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Referees

SEMANTIC PRIMING OF BILINGUAL SUBJECTS ARABIC/FRENCH AND MONOLINGUAL FRENCH SUBJECT

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to study the organization of mental lexicon in semantic memory through the presentation a list of imaged and abstract words to bilingual subjects of Arabic/French and monolingual French subjects. For this experience, the technique of semantic priming was used where to write the first three words that come into their mind. This technique revealed the existence of several types of semantic relations within the same semantic network. In addition, there was a positive association between the words "target" and the words mentioned by our subjects because the time allotted for the experiment was observed. On the other hand, the words were organized in terms of memory semantic categories by inclusion of a set of equivalent words according to the taxonomic model (Collins & Loftus, 1975; Collins & Quillian, 1969). Finally, the associative strength between different items reflected the connectionist model of Boutanquoi (2003), who taught that a unit is connected to others only if a significant number of topics are associated with it.

Keywords: connectionist model, priming semantic, semantic relations, taxonomic model

INTRODUCTION

Researches in vocabulary acquisition in second language (L2) tend to investigate the lexical knowledge that learners have stored in their memory; some specialists believe that access to this knowledge is a key factor of communicative competence. In this perspective, Arabic speakers who learned French could easily switch from Arabic to French effectively in their daily conversations. Indeed, in Algeria, French was formerly rooted in Algerian society. This advantage allows Algerian to evolve in a bilingual society since their tender childhood. However, significant differences between these two linguistic systems of Arabic and French were from the viewpoints of: morphological, syntactical and phonological. Moreover, the conditions for acquiring, using and storing the French words in semantic memory among the people in these two societies are also different. Therefore, in this case, we can hypothesize that there are different treatments and storages of French words through the semantic relationships in mental lexicon of both groups as in French and Algerians. To verify this hypothesis, the experimental study was conducted by applying techniques of semantic priming. The purpose of the experiment is to examine the semantic relationships of bilinguals of Arabic/French and monolingual French, from the model of semantic memory (Smith, Shoben, & Rips, 1974) and the concept that is represented by a list of semantic features. Some traits are definitional (Defining features) which are necessary and sufficient. Other features are characteristics (characteristic features), typical of a concept or nonessential. The treatment of the relationships between concepts is done by comparing their features.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Aristotle is considered as the precursor philosopher who was interested in the study of human's memory. For instance, in "Memory and Reminiscence" in 350 av. J-C, he defined memory as an intermediate instrument between thought and meaning while belonging to meaning. Thus, Tulving (1983) considered semantic memory as a fundamental cognitive process in understanding language production, perception of objects and faces, etc.

According to Samson, Belin, Thivard, Boddaert, Corzier and Zilbovicius (2001), the semantic system is generally defined as "memory system representing all of our conceptual knowledge about the world" (p.103). In this logic, semantic memory has often been studied with regard to pathology and, with reference to neuropsychological models. Some neurodegenerative diseases cause dementia or semantic deficits. In this sense, a fundamental question is posed whether there is a degradation of semantic representations or access disorder semantic system. However, this is considered as a controversial element in certain pathologies, particularly in primary progressive aphasia fluently. For some (David, Moreaud, & Charnallet, 2006), this aphasia affects only the function of language and does not pose the semantic system deficit. For Saffran, Coslett, Boronat and Martin (2003), semantic representations degrade it beyond purely linguistic aspects and can be considered as a variant of dementia semantics. In this logic, our literature review allows us to know several researchers and the different techniques used in relation to this study.

There is a pioneering study done by Meyer and Schvaneveldt's (1971) primed lexical decision task. In their study, participants were presented with prime-target word pairs and they had to decide whether the target is a word or a non-word. Reaction times were measured in order to investigate their quickness in recognizing words. The results showed that the participants responded faster and more accurately to target words (e.g., butter) preceded by associatively related primes (e.g., bread) compared to target words preceded by a semantically unrelated primes (e.g., doctor). This was defined as the "semantic priming effect", demonstrating that if information has been accessed, the time to retrieve its related information from memory is accelerated. Meyer and Schvaneveldt's (1971) hypothesized that in the semantic memory, two associated words are located closer to each other as compared to two unassociated words, thereby being rapidly accessed and their retrieval is facilitated. Then, semantic priming paradigms have been adopted in a considerable number of studies that aimed in determining the basic lexical-semantic structure and exploring the nature of semantic relationships between words (e.g., associative and/or taxonomic, semantic similarities).

Meyer and Schvaneveldt's (1971) used associates (considered as basic relations between lexical items) to investigate word processing. Other than that, there were, studies that tried to include other potential semantic relationships to provide deeper information about words organization and their retrieval (e.g., for an extensive review, see Neely, 1991). There were few studies, showed, semantic priming occurred only for associates but not for words that were taxonomically related (e.g., Shelton & Martin, 1992), while others found priming effects for both associatively (e.g., arm – leg) and taxonomically (e.g., bread – cake) related word pairs (e.g., Seidenberg, Waters, Sanders, & Langer, 1984), suggesting that both relations, taxonomic and associative, underpin the semantic structure.

However, semantic priming was shown to be sensitive to the degree of semantic similarity between words. In lexical decision (e.g., word versus non-word) and semantic decision (indicate whether a word is concrete or abstract) tasks, reaction times were shown to be faster for taxonomically related and perceptually similar word pairs (e.g., jar – bottle; e.g., McRae & Boisvert, 1998; Cree, McRae, & McNorgan, 1999), compared to less similar word pairs in priming effects were not significant (McRae & Boisvert, 1998). In a further study, faster reaction times were obtained for highly similar (e.g., horse – donkey), less similar (e.g., bear – donkey) and unrelated (e.g., thimble – donkey) word pairs. Also, reaction times were faster for less similar than for unrelated word pairs (Sanchez-Casas, Ferré, Garcia-Albea, & Guasch, 2006). These findings suggested that priming effects occur in the absence of associative relations and that similarity distance is an organizing principle of word meanings in the semantic memory (e.g., Vigliocco, Vinson, Lewis, & Garrett, 2004).

Recently, semantic processing also has been measured by using eye-tracking technique to investigate the relationship between eye-movements and word recognition, in order to provide another aspect to the semantic structure. This approach allowed some studies to analyze the time course of ‘on-line’ word comprehension (e.g., McRae & Boisvert, 1998). The idea of using eye-tracking is to explore further what has been hypothesized by Cooper (1974, p.13) as follows;

When people are simultaneously presented with spoken language and a visual field containing elements semantically related to the informative items of speech, they tend to spontaneously direct their line of sight to those elements which are most closely related to the meaning of the language currently heard.

Accordingly, the aim of using cross-modal paradigm was to determine the presence of relevant and simultaneous non-linguistic information (e.g., image illustrating an object), sharing different amount of features with the target influences subject’s processing of spoken words. In accordance with the functional model (Smith, Shoben, & Rips, 1974), the meaning of a word is based upon a set of semantic features (Vigliocco, Vinson, Lewis, & Garrett, 2004). Words are considered as semantically similar if they share many features. Indeed, the membership to a semantic category is determined by the number of shared features between items that belong to that same category. As items become more abstract, the number of their defining features decreases. The similarity effect is reflected by stronger activation of words with high amount of shared features compared to a weaker activation of words with lower amount of shared features.

METHODOLOGY

Priming Semantic

The technique of the priming consists of presentation of a first stimulus to influence perception and processing of another stimulus. This technique is often used in the study of long-term memory because it involves memory implicitly. It involves an unconscious retrieval of information from the subject. For example, for the semantic dementia, the semantic priming is a necessary means to determine a patient suffers from deterioration in his vocabulary or a patient simply cannot access their vocabulary. The priming effect is defined as reflecting the influence of the prior presentation of a stimulus (primer) on the processing of a subsequent stimulus (the target). Different types of links structure the mental lexicon of both mother tongue and second language which demonstrated through

the timed task of visual recognition of words when identifying a word "target" is facilitated by the identification of an immediately preceding word "context". For example, the identification of the word "beach" will be accelerated by the prior identification of the word "sand". In the taxonomic model (Collins & Loftus, 1975), that was understood as the effect of "priming" that operates automatically. The identification of the "primer" context word in the lexical system enables "activation" of the other lexical representation in the lexical network. This influence usually results an increment in the probability of identifying or correctly categorizing the stimulus that was began. In this case, priming is positive. However, priming can be negative when the primer interfered the processing of the target which involves a long process period or a distance semantic relationship between the target word and the stimulus.

Experiment

Our experimental protocol consisted of two groups of mixed-gendered student volunteers, aged between 18 and 22 years old. The first group contains 23 monolingual French students and the second group consists of 25 Algerians bilingual Arabic / French students. The experiments were conducted in the same manner in France and Algeria respectively. Prior to the experiment, 20 concrete and abstract words, which are generally known in both groups, were selected. Each word was displayed randomly on computer screen for 20 seconds. The task of each subject was to write three words within 20 seconds after seeing the displayed word. Complex words were not selected because it is usually required more time to respond. In other words, we avoided the situation that the subjects incessantly seek their long-term memories to recall other words. The time allocated for this experiment for each subject was only 10 minutes. It is relatively short because the subjects were supposed to respond instantly and not thoughtfully. In addition, at the beginning of the test, each subject was asked to indicate age and native language. To protect confidentiality and anonymity of each subject, the abbreviations such as "s/a" (s=subject) are used on the figures in the following section.

RESULTS

The results of our experiment revealed the existence of several semantic relationships within the same semantic network. These relationships were: relations of particularity and equivalence.

Particularity

Special links was identified in terms of typicality related to "size" and "zoology". First, we noticed that among the bilinguals of Arabic/French, the word "elephant" evoked different types of semantic relationships. Among these relations, the typicality relationship means specificity or particularity. This was expressed between the word "elephant" and all the words, "grey", "big", "trunk", "giant", "memory", and "heavy" as in shown in Figure 1. This means that the relationship bond, for example, "elephant" has the specificity of being "big", "memory", etc.

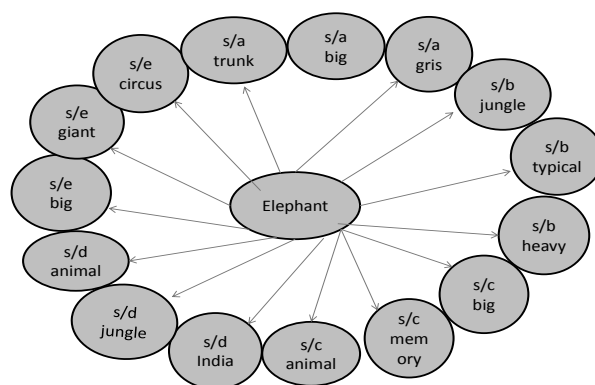


Figure 1. Semantic network of “Elephant” among bilingual Arabic/French subjects

The categorization relationship was also expressed between the word "elephant" and "animal"; which means "elephant" is an "animal". In addition, the phrase "jungle", "India" introduced the existence of relationship. This means "elephant" lives in "India", "jungle". Finally, the functionality relationship was expressed between "elephant" and "circus"; which means "elephant" plays in the "circus". Similarly, among the monolingual French, we also see the typicality relationship between the word "elephant" and "big", "trunk", "gray", "enormous", "memory" as shown in Figure 2.

