimrod, 2012).

In short, online health support groups are more popular among women than men, and while most studies indicated women were more likely to reveal emotions and share experiences in their online messages, different medical conditions could also bring about different types of psychosocial needs. As such, this could result in varying and even possibly conflicting findings (Mo et al., 2009).

Infertility as a Health Issue

A widely accepted definition of infertility is "the failure to achieve a clinical pregnancy after 12 months or more of regular unprotected sexual intercourse" (World Health Organization [WHO], 2015). Some researchers and medical practitioners also consider infertility as the inability to maintain a pregnancy to live birth (Fidler & Bernstein, 1999).

Infertility is a global health issue. It affects more than 80 million people (Hasanpoor-Azyhdy, Simbar, & Vedadhir, 2014), which is 8% to 10% of couples worldwide (Reproductive Health Outlook, 2003; Roupa et al., 2009). However, according to the WHO, there are in fact, many more infertile couples than reported, especially in developing countries where infertility is considered taboo (Rutstein & Iqbal, 2004). As many as 186 million people have been estimated to suffer from infertility (Inhorn & Patrizion, 2015).

About 30% of infertility cases are due to male factors. Another 30% due to female factors, and the remaining 40% of the cases are caused by either a mixture of both male and female factors, or unexplained causes (LaMotte, 2015).

In cases of female infertility, problems in ovulation and in the fallopian tubes are the most common causes of infertility (Blundell, 2007). One ovulatory problem is the insufficient levels of luteinizing hormone (LH) that can delay or prevent ovulation (Bundell, 2007). The luteal phase deficiency is another ovulatory problem where the endometrium is not mature enough to support embryo implantation despite successful fertilization (Bayer, Alper, & Penzias, 2002). Some women also suffer from ovulatory dysfunction such as poorly developed, genetically abnormal, or inexistent ovaries (Guyton & Hall, 2000). Problems in the fallopian tubes resulting in infertility include diseased or damaged fallopian tubes. One or both tubes may be blocked, the mucosal lining may be damaged, and sometimes, the tubes are damaged due to pelvic inflammatory disease caused by the use of intrauterine devices (Blundell, 2007).

In male infertility, the most common cause is oligospermia, where the semen either contains too few spermatozoa, or the spermatozoa are of low quality (Blundell, 2007). Other factors are azoospermia, a medical condition whereby there is no sperm production (Leese, 1988), abnormal morphology of spermatozoa (Guyton & Hall, 2000), varicocele (dilated scrotal vein affecting sperm production) (Bayer, et al., 2002), and genetic defects (Blundell, 2007).

It is also possible that there is infertility diagnosis in both partners, that is, both partners suffer from one or more reproductive problems, while some couples have no demonstrable cause of infertility in either partner (Bayasgalan et al., 2004). In cases of unexplained infertility, these couples are normally asked to resort to IVF, a type of infertility treatment that involves several procedures with fertilization taking place outside the body and later, the embryo being transferred to the uterus (Voorhis, 2007).

The effects of infertility are pervasive, extending beyond just the inability to have children. Infertility has been found to be a source of extreme stress for many couples, with infertile couples experiencing psychological and emotional distress, social stigma, isolation, a sense of role failure, and loss of control (Daly, 1999; Greil 1991; Miall, 1986). Childless couples may also feel a sense of marred identity, especially

when parenthood is considered pivotal to their marriage's experiences and identities (Hays, 1996).

In developing countries, the consequences of infertility are much worse and severe, particularly in Asia and Africa (Gerrits, 2002; Ombelet, Cooke, Dyer, Serour, & Devroey, 2008). The psychological effects of infertility like guilt, shame, depression, grief, and worthlessness are often greater in breadth and depth in couples in developing countries compared to developed societies (Dyer, Abrahams, Mokoena, & van der Spuy, 2004; Ombelet, 2011; Papreen et al., 2000). Having biological children is crucial not only to ensure marriage stability, but more importantly, to continue the family name and lineage (Dyer, 2007). Childlessness can also cause serious economic deprivation, especially in societies where parents are economically completely dependent on their children in their old age (Inhorn & van Balen, 2002), and in some cultures such as the Ethiopians, childlessness could mean total loss of social status (Deribe, Anberbir, Regassa, Belachew, & Biadgilign, 2007).

Yet, perhaps the ones who suffer the most from infertility are the women in developing countries (Ombelet, 2011). Although infertility affects both men and women, due to ignorance and social prejudices, infertility is still perceived as largely a woman's problem irrespective of which partner is infertile (Deribe et al., 2007; Van den Broeck, Emery, Wischmann, & Thorn, 2010). As a result, these women bear the brunt of the infertility stigma, suffering from condemnation, disinheritance, isolation, neglect, and polygamy (Hollos, Larsen, Obono, & Whitehouse, 2009; Ombelet, 2011; Samuel, 2006). Some women become victims of physical and psychological violence (Dyer, 2007; Gerrits, 1997; Ombelet et al., 2008; Richards, 2002; Sundby, 1997; Umezulike & Efetie, 2004; Wiersema et al., 2006), and in some cases, even starved (Ombelet et al., 2008), killed (Times Now, 2016), and driven to suicide (Ombelet et al., 2008; Springen, 2008; Times of India, 2009).

Consequently, the psychological distress experienced by women is much more severe than men (Greil, 1991). A study by Freeman, Boxer, Rickels, Tureck, and Mastoinni (1985) showed approximately half of the women receiving infertility treatment considered infertility as the most stressful experience of their life, as opposed to only 15% of men. Domar, Zuttermeister, and Friedman (1993) even found that the levels of anxiety and depression among women with infertility problems were comparable to those with cancer.

The gravity of childlessness to a woman's self-worth and psychological balance, coupled with their fear of societal condemnation and possible abuse, has led to women being secretive about their infertility problems. Consequently, women, especially those in developing countries, are often ignorant of their problem and the possible forms of treatment (The Star, 2012). Even if these women seek medical care, not much is about their concerns due to the taboo nature of the problem and the social stigma associated with it.

However, identity anonymity on the Internet (Morahan-Martin & Schumacher, 2003) can now give people with potentially embarrassing problems a chance to express themselves uninhibitedly and to seek help (White & Dorman, 2001). Subsequently, women in societies where infertility is a taboo topic can now turn to the Internet for information, help and emotional support with the assurance that their identities remain hidden.

As yet, there is limited information on how Malaysian women make inquiries on infertility when contemplating, or undergoing IVF treatment. Thus far, a recent study on Malaysian women with infertility problems only reported on the advice-seeking strategies used by the women, focusing on the overall organization of messages and the syntactic structures of the advice sought (Jan & Pung, 2016). This study aims to look at a different aspect of Malaysian women with infertility problems by investigating the kinds of questions asked, and how these questions reflect the women's concerns on IVF treatment.

METHODS

Research Site

The online forum, namely *Malaysian Motherhood* (http://www.malaysianmotherhood.com), was used as the research site for the study. It is text-based, asynchronous, open-accessed, and is one of the most popular online forums targeted at Malaysian women.

While anybody is free to go into the forum, registration is still required if one wants to participate in the discussions. However, the forum makes no imposition on applicants to disclose their personal details during the registration process. Subsequently, it is still possible to conceal one's true identity if the applicant wants to, thereby safeguarding privacy.

The role played by the researchers in the study was that of a "guest." The researchers did not post a single message to communicate with any forum member throughout the duration of time in which the data were collected. Forum members interacting in the forum were oblivious to the fact that their messages were read and would be used for a study. This preserved the authenticity of the data, which was crucial so that the data consisted of women's interaction in an environment where they felt safe, secure and assured of their anonymity.

The forum was also user-led whereby members were free to start any discussion topic and post messages in the forum. Consequently, it was possible for forum members to discuss and share their opinions in an uninhibited, spontaneous manner. This implied that the nature of the interaction was peer-to-peer.

Most of the topics in the forum were related to women's issues such as a woman's reproductive system (e.g., "Health Issue and Exercise during Pregnancy", In Vitro Fertilization, "Trying after a Loss"), childbirth (e.g., "Gynaecologists and Obstetricians", "Confinement Period"), and childbearing (e.g., "First Time Mommy",

"The Full-Time-Working-Moms Club", "Your Parenting Style"). Nonetheless, infertility issues seemed to be the most popular topic with the forum members, in particular, IVF. Out of the 1,292 messages posted during the 6 months, 52 topics were devoted to IVF with 762 messages. Hence, the number of messages on IVF took up 58.98% of the total number of messages posted in the forum.

The Participants

The participants of the study were members who posted questions pertaining to IVF from February 2012 to July 2012. Although it was not possible to verify the identities of the participants due to the anonymity afforded by computer-mediated communication, the participants could be regarded as Malaysian women on the basis that they were the targeted participants as specified in the forum title, the Malaysian Motherhood forum. Being Malaysians, the participants comprised either, the Malays, the Chinese, or the Indians, who made up the primary ethnic groups in Malaysia (Index Mundi, 2012).

As participants did not need to disclose their personal details on registration in the forum, it was not possible to find out their age. However, in a few of the messages where the participants revealed some of their medical histories and infertility problems, majority of these disclosures indicated the participants' age range that was between late twenties to late thirties.

Data and Analysis Procedures

As in previous research on online messages (Kouper, 2010; Locher, 2006), the research method for the present study was also web content analysis method. Web content analysis is an expanded form of the traditional content analysis research method, where it allows "a broad range of content" to be analyzed, including "systematic identification of patterns in link and interactive message content" (Herring, 2010). Researchers are also given the options of a variety of "sample types (e.g., time-based, event-based, participant-based) and coding categories (e.g., pre-existing or emergent from the data)" depending on the research questions and the data being examined (Herring, 2010). Methodological approaches could also be grounded in linguistics, or in sociology.

In this study, the objective was to find out the types of issues that matter to Malaysian women when asking questions on IVF in a local online forum. The focus, therefore, was on the topics or themes of the questions asked, as well as the context(s) in which the questions were asked. As such, the data that were analyzed in the present study was textual data, specifically 6 months of messages related to IVF posted from February to July 2012. Analysis involved identifying questions in the messages, categorizing the questions into broad topics or themes, and relating the questions to the context of the messages in order to investigate the women's concerns.

The messages were first examined using Locher's (2006) system of message-coding. This involved analyzing the content employing features of computer-mediated discourse analysis method for their discursive moves. A discursive move is a "kind of contribution that the entry made to the ongoing interchange" (Miller & Gergen, 1998). If someone says "I am sorry," then, that statement can be labeled as an Apology discursive move, or if someone writes "Thank you for your help," that part of the message can be coded as the Appreciation discursive move.

In the present study, the Question move was identifiable using Kouper's (2010) classification of questions. An interrogative was labeled as a Question move if it is a question that asks for information or opinion. The question may be asking for information or opinion about either, the inquirer herself, the message-recipient, or certain aspects of the IVF treatment. For instance, an interrogative that asks for information such as "Do you know any other fertility specialists besides Dr. X in Z Hospital?", or the interrogative "What do you think of me going for the treatment?" which asks for opinion, would be classified as a Question move. However, inquiries that were direct requests for advice, although phrased in an interrogative structure, would not be considered as a Question move. For example, an interrogative such as "Can I have your advice on this?" is an explicit request for help or advice, and therefore, would be more appropriately labeled as a Request Advice move rather than a Question move.

Following the coding of the discursive moves, the Question move was further examined for the function it served. Specifically, the move was analyzed to find out what the women's concerns were when questions were asked pertaining to IVF. To fulfill this aim, the questions were categorized into broad topics or themes, and examined for their functions or associations in relation to the overall context of the message.

In order to ensure that the research met the recommendations of Ess and the the AoIR Ethics Working Committee (2002), all personal information about the participants remained undisclosed. Even the pseudonyms used by the participants were changed to maximize their anonymity.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The findings of the study revealed that there were 1,292 messages posted in the forum from February 2012 to July 2012. During this time, 217 IVF-related questions were asked. These were questions that either asked for information or for opinion as a way to seek advice.

Message 1

How is your pregnancy treating you? All good I hope… Wanted to check with you since we are seeing the same doctor. I opted for the long protocol…**how long is the 'long protocol'? Whats the duration? How long you need to take the injections for?**

Further examination of the questions revealed that they were mostly information-seeking, particularly on the IVF treatment. For instance, in Message 1, the inquirer was asking about the long protocol of IVF ("how long is the 'long protocol'? What's the duration?") and the injections necessary during the treatment ("how long you need to take the injections for?").

Message 2

> Hi, Priceless, Congratz on ur pregnancy…**May I know how come cannot consume Royal Jelly and bird's nest after ER**,…**when can we continue to eat? After ET?** Awaiting your reply, Thanks

The questions asked in Message 2 were also information-seeking that were related to the IVF treatment. The questions illustrated the inquirer's interest to know the reason why it was not advisable to take Royal Jelly and bird's nest after the Egg Retrieval (ER) procedure ("May I know who come cannot consume Royal Jelly and bird's nest after ER"), and when ("When can we continue to eat?") or whether taking these foods after the Embryo Transfer (ET) procedure would be safe ("after ET?").

Message 3

> I've been think so much since this morning…the failed treatment…**is it because I don't really rest?**…

One possible reason why questions pertaining to the IVF protocol were especially common in the forum was because the women associated familiarity with the IVF protocol with treatment success. As shown in Message 3, it was implied that the inquirer failed her IVF treatment due to her inadequate knowledge of the treatment to maximize its success. She believed that if she had known about the importance of adequate rest during the 2-week waiting period of the treatment ("is it because I don't really rest?"), the treatment could have been successful.

As such, the inquirer in Message 1 might also want to be informed on what the long protocol constituted so that she would be better prepared for it, thereby, increasing the likelihood of treatment success. Similarly, the inquirer in Message 2 sought for information on why taking Royal Jelly and bird's nest was not advisable after ER, and whether taking these foods after ET would be safe so that she would not unnecessarily jeopardize her chances of conceiving due to the wrong timing of ingesting such foods during the treatment.

Nonetheless, it was also peculiar that the women made use of the forum to find out more about the IVF treatment. Most of these women were already contemplating to undergo IVF, or were already undergoing the treatment. Furthermore, some of these women had already completed at least one IVF cycle and were trying their luck in another IVF cycle. The answers to their questions would either have been answered if they had asked their doctors.

The women's attempts to garner as much information as they could about IVF from their peers in the forum could indicate

their ignorance of IVF despite undergoing or having undergone the treatment. This augmented the sensitivity and negativity surrounding the infertility problem, where the women could have felt more at ease seeking information from peers in an anonymous platform instead of their own doctors who knew their identities and their problems.

In addition, the women's need to ask questions on the IVF treatment could also indicate the women's lack of trust in their doctors. They could have felt it essential to verify the information they had received from the doctor with other women undergoing the treatment.

Message 4

> Hi Ikan
> I am going to be 38 end of this year. I did my 1st IVF with alor setar hospital, recommended by doctor who knows me well, it was a short protocol, where I only had 6 embryos and only 3 fertilised. 3 was transferred by none survived. I was only given jabs like that for abt 12 days only. So I wasn;t happy as I preferred to a longer protocol. I have done IUI for at 2 times but IUI success rate is only abt 20%, **How old are you**, if u don't mind…Thanks for the info abt Dr. X.

Message 5

> Hi ajaib
> How is your OPU on last Saturday? **How many egg has been retrieved?**...

The women also asked questions that concerned their fertility profile, namely, quantity of eggs (Message 4) and age (Message 5). For example, the question "How old are you" in Message 4 and the question "how many egg has been retrieved" in Message 5 were messages pertaining to the message-recipients' fertility profiles. In Message 4, the inquirer was curious about the message-recipient's age while in Message 5, the inquirer was interested to know the number of eggs the message-recipient produced during the Ovum Pick Up (OPU) procedure. As infertility is not openly discussed in the Malaysian culture due to its taboo nature, the women in the forum probably found it liberating to have this anonymous online platform to find out and discuss how different fertility profiles might be associated with various infertility issues and treatment success.

Message 6

> …Im 35 tis yr, **do u think I'm too old?** After **all I only produced 10 eggs**, but I notice some people produce more than 20!!...

Message 7

> **You are younger than me! I'm 36** and only able to produce **ONE egg in my previous IVF**, luckily the only egg fertilised and implanted and I'm at my 10 weeks of pregnancy now. Quality is more important than quantity, dun be upset with the number o egg. **I think 10 eggs is more than enough**…

Nevertheless, knowing other women's fertility profiles could also serve another function. For some women, knowing other women's fertility profiles could help boost their optimism level. This is especially so if they knew that their fertility profiles were better than others who still could be successful in the treatment. For example, the inquirer in Message 6 lamented that she only managed to produce 10 eggs ("I only produced 10 eggs") and so she sought the opinion of others whether she was too old to hope for a positive outcome from the treatment ("do u think I'm too old?"). The response she received was that her profile was not only better than others (Message 7), but she was also younger ("you are younger than me!") and that she produced sufficient eggs ("ONE egg in my previous IVF…I think 10 eggs is more than enough"). This knowledge about others' fertility profiles and their successful treatments could act as a big boost to women suffering from infertility morale to encourage them to stay positive and keep persevering in the IVF treatment. The online forum not only serves as a source of information for women with infertility problems, but also a place where they could find encouragement and inspiration to continue their treatment with optimism.

Message 8

> **How is your treatment going on?**…

The questions asked in the forum may not necessarily be related to the inquirer's situation. Some questions were asked out of concern for the message-recipient as in the question "How is your treatment going on?" in Message 8. This type of questions is significant because the questions were not aimed at garnering information for the inquirer's benefit, but they functioned to foster close relationship among the women in the forum. For example, in Message 8, by asking the question "How is your treatment going on?", the question not only allowed the message-recipient to describe the treatment and express herself, but also to initiate communication with her so that there was connection between the inquirer and the message-recipient. In this way, questions like this are a form of solidarity strategy.

Message 9

> **Anyone have OHSS? How did u deal with it?** The bloating tummy make me very uncomfortable. I just discharge after admitted 2 nights. No improvements but doc say at least no increasing.

Solidarity was also seen in questions that were open to everyone. In Message 9, the question "Anyone have Ohss?" was not addressed to a specific forum member, but to all members in the forum. It was an inclusive strategy that attempted to connect with anybody in the forum who could share their experiences on Ovarian Hyperstimulation Syndrome (OHSS) caused by high hormone levels (Nargund, Hutchison, Scaramuzzi, & Campbell, 2007).

Furthermore, the inquirer's request for information in Message 9 sought a personal response ("How did u deal with

it?"), rather than an objective answer to the problem. Subsequently, this type of questions indicated how the online forum functioned as a platform for women with infertility problems to seek and share personal experiences, as well as to obtain various information on how other women deal with complications resulting from the treatment.

Message 10

> Congrats on your success & wow its twins…nice. If yours the long or short protocol? **How much did you spend in IVF Hospital?** Any symptoms on TWW? Take care & enjoy your pregnancy…

Message 11

> Hi Permaisuri, I'm from Penang too. I have seen Dr. Ting in XYZ. He sounds very confident with my case if doing IVF but my hb is worries with the painful process that I have to go through as well as the potential side effects. Hence, we will go to see Dr. Z for second opinion. I heard that Dr. Z is very impatient and cool type. Is that true? **How much is the IVF cost in ABC?**

There were also questions pertaining to the cost of the treatment, as in the question "How much did you spend in IVF Hospital?" in Message 10, and "How much is the IVF cost in ABC?" in Message 11. These questions showed that money was one consideration of the women undergoing IVF treatment. This is probably because it costs around RM 20 000 to complete one cycle of IVF (Arjunan, 2016), and it is common for most couples to require more than one IVF cycle to be able to conceive successfully (Meldrum, Silverberg, Bustillo, & Stokes, 1998). As such, going for IVF can be a strain on couples of mediocre financial standing.

Message 12

> Dear Tetra,
> Tx a lot for the info, appreciate your response…**how is Dr Ghandi's success rate?** In this forum, most of them usually mention abt Dr Bee from IVFCity or Dr Bong from IVF Hospital…

Besides questions about the cost of the treatment, there were questions related to the quality of a clinic's or hospital's service as well as its doctors. For instance, in Message 12, the inquirer was asking for information on Dr Ghandi's success rate in IVF treatment. The women in the forum were particular about which clinic or hospital to go to, as well as which doctor to seek treatment from. They were concerned about success rates, and thus, were careful with their choices of clinics, hospitals, or doctors so that they could maximize their chances of being successful in the treatment. This implied that the forum not only enabled the women the opportunities to discuss their infertility problems with other women with the same predicament. On the other hand, the forum was also an information bank where women with infertility problems could garner enough information to make informed choices on where to go for their treatment, as well as who to seek treatment from.

CONCLUSION

Although the study investigated only one research site, it has unraveled several notable aspects of inquiries related to infertility treatment in an online environment. The analysis of the messages showed that asking questions which sought information related to procedures of IVF was the most prevalent. The type of information the women were interested in could range from details on the IVF protocol, to the complications arising from the treatment, the cost of the treatment, and where or whom to seek treatment from.

To the women, the forum functioned as an important reservoir of information on IVF treatment. It was a place where they could direct any query, clarify their doubts, and seek further explanation to enhance their knowledge on IVF. The forum has provided the women a safe sanctuary to obtain as much information as possible without the fear of identity exposure. This indicated that despite consultations with the doctors, these women were still largely ignorant about the treatment and it was only in an anonymous setting, would the women be able to equip themselves with the necessary knowledge on the treatment. In addition, having adequate knowledge about the treatment was crucial to help boost the women's confidence that they desperately need in their current plight.

Some of the questions asked by the women in the forum also seemed to suggest that the women were concerned about making sure that they would succeed in their treatment. Questions related to dietary restrictions revealed the women's anxieties that they might unknowingly ingest certain foods that could jeopardize the chances of succeeding in the treatment. Similarly, questions about doctors and clinics or doctors accentuated the women's concern about undergoing their treatment with reputable doctors so as to have an accurate diagnosis of their infertility problem and subsequently, proper treatment that matched their problem. To these women, it was especially vital to maximize their likelihood of success in the treatment not only because they were desperate for a child, but it was also equally important for them to require as few IVF protocols as possible due to the prohibitive cost of treatment.

Another prominent concern of the women was their need for solidarity, support, and encouragement from other women with similar predicaments. Questions were asked about other women's fertility profiles, signaling not only their curiosity in other women, but also an invitation for others to open up and share intimate details about their infertility problems. This helped to foster a strong sense of camaraderie among themselves, providing crucial solace, and support to encourage the women to persevere in their treatment. Solidarity was also seen in the women's questions that were asked out of consideration for the message-recipients rather than the advice-seekers, in inclusive questions that invited responses from any member of the forum, as well as in questions that specifically sought the personal experiences of the message-recipients.

To summarize, the study has shown how women with infertility problems are generally in need of information on IVF treatment, regardless whether they are new to the treatment or have undergone the treatment before. This suggests how infertility is still a taboo topic in Malaysia, whereby women with infertility problems may be reluctant to ask professional advice even from doctors due to embarrassment and the social stigma surrounding the infertility issue.

An anonymous interaction setting such as in CMC is, therefore, extremely crucial for women with infertility problems to discuss, to find information on infertility treatment, as well as to bond with other women in the same predicament as they are in. Women with infertility problems need to feel that there is an avenue for them not only to seek further information regarding treatments available for them, but also to seek it in an environment that they feel secured, safe, and assured of their anonymity from their fellow peers who are emotionally supportive, helpful, and empathetic to their plight. Future studies on this area, however, could incorporate more online forums for a more comprehensive understanding of the needs and concerns of women with infertility problems.

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Iranian Public School and Private Institute EFL Teachers' Perception towards Self-Initiated Professional Development

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ABSTRACT

To some teachers, professional development is seen as a burden and not as a chance to improve their practice as the reforms have intended. To this end, this study meant at identifying the public school and private institute EFL teachers' perception towards self-initiated professional development in Iran. Using random cluster sampling, Professional Development Questionnaire was filled out by 82 teachers (working either in private language institutions or public schools) to examine the perceptions of Iranian EFL teachers toward their professional development. Furthermore, this study aimed to explain what major professional development activities English language teachers perceive as critical to their development as professionals and to what degree they make use of these opportunities. This study also investigated if there is any significant difference between the perceptions of Iranian public school and private institute language teachers with regard to the concept of professional development in terms of their gender. Finally, this study investigated the obstacles that might have caused some problems for public and private English language teachers regarding their professional development. The findings revealed key differences in these two groups in terms of motivational factors, gender inclination towards teaching profession, the obstacles they face and the activities they are engaged at to enhance their professional development. The possible reasons behind these differences have been discussed and implications of the study are presented.

Keywords: ESL/EFL teachers, language centre, private institution teachers, professional development, public school teachers, self-initiated professional development

INTRODUCTION

Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) defined professional development for teachers as the following: "Professional development is defined as activities that develop an individual's skills, knowledge, expertise and other characteristics as a teacher" (OECD, 2013). As this definition implies, this development can be achieved formally or informally through in-service workshops, seminars, conferences, class observations, on-line courses, personal learning networks and many more facets that can be either provided by the settings or districts that support it or by eager teachers themselves who plan most or all of their own professional development even without school administrators' support.

To be effective, however, professional development requires thoughtful planning followed by careful implementation with feedback to ensure it responds to educators' learning needs (Guskey, 2009). Educators who participate in professional development then must put their new knowledge and skills to work. In many countries, the role and functioning of schools are changing and so this is also what is expected of teachers. Teachers are asked to teach in increasingly multicultural classrooms; to place greater emphasis on integrating students with special learning needs in their classrooms; to make more effective use of information and communication technologies for teaching; to engage more in planning within evaluative and accountability frameworks; and to do more to involve parents in schools. Effective professional development is on-going, and

it includes training, practice and feedback, and it needs adequate timing and follow-up support (Joyce & Showers, 2002). Successful programs involve teachers in learning activities that are similar to ones they will use with their students, and encourage the development of teachers' learning communities. There is growing interest in developing schools as learning organizations, and in ways for teachers to share their expertise and experience more systematically. Teachers' perceptions are important and can be expected to influence their behaviour. Also teachers' views about their development needs are to be distinguished from an external assessment of these needs.

Statement of the Problem

One of the main goals of a sound education system is to raise students' performance and enhance their progress towards predetermined objectives. Yet, although a great sum of money has been spent on young students' success, students' performance has barely enhanced to date (Harwell, 2003). One of the most important reasons behind this failure, it is believed by many scholars, is the little attention that has been given to high-quality professional development (Gersten, Taylor, Keys, Rolfhus, & Newman-Gonchar, 2014; Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Kwang Suk, 2011; to name a few). According to Harwell (2003), "We cannot expect students to change what they do if we are content for teachers to continue doing what they have always done." Due to repeated failures in providing

high-quality professional development opportunities, many teachers today do not even put enough confidence to professional development offerings currently available (Philips & Borg, 2009). Not enough hands-on approaches via demonstrations and modelling and many isolated one-shot workshops, lectures and seminars provided by school districts and administrators have brought about many complaints on behalf of teachers who believe "one-size-fits-all" professional development cannot really address teachers' specific needs in real classroom settings (Meagher, 2011). Nevertheless, if executed effectively, coherent professional development programs can warrant strong learning opportunities, and appropriately focused learning experiences for teachers who despite their dissatisfaction still value their potential to revolutionize their classrooms. As it was mentioned earlier, since many professional development trajectories have fall short in providing teachers with hands-on, sustainable interventions, it is vital to do teacher professional development need analysis to hear teachers' voice to identify first their needs and second their challenges to improve their knowledge, skills, and perceptions in teaching.

Although professional development has a great significance in western countries, it has not been given due attention in Asian settings (Khanderooh, Mukundan, & Alavi, 2011). That said, to the best of researchers' knowledge, only few studies (Khanderooh et al., 2011; Mohammadi, Karimian, & Talebnejad, 2015) have been conducted concerning teachers' professional development in such settings. Secondly, while an abundance of researches exist pertaining to school teacher professional development, not many researchers have investigated if there is any significant difference in the perceptions of Iranian public school and private institute language teachers as regard to the challenges and difficulties these teachers often confront. All considered, this study aims to fill the gap by addressing these populations that have a significant role in teaching English to the young minds in Iran. Having uttered the importance of professional development among EFL teachers and the gap existed in the area of professional development in the existed literature, this study, firstly, aimed at examining the perceptions of Iranian EFL teachers (working either in private language institutions or public schools) toward their professional development. Furthermore, this study aimed to explain what major professional development activities English language teachers perceive as critical to their development as professionals and to what degree they make use of these opportunities. Then, it is within the scope of this study to investigate if there is any significant difference between the perceptions of Iranian public school and private institute language teachers with regard to the concept of professional development in terms of their gender. And finally, this study investigated the obstacles that might have caused some problems for public and private English language teachers regarding their professional development.

The research questions of the study are as follow:

1. What are public school English language teachers' and private institute language teachers' perceptions toward their own professional development?

2. Is there any difference between public school language teachers' and private institute language teachers' perceptions regarding professional development in terms of their gender?

3. What major professional development activities do public school and private institute English language teachers perceive as critical to their development as professionals?

4. What hinders change and growth in public school and private institute English language teachers?

METHODS

Schools

This section explains about the rationale behind choosing this particular population for this study. Shiraz, the city in which this study has been conducted at, has been divided into ten municipal districts, each with its own Education and Training administrative centres. Since this study was comparative in nature (comparison between the professional development of public school teachers and private language institute teachers), it was imperative to choose all the teachers from one district to avoid potential socio-economic diversity between classes in various districts which is a very important factor to consider when doing studies on teachers' professional development (Meagher, 2011). Turner (2007) and Whitehead (2006) also reported that teachers who worked at districts where majority of students were less disadvantaged than their more advantaged counterparts were more likely to be less satisfied professionally.

Considering that, random cluster sampling was adopted to choose one district among all districts and at the end district 1 was chosen for this study. Then the researchers approached the public and private institute teachers at this district to collect their data.

Participants

Sample size was determined using NCSS software. To do so, type 1 error, type 2 error, mean and standard deviation of the previous study conducted by Karaaslan (2003) were collected. This study was chosen because as it will be discussed in the next section, the questionnaire that the researchers used for this study was devised and used in the similar study conducted by Karaaslan (2003). According to the provided data (Type 1 error = 0.05, Power = 0.8, mean = 3.75, standard deviation= 1.05), and considering the effect size equal to 20%, the sample size was determined as 31 for each group (public school teachers and private language institute teachers). However, to cover marginal values, the sample size for this study increased to 41

for each group. Therefore, 41 public school teachers and 41 private language institute teachers were chosen randomly from district 1 to participate in this study.

Instrumentation

The instrument used in this study was a Professional Development Questionnaire devised by Karaaslan (2003).

At first it was decided to use the English version of the questionnaire for both public school and private language institution teachers. However, since while giving the questionnaire to the first few teachers, the researchers realized that some English teachers cannot thoroughly understand the content of the English version of the questionnaire, the researchers decided to translate the questionnaire to Persian by using translation-back-translation method. Therefore, the proficient bilingual translator translated the English version of the questionnaire to Persian and then the translation was given to another independent expert translator to translate it to English language. Both translators were told that meaning-based approach should be adopted so that the items are not only linguistically appropriate but also valid in substance and meaning. Then the two English versions of the questionnaire were compared and discrepancies were discussed with an English professor and further works were iterated until a satisfactory version was reached. The validity of this questionnaire was still checked by sending the Persian version of the questionnaire to 3 university lecturers using edit, delete and keeping method.

The questionnaire is composed of four sections: The questions in section one are designed to find out the group characteristics of the participants. The second section in the questionnaire includes questions about the perceptions of teachers towards their own professional development. The statements in this section of the questionnaire measure teachers' perceptions towards different themes of professional development such as 'willingness' (item 1), 'initiation of development' (items 2, 3, 4), reflection and own evaluation of teachers for their professional development (items 5, 6), 'collaboration' (items 7, 8 and 9), 'keeping up to date with new ideas and changes' (items 10 and 11). In this section, statements were presented in the form of items for teachers to comment on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Cronbach alpha was used to test reliability of this section of the questionnaire. It showed reliability coefficient of 0.77 ($\alpha = 0.77$) which is within acceptable range and shows a good reliability.

In the third section, teachers were asked about their professional development activities to find out, first, how much they give importance to these activities and second, to what degree they make use of these opportunities. Therefore, the questions were asked in two parts. First, teachers were asked to indicate how important the activities were and secondly, to comment on how often they made use of these activities on two five point Likert-type. In the first part of the questionnaire, the teachers were

asked to identify how important they think the activities are for them through a five point Likert-type scale ranging from "not at all important" to "very important" and then comment on the frequency in which they do these activities presented on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from "never" to "always".

The original version of this section of the questionnaire had 15 items devoted to the activities that EFL teachers perceive as critical to their development. However, it is worth mentioning that since the above mentioned questionnaire was devised in 2003, the researchers decided to thoroughly read the literature of professional development activities and add more updated activities that might be utilized by EFL teachers. Then the researchers came up with a new list containing 17 items, adding three more items regarding the activities that EFL teachers might think are important in enhancing their professional development. Those three items were adopted from Geijsel, Sleegers, Stoel, and Kruger (2009). Then the researchers sent the modified version of the potential activities EFL teachers might get involved in to 15 EFL university lecturers and requested them to review the list and add any possible activities they do that they are not able to detect in the list. Doing that and based on the feedbacks she received from them, she further modified the list and finally came up with 20 activities that not only might be perceived by EFL teachers as critical to teachers' professional development, but also may be practiced by them.

Based on the new list, EFL teachers' perceptions and use of collaborative activities were measured with a 7-item scale. Items included in the following: (1) "Taking initiative to follow professional development programs", (2) "Sharing experiences and problems with colleagues", (3) "Asking for professional help from colleagues", (4) "Working on developing new materials with colleagues", (5) "Working on developing new techniques and activities with colleagues", (6) "Observing colleagues' lesson to learn from them", and (7) "Being observed by heads, administrators, or other colleagues, so that we learn from their feedbacks". Activities EFL teachers do on research, reflection and practice were measured with a 7-item scale. Items were (8) "Trying out new knowledge, ideas and skills in my lessons", (9) "Doing teacher initiated classroom investigation (action research)", (10) Gathering information about one's own teaching performance (surveys, interviews, teacher evaluation forms to give to my students, etc.)", (11) "Using students' reaction in class to improve my classroom teaching", (12) "Reflecting on my own teaching by keeping a diary/journal", (13) "Reflecting on my own teaching by audio-taping or video-taping my classes", and (14) "Following research literature and reading articles related to teaching and learning English". Professional development through inside and outside resources and opportunities were measured through items 15 to 20. These items were (15) "Attending in-service training programs provided by my own school (workshops, seminars,

etc.)", (16) "Attending international/national conferences (as a presenter or participant) related to teaching and learning English", (17) "Attending online courses to improve my teaching skills (e.g. grammar courses, professional development courses, etc.)", (18) "Viewing/watching educational videos on YouTube, Teacher tube, etc. in order to improve my teaching skills", (19) "Having a teacher discussion group in my school/ institution", and (20) "Having an online teacher group in What's up, Telegram, Facebook, etc. to share my problems or feedbacks with other teachers". Cronbach alpha was used to test reliability of this section of the questionnaire. It showed reliability coefficient of 0.910 ($\alpha = 0.91$) which is within acceptable range and shows a good reliability.

Finally, to answer research question four, 10 items were devoted to the constraints that EFL teachers might have in their professional development process. For this purpose, teachers were given items related to potential constraints and were asked to rate their importance presented in a five point Likert-type scale ranging from "not important" to "very important" in the questionnaire. At the end, again teachers were asked to further reflect on the obstacles they encounter through their professional development process. The following statement was presented as the closing statement for this questionnaire: "If you have any further opinions and suggestions regarding various aspects of professional development activities and problems faced in professional development, please write

in below". Cronbach alpha was used to test reliability of this section of the questionnaire. It showed reliability coefficient of 0.816 ($\alpha = 0.81$) which is within acceptable range and shows a good reliability. At the end it is important to note that the reliability of the entire questionnaire (41 items) showed reliability coefficient of 0.935 ($\alpha = 0.93$) which was a strong reliability.

Procedure for Data Analysis

The data collected through the questionnaire was analyzed descriptively. For research question number 1, first the frequency distributions were calculated for the statements in section 2 of the questionnaire and then independent sample t-test was run to see if there is a significant difference between the perceptions of public school teachers and private institution teachers regarding professional development. Similarly, to see whether there is a significant difference between public school English language teachers' and private institute language teachers' perceptions toward their own professional development, independent sample t-test was run. Likewise, independent sample t-test was utilized to compare the perception of male teachers with the perception of female teachers working at public schools and private institutions. Then to answer research question 3, Friedman test was first adopted to obtain the mean rank of how important teachers perceive these activities for their professional development and how often they make use of them. Then, Wilcoxon signed-rank test was run to see if the difference between the mean scores

of the importance given to the activity and that of actual use of the activities is significant. And finally to find out about the challenges that teachers encounter in terms of their professional development, first the frequency distributions were calculated for the statements provided and then to see if there is a significant difference between the mean scores of all the challenges of public school teachers and private institute teachers, Friedman Test was run.

RESULTS

Research Question 1

The first research question focused on any significant differences between public school English language teachers' and private institute language teachers' perceptions toward their own professional development.

To explore English language teachers' perceptions towards their own professional development, first the frequency distributions were calculated for the statements in section 2 of the questionnaire and then independent sample t-test was run to see if there is a significant difference between the perceptions of public school teachers and private institution teachers regarding professional development.

As the results show, in descending order, willingness, collaboration with colleagues, being up-to-date, and teacher reflection are among the most important factors that play part in one's professional development. On the other hand, it is interesting to note that peer observation has been considered the least important one. The comprehensive report for research question 1 can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1

Degree of agreement with statements about English language teachers' perceptions towards their own professional development

	Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**uncertain**	**agree**	**Strongly agree**	**mean**	**N**
Q. 1. Teachers should improve their professional skills and knowledge without too much dependence on the institution they work for.							
Private	-	3.2	3.2	41.9	45.2	4.37	39
Public	-	3.2	3.2	58.1	32.3	4.23	40
Total	-	3.2	3.2	50.0	38.7	1.69	79
Q. 2. Teachers should take the initiative and action for their own professional development.							
Private	–	3.2	3.2	41.9	51.6	4.41	41
Public	–	–	3.2	77.4	19.0	4.16	41
Total	–	1.6	3.2	59.7	35.5	1.70	82
Q. 3. A teacher should be free to test any idea or a new technique in teaching.							
Private	–	16.1	32.3	35.5	16.1	3.51	41
Public	–	6.5	45.2	38.7	9.7	3.51	41
Total	–	11.3	38.7	37.1	12.9	2.48	82

Table 1 *(continue)*

	Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**uncertain**	**agree**	**Strongly agree**	**mean**	**N**
Q. 4. Teachers should be involved in the evaluation of their teaching skills and knowledge.							
Private	-	6.5	6.5	67.7	19.4	4.0	41
Public	-	-	9.7	77.4	12.9	4.03	41
Total		3.2	8.1	72.6	16.1	1.98	82
Q. 5. Teachers should help each other evaluate teaching to identify problems, strengths, and weaknesses.							
Private	-	-	3.2	48.4	48.4	4.45	41
Public	-	-	3.2	61.3	35.5	4.32	41
Total	-	-	3.2	54.8	41.9	1.61	82
Q. 6. Teachers should help each other produce solutions to solve problems.							
Private	-	3.2	-	48.4	48.4	4.41	41
Public	-	-	-	51.6	48.4	4.48	41
Total	-	1.6	-	50.0	48.4	1.54	82
Q. 7. Willingness is an important factor in successful professional development.							
Private	-	-	-	22.6	77.4	4.77	41
Public	-	-	-	48.4	51.6	4.51	41
Total	-	-	-	35.5	64.5	1.35	82
Q. 8. Teachers should be open to new ideas and changes.							
Private	-	-	-	35.5	64.5	4.64	41
Public	-	6.5	9.7	54.8	29.0	4.06	41
Total	-	3.2	4.8	45.2	46.8	1.64	82
Q. 9. Teachers should reflect upon their own practices to improve professionally.							
Private	-	3.2	-	35.5	61.3	4.54	41
Public	-	3.2	3.2	74.2	19.4	4.09	41
Total	-	3.2	1.6	54.8	40.3	1.67	82
Q. 10. Peer observation should be used to gather information about teacher performance.							
Private	-	-	-	38.7	61.3	4.61	41
Public	-	19.4	12.9	51.6	16.1	3.64	41
Total	-	9.7	6.5	45.2	38.7	1.87	82
Q. 11. Teachers should try to keep themselves up to date with changes and improvements in ELT.							
Private	-	-	-	29.0	71.0	4.70	41
Public	-	-	-	58.1	38.7	4.40	40
Total	-	-	-	43.5	54.8	1.44	81

Note: N's vary due to some missing responses

Table 1 presents the frequency distributions of teachers working at public schools, private institutions and all teachers irrespective of their place of work (total).

As Table 1 indicates, regardless of whether teachers belong to public schools or private institutions, all the respondents strongly agree/ agree with the statement underlying the importance of "willingness" as a factor in successful professional development: "Willingness is an important factor in successful professional development" (100%). Equally important are the statements that highlight the importance of collaboration and being up to date with changes and improvements in the field of ELT: "Teachers should help each other produce solutions to solve problems" (98.4%) and "Teachers should try to keep themselves up to date with changes and improvements in ELT" (98.3%). The next one is another statement under the category of collaboration which highlights the importance of collaborative professional learning: "Teachers should help each other evaluate teaching to identify problem, strengths, and weaknesses" (96%). Statements such as "Teachers should take the initiative and action for their own professional development" and "Teachers should reflect upon their own practices to improve professionally" were also the themes that 95.2% and 95.1% of all teachers were strongly agreed/ agreed with respectively. Of all the statements about English language teachers' perceptions towards their own professional development, peer observation ranked the lowest (83.9%)

after the statement regarding the freedom of teachers in testing new ideas or techniques in practice (50%). In the statement, "A teacher should be free to test any idea or a new technique in teaching", 38.7% of the respondents were uncertain and 11.3% disagreed with whether being free to test their ideas would really benefit their professional development, while in the statement, "Peer observation should be used to gather information about teacher performance" 6.5% of the teachers were uncertain and 9.7% disagreed with peer observation.

To see if teaching at private institutions or public schools changes the perceptions of teachers working in these places, only the statements that ranked highest and lowest are going to be presented for the following section.

As for the private institution teachers, 100% of the respondents strongly agreed/ agreed with the following statements: "Willingness is an important factor in successful professional development", "Teachers should be open to new ideas and changes", "Teachers should try to keep themselves up to date with changes and improvements in ELT" and "Peer observation should be used to gather information about teacher performance". However, public school teachers strongly disagreed/ disagreed with some of the above mentioned items. For example, while 100% of private teachers agreed that peer observation is a good tool to gather some information about teacher performance, only 67.7% of school teachers strongly agreed/agreed with peer

observation. The only statement that all public school teachers and private institution teachers agree with is "Willingness is an important factor in successful professional development". Another similarity between these groups of teachers are in the statement "A teacher should be free to test any idea or a new technique in teaching" which ranked the lowest (48.4% agree/strongly agree for public school teachers and 51.6% for private institution teachers) in both groups. In general, in comparison with private institution teachers, there were few statements about perceptions that all public school teachers strongly agreed/ agreed with.

To see whether there is a significant difference between public school English language teachers' and private institute language teachers' perceptions toward their own professional development, independent sample t-test was run and the result can be seen in the Table 2.

From Table 3 we can see that the mean of public school teachers' perception towards professional development is lower than that of teachers at private institutions (45.1 and 3.9 respectively). To see whether this difference is significant, Sig. value (P value) was looked at and the result shows that the Sig. (2-tailed) value is 0.003, which is less than 0.05, hence the difference is significant. In general, we can see that private institute language teachers have a more positive perception towards professional development than their counterparts at public schools.

Research Question 2

The second question investigated any significant difference between public school English language teachers' and private institute language teachers' perceptions toward their own professional development in terms of gender. To answer this question, independent sample t-test was utilized to compare the perception of male teachers

Table 2
Difference between public school English language teachers' and private institute language teachers' perceptions toward their own professional development

	School/center	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Perception	public	41	45.1935	3.85936	-3.043	60	0.003
	private	41	48.1935	3.90230			

Table 3
The perception of male and female teachers

	Sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Perception	Male	40	47.1786	3.87827	0.971	58	0.336
	Female	42	46.1563	4.22824			

with the perception of female teachers regardless of the place they work at, public schools or private institutions.

As it can be seen in Table 3, the difference between the perceptions of all male teachers and all female teachers is not significant (p- value = 0.336 > 0.05).

However, to see if working at private or public sectors would have a significant effect on teachers' perception working at public schools and private institutions, gender was separated based on the place of work. At first the perception of female teachers and then the perception of male teachers are going to be presented in Table 4.

As it can be seen Table 4, although the mean of female public school teachers' perception is lower than that of female private institution teachers, this difference is not significant (p- value = 0.109 > 0.05).

The same procedure was adopted for male teachers at public schools and private institutions. The result (Table 5) shows that there is a significant difference between male public school teachers' perception and

male private institution teachers (p-value = 0.024 < 0.05).

All in all, we can conclude that although at first, there was not a significant difference between the perceptions of all male teachers and all female teachers irrespective of their place of work, place of work (teaching at public school or private institution) can have a significant effect on the perceptions of only male teachers in terms of professional development.

Research Question 3

The third purpose of this study was to explore English language teachers' perceptions (both public school teachers and private institution teachers) of major professional development activities and to what degree they make use of these activities.

To answer this question Friedman test was first adopted to obtain the mean rank of how important teachers perceive these activities for their professional development and how often they make use of them. Then Wilcoxon signed-rank test was run to see if

Table 4
Differences in perceptions in female public school teachers and female private institute teachers

	School/center	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Perception	Public	22	45.2857	3.58170	-1.654	30	0.109
	Private	20	47.8182	4.61027			

Table 5
Differences in perceptions in male public school teachers and male private institute teachers

	School/center	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Perception	Public	19	45.0000	9.99111	-2.404	26	0.024
	Private	21	48.3889	10.46688			

the difference between the mean scores of the importance given to the activity and that of actual use of the activities is significant.

In order to fully follow the statements covered in the third part of the questionnaire, please refer to the Appendix.

Table 6
Degree of importance given to major professional development activities and degree of actual use of the activities by public school teachers

| Third section | Friedman test | | Wilcoxon test |
| | Importance given to the activity | Actual use of the activities | |
	Mean rank	Mean rank	Sig
S1	13.24	12.19	0.001
S2	11.98	13.11	0.057
S3	11.52	11.73	0.013
S4	12.92	12.41	0.001
S5	12.53	12.84	0.005
S6	9.47	7.79	<0.0001
S7	8.13	6.54	<0.0001
S8	13.66	12.05	0.001
S9	11.74	10.54	<0.0001
S10	8.24	9.00	0.005
S11	13.19	15.14	0.257
S12	6.34	6.96	0.022
S13	5.71	4.68	0.001
S14	14.44	14.25	0.009
S15	11.76	12.18	0.046
S16	6.42	5.68	<0.0001
S17	7.69	7.02	0.001
S18	11.37	11.68	0.008
S19	9.90	10.32	0.166
S20	9.74	10.20	0.013

*Mean scores are based on a five-point Likert scale where 1= not important at all/ never, 2= of little importance/ rarely, 3= somewhat important/ sometimes, 4= important/ often, 5= very important/ always.

As for the activities that public school teachers think are important, Table 6 shows that the most important activities are S14 "Following research literature and reading articles related to teaching and learning English" (14.44), and S8 "Trying out new knowledge, ideas and skills in my lessons"

(13.66). It is interesting to say that as for the actual use of the activities, public school teachers think that they make use of the exact same activities but with different order: S11 "Using students' reaction in class to improve my classroom teaching" (15.14), and S14 "Following research literature

and reading articles related to teaching and learning English" (14.25).. Activities that received the lowest rank are: S13 "Reflecting on my own teaching by audio-taping or video-taping my classes" (5.71), and S12 "Reflecting on my own teaching by keeping a diary/journal" (6.34).

To see if there is any significant difference between the mean scores of all the activities that public school teachers think are important and make use of, the result of Wilcoxon signed-rank test was referred to. The results show that except for two items (items 11 and 19), the importance given and the use of all the major professional development activities are significantly different from each other at the .05 level. This indicates that in many cases (statements 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 13, 14, 16 and 17), although public school teachers give importance or somewhat importance to the activities, they do not make use of these activities as much as they should because as it can be seen in Table 7, the mean scores of the importance given to the activities are all higher than the mean scores of making use of the same activities, but the p-values of all the above mentioned items are smaller than 0.05. As for the other items that the mean score of the actual use is higher than that of importance given to the activity (items 3, 5, 10, 12, 15, 18 and 20), again the p values are smaller than 0.05 which shows that based on the importance given, public school teachers make more use of these activities. In other words, for example although public school teachers think using students' reaction in class is an important tool to improve their classroom teaching (importance given to activity mean=13.19), in reality, they make more use of students' reaction (actual use mean score=15.14) than they perceived they would.

As for the private institution teachers, the most important activities are: "Viewing/watching educational videos on YouTube, Teachertube, etc. in order to improve my teaching skills" (14.15), and "Using students' reaction in class to improve my classroom teaching" (14.13). When it comes to actually report which activities they make use of, the mean scores in Table 7 show that private institution teachers make use of the following activities the most: "Using students' reaction in class to improve my classroom teaching" (15.95), and "Viewing/watching educational videos on YouTube, Teachertube, etc. in order to improve my teaching skills" (13.93). The activities that private institution teachers perceive as not very important are "Attending international/national conferences (as a presenter or participant) related to teaching and learning English" (5.92),and "Attending online courses to improve your teaching skills (e.g. grammar courses and professional development courses)" (6.58). As for the activities that private institution teachers make the least use of are: "Attending online courses to improve your teaching skills (e.g. grammar courses, professional development courses, etc.)" (3.33) and "Attending international/national conferences (as a presenter or participant) related to teaching and learning English" (3. 64).