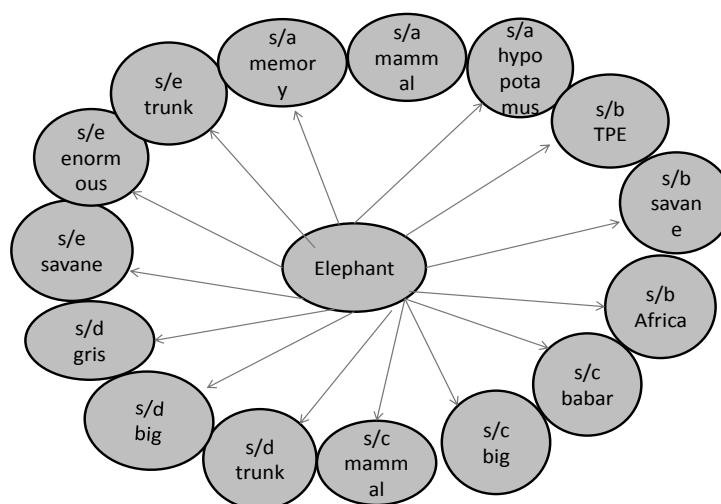


Figure 2. Semantic network of “Elephant” among monolingual French subjects

Moreover, we noted the existence of relationship between the words "elephant", "Africa" and "Savannah". Similarity between the words "elephant" and "hippopotamus" were also observed. However, it was noted that the semantic network of "elephant" showed a distance between the words "elephant" and "Babar". The semantic relation between the units "elephant" and "Babar" is not entirely removed because the word "Babar" is an allusion to the famous character in a French fictional story book, *“Story of Babar”* created by Jean Brunhoff in 1931. This unconscious eruption of the socio-cultural vision of this subject shows that souvenirs and personal stories are strongly involved in the storage of words in semantic memory. This observation leads us to ask the question: how our cultures and beliefs can build relationships of lexical collocations in our mental lexicon?

This findings are related to Sapir–Whorf hypothesis (Whorf, Carroll, Levinson, & Lee, 2012) –how language seems to exercise a decisive influence on thought. Mental representations depend on linguistic categories. In other words, our manner to perceiving the world depend the language. Huxley (1940, p.9) added that word forms the mind of the person who is using which is explained through the excerpt as follow: "The conduct and character are largely determined by the nature of the words we commonly use to talk about ourselves and the world around us."

Equivalence

Equivalence relation explains the identity of a concept and the link that is used to represent synonymy relations between words. For example, the word "sun" may be synonymous with warmth, good weather and entertainment. Regarding the synonymy, many studies (Gaume, 2008; Ploux, 1997; Macé & Guinard, 1990) underline the words stored in our semantic memory from semantic fields. But one does not keep the long words that we do not know the meaning well. Thereby, Vygotsky (1934) stated: "A private word meaning is not a word, it is an empty sound." In the same logic, Vygotsky (1934) added: "The meaning of the word is a phenomenon of verbal thought or language endowed with meaning. It is the unity of word and thought. "

Figure 3, Semantic network of the bilingual subjects of Arabic/French about the term "library", shows several types of relationships. Firstly, one of the relationships is called "action of". It means that in the "library", we can do "research", "read", "study" and cultivate "culture". The second relationship is availability which connects the unit "library" in the following units such as: "books", "history", "bibliography", and "civilization". This semantic network is shared by several subjects. For example, in the "library", there are "books", of "history", the "civilizations" and the "bibliography". Finally, another relationship is called "state" because it expresses the environment in a "library". For instance, there is "peace" in the "library". However, this term can be considered as relatively far from the semantic network word "library", because in the "library", we cannot find the exact "peace" but we can find "tranquility".

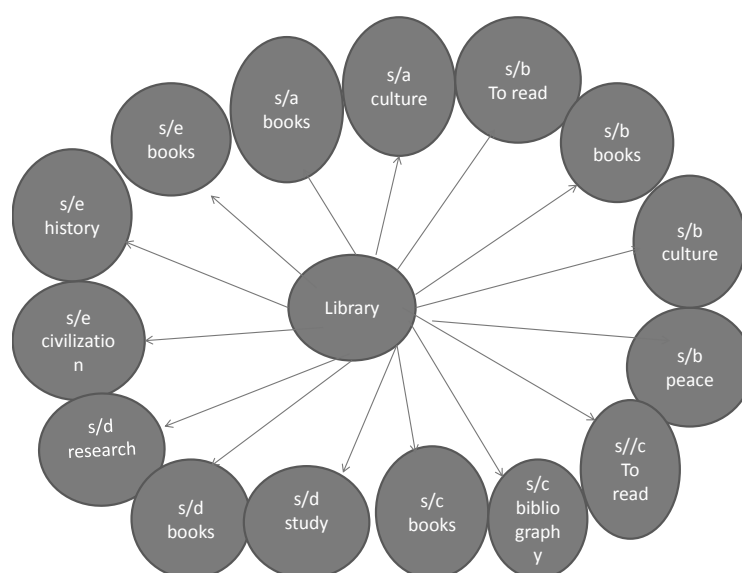


Figure 3. Semantic network of "Library" among bilingual Arabic/French subjects

Figure 4 shows semantic relationships among the subjects of monolingual French with the term "library". First of all, the relationship of availability is seen when the term "library" is associated with "books", "documents", "literature" and "CD". This means that in the "library", we always find "documents", "books" and "CD" which are related to "literature". Then, there is a relation that expresses the discipline between the terms "library" and "serious". This means that in the "library", people come to work in a "serious" manner. There are also relationship that expresses the action between the words "library" and "work". It means that the "library" is also a place to "work". Other than that, there is a relationship of similarity between the two units "library" and "Media library". This relationship expresses the similarity between the two terms because in France, a "Media library" is a kind of "library".

Finally, the last type of relationship is expressed in a semantic network between the words "library", "childhood" and "university". This relationship expresses gender or membership because in the "library", we find documents related to "childhood" and "university".

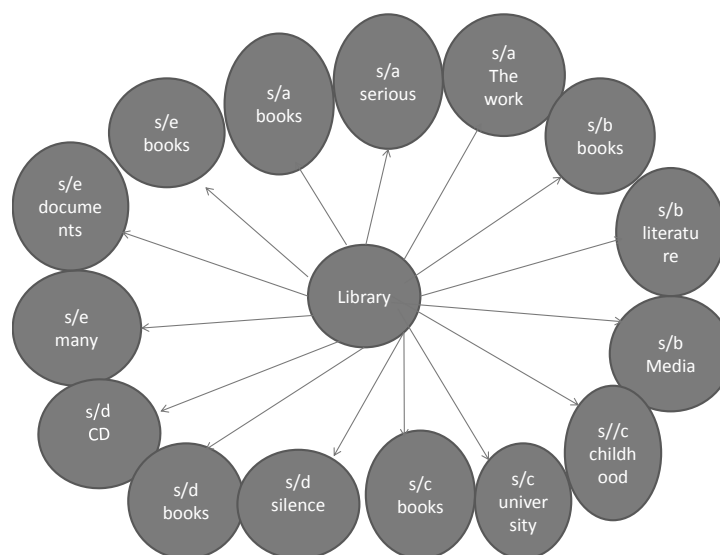


Figure 4. Semantic network of "Library" among monolingual French subjects

Taxonomic Model

The models developed by Collins and Quillian (1969), and Collins and Loftus (1975) are liable for the architectural representation of the memory. The models indicate a broad semantic network within the information which is coded and organized abstractly and relatively permanent in semantic memory. The model by Collins and Quillian (1969) supported the hypothesis of a hierarchical organization represented in the form of interconnected nodes. The network model by Collins and Loftus (1975) adapted Collins and Quillian (1969) model, without emphasizing the importance of hierarchical structure. Furthermore, Collins and Quillian (1969) introduced the taxonomic model of semantic memory. These inclusions define the level of abstraction and the implementation of a relationship (ISA = IS). For instance, the phrase like: "the elephant is an animal" leads to structuring the memory in an organized category according to the principal economy of language. Figure 5 illustrates this from an example given by our subjects.

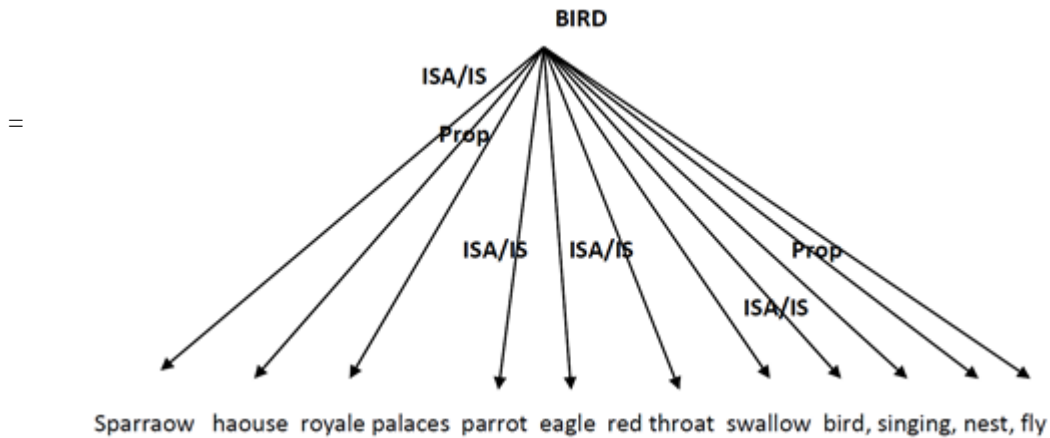


Figure 5. The taxonomic organization of property relations (Prop) and definition (ISA = IS), the semantic network of "Bird".

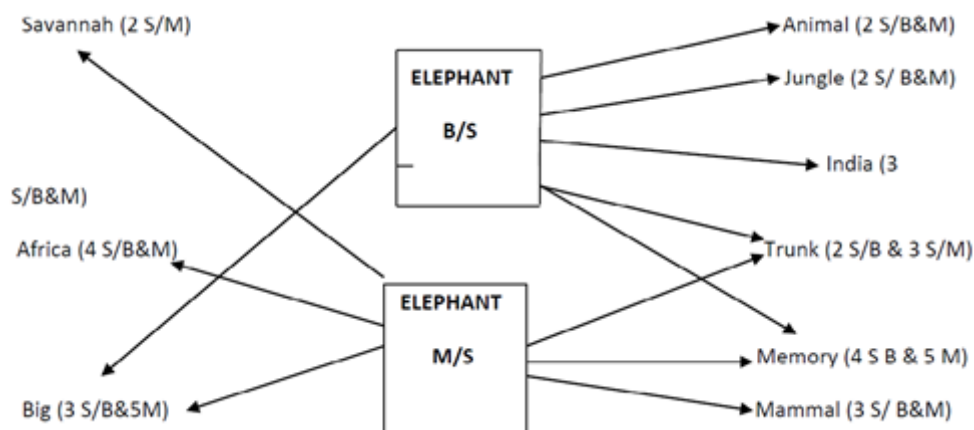
The interest of taxonomic organization is that each node inherits the properties of nodes that are supra-ordered. According to Quillian and Collins (1969), the existence of such hierarchical organization is evidenced by the audit time: responding that “canary” is “bird”, is faster than the time required to response that the “canary” is an “animal”. Juola and Atkinson (1971) showed that the response time depends on the number of elements of the given class. In addition, the taxonomic organization shows the existence of different types of links within the two groups as such;

1. Two types of taxonomic relations associate with *hyponymy* inclusion relationship between the lexical units, oriented from the most specific to the most general. Such as "elephant" and "animal, mammal";
2. The *hyperonymy* inclusion relationship between the lexical units oriented from the most general to the most specific. For example, "books" and "library";
3. *Physical characteristics* ("grey, big, etc." and "elephant");
4. Relation of *all-partly* between lexical unity, for instance, "elephant" and "trunk".

Connectionist Model

Connectional model was proposed by Boutanquoui (2003) to highlight the main strengths of association. According to him, a unit is connected to another, if a significant number of topics are associated to it. This means that the system is governed by several activations or no spread so that only the rate of activation reaches a certain value. Figure 6 illustrates the associative strength of the word “elephant” and their numbers of associations. The summary of findings as followings:

1. Associative strengths may vary from one population to another. If the number of subjects give the same associative answer, then it is only a reflection of the associative strength between these words;
2. Associations are symmetrical: the presentation of the word "elephant", three French students answered "trunk, big", while two Arabic-speaking students answered "trunk, big".
3. Associative responses are different in nature: some are designated as characteristic that is usually co-occurrence such as "trunk, memory", other places such as "jungle, Africa, India" and others such as a categorization of "mammal".



Notes: Numbers in the Figure indicate the number of occurrence of each word; S= Subject; B=Bilingual; M=Monolingual

Figure 6. Representation of the associative strength of the word "Elephant" and the number of occurrences among bilingual and monolingual subjects

DISCUSSION

Overall, this experimental study on semantic priming showed several types of semantic relationships within a semantic network. This directly reflects the positive effects of priming between target words and words evoked by two groups of bilingual Arabic/French and monolingual French. In this logic, these two groups produced the same relation of the term "elephant" which were similar to the relations found where I had found (typicality, categorization, existence and the similarity). Nevertheless, we noticed that there were some semantic relationships in the same semantic field that were more or less distant from other relationships, for example, the terms "Babar" and "peace". This can be explained by the influence of the socio-cultural sphere of French subjects, while the choice of bilingual Arabic/French subjects can be due to the phenomenon of the word on the tip lips. Furthermore, we also identified that both groups used different vocabulary but expressed almost similar relationships, except for the words that were related to the country "Media library" or socio-cultural term, "Babar". In addition, lexical fluency in bilingual subjects of Arabic/French reflects the strong connection which facilitates the association between words in their semantic memory. This facilitation is explained by the following processes:

1. Retrieving a stored item corresponds to the activation of its internal representation.
2. Activation diffuses within a network traces/nodes/interconnected concepts.
3. Activation of the accumulation of a concept facilitates later retrieval.

This means that the organization of semantic memory is formed by a set of nodes interconnected according to their semantic relationships. Each node represents a concept that connects to the other concepts into a semantic net. Therefore, the priming effects can be easily understood when the subjects treat the boot activation of corresponding concept and diffuses into the network of similar concepts which are strongly connected. This cognitive process will facilitate communication of thought among every person, including those who speak a foreign language. In this context, Tesnière (1959, p.1) said;

The connection is indispensable to expression of thought. Without the connection, we would not be able to express any continuous thought, and we could only list as succession of images and ideas isolated from each other and without any link between them.

CONCLUSION

The technique of semantic priming shows that words are stored in memory in the form of semantic networks. They express different relationships between them that are included in both models like taxonomic and connectionist. In addition, we remarked the existence of similarity between the semantic relations among the groups of bilingual Arabic/French and monolingual French despite of both geographic distance and cultural vision. However, due to the fact that these two groups share French language, this allowed us to see a similarity of semantic relationships. It explains the interesting properties of neurons in parallel processing such as: the network can simultaneously process different categories of data or the same data at different levels. Then, in term of learning ability, the network can learn and adapt to a new stimuli. Concretely this means that the network keeps track of these experiences (Boutanquoi, 2003). However, these models suffer from the following shortcomings: The hierarchical model of Collins and Loftus (1975); Collins and Quillian (1969) shows that the speed that the subjects treated certain concepts in the case of the prototype based on the concepts that include the notion of typicality. In this case, we suppose that the processing time of a node depends directly on the position of the node in the hierarchy. The nodes on-ordained should be processed more quickly than the sub-ordered nodes. Moreover, the model proposed by Boutanquoi (2003) did not fully cover the connectionist system, for example the description of the properties of neurons organized in layers that inhibit completely to form a layer at the time of activation.

Nevertheless, the results of this study can be used among psycholinguists to study the functioning of the mental lexicon and the mechanisms that govern the storage of words semantic Memoir. It is obvious that the words should be stored in an organized manner; otherwise, are not able to find them. Nowadays, in the field of speech pathology, the neuro-psychiatrists could use semantic priming technique to measure the degree of lexical and syntactic degeneration in the Alzheimer patients. This also allows them to detect this disease and to act upstream.

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MISSELECTION AND RELATED ERRORS IN MALAY WRITING AMONG FRENCH STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

Error analysis is one of the ways to study and correct learners' mistakes in vocabulary and syntax in the process of learning a foreign language. Hence, this study aims to analyse misselection and related errors made by French students in their learning Malay as a foreign language with regard to the writing skills. The study utilized quantitative and qualitative method of data collection, by applying the definition of misselection errors by Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) and misinformation errors by James (1998) to the analysis. A total of 10 French respondents participated in this study. The task consisted of the administration of the four writing task. The study discovered the most dominant error produced by French students in their Malay written tasks were misselection on lexis (52%), misselection error on affix/ suffix (16%) and misselection errors on the phrases (11%). As a result of this preliminary study, it is hoped that learners can acquire a better understanding of the Malay language; and future study can help classify the errors that learners made and how they could overcome them.

Keywords: French learners, Malay as a foreign language, misselection errors, misinformation errors, written tasks

INTRODUCTION

Learning a new language is no easy task, especially when the features of the target language are different than the mother tongue. According to Lado (1957, p.2);

We assume that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult.

The differences between the two languages are among the roots for errors committed by the learners. According to Hemchua and Schmitt (2006), foreign language learners in their learning process, produce inevitably errors of various types. Therefore, by analyzing these errors in language acquisition, it can help the instructors to predict and classify the learners' type of errors which will later be useful for the development of teaching materials and the selection of teaching methods (Kitao & Kitao, 2000).

Learner errors can be categorized into various criteria relating to production and distribution of verb groups, prepositions, articles, and the use of questions (Heydari & Bagheri, 2012). Brown (2000) divided them into two main sources of errors, which are interlingual and intralingual errors. Interlingual errors refer to those errors that are

produced due to first language interference, whereas intralingual errors refer to those resulted from faulty or incomplete learning of the targeted language (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) on the other hand established four broad classifications of errors: linguistic taxonomy, surface strategy taxonomy, comparative analysis taxonomy and communicative effect taxonomy. Under surface strategy taxonomy by Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982), errors are divided into four categories, which are omission errors, addition errors, misformation errors and misordering errors. The first category of the surface strategy taxonomy, which is omission errors refer to the absence of an item (such as articles, prepositions) which must be present in a well-formed utterance. Oppositely, the second category which is addition errors, are the extra item which is present in a well formed utterance. Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) divide addition errors further into three categories, which are double markings, regularization and simple addition, which contains the rest of additions. The third category of the surface strategy taxonomy is misordering errors, which refer to misordered items in construction and require a reversal of word order rules that had previously been acquired. These errors also include misplacing items that are correctly placed in more than one place in a sentence. The last category, which is misformation error, refers to “the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure” (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen; 1982, p.158). There are three types of misformation errors as well: (a) in regularizations an irregular marker is replaced by a regular one, (b) archi-forms and (c) alternating forms are represented by “free alternation of various members of a class with each other (Dulay Burt, & Krashen (1982, p.157).

James (1998) alternatively called misformation error as misselection, since the error was triggered by selecting the wrong word, and not by using the wrong form of words. These errors were produced by learners when they personalized their mother tongue to suit the requirements or rules of the target language. The misselection errors (or misformation errors as called by Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982) are the base of this study.

The process of learning a language involves four main skills, which are writing, speaking, hearing and reading skills. Writing is a difficult process even in the mother tongue. Undeniably, it is more complex to write in a foreign language. Hence, a lot of errors were produced during the writing process. According to Heydari and Bagheri (2012), a better understanding of the errors and the origin of such errors in the process of foreign language writing will help teachers know students' difficulties in learning that language. Moreover, it will aid in the adoption of appropriate teaching strategies to help foreign language students learn better.

Hazlina, Normaliza, Mohd Azidan and Adi Yasran (2011) carried a study to identify grammatical gender misselection errors made by Malaysian students learning French as a foreign language with regard to writing skills by applying the definition of misselection errors by Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982). Their respondents were 40 students who were learning French in the intermediate level. The results showed that students made misselection errors of French prepositions, verbs, adjectives, articles, and lexis.

Darus and Subramaniam (2009) on the other hand, examined errors in a corpus of 72 essays written by 72 participants. Their participants consisted of 37 male and 35 female students who had experienced approximately the same number of years of education through primary and secondary education in Malaysia. The instrument used for this study was participants' written essays and Markin software. Their findings showed that six most common errors committed by the participants were singular/plural form,

verb tense, word choice, preposition, subject-verb agreement and word order. These aspects of writing in English posed the most difficult problems to participants.

This study, as opposed to the study by Hazlina Abdul Halim et al. (2011) examined misselection errors and misinformation errors produced by French students in Malay writings by applying the definition of misselection errors by Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) and misinformation errors by James (1998).

PROBLEM STATEMENT

The Malay language is linguistically different from French, and among the striking differences are the grammar and pronunciation (Hazlina, Normaliza, Mohd Azidan, & Adi Yasran, 2009). Thus, the incomplete knowledge retained by learners will tend to produce linguistic errors such as the incorrect application of vocabulary, incorrect syntax etc., in a way a native speaker regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning (Richards, 1992, p.127).

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this research study are as follows:

1. to identify the misselection errors (also called misinformation errors) made by French non-native speakers of Malay as a foreign language in their writing following the definition given by Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982), and
2. to discuss the misselection errors made by French non-native speakers of Malay as a foreign language in their writing.

LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This study will only discuss the misselection errors in Malay writings by French students. It will not discuss other types of errors e.g. additional errors, omission errors, etc. Also, this study does not take into consideration how the differences and similarities affect the choice of the writing strategies used.

METHODOLOGY

This study utilized quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection. The subjects consisted of 3rd year Malay language students in the Institut de Langues et Civilisations Orientales (INALCO), Paris, France. A total of 10 French respondents aged between 24 to 58 participated in this study. Factors such as age, gender and race were not controlled in this study. The instrument used in the study was the completion of four writing tasks by the subjects, which consists of two essay writing of 150-200 words and 2 exercises on sentence building. The data was analysed using the definition of misselection error from surface strategy taxonomy by Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) and of misinformation errors by James (1998).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Overall, 600 sentences were analyzed from the four essays (rough estimation on minimum sentences for the two essays (30 sentences) multiplied by the ten respondents). Below are the results for the four writing tasks given;

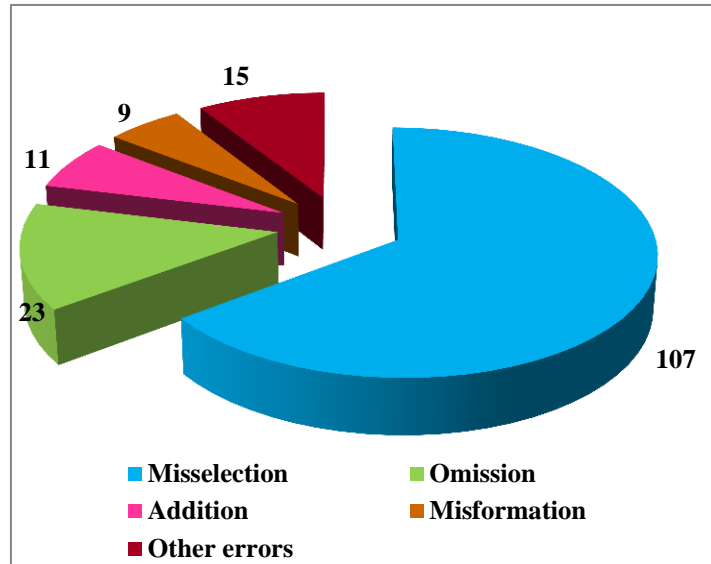


Chart 1. Overall result of Malay language writing tasks by French students

The study found the most dominant error produced by French students in their Malay written tasks was misselection errors (65 % of total errors). From this total, the major misselection errors were misselection on lexis (52%), misselection error on affix/suffix (16%) and misselection errors on the phrases (11%). The repartition of misselection errors is as Chart 2 below:

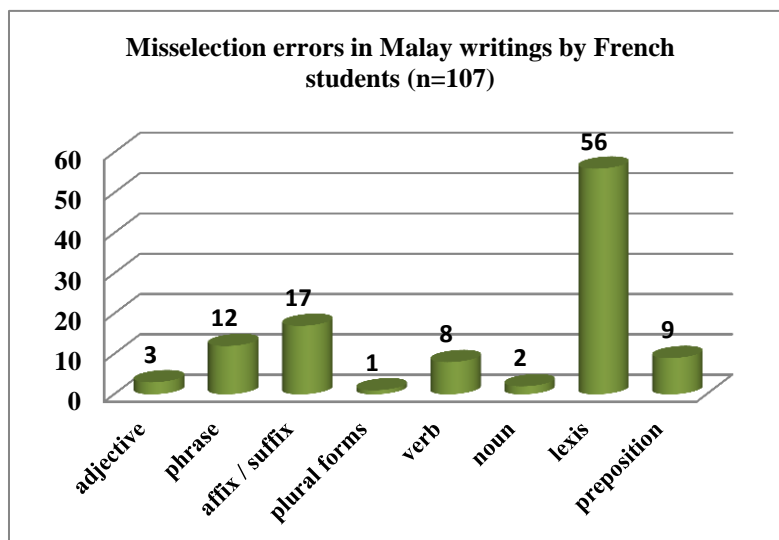


Chart 2. Repartition of misselection errors in Malay language writing tasks by French students

Misselection Errors on Malay Lexis

Misselection errors on lexis were produced by French students due to either direct translation from French or English, or approximation to the targeted vocabulary. In both instances, they were interlingual errors demonstrating “when the required third language item is unknown and the learner borrows a mother tongue’s substitute, the consequence is an first language transfer error” (James, 1998, p.175). In the case of misselection errors caused by literal translation (as per Table 1 below), the respondents tried to create Malay words which are similar to their mother tongue (French). In consequence, they produced words such as *amoral* (from the French word *immoral*), *fiksi* (from the word *fiction*), *kriminal* (from the word *criminelle*), *kontak* (from the word *contact*) and *aktris* (from the word *actrice*), which do not exist in Malay.

Table 1. Example of misselection errors of Malay lexis by French students in their writing tasks caused by literal translation from the mother tongue

Malay sentences by French students	Appropriate phrase in Malay
1. <i>Realiti televisyen dianggap amoral kerana memaparkan semua aspek kehidupan peserta rancangan.</i> (Translation: Reality TV programmes are considered immoral because they display all the aspects of live of their participants).	<i>Rancangan realiti di televisyen dianggap tidak bermoral kerana memaparkan semua aspek kehidupan peserta rancangan.</i>
2. <i>Daripada melarang langsung filem yang berisiko, orang tua lebih baik menjelaskan lagi peranan fiksi agar pemuda lebih sadar dan kritis.</i> (Translation: Rather than strictly forbid watching risky movies, it is better for the adults to explain the role of fiction so that the youngsters will be more aware and think critically).	<i>Daripada melarang terus menonton filem yang berisiko, adalah lebih baik jika orang dewasa menjelaskan peranan fiksyen agar kaum remaja lebih peka dan lebih berfikiran kritis</i>
3. <i>Tambahan pula, banyak sekali account palsu yang digunakan untuk melakukan tindakan kriminal.</i> (Translation: Moreover, there are too many fake accounts being used to do criminal activities).	<i>Tambahan pula, banyak sekali akaun palsu yang digunakan untuk melakukan tindakan jenayah.</i>
4. <i>Melalui facebook sangat mudah menemukan kontak-kontak baru.</i> (Translation: It is very easy to find new contacts via facebook).	<i>Melalui facebook sangat mudah untuk bertemu kenalan baru.</i>
5. <i>Contohnya, para penggemar selebriti perlu tahu apa pun yang terkait dengan aktor dan aktris disukai mereka.</i> (Translation: For example, celebrity lovers should know anything related to the actors or actresses whom they like).	<i>Contohnya, para penggemar selebriti sepatutnya tahu apa pun yang berkait dengan aktor dan pelakon wanita yang disukai mereka.</i>

The second category of errors by using approximation on Malay lexis was produced when the respondents couldn’t recall the correct vocabulary; hence, they substituted them with the ones having the approximate meaning to the intended vocabularies. Table 2 showed some of the examples of misselection errors on Malay lexis triggered by the use of approximation technique.

Table 2. Example of misselection errors on Malay lexis by French students in their writing tasks by using approximation

Malay sentences by French students	Appropriate phrase in Malay
1. <i>Orang biasa bermimpi menjadi seorang populer.</i> (Translation: Human always dream of becoming popular).	<i>Manusia selalu bermimpi untuk menjadi populer.</i> (Translation: People always dream of becoming popular).
2. <i>Penggunanya adalah orang dari hampir setiap negara di dunia.</i> (Translation: The users are humans from almost every country in this world)	<i>Penggunanya adalah masyarakat dari hampir setiap negara di dunia.</i> (Translation: The users are societies from almost every country in this world)
3. <i>Tetapi teman-teman asli adalah orang lebih dekat yang kita boleh menemui sebenarnya.</i> (Translation: But real friends are those nearer to us and the ones we can actually meet)	<i>Tetapi teman sejati adalah mereka lebih dekat yang kita boleh menemui sebenarnya.</i> (Translation: But true friends are those nearer to us and the ones we can actually meet)
4. <i>Apalagi mereka mengabaikan interaksi sosial kerana mereka sudah boleh cakap dengan kawan mereka melalui Facebook.</i> (Translation: Moreover, they ignored social interactions since they can speak with their friends through Facebook)	<i>Apalagi mereka mengabaikan interaksi sosial kerana mereka sudah boleh berkomunikasi dengan kawan mereka melalui Facebook.</i> (Translation: Moreover, they ignored social interactions since they can communicate with their friends through Facebook)
5. <i>Fleksibiliti Facebook juga boleh ditengok dari perspektif kebebasan pengguna.</i> (Translation: Facebook flexibility can also be viewed from the perspective of users' freedom)	<i>Fleksibiliti Facebook juga dapat dilihat daripada perspektif kebebasan pengguna.</i> (Translation: Facebook flexibility can also be viewed from the perspective of users' freedom)
6. <i>Kita boleh menjadi tercandu kepada segala jejaring sosial.</i> (Translation: We can get addicted to all social networks)	<i>Kita boleh menjadi ketagih kepada segala jejaring sosial.</i> (Translation: We can get addicted to all social networks)
7. <i>Kemunculan halaman sosial ini menyebabkan interaksi interpersonal secara tatap muka cenderung menurun.</i> (Translation: The emergence of these social sites makes face-to-face interpersonal interaction tends to reduced).	<i>Kemunculan halaman sosial ini menyebabkan interaksi interpersonal secara berhadapan makin menurun.</i> (Translation: The emergence of these social sites makes face-to-face interpersonal interaction tends to reduced).

As per illustrated in Table 2, the respondents tried to find the alternative when they couldn't find the exact vocabularies, hence the use of vocabularies which approximatively have the same meaning as the targeted words. In the first and second example, the respondent tried to find an approximate term for 'human' and 'people', therefore they use the word 'orang' instead of *manusia* (for human) and *masyarakat* (for people).

Approximation strategy was also used in the following examples. In the third example, the respondent used the expression *teman asli* (meaning closer to 'real friend') instead of writing *teman sejati* to express 'true friends'. The same goes for sentence 4 where the respondent substituted the word *berkomunikasi* (communicate) with *cakap*, and for sentence 5, where the word *ditengok* was used to substitute *dilihat* (to be viewed).