Table 7
Degree of importance given to major professional development activities and degree of actual use of the activities by private institute teachers

| Third section statements | Friedman test | | Wilcoxon test |
| | Importance given to the activity | Actual use of the activities | |
	Mean rank	Mean rank	Sig
S1	13.07	12.72	<0.0001
S2	12.68	13.21	0.001
S3	11.43	12.10	0.003
S4	10.92	10.14	0.001
S5	11.32	10.50	<0.0001
S6	10.78	11.09	0.001
S7	11.58	12.22	0.001
S8	12.15	13.83	0.007
S9	8.05	8.81	0.001
S10	8.17	7.81	<0.0001
S11	14.13	15.95	0.008
S12	8.93	8.78	<0.0001
S13	6.88	6.31	<0.0001
S14	12.22	13.52	0.002
S15	11.37	11.38	0.001
S16	5.92	3.64	<0.0001
S17	6.58	3.33	<0.0001
S18	14.15	13.93	0.003
S19	9.90	10.43	0.005
S20	9.77	10.31	0.003

*Mean scores are based on a five-point Likert scale where 1= not important at all/ never, 2= of little importance/ rarely, 3= somewhat important/ sometimes, 4= important/ often, 5= very important/ always.

To see if there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the importance given to the activities and the actual use of the same activities, the result of Wilcoxon signed-rank test shows that in all cases, there is a significant difference between the two mean scores (all p values are smaller than 0.05). Similar to what was reported for the public school teachers, private institution teachers either give more importance to what they actually do for their professional development than they really do (items 1, 4, 5, 12, 13, 16, 17, 18), or they do the activities more than they really think they give importance to (items 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, 19, 20). For example, private institute teachers do not watch educational videos as frequently as they think they do (item 18) and they try out more new knowledge, ideas and skills in their lessons than they think they do.

Research Question 4

The fourth purpose of this study was to explore what hinders change and growth for English language teachers working at public schools and private institutions. Teachers' responses to the statements in the fourth section of the questionnaire and provided data on how important teachers perceive some factors that hinder change and growth. As it can be seen from Table 8, based on the mean scores of 9 items presented in the questionnaire, we can see that for private institution teachers, the most important obstacles for their professional development are "Lack of collaboration among colleagues" (7.13), and "Lack of institutional support for professional development" (7.13). In contrast, the least important obstacles perceived by private institution teachers are "Lack of communication among colleagues" (3. 50) and "Educational background" (4).

To see if there is a significant difference between the mean scores of all the items presented in this section, Friedman Test was run and the result shows that p-value is smaller than 0.05 (0.000<0.05).So it can be concluded that statistically there is a significant difference between all the items representing what hinders change and growth for teachers' professional development.

As for the public school teachers, the most important obstacles are "Personal financial problems" (7.75) and "Lack of self-motivation" (7.75). To see if there is a significant difference between the mean scores of items in the fourth section, Friedman Test was run and the result shows that the p-value is again smaller than 0.05 (0.000<0.05). So it can be concluded that the most important obstacles for public school teachers in the descending order are items 1 and 7 (equally 7.75),

Table 8
Potential hindrances of change and growth in public school and private institute English language teachers

Section fourth of the questionnaire	total	private	public	Mann-Whitney test
		Mean-Rank		
1. Personal financial problems	5.36	6.88	7.75	0.175
2. Excessive workload	5.91	6.88	6.88	0.122
3. Strict working hours	3.38	4.63	3.75	0.042
4. Lack of communication among colleagues	3.38	3.50	3.13	0.047
5. Lack of collaboration among colleagues	5.06	7.13	4.75	0.002
6. Lack of institutional support for professional development	5.24	7.13	5.00	<0.0001
7. Lack of self-motivation	6.08	5.00	7.75	0.001
8. Educational background	5.63	4.00	5.88	0.508
9. Difficulty in reaching literature in the field	4.56	4.75	4.63	0.309
Asymp. Sig	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	

2 (Excessive workload), 8 (Educational background), 6 (Lack of institutional support for professional development), 5 (Lack of collaboration among colleagues), 9 (Difficulty in reaching literature in the field), 3 (Strict working hours) and 4 (Lack of communication among colleagues). Regardless of working at private or public schools, EFL teachers' main hindrance are "Lack of self-motivation" (6.08), "Excessive workload" (5.91) and "Educational background" (5.63).

DISCUSSION

One of the main objectives of this study was to find out English language teachers' perceptions towards their own professional development. The results of this objective showed that almost all teachers regardless of working at private institutes or public schools strongly agree or agree to the most important ideas about professional development. For example, one of the themes that ranked highest among all the teachers was "willingness" as an important factor in successful professional development. According to Karabenick and Conley (2011), the more positively motivated teachers participate in professional development activities, the higher the probability to gain benefit from the experience. The result of this study is in line with Karaaslan's (2003) study in which all Turkish teachers believe that willingness is a key factor for adequate professional development.

The results of this study also highlighted the importance of collaboration among teachers in order to make positive sustained changes to their teaching practice. "Powerful collaboration", according to DuFour (2005), is a "systemic process in which teachers work together to analyse and improve their classroom practice" (p. 36). It is within this type of collaborative professional communities that teachers have a chance to discuss student thinking and learning, address common research questions, and prepare teaching materials together (Meirink, Meijer, & Verloop, 2007). When ideas are exchanged in this type of dialogic reflection, teachers will gain the knowledge that would have not been gained if they were in isolation (Cabaroglun & Tillema, 2011). However, collaborative workplace is not something practiced by many schools and districts. Awarding "Teacher of the Year" or "Staff Member of the Month" highlights the reality of isolated teaching profession in which individualism and isolation are promoted by sending this message that student's success is the responsibility of only one teacher and not all of the teachers involved at this professional learning community (Robbins & Alvy, 2003).

This study also revealed that observing and being observed, peer observation, is considered as one of the least favourable activities that teachers prefer to do in order to improve their teaching practice. This result is somehow paradoxical because it was previously reported that teachers value collaborative teacher professional development. In fact, about 96% of the teachers in this study reported that "Teachers should help each other evaluate teaching to identify problem, strengths,

and weaknesses". And, teacher-to-teacher observation is what Hirsch (2011) believes makes teaching a public matter rather than a private one. This line of thinking more or less is cultivated by organizational contexts at which teachers work at. For example, in a study carried out by Reinhorn, Moore-Johnson and Simon (2015), the findings showed that the teachers who worked at rather traditional organizational structures had more cultural barriers into the practice of peer observation while the teachers who work at contexts in which classrooms, office space, lesson plans and even students (co-teaching) are shared welcomed the opportunity to observe and be observed by their colleagues. This happens to support further results obtained from this study because when the place of working (public or private schools) was considered as a factor by which the perceptions of teachers might change, the findings indicated that public school teachers did not really favour peer observation while all private institute teachers thought peer observation is very important in enhancing their professional development. This has been supported by Pazhouhesh (2014) who reported that state-run schools in Iran followed a more top-down pedagogic theory and practice, still emphasizing on form-focused practices in which teachers had isolated themselves from "the realities of the classroom dynamic".

In contrast, teachers at privately-operated language institutes, Pazhouhesh (2014) reported, were more open to change, adopted a more liberal role, and were less

obliged to stick to the syllabuses. Having such positive perception support another interesting result obtained from this study. The result of the first research question also revealed that private institute language teachers have a more positive perception towards professional development than their counterparts at public schools. This can also be explained by traditional and marginalized role public school teachers might have in many schools. According to Pishghadam and Mirzae (2008), while teaching English to public school students, many teachers still rely on translation techniques, memorization of grammar rules and repetition drills. In contrast, EFL teachers who teach at private institutes usually rely more on "cooperation, interaction, simulation, and role-play" (Pazhouhesh, 2014).

As to the second research question, the findings showed that regardless of their workplace, there is not a significant difference between male teachers and female teachers regarding their own professional development. However, when gender was separated based on the place of work, the result showed that teaching at public school or private institution can have a significant effect on the perceptions of only male teachers in terms of professional development. Looking at their mean value, it could be seen that male private institute teachers had a more positive perception towards professional development than their counterparts in public schools. One explanation for such result is that since male school teachers, once hired, have high job security, they do not fear of losing their job.

According to Gholami, Sarkhosh, and Abdi (2016), "the prospects for promotion seem less promising [for high school teachers]. Taken together, there is little incentive and willingness on the part of these teachers to transform themselves professionally". By why not such a result is seen among female teachers is perhaps because of the male's principal economic role—as breadwinner. Although Drudy, Martin, Woods, and O'Flynn, (2005) believed that teaching as a career is less prestigious for men, the idea of women as homemakers and men as breadwinners still persists in many societies. So perhaps in Iran too, male private institute teachers are more compelled to grow professionally in order to keep their job and determine their promotion and career growth.

The results of the third research question revealed that there is a consistency between the activities that public school teachers think are important and the actual use of those activities. While thinking these activities are important for their professional development, public school teachers actually follow teaching and learning English related articles and research literature, try out new knowledge, ideas and skills in their lessons, take initiative to follow professional development programs and finally use students' reaction in class to improve their classroom teaching. However, when Wilcoxon signed-rank test was referred to in order to see if there is any significant difference between the mean scores of all the activities that public school teachers think are important and actually make use of, the

result showed that except for only one of the above mentioned activities (using students' reaction in class to improve their classroom teaching), public school teachers are more dependent on their schools to provide professional development opportunities for them, do not really follow teaching and learning English related articles and research literature, and do not actually use new knowledge, ideas and skills in their lessons as they think they would. This result again supports previous results obtained earlier that the organizational settings in public schools are less motivating for public school teachers. One main reason behind this is that since they are state-run schools, there is perhaps less or no competition in these schools to attract more students while the opposite is true for private institutes due to the existence of budgetary constraints in funding these institutes.

Although EFL learners have to pay money to learn English in private institutions, according to Romero and Del Rey (2004), the higher quality private schools attract more students. Affected by behaviouristic approaches to learning, Iranian high school teachers still want to maintain their dominance over the students (teacher-centred styles), and still follow traditional approaches (such as grammar translation method, translation and vocabulary memorization) (Pishghadam & Mirzae, 2008; Razmjoo & Riazi, 2006; Razmjoo, 2007). However, in private institutes, teachers must create an interactive and communicative classroom (student-centred style), give feedback to learners and enhance

learners' communicative competence besides their linguistic competence (Shrum & Glisan, 2010). Since it is not actually practiced in their schools, this perhaps can explain why public school teachers do not actually follow communicative approach related articles and research literature as much or do not actually use new knowledge, ideas and skills in their lessons as much as they think they would. It is interesting to note that in the recent study carried out by Gholami et al. (2016) on the differences exist between the practices of three groups of Iranian EFL teachers, public (high) school, private language institute, and public-private teachers (teaching both in high schools and private language institutes), the results showed that private institute teachers applied more communicative approaches by minimizing the amount of teacher talking time and maximizing students' practice and feedback. Although to a lesser extent, a similar trend could be observed at classes of teachers taught both at the public high school and private institutions. However, classes of the teachers who were teaching only at public schools were the least interactive ones despite sharing some features with classes of public-private teachers (such as duration of pair/group work activities, explicit correction, and rates of repetition). This shows that they are rather contextual factors as well as external factors than teachers' belief and internal factors that negatively affect public school teachers' performance.

According to Nishino (2008), and Philips and Borg (2009), weakness in high school books, de-motivated learners, wash back in its language testing, class size and classroom management difficulties have limited public school teachers' role in scope and have forced them to not act in accordance with their beliefs. It is also worth mentioning that Razmjoo and Riazi (2006) also believed that in many cases, higher quality of private institutions over public schools is not always due to better or newer teaching approaches but because of stricter environment with more class tests, smaller number of students in each class and greater number of teaching sessions.

As for the private institute teachers, among the activities that they think and actually do even more than they think they do are "Using students' reaction in class to improve my classroom teaching", "Trying out new knowledge, ideas and skills in my lessons" and "Following research literature and reading articles related to teaching and learning English". Although the last two items have been discussed thoroughly in the previous sections, it is interesting to note that for both private institute teachers and public school teachers, using students' feedback to improve their teaching performance has been one of the items that they have in common. According to Seldin (1997), students' perception of their learning experience in class can be one of the best sources of information to evaluate and improve teaching effectiveness.

Another activity that both private institute teachers and public school teachers seem to both think unnecessary and even do less for their professional development is "Attending international/national conferences (as a presenter or participant) related to teaching and learning English". Although it is important to acquire knowledge from outside sources, this result is not surprising because traditional, single conference or workshop "offers no sustained program of study and is absent from any type of implementation accountability" (Williams, 2010). According to Elmore (2002), what actually teachers need in conferences, seminars, courses and workshops is immersion in learning opportunities they are expected to provide students. However, it is believed that what teachers usually get out of these conferences is just a certificate rather than a quality professional development.

The result of the fourth research question revealed that for public school teachers "Personal financial problems" and "Lack of self-motivation" were the most important obstacles for their self-initiated professional development while for private institute teachers these were "Lack of collaboration among colleagues", and "Lack of institutional support for professional development". The last item for private institute teachers somehow contrasts with what has been reported by Gholami et al. (2016). According to them private institute teachers are constantly supported by their institutions to attend pre-/in-service teacher training courses

(Gholami et al., 2016). However, since funding at private institutions is highly tied to the tuition EFL learners pay, the degree of support private institute teachers receive from their institutions might actually depend on the district the language centre is located or the number of students enrolled at these institutions. At the end, the result showed that although lack of self-motivation might consider a hindrance for all teachers irrespective of their work place, public school teachers are more de-motivated towards their self-initiated professional development than private institute teachers. This has been supported by many previous mentioned studies (e.g. Gholami et al., 2016; Kazemi & Soleimani, 2013; Moazzam & Jodai, 2014; Pazhouhesh, 2014).

CONCLUSION

All in all, from all the findings of this study we can conclude that although public school teachers were less motivated for professional development, all teachers believe that willingness to change is a key factor for quality professional development. Furthermore, all teachers believed that for continuing professional development, teacher collaboration is an important indicator for education effectiveness. However, this study also suggested that promotion of deep level of conversation among teachers is something that should be encouraged and cultivated by school organizational structures and administrators in order to send this message across that teaching doesn't have to be isolating.

Another interesting finding obtained from this study was that private institute language teachers had a more positive perception towards professional development than their counterparts at public schools. This, is thought, is due to the intense competition that exists between the private institutions and not public schools to attract more students and hence only those teachers who are professionally competent enough can secure their spot in this competitive job market. This study also reported that there is not a significant difference between the perceptions of female public school teachers and female private institute teachers while male private institute teachers have a more positive perception towards professional development than male public school teachers perhaps because of their exclusive role as breadwinners.

The findings of this study also showed that when it comes to the activities that can be followed by teachers for their professional development, public school teachers do not actually use new knowledge, ideas and skills in their lessons and do not follow latest ELT articles in order to stay up-to-date as much as they think they would. Conversely, for private institute teachers, exactly these two items are reported as the most used activities to boost the quality of their teaching practice. The only activity common between private institute teachers and public school teachers was using students' reaction in class to improve their classroom teaching. Something else both groups of teachers thought not very helpful in enhancing their professional development

was attending national or international conferences.

And finally de-motivation and financial strains were reported by school teachers as the main obstacles in the way of their professional development while for private institute teachers, complains were about less institutional support and lack of collaboration and partnership among colleagues as what hinders growth and change in their career.

The Implications of the Current Study

In respect to the research conducted and the results obtained, the following recommendations can be drawn from this study. The results of this study showed that willingness and collaboration are the most important determinants in teachers' professional development. However, these should be cultivated within school context if the positive results are desired. For example, one of the ways in which "willingness" towards professional development can be enhanced is by involving teachers more in not only general administrative decisions but also in specific school decision making such as curriculum and instruction (Hansson & Gamage, 2008). According to Lin (2014), teacher empowerment can transform passive teachers to active ones as long as principals and administrators act as trust-builders in student-teacher, teacher-teacher and most important of all teacher-principal relationships. Furthermore, if such a culture is established at school settings, then teachers do not resent peer-observation and peer-coaching anymore.

The result of this study also showed that both public school teachers and private institute teachers are reluctant to participate in seminars, conferences, workshops, class observations, and on-line courses. These professional development resources are going to be beneficial only if they are not presented at one-time professional development events. According to Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, and Richardson (2009), most teachers attended these kind of seminars and workshops thought they are useless and ineffective. Therefore, it is important to note that here the real issue is not the teachers who are not willing to attend these activities but it is the low quality of these offerings that make the status quo so fruitless. Then, for the high-quality professional development program to be effective, a) duration of professional development must be significant and ongoing, b) teachers' initial exposure to a concept should be active and engaging, c) understanding and learning a new concept should be through modelling presented by experts, and d) the content presented to teachers shouldn't be generic, but instead specific to the discipline (Gulamhussein, 2013). It is also recommended the psychological traits such as emotional intelligence are incorporated in the professional development courses designed for novice teachers so that it contributes to their pedagogical improvement (Hekmatzadeh, Khojasteh, & Shokrpour, 2016).

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APPENDIX

Third section statements
1. Taking initiative to follow professional development programs
2.Sharing experiences and problems with colleagues
3. Asking for professional help from colleagues
4.Working on developing new materials with colleagues
5.Working on developing new techniques and activities with colleagues
6. Observing colleagues' lesson to learn from them
7.Being observed by heads, administrators, or other colleagues, so that we learn from their feedbacks
8.Trying out new knowledge, ideas and skills in my lessons
9. Doing teacher initiated classroom investigation (action research)
10. Gathering information about one's own teaching performance (surveys, interviews, teacher evaluation forms to give to my students, etc.)
11.Using students' reaction in class to improve my classroom teaching
12.Reflecting on my own teaching by keeping a diary/journal
13.Reflecting on my own teaching by audio-taping or video-taping my classes
14.Following research literature and reading articles related to teaching and learning English
15. Attending in-service training programs provided by my own school (workshops, seminars, etc.)
16.Attending international/national conferences (as a presenter or participant) related to teaching and learning English
17. Attending online courses to improve your teaching skills (e.g. grammar courses, professional development courses, etc.)
18.Viewing/watching educational videos on YouTube, Teachertube, etc. in order to improve my teaching skills
19.Having a teacher discussion group in my school/institution
20.Having an online teacher group in What's up, Telegram, Facebook, etc. to share your problems or feedbacks with other teachers

Distorted Resistance: A Re-Read of *Red Blooms in the Forest* as Naxal and Leftist Frankensteins

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ABSTRACT

Young Adult Literature is still an emerging term in India, yet it has broken the stereotype that it deals only with superficial issues and is a less serious literary genre. Nilima Sinha's first Young Adult Novel *Red Blooms in the Forest* effectively brings out the victimisation of people and the reasons for young adults' deliberate involvement and participation in the Naxal movement. Naxalism, which is considered to be the greatest threat to internal security of India, started with the objective to liberate the rural masses from the clutches of the feudal class. The current economic policies of liberalisation, privatisation and globalisation have significantly affected the livelihood of the rural masses and puts social welfare and employment in jeopardy. The economic reforms induced by corruption and poverty have triggered social crisis on people from every stratum of society. The study analyses the young adult novel *Red Blooms in the Forest* and brings out the view that the Naxal movement, which was started to liberate the rural masses, has now turned into a trap. The distorted resistance has proved to be a Frankenstein monster that threatens the capitalists, the downtrodden/the oppressor and the oppressed alike.

Keywords: Binary walls, corruption, Naxal, resistance, young adult

INTRODUCTION

Jonathan Stephens is of the view that the label "Young Adult" refers to a story that tackles the difficult, and often adult, issues that arise during an adolescent's journey towards identity. This is a journey told through a distinctly teenaged voice that holds the same potential for literary value as its "grownup peers." (Stephens, 2007) Literature that expresses and

explores life around us has an increasing responsibility towards the representation of adolescents. This resulted in a new body of literature called 'Young Adult Literature'. Nevertheless, there is a disparity among literary critics in recognising Young Adult Literature. The popularisation of Young Adult Literature is considered to be the marketing strategy of publishing houses and that the substance of Young Adult Literature is superficial in dealing with the issues of young adults. Therefore, the genre is not considered to be a serious literary genre. The entire credit of young adult literature gaining momentum cannot be bestowed on the publishing houses because of these works, apart from highlighting the issues concerned with teenagers, also "speak to the greater human conditions…" (Garcia, 2013)

METHOD

The study is conceptual and partly explanatory in nature and the paper discloses the distress undergone by the people who have been victimised by both the Government and the Left Wing Extremist. The incidents that led to the distress of the victims had been analysed from a YA aspect of initiation; their involvement and experiences gained were part of initiation into adulthood. Literature is a tertiary record of the social happenings with emotional interpretation; the emotion and feeling of the characters in the novel are used as an instrument to bring out the impact of these distorted moments. The act of corruption, comprador bureaucrats and poverty experienced by the characters in the novel reflects the real-time issues in the society. The real context study is made through the action taken by the government, the misgovernance of bureaucrats and comments of the officials to delineate the issue of Naxalism.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Young adult literature has its roots in the American Literary context and made its accretion into the regular literary circle. Though the recurring themes in Young Adult Literature search for identity and identity crises, it also deals with sexuality, teenage tensions, friendship, family relationships and psychological complexities. In India, the growth of Young Adult Literature is quite distinct; there is a flair for the subject and theme handled in Young Adult Literature. Nilima Sinha's *Red Blooms in the Forest* deals with the long-standing issue of Naxalism in India. At the Jaipur Literary Festival, Nilima Sinha explained why she wrote this book and her decision to step into the dangerous world of Leftism. The lush green forest that enchanted her has now shed its vibrant greenness, and the forest that was the home for birds and exotic animals has turned out to be a place of danger, suspense, shooting and violence. This drastic change has made her set the novel in the jungles where the red flowers bloom. The entire story of *Red Blooms in the Forest* is in-between Champa's disillusioned entry into the Naxal group and her exit from the group. This novel bears the characteristics of young adults such as love, sexual harassment, negative parenting, and a

strong urge to establish identity. *Red Blooms in the Forest* also deals with some disturbing occurrences like death, separation and loss. Despite the serious plot we also find soothing love between Champa and Vijay, Sudhir and Munia, and between Commander Bhaskar and Commander Rekha. The death of loved ones and the effect of death on the individuals are also portrayed well in the novel. At first Munia witnesses the death of Sudhir in an operation. This makes the enthusiastic girl crumble. Even shrewd Bhaskar is found dumbstruck on the death of Rekha. The novel epitomises the life of youth and the non-elite society of Indian villages and towns. Every character is introduced with a swindled story of their own, which flings them towards Naxalism. If one talks about Naxals, then the narrative is mostly characterized by the binary conflict between the haves and have-nots; the leading cause of it is that many people in the elitist category, instead of bridging the gap between the binary opposites have started building a wall out of it. The Naxals strive towards a world where there is no class distinction and corruption. "They wanted the world to be a better, more just and equal place…" (Sinha, 2013) There is a strong history of rural revolt against colonial rule and the indigenous beneficiaries of the colonial rule. The emergence of the Naxalite movement in the late 1960's demonstrated that the poor and the landless could be every bit as assertive and political as the wealthier classes. The Naxalite movement led to a revival of interest in the history of peasant insurgency in India. But only a few

historians claim that the peasant militancy seen in the Naxalite movement had a long tradition. The government has started to strengthen the state's security network against Naxalism through the modernization of state police and the full deployment of a centralized paramilitary force. Such activities of the government have curtailed the Naxal activity in 180 districts (2009) of Red Corridor states to 72 districts (presently). This repressive state apparatus employed by the Indian government has made the Indian Left Wing Extremists resort to the politics of survival. The novel is set in between two situations; one is where severe anti-Naxal operations and transgressions against the poor abound and the second is where there is both allegiance and detraction of Naxal ideology.

The Naxalbari struggle has inspired the filmmakers and novelists during its initial period of 1970's but later it has become the focus of scholarship in the fields of history, political science, sociology and anthropology. In the recent years Naxalism has captured the imagination of the internationally acclaimed authors and activist like Arundhati Roy. The booker prize shortlist novels of 2013 and 2014 has included two novels, Lahiri's (2013) Lowlands (2013) and Mukherjee's (2014) Lives of Others, with protagonists from 1970's Naxal movement. Books like *Red Jihad: Battle for South Asia* by Khan (2012), Sinha's (2013) *Red Blooms in the Forest* and Sengupta's (2013) *Guns on My Red Earth* also deals with Naxalism. Incidentally the books published in the year 2013 are

categorised under young adult literature with Naxalism as its theme. In all the novels Naxalites form a foil for peasantry and middle-class families. The crises experienced by the peasantry and middle-class families are represented with greater sensitivity by Sinha with insights to political motivations. One of the reasons for the surge in publications on Naxal issues in the year 2013 may be the sensational Jheeram Ghati attack which wiped out almost the entire Congress leadership in Chhattisgarh, the Maoist insurgents killed 27 people including top Chhattisgarh Congress leaders and policemen. This ambush was targeted on a Congress leader who was the brain behind Salwa Judum - an anti-naxal movement by vigilante militia that started in 2006. Salwa Judum has been declared as illegal and unconstitutional by Supreme Court in 2011. The plan of the state government was to shrink the mass base of the Maoist by using the Salwa Judum and Special Police Officers; which forced the village people to migrate out of their homelands into the Salwa Judum camps or to join the IDPs (Internally Displaced Person) in Khammam, Telangana or go deeper into the forest area and join the Maoists or stay in the village and die of hunger. The movement which liberated the landless labour and the working class has turned out to be a Frankenstein phenomenon putting their mere existence at stake.

Scholarly articles on young adult literature dealing with terrorism are widely seen in the Western studies. But most of the articles are based on classroom conversation.

Hayn and Jeffrey (2012) in *Teaching Young Adult Literature Today* pointed out the contemporary realistic fiction of young adult literature that dealt with the modern problems of terrorism. Kaplan mentioned few novels including crossover novels to suggest that they were "strong books for young adults that deal with life in the world where unsuspecting victims fall prey to harsh and unrelenting terror" Ames (2013) in, "Engaging "Apolitical" Adolescents: Analyzing the Popularity and Educational Potential of Dystopian Literature Post-9/11", disproved the common complaint that the young adult age group was uninterested in global politics and explores the potential educational use of selected popular young adult dystopian novels to engage the students in the direction of social justice issues and overt political issues. Hauschildt (2006) in "Worlds of Terrorism: Learning through Young Adult Literature" said that unpleasant terms like terrorism, kidnapping, hijacking, bombings and bioterrorism are brought into American consciousness through 9/11 attack. She suggested that young adult novels could be used as a tool to initiate a healthier conversation in the classroom. Further, the paper highlights the discussions, investigations and analyses of terrorism that can be utilised to rethink all of its ramifications, from acts of teasing and bullying to national and international realms of terrorism. The paper "Grief, Thought, & Appreciation: Re-examining Our Values Amid Terrorism Through *The Giver*" by Johnson, Kleismit, and Williams (2002) had recorded the response of the students and

bring out how reading *The Giver* and the reflection on its issue has helped the class make sense of the loss of innocence and the costs and benefits of free societies.

In India the first book published with young adult tag was Anand's (2005) *No Guns at My Son's Funeral*, a book which brings out the terrorism and the miseries of people residing in Kashmir. Muse India, the literary e journal in September 2011 issue featured young adult literature with eight articles. Out of eight articles most of them explored the growth of young adult literature and traced the young adult characterised works in early Indian writings with prominence to its literariness. Manjushree (2014) in her "Making a Mark: An Exploration of Young Adult fiction in *No Guns at my Son's Funeral*" had also explored the nuances and cadences of the phenomenal rise of young adult fiction and brought out issues grappled by Indian young adult literature through the analysis of Paro Anand's young adult novel No Guns at my Son's Funeral. Ramaswamy (2015) came out with "Fiction for Children and Young Adults in India: Critical Essays" a collection of nine research papers of her which served as a worthy contribution to the field of young adult literature in India. The paper "Baited Youth In Paro Anand's *No Guns at my Son's Funeral*: A Study on Terrorism" by Narendiran and Bhuvaneswari (2015) analysed how the innocent youth were lured towards terror outfits, the aftermath of terrorist activities on the people involved in it and also others who were not directly involved in it.

Red Blooms in the Forest – An Overview

The novel begins on a typically beautiful evening where Champa goes about to her daily chores. The Naxals drop in at their house and force them to cook meals. As a result of feeding them, her father is taken into police custody on the ground of having given asylum to the Naxals. Champa goes to meet her father at the police station but the ill-treatment there and her mother's attitude to obtain her father through any means forces Champa to seek help from Vijay, a member of the Naxal group, and he takes her to the Naxal camp. She is made to stay there, and she joins them as she likes the people there, and moreover, she is very much fascinated by the classes taken in the camp and the ideology of the Naxals. While she is being indoctrinated, she joins a mission with Vijay to kidnap Manas, the grandson of the local landlord, for ransom. The kidnap of Manas provokes the police to search for them, and the camp had to be relocated. The team is disappointed for not getting the ransom and furious because Manas' family approached the police, and hence they plan to kill Manas. There is an air strike on the camp; amidst the chaos, Champa facilitates Manas' escape. The mass death of her colleagues drives Champa to leave the Naxal group and her beloved Vijay and turn back to her family.

The author has beautifully woven every character in the novel to be a victim of the binary conflict of all sorts. Champa witnessed the humiliation of her father in the hands of the police; Vijay was deprived of his father's properties by his uncle, who

bribed the officer to transfer the assets to his name. Sudhir turned cynical towards society due to his father's deeds and was the only one who was not a victim. Baskar Reddy, a former professor, wanted to join Naxalites because of his inability to get justice for his sister's death, against the powerful politician and his son. In the same way, every character in the novel has faced oppression.

The novel conceived with a rudimentary narrative material creates diverse perception on characterisation. Ignorance about the society is the tragic flaw (Hamartia) of the characters. The characters harsh experience of corruptions serves as anagnorisis and reveals them about their own situation in the society. In the novel there are instances of anagnorisis. Champa denouncing Kamala from the state of mother to just a woman whom her father brought home is unworthy to be a mother as she is "ready to sell her husband's daughter to any man who wished to maul her." (Sinha 47) This incident reveals Champa's plight and it is artistically followed by peripeteia; Champa seeking asylum from the jungle people. Every character has their own revelation of their situation which puts them in the track of Naxalism.

The denouement of the novel has another great instance of anagnorisis which holds significance, Champa's realisation that the methods and violence of her leaders are actually hazardous. This realisation leads her to quit Naxalism and return to civilization. The peripeteia, reversal of fortune for good does not happen for Champa alone but for the government too, as it regains its citizen.

On the other hand Manas, after his escape, realizes that the Naxals are not criminals but misguided young men and women and decides to help them through education. This shows that Baskar's attempt to make Manas their supporter has been achieved partially, Manas too wants to educate them and create a new social order where there is no exploitation and no inequality but strongly disagrees violence. The incident is a clear indication of Naxal ideologists gaining intellectuals support. An inference through this approach emphasis that the movement should become non-violent and it should be an intellectual movement with the support of more intellectuals. Even the Kerala High Court verdict 2015 on Maoist ideology has announced that being a Maoist is not a crime further in the significant ruling, it stated "though the political ideology of Maoists would not synchronise with our (Indian) constitutional polity. It is a basic human right to think in terms of human aspiration" (Sudhi, 2015).

Corruption as a Social Challenge

Corruption is the key problem faced by everyone in the society. In the beginning, bribe was used to be paid for nefarious deeds, but now people demand a bribe to perform one's own duty on time—paying bribes has become ubiquitous and quotidian. In the novel, there are instances where Sudhir explains that everyone is corrupt in the government and says how businessmen make money illegally and the authorities' turn a blind eye towards their misdeeds.

The last Deputy Commissioner allowed corruption to flourish. Every time government schemes were allotted to contractors he took hefty sums to pass the projects… After all, he himself has paid a neat sum to be appointed boss here… to get a posting of your choice you must bribe the minister… after all, he needs the money too, for elections! (Sinha, 2013)

These corrupt practices are worse when it comes to the people in the lower strata of society. Sudhir narrated an incident in the block office where two hundred rupees were demanded from an old widow, just to accept the application form.

There was this old woman. I found her weeping near the Block Office. I felt sorry and asked her why. She burst into sobs. With her husband dead, she was entitled to 'Vidhwa Pension' from the government. Her papers were perfect. Yet they made her run from office to office. Finally, she was told to hand in two hundred rupees for the paper to be received. (Sinha, 2013)

While the old lady was affected directly by the corruption, Vijay was indirectly affected. His greedy uncle bribed the officers to transfer the properties to his name when originally they were to be shared with Vijay's father. Though the height of corruption differs in both cases, the intensity remains the same. Only after he was affected directly did Vijay give up his desire to join the civil services.

…they are all the same. Corrupt, from head to toe. And you want to join them…! No, I don't! Not any longer! … What is the point of joining those who make rules, only to break them the next moment? … I will not join their rank… to become as corrupt as they are (Sinha, 2013).

Poverty: A Question on Social Welfare

In the name of privatisation and development, the lands are acquired from the people along with their livelihood. Privatisation in a transition economy like India has its own contradiction about social welfare and employment. Champa's father owned a small amount of land, but it had been taken over to set up a cement factory. In fact, they had paid a paltry compensation and a job as a daily wager. His entire livelihood changed. Champa's father had to labour the whole day for the meagre wages he got: "early every morning, he left for the cement factory where he laboured hard all day, returning only after it was dark."(Sinha, 2013) In the same way, liberalisation in the agrarian sector has an impact not just on the economy but also on the loss of livelihood and rural income. These economic impacts have triggered a social crisis. The rising production costs and the declining prices of agro products have left the farmer with no money. In the novel, we find Gouri narrating how they were helped by the jungle people

during the planting season. This shows us how farmers are often left without any seeds or money for the next season.

> *…they did come to our help when we were in trouble… during the sowing season, we needed money to buy seed. There was nothing left from last year and no money to buy more. In desperation, he approached… one of the jungle folks…Their Captain spoke to all his people to help, and they passed around a cap to collect money. They were generous and we got enough to buy the seeds… the captain said we need not return the money.* (Sinha, 2013).

Poverty is another social evil that has induced many to revolt against the system. Sita and Uma, sisters in the Naxal camp, had to part from their parents just because the parents could not feed them. "Their parents had nine daughters whom they found difficult to feed and clothe. They succumbed to pressure from the jungle people and parted with the girls in return for a few hundred rupees" (Sinha, 2013). But the girls were quite happy in the camp for at least they got something to eat every day.

Victims and Victimisers

The objectives of the Naxals' resistance are anti-landlord; anti-moneylender; anti-land tax bureaucracy; anti-forest officials and motivated to liberate the rural people from the clutches of the feudal class. They operated with a Maoist ideology and through peasant revolt. But now the stringent actions of the government and the police have turned into a crisis, not just to the people involved but also to the innocent people around the place from where the Naxals operate. The movement which was started to liberate the rural masses has now turned into a trap for them. Police, in pursuit of Naxals, resort to violence against the people. The Naxals also kill people who are alleged police informers. Naxals conduct directives of 'Kangaroo Courts' or 'Jan Adalats' to deal with police informers or for those who do not believe in their Maoist ideology.

A Home Ministry official said to The Hindu:

> *To create terror among civilians in the LWE affected areas, the Maoist cadres, in their 'Kangaroo Courts', also called 'Jan Adalat', or 'Praja Courts', execute sentences against the civilians who do not subscribe to their ideology in the areas under their domain or labelling them as police informers ("53 executed by naxal 'kangaroo courts' in 3 years", 2016).*

Women Doubly Victimised

In both the cases, women become the worst victims. The violence against them may be associated with increasing incidences of rape, female foeticide, and the growth in trafficking of women. With their livelihood lost and their men being taken away, the women must face another burden to

look after their households without any income. We find Kamala, Champa's mother, complaining with disappointment about the helplessness of her girl child to bring back her father.

> *If only I had an elderly son instead of a daughter, he would have helped… What good is it to have a girl? She can only sit at home. Oh, what kind of kismet do I have… to keep, feed and care for a girl who is of no use?* (Sinha, 2013)

Desperate at the words of her mother, Champa went to the police station to meet her father. There she was sexually assaulted by two policemen, and she escaped their clutches and rushed back home, but her mother's response to the incident shocked her to the core,

> *In slow, halting words, the girl tried to explain what had taken place at the police station… She remembered the tightening pressure of the hands… the horror of whispering voices coaxing her to be calm. Bravely she went on… how the strong arms had tried to force her down… and finally how she had kicked them and escaped.*"

Her mother shocked and bruised her by calling her ungrateful,

> *"If you had not resisted, your babuji would have been here just now, right beside us. Ungrateful girl… Instead of*

> *helping your father come back, you fled from there!* (Sinha, 2013).

The atrocity committed on Champa is the worst form of exploitation and cruelty. The policemen approached her mother, and she readily accepted to sexually bribe them through Champa to get her husband back.

The story of Ganga, a comrade of Champa in the Naxal camp, also brought out the sexual abuse she faced from an old and fat landlord.

> *Ganga… the eldest of seven siblings… had never been to school for her labourer parents needed someone to care for the little ones. She stayed home… until the fat and old landlord cast his evil eyes on her. 'I think he bribed my parents. They just shut their eyes and closed their ears whenever I complained… one day … that bloated beast stole in…I just picked up the chakoo and stabbed him. And then I ran... I mean to kill that animal… someday!'* (Sinha, 2013).

Such an exploitation of the poor and the vulnerable has made them flee and join the Naxals.

Realisation of Social Inequality

Manas Gupta, who was kidnapped for ransom stands in favour of law and democracy. The Naxals are mainly against parliamentary democracy. They want to establish people's democratic dictatorship through a protracted people's war. Manas argues that their stand on resistance against the imperialism,

feudalism and comprador bureaucratic capitalism has become distorted. Bhaskar says that "Violence is only a means to achieve your goals… if the ultimate goal is to help the helpless and downtrodden, any means is justified" (Sinha, 2013). After all the days he spent in the camp, and after reading the books on Maoism, Manas agreed that society was not fair towards the poor.

> *Yes, the world is not fair towards the weak… The capitalists consume everything, leaving nothing for the poor… I also agree that a new world order must be created where there is no exploitation and no inequality. You are very right about it all* (Sinha, 2013).

Even then he advocated non-violence and democracy. Manas, after his escape, realised that those dreadful 'criminals' who kidnapped him were not cruel and merciless villains but misguided boys and girls who were fighting for the cause they believed in. So, he set up a new mission in his life - to benefit such youth by providing them with a good education free of cost.

CONCLUSION

Resistance that is not governed by legal norms is distorted in the eyes of the law. The ideology that has been the focus of the leftist movement has been distorted. This distorted resistance has turned out to be a Frankenstein monster which is threatening the capitalists and the downtrodden/the

oppressor and oppressed alike. Naxals should take up non-violence and intellectual supporters to make the movement into an intellectual movement, the "Naxalites' cause is not a motive born out of hatred of the state, but their love of the nation" (Jayathilake, 2016). Naxals operate where there is an administrative vacuum. In fact, they grow where there is an administrative weakness. They take advantage of this feeling of neglect and proclaim that the state is a mere instrument in the hands of the rich that needs to be overthrown through a guerrilla war. The government is concerned because "the violence is primarily directed against security forces, and those in power, rather than against the poor, who are already daily objects of violence in India" (Sundar, 2011) Former Army General V.K. Singh's stand against the use of military against Naxals explains that they are not a secessionist movement and this issue has to be dealt politically, socially and in terms of the type of development we bring to impoverished areas. The stringent action against the Naxals made them resort to survival politics, which leads to a negative possibility in the uplifting and the developing of the marginalised. Their failure, in this case, should not be taken as a testimony to the discourse itself. The government has allowed the problem to escalate. Now the government should take an honest stance to level the walls of binary separation of the rich and the poor built in the society and make the society fair and just for everyone. Just flooding the Maoist-affected

areas with funds and bringing basic social infrastructure alone is not enough to win the hearts and minds of the people. The basic structure of exploitation must be eliminated, more robust and stringent laws with speedy justice are needed and there should be a decentralisation of power to local bodies where a fair representation of all people is also maintained. The heart and mind of the people must be won by providing them with unbiased education which turns them into competent intellectuals.

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SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES

Chekhov's Imprints in "A Streetcar Named Desire"

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ABSTRACT

This essay is based on a comparative analysis of *The Cherry Orchard* by Chekhov and *A Streetcar named Desire* by Tennessee Williams. The main objective of this essay is to give a complex analysis of these pieces revealing similar forms and ideas, recurrent motifs, symbols, theatrical devises used by both playwrights, and show their place in the aesthetic systems of both artists, and in the world picture they draw in their dramas. Unlike many other modem interpreters of classics who often use well known plots to express totally different if not the opposite meaning, Williams remaining an original and imaginative playwright follows the path laid by Chekhov, developing in his works a similar poetic style, widening and enriching the scale of expressive devices, which is shown on the basis of comparative analysis. And the major affinity is not even in the likeness of particular plots, characters or artistic means but in the fact that both artists tend to depict concrete situations in a broad historical and philosophic perspective. Therefore, their plays acquire a symbolic meaning, becoming emblems of the time, epoch and human life as such. This, as I try to show, is the major thing Williams learnt from Chekhov.

Keywords: Artistic means, style, comparative analysis, drama, motifs, symbols

INTRODUCTION

It is impossible to overestimate the impact of Chekhov on the development of world drama, American in particular. Chekhovian intonations and overtones are distinctly present in the dramas of Odets and Hellman, Sherwood Anderson and the young O'Neill. Edward Albee and David Mamet were the ones who often spoke about being influenced by his works. As Juan Zhao points out, "Chekhov had an immediate and direct impact on such Western writers as James Joyce, Katherine Mansfield, and Sherwood Anderson; indirectly, most major authors of short stories in the twentieth century, including Katherine Anne Porter,

Franz Kafka, Ernest Hemingway, Bernard Malamud, and Raymond Carver, are in his debt" (Zhao, 2010).

One of those who were under the long lasting spell of the Russian dramatist was Tennessee Williams, who kept calling himself Chekhov's student and even carried his portrait in his breast pocket (McAdam, 2012). Though his words of admiration for Chekhov were many a time referred to by critics, this influence as such has not been so far properly studied. This may be due to the fact that at first sight the plays of these playwrights seem strikingly different — in situations, in the marked national color and typically American or Russian character types. And still when carefully considered, their works under this disparity reveal great essential affinity, which in my opinion is much more relevant than direct analogy of plots or characters.

METHODS AND MATERIALS

This essay is based on a comparative analysis of *The Cherry Orchard* by Chekhov and *A Streetcar named Desire* by Tennessee Williams. Both American and Russian scholars have noticed some similarity between these plays (Dissanayake, 2009) but mostly did not go further sporadic remarks (Andrews, 2013) or general observations (Hern & Hooper, 2015; Zhao, 2010). The main objective of this essay is to give a complex analysis based on close reading of these pieces revealing similar forms and ideas, recurrent motifs, symbols, theatrical devises used by both playwrights, and show their place in the aesthetic systems

of both artists, and in the world picture they draw in their dramas. In spite of the fact that there is not a very great time distance between them (Chekhov -1860-1904, Williams 1911–1983) they belong not only to different cultures but also to different epochs. Chekhov lived on the eve of the crucial turn in the history of Russia and was among those who anticipated the shortcomings of this process. Williams spent the major part of his life in a world shattered by wars and revolutions, striving to comprehend their consequences for an individual. Their social and aesthetic views, their philosophical foundations and genre structures of their works may be different, but still such a comparison is not incidental. Each of them possessed to the highest degree an acute sensitivity to the ills of the time and desire to help an individual in his/her search for place to belong in the disintegrated world. We cannot say for sure whether Williams had *The Cherry Orchard* in mind when writing *A Streetcar named Desire* or the affinity of many basic aspects of the two dramas was due to the general influence Chekhov had exercised on the American playwright. What is of real interest is the very fact of this artistic interaction and those aesthetic results that it produced. The essay is based on the method of comparative literary analysis introduced by Dionis Durishin in his fundamental monograph "The Theory of Comparative Literary Studies" (Durishin, 1979) and further developed by such Russian scholars as Amineva, Ibragimov, Nagumanova, and Khabibullina (2014), and Bekmetov (2015).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

I would like to start with some general remarks. Both playwrights portray society on the turn: for Chekhov it was the old Russia of the gentry, passing into history, for Williams — American southern culture, 'gone with the wind', and for both the old order was associated with spirituality ruthlessly destroyed by materialism and pragmatism. Both artists acknowledged the irrevocability of this process, both' realized the ambiguous nature of the past, and still both (Chekhov less, Williams more) preferred it to the present. As one of the most renowned scholars of American theater C.W.E. Bigsby wrote about *A Streetcar Named Desire*:

> "Like Checkhov's *The Cherry Orchard* (…) it focuses on a culture on the turn, an old world, elegant but reflexive, inward turned and inward turning, in process of surrendering to a new order, lacking the civility of a passing world but lacking, too, its neurotic, enervated products" (Bigsby, 1994).

For both of them historical and social processes are relevant only to the extend they influence the fate of an individual. The key theme for both is the theme of loss and disillusionment. Equally both believe that it is only kindness and tolerance that can help individuals to survive. That is why this decaying and dying world is so aestheticized, and there is so much sad dignity in their defeated heroes, and especially heroines (it is interesting to note that the most remarkable characters in the plays of Chekhov and Williams are women). And if Chekhov's characters have some hopes for the future, which they envision as a vague romantic dream, hoping that people in some fifty years or so will solve their burning problems; Williams, having almost reached this mark, trusts only the intrinsic resources of an individual. Maybe, that is why he refers in his works to the whole stock of literary archetypes and symbols to impart dignity and grandeur to the fates of his characters.

The dramas of both playwrights are exceptionally poetic. They are permeated with symbols, which often blend into a chain of indirect associations and implications. The speech of the characters in the moments of spiritual elevation becomes poetically aphoristic. Williams who wrote poetry throughout his whole life saturated his dramas explicitly and implicitly with the imagery from his poems. Chekhov who never wrote poetry constructed his plays according to the principles of poetic composition — the tension is growing not due to the development of the action but due to emotional gradation. Williams like Chekhov thought that poetry does not need necessarily to express itself through words, in the theater it may be expressed in the situation, in the atmosphere, even in silence, and therefore both resorted to all kinds of extra textual means to create lyrical implications, so important in the plays of both. Proceeding form Chekhov's innovations and developing them Williams makes every element of the performance

suggestive and loaded with meaning. We cannot fail to remember in this respect Chekhov's famous gun, which if hanging on the wall in the first act should necessarily shoot in the last one (Gurland, 1904). In Tennessee Williams' plays everything 'shoots' — musical accompaniment, mechanical noises, symbolic setting, color and light.

Now I shall try to prove these statements by a comparative analysis of the two most popular and characteristic plays of these dramatists — *The Cherry Orchard* and *A Streetcar Named Desire*. The very first thing that strikes you is their marked diversity. On the one hand, Russia of the beginning of the 20-th century, on the other — America of the end of the 1940s; an old manor house, Russian gentry, peasants, nostalgic overtones, unuttered sadness, and the outskirts of New Orleans with its multicultural inhabitants, overpowering sexuality, hysterics, heartrending anguish. And still these plays have a lot in common. Unfortunately, the critics do not go any further than general remarks; however, I will dare to do so.

Firstly though there is a quite significant time distance between the two plays, the fates of the heroes are basically determined by similar factors — the ruin of the old order and development of a new one. Here we should also note the similarity of the social processes, which took place in Russia after the Peasants' Reform of 1861 and in American South after the Civil War. But if Chekhov's heroes are at the beginning of the decline, the heroine of Tennessee Williams Blanche Dubois is at the very end of this process. Therefore, while Chekhov's characters still have some vague hopes, even though they are illusory, Blanche has reached the bottom line, beyond which there is nothing but total decay, madness and death. That is why Williams' play is marked for greater emotional intensity.

As I have already mentioned, both playwrights are not so much concerned with the social processes as with the consequences that they have for individuals, therefore I do not think we should over exaggerate Williams' interest in them as some scholars do, see, for example E.M. Jackson, who states that Williams' basic achievements lie in the sphere of social problems that his dramas refer to (Jackson, 1966). Yes, indeed, Williams often touches upon burning problems of his time – immigrants, racism, decay of the old South, Depression, poverty, but still I would rather side with M. Koreneva, who writes, that for Williams "acquisition of happiness is not connected with solving social problems but rather lies beyond them" (Koreneva, 1970). To my mind this is quite true for Chekhov as well. Society for both playwrights can rather destroy an individual than help him/her to survive.

Both dramas in question focus on women characters — Ranevskaya in *The Cherry Orchard* and Blanche Dubois in *A Streetcar* — whose fates become symbolic representations of certain historical and social tendencies. Here we can also trace a certain similarity of the structure: in both cases there are titles, which become the

central symbols of the play embodying its dramatic essence, which later split and multiply in its situations. In the opening scenes of both plays the heroine comes to her relations after certain dramatic life experience. Both heroines finally lose their last hope for revival and depart into the void. In both cases the conflict is determined, on the one hand, by the clash of the old and the new orders of life, and on the other — material and spiritual systems. In both cases the one who embodies the antagonistic force, which finally destroys the heroine, is a man. Being utterly different as personalities, Lopakhin and Stanley perform much the same role in the conflict. Lopakhin does everything he can to save Ranevskaya, while Stanley destroys Blanche with 'deliberate cruelty'. However the dominating feature of both is materialism, which in the case of Stanley is intensified by his sexuality. They both in their own way perform violent acts. In the case of Stanley it is physical violence when he rapes Blanche, thus conforming his 'might in right' attitude, symbolically it marks the final destruction and desecration of the illusory myth that she was till the very end clutching to, and effective destruction of herself. The sounds of the ax cutting down the cherry orchard have the same effect on Ranevskaya — they mark the destruction of her world, her hopes, and her soul. So in both cases the material, physical action is relevant mainly because of its consequences for the human soul.

Still more interesting, to my mind, are the implicit allusions to *The Cherry Orchard*, which permeate *A Streetcar*. To

start with, it is the orchard itself that actually germinates in the name of the heroine — Blanche Dubois: "It's a French name. It means woods and Blanche means white, so the two together mean white woods. Like an orchard in spring!" — she explains to Mitch (Williams, 1984). This, of course, could not have been left unnoticed by the critics (McAdam, 2012).