Misselection Errors on Malay Affixes

Misselection errors on Malay affixes were produced by French students due to overgeneralisation of their use in Malay sentences. Below are a few examples of misselection errors on Malay affixes made by French students:

Table 3. Examples of misselection errors on Malay affixes by French students in their writing tasks

French sentences by Malaysian students	Appropriate phrase in Malay
1. <i>Ada yang membenci acara TV kerana hanya terfokus pada kepribadian dari beberapa orang yang bersikap luar biasa.</i> (Translation: there are some who hate TV programmes as they only accidentally focused on the personality of a few people who behave unnaturally).	<i>Ada yang membenci program TV kerana hanya memfokuskan pada keperibadian daripada beberapa orang yang bersikap luar biasa.</i> (Translation: there are some who hate TV programmes as they only focus on the personality of a few people who behave unnaturally)
2. <i>Bahasa kebangsaan boleh terbuka pintu untuk mereka.</i> (Translation: National language can accidentally open doors / ways for them).	<i>Bahasa kebangsaan boleh membuka pintu kepada mereka.</i> (Translation: National language can open doors / ways for them).
3. <i>...Facebook dapat dianggap baik sebagai kelebihan maupun sebagai kelemahan, tergantung kepada sudut pandang yang dipilih.</i> (Translation: Facebook can be an advantage as well as disadvantage, depending accidentally on which angle we view.)	<i>... Facebook dapat dianggap sebagai kelebihan maupun sebagai kelemahan, bergantung kepada perspektif yang dipilih.</i> (Translation: Facebook can be an advantage as well as disadvantage, depending on which angle we view.)
4. <i>Penggunaan bahasa Inggeris dalam media Perancis belum begitu menyebar dibandingkan dengan negeri-negeri lain.</i> (Translation: The use of English in French media has so spread as compared to other countries.)	<i>Penggunaan bahasa Inggeris dalam media Perancis belum begitu tersebar dibandingkan dengan negeri-negeri lain.</i> (Translation: The use of English in French media has not been so widely spread as compared to other countries.)

In the first three examples, the respondents overgeneralized the use of the affix *ter-* in Malay in their writings. In Malay, the use of *ter-* brings various meanings to the sentence. The first meaning for the affix *ter-* which is combined with a verb denotes a past and well executed action by a subject. For example:

Buku itu sudah siap tersusun untuk pameran esok.

Translation: The book has been arranged for the exhibition tomorrow.

Another sense for the affix *ter-* is an unintentional act such as *terjatuh* (to fall unintentionally), *termakan* (to accidentally eat) and *tergigit* (to accidentally bite). The last meaning for the Malay affix *ter-* is the inability to perform an act. For example:

Dia tidak termakan hidangan yang sungguh banyak itu.

Translation: He / She is unable to eat such an abundant meal.

From Table 3 above, misselection errors on affix *ter-* were produced when the respondents generalized the use of other affixes without taking into account the context of the sentence. In Sentence 1 and 2, the correct affix to be used is *mem-...-kan* which signifies the execution of an action for someone. Hence, instead of writing *terfokus* (accidentally focused on), the correct word should be *memfokuskan* (focusing on).

The same goes for Sentence 2, where the use of *ter-* in *terbuka* (accidentally open) was out of context. The correct affix would be *membuka* (opens). An example of the generalization of affix is shown in Sentence 3, where the respondent generalized the use of affix *ter-* to replace *ber-* in his/her sentence, bringing the meaning from 'depending' to 'accidentally depends'. The correct affix would be *bergantung* (depending on). The affix *ber-* in Malay is actually used to indicate the word is a form of verb, bringing on these meanings below:

1. Wearing something.

Example: *Lara berbaju kuning dan berseluar jingga.*

Translation: Lara is wearing yellow shirt and orange pants.

2. Outcome.

Example: *Pokok delima saya sudah berbuah.*

Translation: My pomegranate tree has produced fruits.

3. Riding a vehicle.

Example: *Dia berkereta ke pejabat.*

Translation: He drives to the office.

4. Executing a job.

Example: *Pak Tani bersawah hingga ke petang.*

Translation: Pak Tani is planting rice till dawn.

5. A reflective action (which falls onto oneself).

Example: *Kita harus bersabar.*

Translation: We have to be patient.

6. An assumption of something.

Example: *Saya berkawan dengan Maya sejak dari kecil.*

Translation: I have been Maya's friend since childhood.

The opposite goes to the last sentence from Table 3, where the respondents should be using the affix *ter-* for *tersebar* (spread unintentionally), instead of using the affix *men-* (denoting the action of spreading). From the examples above, it was clear that the respondents overgeneralized the rules of using Malay affixes without being aware of the context of when they should actually be used, especially for the affix *ter-* which counted for most of misselection errors on affixes.

Misselection Errors on Malay Phrases

Similar to misselection errors on Malay lexis, errors in Malay phrases were due to respondents' insufficient Malay vocabulary, thus they overcame the deficiency by using approximation strategy. Table 4 below shows a few samples of misselection errors on Malay phrases:

Table 4. Example of misselection errors on Malay phrases by French students in their writing tasks

Malay sentences by French students	Appropriate phrase in Malay
1. <i>Buat awam, privasinya boleh menyebabkan kesan yang teruk jika had tertentu tidak dipenuhi.</i> (Translation: For public, his privacy can cause severe consequences if certain limits are not met.)	<i>Bagi orang awam, privasi mereka boleh terjejas jika tiada had tertentu yang ditetapkan.</i> (Translation: For the public, their privacy could be affected if no specific limit is set.)
2. <i>Menurut saya, penggunaan internet dalam pembelajaran bahasa punya kebaikan dan keburukan.</i> (Translation: According to me, the use of Internet in language learning has advantages and disadvantages.)	<i>Pada pendapat saya, penggunaan internet dalam pembelajaran bahasa mempunyai kebaikan dan keburukan.</i> (Translation: In my opinion, the use of Internet in language learning has advantages and disadvantages.)
3. <i>Saya fikir bahawa pada waktu kita balik kampung, nanti kita sudah merasa lebih tua, bijaksana dan terbuka otak.</i> (Translation: I think that at the time we return home, we'll already feel older, wiser and open brain.)	<i>Saya rasa bahawa pada waktu kita balik kampung, kita akan merasa lebih matang, bijaksana dan berfikiran lebih terbuka.</i> (Translation: I think that at the time we return home, we'll already feel more mature, wiser and open minded.)
4. <i>Walaupun jaringan ini digunakan dengan massa, tidak hanya ada kelebihan dalam penggunaannya.</i> (Translation: Although the network is used in mass, not only have advantages in its use.)	<i>Walaupun jaringan ini digunakan dengan meluas, namun ada juga kelemahan dalam penggunaannya.</i> (Translation: Although this network is widely used, but there are also disadvantages in its use.)
5. <i>Saya fikir facebook dapat membuat kecanduan, sesungguhnya banyak orang kekal lama di facebook.</i> (Translation: I think facebook can make the addiction, for many people lived on facebook.)	<i>Saya berpendapat facebook boleh menyebabkan ketagihan, justeru itu banyak orang mensia-siakan masa mereka di facebook.</i> (Translation: I think Facebook can be addictive, and thus many people waste their time in facebook.)

In the example 1, the respondent wrote *menyebabkan kesan yang teruk jika had tertentu tidak dipenuhi* (translation: cause severe consequences if certain limits are not met) instead of writing *boleh terjejas jika tiada had tertentu yang ditetapkan* (translation: could be affected if no specific limit is set) as a result of not having Malay vocabulary to express the verb *terjejas* (affected) and *ditetapkan* (is met).

In Sentence 2, the respondent tried rephrasing *pada pendapat saya* (translation: in my opinion) to *menurut saya* (translation: according to me), which roughly has the same meaning, but was not a correct phrase to be used. In both case of Sentence 1 & 2, though there were errors in the phrases, the meaning could still be understood by any Malay speaker.

In Sentence 3, the respondent tried to express the experience overseas that made someone become more mature, wiser and open minded when they come back to their countries. Due to lack of vocabularies, he / she rephrased her Malay phrase to *kita sudah merasa lebih tua, bijaksana dan terbuka otak* (translation: we'll already feel older, wiser and open brain) instead of phrasing them as *kita akan merasa lebih matang, bijaksana dan berfikiran lebih terbuka* (translation: we'll already feel more mature, wiser and open minded).

Lastly, in the example from the Sentence 4, the respondent couldn't find the correct vocabulary to formulate her Malay phrase in active form (*namun ada juga kelemahan dalam penggunaannya*), thus wrote them in inappropriate passive form (*tidak hanya ada kelebihan dalam penggunaannya*).

Other Misselection Errors

In this study, there were equally other misselection errors on Malay prepositions and Malay verbs, but the number was not as significant as other errors. Errors on Malay prepositions mainly concerned the use of *dari* and *daripada* (both means from in English), which confuses the French respondents. Examples for the errors are illustrated in Table 5 below:

Table 5. Example of misselection errors on Malay preposition by French students in their writing tasks

Malay sentences by French students	Appropriate phrase in Malay
1. <i>Kita juga tak boleh mengabaikan isu yang dipertanyakan dalam teks yang dipetik dari Utusan Malaysia....</i> (Translation: We cannot avoid the issues brought up by the texts taken from Utusan Malaysia...)	<i>Kita juga tak boleh mengabaikan isu yang dipertanyakan dalam teks yang dipetik daripada Utusan Malaysia...</i>
2. <i>Fleksibiliti Facebook juga boleh ditengok dari perspektif kebebasan pengguna, kerana ia dapat dipakai dalam segala macam konteks.</i> Translation: the flexibility of Facebook can be seen from the perspective of users' right, as it could be applied in various context.	<i>Fleksibiliti Facebook juga boleh dilihat daripada perspektif kebebasan pengguna, kerana ia dapat dipakai dalam segala macam konteks</i>

In Malay language, the preposition *dari* is used in front of a noun or a phrase which explains direction, places or time (translated from <http://prpm.dbp.gov.my/>) as showed in the example below:

1. *Dia datang dari bandar* (translation: he comes from town).
2. *Kereta itu bergerak dari arah utara* (translation: the car comes from north).

On the other hand, the preposition *daripada* is used in front of a noun or a phrase which indicate the source of human, animals, objects and abstract elements, the source or origin of something, a part of the whole or preposition for comparison (translated from <http://prpm.dbp.gov.my/>), as per the example below:

1. *Ahmad menerima bungkusan daripada ibunya.* (translation: Ahmad receives a parcel from his mother)
2. *Meja itu diperbuat daripada kayu jati* (translation: the table is made from solid wood)

In the examples in Table 4, both sentences were from the second category (*daripada*). In Sentence 1, Utusan Malaysia is a Malaysian newspaper, thus an object, and in Sentence 2, *perspektif* is an abstract element. Therefore, in both sentences, the correct Malay preposition would be *daripada*. Misselection errors on Malay verbs, similarly to errors on Malay phrases and lexis, were due to recourse to approximation strategy. Below are some of the examples of these errors:

1. *Bahasa Melayu juga dipakai sebagai bahasa perdagangan dan perhubungan selama beberapa abad di negara itu.*
Translation: Malay language is also used as the language of commerce and communication since the last few decades by that country.
2. *Apalagi, bahasanya adalah bahasa yang dicakap oleh kebanyakan orang Malaysia dan dikenal sebagai lingua franca.*
Translation: Moreover, the language is the language spoken by most of Malaysians and known as lingua franca.

In both examples above, the vocabularies used have the correct meaning but they were Malay argot, thus were out of context in written sentences as above.

OVERALL FINDINGS

This study explored misselection errors made by French students in their Malay writing course. The study discovered that the misselection errors were the most dominant errors produced by the students. The errors were occurred due to lack of relevant vocabularies and also an “overgeneralisation on the application of rules”.

CONCLUSION

Overall, this research, which adopted the definition of misselection error by Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) and misinformation errors by James (1998). It attempted to identify errors made by French non-native speakers of Malay in their writing. This exploratory study on error analysis is useful for both non-Malay and teachers teaching Malay to foreigners. As a result of this preliminary study, learners can acquire a better understanding of the Malay language. Future studies can help classify the errors that learners made and ways to overcome them. Recognizing, understanding and evading such errors can help to facilitate learners’ learning process. Similarly, this exploratory study is useful for teachers by identifying at which point—and why—learners committed the specific errors. An analysis on these errors can be helpful for curriculum design and teaching techniques in ways that minimize the occurrence of errors (Hongquan & Kikuko, 2007). It will also help the teachers to prepare the explanations to their students

on the reason such elements in students' writing are considered erroneous, for a better understanding in Malay language is attained.

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WHEN ASTROPHYSICS MEETS LAY AND SPECIALIZED AUDIENCES: TITLES IN POPULAR AND SCIENTIFIC PAPERS

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ABSTRACT

In this study we carry out a comparative analysis between titles of research papers published in the most authoritative specialized European and US-based astrophysics journals written in English and titles of articles on astrophysics published in *Scientific American Magazine*, the most prestigious English-written journal in the divulgation of science. We specifically address issues related to three linguistic variables: title length, title lexical density and title type. Our main results show that titles of research papers published in scientific journals are much longer than titles of articles published in *Scientific American Magazine*. Lexical density is also higher in scientific titles than in popular science ones. *Scientific American Magazine* titles are formulated in a clear and direct way, with no syntactic complexity. They consist primarily in simple and nominal constructions with a low presence of adjectives, compound groups and technical terminology. The predominance of nominal compounds over adjectival ones and the use of proper names, which mainly refer to well-known stars, planets, satellites and galaxies, imply that popular science titles usually deal with more global and well established concepts. The higher number of verbal titles and of definite articles in popular science titles when compared to scientific titles may also be interpreted as a greater desire to generalize the ideas presented. This study may be applied to languages other than English and would surely be of the utmost importance to determine the design of titles of scientific and popular science papers, not only in astrophysics but also in other fields.

Keywords: astrophysics, English, *Scientific American Magazine*, specialized journals, titles

INTRODUCTION

Titles are a front and summary matter (Swales, 1990) in the sense that they are both the first encounter between readers and any type of document, whether it is a research article, a thesis, a conference paper, a review paper, etc., and the main indicator of its content (Diener, 1984; Hartley, 2008; Soler, 2011; Yitzhaki, 1994). Due to the steady growth of papers published either in print or on online, titles must capture the reader's eye to the point from which s/he decides whether a text is worth reading or not. Thus attractiveness is not the only thing that matters in title formulation. Titles should also be clear, concise, independent and self-explanatory (Ball, 2009; Day, 1995; Gesuato, 2009; Haggan, 2004; Hartley, 2008; Swales & Feak, 1994) in order to accurately orient the reader to the

concept(s) under discussion in the papers that follow. As a matter of fact, precision, accuracy, economy and conciseness are the features of titles to which most scientific journal editors refer in the 'instructions for contributors' section of their journals (Haggan, 2004; Soler, 2007; Yakhontova, 2002). Moreover, the more precise and accurate a title is, the easier it is for bibliographers to compile data for indexing, abstracting and other documentation purposes. The importance of titles in the academic world has thus provoked that titling practices have been the object of a significant amount of research addressed by applied linguists, information scientists and psychologists, the main interests being placed in mono- and multi-disciplinary standpoints. Multi-generic and multi-linguistic perspectives have also been approached although to a lower degree.

Mono-disciplinary Studies

The field of medicine has been very productive for mono-disciplinary research on titles. Goodman (2000) asserted that titles of clinical trial reports were becoming more informative, whereas Goodman, Thacker and Siegel (2001) noted that editors occasionally modified titles of medical research articles in order to increase their clarity and informativity. McGowan and Tugwell (2005) recommended using informative titles in clinical epidemiology and Cook, Beckman and Bordage (2007) also claimed that informative titles facilitated reading and searching literature in medical education. Along the same lines, Ubriani, Smith and Katz (2007) suggested that titles should include the study design in order to better enable editors, reviewers and readers to assess critically the articles published in clinically-oriented dermatology journals. Wang and Bai (2007) observed that nominal groups were widely used in medical research paper titles while Jacques and Sebire (2009) discovered a positive correlation of citations and title length in generalist and specialist medical journals. Jaime-Sisó (2009) found differences in the number of full sentence titles of biomedical articles and Cianflone (2010) demonstrated that nominal and compound structures were preferred in the titles of research papers published in veterinary medicine. Salager-Meyer, Alcaraz Ariza and Luzardo Briceño (2013), on their side, showed that medical case report titles have been steadily increasing in length, syntactic complexity, semantic richness and title type diversity.

Other scholars also adopted the mono-disciplinary perspective to approach the studies of titles. For instance, Anthony (2001) recorded statistically significant differences in citation rates of research article titles in computer science, and Cheng, Kuo and Kuo (2012) revealed that compound titles constituted more than half of the occurrences of research article titles in applied linguistics. Paiva, Lima and Paiva (2012) found that short-titled articles of papers retrieved from Public Library of Science journals and Biomed Central had higher viewing and citation rates than long-titled articles, whereas Krajnović and Omrčen (2013) disclosed that nominal group titles were the most frequent type of structural construction in articles published in kinesiology. Finally, Kumar (2013) discovered that full sentence titles were not a common occurrence in engineering journals and Méndez, Alcaraz and Salager-Meyer (2014) demonstrated that titles of astrophysics papers were mainly of the nominal and simple type.

Multi-disciplinary Studies

Among the scholars that examined titles from a multi-disciplinary standpoint, we can cite Dillon (1982), who noticed a steady increase in the use of colons in research article titles in education, psychology and literary criticism. Hartley (2007a; 2007b) found that the use of colons was greater in the arts than in the sciences and their use had no effect upon their subsequent citation rate. Lewison and Hartley (2005) also registered that in biology, biomedical research, chemistry, clinical medicine, earth and space, engineering and

technology, mathematics, oncology and physics, titles with colons were longer and more informative than those without them. Likewise, Ball (2009) observed a growing usage of question titles in life sciences, medicine and physics, while Jamali and Nikzad (2011) recorded small but significant differences between articles with different types of titles in terms of downloads and citations in the field of life and medical sciences.

Other researchers adopted the multi-disciplinary perspective when studying titles. Yitzhaki (1994, 2002) discovered that the correlation between title and paper length and number of authors was moderate in scientific fields, low in the social sciences, and inexistent in the humanities. Fortanet, Posteguillo, Coll and Palmer (1998) found that research paper titles were longer in chemistry than in computer science, business and economics and linguistics. Haggan (2004) reported differences and similarities in the syntactic and structural choices in research article titles in literature, linguistics and science. Afful and Mwinlaaru (2010) noticed that lexical density, length, structural organization and syntactic encoding in titles of conference papers published in education and applied linguistics varied according to individual authors' preferences. Pułaczewska (2010) observed that titles of research articles in the humanities tended to be more creative and less informative than titles in exact sciences and medicine.

Multi-generic and Multi-linguistic Studies

Some studies framed within the multi-generic perspective are worth commenting upon. For example, Sagi and Yechiam (2008) showed that regular and comment articles with highly amusing titles published in psychology received fewer citations than those with more neutral titles, while Gesuato (2009) found that similarities outweighed differences among the titles of books, research articles, dissertations and proceedings papers in the field of linguistics. Jalilifar (2010) noticed that thesis titles were more informative and structurally-varied than research article titles in applied linguistics, and Cianflone (2013) observed a preponderance of nominal and compound layouts and a lack of question titles in research articles, short communications and poster presentations in the field of food science.

In the sphere of multi-linguistic research, Nord (1995) recorded a lack of culture-specific variations in titles of poems and scholarly articles written in English, French, German and Spanish. Busch-Lauer (2000) compared titles in linguistics and medical research articles and conference papers written in German and English. She observed that linguistics titles were shorter than medical titles, and that German titles were shorter than English ones. Yakhontova (2002) found that in linguistics and applied mathematics compound titles of conference presentations in English were more numerous than in Russian and Ukrainian. Soler (2007, 2011) reported that in social and biological sciences research paper titles were longer than review paper titles and that in social sciences research paper titles written in English were shorter than those written in Spanish. Alcaraz-Ariza and Salager-Meyer (2012) demonstrated that syntactic and structural similarities outweighed differences in titles in neurology research papers written in English and Spanish. Hartley (2012) proposed different ways to improve the writing of titles in English and Spanish articles in clinical and health psychology.

To sum up, the vast and rich literature on titling practices has approached their studies from a wide range of perspectives. Nevertheless, all the studies have exclusively focused on the academic world and it seems that the subject has not been addressed in the non-academic world although the transfer of specific knowledge to non-specialized audiences has been widely examined (e.g. Alcibar Cuello, 2004; Calsamiglia & Van Dijk, 2004; Cartellier, 2010; Ciapuscio, 2005; Villaroya, 2013).

PURPOSE AND CORPUS

Our main purpose in this investigation was to extend our previous study on research paper titles in astrophysics (Méndez, Alcaraz, & Salager-Meyer, 2014) by identifying possible differences between them and titles of astrophysics articles published in popular science journals. To this end, we compared scientific titles collected from the most authoritative astrophysics journals (*The Astrophysical Journal*, *Monthly Reports of Astrophysics*, *Astronomy and Astrophysics* and *Astronomical Journal*), and popular science titles from *Scientific American Magazine* (*SciAm*), the most prestigious English-written journal in the divulgation of science. In the case of *SciAm*, we examined all the titles related to astrophysical matters from the printed issues published in a 25-year period (1990-2014). Since the collected sample amounted to 329 titles, we gathered the same number of titles from the referred specialized journals (*SpJs*). As 1998 was the freely accessible online year shared by the scientific journals, we chose it as our initial collecting date. A total of 658 titles were analysed.

METHODOLOGY

We established three different title categories and recorded the following linguistic and syntactic variables in each title: title length, title lexical density, and title type.

Title Length (counted as the number of running words)

We manually counted all the words included in the titles. We defined the concept of ‘word’ as the unit occurring between spaces. Each semantic component in capitalized abbreviations was counted as one word. For example, ‘SDO’ (<Solar Dynamic Observatory) was counted as three words. Acronyms (abbreviations with syllabic structures that are usually pronounced as words and not letter-by-letter) and shortenings were counted as one word. For example, ‘CHARA’ (<Centre for High Angular Resolution Astronomy) and ‘Cas’ (<Cassiopeia) were counted as one word each. Like in capitalized abbreviations, each semantic component of hyphenated words was taken into account. ‘Post-outburst’, for instance, was counted as two words.