The attribute, which is closely associated both with the cherry orchard and with the name of the heroine, is color white. It becomes one of the leitmotifs of both plays symbolizing lost purity, hopes and nostalgia for the past. "O, my childhood, my purity!" exclaims Ranevskaya. "In this nursery I slept, looked out of the window and happiness woke up with me every morning, and then the orchard was just the same — white all over!" (Chekhov, 1948). And further "Look, there deceased mother is walking in the orchard dressed in white", "the white tree is bending down like a woman. Masses of white flowers, blue sky!" (Ibidem, p. 321). And finally, it is the color of the tombs in the cemetery, which the cherry orchard borders on.

In Williams' plays the white color is still more productive. It is present already in the name of the heroine — Blanche. She appears in the poor quarters of New Orleans in a white suit — "there is something about her uncertain manner as well as her white clothes that suggest a moth" (Williams, 1984). This brings to memory Williams' poem "Lament for the Moths", where he creates an image of a moth as a symbol of fragile, exquisite beauty doomed to extinction in the cruel world:

*A Plague has stricken the moths
The moths are dying,
Their bodies are flakes of bronze
On the carpet lying.
Enemies of the delicate everywhere
Have breathed a pestilent mist
into the air
Give them, o, mother of moths and
mother of men,
Strength to enter this heavyy world
again,
For delicate were the moths and badly
wanted
Here in a world by mammoth
figures haunted*
(Williams, 1964)

All through the play Blanche is desperately trying to preserve her nonexistent purity. As in Chekhov's play the white color is associated with nostalgia for the past — the white manor house with white columns, the family mansion of the Dubois "Belle Reve", which just as the cherry orchard was sold for debts before that having turned into a cemetery, where all Blanche's frivolous relations were buried. Thus, here, too, the white color of purity and hope turns into the color of the tombs.

But if the title of Chekhov's play is directly alluded to in the American play, the title of the latter seems to have nothing in common either with 'The Cherry Orchard" or with Chekhov's works in general. However this isn't quite so. Firstly, in both cases the eponymous key images were borrowed from reality and have quite a concrete meaning. The cherry orchard is

a material object, which can be sold and bought or cut down. The streetcar named *Desire* was the name of the route, which for a long time existed in New Orleans. Now let us go back to the notion of *desire*, which is so crucial for understanding of all Williams'' plays — is it so alien to Chekhov? The word *desire* in both languages — Russian and English — means basically two things: a) a strong wish and b) sexual urge or appetite. It is evident that in its first meaning desire is a characteristic feature of the characters of both plays — they all desire to preserve their world, their identity, to find peace and consolation. In both plays these desires remain unsatisfied as the heroes are inadequate to reality and are finally doomed. In Chekhov's plays desire may sometimes turn into obsession: "To Moscow! To Moscow!" (*Three Sisters*). But the second meaning of this word, which greatly motivates the actions of all Williams' characters, is also not alien to Chekhov's heroes. In Chekhov's times it was not customary to talk openly about sexuality, however, the nature of human desires was much the same, and Chekhov was perfectly aware of it. Therefore, he actually stuffed his plays with all kinds of love chains. If we could put all his plays together we would have one monumental drama reigned over by Desire, which always remains unsatisfied, where everybody is passionately in love, and as one of his characters, doctor Dorn (*The Seagull*) says, "How nervous, how nervous everybody is! And so much love around!" (Chekhov, 1948). The same words can be attributed to *The Cherry Orchard*, which

can be called a play about unrequited love. Indeed, even all the minor characters are in love. Yepikhodov loves Dunyasha, who in her turn loves the servant Yasha; Simeonov-Pishik is definitely attracted to Charlotte, who is totally indifferent to him. Petya loves Annya who is more attracted to his ideas than to him; Ranevskaya keeps loving her unfaithful Parisian sweetheart, who actually robs her. Varya loves Lopakhin who, from his very childhood not willing to acknowledge this fact, loves Ranevskaya. Thus we see that both Chekhov and Williams write about desire, though one paints it in water colors and the other in oil.

But most obviously the similarity between the two plays can be traced in the main characters — Ranevskaya and Blanche Dubois. Both before their first appearance on the stage had painful experience — first and foremost, the death of a beloved person. In the case of Ranevskaya — her son, in the case of Blanche — her young husband. It is interesting to compare their laments about these sad circumstances, — the wording is almost identical:

> Ranevskaya: "Grisha, my boy, my boy perished, drowned" (Chekhov, 1948).

> Blanche:'The boy, the boy died, he was just a boy. Alan, Alan! The Grey boy!" (Williams, 1984).

They both had many other losses in the past, as Blanche puts it, "the long parade to the graveyard!" (Ibidem, p. 26). If Ranevskaya really comes from Paris and is dressed like a Parisian, Blanche for the local folks looks\as if she had, come, from Paris, producing a striking contrast to the surrounding with her manners and elegant clothes. "It looks like you raided some stylish shops in Paris", comments Stanley (Ibidem, p. 38). Talking to her clumsy suitor Mitch, Blanche now and then uses French words: "I want to create --*joie de vivre*! We are going to be very Bohemian. We are going to pretend that we are sitting in a little artists' cafe on the left bank in Paris", she says to him. "*Je suis la Dame aux Camellias! Vous etes Armand*! Understand French? (…)*Voulez vous coucher avec moi ce soir? Vous ne comprenez pas? Ah, quelle dommage*! (Ibidem, p. 88).

Though they have both been severely beaten by life they still live in an illusory world and cannot or do not want to adjust to reality. Having no money to live on, Ranevskaya asks for the most expensive food at the restaurant, gives a gold coin to a beggar and generously tips the servants. Lopakhin's practical proposition to cut the cherry orchard into plots and rent them out, which could actually save the situation, seems to her sheer nonsense. She rejects reality and does not want to face the truth. "You should not deceive yourself", says Petya. "You should at least once in your lifetime face the truth!". "What kind of truth?" retorts Ranevskaya. "You see what is true and what is not, and to me it seems that I have lost my eyesight!" (Chekhov, 1948).

The same is true for Blanche .When Mitch strips the light bulb, which Blanche covered with a Chinese paper lantern — her childish attempt to escape from reality — and declares that he is for realism,

she violently protests: "And I don't want realism! I want magic. I don't tell the truth, Hell what ought to be truth" (Williams, 1984).

These heroines have also much in common in their psychological characteristics: when the action of the play starts they both are on the edge of nervous breakdown. It can be easily traced through the authorial remarks in the first act, the function of which is to give an insight into the emotional state of the heroine:

Ranevskaya: "cries", "kisses Anya's hands, laughs, covers her face with her hands"; "speaks through tears", "jumps up", "paces back and forth in agitation, kisses the wardrobe".

Blanche: "sits in a chair very stiffly, with her shoulders slightly hunched, her hands tightly clutching her purse"; 'catches her breath", "speaks with feverish vivacity", "shaking all over"; "her heard falls on her arms'. All through the play her behavior will be accompanied by such remarks as "wildly", "shrilly", "hysterically", "nervously", "hectic" etc. Just as Ranevskaya, Blanche keeps talking about her nerves.

Both heroines eventually become hostages of their sensuality, and both leave to face their final destruction. There is an interesting detail: if Ranevskaya really receives a telegram from her lover and associates with it her last hope, Blanche invents a telegram from a rich suitor, which seems real in her dimming mind. But as a matter of fact, Ranevskaya's telegram or at least the hope associated with it is not more real than the imaginary telegram Blanche invents.

Ranevskaya and Blanche are doomed in this pragmatic world, haunted by "mammoth figures", which leaves no place for delicate souls, and both artists deplore this old aristocratic culture replaced by gross mercantile values. It is remarkable how this idea of doom is expressed in the plays under analysis: in both of them there appears a bizarre figure, which, though being quite real becomes ominous in the context of the play. In "The Cherry Orchard" it is a drunken stranger who appears from nowhere in the orchard and begs for money; in "A Streetcar" it is a blind Mexican woman who sells flowers for the dead — "flores para los muertos". Both figures effectively become messengers of the hostile reality, which the heroines are trying desperately to escape.

As has already been noted, both playwrights extensively use music and different sounds to create the appropriate atmosphere in their plays. This is also true for "The Cherry Orchard' and "A Streetcar Named *Desire*" In both plays music serves as a lyrical comment on the action, intensifying the atmosphere of the scenes, revealing the inner state of the main characters; sometimes it serves as a flashback (the melody of 'Varshavyanka', which for Blanche is associated with her husband's death), sometimes as a foreshadowing (cats' screams predict Blanche's fight with Stanley). In the first act of "The Cherry Orchard" we hear birds singing, shepherd playing his pipe — all this contributes to the general atmosphere of spring and hope. The second act is almost wholly accompanied by sad melodies of the

guitar, which intensify its nostalgic mood. In the third we hear a Jewish orchestra, which has come to play at the party, and its joyful music, on the one hand, serves as a counterpart to Ranevskaya's desperation, and on the other — accompanies Lopakhin's triumph.

The music in "A Streetcar" may be called one of the main characters of the play— it is 'the blue piano' as Williams calls it — the music that expresses the spirit of life that goes on there. Sometimes it is nostalgic, sometimes — full of passion and desire. Like in Chekhov's play the music is alternated or sometimes ousted by other noises, the major function of which is to predict the inevitable destruction — it is the noise of the ax cutting down the orchard in the first case, and the noise of the approaching locomotive and 'jungle voices' — in the second. And in both plays we come across sound-symbols, which are very important for understanding the final message. In "The Cherry Orchard" it is twice repeated sound of a burst string coming somewhere from the sky, sad and dying away as the longing for the past. In "A Streetcar" it is the sound of the cathedral chimes in the last act as a lament for Blanche, her lost soul, her pure longing heart.

CONCLUSION

Thus, unlike many other modem interpreters of classics who often use well known plots to express totally different if not the opposite meaning, Williams remaining an original and imaginative playwright follows the path

laid by Chekhov, developing in his works a similar poetic style, widening and enriching the scale of expressive devices. And the major affinity is not even in the likeness of particular plots, characters or artistic means but in the fact that both artists tend to depict concrete situations in a broad historical and philosophic perspective. I agree with Juan Zhao, who thinks, that "Williams saw in Chekhov an ability to truly understand and portray human nature through his revolutionary drama and wanted to emulate that unique talent" (Zhao, 2010, p. 38). Therefore, their plays acquire a symbolic meaning, becoming the emblems of the time, epoch and human life as such. This, in my opinion, is the major thing Williams learnt from Chekhov.

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Evidentials in Research Articles: A Marker of Discipline

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ABSTRACT

By taking a mixed-methods research design and in a comparative corpus, the present study explored evidentials use in empirical articles in four disciplines: Applied Linguistics, Psychology, Environmental Engineering, and Chemistry. The study aimed to investigate the extent to which writers belonging to different communities vary in their strategic use of evidence markers in written academic discourse. To this end, a representative sample of 80 research articles written in the selected disciplines comprised the corpus of the study. The functional-contextual analysis reported significant cross-disciplinary variations in the writers' rhetorical behavior of using evidentials in their writings. Notable variations were found in the discursive functions of evidentials used in the sampled research articles. The variations could be attributed to the amount of rhetorical sensitivity to and awareness of purpose, disciplinary propensities, and the tendencies of the disciplinary genre. The present findings can be helpful in the teaching and learning of academic writing and may give some insights to rhetorical practices of members in the disciplinary communities studied.

Keywords: Academic writing, disciplines, evidentials, metadiscourse, research articles

INTRODUCTION

This cross-disciplinary linguistic study aims to analyze English research articles (RAs) within the disciplines of Applied Linguistics (AL), Psychology (Psy), Environmental Engineering (EE), and Chemistry (Che) focusing on rhetorical and discursive variations in the use of evidence markers. In theory, evidentials fall within interactive metadiscourse resources that showcase the external source of information in the existing writing and offer reliability and integrity to that information by calling attention to the trustworthiness of its origin (Hyland, 2005; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Thomas & Hawes, 1994). In other words, they account for references to authorities that writers resort to for their intellectual and persuasive force. In RAs, such attributions fairly operate to

admit and admire specific scholars, through authority resulted from publishing follow-up work in a recognized outlet. Hyland (2005) puts forward that the inclusion of references carried two strong points: first, it reflected an apt disciplinary orientation; and second, it reminded readers that current arguments were invariably a reply to preceding arguments and were themselves accessible for more arguments by others. Thus, the embedding of statements in networks of references allows mitigation and dialogue without which communication flow will be hampered. To perform this metadiscourse function, evidentials, such as *X states that…*, *according to…* can be identified (Hyland, 2005).

A literature search shows that the study of metadiscourse, including evidentials, in academic writing has been a central line of investigation across disciplinary communities. Highlighting the varied rhetorical norms, values, and assumptions favored by different disciplines may help equip novice academic writers with much more appropriate discipline-specific rhetorical options so as to meet expectations of the research community (Basturkmen, 2009; Hyland, 2004; Li & Wharton, 2012; Lim, 2011, 2012, 2017). While arguably the most prominent studies (Abdi, 2002; Cao & Hu, 2014; Dahl, 2004; Harwood, 2005a, 2005b; Hyland, 2004, 2005, 2007; Khedri, 2016; Khedri, Heng, & Ebrahimi, 2013a; Khedri, Heng, & Hoon,, 2015b; Loi & Lim, 2013; Salas, 2015) examined writings in various fields of knowledge, a number of disciplines, namely Psy, EE,

and Che, were inadequately considered in the past studies. The current research, then, could be perceived as a substantial step toward improving features of language pedagogy such as the teaching and learning academic writings, namely research articles. Cross-disciplinary studies like the present one appears to be central in investigating disciplinary variations in writers' rhetorical and linguistic behavior and the ways in which they guide the readers along the discourse so that both the discourse and the authorial standpoint could be well interpreted. Such studies also enable us to determine cross-disciplinary discursive and rhetorical variations in a given academic genre and to gain a reflective understanding of the rhetorical beliefs within the disciplines in question. Overall, the following two research questions form the concern of this study.

1. To what extent do the AL, Psy, EE and Che writers map evidentials onto their RAs?

2. What are the discursive functions of evidentials used in the text?

METHODS

Disciplines

This study examined the use of evidentials in the RA genre within four disciplines. The disciplines were chosen from the hard and soft sciences (Becher, 1989). AL was selected mainly for the reason that the RAs in the field are situated in the context of language studies that are of primary interest to the community in which

the researcher is a member. In addition, a program of AL has implications for English as a Foreign/Second Language (EFL/ESL) teachers who teach writing. Necessarily, such writing, especially at tertiary level, would embrace technical writing of this nature in the curriculum. The selection of the other disciplines, as discussed earlier, was due to the lack of research into their rhetorical conventions. This paucity is more acute when it comes to the writers' textual enactment of evidentials in Psy, EE, and Che research papers. Therefore, this study could contribute substantially to the existing knowledge of metadicourse usage, especially evidence markers, in writing academic RAs. However, the observations here have been limited to the present dataset and no attempt was made to allow generalizations about the use and nature of evidentials in academic writing within all the soft and hard science disciplines.

Journal Selection

The AL journals included the *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, Journal of Pragmatics* and *English for Specific Purposes*. The Psy journals consisted of the *Journal of Behavior Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry, Behavior Research and Therapy* and *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*. The EE articles were culled from the *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, *Water Research* and *Building and Environment*. The Che articles were selected from the *Journal of Molecular Structure*, *European Polymer Journal* and *Microchemical Journal*. The journals were

selected following the Nwogu's (1997) criteria of representativity, reputation, and accessibility. To meet the first two criteria, the selected journals were all recognized in the disciplines in question. They are ISI indexed with an impact factor (IF), as reported by *Journal Citation Report* (2004). The articles published in the journals were represented equitably for the RA genre in content and style, that is, as quoted by Bazerman (1994), the text was "situationally effective" and derived from "expert performance". As for the third criterion, all the journals were retrievable online. As the researcher was not a member of the disciplines other than AL, he consulted with two insider-informants in each discipline of Psy, EE, and Che. They were asked to nominate top 10 journals published in their disciplines. In case there was an incompatible nomination, more informants were asked for nominations until three journals were commonly ranked and thus formed the resource for final selection.

Article Selection

A two-round sampling to select RAs for data analysis was run. From the first round, 228 articles (57 per discipline), which were published in the period 2008–2017 and formatted according to the Introduction, Method, Results and Discussion (IMRD) structure—a widely accepted conventional format for empirical research papers proposed by Swales (1990), were extracted from the source journals. In the second round, 20 RAs within each discipline were randomly selected from the first

round chosen articles. Altogether, 80 RAs compiled the whole corpus. They made up about 360,000 running words (see Table 1). The articles represented a variety of authors to reflect cross-sectional style preference. They were all empirical articles and fell under the category of "original research articles." It should be mentioned that the selected RAs were "cleaned" to exclude additional scripts (i.e., *footnotes*, *superscripted numbers*, *page numbers*, etc.) so that analysis is streamlined and focused on the body of the text. An overall description of the corpus is provided in Table 1.

Table 1
Corpus description

	AL	Psy	EE	Che
No. of RAs	20	20	20	20
No. of journals	3	3	3	3
Range of text length	4144–6221	4282–5861	3676–4902	3174–4229
Average text length	5098	4941	4188	3764
Disciplinary corpus size	101,961	98,839	83,762	75,297
Total corpus size	359,859			

Data Analysis

After obtaining the final corpus, the dataset was searched to identify linguistic features functioning as evidentials. To this end, first an automatic search, examining the tokens of evidentials in Hyland's (2005) list, was run on the data using WordSmith Tools (Scott, 2004). This widely used concordancer helped identify linguistic features in electronically saved manuscripts. The corpus was then annotated word by word so as to identify evidence markers, which were hardly anticipated by automatic search. All the markers that were linguistically realized were contextually studied to ensure that they were used as metadiscourse with the consideration that metadiscourse, including evidentials, is multifunctional and context-dependent (Ädel, 2006). Therefore, a functional analysis was seen to be warranted to find out the functional meaning of the identified features to enable further investigation. The identified evidentials were then quantified according to the corpus. Since the size of each disciplinary corpus varied, the frequency count was normalized accordingly by using Biber, Conrad, and Reppen's (1998) approach [(Raw frequency count / number of words in the text) Â 1000 = normalized frequency count].

Once the evidence markers were identified and quantified, the texts were further subject to contextual analysis to collect information about the discourse functions of the markers according to actual incidences in the sampled texts. The analysis was continued by manually computing the

incidence of functions. The frequencies of each discursive function per RA in the four datasets were recorded to decide whether a certain function appeared recurrently enough to be perceived as function. In this vein, a cut-off frequency of 5% of total incidence of that particular function within each discipline was set as a possible degree of function stability.

To lower the risk of arbitrariness and to demarcate the accuracy of the analytical procedure, 12 articles (about 15% of the corpus data) were independently analyzed by a PhD graduate in applied linguistics who had done her thesis on metadiscourse in academic writing. The inter-rater agreement was measured by Cohen's kappa and the obtained value indicated a high reliability index of .93. It should be mentioned that any conflicts between both analyses were resolved through meetings and discussion.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, the results of the normalized frequencies of evidentials in each disciplinary corpus are first presented. It is then followed by an interpretation and discussion of the results related to the functional analysis of evidentials in order to uncover how writers in the different disciplines embedded their arguments in networks of references.

Frequency Analysis

An average of about 50 citations within each article suggests how important locating academic claims within a wider disciplinary framework is. Of course, relying on the work of others in follow-up studies substantially indicate the reliance of a text on context and hence plays a key part in collaboratively constructing new knowledge between readers and writers. According to Hyland (2005), innovative researches are required to be entrenched by community-generated literature to establish their importance, relevance and authorial credentials (Berkenkotter, Huckin, & Ackerman, 1988; Hyland, 2000). This, however, was much more evident in the humanities, with almost two-thirds of total citations in the Psy and AL data. Table 2 shows the spread of evidence markers in the four datasets, indicating more citations in the soft disciplinary rhetoric, with well below the average in the EE texts. As can be seen, writers in the soft disciplines were more inclined toward embedding their own contributions in the discourse, which emphasized the contribution of community-based information resources (12.76 and 11.59 times per 1000 words in the corpus of Psy and AL, respectively). They likely wanted to highlight evidences that attest to their own credentials, thus situating their work, its value and significance. Such proclivity could be justified given the nature of the two fields that are categorized as soft sciences. Following Becher (1989) and Hyland (2004, 2005), evidentials are largely more considerable in use in the discourse of soft fields due to the fact that soft notions are less anchored on hard evidence and fewer are contingent on a single line of discourse construction or argument. Thus, the foremost motive behind the use of evidence markers in soft

texts apparently deals with the shunning of making too strong a claim so as not to appear presumptuous or overbearing. This manner of mitigation is probably associated with the lack of certainty and greater subjectivity in argumentation, resulting in the selection of writing stance that uses a more oblique voice. Soft science writers, different from their peers in hard sciences, are often less able to cite their work based on objective standards to help them carry their ideas. In fact, it is almost impossible to presume that readers of such research reports will have identical interpretive knowledge, and with this in mind, soft science authors need to provide more descriptive context such as the use of citations to substantiate their arguments. It could be said that widespread use of citations in soft texts is a major approach taken to show their knowledge and credibility in the disciplinary field, especially with the aim of indicating that the claims made in the writing has considered the least reputable development. Therefore, the greater inclusion of other works in new work within the fields of AL and Psy might indicate the writers' more alertness in sturdily locating the ongoing work in disciplinary body of literature, affording a discursive structure for assertions and showing a reasonable source for ideas.

In contrast, the lesser incidences of evidentials in EE and especially Che rhetoric may reflect more cumulative and generally shared knowledge among members of the hard science disciplines. Hard science scholars typically contribute to fairly distinct lines of inquiry and proceed their work along socially approved experimental procedures, hence, they seem more able to embody a remarkable amount of background, procedural and theoretical knowledge and technical terminologies (Hyland, 2000). That is, work in scientific matters are tersely reported with an assumed shared jargon focusing on the results of their studies. The conviction is usually in the way procedural steps are detailed to enable authentication. Such shared presuppositions are built up based on the use of an extremely social-based regulated code (Bazerman, 1988; Hyland, 2000) that is well known in their professional practices, tantamount to an author being purely "a messenger relaying the truth from nature" (Gilbert, 1976; Hyland, 2005). With such an expectation,

Table 2

Evidentials: Raw and normalized frequencies per discipline (Raw frequency/corpus size) Â 1000

	Per 1000 words		Average per paper
	Raw	Norm.	
Applied Linguistics	1182	11.59	59.1
Psychology	1262	12.76	63.1
Environmental Engineering	811	9.68	40.55
Chemistry	541	7.18	27.05
Totals	3796	10.54	47.45

the "truthfulness" of the work rests very much on the data and too much use of evidentials, such as in the form of citations, could be deemed superfluous.

More variations were found across the disciplines relating to how writers represent the work of others in their statements. The soft discipline writers were far more likely to put emphasis on the weight they afforded idea originators. As shown in Table 3, the applied linguists and psychologists favored more the use of integral citations, with citing authors within the discourse than in footnotes or parentheses (examples 1a–1d). In the hard-science disciplines, only EE followed this form but mostly as a shorthand reference to methodological measures rather than for presenting the work of others (examples 1e–1f).

(1a) *Lin and Evans (2012)*, for example, have considered applied mathematics in a cross-disciplinary study of the overall macro-organization of RA structure. [AL]

(1b) This is similar to the mixed-method approach adopted by *Simpson-Vlach and Ellis (2010)*, who also combined statistical information and human judgement from EAP instructors when compiling the Academic Formulas List.

(1c) *Saarni's (1984)* original study indicated that regulation of affect developed across childhood, with 6-year-olds displaying overt negative emotions in response to … [Psy]

(1d) A similar conclusion was reached in a study by *De Jong and Muris (2002)* who found evidence to suggest that the possibility … [Psy]

(1e) The bacterial ACC deaminase activity was evaluated based on the method of *Honma and Shimomura* [21]. [EE]

(1f) The octahedral Zr(IV) complexes with tetradentate [ONNO]-type ligands were synthesized according to the procedure described by *Busico et al*. [9]. [Che]

Within integral citation, cited authors are basically given more weight by fronting them in the reporting sentence. The soft- and hard-knowledge writers also differed in this regard, with the latter choosing adjunct agent forms (i.e., *according to …*) and other impersonal linguistic expressions, such as

Table 3
Surface forms of citations

	Integral		Non-integral		Subject		Non-subject	
	Raw	%	Raw	%	Raw	%	Raw	%
Applied Linguistics	456	**38.6**	726	**61.4**	648	**54.8**	534	**45.2**
Psychology	399	**31.7**	863	**68.3**	754	**59.7**	508	**40.2**
Env. Engineering	112	**13.8**	699	**86.2**	184	**22.7**	627	**77.3**
Chemistry	39	**7.2**	502	**92.8**	139	**25.7**	402	74.3

several studies. The following are examples of actual use sampled from the corpus data.

(2a) *According to Mountassif et al.* [2], no changes were observed for glycemia in rats exposed to 3 mg/kg BW/day of 2,4-D. [EE]

(2b) *Several studies* have reported the enhanced accumulation of proline in various plant species when plants are subjected to DS or MS [53, 54]. [EE]

(2c) *According to Keii et al.* [16] the asymptotic plot of molar mass vs. polymerization time (Fig. 1b) can be linearized using Natta's equation for ... [Che]

(2d) Lately, *extensive studies* on nanocomposites of HNTs with various polymers such as epoxy [5], polypropylene [6], polyamide 12 [7], and nitrile rubber [8] have underscored the use of these nanocomposites for structural and thermal applications. [Che]

The conventions of objectivity in hard-knowledge fields (Hyland, 2005) might be a possible explanation for the rather less occurrence of evidentials in the corpus of EE and Che and for the prevalence of non-integral forms of citation. As with other hard-science disciplines, writers in EE and Che often laid less stress on agents, thus reinforcing the philosophy that the authenticity of arguments lies in community-based invariable norms and standards independent of pillars of induction, falsification and replication.

Functional Analysis

Table 4 shows the results of functional analysis of evidentials used in each set of data. As can be seen, the writers used such interactive metadiscoursal features for a wide range of discursive functions. Some functions were found to be shared across the

Table 4
Rhetorical functions of evidentials: Raw frequencies and percentages per discipline

	AL		Psy		EE		Che	
	Raw	%	Raw	%	Raw	%	Raw	%
1st function	486	**41.1**	536	**42.4**	273	**33.6**	171	**31.7**
2nd function	76	**6.4**	70	**5.6**	*	*	*	*
3rd function	62	**5.3**	*	*	*	*	*	*
4th function	269	**22.8**	298	**23.7**	151	**18.6**	79	**14.6**
5th function	289	**24.4**	358	*28.3*	387	**47.8**	291	**53.7**
Total	1182		1262		811		541	

* 1st function: Signaling a reasonable and convincing foundation for on-going work
* 2nd function: Announcing a gap in the literature
* 3rd function: Providing a framework
* 4th function: Explicating and rationalizing applied experimental procedures
* 5th function: Justifying new findings

datasets, whereas some others represented discipline specificity. What follows presents a detailed description of each rhetorical function with examples sampled from the corpus data.

As shown in Table 4, the first three functions occurred in the RA introductions but not in the four sets of papers. While the AL writers made use of all the aforementioned three strategies, their peers in EE and Che made exclusive use of evidentials just to lay groundwork for their works. Laying the groundwork also dominated evidentials use in the AL and Psy texts. This focus was common as a result of the main rhetorical purpose of the introduction section, where writers increasingly would want to establish their research territory. In relation to the function, writers would be employing various strategies among which is the claiming of centrality that is considered as "appeals to the discourse community… to accept that the research to be reported is part of a lively, significant or well-established research area" (Swales, 1990). Assuring the centrality of claims, as also found by del Saz-Rubio (2011), is feasible via citations, which were much more prevailing in the soft disciplinary rhetoric. With reference to the other two functions, both were found in the soft disciplinary texts with no evidence of their use in the EE and Che writings. It should be mentioned that it was only the AL writers who mapped evidentials onto discourse with the purpose of providing a framework on which they based their studies. The following are examples of actual use.

First Function: Signaling a Reasonable and Convincing Foundation for On-going Work.

(3a) If "the genres are living and the RA is continually evolving" as suggested by Swales (1990), medical genres will also undergo some changes. [AL]

(3b) As it has been noted (*Rozin, Haidt, McCauley, Dunlop, & Ashmore, 1999*), it might be useful to include a behavioral index of disgust sensitivity in this type of research [Psy].

(3c) A more *recent study* has demonstrated the technical feasibility of a one-stage nitritationeanammox process to treat digested black water in … (Vlaeminck et al., 2009) [EE]

(3d) *Previous researches* have also demonstrated that citrus limonoids are capable of inducing cytotoxicity in both cultured human cancer cell and … [23,24,25]. [Che]

Second Function: Announcing a Gap in the Literature.

(4a) Swales (1990) claimed that titles were an issue in academic genres which had not yet been fully studied. *Gesuato (2005, 2008)* claimed that research on journal article titles had not yet answered the question of… [AL]

(4b) In spite of a great deal of empirical work, the findings in the thought suppression literature still remain

mixed (*Abramowitz, Tolin, & Street, 2001*). However, the role of credibility with regard to both guided and unguided self-help is unclear (*Ritterband et al., 2010*). [Psy]

Third Function: Providing a Framework.

(5a) In this article, we take *Hyland's* interpersonal model of metadiscourse as a point of departure. According to Hyland and Tse (2004) and Hyland (2005)... [AL]

(5b) Seven agrammatic speakers (4 females, mean age: 43 years old) participated in the current study. All of them were diagnosed with Broca's aphasia, based on the *Turkish Aphasia Assessment Test (ADD: Maviş and Togram, 2009)*. [AL]

(5c) A total of 38 reading comprehension passages, 37 listening comprehension passages, and 12 cloze passages from 12 different versions of CanTEST were analyzed in the study along with … CanTEST is a standardized English proficiency test developed for student admission purposes, and has been shown to be a valid and reliable measure of academic English ability (*Des Brisay, 1994; Laurier & Des Brisay, 1991*). [AL]

The results of the functional analysis revealed that RA writers made use of evidence markers for further discursive purposes such as *explicating and rationalizing applied experimental procedures* and *justifying new findings*. The former recurrently appeared in the RA method sections, where the writers make an attempt to obviate probable challenges to their applied methodological procedures and fortify the reliability and integrity of their research outcomes and allied interpretations. It is truly agreed that the aptness of a research design is more likely to be derived from previously established experimental methodologies. This finding is understandable in that writers may justify the aptness of their experimental research procedure "by using integral or non-integral citations of past researchers' statements" (Lim, 2011). Readers also have been known to be discerning about the procedures applied in research as they indicate the robustness of the work and are also sensitive to cited works in support (Bazerman, 1988). This strategy minimizes possible criticism on the part of the readers. Again, as can be seen in Table 4, the soft science writers dominated this use of evidence markers (22.8% in AL and 23.7% in Psy). Text examples are:

Fourth Function: Explicating and Rationalizing Applied Experimental Procedures.

(6a) … I analyzed the characteristics of the evaluative language in referee reports based on *Suarez's (2006)* definition of… [AL]

(6b) Disrupted or insufficient sleep in childhood is associated with daytime sleepiness (*Fallone, Owens, & Deane, 2002*). As such, the 8-item PDSS (*Drake et al., 2003*) was employed as a self-report measure of daytime sleepiness. Participants were selected from four previously published studies on self-help for SAD (*Carlbring et al., 2007; Furmark et al., 2009, …*). [Psy]

(6c) In this study, a scale for measurement of landscape attributing to the rocky habitats was developed by using some references such as *Arriaza et al.* [32]*, Ergin et al.* [33] *and Acar et al.* [34]. [EE]

(6d) The binding constant Ka was determined with the use of the Scatchard equation adjusted by *Hiratsuka* [29]. [Che]

The latter, *justifying new findings*, in contrast, was evident in the results and discussion sections of the RAs analyzed. This referred to the rationalization of new findings. The writers in the four communities brought in intertextual support for the purpose of supporting and providing an explanation for their newly-found knowledge and results. They did so by comparing current findings with earlier ones in the literature so as to endorse their own professional and authorial credentials. As can be seen, this use abundantly occurred (almost two times more) in the EE and Che research papers conceived as the leading function among others communicated by the hard science writers. Some actual uses are provided below.

Fifth Function: Justifying New Findings.

(7a) *Lim (2010)* similarly found a much higher frequency of steps of explaining findings steps in commentary moves in.… [AL]

(7b) The finding that the PTSD trauma memories contained relatively high levels of re-experiencing seems to be in line with theories on PTSD (*Brewin et al., 1996; Ehlers & Clark, 2000*) as well as theories on memory in general (*Conway & Pleydell-Pearce, 2000*). [Psy]

(7c) The maximum hydrolysis rate obtained in this study is slightly higher than the rates reported in literature (0.30 Cmol Cmol_1 h_1 in *San Pedro et al., 1994* and 3gCODgCOD_1 d_1 in *Gujer et al., 1999*). [EE]

(7d) The results of the present study can be compared with those of *Ketola et al.* [30] who attempted to conduct simultaneous detection of… A similar effect was observed *previously* for protein destabilised by urea [35]. [Che]

CONCLUSION

An overall cross-disciplinary picture of evidentials use was shown in the current investigation. Well-matched with past studies, the present results further proved evidential variations in the writers' disciplinary rhetorical practice and behavior. As found, evidentials were dense in general in the AL and Psy writings. Such a density could be due to the more argumentative and more abstract nature of the two disciplines where soft notions are more detached from the immediately prior developments and are less reliant on a single line of text development. This is supported by Hyland (2004), who reiterates that the main reason behind the prominence of evidentials in soft disciplines is the avoiding of mitigating strong certainty in claim-making. As a result, they describe a context using a substantial amount of supportive language like citations so as to get communal approval. In terms of functional use, results further suggested cross-disciplinary discrepancies. They showed some discursive uses that were either communal or exclusive of a particular discipline. For example, the AL and Psy writers made use of evidentials for the purpose of *announcing a gap,* which was totally absent in the EE and Che writings. In addition, while the soft science writers had the most use of evidence markers *to provide a convincing framework for the work being reported*, their counterparts in the hard disciplines leaned on evidentials to *justify new findings* by comparing them to past findings.

The study showed that working on linguistic realizations and their rhetorically discursive functions in the genre of RAs among different communities could give us significant clues to cross-disciplinary rhetorical and discursive traditions as well as the conventionalized norms of constructing academic prose within a discipline. The findings of the present study could also be of help to academics, especially novice writers who need to hone their skills to gain acceptance in their communities. In summary, the analysis of the present study reveals (i) variation in the positioning of evidentials in different segments of discourse as indicative of writer's choice and style; (ii) techniques used to convey and support new knowledge and findings efficiently; and (iii) communal recognition by writers of the importance of experts' endorsement in order to gain credibility and become socialized in respective communities through convincing findings published for public dissemination and scrutiny.

As with other few studies, this study is also subject to some limitations that could be addressed in future research. This study analyzed 80 RAs in four disciplines representing both hard and soft sciences. Enlarging the corpus size within the same or different disciplines from both the soft and hard ends of the academic continuum is warranted to seek confirmation on differences or similarities in disciplinary rhetorical sensitivity in terms of linguistic realizations, choices and preferences per science and across science. Future studies are also called on to investigate evidentials

and other interactive and interactional metadiscourse resources in different representative genres of academic writing, such as theoretical and review articles, or in different research paradigms, that is, quantitative and qualitative tracks. It would also be useful to trace the changes through drafts that are written and submitted for review and upon the review, the types of revisions made to evidentials in the drafts. Such case studies will reveal the cognitive processing targeted at specific metadiscourse use. Without doubt, more research efforts of this nature would contribute significantly to the ESP realm of knowledge that can hardly be described as exhaustive in the current times.

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Understanding Plagiarism from the Lens of First Year Tertiary Level Students

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ABSTRACT

This research assesses the understanding of plagiarism among first year Malaysian university students. The assessment is crucial to chart future directions in promoting good academic practices and academic integrity among the first year university students at the initial stage of their university academic journey. Specifically, the research objectives are to determine the extent of first year students' understanding of plagiarism in identifying plagiarism and non-plagiarism acts. Data collection involved administration of a quantitative survey among first year university students via purposive sampling. The findings present a lack of understanding of fundamental concepts of plagiarism among first year university students. In particular, the first year students displayed ambiguity in distinguishing between plagiarism and non-plagiarism acts. The implications of the findings call for the attention of university management, educators, and students towards the implementation of necessary policy priorities in inculcating and sustaining good academic practices among university students.

Keywords: Academic practices, academic integrity, first year students, higher education, plagiarism, tertiary level

INTRODUCTION

In Malaysia, plagiarism in higher education is an activity that is not given serious consideration (Ali, Ismail, & Tan, 2012) although most universities have their own

academic integrity policies in place for the purpose of deterrence and punishment. Furthermore, Al-Shaibani, Mahfoodh, and Husain (2016) stressed that forms of plagiarism were not deeply examined nor clearly defined in Asian, African and Western context. Generally, plagiarism occurs in every aspect of our daily life and it occurs intentionally and, in some instances, unintentionally. As mentioned by Selemani, Chawinga and Dube (2018), there was high prevalence of plagiarism,

cheating and other forms of academic misconduct in higher education institutions. Generally, plagiarism is viewed as copying without acknowledging the original source. However, viewing through the lens of academia, academic plagiarism is considered an equivalent of academic crime. Numerous studies in relevant literature (Clegg & Flint, 2006; Manjet, 2015a; Thompson, 2006; Wilkinson, 2009; Zangenehmadar, Tan, Abdullah, & Yong, 2015), have indicated that plagiarism is rampant in academia and it is a kind of academic dishonesty that is currently on the rise. Analysing the issue further, a general definition provided by Ooi, Sarjit, and Fauziah (2012), and Park (2003) asserts that plagiarism involves literary theft, stealing (by copying) the words or ideas of someone else and passing them off as one's own without acknowledging the source. It is very crucial that this notion of plagiarism is understood by every academic community member. Notably, it is the responsibility of members of the academia to initiate the eradication of it at some point of time and place. Hence, at the tertiary level, the views of first year students on plagiarism would be a crucial first step towards further deliberation. This will make clear to the relevant authority the readiness of first year tertiary level students to engage in good academic practices, sustain those practices throughout their study period, and curb opportunities for academic dishonesty to flourish.

Much research mulls over plagiarism in the context of Anglophone countries, but there is little known about the understanding of plagiarism among university students (Smith, Ghazali & Minhad, 2007) especially first year students in the context of Malaysian tertiary level institutions. Hence, this study is positioned to look into the understanding of plagiarism among first year Malaysian tertiary level students. Firstly, it is essential to detect the awareness of academic plagiarism among this group of students. Secondly, identifying the understanding of plagiarism from the lens of first year tertiary level students, relevant university authorities can initiate measures to propagate healthy academic practices that include awareness creation. At the same time, the relevant authorities can impose measures to curb and penalise academic plagiarism. The direct effect of these measures will be the practice of healthy academic practices at the initial stages of one's higher education journey. This will foster a certain extent of sustainable progressive decline in academic plagiarism among university students as they gradually progress from undergraduates to postgraduates.

Related Literature

Many studies (Clegg & Flint, 2006; Devlin & Gray, 2007; O'Donoghue, 1996; Park, 2003; Pennycook, 1996; Thompson, 2006; Wilkinson, 2009) have documented empirical findings on plagiarism committed by university students, particularly in American, British, and Australian contexts. Furthermore, the key contributing understanding of various elements underlying plagiarism in Malaysian based studies may differ in perspectives compared

to the studies found in certain Anglophone countries. In this vein, Smith et al. (2007) pointed out that the differences in the studies were typically contextual, cultural and religious. Their empirical findings indicate the differences influence how plagiarism is viewed in the Malaysian context. In the context of Malaysian higher education, plagiarism, especially academic plagiarism is an issue that has come into the limelight only recently as the universities have started acknowledging that academia is being tainted with acts of plagiarism that go undetected and unpunished. This has led to the setting up of academic integrity policies to curb plagiarism and penalise plagiarisers (Zangenehmadar et al., 2015). For example, the university under study has set up an Academic Integrity Unit (AIU) as a base to look into the matters pertaining to plagiarism among its students.

Meaning and Context of Plagiarism. According to the plagiarism policy at the university under study, academic integrity is at stake if plagiarism occurs in relation to published and unpublished ideas, writings, works or inventions of others in written or other medium as one's own original intellectual endeavours without clear acknowledgement or reference of an author or source. The policy on plagiarism by a particular research university in Malaysia, USM Policy on Plagiarism (2013) defines plagiarism as the act of presenting, quoting, copying, paraphrasing or passing off ideas, images, processes, works, data, own words

or those of other people or sources without proper acknowledgement, reference or quotation to the original source(s).

The acts of plagiarism include but are not limited to the following:

(a) Quoting verbatim (word for word replication of) the work of other people.

(b) Paraphrasing another person's work by changing some of the words, or the order of the words, without due acknowledgement of the source(s).

(c) Submitting another person's work in whole or part as one's own.

(d) Auto plagiarising or self-plagiarising one's own previous work or work that has already been submitted for assessment or for any other academic award and pass it as a new creation without citing the original content.

(e) Insufficient or misleading referencing of the source(s) that would enable the reader to check whether any particular work has indeed been cited accurately and/or fairly and thus, identify the original writer's particular contribution in the work submitted.

This definition provided by the institution contributes to the fact that apart from plagiarism occurring intentionally; it can also occur unintentionally whereby it is still considered by many to be plagiarism.

The Nature of Plagiarism by Students.
Studies by Angelil-Carter (2000), and Lillis
and Turner (2001) have brought factors like
time management, lack of confidence and
misunderstanding of conventions into the
limelight. Yeo (2007) also emphasised the
apparent lack of seriousness with which
undergraduate students perceive plagiarism
as a type of misdemeanour.

In the present nearing fourth industrial
revolution, digital revolution in information
technology has contributed to the increase
of digital-based plagiarism. For example,
Batane (2010), found that the easy
access to information via Internet was
perceived to have contributed to higher
level of plagiarism among students. This
construes plagiarism as pandemic that is
technology led and has brought an increase
in the prevalence of plagiarism and also its
visibility. As indicated by Smith, Ghazali,
and Minhad (2007), and Yeo (2007), the
internet's revolution has given access to
full-text databases and World Wide Web
pages for students' reference. The setback
is the misuse of this information for the
purpose of cut-and-paste tendency and the
purchasing of online material for self-use
without acknowledging the original source.
Meanwhile, plagiarism is also paired with
causes such as laziness, lack of language
proficiency especially English, desperation
in meeting deadlines. In this context,
internet sources have become life saviours
for many plagiarists (Chien, 2017).

Focusing on tactics of plagiarism, Brandt
(2002), and Wilhoit (1994) emphasised that
student plagiarism occured via four avenues.

Firstly, students stole material from other
sources and claimed as their own. Next,
students claimed work done by someone
else as their own. Thirdly, students copied
sections of material from one or more
source texts. This action is supported with
the provision of supporting documentation
(including the full reference) but with the
quotation marks omitted. This action gives
an impression that the material has been
paraphrased rather than directly quoted.
Lastly, students paraphrased information
from source texts without providing the
required documentation.

Higher education institutions provide
academic handbook once, at the beginning
of an undergraduate student's academic
life. This handbook contains the necessary
information on academic integrity policy.
However, based on a study by Gourlay
(2006), the information lacks visibility as
first year students are not made aware of the
importance of the information. In addition,
the effectiveness of booklets on plagiarism
provided to the students is also questionable.
Lillis (2001) claimed that when students
experience transition from the school or
college to the university, there was a great
concurrent transformation and escalation of
expectations in terms of academic writing.
However, the students are not formally
inducted to integrate the expected academic
writing norms in their work. These students
struggle through trial and error to conform
to the writing expectations. As indicated by
Lillis (2001), this is an 'institutional practice
of mystery' or the failure of the institution
to teach the students the conventions of

literacy practice expected of the students. This indicates that further academic support is needed as dissemination of information is not sufficient and effective in creating understanding and getting the students to be involved in developing good academic writing practices.

Understanding of Plagiarism from the Cultural Lens. The learning culture within which plagiarism activities occur is also another cause of concern. Further deliberation of mismatch in the understanding of plagiarism's conception leads to a question: to what extent is a universal definition of plagiarism applicable to every context, country and ideology? Different learning cultures among students have given rise to different interpretations of plagiarism. Are the learners in the east (geographical location of the study) imposed by the Western definition of plagiarism? For example, drawing a line between an academic act not considered as plagiarism in the Confucius Heritage academic culture, however, is considered as a plagiarism act based on the Western definition as the practices are not in accordance with the western academic conventions. Majority of studies (McDonnell, 2004; Pennycook, 1996; Sowden, 2005) have reported that many students who come from countries other than United Kingdom or United States have displayed different kinds of understanding towards the meaning of plagiarism as well as its importance in various academic circles.

McDonnell (2004), Pennycock (1996), and Sowden (2005) indicated that in the context of different learning cultures, the differences in learning modes in the far East and among East Asian international students (Zobel & Hamilton, 2002), notably the emphasis on memorization, and the importance of mastering the text contributed to culture-based notions of plagiarism. Pennycook (1996) concluded that plagiarism must be considered in its specific context in regard to the cultural and educational differences and how it could influence students' perception of text and ownership and consequently their textual borrowing strategies. Later, Ashworth, Freewood, and Macdonald (2003) and O'Donoghue (1996) concured with Pennycook's views. Ashworth et al. (2003) asserted that the academia should not be intrigued if students from different cultural backgrounds were puzzled at not being allowed to include texts from accepted sources in their assignments:

> *. . . plagiarism can be seen to be part of a particular cultural configuration [which] assumes . . . the individual ownership of work; personal ownership, creativity or originality, and the view that knowledge has a history; and past authors must be acknowledged. All these things are . . . implicated in a certain western modernist episteme.*

Majority of studies have also concluded that students of different cultures have different understandings of plagiarism (Abasi & Graves, 2008; Introna, Hayes,

Blair, & Wood, 2003; McGowan & Lightbody, 2008). In many cases, the practices of different learning styles in Asian teaching and learning cultures creates confusion among students on the concept of plagiarism as well as its application. Such misunderstanding might get them to deliberately practice unacceptable writing practices, which can affect their academic performance. Furthermore, the concept of plagiarism in academia is ambiguous among westerners themselves, thus it could be even more confusing among non-western learners overall. It is undoubtedly a daunting task for these learners who are strangers to the western principles, standards, and values to embrace the concept of plagiarism. The understanding of plagiarism from varying cultural lens may also provide evidence that an activity such as copying the work of expert authorities is acceptable in certain cultures. For example, in many Asian learning cultures, it is a trend to apply verbatim reproduction of scholars' work for knowledge sharing (Sowden, 2005).

Sowden (2005) highlighted that memorisation and regurgitation of original ideas were encouraged among Chinese students to show respect towards the authorities and great scholars. Swoden's findings help draw a clearer picture that in China, it is considered appropriate to use traditional philosophers' ideas without citation as these are considered a part of common knowledge. A vast difference in how learning occurs in the Asian (Chinese) and Western context can be partly due to the Chinese cultural values that priorities

the acceptance of authorities' ideas without arguments. The differences on how academic conventions are practiced indicated a strong learning cultural influence. Earlier on Introna et al. (2003) stated that memorisation and rote learning were not appreciated in the Western countries. These activities are argued to promote superficial learning. On the contrary, memorisation and rote learning are actively practiced in the Asian context. Devlin and Gray (2007) further added that language was a barrier for non-native speakers of the English language. Lack of proficiency in the English language hinders students' ability to paraphrase or improve on the wordings based on original sources. More recently, Zafarghandi, Khoshroo, and Barkat (2012) also asserted the pervasiveness of plagiarism among Iranian EFL Master's students in universities in Iran. According to them, this phenomenon occurred due to a lack of understanding of the different forms of plagiarism.

Other researchers such as Maxwell, Curtis and Vardanega (2006) did not indicate any differences between the Australian and Asian undergraduate students in two Australian universities in their perceived seriousness or understanding of plagiarism. Students of both groups identified purloining (copying another person's assignment without knowledge) and verbatim copying as plagiarism but less than one third of the students perceived direct quotations passed off as paraphrase as an act of plagiarism. Later, Maxwell, Curtis, and Vardanega (2008) asserted that students who perceived plagiarism as not a serious academic

misconduct were more likely to plagiarise. Citing Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) rational-choice theories, Maxwell et al. (2008) indicated students' perception of plagiarism based on the notion that their behaviour and moral evaluations of a situation tended to go hand in hand. This notion foregrounds the mismatch in terms of how academic practices are perceived. An act of plagiarism within the Western context is not perceived similarly in the Asian context. Therefore, a universal definition of plagiarism cannot be applicable to every context, country and ideology.

Plagiarism in Malaysian Context. The prevalence of discussion on academic integrity in the Malaysian education system is not prioritised. Therefore, the lack of information disseminated on academic integrity within academia, is an indirect contributor to plagiarism. For example, O'Donoghue's (1996) notion of education culture especially among Malaysian undergraduate students highlights "teacher-centred passive learning" preference. This syndrome has been identified as not encouraging independent learning for the development of academic literacies and research that is needed for academic achievement. Consequently, Rosman, Hassan, Suratman, and Marni (2008) and Yusof and Masrom (2011) argued that Malaysian university students lacked knowledge on plagiarism. There is also indication of failure among the students in making good sense of information relating to plagiarism. This situation occurs

perpetually, despite the students being provided information relating to plagiarism. Furthermore, the students may not be aware that there are many different levels of plagiarism. However, Rosman et al. (2008) stated the respondents in their study showed low frequency of plagiarising although their understanding of the concept was vague.

Later, Ali et al. (2012) argued that one of the drawbacks of the limited understanding of plagiarism was that the concept of plagiarism itself had different meanings based on different contexts. This was also earlier substantiated by Ercegovac and Richardson (2004). Ali et al. (2012) further added that the concept needed to be clarified among Malaysian university students in its context. The dissemination of information should be positioned through seminars, campaigns, and during lectures or practical sessions. This approach will provide an avenue for the students to grasp the importance of academic integrity.

Another study (Smith et al., 2007) contradicts with Rosman et al. (2008). Smith et al. indicated that undergraduates in a Malaysian university were not fearful of being caught for not acknowledging the source of their academic work. The students were of the perception that the lecturers could not or would not successfully identify incidences of plagiarism. Additionally, there was no mutual consensus among the students of what constituted plagiarism, the penalties for plagiarising and adhering to procedures for citation and author acknowledgement.

Meanwhile Ahmad, Mansourizadeh and Ali's (2012) postgraduate respondents in a Malaysian university were found to

be aware that plagiarism is wrong but they could not correctly identify the multiple forms in which plagiarism could occur. The researchers argued that the students need to be taught and exposed to various forms and layers of plagiarism to allow them to know how best to avoid it in their own writing. In another student context, Law, Ting, and Jerome (2013) substantiated that undergraduate students in a Malaysian public university had plagiarised in one way or another in doing their written assignments. Shockingly, these students did not perceive plagiarism as a serious academic misconduct. They viewed the penalty for plagiarism should be warning, counseling and resubmission of the assignment.

The Necessity of Promoting Academic Integrity. A definition of academic integrity involves ''understanding what it means to be honest in the particular culture of the academic world and being able to apply the scholarly conventions of acknowledgment'' (East & Donnelly, 2012). Turner and Beemsterboer (2003) had added the various notions of teaching, learning and the wider academic environment, and described academic integrity as ''honesty in all matters relating to endeavours of the academic environment'', which included ''the teaching and learning of knowledge, skills, and values and the discovery and dissemination of new knowledge.''

Plagiarism, a symbolic issue of morality, often leads to the creation of codes of academic conduct at educational institutions. These codes are based on the assumptions that students will directly practice virtuous conduct as members of an academic community and be integrated into the community. In actual academic context, exposure and training to adhere to the genre requirements of academic writing rather is crucial. Students need to be educated on the manner of writing citations, referencing, as well as quoting directly and indirectly. The role of universities is not only one of providing the first-year students a brochure on academic integrity and expecting them to follow the rules and regulations of academic integrity. Universities should integrate academic integrity through student learning tasks. As highlighted by past research (Aluede, Omoregie, & Osa-Edoh, 2006; Burr & King 2012; McCabe, 1993; True, Alexander, & Richman, 2011), universities need to tap on class discussions, syllabi, and course outlines that acknowledge academic integrity as effective channels of facilitating student learning on the subject. Student-faculty relationships and interactions need to be accounted upon to ensure successful learning of ethical guidelines and codes of academic conduct.

Universities' responsibility to ensure students' understanding of academic integrity and the viciousness of plagiarism is crucial. In fulfilling the responsibility, research indicates that universities have designed websites to assist students to be better informed to avoid plagiarism. For example, Maxymuk (2006) listed websites of eight universities that guided the lecturers in detecting plagiarism among students, websites of four universities that assisted

students on ways to avoid plagiarism. Apart from that, online tutorial testing to assess students' knowledge of plagiarism is provided by the websites of 11 universities.

This study addressed the need to critically examine the issue of plagiarism among first year Malaysian tertiary level students. This is done by gauging their level of understanding of plagiarism. The significance of this study is that the findings revealed the readiness of this particular group of students in terms of practicing academic integrity at the tertiary level. Therefore, this study answered the following research question:

> 1. What is the first year Malaysian tertiary level students' understanding of plagiarism?

METHODS

The research question was investigated using data collected from a questionnaire survey. The questionnaire sought to identify Malaysian first year tertiary level students' understanding of plagiarism. The participants comprised of first year students pursuing Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science programmes at a Malaysian public university in the academic session 2016-2017. These students gained entry to the university by three different means of enrollment that takes into consideration the matriculation, high school, or diploma route. Through purposive sampling, data was collected from a total of 1281 first year students comprising of 346 (27.01%) male students and 935 (72.99%) female students at the main campus of the university.

Marshall and Garry's (2006) survey questionnaire in the English language was adapted for the purpose of this research. Firstly, the questionnaire elicited demographic information from the respondents. Secondly, the respondents responded to 15 four-point Likert Scale items. These items tested the respondents' understanding of plagiarism by having them indicate their view of possible behaviours that constitute plagiarism or non-plagiarism acts.

The questionnaire was administered among the first year university students during the orientation programme at a main hall located at the university's main campus. The students were briefed by the researcher on the objectives of the study and the duration to complete the questionnaire (15 minutes). The students were also informed that their participation in the study is voluntary.

RESULTS

First year university students' feedback offered insights that are valuable to identify their understanding of plagiarism. Student responses to the Likert-scale questionnaire and the mean scores show a good understanding of plagiarism (Table 1). On the contrary, majority of the respondents are ill informed of their academic practices or integrity that constitute plagiarism as reflected in the various aspects investigated. Table 2 highlights some of the respondents' inability to differentiate between academic activities that are not related to plagiarism.

Table 1
Plagiarism activities

Categories of Plagiarism Activities	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	Mean	SD
Copying the words from another source without appropriate reference or acknowledgement.	40.3	35.8	15.5	8.5	1.92	0.945
Copying short sentences (less than 50 words) from another source without appropriate reference or acknowledgement.	14.8	47.2	31.7	6.4	2.30	0.795
Copying the organisation or structure of another piece of work without appropriate reference or acknowledgement.	28.7	41.5	22.7	7.0	2.08	0.889
Copying the ideas from another piece of work without appropriate reference or acknowledgement.	30.3	38.3	23.7	7.7	2.09	0.917
Copying from a website and putting your own words and names into the content of the pages.	35.7	30.4	21.6	12.3	2.11	1.028
Using a published work to identify important secondary citations that make a particular logical argument and then citing only those secondary sources to support your own use of the same logical argument.	9.8	42.2	39.2	8.7	2.47	0.788
Using another piece of work to identify useful secondary citations that you cite in your own work without reading the cited material.	12.8	44.4	36.4	6.4	2.36	0.785
Changing the words of a material from another piece of work and representing it as your own.	19.7	41.7	30.0	8.7	2.28	0.876
Buying a complete piece of work in order to submit it for as your academic work.	36.9	32.1	17.2	13.8	2.08	1.043
Resubmitting an academic work that was submitted in one course for assessment in another course.	22.6	42.4	28.3	6.8	2.19	0.862
Translating an academic work from one language to another and back to the original language.	18.7	46.1	27.6	7.7	2.24	0.844

Scale: 1- Strongly Agree   2- Agree   3- Disagree   4- Strongly Disagree

The findings indicate that the issue of understanding of plagiarism among first year tertiary level students appeared to be very serious at the university under study. The respondents failed to accurately determine the activity that clearly constitutes plagiarism, while the activity that is not plagiarism is perceived otherwise. This observation is an indication that the respondents do not understand basic perceptions of what constitutes plagiarism clearly. As Table 1 suggests, respondents' understanding of plagiarised work constitutes well in terms of their academic practices with a mean score of 1.92. It is vital to note that 307 (24%) respondents are ignorant to the fact that plagiarism involves copying words from various sources without appropriate citations and references. Similar to that, 38.1% (f = 488) of the respondents assume that copying short sentences comprising of approximately 50 words from other sources without acknowledging is not an act of plagiarism. Surprisingly, majority of the

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respondents who comprise 62% of 1281 are aware that such an act of lifting sentences from other sources without adhering to proper referencing underlies academic dishonesty.

A mean score of 2.08 highlights respondents' ability to classify plagiarism as replicating the organisation or structure of a piece of work by complying with adequate referencing format. The findings also showcased that 38.1% or 488 respondents are not well informed of plagiarism being involved in this academic practice. In this context, most respondents (68.6%) labelled the activity of replicating ideas based on another piece of work as plagiarism but 31.3% of the students categorised it as a non-plagiarism act. Quite a significant proportion, i.e., 33.9% or 435 respondents considered themselves honest in terms of lifting ideas from a website and using their own words in the content of their work. On the contrary, 66.1% (f = 846) construe this act as plagiarism.

Of the 1281 respondents, 614 (47.9%) of them are in the practise of locating secondary citations from published work, cite these sources in their academic work, and regard it as not a misconduct underlying plagiarism. Nevertheless, 667 (52%) respondents are of the belief that such an act stipulates plagiarism. Similar results indicate 42.8% of the respondents are in the practise of taking the easy route in preparing academic work by using another piece of work to cite relevant secondary sources without reading the materials and perceive this as non-plagiarism. Another

57.2% ($\bar{x}$=2.36) are aware that this is an act of plagiarism.

It is worthy to note that 495 (38.6%) respondents are in the habit of changing the words in a piece of work and promoting it as their own original work but classify this practise as non-plagiarism. A mean score of 2.28 (f = 786) displays students' awareness of this plagiarism act. In addition, 31% (f = 397) of respondents are of the belief that purchasing a piece of related work and submitting it as one's own personal academic work is not equivalent to plagiarism but another 69% are aware that it is plagiarism.

Resubmitting an academic piece of work that was previously submitted in one course for assessment and subsequently in another course is not considered as an act of plagiarism by 35 % (f = 452) of the respondents and on the same issue, 65% (f = 829) are well informed that it is plagiarism. A significant number (f = 452) of respondents translated an academic work from one language to another and back to the original language without being aware that this is an act of plagiarism but a large proportion (f = 829) of respondents classify this practise as plagiarism.

Table 2's sample data highlights the misconception of academic integrity as a significant number of respondents misconstrue non-plagiarism activities as plagiarism. From this sample data, a total of 577 (45%) respondents are of the assumption that copying words from another source with an acknowledgement is considered plagiarism while 704 ($\bar{x}$=

Table 2
Non-plagiarism activities

Non-Plagiarism Activities	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	Mean	SD
Copying words from another source with an acknowledgement.	12.3	42.7	33.7	11.3	2.44	0.848
Creating a new piece of work structured according to a documentation standard, by referring to existing work of the same type.	12.3	39.2	35.1	13.4	2.50	0.875
Creating a new piece of work on the same theme as an existing one but in a new context and without copying the existing one.	11.5	30.1	36.9	21.5	2.69	0.936
Quoting from an existing piece of work with a reference to the source.	13.5	37.2	33.7	15.5	2.51	0.912

Scale: 1 - Strongly Agree   2 - Agree   3 - Disagree   4 - Strongly Disagree

2.44) respondents are aware that this act does not constitute plagiarism. The trend is noteworthy in relation to nearly an equal proportion of respondents who are of the belief that when an existing work of similar nature is referred to when creating a new piece of work structured according to a documentation standard is plagiarism (f = 660) and non-plagiarism (f = 621).

On an alarming note, a majority (f = 749) of the respondents are of the false notion that plagiarism is committed by creating a new piece of work on the same theme based on an existing one but in a new context without copying the existing one. In this light, 41.6% of the respondents are aware that this act does not liable them to plagiarism. Meanwhile, 49.2% of the respondents are of the misperception that quoting from an existing piece of work with a reference to the source is labelled as plagiarism. However, 50.7% (f = 650) of the respondents are aware that quoting from an existing piece of work with a reference to the source is not an act of plagiarism.

DISCUSSION

There is growing literature on the views of students concerning plagiarism, but few have unveiled first year Malaysian tertiary level students' views in relation to their genre of work that constitute plagiarism. This study sought to examine the understanding of plagiarism among first year tertiary level students. Generally, the findings of this study are multifaceted. For one, this study highlights that the students only showcase many of the beliefs commonly reported in the literature.

The findings provide data-driven support that majority of the students were unaware of various academic acts that reflect the characteristics of plagiarism. In particular, this finding aligns with other studies which state that tertiary level students were not aware that certain activities which they considered as non-plagiarism actually constitute some form of plagiarism and otherwise (McCabe, 2006; Manjet, 2015b; Yeo, 2007). Based on the extensive

discussion of various scholars' views concerning the occurrence of plagiarism from diverse cultural perspectives, an act of plagiarism within the Western context should not be perceived similarly in the Asian context. Therefore, the findings stress that a universal definition of plagiarism cannot be applicable to every context, country and ideology. On the contrary, a study by Maxwell et al. (2006) did not indicate any differences between Australian and Asian undergraduate students in two Australian universities in their perceived seriousness or understanding of plagiarism. Students of both groups identified purloining (copying another person's assignment without knowledge) and verbatim copying as plagiarism but less than one third of the students perceived direct quotations passed off as paraphrase as plagiarism. In this context, it is justifiable that the understanding of plagiarism's conception can differ across cultures, ideology, and country. An education system value laden with cultural values of the dominant society of a particular country influences the teaching and learning experiences a learner is exposed to and expected to follow. This practice will directly have an impact on how academic honesty is managed by the learner in academia.

Furthermore, the findings also positioned the fact that students were ignorant of plagiarism involving copying words from various sources without appropriate citations and references. This could be argued that in Asian learning cultures, it is a trend to apply verbatim re-production of scholars' work

for knowledge sharing. Another significant fact highlighted is lecturers cannot and will not successfully identify incidence of plagiarism. This is in tandem with the result of Smith et al.'s (2007) study. Such student a viewpoint gives the students an avenue to plagiarise. The implication is that lecturers should acknowledge that they have a very important role as an educator and punisher if the students plagiarise.

To further compound this issue, quite a significant proportion of students confessed in contradicting to academic integrity in terms of lifting ideas from a website and using their own words in the content of their work. In the western context, Breen and Maassen (2005) condemned this act as internet-related academic dishonesty which tarnished the academia's image and imposed an urgency to address it. This finding also concurs with Manjet (2015b) where she reiterated that Malaysian university students were unaware of the degree of seriousness when indulging in activities that were aligned to plagiarism and internet-related academic dishonesty which tarnished the academia's image.

In this study, findings also revealed that quite a number of students replicated ideas based on another piece of work and this could be due to a lack of understanding of plagiarism which will eventually lead to an increase in the copy and paste activities in academic work as the students' progress through their academic study. As noted earlier by Belcher (2006), this activity is due to the convenience of website references that result in students neglecting the conventions

of acknowledging sources. Manjet (2015a) further expanded on this issue in her study on academic writing challenges faced by international graduate students that students tended to divert towards copy and paste syndrome to complete their written assignment due to a mismatch with the present institutionally accepted codes and conventions in academic writing when they were from different academic literacy backgrounds. Hence, first year students need proper education on the nuances of plagiarism in order to prevent misperceptions of what plagiarism is and deter plagiarism from becoming an academic routine.

The findings on students purchasing a piece of related work from ghost writers and submitting as one's own personal academic work conforms to Babalola's (2012) research. It was identified that students resort to this act when they had the purchasing power although they were aware that this act was academic cheating. There is also the probability of peer pressure and social identity where students are in the scramble to compete with one another and thus, are willing to sacrifice academic integrity. Indirectly, students take pride in academic dishonesty by sacrificing integrity for the gain of good grades in their academic work. As De Jager and Brown (2010) argued, the complexity of plagiarism was built upon several varying behaviours. These behaviours ranged from deliberate dishonesty or negligence to ignorance of the understanding of plagiarism.

First year university students in Malaysia are exposed to the concept of plagiarism when they enter tertiary level institutions and have hardly any knowledge on plagiarism prior to that. The results of this study reflect the need for academic integrity education as a significant number of students misconstrue non-plagiarism activities as plagiarism. The results of this study provide some evidence to suggest the ambiguity of plagiarism acts among students. Thus, first year students' ignorance of plagiarism can be addressed by facilitating introduction courses on plagiarism in their university's orientation programme. Furthermore, the severity of plagiarism needs to be stressed to first year Malaysian university students as they will be immersed in academic practices for a long period such as three to four years. In relation to this, academic practices need to be performed with integrity. If enforcement is not put into place, plagiarism activities in academia will continue to flourish. To further reiterate the lackadaisical attitude of students, according to Law et al. (2013), undergraduates in a Malaysian public university did not perceive plagiarism as a serious academic misconduct and believed that the penalty for plagiarism should be lenient such as warning, counseling and resubmission of the assignment. In this context, plagiarism might take the form of being a cultural norm or value in Malaysian higher education if not immediately eradicated.

The results show that, in general, a great proportion of first year students still have a superficial understanding on plagiarism.

Students are unaware that there are many tiers to plagiarism and there is a need to ground their understanding that is vital in consolidating academic integrity of higher education institutions. The stance should be to educate and support this group of students. In this context, lecturers should stress the importance of academic integrity and should educate the students on the importance of maintaining academic integrity in their academic practices. However, if this stance fails, tertiary level institutions need to look into appropriate disciplinary measures.

Recommendations

Educating the students on understanding the scope of plagiarism, prevention and good academic integrity practices are crucial to ensure that newcomers to the university do not fall into the trap of committing acts of plagiarism. As indicated by Smith et al. (2007), electronic means of detection can also be used in an educative role to demonstrate the meaning and extent of plagiarism. Furthermore, the Academic Integrity Unit at the universities should also perform an educative role to ensure the lecturers are educated on plagiarism detection. Parallel to universities' role, plagiarism-oriented training should also be emphasised among lecturers so that they are able to deal with those suspected of plagiarism. It is possible that such measures provide indication to the students that plagiarism is detectable and punishable. In addition, further research should look into the implementation of academic integrity education, the responsible stakeholders involved in dissemination of information and the handling of plagiarism cases.

CONCLUSION

This study presents crucially revealing insights on the understanding of plagiarism among first year tertiary level students and the need for institutional policy and practices to deal with academic integrity-based issues. The results have given rise to the urgency in increasing education efforts to raise awareness of first year students about plagiarism and the measures that need to be undertaken in deterring the violation of integrity expectations in academic work. It should be noted that the study was limited to the participation of one institution only, and the respondents are not necessarily representative of the overall population. Future considerations of this study will aim at increasing generalisability by taking into consideration participants from a greater number of institutions. Optimistically, future studies should also take into consideration comparative studies to investigate the differences in understanding of plagiarism among tertiary level students of different years such as freshmen, sophomores, junior and senior university students. In relation to mixed method research design, further research involving qualitative methodology such as interviews should be considered to understand the students' views of plagiarism. This is because the empirical findings on plagiarism in this study are predominantly based on the participants'

response to standard instrument. This method may unlikely reveal very clear underlying motivations involved among the participants. In conclusion, academic integrity educational strategies and robust enforcement measures for breaches of academic integrity standards (Curtis & Vardanega, 2016) should be integrated by the university and lecturers to deliver a stern message to the students on the adverse consequences of plagiarism.

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Young ESL Learners' Perception on the Effects of Using Digital Storytelling Application in English Language Learning

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ABSTRACT

Approaches used for English language teaching and learning have been changing from time to time. Incorporation of technology into learning is believed to be able to bring positive effects to learners such as up-to-date, novelty, creative and innovative learning environment. This study aims to examine the effects of using tablet-based digital storytelling application in English language learning among young ESL learners. For this purpose, qualitative case study approach is employed to explore the effects of using the digital storytelling application on English language learning among Primary Five learners. Six Primary Five learners were selected using purposive sampling method. Interviews and observations were used to collect data from the six research participants studying in a public primary school in a state in Malaysia. Results revealed the positive effects of tablet-based digital storytelling on English language learning among the young ESL learners. Meanwhile, learners reported improvements in their English language skills such as listening, reading, speaking and writing via the use of digital storytelling application. This paper also discusses implications of the study.

Keywords: Digital storytelling application, effects on English language learning, ESL learners, tablet, mobile learning

INTRODUCTION

English language is one of the core subjects that are being emphasised and highlighted for its importance in the education field (Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009). However, the teaching and learning of the English language has never been easy. In fact, it is very challenging for both the educators and learners. Hence, identifying suitable and

appropriate language teaching and learning approaches is pivotal in our education system as these approaches will determine the effectiveness of language teaching and learning process.

In order to cater to learners' different needs and learning styles, language teaching and learning approaches have been changing rapidly. According to Isisag (2012), the teaching and learning approaches must be up-to-date and in line with the changes in our daily lives – which include the integration of technology, to provide novelty and innovative learning experiences to the learners.From the traditional chalk-and-talk language classroom, educators and learners are now gradually shifting to the modern, or technology incorporated language, classroom (Lacina, 2004). With the integration of technology into language classrooms, the teaching and learning process will be more interactive compared to before, as the use of technology provides the opportunity for two-way interactions; learners are no longer the passive receivers of the learning process and given the opportunity to provide feedback to the educators (Jacobs, 2010). This will lead to more meaningful teaching and language approaches in the English language classrooms.

In an effort to incorporate technology into the classroom, the Ministry of Education, Malaysia, has been putting a lot of effort to design and develop technological tools in aiding classroom teaching and learning. In 2011, for instance, 1BestariNet programme was launched by the Malaysia's Ministry of Education, with the aim to provide to all public schools in Malaysia with technological related equipment such as chrome books, internet connectivity and virtual learning environment. The incorporation of ICT in the teaching and learning classroom led to Virtual Learning Environment (VLEs), a platform where educators and learners are virtually involved in the teaching and learning process. Forums, blogs, and chatrooms were created to enable educators and learners to interact, communicate and share learning materials (Ministry of Education, 2013). Learning courseware is also a technology deployment for the teaching and learning purposes in the English language learning (Samuel & Abu Bakar, 2007; Abdullah, 2006).

In terms of customising and personalising learning, digital storytelling seems to be a great learning material that serves this purpose. This is because digital storytelling will enable learning to be customised and personalised based on the learners' age, needs, learning styles, level of learning proficiency and learning competency. According to Robin (2008), digital storytelling can be used for educational purposes and engaging learning as its narratives can be used to implicitly highlight the intended language elements to be learned. Meanwhile, Tsou, Wang, and Tzeng (2006) posited that the use of digital storytelling could improve learners' reading, writing, listening and speaking skills.

Background of the Study

In Malaysia, the English language is formally taught and learned as a core subject and the second language (L2) in all public schools, with a total of five periods of lesson per week. Despite Bahasa Malaysia being the main medium of instruction and language used in all the public schools, the government also emphasises on the status of the English language as the second language (Kementerian Pendidikan Malaysia, 2001). In fact, English language is a core and compulsory subject in all primary and secondary schools in Malaysia.

However, the standard of English language among school students has been deteriorating even though the language has been taught and learned as the second language nationwide over the years. This is due to the fact that English language is not being exposed to and used enough by the learners for them to master the language (Andrew, 2006; Hanapiah, 2004). Learners seemed to have little or no opportunities to use the language in their lives. Learning and practising the language is only during the language lessons in school. The learners deem English as a foreign language as it is not their mother tongue (HamidaYamat, Fisher,& Rich, 2014). It is believed that selecting and using the appropriate strategy and learning materials can attract learners' interest to learn and practice the language in and out of the classroom (Fewell, 2010). Hence, it is important to identify one's learning strategy and learning materials that will enable them to learn language effectively. Failure, or ineffectiveness, in using the conventional way of learning using textbooks, blackboard/whiteboard, and chalk in ESL teaching and learning may cause educators and learners to resort to alternative teaching and learning approaches which are more creative, which involve utilisation of images, songs, animations, videos, and even movies as their teaching and learning materials (McGill, 2010; Orlovo, 2003).

It is believed that the use of technology is able to make learning easier and more convenient as learning can be carried out easily, or without any hassle. Jacobs (2010) stated that technology had "the ability to be continuously connected and to share and exchange ideas and information across time and space using a wide variety of modalities".

Besides, learning will be more interactive and lively with the use of technology. This is supported by Brand, Favazza, and Dalton (2012) who indicated that technology could "facilitate the attainment of learning goals for individuals with wide differences in their abilities to see, hear, move, read, write, understand English, sustain attention, organize, engage and remember". Moreover, the use of technology exposes learners to more learning opportunities as it is made more flexible. Learning can be conducted anywhere and at learners' own convenience, as highlighted by Gainer and Lapp (2010) who exclaimed that "engaged learning can occur if their outside-of-school knowledge and interest are acknowledged, respected, and used as part of the instructional picture within the culture of the classroom".

Coherently, Smythe and Neufeld (2010) stated that technology helped in accelerating learning as in transporting the information. Hence, the use of technology provides the learners with a "sense of freedom, motivation, and encouragement they need for learning (Traore & Kyei-Blankson, 2011).

As the use of technology in the education system is popular among the educators and learners alike, researchers and language experts have been designing and developing multimedia learning courseware and applications for language learning purposes. These multimedia learning materials can be downloaded into technological devices to be used by the learners at their leisure time. In fact, multimedia learning websites, courseware and applications are widely used for English language learning purposes in and out of the classroom (Healey et al., 2008).

In order to help motivate learners to involve in their own learning, storytelling has been digitalised. The incorporation of technology into the production of stories increases interactivity of the stories, which can attract the learners' interest in learning (Boster, Meyer, Roberto, & Inge, 2002; Hibbin & Rankin-Erikson, 2003). According to Gregori-Signs (2008) and Tsou et al. (2006), digital storytelling is a useful tool in language learning as it is able to improve learners' language skills of reading, writing, listening, speaking, grammar and vocabulary.

Digital storytelling is defined as the human narratives using recorded voice narration, visual representations (images, graphics, and videos) and audio (background music) to tell stories (Sadik, 2008; Robin, 2008). The one major contrasting difference between traditional storytelling and digital storytelling is the use of visual (images, graphics, animations, and videos) and audio (recorded voice narration and background music) in digital storytelling (Banaszewski, 2002; Lowenthal, 2008; Ohler, 2006; Sylvester & Greenidge, 2010). Eventhough there are many different genres of digital storytelling (namely, video games, the web-based games, web-based videos, web-based narratives, interactive TV, and many more), all these digital storytelling materials are developed based on the criteria of the core elements (Handler-Miller, 2008). The ideal combination of storytelling and multimedia makes the digital storytelling very interactive and it is the interactiveness of this technology that makes the best feature of the combination (Handler-Miller, 2008).

Goodwin (2012) posited that emerging technologies using the touch screen interface had opened up new resources for learning in educational setting, allowing flexible learning among learners. Hence, the use of portable devices such as smartphones, laptops and tablets has been gaining popularity among the educators, learners and researchers (McConatha, Praul & Lynch, 2008). Tablet is one of the latest mobile devices that famous for its high portability, functionality and convenience to be used as a learning tool in aiding mobile learning.

Tablets are a more sought after mobile tools to be used as they are devices "which are smaller, lighter, more flexible and potentially more interactive than laptops" (Warschauer, 2011). This echoes Brand and Kinash (2010) who stated that the tablets provided opportunity for research "on emergent m-Learning technology and pedagogy beyond distance education and small-screen mobile devices". Even though smartphone is also one of the latest technological tools which can be used for learning, tablet is chosen to be the technological tool in facilitating the digital storytelling application as the features of tablets are somewhere in between a smartphone and a laptop – they have internet connectivity with touch-screen interface but have larger screen like the laptop. In a survey conducted by Abilene Christian University in 2011 on learners' preference on the use of smartphones or iPads in learning, the findings revealed that the majority of the learners preferred using iPads than smartphones in learning due to the large screen size. Hence, the tablet is a better choice to be used as the mobile device to facilitate learning via digital storytelling application in this study. Furthermore, it is believed that the use of tablet can supplement hundreds of books used in classroom as all these books can be stored in one device, considering its big storage space (Price, 2012).

Previous Related Studies

There are several studies conducted by Malaysian researchers which revealed that the use of multimedia and technology can make language learning more effective. In a research conducted by Abidin, Pour-Mohammadi, Shoar, Cheong, and Jafre (2011), the use of electronic glossary – the multimedia annotation – was effective in learners' vocabulary learning, in terms of retention and memorisation. The effectiveness in vocabulary retention and recalling has directly resulted in the effectiveness in vocabulary learning. In addition, a research conducted by Mustafa, Sain and Razak (2012) revealed that learners who had been exposed to the learning of vocabulary using the internet achieved tremendous improvements in their post-test scores than those who were not exposed to the use of the internet. This shows that the use of technology-internet in this research helped the learners to perform and understand better, and in this context, the learning of vocabulary.

In addition, Lin and Yang (2011) posited that the use of technology and multimedia enabled learners to learn vocabulary, spelling and sentence structures by reading the peers' work at Wiki page. Similarly, Sharma (2009) also stressed on the significant effects of using technological tools in each language skill. In more specific, the use of technology is believed to be able to enhance and develop learners' listening skill through the visuals and voice inputs provided. Learners' reading skill can also be improved through technological oriented reading programmes which help them to read, pronounce, and thus increase their fluency and comprehension in reading (Ybarra & Green, 2003). In

addition, according to Kenworthy (2004), the availability of reading resources online such as newspapers, magazines, journals, libraries, and dictionaries encourages more reading opportunities among the learners as reading materials are easily accessible on the internet as "increased interaction with texts, attention to individual needs and increased independence through an ability to read texts they would not otherwise be able to read" (Case & Truscott, 1999). The use of technology also motivates learners to write as they would not have to worry about committing grammatical errors in writing because the technological tools can be used to detect grammatical errors and suggest the correct use of grammar in their writing (Ybarra & Green, 2003). Besides, the use of email also provides learners with writing opportunities by sending and replying to email messages (Singhal, 1997). Moreover, Lauren, Marge and Cynthia (2010) highlighted that the exposure to speeches, interviews and dialogues via technological devices could reinforce learners' listening skills.

According to Koisawalia (2005), the use of digital storytelling is beneficial to language learning as the language features (vocabulary, grammar, sentence structures and linguistic elements) are presented through digital stories. It is believed that digital storytelling can generally promote learning as stories are able to engage learners through their memories, feelings and perceptions (Ramirez & Alonso, 2007). In addition, Dickinson (2001)

also expressed that stories could improve learners in their listening comprehension. This statement is supported by the research findings of Mello (2001) which revealed that there was improvement in learners' learning comprehension, listening skills and interaction between learners-learners after they had been exposed to the use of digital storytelling in learning. Furthermore, Chung (2007) also highlighted that the use of visuals and graphics could help to enhance listening comprehension. Moreover, the use of digital storytelling is also said to be able to enhance and improve learners' skills in writing by reading the narrations pieces of digital stories (Oakley, 2011). Hence, the use of digital storytelling can enhance learners speaking skill – pronunciation, pacing, rhythm, intonation and stress (Normann, 2011).

Objective of the Study

The general objective of the study is to examine the young ESL learners' perception on the effects of using the digital storytelling application in language learning.

Limitations of the Study

The limitation in this study is that its findings cannot be generalised to the whole population of 11-year-old learners in Malaysian primary schools as the design of this study is a qualitative case study that involved only six learners from a public primary school.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Research Design

The research approach employed in this study is qualitative case study. Researcher with the role of observer as participant is the main instrument in the study (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007) because the researcher needs to establish a close rapport with the participants. According to Adler and Adler (1998), researcher is to "observe and interact closely enough with members to establish an insider's identity without participating in those activities constituting the core of group's membership". This was to ensure that detailed and in-depth information could be obtained from the Malaysian young ESL learners. Besides, the case study approach employed in this study was used to examine "the characteristics of an individual entity (the young ESL learners) in that entity's natural occurring situation" (Nunan & Bailey, 2009).

Participants

The research participants involved in this study were six 11-year-old ESL learners from an urban public primary school in Perak, Malaysia. As stated earlier, the purposive sampling method was employed in selecting the research participants for this study based on the learners' age (11-year-old) and their level of English language proficiency (high, intermediate, low). Purposive sampling was chosen as this sampling method is able to deliver the most accurate results based on the in-depth and detailed opinions of the 11-year-old learners of 3 different English language proficiency levels. Only six young ESL learners were selected to be participating in this study as this sample size is believed to be able to portray the feedback of the Primary Five students with different levels of the English language proficiency (2 with high, intermediate and low English language proficiency levels, respectively) via the use of the digital storytelling application. As posited by Gay and Airasian (2003), a huge number of participants was not required in a qualitative case study because the massive and rich information obtained from the few participants would be sufficient enough to furnish the researcher with the data needed for the research. The rationale for selecting young ESL learners as the research participants in this study is the fact that the learners of today are the pioneer generation who grow up alongside digital technology and are called as the "digital natives" (Prensky, 2001). In addition, United Nation's Convention on the children's rights (1989) states that there should be involvement and consultation with children about everything concerning their lives, research included. This is supported by Gill, Stewart, Treasure, and Chadwick (2008) who stated that "qualitative interviews with children could yield rich, deep, trustworthy accounts and led to revelations of knowledge not commonly known by the adults". Previous research has also indicated that research works employing qualitative studies involving the interview technique have been conducted with young ESL learners from the age of 2-16 in exploring

the young learners' experiences in using digital technologies, medical, dental and nursing research studies (Chaudron et al., 2015; Gill et al., 2008; Haddon & Vincent, 2015).In this study, the participants are referred to as S1, S2, S3, S4, S5 and S6.

Ethical Precautions

As the research participants involved in this study are minors, who have not attained the legal age for consent to take part in this study, a written consent to partake was obtained from the learners' parents. Furthermore, permission from the State's Education Department and the Headmistress of the public primary school of the learners was also sought prior to conducting the study.

The Tablet-Based Digital Storytelling Application

This tablet-based digital storytelling application was designed and developed by the researcher in aiding vocabulary learning among the Malaysian young ESL learners based on the three multimedia instructional principles of Mayer's (2001) Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning. The multimedia instructional principles implemented were the multimedia principle, modality principle and signalling principle. The Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning is the theory underlining this study as it suggests that learners have two types of processing systems-visual and verbal, which are similar with the use of multimedia presented the materials in different forms such as visual and auditory. Dikilitas and

Duvenci (2009) supported this theory that claimed that "if how human mind operates is considered in designing multimedia learning environment, it is likely that the learning will become more meaningful". In addition, the three instructional principles – the multimedia principle, modality principle and signalling principle implemented are reflected by the multimedia elements – texts, visuals and auditory elements used in the application to enhance learning and the multimedia glosses presented in the application. Meanwhile, contents of the application were customised and personalised to be best suited for the vocabulary learning of the 11-year-old learners. This digital storytelling application emphasises on the use of multimedia elements such as moving and still animations, colourful graphics, voiceover narrations, songs, touch screen functionality, multimodal vocabulary glosses – equipped with pronunciation, graphics and images related to the vocabulary making vocabulary learning interactive. In determining the suitability of the vocabulary lists to be learned by the learners, the researcher had initially discussed on the list of words for vocabulary glossing with two Primary Five English language educators before surveying words that are incomprehensible to the Primary Five learners by distributing the hard copies of the digital stories to the learners. Words which possessed the highest frequency of being circled (learners' incomprehensible words) were used for as the intended vocabulary lists to be used in the application. However, as suggested by

the two educators, it would be better for the researcher to include at least two to three words that the learners have already acquired for vocabulary glossing so as to lower their affective filter in attempting the learning application. In addition, vocabulary exercises (namely the spelling exercises and matching the word with the definition exercises) are also provided for vocabulary learning and enhancement purposes.

Pilot Study

A pilot test was conducted at a public school in the state of Perak, Malaysia, using 3 Primary Five learners who were not involved in the actual study. The 3 learners were required to use the digital storytelling application on a tablet to listen and read the first two digital stories in the application for a duration of two weeks. They were interviewed at the end of the second week by the researcher. This pilot test was conducted to check the feasibility of the interview questions. Some difficult terms used in the interview questions were replaced with simpler terms which can be easily comprehended by the young learners. The pilot test was successfully carried out with the three learners.

Data Collection

This study obtained data from the six young ESL learners through interviews and observations. The study was conducted for the duration of 8 weeks (one digital story per week), and observations were conducted twice every week (at the beginning and end of the week) for a total of 16 observation

sessions at one hour per session after school hours, outside of the classroom setting. Two semi-structured interview sessions (the first interview consisted of 27 questions and the second interview consisted of 31 questions) were conducted with the research participants at the end of the 8th week to ensure that the learners' responses to all aspects of the study – issues in using the digital storytelling application, tablet and language learning– were examined thoroughly until the data obtained reached a saturation point. Gay, Geoffry, and Peter (2009) exclaimed that when a researcher "begins to hear the same thoughts, perspectives and responses from most or all of the participants", it indicates that the data have reached the saturation point. At the same time, this also implies that the researcher can be engaged sufficiently in collecting the data in order to ensure data validity. Responses from the research participants during the interview sessions were in a mix of English and Mandarin. The participants were allowed to respond in Mandarin as they could express their responses better and clearer in the language. For data analysis purposes, however, all the interview transcripts were translated and rewritten in English to ensure that their responses are comprehensible for all. Hence, to validate the ideas and responses expressed by the learners, the excerpts of the interview transcripts quoted in this study are the revised version of the original transcripts from the interview sessions which had been checked and validated by two English language teachers who have at least twenty

years of experience in ESL teaching. As for the data collected from the observation sessions, the researcher observed everything that happened in the observation setting, took record and wrote down notes. An adapted observation rubric from the Plan of Bryman College, San Francisco and Setting Reports Guidelines of Chew Valley School was used to look at the learners' attitudes, motivation, independent learning and responses to feedback in order to help the researcher to be more focused in what to observe during the observation sessions. The open observation was conducted twice a week for a duration of 8 weeks – at the beginning and end of the weeks. All the interview questions, observations rubrics, observations notes and learners' interview responses were checked and validated by a panel of experts comprising two field experts who have a minimum of 20 years of teaching experience in the subject matter.

Data Analysis Method

Both the qualitative data derived from the interviews and observations were analysed manually via content analysis and by using the Nvivo software. All the qualitative data were first analysed manually before they were sent for analysis using the Nvivo software. Prior to coding the data according to themes derived mostly from the literature review and emerging themes, the data were systematically organised and went through the data reduction process – a process which reduces unwanted and insignificant data. These data were also rated and examined by two human inter-raters to ensure their validity and consistency.

RESULTS

This section reports on the findings of this study. As perceived by the learners, there was one obvious and clear effect of using the digital storytelling application on tablet to learn vocabulary. It was observed that the language learning impacts on learners' listening, speaking, reading, writing skills and vocabulary competency resulted from the use of this digital storytelling application on tablet were positive.

As revealed by the learners on the effects on language learning using the digital storytelling application on tablet, the use of the digital storytelling on tablet in vocabulary did not only bring improvement to their language learning, but it also taught them grammar and moral values.

"… *I will surely learn more. There are many new and old words with their meanings that I can learn. I can also listen to the stories and improve my pronunciation" (S2, I1: L33-34)*

"... *I can learn more and also use the tablet for learning new words and improve my reading and spelling" (S5, I1:L28-29)*

"*I listen and learn to talk to others using good English (S1, I1: L75)*

"*...I like to learn more words for speaking and reading as well" (S3, I1: L74)*

"*...you can listen to the pronunciation and the next time you happened to use the word you would not pronounce it wrongly" (S4, I1: L87-88)*

"…can help me to improve my English especially in grammar" (S5, I1: L36-37)

Data collected from the observation learning sessions also yielded similar findings with the data collected from the interview sessions. The researcher observed that in most of the observation learning sessions, the learners were repeating the pronunciation of the vocabulary and memorising their spelling. Besides, the learners were also seen attempting the vocabulary exercises (which the learners deemed as tests) excitedly. The learners were also seen comparing the scores obtained from the vocabulary exercises.

"All the learners were attempting the vocabulary exercises silently. They seemed to be very focussed and careful in choosing the answers. S2 was trying to recall the spelling of a certain vocabulary in the story. S6 was mouthing the spelling of another vocabulary (trying to memorise the vocabulary learned). There were no eye contact among the learners. After a while, S1 looked happy and relieved as S1 had completed the exercises. S1 was telling the rest of the learners the scores obtained from the exercises. The researcher could hear that the learners were comparing the scores they obtained from the vocabulary exercises". (5th observation learning session: 30/5/15)

"Every time the learners clicked on the hypermedia and vocabulary glosses, they were seen to be repeating after the spelling and pronunciation of the vocabularies learned. Some of the learners were mouthing the spelling and pronunciation provided by the application". (10th observation learning session: 17/6/15)

Moreover, the findings also showed that the use of the digital storytelling on tablet was able to motivate the learners to learn (i) vocabulary, (ii) speaking skill, (iii) listening skill, (iv) reading skill, and (v) writing skill. In fact, the learners claimed that they were motivated to learn due to the high interactivity of the multimedia elements integrated into the application. The learners posited that the use of animations, voiceover narration, hyperlinked vocabularies, and multimodal glosses was the main multimedia element that had motivated them to learn using the application on tablet. As posited by learners during the interview sessions,

"… it motivates me to learn more words" (S5, I1, L79)

"Of course. I especially love the pop-up words. It helps me to learn words in an interesting and enjoyable way…" (S2, I1: L29-30)

"Yes, because it has nice pictures and we learn new words" (S3, I2: L30)

"It motivates me… and improves my speaking… skills" (S5, I1, L79)

"I listen and learn to talk to others using good English" (S1, I1: L75)

"I enjoy using it for learning language skills in the classroom especially for

listening and reading" (S1, I1: L95-96)

"Yes, because reading it, I will go on to read more interesting story" (S3, I2: L80)

"Yes, I personally like reading stories. Digital storytelling is better as you can listen to the stories and learn vocabulary at the same time" (S2, I1: L91-92)

"Yes, because after reading the stories, we get to know the flow of the story and we will know how to write essays…" (S2, I1: L100-101)

"I learn the spelling and next I use the words in writing sentences" (S4, I2: L77-78)

"Yes because I want to read the stories again and again. I like the animation, colours and the pop-up when I touch the screen. So interesting!" (S2, I1: L38-19)

"Yes, I want to read more and I enjoy reading the story" (S5, I2: L32)

"Yes. It motivates me from the start and I would rate it four-and-a-half stars to five stars"(S1, I2: L31)

"Yes, it will motivate me to learn English. I can straight tap and access the information whenever I want" (S6, I1: L78-79)

"Yes, I will read the stories again and again, learn and memorise meanings of more words" (S4, I1: L31-32)

"Yes, if there are more stories then I will continue reading and learn the language" (S4, I1: L78)

Similarly, data obtained from the observation also revealed the same scenario.

"S4 was mimicking the way the characters speak. S4 even replayed the page and kept on repeating after the voiceover narration at the part where the characters speak". (9th observation learning session, 13/6/15)

"S5 was diligently imitating the way the voiceover narration narrates the story with great expression. Learner were seen to be repeating over and over again what is said by the voiceover narration" (11th observation learning session, 20/6/15)

"S5 was diligently copying some sentences from the digital story. When asked, S5 replied it was for writing essay purposes as the sentences is very well constructed" (8th observation learning session, 10/6/16)

From a conversation overheard by the researcher during one of the observation learning sessions, which was the 3rd observation learning session, S5 was asking S3 not to disturb her as she loved reading the digital stories. This indirectly indicated that the learners are interested in attempting the digital stories as they are willing to attempt the stories willingly (possessed high enthusiasm in reading), with their own effort,

"S3: Come, look at this, it's so cute!

S5: No, I don't want to look at your screen. I want to read my story.

S3: Just for awhile. Come!

S5: I love reading my story. Please do not disturb. Stop disturbing me."

Looking at the data obtained from various sources, it can summarised that the use of the digital storytelling on tablet has motivated the learners to learn vocabulary, speaking skill, listening skill, reading skill and writing skill. This is because the integration of multimedia elements in this application is beneficial, particularly when used as the learning material and tool.

DISCUSSION

The findings of the study showed that the learners have positive perception on the effects of using digital storytelling application in their language learning that includes speaking skill, listening skill, reading skill and writing skill. Based on learners' perception, the use of the digital storytelling application on tablet is able to enhance their learning of (i) vocabulary, (ii) speaking skill, (iii) listening skill, (iv) reading skill, and (v) writing skill. Although the positive effects on vocabulary learning via the use of this learning application is the most prominent in this study (as it has the highest frequency of being mentioned by the learners), the positive effects on the other language skills must not be denied. This is coherent with Dogan and Robin (2008) who once posited that the use of digital storytelling was able to improve learners' learning performance, and high interest and eagerness to learn.

The integration of voiceover narration in the digital storytelling application enables the learners to learn and practice their speaking skill. This is supported by the Modality Principle (Mayer, 2001) which states that learners will be able to learn better with the presence of visual aids and verbal aids rather than visual aids alone. Hence, learners are able to practice their speaking skill after being exposed to the use of this application. This is because the learners are tempted to repeat after the voiceover narration in narrating the stories in different intonations of voice, punctuation, exclamation and pauses and spelling, as well as pronouncing the vocabulary learned. In fact, the learners felt that imitating, mimicking and repeating after the voiceover narration provided them with the opportunity to practise speaking and learn the right way to speak in the language. Besides, the learners also posited that learning new words has enabled them to speak the language better by learning the correct pronunciation of words and appropriate tone in speaking. This finding is supported by Ellis (1991) who stated that children were better than adults in imitating speeches.

Besides, the use of digital storytelling application on tablet enables the young learners to learn and improve their listening skill. The learners' listening comprehension can be enhanced through the use of visual representation (Chung, 2002). Besides the integration of audio elements such as the voiceover narration and background into the application, the learners were also exposed

to the use of visual representations such as moving animation and colourful graphics. Thus, the use of this digital storytelling application on tablet was able to motivate learners to learn and enhance their listening skill. Listening skill is enhanced when the learners listen to and are able to produce what they have heard. As stated by the learners, after listening to the digital stories via the application, they were able to write down the sentences heard, pronounce the words correctly and speak the language. This is agreed by Ramirez, Allonso and Chung (as cited in Sandaran & Lim, 2013) who posited that the incorporation of technology into digital storytelling made digital storytelling "interesting, attractive, interactive and reiteractive" and "ideal for listening comprehension".

In addition, the incorporation of voiceover narration in reading the digital stories and the use of multimodal glosses in the digital storytelling application can enhance reading comprehension among the young ESL learners. Based on the learners' responses, being able to learn new words, introduced to, understand the meaning and pronounced the words learned improved their reading skill as they were able to read and understand the whole story without any distorted meaning. In the learners' opinions, the feature of the multimedia glosses of this application helps to motivate them to read as they can understand the stories read as all words are defined and made understood to the learners. This is supported by Hague (1987) who stated that possessing the knowledge of vocabulary could motivate

learners to learn. As the integration of multimedia glosses into the application enables learners to learn vocabularies, this indirectly enables and motivates them to read the stories as well. This echoes with what is posited by Dale (1965) that one's knowledge of the vocabulary determines how well someone is in reading as one is a better reader if he/she possesses a vast knowledge of the vocabulary.

Furthermore, the use of the digital storytelling application also enables learners to learn the writing skill. Learners were able to indulge in writing as they were exposed to the style and form of narration writing of the digital stories. As mentioned by Oakley (2011), the use of digital storytelling is able to enhance learners' writing skill through the modelled writing of the narrations of the digital stories. Digital stories are usually grammatically correct with the correct construction of sentence structures and use of appropriate linguistic elements. Thus, these grammatically correct sentences are used as the modelled sentence structures and construction to the learners in their effort of learning to write. In this study, the learners felt that they were motivated to write as they could always seek guidance from the digital storytelling application on how to write grammatically correct sentences in their writing. Hence, this enables the learners to practise and learn the writing skill from the modelled narration writing of the digital stories. This is supported by Koisawalia (2005), and Glazer and Burke (1994) who stated that digital stories used in the digital storytelling possessed the language features

such as vocabulary, grammar, sentence structures and linguistics elements which were useful and beneficial for language learning.

In summary, the use of the digital storytelling application on tablet enables the young learners to learn English language skills such as listening, speaking, reading, writing and vocabulary. This not only shows that digital storytelling can be used as a learning material and tool to enhance learning, but also to motivate learning among the young ESL learners. Similar studies on the use of digital storytelling in motivating learning were also reported by Neo and Neo (2010), and Koohang, Riley, Smith, and Schreurs (2009) who found that learners were motivated after attempting to learn using digital storytelling.

Implications for Teaching and Learning

The findings of the current research work have shown that the young learners were motivated to learn the English language using the digital storytelling application as the application provides interesting and fun learning tool and material to be used. Being motivated in learning is an important factor as motivated learners are more interested in learning and this will lead to more learning opportunities (Halvorsen, 2011, cited in Normann, 2011). According to Lence (2013), the use of digital storytelling in language learning enables learning to be conducted in a motivating, relaxing and conducive environment. It is believed that learners will be able to learn better in a stress-free environment when their affective filters are lowered while learning the language through the use of this application.

In addition, this study has shown that the use of digital storytelling application on tablet is appropriate to be implemented in the primary school setting for the purpose of language learning among the young learners. Furthermore, the use of this digital storytelling application can serve as a supplementary material for language learning.

The findings of this study also portray that the use of the digital storytelling application on tablet is a suitable learning material to be used for language learning (Brown, 2001). In more specific, the findings of this study revealed that learners were motivated to learn the language using this learning application by possessing high enthusiasm in learning to read, speak, write and listen. After being introduced and exposed to the use of this learning application, the learners were more willing to learn the English language (learners were willing to carry out the digital storytelling tasks even without being prompted and asked to do so)because the interactiveness of the application had heightened the learners' interest and attention to learn the language.

CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of the study, it can be summarised that the digital storytelling application designed and developed on tablet has positive effects on the young ESL learners' language learning. In other words, the use of this application on tablet has proven to be effective for the learning

of the English language among the young ESL learners.

Moreover, the use of this digital storytelling on tablet attracted learners' interest and enthusiasm in learning. The learners were motivated to learn using this application on tablet. Developing the young ESL learners' motivation in learning is as this factor determines the effectiveness and their achievement in learning.

Finally, the impact on language learning can be used as proof to highlight the possible strengths of digital storytelling on tablet in English language learning to relevant authorities.

In conclusion, the use of digital storytelling on tablet in the learning of vocabulary is effective, beneficial and motivational in English language learning. For these reason, it is suitable as both the learning material and tool for after-school-hour as well as out-of-classroom learning.

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Managing Medical Education in Doctor-Patient Communication Using Polite Indonesian Vocative Kin Terms

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ABSTRACT

In doctor-patient communication, Indonesian medical students use vocative kin terms (addressing patients as in the familial address system) at all stages of history taking for patients. Previous research in Java described the use of polite Indonesian vocative kin terms in an institutional setting in Bali and Lombok. The present study addresses the following research questions: 1) At what ages do medical students agree with the use of polite vocative Indonesian kin terms to strengthen the bonds between them and their patients? 2) Do the ethnic backgrounds of the students' parents influence the use of polite vocative kin terms? This research used a qualitative descriptive approach. The results shows that the medical students agree that such usage deepens the bonds at the heart of doctor-patient communication. In addition, the ethnic background of the medical students' parents had no influence on whether polite vocative Indonesian kin terms were used.