Title Lexical Density

In order to determine title lexical density, i.e. the amount of information conveyed by titles, we made a distinction between lexical or content words (nouns, adjectives, adverbs, past and present participles, mathematic and chemical symbols, conjugated and infinitive verbs) and grammatical or function words (auxiliary verbs, determiners –definite and indefinite articles, possessives–, conjunctions, prepositions, pronouns, and *wh*-words). Other word class items were not found in our corpus. Here-below are two examples drawn from both scientific and popular science titles that illustrate content and function words;

Example 1: Golden gravitational lensing systems from the Sloan Lens ACS Survey – II. SDSS J1430+4105: a precise inner total mass profile from lensing alone (*SpJs*)

Example 2: Young Suns (*SciAm*)

Title Type

Sentence boundaries, identifiable by the presence of punctuation marks, allowed us to establish a first distinction between ‘simple’ and ‘compound’ titles. A simple title (Examples 3 and 4) consists of a general heading and a compound title (Examples 5 and 6) comprises a general heading followed by a specific theme which may be separated by a colon, a comma, a dash, a full stop, a semi-colon or written on two different lines;

Example 3: Excitation of an outflow from the lower solar atmosphere and a co-temporal EUV transient brightening (*SpJs*)

Example 4: The Galileo Mission (*SciAm*)

Example 5: The molecular gas content of $z < 0.1$ radio galaxies: Linking the active galactic nucleus accretion mode to host galaxy properties (*SpJs*)

Example 6: Mercury: the Forgotten Planet (*SciAm*)

We established a second title type distinction, which is non-excluding with the previous one and which refers to ‘nominal’ and ‘verbal’ titles. A nominal title, which is also called ‘indicative’ or ‘descriptive’ (Fischer & Zigmond, 2004; Goodman, 2000; Huth, 1999; Jamali & Nikzad, 2011), is a more or less expanded nominal phrase that gives a straightforward presentation of the object of the study. On the contrary, a verbal title, also referred to as ‘assertive sentence title’ (Rosner, 1990), ‘conclusion title’ (Fischer & Zigmond, 2004), ‘declarative’ (Jamali & Nikzad 2011; Smith, 2000), ‘declaratory’ (Goodman, Thacker & Siegel, 2001; Smith, 2000), ‘full sentence title’ (Haggan, 2004; Jaime-Sisó, 2009; Soler, 2007, 2011), ‘informative’ (Goodman, 2000; Huth, 1999; McGowan & Tugwell, 2005) or ‘verbal-clausal construction’ (Hartley, 2008), contains an active verb with a full sentence that usually states the findings or the conclusion of the research being reported, very much along the lines of newspaper headlines. Nominal and verbal constructions may also be phrased in the interrogative form as the following titles illustrate;

Nominal/question

Example 7: An optical and HI study of NGC 5850: Victim of a high-speed encounter? (*SpJs*)

Example 8: Why So Blue? (*SciAm*)

Verbal/question

Example 9: What is missing from our understanding of long-term solar and heliospheric activity? (*SpJs*)

Example 10: Does Dark Energy Really Exist? (*SciAm*)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Linguistic Variables

As Table 1 shows, scientific titles are much longer than popular science ones, a fact that should come as no surprise since one of the most important features of a scientific title is to summarize the body of a paper with the highest precision and accuracy. *SpJs* titles also have a mean count attested at 13.76 words per title, with a standard deviation of 30.36, whereas the mean count test of *SciAm* titles is of 4.27 words per title, with a standard deviation of only 2.89. In other words, the length of popular science titles is spread out over a range of values lower than that of scientific titles.

Table 1. Linguistic variables

Linguistic variables	<i>SpJs</i>	<i>SciAm</i>
Number of titles	329	329
Word length	4526	1404
Word average	13.76	4.27
Number of content words	3454 (76.31%)	950 (67.66%)
Number of function words	1072 (23.69%)	454 (32.34%)

Table 1 also displays that although content words outnumber function words in both corpora, the percentage of content words is higher in scientific titles than in popular science ones. As it happens with their length, the greater number of content words in scientific titles is once more linked to their higher accuracy and conciseness.

According to Table 2, the content words that come first in the two different samples are regular nouns and qualifying adjectives. However, some differences have been observed between *SpJs* and *SciAm* titles. The percentage of nouns (regular and *-ing*) is lower in scientific titles (61.73%) than in popular science ones (64.43%), which introduce more global concepts.

Table 2. Content words

Content words	<i>SpJs</i>	<i>SciAm</i>
Regular nouns	2102 (60.86%)	607 (63.90%)
Qualifying adjectives	1084 (31.38%)	221 (23.26%)
<i>-ed</i> adjectives	74 (2.14%)	14 (1.47%)
<i>-ing</i> verbs	50 (1.45%)	32 (3.37%)
Symbols	39 (1.13%)	0 (0%)
<i>-ing</i> adjectives	38 (1.10%)	8 (0.84%)
<i>-ing</i> nouns	30 (0.87%)	5 (0.53%)
Adverbs	27 (0.78%)	28 (2.95%)
Regular verbs	10 (0.29%)	35 (3.68%)

Proper of astrophysical terminology are abbreviations, acronyms, numbers, eponyms (names of individuals) and toponyms (names of places). Since scientific titles belong to a specialized discourse, it should come as no surprise that the percentage of titles with terminology (24.38%) is much higher than in the popular science sample (9.05%). A point worth commenting upon is that eponyms in *SpJs* titles are applied to astronomical devices, whereas proper names in *SciAm* ones refer mainly to usually well-known stars, planets, satellites and galaxies.

Example 11: Infrared array photometry of bulge globular clusters. I. Combined ground based JK and HST VI photometry of NGC 6553 (*SpJs*)

Example 12: Venus revealed (*SciAm*)

In example title 11, the letters ‘J’, ‘K’, ‘V’, and ‘I’ designate different filters of the photometric system, whereas the abbreviation HST stands for ‘Hubble Space Telescope’, which is named after the American astronomer Edwin Powell Hubble, and the abbreviation NGC stands for ‘New General Catalogue’ of Nebulae and Clusters of Stars.

Very often both scientific and popular science titles include compound groups (nominal and/or adjectival ones), which are compressed structures where information is usually condensed through the juxtaposition of content words without any function word, as is shown in the following titles:

Example 13: The extended ROSAT-ESO Flux Limited X-ray Galaxy Cluster Survey (REFLEX II) – IV. X-ray luminosity function and first constraints on cosmological parameters (*SpJs*)

Example 14: Asteroid Hunters (*SciAm*)

Noteworthy is the fact that the compound group average is much higher in scientific titles (1.6 per title) than in popular science ones (0.24 per title). This finding is directly related to the syntactic complexity and semantic richness of *SpJs* titles.

In regard to adjectives (qualifying, *-ed* and *-ing*), which are directly related to more specialized concepts, their percentage is higher in *SpJs* titles (34.62%) than in *SciAm* ones (25.57%). Qualifying adjectives may be formulated in comparative and superlative forms although the frequency of occurrence differs from one sample to another. Comparative and superlative adjectives were found in scientific titles only on five (0.47%) and two (0.19%) occasions, respectively. By contrast, popular science titles contained seven (3.17%) comparative adjectives and five (2.26%) superlative adjectives. The fact that popular science titles contain more adjectives formulated in comparative and superlative forms may be considered a sign of higher emotional involvement. Here-below are examples of both types of adjectives:

Example 15: The lower main sequence of the globular cluster M3 with the Hubble Space Telescope: Luminosity and mass functions (*SpJs*)

Example 16: Deeper Impact (*SciAm*)

Example 17: Temperature constraints on the coldest brown dwarf known: WISE 0855-0714 (*SpJs*)

Example 18: The Ghostliest Galaxies (*SciAm*)

The percentage of verbs (*-ing* and regular), which are used to express generalizations, amounts less than four times in scientific titles (1.74%) than in popular science ones (7.05%). Symbols, either chemical or mathematical, generally belong to specialized discourses and this is why they are only present in *SpJs* titles. Adverbs, which may be termed as ‘emotionally-charged words’ like adjectives formulated in comparative and superlative forms, are much less common in the scientific titles than in the *SciAm* ones. The *SciAm* sample also contains contractions and phrasal verbs that reflect a more informal attitude:

Example 19: What's The Matter? (*SciAm*)

Example: 20: How To Blow Up A Star (*SciAm*)

Like contractions and phrasal verbs, a colloquial tone is obtained thanks to the Saxon genitive which is used to personify objects by attributing them human characteristics. This rhetorical device was registered only in two *SpJs* titles (0.61%), whereas 12 *SciAm* titles (3.65%) included it:

Example 21: Theory of the Mercury's spin-orbit motion and analysis of its main librations (*SpJs*)

Example 22: Through Titan's Haze (*SciAm*)

According to Table 3 where the percentages for function words are displayed, prepositions topped the frequency scale of function words in scientific titles, followed by definite articles, conjunctions, indefinite articles, etc.

Table 3. Function words

Function words	<i>SpJs</i>	<i>SciAm</i>
Prepositions	580 (54.10%)	176 (38.77%)
Definite articles	252 (23.51%)	179 (39.43%)
Conjunctions	135 (12.59%)	20 (4.41%)
Indefinite articles	93 (8.68%)	42 (9.25%)
Possessives	4 (0.37%)	6 (1.32%)
Auxiliary verbs	3 (0.28%)	8 (1.76%)
Wh-words	3 (0.28%)	14 (3.08%)
Pronouns	2 (0.19%)	9 (1.98%)

The most frequent of the 22 recorded preposition variants was 'of' (45.36 % of all the prepositions) because of its wide range of uses within sentences. For instance, to say that something is attached to something or forms part of something; to specify or give more information about a particular process or action; to indicate a particular subject; to say that something has a particular characteristic or quality. The remaining preposition variants clustered around different frequencies, the least frequent ones being 'after', 'ahead of', 'among', 'as', 'onto', 'up to' and 'versus' (0.17 % each).

By contrast, definite articles were the most common type of function words in popular science titles although closely followed by prepositions. Then at a considerable distance stood indefinite articles, conjunctions, *wh*-words, pronouns, auxiliary verbs, and possessives. Within the 20 preposition variants registered in popular science titles, 'of' had once more the highest frequency of occurrence (40.90%), the lowest one corresponding to 'about', 'around', 'between', 'near', 'past', 'up to' and 'vs.' (0.57% each).

The coordinating conjunction 'and' was recorded in *SpJs* titles on 134 occasions, whereas only 19 occurrences were found in *SciAm* titles. The coordinating conjunction 'or' was registered in only one popular science title. The higher frequency of occurrence of the coordinating conjunction 'and' and of the varied prepositions in scientific titles clearly accounts for their higher length, which is directly linked to higher informational content.