Keywords: Doctor-patient communication, polite Indonesian, vocative kin terms

INTRODUCTION

The Indonesian government regulates national and private medical schools, thereby standardizing medical education throughout Indonesia. Medical education is managed from the very start, as evidenced by the management of entry test results and TOEFL score rankings. This management is carried out by the national official entry test for all faculties of Indonesian universities. Newly accepted medical school students all across Indonesia undergo the same education; for example, all students attend the same number of semesters before undertaking their internship program (usually six semesters). Students in their seventh and eighth semesters follow the Speaking Skills program at the Skills laboratory (also known as Lab Skill). Here, they are taught to speak politely to all patients regardless

of the patients' background. Politeness is to be extended to patients from all Indonesia, regardless of their ethnicity, race, religion, gender or social status. Students must follow strict rules on how to address patients using polite vocative kin terms, following those used in the family system. Medical students enter their internship programs at the end of the eighth semester as they move from one specialist program to another. It takes approximately two years to finish this program and pass the tests of each specialist program. At the end of the students' medical education, they have to sit for the National Medical Test and for the National Speaking Test, a test that focuses on doctor-patient communication.

The entrance fee is different for every faculty. Medical schools have the highest entrance fees, reaching up to thousands of US dollars. Certainly, such fees are that only the upper classes in Indonesia can afford, yet not all medical students are from the upper-class society, so it is common practice for a medical student's relatives to pay for this expensive education. Alternatively, some students receive scholarships to pursue this type of education. As medical education is always changing and updating with respect to the latest development in medicine, it seems destined to remain expensive.

Students enter medical school at approximately 17-18 years of age. They come from various ethnic backgrounds and social strata. Age plays an important role in determining whether a doctor deems it appropriate to use the voiced kinship system with his or her patients. It is predicted that the older a student, the wiser he or she becomes and thus the more accepting he or she becomes towards the need for politeness with patients regardless of the patients' social strata. Indeed, the politeness system embedded within the Javanese language suggests that patients are entitled to the same courtesy within doctor-patient education (Kartomihardjo, 1979).

With wide ethnic variation and with each group using Bahasa Indonesia as its primary means of communication, what is the actual condition of medical education in Indonesia when all future medical doctors (Indonesians or foreign medical students alike) must pass the National Test for Communication Skills? For students entering medical education, using Bahasa Indonesia is the rule, and slogans championing politeness to patients abound (Iragiliati, 2008, 2012, 2015).

Conflicts related to language and power genres among the Indonesian people (Fairclough & Fairclough, 2012) have worsened, though they have not been felt in the medical schools. Indeed, medical education Indonesia has proceeded smoothly since the Dutch period, regardless of what was happening in the larger community. This research endeavors to discover the steps taken by medical faculties, the medical council and the Indonesian government to stabilize a possibly volatile situation. To that end, Indonesian medical education has followed the SEGUE framework, which stands for a) Set the stage; b) Elicit information; c) Give information; d) Understand the patient perspective; and e) End the interview (Papageorgiou,

2016). This framework was created by an American scientist to address the need for a more humane approach to practice (Mishler, 1984). Subsequently, the SEGUE framework was adopted and adapted to the Indonesian context through the inclusion of Indonesian cultural and politeness factors (Iragiliati, 2015; Wonodirekso, 2009) and a focus on the family-doctor system as practiced in teaching hospitals in Indonesia.

Politeness in Doctor-Patient Communication in the Western World

In a previous study, Mishler (1984) discussed how, with respect to treatment or medication, it was time to consider the patient's voice as part of the "Voice of the World" rather than considering only the opinion of medical doctors or the "Voice of Medicine". Medical doctors do not emphasize the use of familial address terms when talking to patients. The shift towards a more humane approach was palpable. More historical accounts (i.e., Makoul et. al., 2016) note that effective doctor-patient communication should entail a more humane and critical approach. Papageorgiou (2016) stipulated that there were several types or models of process history taking in doctor-patient consultation and that the medical doctor was responsible for choosing the model most suitable for the treatment. In contradistinction to Mishler (1984), Silverman (2016) focused on the importance of information sharing and shared decision making. We can conclude that since 1984, there has been a sea of change in the process of doctor-patient communication.

We have shifted from a very rigid "Voice of Medicine" to a more flexible "Voice of the World", referring to patients' view of the medications they are to consider taking. Doctor-patient communication should take place in an institutional setting or workplace (Drew & Herritage, 1995; Heritage & Clayman, 2010), and interactions in those settings should occur at teaching hospitals. Politeness in the West focuses on the "Voice of the World" and follows one of the models proposed by Papageorgiou and the shared information described by Silverman.

Politeness in Doctor-Patient Communication in the Indonesian Context: Java, Bali, and Lombok

Dutch was the medium of instruction in Doktor Djawa training. Hospitals were built in the 1900s, and medical schools such as STOVIA were opened in Indonesia (Hal Sekolah Dokter Djawa, 1901) and in Java: Batavia and Soerabaya. Some Indonesians were trained to be paramedical cadres, or Doktor Djawa (Hal Dokter Djawa, 1900; Hull & Iskandar, 1996). However, after The Proclamation, Indonesian was used and embraced by everyone. Linguistic politeness has taken into account the Indonesian diglossic (or multiglossic) situation as well as similar linguistic resources since the Dutch colonial era.

In modern Indonesia, Indonesian is the official language of doctor-patient communication within institutional settings. When examining formal settings in East Java, Iragiliati (2008) described utterance patterns associated with politeness strategies

in Indonesian medical discourse tied to doctor-patient interactions. Iragiliati (2008) showed how vocative terms of address based on the Indonesian family kinship system appeared across the stages of the SEGUE checklist. The following vocative kin terms were used by medical doctors and by medical students to patients: Father/Bapak, Elder Brother/Mas, Younger Brother/Dik, Mother/Ibu, Older Sister/Mbak, and Younger Sister/Adek. These terms functioned as polite openings in Indonesian doctor-patient communication (Iragiliati, 2008).

It can be concluded that politeness has played an important role in doctor-patient communication. This conclusion supports Brown and Levinson's (1987) work on positive politeness strategy in-group markers. Continuing research on politeness strategies related to doctor-patient communication in Indonesia was carried out in 2012 (Iragiliati, 2012). This research, conducted in East Java, focused on patients' preferences for vocative kin terms used by medical students. Married female patients preferred to be addressed as Mother/Ibu rather than as Older Sister/Mbak, while married male patients preferred to be addressed as Father/Bapak rather than as Older Brother/Mas. Thus, patients' preferences regarding kin terms were based not only on age but also on marital status. Indonesian patients preferred a politeness strategy in their doctor-patient communication. This finding also suggests a significant influence of Javanese philosophy, in which one is expected to present a polite attitude towards elders (Kartomihardjo,

1979). Sometimes, "elder" refers to a patient who is older than the medical student, although "older" often referred to marital status.

More generally, doctors in Southeast Asia often use a paternalistic communication style during consultations, regardless of their patients' educational background. Claramita, Nugraheni, Van Dalen, and Van der Fleuten (2013) suggested that the establishment of partnership-style doctor-patient communication is a cultural and clinical concern in Southeast Asian countries. Furthermore, Claramita stipulated that this communicative ideal conflicts sharply with existing patriarchal systems in Southeast Asian societies and with the superior status of doctors relative to their patients.

All the studies outlined above were conducted in a Javanese context. However, another research stream has emerged from research in Bali and Lombok. Bali was chosen because although it reflects a patriarchal system similar to that in Java, it is also associated with a social structure based on Hinduism. Thus, Bali represents a slightly different case. Lombok was chosen because the local language of Sasak is distinct from either Balinese or Javanese and is spoken mostly by Moslems. As the setting was a teaching hospital/institutional setting, the research showed that the voiced kin terms used were Indonesian. In light of these different cultural settings, we expect interesting patterns of politeness in doctor-patient interactions. However, in reality, conflicts related to caste, religion or ethnic background were not seen in this context.

Within educational or government hospital settings, only Bahasa Indonesia and its associated vocative terms are used. The medical care provided does not depend on the ethnic background or religious beliefs of doctors or of patients. All patients are treated politely, while medical treatments and doctor-patient communication procedures are standardized across Indonesia. Thus, with respect to vocative kin terms and politeness in the Indonesian context, doctor-patient communication should entail shared knowledge of treatment between the doctor and patient. The researchers above supported research on the use of polite kinds of voiced kin terms, patient preferences for their use, and their applications outside of Java and with religions other than Islam.

Research carried out by the Indonesian Board of Health (Indonesian Ministry of Health, 2013) stated that because of the increase in medical faculties in Indonesia, the number of medical school graduates has increased sharply since 2013. In 2015, the number of medical school graduates totaled approximately 50,795, representing an increase of approximately 5,000 per year.

On the basis of the background elaborated above, we sought answers to the following research questions: 1) At what ages do medical students use polite vocative Indonesian kin terms to strengthen the bonds between them and their patients? 2) Does the ethnic background of students' parents influence their use of polite vocative kin terms?

METHOD

This research employs a qualitative descriptive approach to data collection (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). Data were obtained from a questionnaire (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007) on medical student preferences related to the use of voiced kin terms to minimize the potential for shaming or disrespecting patients. In addition, the questionnaire examined how the use of voiced kin terms can strengthen the bonds in a doctor-patient relationship. Questions were also designed based on Iragiliati's (2015) research on the kinds of vocative kin terms found in doctor-patient medical discourse and the voiced kin terms preferred by patients (Iragiliati, 2012). The questionnaire inquired as to the students' gender, the ethnicity of their parents, their age, whether they agreed or disagreed with the use of terms of address, and whether they agreed or disagreed that such usage strengthens the bond between medical students and patients. The data were analyzed using Cohen et al.'s (2007) interactive model. On May 5, 2015, the questionnaire was distributed to 80 students, and thirty-seven (37) completed the questionnaires. It was very difficult to carry out research in medical faculties, as they are, by convention, closed to outsiders. The data collected from the questionnaires were then coded (Cohen et al., 2007). Data on medical student gender were coded as follows: 1) M = male medical students and 2) F = female medical students. Data on medical student ethnicity were coded as follows: 1) E1 = students' ethnicity from the

father's side and 2) E2 = students' ethnicity from the mother's side. Finally, data on the age of medical students were coded as follows: 1) A1 = age of students >22 years old, 2) A2 = age of students between 20 and 22 years old, and A3 = age of students <20 years old.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The findings from this research reveal variation in the ethnic backgrounds of male and female medical students' parents. Twenty-four (24) students reported that they had parents of different ethnic backgrounds, while the rest (13 students) reported having parents with similar ethnic backgrounds. Parents' ethnic backgrounds ranged across nearly all the islands of Indonesia. Indeed, this sample could be interpreted as being representative of the nation's ethnic-cultural backgrounds. In addition, the variation in ethnic backgrounds speaks to the power and politics of using polite Indonesian in interactions (Arka, 2013; Fairclough & Fairclough, 2012).

The variety of ethnicities and locations associated with the different medical schools indicate the need for standardized medical education across all of Indonesia. Under the aegis of the Board of Medical Sciences, all medical faculties' curricula are formatted the same. Indeed, the final test for medical doctors is The National Test, which is administered nationwide by the Medical Board. Thus, graduates from faculties in Papua, Jakarta or Malang must undergo the same process to acquire their medical doctor degree.

Ten (10) male medical students agreed that the use of vocative kin terms in doctor-patient communications would strengthen the bond between them and would be a tool for promoting unity. However, three (3) male medical students did not agree with this premise. The ethnicity background of the medical students' parents was distributed as follows: a) one (1) was of Batakn-Batak descent; b) seven (7) were of Javanese-Javanese descent; and c) two (2) were of nonlocal ethnic Chinese-Chinese descent. The ages of the male medical students were between 18 and 24 years. This variation in ethnic background attests to the importance of using vocative kin terms to strengthen the bonds between doctors and patients. Students of Batak-Batak descent could be regarded as representative of the local Sumatran people, the Javanese-Javanese descendants represented Java, and students of Chinese-Chinese descent represented a nonlocal ethnic group that has been in Indonesia for generations. However, there were three male medical students who did not agree with the use of vocative kin terms to address patients. These three were of Javanese-Javanese descent: one student was under 22 years old, and b) two students were between 22 and 24 years old. This view of doctor-patient communication was described as following a patriarchal pattern (Claramita et al., 2013).

Before 2009, most patterns of interaction in Indonesia reportedly followed the patriarchal system, not the partnership pattern. The former was common in Indonesia because doctors, given their

medical expertise, felt that they were of higher status than their patients. They preferred calling patients by their names instead of using vocative kin terms to start a conversation. It can be assumed that those three abovementioned medical students considered themselves superior to their patients, while the other male medical students chose to follow the partnership approach. Based on the history of ethnic backgrounds above, we expected that male medical students who did not want to address patients using polite voiced kin terms were of Chinese or European descent. However, the data indicate that medical students of a Javanese background were those who did not want to use these kin terms and did not consider them important, much less critical for strengthening the doctor-patient bond. These students could have been influenced by new radical movements such as those associated with attitudes towards people from outside their own set of beliefs. However, if this was indeed the case, the Board of Medical Association of Indonesia could take further actions to reduce this sentiment. We must remember that their motto is to politely serve the patients of Indonesia or be punished. Another possible reason is that those students have not yet been in the clinical rounds, where they will deal with real patients.

The following findings are related to female medical students' preferences for using voiced kin terms to begin conversations and to strengthen the doctor-patient bond: thirteen (13) female medical students agreed with this use of voiced kin

terms. The ethnic backgrounds of their parents were the following: a) ten (10) were of Javanese-Javanese descent; b) one (1) was of Balinese-Balinese descent; one (1) was of Batak-Batak descent; and one (1) was of Betawi-Sumatera descent. This group ages ranged in age from 20 22 years.

The variation in parents' ethnic background can be seen as representative of Indonesia's large islands and of the other peoples who have been in Indonesia for generations (e.g., Arabic, Chinese, European). The results show that using vocative kin terms to demonstrate strong interpersonal bonds appeals both to descendants of the islands and to nonlocal ethnic groups. Parents' ethnic backgrounds were represented in the following islands: Balinese-Balinese (Bali), Batak-Batak (North Sumatera), Javanese-Javanese (Java), Javanese-Arabic (Java-Arab), Madurese-Sundanese (Madura & West Java), Minangkabau-Minangkabau (West Sumatera), and Sundanese-Sundanese (West Java).

This research supports Brown and Levinson's (1987) findings related to positive politeness strategy in-group markers and their capacity to minimize threats to patients' honor or self-esteem and to strengthen the bonds between doctors and patients. This is illustrated by the use of global politeness and additional local familial address terms to function as an in-group marker. This study also supports Iragiliati's (2005) research on utterance patterns and politeness strategy in Indonesian medical discourse; Iragiliati's (2012) research that focused on

doctor-patient communication, preferred terms of address, and the relationships between respect and kinship systems; and Iragiliati's (2015) later research that focused on linguistic politeness in doctor-patient interaction in East Java, Bali and Lombok.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The dramatically increasing number of medical doctors (approximately 5 thousand per year), along with the use of Bahasa Indonesia as a means of communication in all state hospitals and educational hospitals in Indonesia, is solid evidence that the active use of Bahasa Indonesia is a tool for unity. A kinship-based politeness system that uses appropriate vocative kin terms supports the spread of polite language and appropriate Bahasa Indonesia usage. The gender, age, and ethnic backgrounds of medical students do not limit their use of Bahasa Indonesia as a tool for strengthening the bonds of interpersonal relationships.

This research highlights the possibility and sociolinguistic features of using vocative kin terms as a tool for strengthening the bonds between doctors and patients when they are communicating with one another. This tool provides a linguistic means for doctors to navigate through different degrees of politeness (depending on the approach chosen and the patient's sociolinguistic background)—from a face-saving strategy to a tool for unity.

The findings of this research have practical implications. Feedback from medical students suggests that they are aware of the importance of politeness to their education in the multilingual Indonesian context. With respect to several scenarios, students have also shown support for the importance (in a multicultural society) of choosing a polite approach in addressing patients and have seen it as central to both socio-cultural and medical (content-related) curricula (Iragiliati, 2015). The shift in the use of vocative kin terms within complex sociolinguistic situations also reveals a space for understanding patient views on health and illness and the dynamics between medical and local values. If stronger speaking skills are taught as a bond-strengthening tool, particularly skills related to using voiced kin terms for approaching patients as family members, we expect that doctors, regardless of heritage, will approach their work with greater confidence. This in turn facilitates patient recovery and reflects their cultural values in a nonpatriarchal system.

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Perception of English Lexical Stress: Some Insights for English Pronunciation Lessons for Iraqi ESL Learners

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ABSTRACT

One basic factor that influences perception of lexical stress is the number of syllables found in the word and the syllable weight as lexical stress is often assigned to heavy syllables. However, what is considered as a heavy syllable is language specific and this causes problems when two different language systems interact as in the case of second language learning. This paper reports the findings of a study that examined the identification of lexical stress by ESL learners to identify specific syllable structure in English that may pose difficulty to Iraqi learners of English. The results showed that Iraqi Arabic subjects performed poorer in trisyllabic words compared to disyllabic words. High error rates were obtained when the words had two superheavy syllables or two or more equally heavy syllable. Words with long vowels and final consonant clusters, considered as superheavy syllables, often attract stress in Iraqi Arabic but the distribution of such syllables is often more restricted in Arabic. However this is not the case in English and this difference in the distribution of heavy and superheavy syllables influences perception of lexical stress among Iraqi ESL learners. The results show that Iraqi Arabic learners' ability to correctly identify lexical stress is influenced by their native language experience, in particular the L1 stress patterns and strong dependence on syllable structure in lexical stress assignment in Iraqi Arabic.

Keywords: Multisyllabic words, perception of lexical stress, syllable structure

INTRODUCTION

Pronunciation is one of the most neglected components in English language teaching. Derwing and Munro (2005) reported in a survey on research focus in applied linguistics that grammatical skills received the most attention and was the largest area of investigation while the study of pronunciation had been ignored for many years. Most English language teachers get students to study grammar and vocabulary and practice using the language in communicative activities. Very few teachers devote much time to teach pronunciation, and when they do the focus is to ensure intelligibility of speech (Harmer, 2001) as Morley (1994) argues "intelligible pronunciation is an essential component of communicative competence". The recognition of intelligibility as an important component in competence development is also shared by other researchers such as Hişmanoğlu (2006), and Zhang and Yin (2009) who argued that listeners and speakers were unable to transform and decode messages efficiently without sufficient information of second language (L2) sound patterns, and this knowledge includes knowledge of lexical stress patterns in the target language.

In the last few decades, there has been greater awareness of the importance of pronunciation among researchers as well as ELT practitioners. Harmer (2001) claimed that a focus on pronunciation not only made students conscious of various sounds and their characteristics, but could help them improve their overall speaking skills and subsequently realize the aim of better comprehension and intelligibility. Yates (2002) further argued that learners who did not have good pronunciation skills were characterized as uneducated, even when listeners were able to comprehend them. Therefore, there is a clear advantage of focusing on pronunciation in the English language classroom. Fraser (2000) also suggested that L2 teachers and learners should rely on the use of modern technology and knowledge about pronunciation development to ensure the efficacy of teaching and learning of pronunciation in the classroom. With these issues on pronunciation development in mind, this paper hopes to shed some light on specific problems faced by Iraqi ESL learners in terms of assignment of lexical stress with the hope that it will provide some specific directions and suggestions on pronunciation lessons for Iraqi English language teaching contexts.

Major (2008) explained that Arab learners of English encounter various difficulties that obstructed their acquisition of English. Barrios, Namyst, Lau, Feldman, and Idsardi (2016) reported that in the perception and production of nonnative phonological contrast, adult second language learners, even among advanced learners who had been exposed to the target language for a long period of time, regularly encountered difficulties. They could not perceive L2 differences that were not found in their first language (L1). The prosodic and rhythmic complication of English language adds to this complexity for second

language learning, particularly with regards to the assignment of stress in English words because the location of stress in English is different from what is expected based on L1 stress assignment rules. Often this leads to incorrect stress assignment in the L2 (Swan & Smith, 2001). However, there are no specific suggestions in the literature on how to address such difficulties. Past studies on speech perception and production involving Iraqi ESL learners such as Al Abdely and Thai (2016) as well as Ammar Al-Abdely and Thai (2016) have focused on the perception and production at the segmental level and on vowel monophthongs in monosyllabic words except for the schwa in disyllabic words. Aziz (1980) reported that Arab learners of English often placed stress on the final syllable that contained a superheavy syllable. However, no study to our knowledge has systematically examined the consequence of conflicting stress assignment rules between Iraqi Arabic and English and the problems they pose on lexical stress perception in English by these learners. There are also no specific recommendations on how to teach lexical stress to ESL learners particularly Iraqi Arabic learners who may have to grapple with interference from their first language, as the lexical stress assignment rules in Iraqi Arabic is predictable, unlike the case in English. To address this gap in the literature, the study reported in this paper aimed to investigate how Iraqi ESL learners identified lexical stress in multisyllabic words. Specifically, the study examined how syllable structure of the words affected

performance in the perception of lexical stress in disyllabic and trisyllabic words in English. Implication for teaching and learning of lexical stress to Iraqi ESL learners can then be drawn from the results of the study to highlight specific problems presented by perception of lexical stress in disyllabic and trisyllabic English words.

Syllable Structure and Syllable Weight

In general, identification of lexical stress is influenced by a number of basic factors such as syllable structure and lexical category, and these factors may exert different influences in different languages (Archibald, 1997; Guion, 2005; Guion, Harada, & Clark, 2004; Zhang, Nissen, & Francis, 2008; Jangjamras, 2011). As a result of similarities and differences across languages, learners from various backgrounds may experience different difficulties in perceiving and assigning lexical stress in the second language (Archibald, 1993, 1997, 2012; Flege & Bohn, 1989).

One of the basic factors, for example, is the syllable structure of the word. Languages differ in terms of the type of syllables that are acceptable in the language and the type of syllables that are considered as heavy. For example, Davenport and Hannahs (2010) reported that languages like English and Cayuvava (spoken in Bolivia) allowed the syllable to consist of only a vowel that formed the nucleus of the syllable. Other languages like Fijian and Senufo spoken in West Africa required the syllable to be minimally CV consisting of the nucleus and one consonant in the onset of the syllable.

While all languages have CV syllables, not all languages have closed syllables, syllables with one or more consonant in coda position. Some languages like Mandarin Chinese allow only nasals in the coda and only one coda consonant in the coda position (Li & Thompson, 1981). English, however, allows consonant clusters in both onset and coda positions (Roach, 2009). Arabic considers syllables with a sequence of consonants in coda position as superheavy syllables and such syllables often attract stress.

Chomsky & Halle (1968) and Hayes (1982) argued that syllable weight played an important role in stress identification. However, languages may also differ in terms of what they consider as heavy syllables. Syllables with a long vowel or a complex vowel, such as diphthongs or triphthongs are often considered heavy. Some languages also consider syllables with a coda consonant as heavy while others like English do not. Generally, a heavy syllable has one of the following syllable structure patterns: CVV or CVVC, and such syllables rather than the light syllable usually attract the primary stress. Long vowels and diphthongs attract the primary stress more than short vowels (Guion, Clark, Harada, & Wayland, 2003; Guion et al., 2004). The occurrence of one or more coda consonants in the syllable does not influence the weight of the syllable in English; but it does in Arabic. In addition to the class of light and heavy syllables, we have the category of superheavy syllables in Arabic which refers to CVVC and CVCC syllables (Watson, 2011).

Stress Assignment in English

Roach (2009) explained that assignment of lexical stress in English depended on a number of factors. First, the morphological structure of the word and the type of suffixes involved influence placement of stress. Some suffixes such as –ee in refugee/refjʊˈdʒi:/ and –eer in volunteer/vɑlənˈtɪə/ carry stress. Other suffixes however, such as –ic causes stress shift in the stem from climate/ˈklaɪmət/ to the syllable just before the suffix in climatic/klaɪˈmætɪk/. There are also suffixes in English that do not affect stress placement such as –al in refuse/rɪˈfju:z/ and refusal/rɪˈfju:zəl/. Second language and foreign language learners of English will have to learn about these suffixes and how they influence lexical stress assignment in English.

The other factor that influences lexical stress assignment is the grammatical category of the word and the notion of strong or weak syllables. Roach (2009) defined a strong syllable as a syllable with a long vowel or diphthong with or without a coda consonant, or a syllable with a short vowel and at least one coda consonant. Weak syllables, on the other hand, are open syllables with either one of these vowels /ə i u/. Roach (2009) reported that there was a general tendency for nouns to have primary stress in the initial syllable, while verbs and adjectives had stress in the final syllable, if the final syllable was strong. However, there are exceptions to this generalization. For example, adjectives like honest/ˈɑnɪst/ have strong final syllables but the primary stress

is assigned to the initial syllable. The above generalization works for most simple two-syllable words, but the description of stress assignment in larger words and complex words is more complicated.

Every English word has a fixed place for stress at the lexical level. For example, the English word 'Canada', which has the syllable structure /CVCVCV/, has primary stress on the first syllable, while another word such as 'banana' which has the same syllable structure has primary stress assigned on the second syllable. There is no justification for this difference and syllable structure is not a guide to stress assignment (Duanmu, 2009). If the wrong syllable is stressed in English, speech intelligibility could be affected as listeners may have problem retrieving the intended word in the conversation. For that reason, stress is an important quality of word identity in English, in addition to its semantic meanings and parts of speech (Bian, 2013; Roach, 2009; Trevian, 2007). Stress assignment in English, however is not completely non-predictable as discussed earlier. Nevertheless, when compared to Arabic, stress assignment in English is more arbitrary. Therefore, second language learners of English will need to learn the stress location of words. As discussed in the next section, stress assignment rules in Arabic depend a lot on syllable weight which is defined according to the syllable structure acceptable in the specific variety of Arabic spoken.

Syllable Structure and Lexical Stress in Arabic

The structure of the syllable in Arabic depends on the phonemic system of Arabic and its unique lexical and inflectional system. Most roots in Arabic words are triconsonantal, for example /f-ʔ-l/ (Ghalib, 1984). These roots have no lexical meaning without being merged with 'infixes' which consist of one or more vowels. For example, the vowels /-a-a-/ merged with the root /f-ʔ-l/ form the 'stem' /faˈʔal/ 'he did' and the main linguistic constituent that carries the lexical information in Arabic is the stem. Hence, the grammatical and semantic changes depend on the vowel distribution and the addition of certain prefixes and suffixes within the stem. For example, /faˈʔal/ refers to 'he did', but /faaˈʔil/ is a noun 'a doer', while /fiˈʔil/ refers to 'an action', and with /faˈʔaltu/ we have the sentence 'I did'.

We will begin our discussion of syllable structure in Classical Arabic before turning to Iraqi Arabic as this is the variety used in formal recitations of the Holy Quran. All educated Arab learners will be familiar with this variety and it may be important to determine if there are differences in the syllable structure and stress assignment in Classical Arabic and Iraqi Arabic. Syllables in Classical Arabic do not begin with a vowel; the vowel may be preceded by only one consonant but it may be followed by one or two consonants, identical or non-identical. The vowel is considered as the main component that determines the number of syllables in Classical Arabic. The type

of syllable found in Classical Arabic can be summarized in the following template: CV(V)(C)(C). The parenthesis indicates the optionality of the segment. The syllables in Classical Arabic can therefore consist of either a short or long vowel and there can be at most only two consonants in the coda position. Therefore, Classical Arabic has only CV, CVV, CVC, CVCC, CVVC, and CVVCC structures (Abushihab, 2010; Chentir, Guerti, & Hirst, 2009). See Table 1 for examples of words with these syllable types.

Iraqi Arabic, on the other hand, allows more types of syllables as shown in Table 2. It is important to note that all types of syllables possible in Classical Arabic are also acceptable in Iraqi Arabic. The additional syllable types found in Iraqi Arabic are examples listed in (7-10) in Table 2. These are syllables with a complex onset. Iraqi Arabic allows at most two consonants in the onset and two in the coda for a syllable. It is important to note that variations in syllable structure across Arabic dialects result in assignment of lexical stress on different syllables as reported in Kaye

(1997) and Watson (2002). In varieties where the onset consonant cluster is not acceptable, vowel epenthesis occurs to break up the consonant cluster. This results in a monosyllabic word in one variety and a disyllabic word in another variety. For example, the word /ktaab/ is pronounced as a disyllabic word in Classical Arabic [kiˈtaab] but as a monosyllabic word in Iraqi Arabic [ˈktaab].

On the stress patterns in Arabic varieties, such as Egyptian Arabic, Syrian Arabic, Palestinian Arabie and Iraqi Arabic, Birkeland (1954) argued that the same stress placement rules could be applied to the classical varieties as well as all varieties of Arabic. Birkeland (1954) reported that primary stress in Classical Arabic was frequently associated with pitch variation when the word was said in isolation. However, secondary stress is not typically associated with a distinction of pitch. Since this study focuses only on primary stress, we will not discuss secondary stress assignment. The following rules were proposed for assignment of primary stress in Classical Arabic and other varieties of

Table 1
Syllable structures in classical Arabic

No.	Type	Syllable Structure	Examples
1	Simple	CV	as in /bi/ 'at'
2		CVV	as in /fii/ 'in'
3		CVC	as in /min/ 'from'
4		CVVC	as in /baab/ 'door'
5	Complex	CVCC	as in /dars/ 'lesson'
6		CVVCC	as in /maarr/ 'passer-by'

Source: (Al-Ani & May, 1973; Hassan, 1981)

Table 2
Syllable structures in Iraqi Arabic

No.	Type	Structure	Examples
1	Simple	CV	as in /la/ 'not'
2		CVV	as in /loo/ 'if'
3		CVC	as in /bas/ 'enough'
4		CVVC	as in /baab/ 'door'
5	Complex	CVCC	as in /fard/ 'individual'
6		CVVCC	as in /maarr/ 'passerby'
7		CCVV	as in /ʃfaa/ 'cure'
8		CCVC	as in /ʃfaah / 'cured him'
9		CCVVC	as in /ktaab/ 'book'
10		CCVCC	as in /ʃbint/ 'dill weed'

Source: (Hassan, 1981; Ghalib, 1984)

Arabic (Birkeland, 1954; Mitchell, 1975; Ghalib, 1977). Stress assignment in Iraqi Arabic is described in Erwin (1963, 1969) and the rules proposed in (1-4) apply for Classical Arabic and other varieties of Arabic as well as Iraqi Arabic. In addition, Fantazi (2003) and Mousa (1994) provided rules (5-7) for Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) which also held true for Iraqi Arabic.

1. All monosyllablic words are assigned primary stress. For example /ˈhuut/ 'whale' and /ˈxawf/ 'fear'.

2. Words with ultimate or final long syllables are assigned primary stress on the final syllable. For example, /sikˈkiir/ 'drunkard', /sidʒˈdʒaad/ 'carpets' and /masˈruur/ 'delighted'.

3. Initial syllables are assigned primary stress in words with penultimate (one before the last) syllables. For example /ˈsaahir/ 'wizard', /

ˈmuuhiʃ/, 'deserted', /ˈwadʒhak/ 'your face' and /ˈkallam/ 'he talked to'.

4. Initial syllables are assigned primary stress in words with the final two syllables following the structures of either CV + CVC or CV + CVV, as in /ˈsaaʔadak/ 'he helped you' and /ˈqaddamak/ 'he introduced you'.

5. If the word comprises two or more CV syllables, the first syllable of the word receives the primary stress, as in /ˈkataba/ 'he wrote', and /ˈdarasa/ 'he studied'.

6. In polysyllabic words with an initial CVC syllable, the second syllable receives the stress as in /musˈtashfa/ 'hospital'.

7. The first syllable is stressed in a word that comprises of CVC followed by light syllables, as in /ˈmuntada/ 'ruler'.

METHODS

The study reported in this paper is part of a larger study which included both perception and production of lexical stress among Iraqi Arabic ESL and Chinese Malaysian ESL learners. However, this paper will focus only on the results pertaining to perception of real English words among Iraqi Arabic ESL learners. Please see Al Thalab (2018) on the comparison of performance between Iraqi Arabic ESL and Chinese Malaysian ESL learners and results of the perception task for both real and nonce words.

Participants

The study involved 87 participants (80 male and 7 female) who speak Iraqi Arabic as their first language and are second language learners of English. There were only 5 undergraduate students while the rest were all postgraduate students enrolled in three Malaysian universities. The age of the participants ranged from 21 to 50 years of age (M=34.13) as summarized in Table 3. All the participants began learning English as their second language after 10 years of age. They had normal hearing, speech, and language ability according to their self-report. All the participants were given an honorarium of RM 10 for taking part in the study. They were interviewed about their background in learning English following a demographic survey questionnaire provided in Al Thalab (2018).

Stress Identification Task

Participants in the study completed a stress identification task. The stimulus in the task consists of disyllabic and trisyllabic English words that represent twenty-two different Iraqi Arabic syllable structure patterns. The location of stress in the words was chosen to either match or mismatch the expected stress pattern in Iraqi Arabic words. Forty four words were chosen for the task. They were all nouns (see Appendix A). There were two tokens for each syllable structure: one word to match the stress pattern in Iraqi Arabic and one that did not match the stress pattern in Iraqi Arabic. The words were also selected after a familiarity test and a pilot study was conducted. The words were recorded by one male native English speaker who was an academic staff in the English Language department in a public university in Malaysia. He speaks the British variety of English perceived to be close to Received Pronunciation.

The stress identification task was constructed using PsychoPy, an open source software programme developed by Peirce (2007). The task began with

Table 3
Demographic information of participants in the perception task

Language Groups	Number	Age		Years of English Instruction
Iraqi Arabic	87	Range	21-50	9-11
		Mean	34.13	10.74

instruction given on the main page. When the participants were ready, they press the space bar to begin the task. Each trial began with an aural presentation of either a disyllabic or trisyllabic word. The stimulus items were presented in a random order for each participant. At the same time, a series of numbers were presented on the computer screen to indicate the number of syllable of the word presented: 1 and 2 for disyllabic words and 1, 2, and 3 for trisyllabic words. Participants were required to indicate the syllable with the primary stress by pressing the corresponding key on the computer keyboard. Once the response is registered by the computer, the next trial was presented. The subjects were told to use their dominant hand to press the computer keys. The subjects were also requested to respond as quickly as they could. The perception task took approximately 15 minutes. Each token was presented only once. If the subjects could not identify the stress location, they were told to guess by pressing any key. Stress perception performance was analysed using the error rates calculated from the responses captured for each participant.

Research Procedure

All the participants were tested individually in a sound proof room. Prior to the actual task, the participants completed a training session which required them to identify the location of lexical stress in 6 words presented one at a time. They listened to the pre-recorded words using a Logitech headset at a self-adjusted comfortable listening level and they were individually tested in a quiet room at their respective universities. Each word had a different stress position and no feedback was provided on the correctness of the answer. These words were not used in the actual test phase. The purpose of the training session was to familiarize the participants with the task and for them to set the volume level on the computer. They were also encouraged to ask questions to get clarification about the task during the training phase. In the test phase, each participant was given a unique ID. They listened to a total of 106 words which comprised of 88 target aural stimuli (44 real words and 44 nonce words) and 18 fillers. We will only focus on the results of the real words in this paper. The ratio of the correctly identified stimuli for each word was calculated for each subject to identify the rank order of each syllabic structure. Conclusions are then drawn on the stress pattern associated with the respective syllable structure.

RESULTS

Disyllabic Words

The results of the perception test presented in Table 4 showed that the Iraqi Arabic subjects performed worst in the perception of lexical stress with two superheavy syllables such as CVVC.CVVC with an error percentage of 52.87%. Better performance was found for words with the following syllable structure: CV.CV and CV.CVVC, with error percentages of 25.86% and 25.28% respectively. Incidentally, these English words have the same stress pattern that is found in Iraqi Arabic.

Table 4
Error rates of disyllabic words

No.	Syllable Structures	Error (Count)	Error (Percentage, %)
1	CVVC.CVVC	92	52.87
2	CVC.CVVC	85	48.85
3	CVC.CVC	77	44.25
4	CV.CVC	76	43.67
5	CVV.CVC	73	41.95
6	CVV.CV	64	36.78
7	CV.CVCC	63	36.20
8	CVV.CVVC	59	33.90
9	CVC.CV	53	30.45
10	CV.CV	45	25.86
11	CV.CVVC	44	25.28

The results showed that the error rates of the Iraqi subjects follow from the predictions about the basic rule of syllabic structure that the heavy syllable are more likely to be stressed. Words that end with CVC syllables such as CVC.CVC, CV.CVC and CVV.CVC have higher error rates (44.25%, 43.67% and 41.95% respectively) compared to words that end with open syllables such as CVV.CV and CV.CV (36.78% and 25.86% respectively). The results also show that long vowels are more likely to be stressed; the most difficult words are those with two heavy syllables within the same word.

Syllables with more than one consonant in the coda are more likely to be stressed in Arabic than those with only one coda consonant or open syllables. The results show that Iraqi Arabic ESL learners would apply the Arabic stress assignment rule for English words with such syllables. Therefore, the accuracy score of words with the structure CV.CVCC was high (63.79%) as the expected stress in the English word

matched the Iraqi stress assignment rule as in the case for the word machine /məˈʃiːn/. In contrast, when the English words had two superheavy syllables such as CVVC. CVVC as in nineteen or two equally heavy syllable such as CVC.CVC as in rocket and palace, and CVV.CVC as in nursing and raising, higher error rates were recorded.

Trisyllabic Words

The results showed that the Iraqi Arabic participants performed worse in the perception of lexical stress in trisyllabic words compared to disyllabic words. The highest error rates were obtained for words with the syllable structure CVV.CVC. CVVC and CV.CV.CVVC with error rates of 76.43% and 72.41% respectively, while the error rate for the syllable structure CVC. CV.CVC was 67.81% and for CV.CVC. CVVC was 65.51%. Words with only open syllables such as CV.CV.CV also had high error rates (63.79%). Performance was

only relatively better for words with the following structure: CVV.CV.CV, CV.CVV.CVC, CV.CVC.CV and CV.CV.CVC with

error rates below 50% at 47.12%, 47.70%, 50.57% and 58.62% respectively (see Table 5).

Table 5
Error rates of trisyllabic words

No.	Syllable Structures	Error (Count)	Error (Percentage, %)
1	CVV.CVC.CVVC	133	76.43
2	CV.CV.CVVC	126	72.41
3	CVC.CV.CVC	118	67.81
4	CV.CVC.CVVC	114	65.51
5	CV.CV.CV	111	63.79
6	CVV.CV.CVC	109	62.64
7	CVC.CV.CV	108	62.06
8	CV.CV.CVC	102	58.62
9	CV.CVC.CV	88	50.57
10	CV.CVV.CVC	83	47.70
11	CVV.CV.CV	82	47.12

DISCUSSION

The main purpose of this paper was to determine the type of syllable patterns in English that may be problematic to Iraqi ESL learners in terms of lexical stress perception. The results show that perception of lexical stress in trisyllabic words was more difficult than disyllabic words, with an average of error rate of 61% for trisyllabic words and 38% for disyllabic words.

The results show that words that pose most difficulty for Iraqi ESL learners are words with two superheavy syllables or two or more equally heavy syllable in a word. The occurrence of superheavy syllables in non final word context is rare in Arabic, and when they do exist they often attract stress. In learning lexical stress in English, Iraqi Arabic learners will have to learn that superheavy syllables such as CV(V)CC are not restricted to word final position and these superheavy syllables need not attract stress in English as shown in words like pesticide/ˈpestɪsaɪd/ and valentine/ˈvæləntaɪn / where the superheavy syllable in the word final position is not assigned primary stress in English. Instead primary stress is assigned to the initial syllable which is an open or light syllable in the case of Valentine. In Iraqi Arabic, light syllables do not attract stress in the company of a superheavy syllable. In Iraqi Arabic, syllables with long vowels usually attract stress particularly in the company of syllables with short vowels. However this is not the case in English as shown in examples like vanguard/ˈvængɑːd/ and caffeine/ˈkæfiːn/ where stress is assigned to the light syllable instead of the superheavy syllable.

The results in this study also support findings in previous studies about the influence of L1 stress assignment rules (e.g. Archibald, 1997; Guion et al. 2003; Ghaith, 1993; Watson, 2002; Xiaohan, 2008). When the lexical stress patterns matches what is expected in their L1, the performance of the subjects are better. The performance is more chance-like or poorer when the syllable shape of the word is different from what is available in their first language, and when no clear decisions can be made as in the case of multiple superheavy syllables in a word.

The study also showed that L1 interference was not the only factor influencing identification of L2 lexical stress. For example, the results show that the participants incorrectly identified the location of stress for words with the syllabic structure CVC.CVC and CV.CVC even when the stress assigned for these words matched what is available in Iraqi Arabic. In Al Thalab (2018), results on the proficiency level in English and performance of Chinese Malaysian participants in the same task were presented to argue for exposure to the language as another predictor for better performance. Chinese Malaysian participants who did not have exposure to stress rules in Chinese and Iraqi Arabic performed rather similarly to Iraqi participants.

The results in the study also support previous studies that differences in stress patterns and syllable structure of the L1 and the L2 may make L2 stress assignment difficult to predict. Ou (2006) found that L1 syllabic structure did not always predict L2 stress preference. Chinese and Vietnamese ESL learners were found to display preference in allocating stress on a syllable closed by a sonorant rather than a syllable closed by an obstruent. Since the latter syllable type does not exist in Chinese, words with such syllable structures were assumed to exert an unclear preference pattern. However, Chinese speakers presented a preference for stress on syllables with sonorant codas. Ou (2007) argued that this finding supports the phonological universal hypothesis that sonorous codas tended to contribute more to syllable weight linguistically. Guion (2005) also pointed out that L2 learners of English committed more mistakes when learning stress patterns based on the syllabic structure than patterns which were linked with the lexical class.

CONCLUSION

The present study confirmed the influence of L1 stress patterns on the performance of Iraqi Arabic L2 learners as they seem to be focusing on heavy syllables in their identification of lexical stress in both trisyllabic and disyllabic words. As a result, they face difficulty in correctly perceiving lexical stress locations in English words. Therefore, Iraqi English teachers should create awareness among Iraqi ESL learners about the difference in stress assignment in Iraqi Arabic and English and get the students to be cautious of the tendency to apply Arabic stress rule to English words. The results of the current study have identified some syllable patterns in English that may

pose difficulty for Iraqi ESL learners. For example, sequences of superheavy syllables and assignment of stress to light syllables in the company of superheavy syllables are some word structure that can be the focus of pronunciation lessons for Iraqi ESL learners. Pronunciation lessons that pick out words with primary stress that have match and mismatch patterns in the L1 may prove to be beneficial to Iraqi ESL learners as well.

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APPENDIX

Real words used as stimuli in the perception experiment

No.	Stimulus words	Transcription	No.	Stimulus words	Transcription
1	Valley	/ˈvæli /	23	Vaseline	/ˈvæsəli:n/
2	Merchandise	/ˈmɜːtʃəndaɪs /	24	Recording	/ rɪˈkɔːdɪŋ/
3	Money	/ˈmʌni/	25	Palace	/ˈpæləs/
4	Pacific	/ pəˈsɪfɪk/	26	Defender	/dɪˈfendə(r)/
5	Rocket	/ˈrɒkɪt/	27	Nursing	/ˈnɜːsɪŋ/
6	Valance	/ˈvæləns/	28	Pesticide	/ˈpestɪsaɪd/
7	Defect	/ dɪˈfekt/	29	Racing	/ˈreɪsɪŋ/
8	Keyboard	/ˈkiːbɔːd/	30	Valentine	/ˈvæləntaɪn/
9	Leadership	/ˈliːdəʃɪp/	31	Vanilla	/vəˈnɪlə/
10	Vanguard	/ˈvænɡɑːd/	32	Dignity	/ˈdɪɡnəti/
11	Sardine	/sɑːˈdiːn/	33	Benefit	/ˈbenɪfɪt/
12	Magnetic	/mæɡˈnetɪk/	34	Pharmacy	/ˈfɑːməsi/
13	Nitrate	/ˈnaɪtreɪt/	35	Delighted	/dɪˈlaɪtɪd/
14	Scenery	/ˈsiːnəri/	36	Byzantine	/baɪˈzæntaɪn/
15	Data	/ˈdeɪtə/	37	Campaign	/kæmˈpeɪn/
16	Lemonade	/ləməˈneɪd/	38	Fortunate	/ˈfɔːtʃənət/
17	Candy	/ˈkændi/	39	Melting	/ˈmeltɪŋ/
18	Nineteen	/ˌnaɪnˈtiːn /	40	Machine	/məˈʃiːn/
19	Thunder	/ˈθʌndə(r)/	41	Captain	/ˈkæptɪn/
20	Peroxide	/pəˈrɒksaɪd/	42	Melody	/ˈmelədi/
21	Galaxy	/ˈɡæləksi/	43	Journey	/ˈdʒɜːni/
22	Signature	/ˈsɪɡnətʃə(r)/	44	Caffeine	/ˈkæfiːn/

Short Communication

Kita's usage in spoken discourse: Collectivity to Singularity

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ABSTRACT

This short communication explains that *kita* 'we' has an alternative usage as a singular personal pronoun, presented as *kita* 'I'. The usage of *kita* is classified into six classes, based on its substitutability with *saya* and the context in which *kita* occurs. The purpose of this paper is to prove that there are three contexts that render *kita* a singular pronoun: (i) the speaker refers to people in general to share her point of view; (ii) the speaker wants to share information with a group of people whom she knows; (iii) the speaker exercises negative politeness.

Keywords: Collectivity, *kita* 'we, I', Malay language, personal pronoun, singularity

INTRODUCTION

In standard Malay grammar, the first person plural pronoun *kita* 'we' is categorized as an inclusive marker. It stands in contrast to *kami* 'we', an exclusive marker, which includes the speaker but typically excludes the hearer. When a student speaks to her classmates, saying *Kita ada ujian besok*, 'We have a test tomorrow' (Mintz, 1994), she includes herself and her classmates. This type of inclusion takes the form of collectivity: her utterance is shared by 'others', in this case, her classmates. This short communication will demonstrate a new aspect of *kita*'s usage, which occurs frequently in spoken discourse, namely that although *kita* 'we' is a plural marker, it represents a speaker as a single person in certain speech situations. The reason the speaker employs *kita* 'we', and not *saya* 'I', is that the use of the plural form enables her to add an extra meaning: first, she can refer people in general to share her point of view (Class IV); second, she can share information with a group of people whom

she knows (Class V); and third, she can exercise what Brown and Levinson (1987) called 'negative politeness' (Class VI). Underlying these three uses is the speaker's desire to encode her expressivity by using a form that is otherwise contradictory. To prove the speaker's collective and singular references, I have underscored *kita*'s substitutability with *saya* 'I' as a clue to the speaker's multiple roles. This substitutability has allowed the isolation of six classes. When *kita* is substitutable, *kita* and *saya* are synonymous, but they never have the same meaning in the collated data.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A number of scholars in the West have pointed out the referential flexibility of first person plural pronouns across languages. The most recent studies in this direction include two edited volumes by Pavlidou (2014), and Gardelle and Sorlin (2015), and the special issue of *Pragmatics* edited by de Cock and Kluge (2016). When it comes to studies in the region, few scholars have mentioned *kita*'s singular usage, such as Ewing (2005; see also Djenar, 2015) for Indonesian and Othman (2006) for Malay. None of these scholars has offered an analysis of *kita*'s singular usage, however. Pavlidou (2014) formulated that '"we" is not just "the sum of more than one speakers [*sic*]"'. This conception of 'we' lends support to what Harré (2014) referred to as 'double indexicality', which means that a single speaker can play a double role,

and what he calls 'diffuse responsibility', which hints at an invariant link between collectivity and singularity embodied in the usage of 'we'. Pavlidou (2014), thus, concluded that 'we' 'shares or diffuses agency from the individual speaker to a collective subject and eventually diminishes the speaker's own responsibility'. Although the word 'diminish' will not be used in the analysis below, the speaker in Class VI, the last phase of the continuum, certainly 'diminishes' her role in the sense that she detaches herself from the immediate speech event.

METHOD

Examples were collected from talk shows broadcast in Malaysia in 2006, 2012, 2013, 2014, and 2015, and available on YouTube at the time of compilation (January 2015–February 2016). The duration of the corpus is 3 hours 41 minutes, and it contains 21,146 words in total. The token *kita* is used 641 times, and of these utterances 74.7% bear a collective meaning while 25.3% bear a singular meaning. The entire data set was transcribed, glossed, and translated into English, and the personal pronouns *kita* 'we' and *saya* 'I' were numbered consecutively with annotation of the time (minutes and seconds; e.g., 07.30) at which they were uttered in their respective talk show. Table 1 presents the distribution of *kita* in terms of category, substitutability with *saya*, 'I', the collectivity–subjectivity scale, referential roles, occurrence, and percentage.

Table 1
Distribution of kita

Category	Substitutability	Collectivity to singularity	Referential roles	Occurrence		Percentage		
I	−	C	More than one speaker	83	86	13	13.4	
II	−	C	Speaker and addressee	3		0.005		74.7
III	−	C	Speaker and people in general	393	393	61.3	61.3	
IV	+	S	Speaker and people in general	77		12		
V	+	S	Speaker and other participants	51	162	8	25.3	
VI	+	S	Speaker alone	34		5.3		
			Total: 641			100%		

SIX CLASSES

This section proposes six classes of *kita*'s usage, each of which is accompanied by a representative example taken from the aforementioned corpus. These six classes form a continuum, that is, the shift from collectivity to singularity occurs in a step-by-step manner. An important shift is found in Class III, where the speaker begins to include people she does not know but imagines at the time of speech. Examples of *kita* in classes I–III are not substitutable with *saya* 'I', whereas examples in classes IV–VI are.

Class I

Kita 'we' refers to the host and the two guests (SS and AR). This usage may resemble that of Class III but collectivity here is formed through including people who are visible to the speaker: the host's utterance is shared by all the participants in the talk show.

Host:

(3) ***Kita*** (02.01)   *kawan*   *tiga*
     we   friend   three

orang.   *Bagitau*   *saya*   *cepat.*
people   tell   I   quickly

'The three of us are friends. Tell me [what you're doing] quickly'.

(TS16/23/7/2013: MeleTop – An Interview with SS & AR)

Class II

Kita 'we' refers to both the host and the guest, who are the only participants in the talk show. Despite the fact that *kita* is not substitutable with *saya*, the exact usage of *kita* here is not the same as in Class I: here, *kita* expresses a request to do a catwalk with the guest, whereas Class I is a statement that includes the guests. As shown in Table 1 above, this class is the least frequent.

Host:

(18) ***Kita*** (07.30)   *nak*   catwalk
    we   want

    lagi   *sikit.* One more time!
one.more.time   a.bit

'We want a bit [more] catwalk, one more time. One more time!'

(TS6/15/7/2006: AC Mizal with Siti N. Part 4)

Class III and Class IV

Kita 'we, I' in this utterance is used for two functions falling under Class III and Class IV, respectively. The guest (a female politician belonging to the conservative party in Malaysia) uses *kita* in two distinct ways. The first *kita* at 23.11, annotated as (44), refers to people in general whom she had not met yet. The second and third *kita* at 23.29 and 23.30, annotated respectively as (45) and (46), refer to herself in the past back in her home town when she, like today's young people, expressed (strong) opinions about the government. She is presenting her personal history, which distanced her from the 'silent majority' who only wanted stability. By using *kita* 'I', she is able to reveal that the point of view expressed is her own but she also wants it to be shared by people in general. Although both types of *kita* pertain to 'people in general', their different interpretations discussed earlier can be put down to the substitutability criteria: the first instance (Class III) does not allow *saya* 'I', whereas the last two instances (Class IV) do (see Table 1).

Guest:

…, (44) ***kita*** (23.11) *tidak* *boleh*
        we   not   can

cartkan   *semua*   *generasi*
  state   all   generation

muda *tidak* *ah* *apa* *tidak*
young   not   ah   what   not

sokong   *Barisan.* …
 support   line

… *ya* *lah* *masa* (45) ***kita*** (23.29)
  yes particle time   I

muda *pun* (46) ***kita*** (23.30) *beri*
young   also   I   give

pendapat *tapi* silent *majority,*
 opinion   but   silent   majority

mereka *nak* *kestabilan* *negara*,
 they   want   stability   country

'… (44) **we** (23.11) can't conclusively state [that] all the young generation does not support the National Front. …
yes, when (45) **I** (23.29) was younger, (46) **I** (23.30) used to give my opinions [about the ruling party], too, but the silent majority [=other people] wanted the stability of the country, …'

(TS2/11/5/2012: Woman Today: Great Women in Politics)

Class V

Kita 'I' refers to the host himself. Because it is the host who reads the Twitter message, he is logically a single reader, alone. So why doesn't he use *saya* 'I'? The reason might be

that he is eager to share the information with the other guests, and TV viewers (there is no audience at the filming of this talk show). The difference here from Class IV is that the people with whom the speaker wants to share the information are real: they are the talk show's participants. This last point manifests the speaker's strong responsibility for the conveyance of his message, and, at the same time, indicated that collectivity no longer includes people in general; its focus is solely on specific people.

Host:

(23) ***Kita*** (11.28) *ada*   Twitter   *nak*
    I   have   want

baca.   *Yang*   *ni*   *daripada*
  read   which   this   from

     FA.   *Dia*   *cakap*   *SS*
personal.name   he   say   personal.name

nampak   *kurus*   *malam*   *ni.*
  look   slim   night   this

Omey   *angat!*
  cute   very

'I'm going to read a Twitter message from FA. He said that "SS looks slim tonight. Very cute!"'

(TS16/23/7/2013: MeleTop – An Interview with SS & AR)

Class VI

Kita, in this last example, designates the speaker only and no collectivity, as defined earlier, is involved. The guest uses *kita* in place of *saya* because he is trying to avoid discussing a private issue in a public space.

The guest's utterance is an answer to a question the host has asked. It would be logical to use *saya* 'I', since the question is directed at him alone. The guest might have thought that reference to his good deeds would sound self-elevating. This humble behavior might be conceived of as 'negative politeness' according to Brown and Levinson's (1987) framework: through his modest way of answering with *kita*, the guest can reduce the risk of negative face, that is, he can protect the privacy of his personal life.

Host:

Buat   *apa*   *di*   *bulan*   *puasa*   *ni?*
  do   what   in   month   fasting   this

'What do [you] do in this fasting month?'

Guest:

Okay *di*   *bulan*   *puasa*   *ni*   (4)
       in   month   fasting   this

kita (2.10)   *beramal*   *lah*
  I   practice.good.deed   particle

   alhamdulillah.
all.praises.belong.to.God.

'Okay, in this fasting month, I hope to do good deeds, praise be to God'.

(TS16/23/7/2013: MeleTop – An Interview with SS & AR)

CONCLUSION

This study shares the viewpoint that the semantics of 'we' involves both collectivity and singularity, forming a continuum, and that its communicative meaning

is determined by the role(s) played by the speaker in a given situation. The aforementioned investigation of *kita*'s usage in six classifications indicates that the use of *kita* 'I' as a singular pronoun is an indispensable alternative to *kita* 'we' and *saya* 'I', and therefore this tripartite pronominal design makes spoken Malay communication more effective and significant. In other words, the six classes have disclosed and systematized underspecified communicative meanings that are emerging in Malay spoken discourse. It is hoped that this study provides further understanding of how the shift from collective subject to individual speaker occurs in the context of Malay spoken discourse. The discovery of six classes of *kita*'s usage is a signpost to future study of the Malay pronominal system, an area that has not been discussed from the perspective highlighted in this paper.

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Case Study

Tourism Students' Oral Presentation Anxiety: A Case Study

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ABSTRACT

In this study, the researchers used a mixed method employing both quantitative and qualitative approaches to investigate the level of Tourism students' oral presentation anxiety and to determine their feelings when doing oral presentations. The participants in this study were 45 Thai EFL Tourism students from the Faculty of Business Administration who enrolled in the course, *English for Tour Guides I*. McCrosky's (1970) PRSA quantitative surveys were used to determine the level of Tourism students' oral communication anxiety. The qualitative focus group interview was conducted to better understand their feelings when doing oral presentations. The quantitative data obtained were analyzed using SPSS 20.0 and presented in the form of descriptive statistics with percentages. The qualitative focus group interview was analyzed using content analysis to better understand their feelings while delivering oral presentations as a tour guide and to determine ways to reduce their anxiety. The results from the PRSA showed that Thai EFL students experience moderately high levels of anxiety in delivering oral presentations. The results from PRCA also revealed that the majority of Thai EFL students have high Oral Communication Apprehension (OCA) levels in all communication contexts. The results from the focus group interview revealed that most Thai EFL students have a high level of anxiety in their oral presentations. These students were very excited that caused them to forget the content. They were afraid of delivering oral presentations because of inadequate preparation for the speaking task.

Keywords: Anxiety, English for tour guides, oral presentation anxiety, tourism students

INTRODUCTION

It has been confirmed by many researchers that it is extremely hard for Thai learners of English to master fluent speaking when performing oral presentations (Al-Mahrooqi & Tuzlukova, 2011; Babaei & Ahour, 2016; Dannels, 2003; King, 2002; Woodrow & Chapman, 2002; Woodrow, 2006). In Thailand, the English for Tour Guides course is offered to EFL undergraduate students as an English for specific purposes course in many universities. However, most students avoid enrolling in this course because they are intimidated to perform oral presentations as a tour guide in class. As a result, when students graduate from universities without good oral skills, they may encounter problems when doing presentations in their workplaces.

Thai EFL students at the university level are required not only to be adept in technical skills, but also to possess effective communication skills for their future careers as tour guides. Tour guides can support tourism development leading to sustainability by actively carrying out their functions of experience management, resource management and local economic promotion to assist tourists in obtaining enjoyable and rewarding experiences, to facilitate environmental conservation at certain destinations and to stimulate demand for and production of local products and services. In other words, qualified tour guides are key personnel in the tourism industry and can contribute economically to the tourism sector. Unfortunately, Thai EFL students are unable to deliver fluent oral presentations as tour guides because of their limited English proficiency and anxiety. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) defined anxiety as the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system. It is believed that anxiety prevents students from giving successful oral presentations. Although many researchers have attempted to develop speaking competence, this problem has not been solved yet. Thai EFL students often face problems in the use of ESP linguistic forms and appropriate features when delivering oral presentations due to inadequate language teaching approaches in the past, especially in oral presentation skills. This affects quality service because tourism graduates are not up to the standard required by employers. Some scholars such as Chaisawat (2006), Charoensukmongkol (2016), Noom-Ura, (2013), Plangkham and Porkaew (2012), and Yaikhong and Usaha (2012) have explored and demonstrated how oral presentations can be enhanced by using effective strategies to cope with Thai EFL students' oral presentation anxiety. However, there is no effective way to improve Thai EFL students' ability in this respect. Therefore, it is essential to explore the use of effective strategies to reduce students' oral presentation anxiety. Unfortunately, the awareness of this cognition has not been embodied in effective strategies for instruction at the university level.

Moreover, there has been scarce research on oral presentation anxiety resulting in a lack of insight into the difficulties that Thai

EFL students face in oral presentation tasks. There is a crucial need to better understand the explicit difficulties students experience when delivering oral presentations. The limited research on oral presentation difficulties mainly concentrated on the reduction of oral presentation anxiety.

Therefore, there is a dire need to investigate the level of students' oral presentation anxiety and to determine their difficulties to find a solution to reduce their anxiety (Al-Issa & Al-Qubtan, 2010; Morita, 2000).

Literature review

The Importance of Oral Communication in English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Chan (2011) asserted that it was vital to teach oral communication in a specific field in order to encourage students to master such skills. Students at the university level are not only expected to acquire relevant technical aspects, but are also required to master the delivery of knowledge in their specific area. The study of speaking skills plays a crucial role in improving the communication skills of students and in reducing communication problems such as nervousness and anxiety (Dannels, 2003). Oral communication skills are recognized as important and have been investigated in various fields of study, such as tourism and educational areas. This is because oral communication skills in English are regarded as important in most professional areas. Typically, oral presentations play an important role in various ESP courses.

Communication ability, especially oral communication skill, is considered as the core of ESP courses. Employers in the travel industry in Thailand, for example, regard oral communication skills as vital for tour guides. English for Tour Guides 1 is an ESP course in Thailand. The oral components of the English for Tour Guides course include making a welcome speech, explaining rules and etiquette to tourists, answering and giving details about tourist attractions, and giving details about itineraries.

Classification of Anxiety

In the 1950s, many researchers conducted experimental and empirical research studies on anxiety. For example, Spielberger and Sydeman (1994) conducted research on anxiety; however, there is little research on human anxiety because of the lack of basic instruments for the measurement of anxiety as well as ethical considerations associated with inducing anxiety in laboratory settings. Various definitions of anxiety have been proposed by researchers. Spielberger (1966) defined anxiety as "a complex reaction or response, a transitory state or condition of the organism that varies in intensity and fluctuates over time". Spielberger (1972) considered anxiety as the most common stress response. In the same vein, Derakshan and Eysenck (2009) viewed anxiety as "an aversive motivational state that occurs in situations in which the level of perceived threat to the individual is high". In general terms, anxiety results in negative affective responses such as indecision and uneasiness

in circumstances that are recognized as threatening or hazardous. However, the feeling of fear or anxiety changes over time based on the circumstances.

The current literature on anxiety is divided into three main types: state, trait, and situation- specific anxiety. Spielberg (1966) defined state anxiety as "a level of response that includes feelings of apprehension and heightened automatic nervous system activity that vary in intensity and fluctuate over time". It was found to be crucial to understand the stimulus for uneasiness and the degree of reaction to the stimulus based on the individual's preceding background (Spielberg, 1966). However, not all stimuli cause the feeling of fear. Trait is defined as "individual differences in anxiety proneness, that is, to differentiate tendencies between individuals to respond with different levels of A-State in situations that are perceived as threatening" (O'Neil, Spielberger, & Hansen, 1969). Situation-specific anxiety refers to the probability of becoming nervous in a specific type of circumstances, for instance during tests (test anxiety), or when delivering oral presentations in a foreign language (language anxiety).

Theories related to Anxiety and Performance

There are various theories related to anxiety and performance. McCroskey and Beatty (1984) defined communication apprehension as "a common anxiety linked to oral communication". McCroskey (1977) defined oral communication apprehension as the "fear or anxiety with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons". Oral communication apprehension is also related to unwillingness, shyness, nervousness, and uneasiness to speak.

This research study supports the social cognitive theory proposed by Bandura (1986), which was adopted from the social learning theory proposed by Miller and Dollard (1941). Bandura and Walters published "Social Learning and Personality Development" in which they broadened social learning theory by introducing the concept of pragmatic learning and the principle of vicarious reinforcement. Regarding the theoretical framework of social cognitive theory, it was assumed that human achievement is based on reciprocal action between one's habits, individual factors, and environmental circumstances.

Anxiety in relation to social cognitive theory is characterized as "a set of loosely coupled components embodying apprehensive cognitions, physiological arousal and avoidant behaviour" (Bandura, 1988). He added that "perceived self-efficacy to exercise control over potentially threatening events plays a central role in anxiety arousal" (Bandura, 1988).

It can be presumed that students with low levels of English proficiency will abstain from difficult tasks as a result of their personal constraints. These students have low levels of ambition, engagement and endeavor and have little faith in their competencies. On the other hand, students with higher levels of English proficiency can strengthen personal achievement in many

ways. These students experience tough assignments as challenges in which they can demonstrate their proficiency and endeavor.

According to Processing Efficiency Theory (PET), cognitive anxiety or uneasiness affects students' task performance in various ways. Uneasiness lessens the efficiency of the functioning memory system. Rauh and Seccia (2010) claimed that nervousness or anxiety always caused negative effects. Nevertheless, Eysenck and Calvo (1992) asserted that anxiety could work as a motivational factor as well. Motivational factors work as agents to produce more effort to perform a task. Murray and Janelle (2003) stated that PET was a theory that regarded anxiety as yielding both debilitative and facilitative effects on one's task performance. As such, this theory can be used to explain the anxiety encountered by tourism students when delivering oral presentations, and the relationship with the assessment of oral presentations.

Related Research on Anxiety in Oral Presentation

Research on oral presentation anxiety is based on studying the level of anxiety encountered by students, the factors that promote oral presentation anxiety, and strategies to reduce oral presentation anxiety. Elliot and Chong (2004) examined the degree of presentation anxiety among 550 psychology and business undergraduate students at a university in Australia. It was found that one-third of the respondents were reported to experience high or very high levels of presentation anxiety. In addition, the majority of students believed that their fear negatively influenced their performance when delivering oral presentations.

Kavaliauskienė (2006) conducted a survey on 60 ESP students from the Faculty of Social Work, MykolasRomeris University by using a questionnaire in order to determine the students' oral presentation anxiety. It was found that the majority of students felt anxious when delivering oral presentations in English.

In the same vein, Lien (2009) investigated 100 ESP undergraduate students and two ESP lecturers at Vietnam National University. It was found that both students and lecturers possessed similar impressions of students' difficulties in oral presentations in English. The results showed that students lack presentation competence, feel dreadful about possible negative evaluation and have low self-confidence. These negative factors were the main obstacles for undergraduate students that hindered them from achieving effective oral presentations. At the same time, the lecturers believe that the majority of students encountered oral presentation anxiety. The findings revealed that only 30% of the students claimed to feel anxious during their presentations in English.

Vevea, Pearson, Child, and Semlak (2009) investigated the level of public speaking anxiety of 605 undergraduate students in public speaking courses in two Midwestern Universities. McCroskey's (1982) PRCA-24 questionnaire was used to examine the students' Oral Communication Apprehension (OCA). The findings revealed

that unwillingness to communicate was the highest level of OCA among the students. Moreover, self-esteem was found to have a negative relationship with communication apprehension. The findings also showed that the higher one's self-esteem, the lower his or her OCA level.

Subaşı (2010) conducted a study in order to investigate two potential sources of anxiety for Turkish learners of English in oral practice: (1) an individual student's fear of negative evaluation, and (2) his or her self-perceived speaking ability. The results of the study indicated a positive correlation between an individual's fear of negative evaluation and his or her anxiety level. Moreover, the findings of the study revealed that there are significant negative relationships between anxiety and three of self-ratings: SR-CDS, SR-CL, and SR-EPE. In addition, it was found that among the FNE and the three self-ratings of English speaking ability, the combination of the FNE, the SR-CL and SR-CDS was the most appropriate model of predictors of anxiety level for this sample. Finally, the analysis of interview data provided valuable information about the main sources of the students' anxiety in oral practice such as personal reasons, teachers' manners, teaching procedures, and previous experience.

Lucas, Miraflores, and Go (2011) investigated the causes of anxiety in English language learning for foreign students in the Philippines. They also looked into the different language strategies utilized by these students who might have experienced anxiety in learning the English language.

The findings suggested that these learners used vocabulary strategies to learn the English language efficiently and to cope with their English class anxiety. It has been found that the employment of this strategy enables learners to take charge of their own learning as this serves as their basic aid to learn other macro skills in the target language.

Heng, Abdullah, and Yusof (2012) examined the dimensions of language anxiety aligned to the major sub-constructs mentioned earlier. The data for this study were obtained through a survey questionnaire administered to 700 UPM students before an oral communication test. The findings suggested that most of the students experienced a medium level of oral communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. In the learning process, anxiety forms an important element that could determine language learning success. Thus, teachers should know how to identify anxiety and be able to reduce the negative impacts of anxiety in the learning process for oral skills.

Debreli and Demirkan (2015) investigated the phenomenon in an EFL context and analyzed the levels of EFL students' speaking anxiety and the causes of their anxiety. They also explored whether there was any relationship between anxiety and students' language proficiency level and gender. The data were gathered from 196 Turkish and Turkish Cypriot students through a questionnaire (Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale) as well as through semi-structured interviews with 10 students

who participated in the questionnaire. The findings indicated that the students generally have low levels of speaking anxiety although students with a higher level of language proficiency have a higher level of anxiety compared with the students with a lower level of language proficiency.

Yusri, Rahimi, Shah, and Haslina (2012) determined (1) students' attitude levels in learning oral Arabic at Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM) Malaysia, and (2) the differences in attitude level among students with different prior experience and gender. A mixed method of quantitative and qualitative study was conducted using questionnaire and interviews. The questionnaire was adapted from Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) involving 445 subjects who have been selected using the stratified random sampling technique. As for qualitative data, 13 interviews were conducted. This study found that (1) the attitude level among UiTM students is high. It was also discovered that the cognitive and affective components were high; while the conative component is moderate (2) there are statistically significant differences in the attitude level among the students with different prior experience and gender. In particular, more experienced learners and female learners were found to have higher positive attitudes when compared to their counterparts. It was thus recommended that the teaching approach should be appropriate in regard to students' prior experience and gender. An appropriate approach is therefore vital in molding students' behavior as this will consequently affect their performance

in learning spoken Arabic. The use of collaborative learning strategies as well as portfolio and e-portfolio assessments of individual performance is suggested.

Pramela, Noraza, Nurjanah, Kemboja, and Nadzrah (2016) conducted action research to initiate a peer support center at the Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities to enhance English Language presentation skills. The aim of the support center was to create a platform for limited users of the English Language to receive additional coaching from more competent peers and senior students to carry out simple presentations and discussions in English. A group of 30 low-proficient students participated in this research with the help of 10 senior students as peer support. Peer support is well-known as a cooperative learning strategy that provides peer interaction. It also helps in the development of language skills. The role of peer support is to boost the mastery of English among low-proficiency students through planned activities. The peer support group received constant coaching and feedback from the team of researchers to encourage them to sustain their efforts. This paper also included the issues and challenges that were faced throughout the study in initiating a peer support center.

Local studies on Anxiety in Oral Presentation

Chaisawat (2006) conducted a study on Baccalaureate and Graduate Degrees in tourism and hospitality studies in Thailand in 2003. The findings showed that the number

of graduates from educational institutions was sufficient to serve the demand of the industry. However, there were problems in terms of quality because the graduates did not meet the standards required by employers. The researcher recommended that Thailand should be positioned as a center for hospitality and tourism studies and training at major tourism destinations. In terms of strategic implementation of tourism development, tourism education and training institutions should play the role of catalyst and coordinate with the stakeholders in each region or destination.

Anyadubalu (2010) investigated student perceptions of self-efficacy and anxiety in acquiring the English language and examined the relationship between the independent variables, confounding variables and student performance in the English language. The researcher tested the research hypotheses using a sample group of 318 respondents out of a population size of 400 students. The results revealed that there was a significant moderate negative relationship between English language anxiety and performance in the English language; however, there was no significant relationship between self-efficacy and English language performance for the middle-school students. There was also a significant moderate negative relationship between English language anxiety and self-efficacy. It was discovered that general self-efficacy and English language anxiety represent a significantly more powerful set of predictors than the set of confounding variables. Thus, the study concluded that

English language anxiety and general self-efficacy were significant predictors of English language performance for middle-school students in Satri Si Suriyothai School.

Yaikhong and Usaha (2012) contributed to the development of a Public Speaking Class Anxiety Scale (PSCAS) used to measure anxiety in EFL public speaking classes in a Thai context. The items were adopted from previous scales, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz et al., (1986), the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA-24), the Personal Report of Public Speaking Anxiety (PRPSA-34) by McCroskey (1970), and the Speaker Anxiety Scale (SA) by Clevenger and Halvorson (1992) based on their critical appraisal. Some minor changes in the wording of the adopted items were made to a preliminary PSCAS, which was then validated. The preliminary PSCAS yielded an internal consistency of 0.84 using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient when administered to 76 participants and was factor-analyzed to establish the construct and the final version. The factor analysis revealed that the PSCAS included the components of communication apprehension, test anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, and comfort in using English in a public speaking class.

Plangkham and Porkaew (2012) investigated the level of anxiety at different stages of public speaking that were pre-preparation, preparation, pre-performance and performance for Thai EFL undergraduate students in English public

speaking classes. The participants in this study were 208 undergraduate students from both private and government universities who completed a questionnaire. It was found that most students have different levels of anxiety in English public speaking courses. Nevertheless, the study results revealed that the highest level of anxiety was found in the performance stage of public speaking.

Noom-Ura (2013) surveyed problems with English language teaching and learning and the professional development (PD) needs of high-school teachers in three provinces of three Secondary Educational Service Areas in Thailand. Both closed- and open-ended questionnaires were administered. The study results may be generalized so that local organizations and institutions of higher education can provide appropriate assistance to improve the English teaching situation in Thailand in general.

Charoensukmongkol (2016) investigated whether the degree of mindfulness exhibited by a sample of Thai students had an effect on the level of anxiety they experienced in English as a second language (ESL) public speaking classes, and whether such an effect was related to the students' level of performance in communicating in English during classroom presentations. The student sample ($N=333$) was selected from four marketing major courses, all of which were taught by foreign instructors, in a leading private international university in Thailand. The data were collected at different times and from multiple sources in order to lower the possibility of common method bias. The evidence from the partial least squares regression analysis showed that the students who reported higher levels of trait and state mindfulness while speaking English tended to experience less anxiety during their presentations. The students who reported low anxiety also obtained higher scores for their presentations than those who reported high levels of anxiety. The analysis also found that state mindfulness appeared to have stronger explanatory power in predicting ESL public speaking anxiety than trait mindfulness.

From the literature above, it can be concluded that many studies conducted on public speaking focused on students' levels of anxiety, the difficulties encountered by students in delivering oral presentations and the possible interventions to lessen oral communication apprehension and oral presentation anxiety. However, there is a dearth of studies on oral presentations as a tour guide. Therefore, the researchers not only examine the level of students' oral presentation anxiety as a tour guide, but also examine the feelings that affect their performance.

Research Questions

1. What is the level of oral communication apprehension when speaking English?
2. What is the level of Thai EFL students' oral presentation anxiety as a tour guide?
3. What are the feelings that affect Thai EFL students while they are delivering oral presentations as a tour guide?

4. To what extent do Tourism students need help from their lecturers to alleviate their anxiety during presentations as a tourist guide?

METHODS

Research Design

This research is a mixed method of quantitative and qualitative approaches using two types of questionnaire and semi-structured interviews to investigate the level of oral presentation anxiety of 45 Thai EFL Tourism students in public university and to determine the feelings that affect their performance.

Participants

The target population includes second year Tourism students who enrolled in the English for Tour Guides I course (927221) at Khon Kaen University, Nong Khai Campus for the academic year 2016. The researchers used the purposive sampling process to select 45 students to participate in this study. The adapted Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA) questionnaire was used to measure the level of Tourism students' oral communication apprehension (OCA). The adapted Personal Report of Public Speaking Anxiety questionnaires (PRPSA) were used to measure the level of Tourism students' oral presentation anxiety as tour guides. The selected 45 Tourism students were interviewed to determine the feelings that affect their oral presentation as a tour guide.

Measures

Two types of questionnaire were adapted from the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA) and the Personal Report of Public Speaking Anxiety (PRPSA) developed by McCroskey (1970). A three-part survey questionnaire both in English and Thai was administered to the respondents. The first part provided general information on the respondents. The second part investigated students' oral communication apprehension scale (OCAS) that included 24 items that measured overall anxiety in four specific communication contexts: meetings, group discussions, interpersonal conversations and oral presentations. The third part included 34 items using a 5-point Likert scale to determine the participants' level of anxiety when delivering oral presentations as a tour guide. The questionnaire was then pilot-tested with 30 International Business students from the same university and adjusted before being distributed to the respondents.

The researchers used the scoring sheet below to determine the level of Tourism students' communication apprehension. For more details, see the scoring example shown below:

Group Discussion Sub-Score
1. Add 18 + Items 2, 4, & 6: _____
2. Add Items 1, 3, & 5: ___
3. Subtract Line 2 from Line 1: ___

GROUP DISCUSSION SUB-SCORE –
Line 3: _____

Meetings Sub-Score
1.   Add 18 + Items 8, 9, & 12: ____
2.   Add Items 7, 10, & 11: _
3.   Subtract Line 2 from Line 1: ___

MEETINGS SUB-SCORE – Line 3:_

Interpersonal Sub-Score
1.   Add 18 + Items 14, 16, & 17: __
2.   Add Items 13, 15, & 18: _____
3.   Subtract Line 2 from Line 1: _-

INTERPERSONAL SUB-SCORE –
Line3: ___

Oral presentation Sub-Score
1.   Add 18 + Items 19, 21, & 23: __
2.   Add Items 20, 22, & 24: _____
3.   Subtract Line 2 from Line 1: ___

ORAL PRESENTATION SUB-SCORE –
Line 3__

OVERALL SCORE:
Add 4 Sub-Scores:_____

Scoring Example

__2___1. I dislike participating in group discussions.

__4___2. Generally, I am comfortable while participating in group discussions.

__1___3. I am tense and nervous while participating in group discussions.

__4___4. I like to get involved in group discussions.

__2___5. Engaging in a group discussion with new people makes me tense and nervous.

__4___6. I am calm and relaxed while participating in a group discussion.

Group Discussion Sub-Score
1.   Add 18 + Items 2, 4, & 6:   30_
18 + 4 + 4 + 4 = 30
2.   Add Items 1, 3, & 5:   5
2 + 1 + 2 = 5
3.   Subtract Line 2 from Line 1:
25____
30 – 5 = 25

GROUP DISCUSSION SUB-SCORE –
Line 3:   25____

The scores below reflect both high and low levels of communication apprehension.

83-120   High level of communication apprehension

55-83   Moderate level of communication apprehension

24-55   Low level of communication apprehension

The researchers used the following scoring sheet to determine the level of Tourism students' oral presentation anxiety. The score on the PRPSA was determined, and the researchers then completed the following steps:

Step 1. Add scores to Items 1, 2, 3, 5, 9, 10, 13, 14, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 25, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, and 34

Step 2. Add the scores to Items 4, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12, 15, 16, 17, 18, 24, and 26

Step 3. Complete the following formula:
PRPSA = 72 - Total from Step 2 + Total from Step 1

The score should be between 34 and 170. Otherwise, if the score is below 34 or above 170, it means the investigator has made a mistake while computing the score.

Score Range Indication

120- 170	Very high level of anxiety about oral presentation
111-119	High level of anxiety about oral presentation
93- 110	Moderate anxiety in oral presentation
85-92	Low level of anxiety of oral presentation
34-84	Very low anxiety in oral presentation

The principal investigator set up the focus group interview questions for Tourism students. They are nine questions. The interview questions were then pilot-tested with 30 Inter Business students and adjusted before being distributed to the respondents. Some alterations were made to the focus group interview questions with small changes in the wording of some questions. This is so because the respondents in the pilot study provided some comments about unclear statements and hence the modification to the interview questions was made for clarity.

The focus group interview carried out in the pilot study assisted the principal researcher to modify the interview questions she expected to ask during the collection of the qualitative data for the actual study.

Moreover, the analysis of the transcripts of the focus group interview carried out in the pilot study was valuable in coding the transcripts of the focus group interviews in the major study.

Table 1
Oral presentation anxiety codes for coding transcriptions of the problems encountered by tourism students (adapted from Woodrow, 2006)

Code	Description	Example
Presentation framework	Anxiety about the content, instrument, and answering the questions	"I do not like giving oral presentation as a tourist guide because I am not sure about the content. I am not confident to give an oral presentation". "I cannot answer the questions asked by the panel because I feel nervous and forget all the content".
Personal characteristics	Anxiety about communication aspects e.g. hesitation, language, physical traits, and nervous disposition	"I am not confident to give a presentation because of weaknesses in my language use and pronunciation". "I worried a lot while giving oral presentations. I felt pressured because I could not finish giving oral presentations on time". "I am very excited. I have to lessen my own emotional excitement but I cannot control it. Then I forget what I had prepared to say".

Table 1 *(continue)*

Code	Description	Example
Assessment	Anxiety about self-assessment, reactions of the audience and grade	*"I feel stressed when the panels come to grade my presentation so that I forget all that I have prepared to present".* *"I am bothered by my friends who sit beside me and recite her script".* *"I feel relaxed after having done the presentation. I tried my best but I worried about my score. I am afraid that I will fail".*

Procedures

The questionnaire sets were distributed to 45 participants who were asked to complete them within 20 min. After completion, they were required to return the questionnaire sets to the researcher in the class.

The principal researcher interviewed 45 students after completing the questionnaire. The focus group interviews were conducted on 27th and 28th August 2016. The interview sessions provided substantial information that helped to make the results obtained from the questionnaire more reliable. In the current study, the researchers are aware of the ethical considerations. Hence, prior to the interview, the interviewees were informed that the information provided by them would be treated confidentially and would only be used in relation to this research. The names of all the respondents were kept anonymous. Only pseudonyms were used for the respondents. The two raters also wanted to keep their names anonymous.

Data Collection

The researchers adapted Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA) and the Personal Report of Public Speaking Anxiety (PRPSA) questionnaire developed by McCroskey (1970) to investigate the level of Thai EFL students' oral presentation anxiety as a tour guide.

Forty-five Tourism students were interviewed by using a semi-structured interview to investigate their level of anxiety, which arises during their oral presentations as a tour guide. Moreover, a semi-structured interview with two Thai lecturers from two selected public universities in Thailand was also conducted to know about their teaching strategies to overcome students' oral presentation anxiety. All the interviews were video recorded with the informant's permission and each interview lasted from about 30-45 min.

Data analysis

The data obtained from the questionnaire were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) program. Descriptive statistics of percentage was used. The percentage values of the data derived from each statement in the questionnaire were interpreted as having the following levels of anxiety.

1. Score Range Indication to determine the level of Tourism students' communication apprehension (McCrosky, 1970) as shown below:

83-120	High level of communication apprehension
55-83	Moderate level of communication apprehension
24-55	Low level of communication apprehension

2. Score Range Indication to determine the level of Tourism students' oral presentation anxiety (McCrosky, 1970) as shown below:

120-170	Very high level of anxiety about oral presentation
111-119	High level of anxiety about oral presentation
9-110	Moderate level of anxiety about oral presentation
85-92	Low level of anxiety about oral presentation
34-84	Very low level of anxiety about oral presentation

The transcriptions were analyzed manually. Repeated themes were looked for and grouped together. Appropriate headings were then given and finally the data were tabulated. All the utterances used in this study were translated into English by the principal researcher who is bilingual (proficient in both Thai and English) and great care was taken to ensure that the meaning of the utterances remained the same. The translations were then validated by another bilingual speaker at Khon Kaen University.

Creswell's (2013) model of data analysis and data coding was employed in analyzing the qualitative data in the current study.

After completing the data transcription, the themes were classified into main themes to explain certain aspects of the data and to make constant comparisons of the themes emerged. Moreover, it was also important to consult some lecturers in order to avoid redundant themes. Then the main themes were coded for the analysis. Data analysis was conducted to determine the level of oral presentation anxiety experienced by Tourism students.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Regarding the quantitative results in answering research question 1, Thai EFL students have a high level of OCA in English for group discussions at 86.67; for public speaking, it is 64.44%; for interpersonal conversation, it is 60%; and for meetings, it is 55.56 %. The results show that Thai EFF students are unwilling to communicate in English. This implies that the majority of students experience the highest level of anxiety when speaking in English. This finding is similar to the studies of Debreli and Demirkan (2015), Kavaliauskienė (2006), and Vevea et al., (2009). In addition, it can be implied that they have low self-esteem which affected their ability to speak in English for four types of speaking (refer to Table 2).

Table 3 shows that Thai EFL students experience anxiety at a high level (66.67%) during their oral presentations as a tour guide. Thai EFL students with low levels of proficiency are likely to avoid tough and challenging tasks which they regard as a personal constraint. These tourism students

Table 2
Tourism students' communication apprehension

Level	Group discussion		Meetings		Interpersonal conversations		Public speaking	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
High (83–120)	25	55.56	27	60.00	29	64.44	39	86.67
Moderate (55–83)	19	42.22	17	37.78	15	33.33	6	13.33
Low (24–55)	1	2.22	1	2.22	1	2.22	0	0
Total	45	100	45	100	45	100	45	100

Table 3
Tourism students' oral presentation anxiety

Level	No.	Percentage (%)
High (120–170)	30	66.67
Moderate high (111–119)	2	4.44
Moderate (93–110)	1	2.22
Moderate low (85–92)	12	26.67
Low (34–84)	0	0
Total	45	100

have low aspirations and sense of obligation, make less effort and may not have or may quickly lose their confidence to make a proper presentation. In contrast, students with a strong sense of capability can build up personal achievement in various ways. They see difficult tasks as challenges to overcome through their proficiency and their strong sense of obligation and endeavor. Only 2.22% of the respondents reported to feel a moderately high level of presentation anxiety, and they believe that their anxiety or worries negatively affected their oral presentations. This finding is similar to the studies of Plangkham and Porkaew (2012), and Yaikhong and Usaha (2012).

For the qualitative part of the research, students were asked whether they liked giving oral presentations or not. Most students do not like doing oral presentations as evidenced in the excerpts below.

> *"I do not like giving an oral presentation" Cherry*

> *"I do not like giving an oral presentation in front of the class because I do not like speaking" Metha*

> *"I am unskilled for oral presentation so I do not like oral presentation" Nancy*

In answering the second question, whether they liked performing oral presentations as a tourist guide, most

students do not like performing an oral presentation as a tourist guide because they lack confidence in this respect due to the lack of presentation skill which requires memorization of the content. Some students pointed out that:

> *"I do not like giving oral presentation as a tourist guide. I am not confident to give an oral presentation." Cherry*

> *"I am unskilled in giving an oral presentation as a tourist guide therefore I hate giving oral presentations." Nancy*

> *"I hate to give oral presentations as a tourist guide because I have to memorize the content of the presentation." Metha*

Some students like to give oral presentations in English, but they feel they need to practice speaking in order to build up confidence to speak. One of the students stated:

> *"Personally, I like giving an oral presentations as a tour guide, but I have to take time to practice speaking" Bomb*

Students were asked to describe the experience of their previous oral presentations as tourist guides. Most students felt anxious during their oral presentations as tourist guides. Some students were very excited which caused them to forget the content. They were unable to give oral presentations effectively because they lack training in this respect as evidenced in the following excerpts.

> *"I had anxiety in giving oral presentations as a tourist guide because we did not have enough practice before giving oral presentations." Sai*

> *"I worried a lot of while giving oral presentations. I felt pressured because I could not finish giving oral presentations on time." Noah*

> *"I am very excited. I have to lessen my own emotional excitement, but I cannot control it.Then I forget what I had prepared to say." Oil*

Some students could control their excitement when giving an oral presentation. They practice talking in front of a mirror to build confidence in giving oral presentations. One of them stated:

> *"I have some excitement, but I can control it while I am giving an oral presentation as a tourist guide but I have to practice speaking to myself in the mirror to build up my confidence." Pat*

To answer the question, "What bothers you the most when presenting as a tourist guide?," most students told the interviewer that they lack training in giving oral presentations as a tour guide. This caused them to feel over-excited. Moreover, when they encounter their classmates, they forget all the content that they have prepared. They do a poor oral presentation because of this. Students are also concerned about proper and correct pronunciation and the kind of language they use to write the presentation content/script. They claimed

they do not have enough time to prepare themselves to speak. Their excitement and anxiety caused mispronunciation of some words and thus they were unable to go on with the presentation flow. These inabilities prevented them from making effective presentations as a tourist guide. Some students pointed out that:

> *"I do not have a chance to talk so I cannot give a presentation well. I feel excited when I see my friends looking at me."* Manee

> *"I am not confident to give a presentation because of weaknesses in in my language use and pronunciation."* Choojai

> *"I do not have enough time to prepare myself so I feel excited. I cannot control myself so I forget al*l that I prepared." Cat

In answering the question, 'To what extent do your levels of anxiety affect your presentation performance?', they feel uncomfortable to perform their presentation when there are many panel members watching them critically. Some students stated that:

> *" I feel stressed when the panel comes to grade my presentation so that I forget all that I have prepared to present."* Pat

> *" I am bothered by my friends who sit beside me and recite her script"* Sai

> *"Limited time can bother me because I cannot present all of what I have prepared" Choojai*

To answer the question, 'How do you feel after having done the presentation as a tourist guide?', most students told the interviewer that they feel relaxed. They said that they did their best, but they get worried about the result of their presentation as evidenced in the excerpts below.

> *"I feel relaxed after having done the presentation. I tried my best but I worried about my score. I am afraid that I will fail."* Oil

To answer the question, 'How can the lecturer help students to lessen their anxiety in giving a presentation as a tourist guide?', most students need their lecturers' help as suggested below:

1. Give presentations in real situations so that they can talk about what they see without recitation.

2. Provide pictures of real places for students and demonstrate good methods of presentation.

3. Provide more opportunities for students to practice speaking in the classroom.

4. Engage in conversations that focus on English for communication to enable students to practice.

5. Provide video clips about how to give a good presentation as a tourist guide.

6. Provide opportunities for students to practice the pronunciation of unfamiliar words that are related to tourism.

7. Demonstrate how to write scripts for presentations as tour guides by providing good models.

Based on the qualitative results, the researchers can indicate three main factors that affect Thai EFL students while they are delivering their oral presentations: the presentation framework (the content, instrument, and answering the questions), personal characteristics (communication aspects, e.g., hesitation, language, physical traits, and nervous disposition), and assessment (self-assessment, reactions of the audience, and grades).

Limitations of the Study

There are a number of limitations emerged from this study. The first limitation is the small sample size which makes generalization to the extensive community unreliable. This study is limited to selected public university students majoring in Tourism. Therefore, generalizations to other Tourism students in other public universities in Thailand need to be made carefully. Nevertheless, the findings gained from the sample in this study can provide practical insights into students' oral presentation anxiety. Secondly, only two EFL English lecturers participated in this study; however, they were both experienced in teaching English for tourist guides. Because of this small number, it is difficult to generalize the findings to other Thai EFL English lecturers who are experienced in teaching English for tourist guides in other public universities in Thailand. Nevertheless, the results obtained

from the selected sample in this study can provide practical teaching strategies that can help improve EFL Tourism students in alleviating oral presentation anxiety.

Recommendations for Further Studies

The current study focused only on Tourism students from a selected public university in Thailand. Only 45 students were the participants of the current study. Therefore, future studies could focus on all Thai public universities that teach English for tourist guide courses. Focusing on all Thai public universities could help to generalize the findings on oral presentation anxiety at Thai universities.

More research needs to be carried out to explore what EFL lecturers want to know about speaking and evaluation to employ diagnostic evaluation to identify the sources of students' oral presentation anxiety. Future research could provide useful suggestions to consider ways in which policymakers and lecturers can engage in rigorous oral presentation instruction. Various types of teaching strategies that can help improve students' oral presentation competence could also be an area of attention for future research.

Pedagogical Implications

The findings of the current study provide some practical suggestions for further developments in teaching oral presentation skills for tour guides. Researchers, educators, and policymakers have realized that there is a critical need to give greater attention to the improvement of teaching oral presentations

skills to tertiary students. The way to improve oral presentation instruction is to develop insights into students' weaknesses in giving oral presentations.

Moreover, it is beneficial for EFL lecturers in a selected public university in Thailand to gain further insights into the weaknesses of their students' language variants that can be used to develop their teaching programs and instruction to better support students' oral presentation development. In addition, it can be used as a guideline for students to improve their oral presentation skills as a tour guide. The findings of this study can also provide useful suggestions to curriculum planners and material writers and designers to integrate components that focus on oral presentation instruction to comprehend the range of difficulties students experience when they deliver oral presentations. Such stakeholders can then use appropriate methods to develop students' oral presentation competence in the Thai EFL context.

CONCLUSION

The quantitative results show that Tourism students have difficulties in giving oral presentations in English. It was found that the lack of presentation skills, fear of negative assessment and low self-confidence were among the main barriers for students to give oral presentations effectively. According to Murray and Janelle (2003), PET is a theory that regards anxiety as having both positive and negative effects on one's performance.

As such, this theory confirms that tourism students experienced a high level of anxiety in delivering oral presentations. However, their anxiety also helped them to prepare for their presentations well.

Based on the qualitative results, the researchers can indicate the three main factors that affected Thai EFL students while they were delivering their oral presentations: the presentation framework (the content, material, and dealing with questions), personal characteristics (communication aspects, e.g., hesitation, language, physical traits, and nervous disposition), and assessment (self-assessment, the reactions of the audience, and grades).

The current study focused only on Tourism students from a selected university in Thailand. Therefore, future studies could focus on all Tourism students in Thailand that experience oral presentation anxiety.

More research needs to be carried out to explore the possible techniques that can be used to decrease their fear of oral presentations.

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APPENDIX

Questionnaires

Part 1 Personal Information

Direction: Please put X   in the box provided ☐

1. Gender: ☐ Male   ☐ Female

2. Age: ☐ 18-20 years old   ☐ 21- 25 years old

3. Previous course before enrolling this course [_____]   Grade [_____]

4. Faculty: _____

5. ID: _____

Part 2: Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA-24)

Directions: This instrument is composed of twenty-four statements concerning feelings about communication with other people. Please indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you by marking whether you:

(1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) are undecided,

(4) disagree, or (5) strongly disagree.

	ข้อความ/ Statements	Degree				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	I dislike participating in group discussions ฉันไม่ชอบการอภิปรายกลุ่ม					
2.	Generally, I am comfortable while participating in group discussions. ฉันรู้สึกสบายในขณะที่ร่วมการอภิปรายกลุ่ม					
3.	I am tense and nervous while participating in group discussions. ฉันรู้สึกเครียดและกังวลในขณะที่ร่วมอภิปรายกลุ่ม					
4.	I like to get involved in group discussions. ฉันชอบการเข้าร่วมอภิปรายกลุ่ม					
5.	Engaging in a group discussion with new people makes me tense and nervous. การร่วมอภิปรายกลุ่มที่มีผู้คนใหม่ๆทำให้ฉันเครียดและวิตกกังวล					
6.	I am calm and relaxed while participating in a group discussion. ฉันรู้สึกสงบและผ่อนคลายในขณะที่มีส่วนร่วมในการอภิปรายกลุ่ม					
7.	Generally, I am nervous when I have to participate in a meeting. โดยทั่วไปฉันรู้สึกประหม่าเมื่อฉันมีจะมีส่วนร่วมในการประชุม					
8.	Usually I am calm and relaxed while participating in a meeting. โดยปกติฉันรู้สึกสบายเมื่อฉันมีจะมีส่วนร่วมในการประชุม					
9.	I am very calm and relaxed when I am called upon to express an opinion at a meeting. ฉันรู้สึกสงบและผ่อนคลายเมื่อฉันถูกเรียกให้แสดงความเห็นในที่ประชุม					
10	I am afraid to express myself at meetings. ฉันรู้สึกกลัวที่จะแสดงตนเองในที่ประชุม					
11	Communicating at meetings usually makes me feel uncomfortable. การสื่อสารในที่ประชุมจะทำให้ฉันรู้สึกอึดอัด					

ข้อความ/ Statements		Degree				
		1	2	3	4	5
12	I am very relaxed when answering questions at a meeting. ฉันรู้สึกผ่อนคลายมากเมื่อตอบคำถามในที่ประชุม					
13	While participating in a conversation with a new acquaintance, I feel very nervous. ในขณะที่การมีส่วนร่วมในการสนทนากับคนรู้จักใหม่ฉันรู้สึกตื่นเต้นมาก					
14	ฉันไม่มีความกลัวในการพูดสนทนา. I have no fear of speaking up in conversations.					
15.	ปกติฉันรู้สึกเครียดและวิตกกังวลในการสนทนา Ordinarily I am very tense and nervous in conversations.					
16	Ordinarily I am very calm and relaxed in conversations. ปกติฉันรู้สึกสงบและผ่อนคลายในการสนทนา					
17	While conversing with a new acquaintance, I feel very relaxed. ในขณะที่สนทนากับคนที่เพิ่งรู้จักใหม่ฉันรู้สึกผ่อนคลายมาก					
18	I'm afraid to speak up in conversations. ฉันกลัวที่จะพูดในวงสนทนา					
19	I have no fear of giving an oral presentation. ฉันไม่มีความกลัวในการพูดนำเสนอ					
20.	Certain parts of my body feel very tense and rigid while I am giving an oral presentation. บางส่วนของร่างกายของฉันรู้สึกเกร็งและแข็งในขณะที่พูดนำเสนอ					
21	I feel relaxed while giving an oral presentation. ฉันรู้สึกผ่อนคลายในขณะที่พูดนำเสนอ					
22	My thoughts become confused and jumbled when I am giving an oral presentation. ความคิดของฉันเริ่มสับสนและยุ่งเหยิงเมื่อฉันพูดนำเสนอ					
23	I face the prospect of giving an oral presentation with confidence ฉันต้องเผชิญกับความคาดหวังในการพูดนำเสนอด้วยความมั่นใจ					
24.	While giving an oral presentation, I get so nervous I forget facts I really know. ในขณะที่ฉันพูดนำเสนอฉันรู้สึกวิตกกังวลจนลืมข้อเท็จจริงที่ฉันรู้หมดสิ้น					

Part 3 Personal Report of Public Speaking Anxiety (PRPSA-34)

Directions: This instrument is composed of thirty-four statements concerning feelings about oral presentation anxiety. Please indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you by marking whether you:

(1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) are undecided,
(4) disagree, or (5) strongly disagree.

ข้อความ/ Statement	Degree				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. While preparing for giving an oral presentation as a tour guide, I feel tense and nervous. ในขณะที่การเตรียมความพร้อมสำหรับการพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์ ฉันรู้สึกเครียดและวิตกกังวล					
2. I feel tense when I see the words "oral presentation as a tour guide" on a course outline when studying. ฉันรู้สึกเครียดเมื่อฉันเห็นคำว่าการพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์ในสังเขปรายวิชาที่ฉันเรียนอยู่					
3. My thoughts become confused and jumbled when I am giving an oral presentation as a tour guide. ความคิดของฉันสับสนและยุ่งเหยิงเมื่อฉันพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					
4. Right after giving an oral presentation I feel that I have had a pleasant experience. หลังจากพูดนำเสนอ ฉันรู้สึกว่าฉันมีประสบการณ์ที่ดี					
5. I get anxious when I think about giving an oral presentation as a tour guide coming up. ฉันรู้สึกกังวลเมื่อฉันคิดเกี่ยวกับการพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					
6. I have no fear of giving an oral presentation as a tour guide. ฉันไม่กลัวการพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					
7 Although I am nervous just before starting an oral presentation as a tour guide, I soon settle down after starting and feel calm and comfortable. ถึงแม้ว่าผมจะรู้สึกวิตกกังวลเพียงก่อนที่จะเริ่มพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์ หลักหลังจากที่เริ่มต้นแล้วฉันรู้สึกสงบและสบายในการพูดนำเสนอ					
8 I look forward to giving an oral presentation as a tour guide. ฉันตั้งตารอที่จะพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					
9. When the instructor announces an oral presentation assignment in class, I can feel myself getting tense. เมื่ออาจารย์ผู้สอนประกาศมอบหมายให้พูดนำเสนอในชั้นเรียนฉันจะรู้สึกว่าตัวเองเริ่มเครียด					
10. My hands tremble when I am giving an oral presentation as a tour guide. มือของฉันสั่นเมื่อฉันพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					
11. I feel relaxed while giving an oral presentation as a tour guide. ฉันรู้สึกผ่อนคลายในขณะที่พูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					
12. I enjoy preparing for giving an oral presentation as a tour guide. ฉันสนุกในการเตรียมตัวพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					
13. I am in constant fear of forgetting what I prepared to give an oral presentation. ฉันอยู่ในความกลัวจนลืมสิ่งที่ฉันเตรียมที่จะพูดนำเสนอ					
14 I get anxious if someone asks me something about my topic that I don't know. ฉันรู้สึกกังวลถ้ามีคนถามอะไรบางอย่างเกี่ยวกับหัวข้อของฉันที่ฉันไม่ทราบ					
15. I face the prospect of giving an oral presentation with confidence. ฉันต้องเผชิญกับความคาดหวังในการพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์ด้วยความมั่นใจ					
16. I feel that I am in complete possession of myself while giving an oral presentation as a tour guide. ฉันรู้สึกว่าฉันมีทักษะที่สมบูรณ์ในขณะที่พูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					
17. My mind is clear when giving an oral presentation as tour guide. ใจของฉันมีความชัดเจนเมื่อพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					
18. I do not dread giving an oral presentation as a tour guide. ฉันไม่รู้สึกกลัวในการพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					

ข้อความ/ Statement	Degree				
	1	2	3	4	5
19. I perspire just before starting an oral presentation as a tour guide. ฉันเหงื่อออกเพียงแค่ก่อนที่จะเริ่มพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					
20. My heart beats very fast just as I start giving an oral presentation as a tour guide. หัวใจของฉันเต้นเร็วมากตอนที่ฉันเริ่มพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					
21. I experience considerable anxiety while sitting in the room just before my oral presentation starts. ฉันได้สัมผัสกับความวิตกกังวลมากในขณะนั่งอยู่ในห้องก่อนที่จะพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					
22. Certain parts of my body feel very tense and rigid while giving an oral presentation as a tour guide. บางส่วนของร่างกายของฉันรู้สึกเกร็งและแข็งในขณะที่พูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					
23. Realizing that only a little time remains in an oral presentation makes me very tense and anxious. เมื่อทราบว่าเวลาเหลือน้อยแต่ยังคงอยู่ในการพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์ยังไม่จบทำให้ฉันเครียดและกังวลมาก					
24. While giving an oral presentation, I know I can control my feelings of tension and stress. ในขณะที่พูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์ฉันรู้ว่าฉันสามารถควบคุมความเครียดและความวิตกกังวลได้					
25 I breathe faster just before starting an oral presentation. ฉันหายใจเร็วขึ้นเพียงแค่ก่อนที่จะเริ่มพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					
26 I feel comfortable and relaxed in the hour or so just before giving oral presentation. ฉันรู้สึกสบายและผ่อนคลายเพียงแค่ก่อนที่จะพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					
27. I do poorer on giving an oral presentation because I am anxious. ฉันพูดนำแสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์ได้แย่มากเพราะฉันกระวนกระวาย					
28 I feel anxious when the teacher announces the date of giving oral presentation ฉันรู้สึกกังวลเมื่อครูประกาศวันที่ต้องพูดนำเสนอ					
29. When I make a mistake while giving oral presentation as a tour guide, I find it hard to concentrate on the parts that follow. เมื่อฉันทำผิดพลาดในขณะที่พูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์ฉันพบว่ามันยากที่จะมีสมาธิพูดในส่วนที่ต้องพูดตามมา					
30. During an important oral presentation as a tour guide, I experience a feeling of helplessness building up inside me. ในระหว่างการพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์ฉันได้สัมผัสกับความรู้สึกของการทำอะไรไม่ถูกเกิดขึ้นกับฉัน					
31. I have trouble falling asleep the night before giving oral presentation. ฉันมีปัญหาในการนอนหลับคืนก่อนที่จะพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					
32. My heart beats very fast while I present an oral presentation. หัวใจของฉันเต้นเร็วมากเมื่อฉันพูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					
33. I feel anxious while waiting to give my oral presentation. ฉันรู้สึกกังวลในขณะที่รอเพื่อที่จะพูดการนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์					
34. While giving an oral presentation, I get so nervous I forget facts I really know. ในขณะที่พูดนำเสนอแบบมัคคุเทศก์ฉันรู้สึกวิตกกังวลเสียจนลืมข้อเท็จจริงที่ฉันรู้ไปหมด					

Case Study

Exploring Indonesian Interference on Morpho- Syntactic Properties by Javanese Speakers: A Case Study of English Lecturers and Students' Interaction in Two Colleges in East Java, Indonesia

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents an analysis of integrating morpho-syntactic theory in Indonesian interference which is influenced by lexical terms in L1 (Javanese) and L2 (Indonesian). The data were collected through questionnaires with a set of 12 open-ended questions, 14 durative texts containing interference in lecturer-student interaction, observation, interviews, and discussions with some experts in related research. This study involves 249 Indonesian undergraduate students who were majoring in English, and took speaking class, and joined presentations in content courses, together with their 10 English lecturers. The students and English lecturers conducted communicative classroom interactions in English teaching and learning process in IAIN and STKIP PGRI Tulungagung, East Java Indonesia. The data was analysed using a descriptive qualitative approach. The finding revealed that nine morpho-syntactic types and patterns of Indonesian interference are developed significantly with morpho-syntactic classification and properties including number, case, tense, mood, diathesis, agreement, comparative degree, aspect, and word class; three main patterns consisting of phrases (NP, VP, Adj P, Adv P), clauses and sentences. Interference is defined as the tendency to misuse English, which is students' L3 (third language) in student-student and student-lecturer interaction due to the influence of Indonesian and Javanese structures. The study also showed that both L1 and L2 could not be the predicting factors

in interference occurrence. This may be attributed to their competence in acquiring a foreign language such as English. The results highlight that contextual English learning efforts based on students' needs and English lecturers' competence should be created. As English teachers and lecturers, they can make an effort by fulfilling the requirements as professional advanced models.

Keywords: English lecturers, interference, Indonesian, Javanese, morpho-syntactic, undergraduate students

INTRODUCTION

Public awareness on the importance of English as the main means of communication in this global era has been increasing. In Indonesia, using and learning two or three languages among students and English lecturers, with English as the third language (L3) or foreign language (FL), and Javanese as the mother tongue or first language (L1) and Indonesian as a second language (L2) have received considerable attention. In general, the context of English language learning and teaching (ELLT), and the goal of teaching English is to develop students' communicative competence, that is, to gain substantial ability to communicate in a variety of communicative situations. However, there is indication that speakers' oral production is unsatisfactory because of cross linguistic influences (Oddlin, 2003). Some previous studies were conducted related to bilingual interference, especially in identification of using Indonesian (L1) in English as second language (Agustin, Warsono, & Mujiyanto, 2015; Maisaroh,

2010; Rohimah, 2013; Yudanika, 2017), for example, in recount text, describing interference types, and clarifying the most dominant sources of Indonesian interference. It must be noted that the more complicated the structure, the more difficult it is for students to write English sentences (Maisaroh, 2010). Using the first language structure in explaining problems related to culture and the difficult concepts of English structure can be helpful for English teachers and students but is not a good way of learning English (Agustin et al., 2015). Meanwhile, another study conducted by Yudanika (2017) found acquisition of balanced English pronunciation and factors had influence on five respondents from Javanese, Ambonese and Palembangnese tribes but this study did not observe the background of these tribes which could influence their pronunciation acquisition; it was only mentioned that the process of acquisition is dependent on the situation and environment. This means that these studies only compared the Indonesian structure in translating English whose results are not suitable in the classifying of students at intermediate level. The background of the research subjects was not taken into consideration, as they were Javanese speakers, with Indonesian and English as their foreign languages. In other words, a few studies were conducted related to students' and lecturers' competence, especially comparing students' and English lecturers' competence in one or two groups. Furthermore, little is known about how multilingual speakers (of Javanese and Indonesian) use English in spontaneous

settings like conducting interactions in class, especially for the students and English lecturers who study and teach in IAIN and STKIP PGRI Tulungagung. Even though English lecturers of both these educational institutions apply many learning strategies in teaching English as a foreign language, students do not use English more actively. In fact, the teaching and learning process among students and students and lecturers of IAIN and STKIP PGRI Tulungagung is not carried out effectively even though various English as a Foreign Language (EFL) strategies have been implemented, such as individual and group presentations, show biz performance, and turn taking activities. This indicates that the teaching of English language is faced with problems when students and English lecturers conduct classroom interactions using various communicative strategies. Unfortunately, most previous studies have only focused on students, and did not capture the intact grammatical context problems in classroom interactions, especially in English language teaching. As such, this study is conducted to fill the research gap.

English language teaching is one of the domains of language teaching research. Language teaching research has suffered over the last four to five decades from a misguided preoccupation with theories and methods. Most of the investigations have focused on three aspects, namely, actual classroom materials and technique used, curriculum reform, and inadequate students' and teachers' proficiency (Al-Isaa, Bulushi, & Zadjali, 2017; Darwish, 2016; Howe &

Abedien, 2013; Manyike & Lemmer, 2014; Seghayer, 2014; Thurgood, 2013). Some linguists have also conducted studies related to actual classroom materials and techniques (Darwish, 2016; Howe & Abedin, 2013; Thurgood, 2013) while some others have investigated curriculum reform (Manyike & Lemmer, 2014; Seghayer, 2014). Another study investigated inadequate English language proficiency (Al-Isaa et al., 2017) and found the university senior ELT academics' differing ideologies to bear negative implications on shaping ELT language proficiency. The differences and implications were recorded in ideological contest, and conflicts between the colonist / culturalist ideology versus rationalism / neoliberalism ideology due to struggle over space and production, legitimacy, monopoly of academic, cultural, linguistic, economic and politic capital. Thurgood (2013) found the educators' methodology to have little consequence on the teaching and learning that took place in the classrooms. He further contended that rather than being real, much of the theory seemed to be a hypothetical construct with little direct connection to the classroom. Another study was also conducted to investigate a review of key research efforts in language in education in South Africa over the last four decades which had been characterised by a turbulent social-political landscape and had enforced English as the medium of instruction in black education. The study found little variance in the challenges that affected learners and teachers in South African schools including overcrowding with inadequate language

learning materials and an under-qualified teaching corps, particularly with regard to appropriate theories of SLA (Manyike & Lemmer, 2014). Meanwhile, Seghayer (2014) examined the common constraints affecting English teaching in Saudi Arabia related to students' beliefs, aspects of curriculum, pedagogy and administrative processes; the result showed that the EFL profession in Saudi Arabia was in great need of a well-developed national EFL curriculum, which had adopted relevant teaching methods and effective means of evaluation. Meanwhile, Howe and Abedin (2013) found that classroom dialogue could be used by teachers to monitor when the lessons were in progress, parallel with commitment to assessment using qualitative methods. Another study conducted by Darwish (2016) found Communication Language Teaching Approach (CLTA) to be critically evaluated as the theoretical principle in the practice of teaching English as a foreign language in Arab, and as an umbrella for all teaching methods whose goals were to improve students' ability to communicate using three approaches such as Task Based Approach, Humanistic Approach and Total Physical Response (TPR), with a few modifications and regulations. All these previous studies have indicated that language teaching research needs to conduct further investigations to improve ELT in areas of pedagogy, use of authentic materials, teaching techniques, and ELT programme planning and implementation, especially in improving lecturers' or ELT

practitioners' quality in schools. The same problems were also encountered in English language teaching research in Indonesia, related to pedagogical problems, especially in IAIN and STKIP PGRI Tulungagung, which is a result of inactivity in using English and influences of cross linguistics knowledge. Most of the students in these two educational institutions, IAIN and STKIP PGRI Tulungagung are afraid of making mistakes and prefer to speak Javanese and Indonesian as they lack self confidence. The influence of cross linguistics knowledge is one of the main reasons for this.

Ideally, the English teaching and learning process in these classroom interactions among student-student and student-lecturers can be carried out efficiently, although there may be some hindrances to face. Even though English lecturers are facilitators, educators and the source of study, most of them are non native speakers. As non native speakers, they have their own mother tongue or L1, and L2, and when they communicate using L3 or English expressions, both L1 and L2 structures will influence them and cause language interference. In order to get an intact description about the types and patterns of morpho-syntactic interference which most students and English lecturers face and the factors that cause these interferences in ELLT, it is important to consider this problem. This phenomenon arises and can be observed in the context of English language learning and teaching (ELLT) process, but it can also happen in any situation because a

person does not have any cross linguistics when they translate information to L2 or L3 (Ellis, 2008; Matthews, 2011). Morpho-syntactic interference is one of the uses of L1 grammatical elements (Baker as cited in Mocinic, 2011). It becomes one of the non-native speakers' problems to communicate in English, especially for students and English lecturers. A detailed overview of the previous studies related to the topic is presented in the following section.

During the interference process, there are many errors which comprise two classifications, that is, morphological and syntactical. Some linguists have conducted studies about morphological aspects on learners (Renner, 2014; Short, et al., 2015; Witney, 2015) while some others have observed the syntactical rules related to the parameter of verbs movement, word order of adjectives and nouns in Arabic-French bilinguals (Hermas, 2010; Kur, 2009). Renner (2014) studied the identification of various syntactical orders or agreement. Lateral (morpho) syntactic transfer and non-native transfer at the level of morphology and syntax from French among L1 English learners of Spanish in an instructed language-learning environment was also explored, where learners' experiences and strategies of learning foreign language and learning environment in which the inter lingual relationships were explored (Witney, 2015). Meanwhile Short et al. (2015) examined the use of longitudinal syntactic of L2 learners and the consideration of language performance and cognitive ability. Another study was also conducted to

examine the grammatical class and gender process system as part of speakers' syntax error (Chatterjee, 2015). Most of these studies focused on the interference of grammatical aspects (word categories and syntactical features) of learning other languages which were produced by learners. Again, most of the previous studies only focused on students' difficulties in using grammatical structures but did not capture the integrity of grammatical context, where not only students as the object in the teaching and learning process, but also English lecturers face similar issues. As non native speakers (NNS), they commit errors when conducting interactions with students. As a role model, not only English lecturers should become competent, but also English students, as candidates of future teachers, should have better communicative competence in using English more fluently. It is therefore, important to conduct a study to capture students' and lecturers' integrity of grammatical context especially in natural classroom setting, as well as the types and patterns of grammatical aspects and the factors which contribute to their problems when conducting spontaneous interactions.

The above-mentioned phenomenon is an important consideration for any educational institution, such as State Islamic Institute of Tulungagung and PGRI Teacher Training College of Tulungagung to describe interference problems in lecturer-student interactions including types, patterns and factors that cause interference. Accordingly, it is significant to conduct a study to capture morpho-syntactic interference

from the students' point of view and also of lecturers'perception. The focus of the study is finding answers to three specific questions: first, what types of Indonesian interference on morpho-syntactic property occur among Javanese speakers, second, what are the patterns of Indonesian interference on morpho-syntactic among Javanese speakers, and finally, why this interference occurs.

Lecturer-Student Interaction in ELLT and Indonesian Interference on Morpho-syntactic Property

Interaction is the collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings or ideas, between two or more people. The interaction between lecturers and students plays a significant role in all classroom activities because through interaction with teachers or lecturers, students can increase their language store and use all the language they possess (Liu & Zhao, 2010). They also get opportunities to understand and use the language that was once incomprehensible. In addition, they are able to receive input and have more opportunities for output. Interaction is an important concept for English language teachers as well. Therefore, since the 1970s, many researchers have realised that successful language learning depends heavily on the type of interaction that takes place in the classroom (Ellis, 2008). In some studies, researchers have explored the interaction process like negotiation of meaning, provision of feedback and production modified output that would promote L2 development (Gass & Mackey, 2007; Mackey, 2007a, 2007b; McDonough,

2004). The development and success of a class depends to a greater extent, on the interaction between the teacher and students. It is also argued that interaction facilitates acquisition because of the conversational and linguistic modifications that occur in such discourse that provide learners with the input they need (Tsui & Long as cited in Wang, 2011). In fact not all suggestions and findings of previous studies and theories can be implemented in the same context in both these educational institutions. Possibly, there are many other reasons which can be based only on theoretical background. It seems that most of the previous studies still focused on the formal or theoretical background, but the factors behind the students' and English lecturers 'problems have yet to be probed. A further study of exploring their perceptions would help students and lecturers to understand the concept in the difference among L1 and L2 learners' acquisition process and the practical skills which can be developed in learning L3 in natural classroom setting.

Classroom interaction is an activity of communicative competence. It is stated that through classroom interaction, the plan produces outcome (input, practice, opportunities and receptivity), especially in the teaching and learning process. It is well known that in large settings including Indonesia, especially in universities, teaching English is associated with producing communicative competence and academic language competence (Cummins, 2013). Communicative competence deals with accent, oral fluency, pauses, pragmatic

and linguistic competence. Academic language competence consists of syntax, vocabulary and morphological rules. Both forms of competence have an impact on how communication among students and teachers is built effectively. One of the influences of using academic language competence is the increase of interference. In this context, interference means language transfer or cross linguistic influence which occurs in any situation when someone does not have a native-level command of language, when translating to L2 or L3 (Oddlin, 2008).

Interference focuses on structure and constructions; it is related to the notions of morphology and syntax which emerge as two components of grammar. In this case, morphology can be understood as the study of structure and formation of words, while syntax is the study of rules to combine words into phrases and phrases into sentences (Aronoff & Fudeman, 2011; Lieber, 2009). Meanwhile Chomsky's (1965) Universal Grammar (UG) states that all languages share common basic features. Principally, and according to traditional grammarians, a sentence is "a group of words containing a subject plus a predicate and expressing a complete thought" (LaPambora, 1976). In other words, it focuses on using descriptive grammar analysis in describing the language, its structure, and the syntactic rules that govern sentence and phrase construction (Greenbaum & Quirk, 1990). Some linguists maintain that morphological errors indicate the learner's miscomprehension of the meaning and function of morphemes and

morphological rules (Ur, 2009). These types of errors may include such errors as omission of plural nouns, lack of subject-verb agreement, adjective-noun agreement, verb tense or form, articles or other errors. On the other hand, syntactic errors are those which disobey the phrase structure rules and, in this way, violate the formation of grammatically correct sentences (Fowler, 2009). These errors can be exemplified as word order, non-grammatical sentence constructions resulting from incorrect use of verbs, prepositions, articles, (and/or) relative clauses in sentences or related to the morpho-syntactic property.

The morpho-syntactic property is central to understanding the organisation of a language paradigm and as a property which serves to distinguish phrases of the same category according to the different ways in which they participate in syntactical relations such as agreement and government (Stump, 2003). In other words, a morpho-syntactic property takes the form of a pairing of a morpho-syntactic feature with one of its permissible values such as verb form, mood, number, person, tense, passive voice, and gender, case or preteritum and subject verb agreement. All these features are used to classify the interference which occurs in students and lecturers' utterances in ELLT.

Based on the explanation above, it can be argued that a research related to Indonesian interference on morpho-syntactic use in classroom interaction is relevant. Speaking is a productive skill or communicative competence which is useful for conducting communication.

Communicative competence includes oral fluency, pauses, and academic language competence which consists of syntax, vocabulary and morphological rules, which are two types of competence which have to be mastered by language users. It is deemed that probing the integrity of grammatical context in classroom interactions would reveal students' and lecturers' problems in their academic competence and communicative competence. In this context, lecturers as role models and the English programme majoring students as candidates of teachers, have to be good at oral fluency and grammatical competence. Hence, this study was carried out in order to improve the teaching and learning atmosphere and competence.

METHODS

This study is aimed at capturing Indonesian morpho-syntactic interference in interactions between English lecturers and their students in ELLT. It is a descriptive qualitative probe of a case study, SLA, contrastive analysis, and Krashen's Monitor Model. The case study analysed two educational institutions and comparative study was conducted in order to know the use of L1 structure or second language (L2) in English as a case language study in classroom based research (Dyson & Genishi, 2009; Gass, 2011). The 59 respondents, ranging from the first to seventh semester students were selected using purposive sampling of 249 students, five English lecturers of State Islamic Institute of Tulungagung and five English lecturers of PGRI Teacher Training College

of Tulungagung, East Java, Indonesia (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, & Razvieh, 2010; Gabryś-Barker & Wojtaszek, 2014). Random sampling was also taken based on class grouping, which was classified according to their entrance test in the two institutions. A class was considered for students who had excellent competence, B was intermediate, while C, D, and E classes were for fair students.

Both these educational institutions have English programme majoring students, with the highest student number in the southern area, Tulungagung, East Java, Indonesia. Besides, IAIN Tulungagung is one of the state institutions in the Kediri region and STKIP PGRI is a private institute for most part time students. Both are a better choice for the Tulungagung society, instead of sending their children to other public or private institutions. The research instruments were observation, 14 durative texts, questionnaires, interview and discussions with experts in related research. Observation was taken as pre survey and conducted three times for each class by taking field notes about the teaching and learning process among students and English lecturers. Documentation was done of spoken texts of the courses, taken and recorded the classroom interactions among students and English lecturers by using handy-cam and subsequently transcribing them into durative texts in order to get through the process of themes of the utterance texts based on segmentation and proposition in themes. It was done to capture the lingual level as morphemes, phrases, and

clauses (Sudaryanto, 2017). Each class had five meetings. There were 14 classes - seven classes of English programme of IAIN, and seven classes of English programme of STKIP PGRI Tulungagung. The first phase of data analysis was choosing the 14 durative texts which contained the most interference. By analysing these data, the types and pattern of Indonesian interference on morpho-syntactic properties was known. The second phase of data analysis was a questionnaire which consisted of a set of 12 open-ended questions to capture the students' and lecturers' confirmation sheet, along with utterances containing interference. Interview was conducted to know the reasons, and why the interference occurred. To validate the data, discussions with validators and experts were required based on native speakers' perceptions about the integrity of grammatical contexts.

To analyse the data, interactive analysis model of Huberman and Huberman (as cited in Sutopo, 2006) was applied in four steps which were not in chronological order but simultaneous. Following this, each datum was compared in interactions during data collection, data analysis and other activities such as noting down, reporting temporal, and reviewing research questions. Spradley's (2006) and Santosa's (2017) ethnography studies consisted of four analyses - the first was domain, which was broken down into three sub-domains, namely students' and English lecturers' utterances such as word, phrase, and clause, contrastive analysis, monitor model input, limited time, focused form, output and SLA (Johansson, 2008;

Krashen, 1981); the second was taxonomy which was obviously developed into nine types of forms and patterns. To find out the answer to the research questions, this research used the morphology inflections (Stump, 2003) and Chomsky's (1995) theoretical framework.

The domains above were used to analyse all the data related to reducing Indonesian interference, the factors, and the efforts of improving students' and English lecturers' competence as models. The last theme is cultural analysis which is related to students and English lecturers' interference influenced by Javanese and Indonesian structures.

In other words, utterance or input which causes interference is influenced by the mental concepts of students and English lecturers. It has three parts: 1) limited time, 2) form or correctness, and, 3) correct mental representation, in this case, the monitor is used as controller (Krashen, 1987). In the next phase, the input, lexicon or any utterance, if compatible with the L3 structure was classified into types of morphosyntactic property and syntactical structure. The utterances as token should be relevant with L3 syntactical structures. They could be phrases, clauses or sentences, which move from the input into syntactical structures using diagram tree. These utterances and structures were reviewed with the contrastive analysis theory for the three languages - L1, L2 and L3 structures. Other factors such as habit, situation, learning and language environment among the language users or speakers were also

probed, whereby affirmative responses indicated interference. These selected utterances were then validated by native speakers and experts of related research in order to capture the integrity of grammatical context. In this context, the SLA theory was also considered, together with inter language development and sociocultural theory (every speaker and English lecturer has his / her own development of L3 acquisition and has been influenced by the socio or cultural context related to the degree of motivation to use or learn L3).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data on Indonesian interference morpho-syntactic property were defined as a tendency to misuse English expressions because of the influence of Indonesian structures among students and lecturers. From the analysis, the first research objective was met, that is, the nine types of morphosyntactic properties which enhance teaching and learning English interaction: (i) number, (ii) tense; (iii) case; (iv) aspect; (v) mood; (vi) diathesis; (vii) SVA; (viii) degree of comparison, and (viii) word class. The second objective is the pattern of morphosyntactic property: (1) phrases, which are (i) noun phrase which consists of (a) number, (b) case, (ii) verb phrase which consists of (a) tense, (b) diathesis, (c) modus, (d) SVA, (e) aspect- frequentive, (iii) adjective phrase which consists of (a) nominal sentence in present future tense, (b) degree of comparison, (c) word class, (iv) adverb of phrase which consists of (a) aspect-durative; (2) clauses or sentences which consist of (a) past perfect tense, (b) mood subtipe negative imperative, (c) dative as object in appositive as non wh relative, (d) constructing nominal sentence in present future tense. The third objective is to answer the factors of Indonesian interference on morpho-syntactic property - students' and lecturers' perspectives.

The Types of Morpho-Syntactic Property Interference in ELLT

Observations found interference of morpho-syntactic structures related to the use of morpho-syntactic properties (see Figure 1), namely, the number. It was revealed that most of the subjects made errors in using numbers - 22 % of the errors showed that morphology-syntactic interference on regular plural, irregular plural and irregular singular noun was the highest percentage, although in Indonesian structure, there is no lexical suffix-s /es/ for regular plural noun. There were two errors (1%) of using case property, which were confusion in the use of nominative and dative. Moreover, 21% of error frequency was of tense property, which showed that they faced difficulties constructing sentences using simple past, present perfect, past perfect, and simple future tense. About 3% of the respondents made mood errors (indicative and imperative) and most of the subjects (20%) also made errors on diathesis, especially on how to construct stative passive, active and passive. It was also found that 15 % of the subjects made errors in using agreement (verb, pronoun and noun for first, second and third persons), and some subjects (3%)

also made errors in using comparative degree (positive degree, one syllable, two or more syllables, and preference). It was found that 10 subjects (7%) made errors using aspect (frequentive and durative) and

finally, 8% made errors in using word class. In particular, number property interference most frequently occurred in ELLT in these two institutions - 25 times in total, which can be seen in Figure 1.
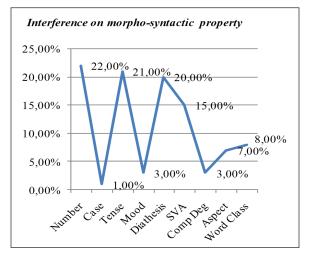
Figure 1. Percentage of errors frequency of MSI property

The number of words, phrases and clauses displayed in the table above represents the morpho-syntactic interference properties produced by the subjects. However, in order to know the details of Indonesian influence in their sentences, the sentence structures in Indonesian must also be studied. In the utterances produced by the subjects, it can be seen that most of the subjects made number property interference by eliminating /-s/ the regular plural noun (21 times), for example: **"**Okay, thank you for your attention. If I have *many mistake*...", while the correct sentence should be "... If I have made *many mistakes*, I do apologise." This is followed by errors in using case property. It has two sub types - nominative and dative; Subject 15 (the English lecturer)

made an error in nominative (once): "Ya... This is just pronunciation, the circle one is represent to those *they* are to focus to train yourself to pronounce accurately", instead of "… the circle one represents your performance, and *it*'s focused to train yourself to pronounce accurately." Subject 2 also made the error in using dative (once) like this: "This is ... *I am* representative come from Master Chef Indonesia." The correct form is: "*It's me,* a representative from Master Chef Indonesia."

There were also tense errors (23 times) like this one: "Well, last week we *have materi* on TV show" instead of "… we had material on the TV show" (five times in using simple past tense); "Ya, because the men *no prepare* yet about his work", instead of "… the men

have not prepared for their work yet.*"* The subjects also had influence of Indonesian structure in using mood (six times), as in the following declarative sentence (three times): "We have *independent* since in 1945 but I think Indonesia is not independent in term of education although we have *change* the curricula *almost very* but *improve* Indonesia education hasn't be able with the mutual countries …" The correct sentence should be: "We have been *independent* since 1945 but I think Indonesia has not *been independent* yet in terms of education although we have *changed* the curricula *very often* but the *improvement* of Indonesian education hasn't been equal to the other countries" and interrogative sentence (once), "All of you in here who are don't know about? *Who are don't know* with the music? Please rise up your hand. Okay, so all of you are familiar with music right*?* The sentence should be written as: "Who *doesn't know* about music*?"* They also made errors in exclamative sentence (once), for example, *"how please* and to have a opportunity to my dear.*"* The correct expression should be: *"How pleased* to have an opportunity …" Another error was in imperative negative (once), for example, "must *avoid is don't you to consume …",* instead of" *Don't consume it!"*

Additionally, the errors also occurred in the use of diathesis (22 times) including stative passive. The English lecturer made errors as in the following sentence: "Five-seven minutes that's time for you to get *start",* instead of "Five-seven minutes is enough time for you *to get started.*" Error

in subject in active sentence was: "The teacher can … sex educate in order that the teenager *will be avoid* sex before married*",* while the correct form is: "The teacher can impart sex education so that teenagers *will avoid sex* before marriage." Errors in the use of passive sentence were also committed (nine times) such as: *"*So sex education *must be focus* on teenager since elementary school*",* while the correct form is, "So, sex education *must be focused* on teenagers since elementary school." The subjects were also found to be confused when constructing subject-verb agreement by using verb third singular person (six times) for example: "The teacher *make* of some of small groups" instead of "The teacher *makes* some of the groups small**".** This finding is also in line with the lexical theories of inflection as these associations are listed in the lexicon - the affix-s, for example, has a lexical entry which specifies its association with morpho-syntactic properties 3sg subject agreement, present tense, and indicative mood (Stump, 2003). These theories portray the association between a lexeme root, its grammatical and semantic properties.

The subjects also faced difficulties in using comparison degree including positive degree (once) as the following example: "Yes, yes. *same with white?*" The correct sentence is: "Is it *the same price as* the white one?" There were five occurrences of comparative degree errors, for example: **"**Why I choose you because I know that you are *ready than other"* where the correct sentence is: *"*I chose you because I know that you are *more ready than others."*

The next is aspect property, the subjects made errors on frequentive (six times) as this example: "I think Indonesia is not independent in term of education although we have change *almost very …",* while the correct sentence is: "I think Indonesia has not been independent yet in terms of education although we have changed the curricula *very often.*" The subjects also made errors on using durative (four times), such as "… in Indonesia is *not changing* culture but the culture still", while the correct sentence should read as: "… Indonesian culture *does not change* but it is still being preserved." The last one is word classes (12 times), where the subjects made errors in using noun as the following, "And the *merried* must need much money," while the correct sentence is: "And *marriage* must have money", or "Marriage needs a lot of money." This points to show that most of the students were confused in constructing sentences by using English structure completely, especially when using number, tense, diathesis and SVA because of the influence of Indonesian structure. It

also can be said that the English lecturers also made errors in mood, tenses, diathesis stative passive, SVA, degree of comparison and word classes.

Most of the errors were inflectional morphology in using affixes - some are derivative like in comparative degree, frequentive, and word classes. This is similar to the study conducted by Hijjo (2013) who found that morphologically, students did not use the plural marks in a proper way and did not know how to differentiate between plural mark and 's' as the third singular mark. Thus, they sometimes generalise the idea of adding 's' I cases, as a plural mark and a third singular mark.

The Pattern of Indonesian Interference on Morpho-syntactic Property

The findings also show that the students and their English lecturers had problems with constructing phrases, clauses and sentence structures. In particular, phrase patterns interference most frequently occurred in ELLT with the 93 number of patterns which can be seen in the Figure 2 below:
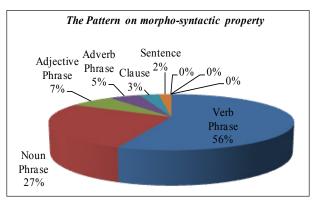
Figure 2. Percentage of pattern of interference on morpho-syntactic property

The percentage of the number of phrases, clauses and sentences displayed in the figure above represent the pattern on morpho-syntactic interference properties produced by the subjects. Syntactically, the data were analysed on sentence structure of the students' and English lecturers' interaction using syntactic structures. The resulting structure can be represented in terms of slanted line or labelled brackets (LaPambora, 1976; Radford, 2004). Based on the analysis using traditional grammar analysis, the main patterns were phrases, clauses or sentences.

The first is verb phrase (21 patterns), for example, "*Have you worked too hard or drinking something cold*", of which, the correct pattern is *"Have you worked too hard or drunk something cold?"* It seems clear that the grammatical properties of a phrase like *drunk something cold* are determined by the verb *drunk,* and not by the noun phrase *something cold.* Using the appropriate technical terminology, it can be said that the verb *drunk* is the head of the phrase *drunk something cold,* which is a verb phrase, and in the same way, it abbreviates category labels like verb to V, and the category label verb phrase can be abbreviated to VP. The first traditional grammar item identified individually by part of speech analysis is used to represent the category of the overall verb phrase as *drunk something cold,* it can be represented by the structure of the resulting verb phrase as follows:

drunk / something cold. Analytically, the slanted line indicates that the element on the left is the verb of the phrase as head and the element on the right is noun phrase. The words are identified individually by part of speech. In this case, *drunk* as verb and *something cold* as noun phrase, consists of *something* as noun and *cold* as adjective. If the traditional labelled bracketing technique is used to represent the category of the overall verb phrase *drunk something cold* and of its constituent words (the verb *drunk*, noun phrase, *it* consists of the noun *something* and the adjective *cold*), it can be represented by the structure of the resulting phrase as follows:

[$_{VP}$ [$_V$ *drunk*] [$_{NP}$ [$_N$ *something*] [$_{Adj}$ *cold*]]. What the traditional labelled bracketing in (2) tells is that the overall phrase *drunk something cold (VP)* has three constituents, which are verb (V) *drunk*, noun (N) *somethin*g and adjective (Adj) *cold*. The verb *drunk* is the head of the overall phrase (and so, is the key word which determines the grammatical and semantic properties of the phrase *drunk something cold*).

Then second is noun phrase (five patterns), for example: "After become *success,* you will married and you have child." The correct pattern is "After you become *a successful person*, you will *get married* and you will have *children*." It seems clear that the grammatical properties of a phrase like *a successful person* are determined by the noun *person*, and not by the article *a* and adjective *successful*. Using

the appropriate technical terminology, it can be said that noun *person* is the head of the phrase *a successful person*, which is a noun phrase*,* and in the same way, it abbreviates category labels like noun to N, and the category label noun phrase to NP. The second traditional grammar item identified individually by part of speech analysis is used to represent the category of the overall adjective phrase as *a successful person,* it can be represented by the structure of the resulting noun phrase as follows:

a successful | person. Analytically, the vertical line indicates the elements on the left are additional information as modifier and on the other hand, the elements on the right is the head. The words are identified individually by part of speech. In this case, *person* as noun, article *a*, and adjective *successful,* as noun phrase consist of *person* as noun, article *a*, and *successful* as adjective. If the traditional labelled bracketing technique is used to represent the category of the overall noun phrase *a successful person* and its constituent words (the article *a*, the adjective *successful* and the noun *person*), can be represented by the structure of the resulting phrase as follows:

[NP [Art *a*] [Adj *successful*] [N *person*]]. What the traditional labelled bracketing in (4) tells is that the overall phrase *a successful person (NP)* and its three constituents are article (Art) *a*, adjective (Adj) *successful* and noun (N) *person*.

The third is adjective phrase (four patterns), for example, "Y*ou're always prepare",* where the correct pattern is, "Y*ou're always well-prepared."* It is clearly stated that the grammatical properties of adjective phrase like *well-prepared* are determined by the adjective *prepared,* and not by the adverb *well*. Using the appropriate technical terminology, it can be said that the adjective *prepared* is the head of the phrase *well-prepared* which is an adjective phrase, and in the same way, it abbreviates category labels like adjective to Adj, and adjective phrase to Adj P. The third traditional grammar item identified individually by part of speech analysis is used to represent the category of the overall adjective phrase as *well-prepared* can be represented in the structure of the resulting adjective phrase as follows:

well / prepared. Analytically, the vertical line indicates the element on the left is additional information or modifier and the other element on the right is adjective *prepared* as head. If the traditional labelled bracketing technique is used to represent the category of the overall adjective phrase *well prepared* and of its constituent words (adjective *prepare*d, and adverb *well*), it can be represented by the structure of the resulting phrase as follows:

[Adj P [Adverb *well*] [Adj *prepared*]]. What the traditional labelled bracketing in (6) tells is that the phrase *well prepared* is adjective phrase (Adj P), and that its two constituents are adverb (adv) *well* and adjective (Adj) *prepared*.

The fourth is adverb phrase (two patterns). An example of the adverb phrase is: "*Ya, teenager in my village usual get married in the young*", where the correct pattern is, *"Ya, the teenagers in my village usually get married young.*" It is clearly stated that the grammatical properties of adverb phrase like *usually get married young* are determined by the adverb *usually*, and not by the verb phrase *get married young*. The fourth traditional grammar item identified individually by part of speech analysis is used to represent the category of the overall adverb phrase as *usually get married young,* it can be represented by the structure of the resulting adverb phrase as follows:

usually | get married young. Analytically, the vertical line shows the element on the left is the adverb of the phrase and elements on the right are verb phrase. Using the appropriate technical terminology, it is said that *usually* is the head of the phrase *usually get married young* and *usually get married young* is adverb phrase, and in the same way, it abbreviates category labels like adverb to Adv, and adverb phrase to Adv P. The traditional labelled bracketing technique is used to represent the category of the overall adverb phrase *usually get married young* as follows:

[$_{AdvP}$ [Adverb *usually*] [VP *prepared*]]. The traditional labelled bracketing in (8) tells that the overall phrase *usually get married young* is adverb phrase (Adv P), and that its two constituents are adverb (adv) *usually* and adjective (Adj) *prepared.*

The second main type is sub pattern of clauses (three patterns) for example, "*I told you that gave assignment to each group",* where the pattern should be, *"I had given the assignment when the bell rang."* The traditional grammar item identified individually by part of speech analysis is used to represent the category of the overall compound sentence as main clause *I had given the assignment* and sub clause *when the bell rang.* It can be represented by the structure of the resulting compound sentence as follows

I | had given/ the assignment when the bell| rang. Analytically, the vertical line indicates the elements on the left are main clause which consists of the subject of the sentence and on the other hand, elements on the right are the predicate of the sentence. Again, the slanted line indicates that the element on the left is the verb of the sentence and the element to the right is the object, *the assignment*, and the sub clause consists of the next element conjunction, subject of the sub clause and the predicate of the sentence. The words are identified individually by parts of speech. In this case, *I, assignment* and *bell* are nouns. The former is subject, the second is object, the third as subject, *the* as article, *had* as perfect auxiliary, *given* as verb, *when* as conjunction, and *rang* also as verb. This is similar to Alduais (2012) who posits that simple sentence in English can be defined and analysed from the point of view of traditional grammar. An alternative (equivalent) way of representing the structure of compound sentence like

I had given the assignment when the bell rang is via a traditional labelled bracketing technique such as (10) below:

[S [N I] P [Perfect Aux had] V given] [O [Art the] N assignment] [C [Conj when] [S [Art the] N bell] P [V rang]]. What the labelled bracket in (10), analytically tells is that S would stand for subject, P for predicate, O for Object and C for conjunction. N for nouns (*I, assignment, bell*), perfect aux for perfect auxiliary (*had*), V for verbs (*given, rang*), Art for articles (*the*), C for conjunction (*when*). Yet, those sentences have two nouns - one functions as the subject and the other as object.

The last is sentence (two patterns), that is, nominal sentence in present future tense, for example, *"Next meeting will you to time to practice"*, where the correct pattern is, *"Next meeting, it will be your time to practice."* The traditional grammar item identified individually by part of speech analysis is used to represent the category of the overall nominal sentence, *"Next meeting, it will be your time to practice",* can be represented by the structure of the resulting nominal sentence as in (11) below:

next meeting, it| will be /your time to practice. Analytically, in the beginning it is adverb of time, and the vertical line indicates the elements on the left are the subject of the sentence and on the right are the predicate of the sentence. Again, the slanted line indicates that the element on the left is predicate as complement (the future

auxiliary and copula of the sentence) and the element on the right is the object (*your time*), and to infinitive. The words are identified individually by parts of speech. In this case, *it* and *time* are nouns - the former is subject pronoun, the second is object, *your* as object pronoun, *will* as future auxiliary, *be* as copula, *next time* as adverb, and *to practice* as to infinitive. An alternative (equivalent) way of representing the structure of nominal sentence like *"Next meeting, it will be your time to practice"* is via a traditional labelled bracketing technique such as in (12) below:

[S [Adv Next time][Subj Pro It] P [Future Aux will] Cop be] [O [Obj Pro your] N time] [To Inf to practice]. What the labelled bracket in (10), analytically tells is that S would stand for subject, P for predicate, O for Object and Adv for adverb. Subj Pro for subject pronoun, *it*, N for noun *time,* future aux for future auxiliary *will*, Cop for copula *be*, obj pro for object pronoun *your,* and To Inf for to infinitive *to practice*. These sentences have two pronouns - one functions as the subject and the other as object. This is in line with Lookwood (2003) who says that phrases, clauses and sentences can be analysed from their patterns.

One of the remarkable differences is that there are morpho-syntatic inflections and derivation processes in English whereas these do not exist in Indonesian, parallel to Supriyanto's (2013) finding that syntactic interferences are dominated by phrase because phrase construction of English and Indonesian is different. Meanwhile, the

morphological interference is dominated by applying the base form of verbs in a sentence. This causes the students to speak English using the Indonesian structure. It is also caused by the different rules in Indonesian (L2) and English (L3), Indonesian language does not have morpho-syntactic process, for example, the use of to be, modal, auxiliary and differential verbs, -*ed* participle and irregular past. This means college ELLT learners may have the knowledge of language rules but their speaking generates errors. This is a result of the first language (L1), as well as L2 influence on the performance of the learners in L3. Herein the similarities and differences among grammar systems increase. It is called cross language and is argued that L3 learners should have the most difficulty with grammar systems if there is lack of L3 grammar (Gabrys, 2009).

To sum up, most of the subjects could not build sentences according to syntax because they were influenced by the Indonesian language sentence structure. It is also in line with Zainuddin (2016) who posits that most Indonesian students tend to follow the Indonesian language sentence structure. The present study has provided a syntactic account of Indonesian interference in VP, NP, Adj P, Adv P, clauses (including no wh relative clause, main clause and sub clause), sentences and showed how the patterns could be accounted for in the same construction based on framework used for other modifiers. Besides the said factor, most syntactic errors committed by the subjects can also be attributed to

lack of L3 knowledge or inappropriate unnatural word order as found by Solano et al. (2014) who posit that one of the most syntactical interferences in English is the misuse or inappropriate unnatural word order and is also in line with Tzaikou's research (2013) that the learners' beliefs are in fact influenced by their L2 proficiency: students at lower proficiency levels think that the L2 in general helps them less and that knowledge of vocabulary in the L2 also helps them less than do students of higher proficiency.

The Factors Influencing Indonesian Interference on Morpho-syntactic Property

Students' perspective is the first factor. Based on the questionnaire, there were 101 respondents (72%) who agreed that the factors causing Indonesian interference on morpho-syntactic property are lecturers' habits, students' motivation, and structure differences. The first reason is that when delivering teaching materials, teachers have the habit of using Indonesian structure both in English language skills (speaking, writing, reading, and listening) and in English content (sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, pragmatics, and discourse analysis). This is done to facilitate the students to understand the material so that they will not make a mistake in understanding the material. English lecturers often apply three ways in presenting materials, that is, using English with Indonesian structure, by translating to Indonesian (explained in Indonesian), and by using code mixing to explain the

materials. This is similar to the study by Mareva (2016), who revealed that ESL teachers code-switched from English to the learners' L1 as a teaching and learning tool, mainly to foster understanding among learners and between the learners and their teachers, as well as for other communicative functions.

The second reason is that students' motivation in developing their English language competence is still low. Most students speak English actively only during English class. With the family at home or with friends, they almost always communicate in Indonesian language. This habit causes the students to be influenced by the structure of Indonesian when speaking English. Most of them develop their English skills through movies on TV and videos on YouTube and use the social media to communicate in English. However, this is insufficient to optimally help them develop their English skills. English lecturers can also use three areas for enhancing the effectiveness of L2 learning and acquisition such as 1) the development of motivational strategies that generate and maintain the students'motivation to speak English, 2) the formation of self-motivating strategies that lead to autonomous and creative language learners, 3) teacher motivation, in this case in terms of their character and teaching methodology as parallel to Gkioka's research (2010) who postulates the application of motivation strategies in L2 or FL (foreign language) classroom by using three most important evolutionary approaches to motivation in the L2 field

(social-psychological, cognitive-situated and process-oriented approach). This also supports Suriati and Tajularipin (2012) who found that students who differed from each other in many ways, had different ways of expressing themselves and possessed different strengths and weaknesses. All these factors can affect students' learning ability.

The third reason is that there are a lot of differences between English and Indonesian structures. This is in line with the model of Lado's Contrastive Analysis which concedes that (1) CA provides a set of comprehensive analysis to compare two or more language systems which aim to describe the sameness and differences, (2) in this context, CA is based on a theory of language that claims that language is a habit and that language learning involves the establishment of new set of habits, and, (3) this context is suitable with the teaching and learning process in Indonesia. Based on the facts that English language learners or students can easily learn English if s/he finds the same features, as different features can be very difficult to learn (Aarts & Wekker, 1990; Gass & Selinker, 1994; Lado, 1957). On the contrary, the finding also shows that 28% of respondents argue that teachers often apply three ways in presenting the material, that is using English with Indonesian structure, by translating to Indonesian language (explained in Indonesian), and by using code mixing to explain the materials, which do not influence their English competence. They believe that they have mastered word classes so they are not influenced when the English college teachers apply the materials

using Indonesian English structure. The morpho-syntactic interference tends to be caused by student's low motivation in developing English language competence. Most of the students speak English actively only during English class. This is in support of Morozova (2013) who posited that poor speaking skills of Russian students was because of their unwillingness to communicate, which was due to many factors. It can be concluded that willingness to communicate (WTC) needs to be an important component of SLA.

English lecturers' perspective is the second factor. Based on the interview and confirmation sheet, 9 of 10 (90%) English lecturers agreed that they have their own perspective as to why there is interference. First, they answered that they were unaware of the interference, as they tend to focus on meaning, as if they did not commit the errors consciously. It relates to the aspect of mental concept that they speak spontaneously. Second, the different levels of English acquisition among users also cause interference. When Indonesian users (students or lecturers) talk or speak by focusing on form (grammar or structure), they would stumble and cannot speak fluently but if they focus on meaning, they speak fluently. This is in support of Yoke and Eng's (2012) research who found that the difference in learners' L1 and L2 acquisition process would imply that learning strategies applied should be different. Acquisition requires meaningful interaction in the target language natural communication, in which speakers are concerned not with the form

of their utterances but with the message they are conveying and trying to understand (Krashen, 1987). Language transfer in terms of L1, L2 influence on interlanguage development, and sociocultural theory also concerns learners or language users who are able to make use of L3 to mediate mental activity. Errors are viewed as indicators of learners' interlanguage development and also mental process. Besides, it also depends on (1) the extent to which L2 or L3 learners are able to use the L3 for private speech, (2) use L1 gestures in L3 communication, and (3) acquisition of L3 competence. These three points can be separated from motivation as viewed in relation to activity theory dynamic, constructed and reconstructed as students respond to the context of learning (Lantolf, 2006). The other factors which can be considered are (a) minimum number of habitual practices, especially interactions with other lecturers, and (b) unsupported situations, whereby interaction with partners are rare, as each is busy with full time teaching. When English lecturers interact with students, a gap is created as the students always do not understand the lecturers' language since the course content is not delivered in casual conversation. Hence, most of the lexical terms are difficult to understand for students.

Fourth, there is a belief among Indonesian speakers that it is normal to have errors as non native speakers (NNS). Essentially, as long as the errors can be understood all the distortions in meanings are acceptable because they think and speak spontaneously.

To facilitate the learning process teachers often construct sentences using Indonesian structures when teaching English. It is intended to facilitate students in understanding the material. Moreover, this is done to avoid distortion of communication (misconception) during content delivery, especially on the concept of language. Indirectly, this will lead to Indonesian language interference on morph-syntactic property in learning English because students' knowledge of English competence is still low and the English lecturers fear the students are unable to understand the materials if they teach fully in English. On the other hand, students argue that English lecturers should construct sentences using English structures despite making grammatical errors. By using code mixing to explain the materials and translating sentences to Indonesian language, students are expected to be motivated to improve their English skills. Students admit that they rarely practise English outside the classroom and tend to communicate in Indonesian. These habits lead to a condition that they are likely to be influenced by Indonesian structures when speaking English. In practice, they still feel nervous when doing presentations in front of the class in English and forget linguistic structures such as tenses, grammar, and vocabulary. Lecturers' habit of constructing sentences using Indonesian structures can lead students to follow their style when speaking. In interactive classroom teaching, students focus more on meaning instead of structure. They argue that as long as the meaning is acceptable and understandable, it would

not be a problem. In fact, the lecturers' opinion who tend to focus on meaning is contrary with the submission of Otaala and Plattner, (2013) who found that most English lecturers believed insufficient English language competence would cause a variety of problems for students such as difficulty in expressing themselves in English, following lectures and understanding academic texts.

CONCLUSION

Prior to this study a few other studies have been conducted to investigate the interference from speakers whose L1 and L2 are Javanese and Indonesian, particularly between English lecturers' and students' interaction in two colleges who are under-represented in L1 and L2 interference. Most previous studies examined L1 transfer, adopting Ellis' (2008) method for investigating L1 transfer. In the present study, nine types of errors and three patterns of morpho-syntactic properties from Stump (2003), namely, number, case, tense, mood, diathesis, agreement, comparative degree, aspect, word class and phrase (noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase, clauses (main clause and sub clause) and sentence (negative imperative, nominal sentence) were analysed. The finding of the present research on the types of Indonesian interference on morpho-syntactic property, such as number, tenses, diathesis and SVA interference can be considered to be the most dominant.

In fact, it is evident from the study that various morpho-syntactic interferences are because of students' and lecturers'

perspective including the lecturers' habits, students' motivation, different structure of L1 and L2, learning unsupported situation, minimum habit of conducting interaction among lecturers, and non-awareness of committing errors. However, in addition to several reasons available in literature, this study has elicited some new reasons such as the belief among Indonesian non native speakers (NNS) that it is acceptable to make errors and use code mixing to reduce distortion in communication. Due to frequent code mixing, it is considered to be communication strategy in content courses which use English, and then mix with Indonesian. This is similar to Baḡtürk and Gulmez (2011), Letica and Mardešic (2007) as well as Päl (2000), who also believed that cross-linguistic similarity was a significant factor in TL transfer and that similarities and positive transfers are helpful in promoting multilingual learning. It also supports Baḡtürk and Gulmez (2011) who found the languages of the same family to be easily learned just because these languages had common words and syntactical structures. It is further mentioned that the degree of linguistic constraint and communicative pressure, as well as the amount of exposure to L3, are important factors that affect L3 learning.

This study has several limitations; first, findings are based on the perceptions of students and English lecturers of State Islamic Institute of Tulungagung and PGRI Teacher Training College of Tulungagung who voluntarily agreed to respond to the interview and observation in the video recording. Therefore, participants may not be true representatives of all English students and lecturers in Indonesia or Asian countries. Second, this study analysed only fourteen durative texts or video recordings from July 2012 to 2014. Consequently, at other time periods the degree of acceptableness of students and lecturers towards interaction would not be the same. Further studies need to focus on collecting and analysing larger and more longitudinal data. It is suggested that future research focuses on comparing results from voluntary and non-voluntary English speakers and lecturers from other colleges in Indonesia, whose L1 is non Javanese such as Madurese, Bataknese, Sasaknese or other languages from Asian countries. Future studies should continue to examine the relationship among factors such as application of motivational strategies, competence model in quality standard, teaching strategies by giving suitable materials based on the speakers of Javanese, Indonesians' psychological conditions and assigning individual pilot project in analysing textual and contextual syntactical pattern of phrases and clauses using functional and structural grammar theories.

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SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES

Case Study

English Language Experience of International Graduate Students Seen in the Asian Context: A Case Study of Singapore

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ABSTRACT

This study attempts to examine the English Language experience of international students who pursue graduate programs in Singapore. International study or work experience has often been discussed in the topics of acculturation in communication scholarship and has provided important insights into the unique language challenges faced by students who move into new places, such as academic writing and speaking issues, social adjustment hassles, and so on. However, most of such discussions have been set in a Western context and also do not explore language as the central or the only topic of its discussion. In addition, articulations of language experience in an Asian context, especially in the setting of a multicultural and culturally accommodative (cosmopolitan) country of Singapore, is yet to be explored extensively. This study seeks to make a contribution in the context of this specific gap in research locating its insights specifically in the expressions of language experience among students in an Asian context. By using semi-structured in-depth interviews, the study seeks to collate and analyze English language experiences as well as identify connections between home and host country's language and cultural experience among international students in Singapore.

Keywords: English Language experience, home country, host country, international graduate students, Singapore

INTRODUCTION

The promotion of higher education internationalization is gradually but steadily receiving interest from students of various communities due to a number of reasons (Talebloo & Baki, 2013). By deciding

to go abroad to pursue an international program, students expect to be part of an education environment that possesses features such as an access to an experienced board of academic faculty staffs who have an international reputation, a student-centered system with focused career-orientation, chances to experience a cross-cultural life, well-established facilities, education standards which are widely recognized and eventually a promise of a rewarding profession in the future while holding degrees conferred by well-known institutions.

In terms of English proficiency particularly, there are unique challenges that a number of scholastic literatures have identified since this is a language deemed to be necessary for almost all academic paths not only within the period of student-being but also while they pursue a career (Hsu, 2009). A good command of English plays an important role in securing a satisfactory student life in a foreign country and when students return to their home country where they may engage in multiple activities requiring the knowledge of this language – owing to the ever-changing world where globalization is taking place (Marginson, Nyland, Sawir, & Forbes-Mewett, 2010).

Achieving expected levels of English proficiency is considered a key challenge and is believed to present many difficulties for international students. This may especially be the case with non-native English speakers (NNES) (Andrade, 2006) such as international graduate students from Asia, the student cohort studied in this paper,

who may have practiced using English only as a second language (Yeh & Inose, 2003).

Previous NNES studies grasp some usual problems that students from countries where English is not their mother tongue have to deal with in academic aspects, which could be categorized into four arrays: incoherent academic writing that gives birth to a chain of grammar and syntax mistakes, and ambiguous/awkward expression; issues in listening which lead to misunderstanding/misinterpretation; non-fluency in speaking which causes trouble in communication, especially when students are asked to join debates, seminar discussion, team work, presentation, and oral examination in which the content is unable to be exactly transmitted; and limited vocabulary which compresses the academic performance to a very basic and simple level (Lee & Rice, 2007; Lin & Yi, 1997).

Studies that deal with cultural adaptation issues such as difficulties in social adjustment, participation in classes, and extracurricular activities in multicultural universities cite the overwhelming extent to which English language knowledge helps determine both the academic and psychological adjustment of students (Yeh & Inose, 2003). Sometimes referred to as "Foreign Language anxiety" the concern to possess English language fluency among NNES has shown to impact the levels to which they are successfully able to achieve social connectedness and feel satisfied with their ability to efficiently mingle with fellow students, forging reliable relationships. This has also been suggested as an important

factor in establishing a social network outside of classroom conditions and to reach out to social support at times of need, all of which are important psychological coping strategies to deal with stress arising from the different living circumstances as well as unfamiliar academic situations (Lee & Rice, 2007; Rajapaksa & Dundes, 2002; Woodrow, 2006).

In terms of a graduate students' academic role, their proficiency in English not only impacts their performance but also their overall learning experience. As students who belong to a community where members mutually engage with others, share repertoires and engage in joint enterprises (Kim, 2011; Wenger, 2000), English language proficiency in both speaking and writing plays a crucial role in determining the success in their academic pursuits. Their multiple roles of being a student, practicing as a teaching assistant, being a supervisee, colleague and a member in their social circles demand functional and conversational knowledge of English besides the ability to engage in professional writing and thinking (Myles & Cheng, 2003). However, previous studies have limited themselves to discussing either academic or non-academic scenarios separately with little discussed holistically tying together the two scenarios. The absence of a comprehensive understanding of the whole experience of international students is noticeable.

Besides the host country experience, the home country experience does matter for their overall English language experience.

Partly owing to their cultural backgrounds and the style of language training received in their home countries, which focuses more on writing rather than speaking, high scores in the qualifying exams may not truly reflect students' competence (Kuo, 2011; Sun & Chen, 1999). It is not uncommon to see students reluctant to take part in classroom discussions or facing issues adapting to environments that may demand greater use of their speaking skills, as in the case of classroom presentations (Sawir, 2005). Factoring in some underpinning considerations, it is important to note that in many Asian countries, the possibility of having competent teachers/speakers is limited wherein many a time instructions may wholly or partly be provided in the native language and the opportunities to use English outside of classrooms are relatively limited. Besides the issues observed in speaking skills use, graduate students also face difficulties in producing effective professional/academic writing (Williams, 2017). Asian countries such as India and China have been noted for its reliance on writing and rote learning as key methods of education practiced in schools and colleges. In addition, opportunities to speak English such as conducting seminars or presentations are less relied options in teaching methods as well. Furthermore, English in most Asian countries is not the first language and is often seen as an aside/additional training in terms of gaining comfortable levels of proficiency in writing and speaking (Liyanage & Walker, 2014). As a possible consequence, students experience both writing and

speaking difficulties, especially when dealing with academic tasks. Oftentimes, the standards of writing expected in regard to language strength and creativity may not be achievable with existing levels training, exposure and knowledge they possess (Kim, 2006)

This may be particularly distressing for the students who have been high achievers in their home countries. The inability to effectively articulate themselves academically can work unfavorably toward their acculturation process (Kim, 2006). These studies grasping home country experience give us insights about the potential linkage between home country experience and host country experience. But they all fail to link these two experiences together and to focus on some specific perspectives. NNES studies (Huang, 2014; Lueg & Lueg, 2015; Shi, Harrison, & Henry, 2017) mainly pay attention to the pedagogical experience in intercultural interaction related to language use of international students. However, few research focus on the potential linkage with Universities' pedagogical culture. Furthermore, studies seem to reiterate pedagogical aspects, ignoring other experiences that also define students' international study experience such as circumstances outside academics.

To complement the theoretical understanding of life experience, neo-racism (Balibar, 2007) provides new perspectives toward the intercultural exchange. Neo-racism essentially implies that racism as a form of discrimination exists in international study environments in hierarchies. For instance, Caucasian students are likely to suffer less owing to their race and the places they originate from in comparison to students who come from other regions and races such as students from Asia and Africa. Lee and Rice (2007) tried to use this frame to understand the negative experience perceived by international students. They found out that the perception of discrimination really existed, which was based on a cultural hierarchy wherein differences in the culture of an "other" (non-native speakers) group served to bolster sentiments of superiority of the native speakers. Specifically, while international students generally go through the feeling of discomfort, verbal discrimination and direct confrontation, Caucasian English-speaking international students are able to keep a close distance with local students and may suffer less. However, this perspective does not inspect the function of language use, as the focus is mainly on the adaptation process. The comprehensive understanding of language proficiency for international students, especially on the relationship with the cultural structure still remains blank. As language fluency may construct identities (Le Ha, 2009), it is important to account for this to build a comprehensive understanding of cultural structures.

Besides the frame of neo-racism, cultural shock theories give us new insight into international English language experience. The cultural, social, academic, and language issues all make up the transition costs in the experiences of international students (McLachlan & Justice, 2009).

The paper, in light of the aforementioned literature, argues that insights of language experience among students need to be more profound and comprehensive in order to tie together experiences in academic, non-academic, and past language experiences. The paper likewise acknowledges that personal, social, and professional lives along with a person's background influence each other and do not work in isolation.

In keeping with the aforementioned statement, the paper tries to answer the following research questions. While the primary question is to answer the language experience in university life in general, the sub-questions specifically cover academic, non-academic and home country scenarios.

RQ: How would the students describe their English language experience in their university life?

RQa: How would the students describe their experience of English language use in academic tasks?

RQb: How would the students describe their experience of English language use in non-academic tasks such as extracurricular activities and social adjustment?

RQc: How would the students describe their experience of English language use in academic and non-academic settings in their home country?

From what we have observed, in terms of research on international students well-being, the focus is mainly set on undergraduate students who pursue programs in the United States or European universities (Mills, 1997; Myles & Cheng, 2003; Rajapaksa & Dundes, 2002) while studies on graduate students and in the Asian context are fewer and under-researched. Within the scale of this study which is an endeavor to fill the void as well as to provide a new insight into the experience of international graduate students, we try to examine the case of Singapore, a country that is emerging to be a global education hub in the Southeast Asian context owing to it competitive advantages. In particular, it is strategically located close to top source countries for international students. Singapore also possesses a strong academic reputation due to a well-developed public education system with world-class universities, private colleges, and a myriad of overseas campuses of western universities where English is the main medium of communication and instruction.

METHODS

The deployment of a qualitative approach is the salient feature of this research. Given the situation and the characteristics of the subject, phenomenology was identified to be the main theoretical framework embracing this study. The compatibility of this research tradition with qualitative approach has been researched and confirmed (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003).

What we receive and reflect in the Results section of this report is totally based on interviews with three participants who are international graduate students and volunteered to take part in a semi-structured interview that concentrated on how they

express their experience with the English Language. The following paragraphs are designed to depict the sampling methods we employed to recruit interviewees, participants' specifications, procedures for data collection and analysis, as well as the process of data plausibility assurance.

Targeted Population

During the phase of data collection, we recruited participants by placing an invitation in an email sent to people who belong to our circle of familiarity at a public university in Singapore. Besides this, we also made direct phone calls to potential participants whom we thought fit our expectation. This study concentrated on full-time international graduate students (both at Master by Research and PhD levels) who already passed their first years at the university. This criterion is made based on the fact that by clearing at least 1 year, they went through all phases of a graduate student's life and collected some experience: living at least 1 year in another country other than their home country, attending courses (at least two per semester), engaging in conversations with their supervisors for at least two semesters, tutoring several classes during that time, defending their first draft of proposal by joining the Graduate Research Seminar which is a compulsory module, and participating in workshops held at their departments. The participants were from three different countries: one from China, one from India, and one from Vietnam. Two of them are female while the other is male all of whose age range is from 26-30 years.

Data Collection

We interviewed each participant, emphasizing their experiences with the English Language. Interviews were conducted at a location of participants' choice. The semi-structured in-depth interview was employed as the principal method since structured interview had the possibility of raising an uncomfortable atmosphere and an unstructured interview could lead to a myriad of scattered issues causing trouble for the information extracting process later. However, it is worth paying attention to the fact that even by using this interview format that is partly organized with a set of questions, unpredictable issues brought-up by respondents are not impossible (Berger, 2000).

At the beginning of the interview, every individual who agreed to participate was requested to fully read, understand, and sign an informed consent form that is composed by the researcher with details about this research including their rights, obligations, and benefits before joining. Participants were also guaranteed to be anonymously labeled since they have been given a pseudonym: Alex (from China), Rachel (from Vietnam), and Kate (from India), respectively. The interview guideline included a series of open-ended questions designed to investigate the experience with the English Language in their home and host countries.

Interviews lasted between 30 and 60 min (the average length was around 45 minutes) and were audiotaped and transcribed. Each transcript was reviewed and double-checked

against the original recording to ensure accuracy. Thematic analysis was followed where the transcription was first coded using descriptive words as in open coding and then as a next step continued with secondary/axial coding where emerging concepts were clustered into themes from literature and assertions were formed. Field notes were taken during meetings and observations while other written works about learning goals, language education and international student's experience were also taken into consideration as sources for setting the theoretical foundation.

RESULTS

According to the data, two themes arise: (1) students' home country English language experience that focuses on the language pedagogy and the experience employing it in daily-life situations, and (2) students' host country experience, which is set in two contexts: their language experience in academic and non-academic settings.

Pre-Entry English Language Experience

By the term Pre-entry we refer to the time when the participants have had the English language experience in their respective home countries before they enrolled in the university. From our study, we gather that there appears a link between students' previous English language training, practice, and the perceived communication comfort in their English language use and experience now. The following sections detail these specific aspects identified with respect to the students' language experience before the start of the university.

Pedagogy and Learning Experience. The role of the education system and the quality of the language training program implemented in the home country are two salient elements that were described to form the language base for each international student. As schools were identified to be one of the primary settings to acquire knowledge on the language, the following teaching/pedagogy practices were identified to play a role in the perception of instructional quality to gain proficiency in the language. As Rachel described the teaching experience in her home country:

> *It was very structured, one-sided. It was more like a teacher instructs and we just take in. This is how it is. You give notes of the stories, of the points, of the novels the teacher really says the main points we never really, no one really said our main points could be different from their points.*

Moreover, participants identify that there is a tendency of setting a focus on a few skills while the others are neglected or underestimated. This skewed focus is seen across the board. For instance as Kate stated: "You know, in my country, the teachers only focus on writing and reading skills, also grammar particularly" or likewise as Alex resonated: "For most Chinese people, writing and reading are not a big problem." it leaves out a blank space for the other two

skills, listening and speaking, because the students assert that they do not have chances to practise it properly with thoughtful guidance. Rachel gave a nod of agreement when she stated that: "[…] and the only problem is about speaking and listening."

Besides this, being able to "think critically" and pursue subjects "thinking in English" as termed by Rachel, were other key features identified to achieving comfort levels in the use of the language in various capacities including speaking, writing, listening, and reading. Reflecting on the experience of English language taught in her home country, Rachel goes on to state that "No one really taught us how to reflect on the reading, how to be critical and even find out the major points from the text of whatever given to us." This was a common perspective observed across the samples in our study; in that, the lack of critical thinking-based learning was described to have had an effect on the perceived comfort levels of using English at a later point of time. Students also described situations where they explored other sources of knowledge to enhance their use of skills besides the formal training they received. As explained by Rachel, upon her realization of the insufficiency of a mere "learning from textbooks strategy" that was predominantly followed, "Back to the time in college, I did economics and political science. I didn't have modules in English [...] that was the time I started to read, the things I would read in English, i.e. not just books that were given to us."

In addition to the aforementioned elements, living conditions were also identified to be a factor that impacted their English experience. According to Kate, the quality of education she received may have made a difference to her present struggles. Not having quality teachers or resources to help accomplish comfortable levels of language proficiency were key problems she faced in her academic training in the past:

When I left my hometown and became an undergraduate student, I had to learn English again because back to the time I still was in high school, I was not taught how to pronounce English words correctly, accurately. So, when I moved to the city, I had to learn English words by words again due to the fact that, the pronunciation method I had learnt before is totally wrong.

English Language Practice. Besides the challenges in pedagogical methods and learning experience that the respondents identified, students' perception and description of the overall lack of practice of the language also influence their English experience in their home countries. On the one hand, respondents expressed that they lack chances to practise English. As Alex said "Before I came to Singapore, I rarely have the experience of speaking English… people around me all speak my mother tongue, we don't have opportunities to speak English." On the other hand, interviewers reflect that they likewise do not have the motivation to enhance the English language

skills. As Rachel expressed, "After school, I never spoke English. At that time it was just sort of a task for us. We never thought that this is something we should be imbibing."

The discontinued and disrupted process of using the English language was seen across the students interviewed. Chances were stated to come up only in instances where they have had to prepare for a formal test (such as Graduate Record Examination—GRE; Test of English as a foreign language—TOEFL; or International English Language Testing System—IELTS) to clear out the language requirement set by the international university. This, as they described, is the only possible chance to spend more time on sharpening their speaking skills to make sure that they get a high score ("The only chance for me is when I had to prepare for the examinations like GRE and TOEFL which need proper preparation. That's the only chance for me"*)*. The other situations where they need to use the language are in environments where English is the main medium of communication ("[…], I worked in a foreign company. This company's people are all foreigners who speak English. So I have to discuss work-related things with them using English").

Post-Entry English Language Experience

Post-entry in this context is defined as the time that students build-up their perception of language experience after they commence their studies at the host country university. Participants identified factors to do with their academic and non-academic life to influence their overall English language experience at the University. These are detailed in the subsequent sections.

Experience of English Language in Academic Settings. The respondents described situations where their own proficiency and confidence in using the language affected their experience of the language in the academic setting.

The graduate students in our study give an account of performing various roles through their time at the University. As students, supervisees and teaching assistants, the participants identified multiple circumstances where the continuous and conversant use of English was expected. Besides their general description of their language experience, they also brought-up particular difficulties perceived on various counts. These difficulties, as termed by our respondents specifically dealt with aspects of "reading," "writing," "listening" and "speaking" that form a part of each of the roles they assume.

Students generally voice that academic English is an advanced level of language use that employs a lot of terms, lingos, and jargons that are alien to them. Kate confessed that: "[…] and I have to deal with academic words that I totally feel strange, then if I do not use them frequently or at least repeat a word many times, at least three times actually, I cannot remember that word or its meaning."

Writing, likewise, is a set of skills that is emphasized by graduate students owing to the fact that it takes time and effort to

improve. For non-native speakers, how to use the right word, choose the right syntax or limit grammatical mistakes are not easy tasks that they can master over one night. As Rachel expressed "Writing in English: it was to do with sentence construction. I used too many words when there was no need as such." Yet this experience is not the same across students. For instance, as Alex claimed he does not "need very beautiful words" when writing for academic purposes, so writing skills did not concern him much.

Academic reading along the same lines is described as a set of skills acquired with practice and experience. Rachel captured this essence in her words when asked about what specific changes she has observed over the time she has spent in the University, "Reading has improved also. Now, I can read faster, and I can now see the important things in a paragraph."

Besides these factors, the international university environment, in general, was stated to create various other problems in communication as well, given its multicultural scenario and the presence of differential accents and styles of speaking English. This was recorded to reflect in the various roles they assumed here that predominantly use speaking and listening as skills. For instance, as teaching assistants, there is a considerable expectation to spend time speaking and a perceived level of stress attached to the process of preparing for the classes and conducting them successfully:

> *Sometimes for some very complicated problems, you can explain very clearly in Chinese. But in English, you don't know how to explain in English. So in the first tutorial, I remember that I have to explain a very complicated program to the students. After using English, I only confused myself…* (Alex)

Adjusting to differences in accent is a persistent problem they face until they achieve familiarity. Chances to practice English in their home countries were described as key to shaping this experience they face now, as a Kate claimed: "I did not have many opportunities to practice English, I had not met many foreigners to practice so that my speaking as well listening skills were not good." Yet they constantly adapt themselves taking even simple steps such as how Alex described "of repeating their words," or as Kate expressed "of slowing down their pace of speech, grasping unfamiliar vocabularies," and so forth until they perceive they have integrated to the academic environment to the necessary measure. As Rachel stated "Listening is better now. I can understand what is relevant and what is not. It is not as bad as before. There have been occasions where I haven't understood half the things. I have come out of that at least," talking about her improvement of skills over time.

The university provides different forms of assistance such as English Language module and Academic Writing Consultation session that offers a one-by-one counseling hour to help out international students. However, it is not highly evaluated by students. As Rachel stated that: "I felt the service was not required…both my

supervisor and I felt that it was okay and not required….” The lack of popularity was likewise attributed to the pattern of English teaching conducted that focuses only on particular areas. As Kate described “Other skills were not quite emphasized so I think that writing skills might be the target one…”

Amidst the described processes of linguistic acculturation, participants also identify a pattern of mutual adaptation taking place. This was observed across various roles the students assume at the university. For instance, as Rachel described her teaching experience:

Sometimes it happens that I want to say something and in the middle of the sentence, I forget a word. The right word doesn't come to me. And then I ask them that I can't get the right word in my head can you tell me what it is… "This is the context and this is what I want to say"… So it has become very easy now…

Likewise, as Kate described her experience with her supervisor while she communicates in English “He knows how to answer me in a simple way, and he speaks quite slowly so that I can understand him…” It also appears, as students, peer-to-peer help is sometimes sourced to enhance perceived skill levels and proficiency in the language. As Rachel expressed about her foreigner friends: “they improved so much that... mainly by talking to friends and not really though reading articles…”

Experience of English Language in Non-academic Settings. As students living in a foreign country, participants also speak of immersing themselves into other non-academic and quotidian situations over and above their academic life. Based on our study, we realize this context broadly impacts their relationship with other fellow students from the academic space and their functional use of English—for their daily life.

Interviewers describe a range of problems in their non-academic English experience in these two contexts. For instance, language was observed to be a key factor that affected the extent to which students found their relationships more meaningful and “deep”—as remarked by Alex: “You tend to talk more with Chinese people. So the relationships between us and foreigners may not be deep enough like you and other Chinese people. So what you have is not that deep.”

Yet this is not an experience expressed across the board. “My closest friends here are Chinese” describes Rachel. She further goes on to expresses that “When you are speaking, it is really the content which matters, no one really looks at your English, and no one is that bad”...“...we all make fun of each other's English.”

In terms of general use of the language for their daily life, we gather that their experience is captured mainly in three broad areas. Articulation (“I feel difficult to express it (my opinions) in front of the class because I cannot find the right word which could interpret my thinking

from my native language into English"), vocabulary limitation ("I don't remember the words when I ordered (the meal)."), and misunderstanding ("I write text messages thinking about something but the way they read text messages is very differently."), which they indicate as factors that impact how they experience the language on the whole.

DISCUSSION

The results offer crucial evidence to outline the variation of English language experience of international graduate students in their home and host countries. At the outset, it appears that the perceived levels of comfort in using the language depend on the factors connected to their past experience of learning/practicing English at their home countries and their experience employing the language within and outside of academic responsibilities at the university in the host country. This is much in line with the studies that deal with acculturative experience of students in multicultural setups that identify the significance of English in not only shaping the adaptation experience of international students but also recognize that students' confidence and comfort of using the language are affected by their past experience of using/learning it (Woodrow, 2006; Yeh & Inose, 2003).

We observe, in specific regard to the language experience of students in the host country, students describe situations where using English shaped their experience when playing multiple roles in the academic setting as well as in their social and daily life. In terms of the language experience in the academic zone, the results of the study indicate that the nature of language experience is largely varying and subjective. This is across their language experience in their roles as a student, a tutor, and a supervisee. It was identified that the perceived levels of difficulty in identified key skills such as reading, writing are less stressful than skills of speaking and listening that they uniformly describe as being challenging for both academic and non-academic purposes. Yet, we observe that students identically explain each of these skills to be improving with time and experience. In terms of their language experience in non-academic settings, perceptions both vary and converge in different aspects. In contrast to studies that deal with English language anxiety among non-native speakers (Myles & Cheng, 2003) which claim that NNES move with fellow country students, we observe that the level of hesitance among NNES to establish relationships with foreigners is not across the board. While linguistic difficulty in relationship formation and sustenance is perceived, it was also noticed that there is a possibility of language not getting in the way of a meaningful social life. However, in terms of aspects of language experience in daily life, we recognize that experiences more or less converge. Articulation, vocabulary challenges, besides avoiding misunderstandings were common hassles faced by students conducting conversations with regard to their daily activities.

Finally, the oriental context, Singapore, brings fresh points to NNES studies. On the one hand, the oriental environment provides a special experience for international students. For example, the accents in Singapore present unique problems different to Western context. This special phenomenon brings some difficulties to international students and raises their transition cost as in the cultural shock theory. On the other hand, the oriental context seems to be more tolerant toward English proficiency of international students. The international students report that there is a mutual adaptation that they perceive to be transpiring, which includes their changing style and pace of using English and the corresponding linguistic adjustments made by other people. It is worthwhile noting that discrimination due to English proficiency as such is very rare. The neo-racism theoretical framework seems to work less in this scenario. These results can encourage future studies to pay more attention to the oriental context, especially comparing different contexts such as western and Asian to build a more comprehensive understanding of the English language experience perceived among international graduate students.

CONCLUSION

In this study, we look at the home and host country English language experience of international students who currently pursue graduate programs in Singapore. In their home countries, students embrace various experiences in pedagogical methods and have limited chances to practice English.

The host country experience, we realize, varies owing to each students' divergent academic backgrounds and former English language experience. Our study identifies this experience to be comprised of two domains. First, the academic expectations at graduate-level programs in terms of English language use is definitely higher than expectations in lower levels (undergraduate or high school). Furthermore, this is across the board in all academic activities they are expected to engage in such as reading, writing, speaking, and listening. A key aspect of this changing experience is the mutual adaptation in communication that takes place between students and people surrounding them. Second, English language use in non-academic scenes are also perceived as integral to the overall language experience in the university. The proficiency of the language is seen as important to overcome discomfort and inhibitions while mingling in social networks or everyday life.

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Case Study

Analyzing the Political Uses of Figures Of Speech in Non-State Leaders' Rhetorical Titles: Case Studies of Al-Qa'ida and ISIS

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ABSTRACT

A figure of speech, or trope, is often used to communicate ideas as mental models that go beyond the literal and common use of words. The present study is a discourse analysis of 50 titles delivered by 15 al-Qa'ida and ISIS leaders between 2005 and 2015. It is conducted to: 1) investigate the use of figures of speech in non-state leaders' rhetorical titles, and 2) analyze the types of figurative language most frequently employed in their hortatory discourse of jihad. Their tropes are analyzed because figurative language is not neutral vis-à-vis politics and is frequently situated in relation to a jihadist ideology. To achieve the objectives of this study, Leigh's (1994) framework, which includes his categorization of various types of tropes, was adopted to analyze the 50 titles sourced from three different sources, including international websites that are directly linked to the non-state leaders themselves. Our content analysis includes frequency measures of wordplays as well as qualitative evaluations of the selected titles. The results reveal that certain figures of speech – namely allusions, metaphors and ironies – were widely used while others were not. Also, some tropes such as oxymorons and parallelisms were simply not utilized at all. These findings are of vital interest to instructors, students and scholars engaged in media discourse and pragmatics, as well as rhetorical analysis and politics of language. Directions for future research are also outlined.

Keywords: Discourse analysis, figurative language, political leaders, rhetorical titles, tropes

INTRODUCTION

The form in which a message is communicated is a significant consideration in the construction of a title (Genette, 1997; Leigh, 1994). Political leaders, as writers, differ as to what form and in what manner a message should be revealed. Some employ the use of catchy titles which are usually short, rhythmical and alliterative, while others prefer using titles full of puns, literary allusions and other obscurities. A third group may prefer clichés, superlatives, stock phrases and vague generalizations. However, though the figurative language or wordplay that they use may differ, as do their views on the practice of power, political leaders generally employ the use of figures of speech in their rhetorical titles.

One of the primary reasons why political leaders use figures of speech (or wordplay) in their titles is that these elements serve as a vital tool of persuasion because they nurture interest and engagement, and sell ideas to the public; as a whole, they are specific formations of syntax, letters (palindromes, lipograms), sounds (puns, rhymes) and word order that can, and are used to, create certain effects (Bonyadi & Samuel, 2013; Ifantidou, 2009; Leigh, 1994; Monsefi & Mahadi, 2017; Tuan, 2010).

Of late, wordplay has been deployed to justify and normalize violent actions. For leaders to set up their political plans, they essentially need to persuade their target audience and such persuasion is not possible without certain forms of wordplay. There is often a need for them to regularize the practice of their jihadist ideology, especially when violence is expected to last for a relatively long time (Jackson, 2005). Also, such leaders need to make their agendas look rational, desirable and achievable. Therefore, as put forth by Chilton (2004), there is always a special kind of wordplay that is endemic to their speeches.

The significance of figurative language or wordplay in the rhetorical titles of non-state leaders and its impact on present day Muslim recipients represent the impetus for this article. The study examines the use of figures of speech in non-state leaders' rhetorical titles to determine if their jihadist ideology is explicitly served by the wordplays that they employ to justify and normalize their deeds and actions. The present study also rests on the premise advanced by van Dijk (2009) that a title or a headline is the most projecting information which comes first and sums up the story in the body of a speech.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A political speech's title is regarded by researchers as one of the most arduous messages for the pragmatic communication of persuasion (van Dijk, 2009; Genette, 1997; Leigh, 1994). As a vital medium for persuasion, titles are often used to combine the inventiveness of figures of speech, as a form, with the intended political message. For instance, most non-state leaders use Islamic allusions, metaphors, ironies, symbols and other literary concepts in the construction of their jihadist ideology. They often invoke Quranic allusions and quotes from Prophet Muhammad's sayings, and

lock the basis for their ideology in Islamic metaphors and analogies, taking advantage of their allusive, alliterative and unbound forms.

In the process and stages of persuasion, the element of wordplay is often inevitable. The use of wordplay is common in many forms of discourse. Its linguistic layout is rarely limited in terms of form. Simply put, unlike legal language, literary tropes and their grammatical structures embrace a vast range of semantic functions and do not suffer confined interpretations. They are, thus, commonly used by non-state leaders in their rhetorical titles, speeches and written texts. Most of the tropes are branded in allusions, metaphors, puns and other vague generalizations; their figurative obscurities are intended to camouflage radicalism.

According to van Dijk (2006) and Chilton (2004), language has the potential to drive the mindsets of Muslims through jihadist texts. Al-Qa'ida and ISIS leaders' public rhetoric shapes the key principles for their local and global radical movements.

Few studies have focused on the content analysis of non-state leaders' texts (Chilton, *ibid.*), the qualitative analysis of their rhetoric (Burke, 2007), the social psychology of their language (Podvornaia, 2013), the symbolic analysis of their speeches (Rowland & Theye, 2008), and specifically the discourse analysis of Osama bin Laden's rhetoric (Taylor, 2013).

Chilton (2004) applied a three-dimensional analytical model to his analysis of two speeches by George W. Bush and Osama bin Laden, focusing on linguistic deixis with emphasis on the contextual implications of time, place, and mode. Chilton noted that bin Laden manipulated religious language in defending suicide bombers, stating that they would be awarded entry into paradise for this act. Likewise, Bush asked God to bless those who were killed and mentioned that they were blessed in the afterlife.

A study by Rowland and Theye (2008) highlighted that the key to understanding terrorists' motives was to analyze their political discourse, what they called "the symbolic DNA of terrorism". Rowland and Theye examined the facets of religion and ideology in al-Zawahiri's (of al-Qa'ida) rhetoric.

Taylor (2013) concentrated on three keynote speeches delivered by bin Laden to the American population. In her analysis, Taylor looked at the persuasive and discursive strategies used by bin Laden and concluded that he portrayed himself as honorable and righteous in his speeches, with a linguistic style that was not explicitly hostile or aggressive even with the inclusion of many threats directed at American forces.

None of these studies have laid emphasis on the figurative language or wordplay used by al-Qa'ida and ISIS leaders, or attempted to study the functional aspects of their rhetorical devices from a literary perspective. Additionally, the researchers have not come across any research analyzing the wordplay strategies and rhetorical devices in the selected texts delivered by the non-state leaders of these two movements. The present study is intended to fill these

gaps and contribute to current literature. The researchers argue that non-state leaders' rhetorical titles commonly involve more than terminologies, and are inherently more than mere sentence structures or literary pieces. Rather, such titles are pragmatic communication threads of political persuasion. In essence, figurative language is an instrumental factor in the process of communicating political messages to achieve specific political gains or to induce specific actions.

Leigh's (1994) Categorization of Wordplay (Figures of Speech)

Leigh (1994) presented 41 rhetorical figures that were classified into tropes and grammar structures. Grammar structures are figures of speech that tackle syntax, word order and sounds rather than the meaning of words. Conversely, tropes are figures that alter the typical meaning of a word or words. They display deviation from basic meanings.
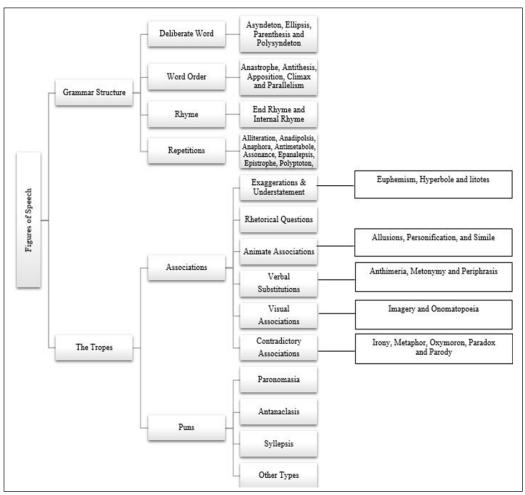
Figure 1. Leigh's (1994) categorization of wordplay (figures of speech)

Tropes are split into associations and puns. Leigh considers the second category of tropes (puns) to be the most outstanding for wordplay with regards to headlines. It is a humorous use of words or phrases that possess more than one meaning. Associations, the first category of tropes, is subdivided into six major groups and their related 16 smaller subclasses. The latter category of wordplay is schemes which consists of coordinated, deliberate word omissions, word insertions, repetitions and rhymes. These four classes are also divided into related subclasses, and the overall number of subclasses is 20. Figure 1 illustrates Leigh's framework. This model was also used in Monsefi and Mahadi's (2017) study.

METHOD

Approach

The study's approach is both quantitative and qualitative. A frequency analysis was conducted to quantify the selected rhetorical titles; the 50 titles were analyzed for mean length of title-unit, subordinate clauses per title-unit, and frequency of varied wordplay categories. The researchers opted to analyze titles per se as titles often serve as the core element of any formal discourse meant for the masses. Specifically, Beharrell et al. (2009) opined that titles were of crucial importance in media discourse; they were essential for persuasion because they served to summarize a story and drew attention to that story. They also represented the strongest visual indicator of the speaker's (or writer's) style. In other words, titles

are rhetorical forms that can function as effective carriers of ideological meanings and are therefore worth studying.

McGuigan (2008) pointed out that there were many figures of speech, ranging from anadiplosis to zeugma. Some of these were scarcely used while others, such as allusions, metaphors and ironies, were regularly operated in political texts or speeches. Scholars of classical rhetoric have categorized the various figures of speech into two major groups – tropes and schemes. Specialists like Abrams and Harpham (2012) classified them into two main groups: 1) figures of thought or tropes, and 2) figures of speech or schemes. However, they conceded that there was no clear-cut distinction or border deterrent between the two groups and experts in the field differed in their understanding and categorization of figures of speech. In the present study, the researchers adopted Leigh's (1994) model of categorization.

Sample size is of importance as a fair level of saturation is required to provide qualitative evaluations and to minimize the risk of errors. It is worthy of note, however, that sample size in discourse analysis is also relative to the analysis' level of rigor and intensity. The 50 titles selected for the present study were, as stated, tri-dimensionally analyzed. The researchers also opted to analyze rhetorical titles from a fairly substantial pool of non-state leaders – 15 in total, from two very well-known and active movements (al-Qa'ida and ISIS). In addition, these titles were observed to contain core elements of jihadist discourse, which serves the purpose of the study well.

Corpus

In terms of corpus, all the titles subjected to our analysis were taken from three sources:

1. International websites – SITE Intelligence Group (SITE), National Consortium for the Study of Terrorism and Responses to Terrorism (START), The Middle East Media Research Institute (MEMRI), Global Terrorism Research Project (GTRP)

2. Websites directly linked to the non-state leaders themselves – al-Sahab Media Foundation, al-Hayat Media Centre

3. Translations available for their statements – IntelCenter (2008, 2010), Ibrahim (2007), Mansfield (2006)

Procedure

Applying the descriptive method, the procedure for data analysis is as listed below:

1. Analyzing for mean length of title-unit and subordinate clauses per title-unit (for comparability).

2. Conducting a frequency analysis of the titles based on Leigh's (1994) framework to provide a taxonomy of the wordplays detected.

3. Breaking down each Arabic title into their lexical components and providing literal English equivalents for each unit (to make it possible for non-Arabic readers to comprehend the units), then presenting a back translation for each title (for contextualization to facilitate comprehension and discussion).

4. Providing qualitative evaluations of selected titles.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The sample of 50 rhetorical titles were found to be comparable in terms of mean length and subordinate clauses, and are thematically distributed as follows:

1. Jihad and hate speech (n=20)
2. Support for violence (n=10)
3. Special interests (n=10)
4. Lifestyle (n=10)

The results of the frequency analysis based on Leigh's (*ibid.*) framework is presented in Table 1.

Based on the sample of 50 rhetorical titles (from 15 non-state leaders), the analysis suggests that most titles contain at least one or more plainly defined form of wordplay. In both Arabic and English versions, allusions, metaphors and ironies achieved the highest frequencies. Meanwhile, other figures of speech such as euphemisms, hyperboles, alliterations and anaphoras were sparingly used. Some forms such as oxymorons, parallelisms, repetitions and litotes were simply not utilized at all.

As shown in Table 1, the occurrence of allusions is noticeably greater than other forms in the 50 rhetorical titles analyzed, with a total of 23 occurrences (27.8%). This suggests that non-state leaders may have a preference for using allusionary references when disseminating their views to the

Table 1
Frequency-percentage count by category

Category	Frequency	Percentage
Alliteration	2	2.3
Allusion	23	27.8
Anaphora	2	2.3
Anastrophe	0	0
Anthimeria	0	0
Antithesis	7	8.3
Apposition	1	1.1
Assonance	1	1.1
Climax	0	0
Ellipsis	2	2.3
End Rhyme	0	0
Euphemism	1	1.1
Hyperbole	1	1.1
Imagery	2	2.3
Irony	8	9.5
Litotes	0	0
Metaphor	12	14.2
Metonymy	4	4.7
Onomatopoeia	0	0
Oxymoron	0	0
Paradox	1	1.1
Parallelism	0	0
Parenthesis	0	0
Parody	6	7.1
Personification	1	1.1
Pun	3	3.5
Repetition	0	0
Rhetorical Questions	4	4.7
Simile	3	3.5

masses. Metaphors rank second in number with 12 occurrences (14.2%) and ironies, third (with 8 occurrences). The use of antitheses ranks fourth with 7 occurrences. In most of the titles analyzed, the presence of allusions led to the employment of metaphors, ironies and antitheses.

The researchers have also drawn out five samples for more in-depth evaluation and discussion of the political uses of figurative language in rhetorical titles.

Sample 1

The title of al-Zawahiri's speech dealing with the political status of Muslims after a decade of political crises in the Middle East:

أمة منتصرة وصليبية منكسرة تسع سنوات من بداية الحملة الصليبية

صليبية Nation أمة Victorious منتصرة Nine تسع سنوات Broken منكسرة Crusade الحملة The Start بداية After من Years الصليبية The Crusade

Back Translation: *A Victorious Nation (Ummah) Versus a Broken Crusade: Nine Years After the Start of the Crusader*

بعد أن استنفذت أمريكا أغراضَها من مباركٍ واستخدمته كمخلبِ القطِ في تنفيذِ كلِ جرائمِها القذرةِ في المنطقةِ. فلما تحول مباركٌ إلى رمزٍ للفسادِ ولما أحست أمريكا أن توريثَ مباركٍ الحكمَ لولدِه ربما يثيرِ القلاقلَ والمتاعبَ، قررت أن تجربَ خطأً موازياً لتحقيقٍ أهدافِها، عبرَ مبعوثِ العنايةِ الأمريكيةِ الدكتورِ محمدِ البرادعي.

So, when Mubarak turned into a symbol of corruption, criminality, thievery and treason, and when America sensed that Mubarak's bequeathal of power to his son might cause problems and inconveniences, it decided to experiment with a parallel line for achieving its goals, by way of the emissary

of American providence, Mohammed al-Baradi.

The dichotomy between al-Qa'ida's nature of Us and the crusading spirit of Them is made explicit through allusionary references to its enemy as *a Broken Crusade*. The implications associated with such allusions do not only stress on the nature of America and Israel as the major enemy, but they also work to represent the enemy in a single personality such as Hosni Mubarak (see Hodges, 2013).

Sample 2

The title of al-Baghdadi's speech in which he taunts the West for not placing military boots on Syrian and Iraqi grounds:

فتربصوا إنا معكم متربصون

فتربصوا إنا So Wait, We معكم
متربصون Waiting Are Also

Back Translation: *So, Wait, Indeed We, Along with You, Are Waiting*

تعد لم اليوم المعركة إن المسلمون، أيها
حرب هي وانما صليبية، حملة مجرد
ولم أمة الـسلام، ضد جميعا الكفر أمم
عليها اجتمع أن أمتنا تاريخ في يسبق
هو كما واحدة في معركة بأسره العالم
جميعا الكفار معركة إنها حاصل اليوم،
مسلم كل وان جميعا، المسلمين ضد
الحرب. بهذه معني

O Muslims, indeed the battle today is no longer merely a crusader campaign. It is but the war of the nations of disbelief altogether against the Ummah of Islam, and it has not occurred before in the history of our Ummah that the entire world gathered against it in

one battle as is occurring today. Indeed, it is the battle of the disbelievers altogether against the Muslims altogether, and indeed every Muslim is intended by this war.

In his allusions, al-Baghdadi positions his enemy as an intentional actor with agency functions to assign responsibility to the enemy for the outbreak of jihad. The naming of America and Israel (as nations of disbelief) as metaphorical figureheads for a personified enemy allows for a subtle distinction between Islam and the West. This differentiation further highlights the colonizing nature of Them whereby the enemy rules over and hence works against the interests of God and Islam.

Sample 3

The title of al-Adnani's speech in which he adheres himself to many oaths of a great future for terrorists:

هذا وعد الله

Allah الله Promise وعد This هذا

Back Translation: *This is the Promise of Allah*

العرب في جاهلية جهلاء، وضلالة
عمياء؛ أعرى الناس أجسامًا، وأجوعهم
بطونًا، أمة في مؤخرة الأمم، غارقة في
الحضيض، لا يُؤبه لها، ولا يُحسَب لها
حساب، تخضع بالذل لكسرى وقيصر،
وتنقاد لمَن غلب.

The Arabs are in the depths of ignorance and blinding darkness. They are the most naked, the hungriest, and the most backwards of peoples, sinking in depths of lowness. No one cared about them or gave them

any regard. They submitted in humiliation to Khosrow and Caesar, yielding to the conqueror.

In the analytic scheme presented in Sample 3, each negative metaphor of Us not only opposes a positive attribute of Them, but also aligns with a cluster of other negative metaphors that come to be associated with one another. Thus, references to the Arabs align with the scorns of ignorance, darkness, lowness, corruption and humiliation which contrast with the divine ethics of Islam. Since Muslims are generally strong believers in religion, al-Zawahiri, al-Baghdadi and al-Adnani attempted to draw connections between the exhortations voiced and the prevalent religious consciousness of the Muslim audience by focusing on rhetorical devices such as allusions, metaphors, ironies and antitheses.

Sample 4

The title of al-Baghdadi's speech in which he obliges his followers to risk their lives for the sake of a claimed Islamic caliphate, to submit to its orders, and to gather within it its power:

جَآءَ الْحَقُّ وَزَهَقَ الْبَاطِلُ

Truth الْحَقُ Come جَآءَ

and Vanished الْبَاطِلُ وَزَهَقَ

Falsehood

Back Translation: Truth Has Come and Falsehood Has Vanished Away

أمة الاسلام .. امتي الحبيبة .. لقد عزم رجالك على ان يقيموا للاسلام دولته يحكّموا فيه شرعه و يطيعوا فيه امره و

يجتمع فيه جنده فسكبوا لذلك دماؤهم من بعد ما ضحوا بأموالهم فطلقوا كل شهوة وقاسوا كل شدة يطلبون الموت مضانه يبتغون النصر او الشهادة فجاءت الخطوة المباركة بوضع الاساس المتين لدولة الاسلام.

O Ummah of Islam, my beloved Ummah: your men have been determined to give Islam its State, and establish within it its Sharia, and to obey therein its commands, and to gather within it its forces. To this end, they spilled their blood and spent their wealth; they left every desire and encountered every hardship. They sought out death where it was to be found, desiring victory or martyrdom, and then came the blessed step of establishing the firm foundation for the Islamic State.

Abu Omar al-Baghdadi derived his title from a famous Quranic verse (17:81). It is a Quranic allusion which forms a threat and a warning to the disbelievers of the Quraysh people (Mecca) in the 7th century.

The ability of a non-state leader such as al-Baghdadi to oblige his followers through such allusions to risk their lives for the sake of a claimed Islamic caliphate is a provoking aspect of the ideology that has the facility to induce violent actions. He seems to have obliged his followers to risk their lives on his behalf by going into jihad without first justifying the obligation to die. Following van Dijk (2006), we may call this use of sacred allusion as the manipulation of the mental models of followers to make them feel religious obligations. However, the importance of such obligations is not

specifically about sending someone to die as it is about sending someone to cause death to others; in any case, encountering an external enemy has often led to the use of violence against innocent people. In essence, the religious authority here may compel al-Qa'ida and ISIS followers to perform different acts of violence and atrocities against civilians.

Sample 5

The title of al-Libi's speech, which expounds on manipulation and hypocrisy:

وانقشـعت سحـابـة الصيـف

انقشـعت Has vanished سحـابـة

الصيـف Summer Cloud

Back Translation: *The Summer Cloud Has Vanished*

امة الاسلام السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته فكل شيئ يمكن للمرء ان يتلاعب به وان يظهر معه حنكته ودهائه وخداعه الا دين الله عزوجل فما ان يسلك المرء معه هذا المسلك ويدخل هذا النفق حتى يكتشف ومن حيث لا يحتسب انه قد جنى على نفسه واوبقها بيده ولايحيق المكر السئ الا باهله وقد مرد اهل النفاق على هذا الاسلوب...

O Nation of Islam, may the peace, mercy, and blessings of God be upon you all. Anyone can manipulate anything. He can display his trickery, deception, and deceit through such an act. The only exception to this is the religion of God Almighty. If a person were to take this path and embark on this passage, he will surely discover, from where he least expects, that he has actually transgressed against himself. It is a consequence of his own making, and surely wickedness befalls those that are astray. The people of hypocrisy have taken this path now and then…

To make his violent actions morally justifiable, Abu Yahya al-Libi used a common conceptual metaphor to establish a beneficial comparison between the allies of Satan (hypocrites) and the allies of Allah (mujahideen). Using certain items such as *dark cloud* to relate to the claims of the enemy and *light* to refer to the removal of such a cloud in his comparisons, he reminds Muslims of the atrocities committed by those he calls *the hypocrites*. Arguably, this will not only increase violent jihadi actions, but may also contribute to the persuasion of others to become new militants. Lastly, his use of such a device (conceptual metaphor) is considered valuable for the efficiency of persuasive communications meant to sway public opinions and direct their attention towards religious obligations.

CONCLUSION

Since figurative language or wordplay has apparently been used extensively by non-state leaders in recent years, and seeing that it appears to be an essential element in rhetorical threads in general, the researchers attempted to bridge both dimensions and examine not just the types of figures of speech used, but also the political uses of figures of speech in these leaders' rhetorical titles.

The present study is significant because of the prominent position of rhetorical titles in relation to political agendas. Their attributive functions in terms of linguistic manipulation is undeniable; rhetorical titles express the overall intentions of the speaker or writer, and studying them allows us to trace out the suggestions and implications within.

The findings of this study demonstrate that figurative language or wordplay is regularly operationalized in non-state leaders' rhetorical titles. Nevertheless, it is to be noted that some forms of wordplay attained higher frequency than others, while some forms did not even feature at all.

It should be highlighted here that the role of wordplay in terms of this element shaping the psyche of Muslims and non-Muslims is not within the immediate scope of the present study. This issue, as Wodak (2009) mentioned, needs to be specifically addressed by studies of political texts or speeches within psychological and sociological frameworks.

The present study is a comprehensive and illustrative sample of wordplay manifested in the rhetorical titles of 15 non-state leaders aligned to two extremely well-known movements – al-Qa'ida and ISIS. For future studies, the researchers recommend the use of an even larger corpus covering the rhetorical threads of more political leaders, state and non-state, from different nations and regions. Within this structure, comparisons from various perspectives can then be made and even more solid conclusions can be arrived at

as to the operationalization of figurative language or wordplay in politically-inclined rhetorical threads.

The researchers expect this study and its findings to be of worth to not only politicians and security officials, but also to instructors, students and scholars engaged in media discourse and pragmatics, as well as rhetorical analysis and politics of language as the study has essentially demonstrated the potency of the non-state leaders' ideology; that which attracts young Muslims to join al-Qa'ida and ISIS likely lies, at least to an extent, in the figurative religious titles employed by these leaders. In fact, the use of such manipulated titles is a powerful tool that can encourage radical behavior among those recruited, even after the death of these non-state leaders. Additionally, from an academic perspective, this study and its findings are of relevance in that they contribute to the knowledge base that currently exists in the field and provide direction for future related research, specifically in terms of corpus, design and analysis.

The selected titles were analyzed according to the main principles of Leigh's (1994) framework. His categorization of wordplay focuses on latent power dynamics in rhetorical titles and the potential of mediators as clients because it integrates and triangulates knowledge about tropes and their schemes to provide a taxonomy of the wordplays detected. In future research, we suggest that his framework can also be utilized to demystify other kinds of titles apart from highly political ones. For

instance, the hegemony of marketing or advertisement titles and powerful media actors that seek to promote and maintain distorted views in society.

In essence, figures of speech can work as a method of persuasion in societies. They postulate different shades of meanings and can motivate radical actions from the masses. Because political leaders often use rhetorical devices to achieve certain effects through their titles (a prominent element of any speech or text), researchers are in turn naturally interested in these devices and in the ideological structures that these leaders utilize to drive home their messages to the public. This study has essentially demonstrated the ways through which non-state leaders influence the masses, via their use of language and their articulation of ideas beyond the real meanings of the references used, and perhaps this understanding can help prompt certain parties – for instance, general members of the public, the media, security officials, policy-makers, and educators – to not presuppose that language is necessarily straightforward, to be more wary of and sensitive to the ideas projected by such political leaders, to be observant of the young and impressionable, and to emphasize tolerance, moderation and respect.

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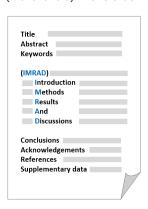
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