With respect to articles, in both samples the frequency of the definite article ‘the’ was much higher than that of the indefinite articles ‘a’ and ‘an’. This could be interpreted as a desire to generalize the results obtained, although the possible drawbacks that generalizations usually imply would be somehow reduced by the presence of indefinite articles. On the other hand, the high number of definite and indefinite articles found in astrophysical titles does not seem to follow the recommendation given in style books according to which these articles should be avoided as much as possible because of the problems they tend to present for indexers (Langdon-Neuner, 2007).

‘Its’ and ‘their’ were the two possessives recorded in the scientific corpus, whereas the popular science sample contained three possessives: three titles with ‘our’, two titles with ‘its’ and one title with ‘my’. The three auxiliaries recorded in scientific titles were ‘does’, ‘is’ and ‘have’ (one occurrence each). By contrast, popular science titles included eight auxiliaries: ‘does’, ‘could’ and ‘is’ were registered on two occasions each, and ‘did’ and ‘would’ were recorded on one occasion. The low number of auxiliaries is very likely related to the low number of question and verbal titles in both corpora, an issue that will be dealt with in the following section. The only three *wh*-words found in *SpJs* titles were “‘how’”, “‘what’” and “‘why’”, “‘what’” functioning as a pronoun, and “‘why’” and “‘how’” as subordinating conjunctions. On the contrary, ‘how’ and ‘what’ were present in ten *SciAm* titles (five each); ‘when’ was registered in two titles and ‘why’ and ‘where’ were found in one title each. The relative pronoun ‘that’ was retrieved on five occasions: two scientific titles and three popular science titles. Other pronouns that were also recorded in the popular science sample were the personal pronouns ‘you’ (two occurrences), ‘it’, ‘they’ and ‘we’ (one occurrence each). The greater use of possessives, auxiliaries, *wh*-words and personal pronouns in popular science titles are rhetorical strategies that allow the creation of a sort of dialogue and proximity between writers and readers.

Structural Variables

Table 4 discloses that the simple layout is the highest occurrence in both corpora.

Table 4. Structural variables

Structural variables	<i>SpJs</i>	<i>SciAm</i>
Simple	206 (62.61%)	322 (97.87%)
Compound	123 (37.39%)	7 (2.13%)
Nominal	319 (96.96%)	295 (89.67%)
Verbal	10 (3.04%)	34 (10.33%)
Interrogative	12 (3.65%)	17 (5.17%)
Exclamatory	0	2 (0.61%)

This result is not surprising since titles are strongly influenced by the constraints inherent in the economy of language and their primary function is to compress the maximum amount of information in the smallest possible space. However, compound constructions are much more common in scientific titles than in popular science ones, mainly because the former have to introduce specialized concepts in a more accurate and concise manner.

Colons, full stops and two-lines were mostly used to connect the different parts of *SpJs* compound titles. In the case of *SciAm* compound titles, colons were recorded on six occasions (see Example 6 and Example 28) and the only semi-colon present in our corpus was found in the following title:

Example 23: Inflation Is Dead; Long Live Inflation (*SciAm*)

Noteworthy is the absence of *SciAm* compound titles with full stops and written on two-lines. As for all the commas that were recorded in both samples, they were used either to enumerate things or to specify them, i.e. they did not mark any boundary between simple and compound titles:

Example 24: An attempt to probe the radio jet collimation regions in NGC 4278, NGC 4374 (M84), and NGC 6166 (*SpJs*)

Example 25: Black Stars, Not Holes (*SciAm*)

Sometimes the length and syntactic complexity proper of scientific compound titles is obtained by means of either a colon and a dash or two dashes in the same title:

Example 26: The Stagger-grid: A grid of 3D stellar atmosphere models - II. Horizontal and temporal averaging and spectral line formation (*SpJs*)

Example 27: The IACOB project – II. On the scatter of O-dwarf spectral type – effective temperature calibrations (*SpJs*)

Table 4 also shows that nominal structures were higher in scientific titles than in popular science ones. Conversely, verbal and interrogative constructions were less common (6.69%) in *SpJs* titles than in *SciAm* ones (15.50%), where a compound structure even contained a verb formulated in imperative form:

Example 28: Cloud to Black Hole: Eat My Dust (*SciAm*)

As for the exclamatory constructions, the two titles were only found in *SciAm* titles, one of them reading as follows:

Example 29: Saturnalia at last! (*SciAm*)

The low number of verbal titles in the scientific corpus clearly reflects the non-generalization of the results obtained in astrophysical research. This result corroborates Biber and Gray's (2010) statement that the combination of a highly specialized audience and a highly informational purpose implies a decreasing use of verbal structures. In this sense, it has to be taken into account that astrophysics is not a science that strictly follows the usual 'scientific method' of testing, hypothesis and refutation like, for example, biology or chemistry, where essays in laboratories allow investigators to repeat and modify the experimental conditions in order to obtain more reliable and trustworthy results. This is why cutting-edge findings in astrophysics tend to be approximate because the discipline mainly deals with distant objects that can be only seen through images or spectra. By contrast, generalizations in the popular science corpus are achieved not only through a higher number of verbal constructions, but also thanks to the definite article 'the'. Both rhetorical strategies may be connected to the need for a strong communicative imprint that resembles the journalistic style (Berkenrotter & Huckin, 1995).

Another rhetorical strategy used to help arouse readers' curiosity by connecting them to lived experience is the use of titles formulated as questions (e.g. Calsamiglia & Van Dijk, 2004; Fahnestock, 2004; Giannoni, 2008; Goodman, 2011; Hyland, 2010; Luzón Marco, 2013; Maisonneuve, Lorette, Maruani & Hughier, 2010; Soler, 2011). The lower presence of verbal constructions formulated as questions in *SpJs* also indicates that this structure is not usually favoured in scientific titles (e.g. Anthony, 2001; Busch-Lauer, 2000; Day, 1995; Hartley, 2007b; Gustavii, 2008; Langdon-Neuner, 2007; Lewison & Hartley, 2005; Maisonneuve, Lorette, Maruani, & Hughier, 2010; Soler, 2007, 2011; Wang & Bai, 2007).

CONCLUSION

Our analysis has put forward that scientific and popular science titles present a series of differences related to vocabulary and syntax. The higher number and of compound constructions in scientific titles clearly reflects their greater length when compared to popular science titles. All these characteristics go hand in hand with greater clearness, accuracy and preciseness, which allow academics decide on the relevance and usefulness of a given paper to their area of interest. Likewise, the greater use of qualifying adjectives and of technical terminology related to astrophysical matters (abbreviations, acronyms, eponyms, numbers, symbols, toponyms, and compound groups) suggest that scientific titles belong to specialized excerpts that are addressed to a more restricted audience than that of popular science titles.

In *SciAm* titles, by contrast, shorter titles are more creative and eye-catching and are aimed at hooking readers more easily. Adjectives, formulated in comparative and superlative forms, as well as exclamatory phrases and verbs formulated in imperative form, show emotional attitudes and strong feelings like excitement or surprise. Proper names, which mainly refer to well-known stars, planets, satellites and galaxies, imply on the one hand that *SciAm* audience has an educated level that is not entirely cut off from expertise and, on the other hand, that *SciAm* titles mainly deal with global and already established concepts. Personifying some objects through the use of the Saxon genitive relates these items to human beings with their emotions and innate curiosity. Addressing readers directly by means of personal pronouns and possessives enables to establish a closer relationship between senders and receivers. Like proper names, the higher use of verbal constructions and of the definite article in popular science titles when compared to scientific ones may be interpreted as a desire to generalize the ideas presented.

As happens with editorials and/or oral communications, question titles arouse readers' curiosity and invite them to find an answer to the question asked in the title. It thus may be said that question titles directly involve the addressees of the message in a sort of dialogue that contributes to the expansion of their general knowledge. In the same vein as question titles, elements such as contractions and phrasal verbs also play an essential role in building a conversational tone.

Finally, it may be added that this is probably the first study devoted to the written encoding practices employed by researchers in the field of astrophysics when spreading their findings to different audiences, specialized and non-specialized. The analysis of a more comprehensive sample would probably yield more detailed insights in titling practices in astrophysics. It would also be interesting to carry out comparative studies of titles written in languages other than English in order to determine the most appropriate design of titles of scientific and popular science papers, not only in astrophysics but also in other fields.

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CONFERENCE TYPOLOGY AND USERS' QUALITY EXPECTATIONS IN MALAYSIAN CONFERENCE INTERPRETING

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents a detailed report of the users' quality expectations and the extent to which the expectations vary based on the type of conferences in Malaysian conference interpreting setting using a questionnaire-based survey study. Five conferences were selected for the purpose of data collection and 256 users rated eleven quality criteria of sense-consistency with the original message, logical cohesion, native accent, lively intonation, style, synchronicity, correct terminology, correct grammar, fluency of delivery, completeness of message, and pleasant voice on a four-point ordinal scale adapted from Zwischenberger and Pöschhacker (2010). Users also answered five open-ended questions adopted from Moser (1995). The findings from the scale analysis indicated that users' expectations of the quality vary in different conferences. The users of the "Translation" conference rated most of the quality criteria higher than the users of the other conferences and had higher expectations. Their rating was followed by the attributions of users in "Science", "Technology", "Tourism", and "Management" conferences respectively, in terms of quality expectations. Analysis of open-ended questions revealed that while the Translation conference users attached high importance to the linguistic criteria with a focus on interpreter's role and contribution, the users at other conferences considered extra-linguistic aspects in conference interpreting as important.

Keywords: conference type, expectations, interpreting, quality, users

INTRODUCTION

Quality in interpreting is a complete and accurate rendition of the original, which is more than just the words in the target language. It includes the interrelated aspects of the different circumstances that are linked to quality (Moser-Mercer, 1996, p.45). Optimum quality in professional interpreting implies that an interpreter that does not extort the original message and tries to capture any and all extra-linguistic information that the speaker might provide, subject to the constraints imposed by certain external conditions (Moser-Mercer, 1996). Since conference interpreting is a service industry by nature, therefore, service quality should begin with the understanding of the customers' needs, expectations, and perceptions. Depending on the characteristics of various work situations, such as technical, medical and the size of the audience, conference interpreters have become aware that the way they use the target language should be adjusted to the

users' expectations. In other words, the audience's point of view should play an important role in judging their interpretations (Kurz, 2001, p.395).

The need for the evaluation of interpreting quality is accentuated to promote the performance excellence and obtain reliable and high quality interpreting in a professional platform (Bühler, 1986; Seleskovitch, 1986; Moser, 1995; Kurz, 2001; Kopczyński, 1994; Mack & Cattaruzza, 1995, & Vuorikoski, 1993, 1995, 1998). Snelling (1989, p.142) states that a target text must always be targeted upon a specific audience. Déjean le Féal maintains that our ultimate goal must be to satisfy our audience (1990, cited in Kurz 1993, p.14), and Kopczynski indicates that any interpreting output is intended for listeners of interpreting (Kopczynski, 1994). Vuorikoski (1995, p.173) accentuates the role of the listener by asserting that an interpreter should try hard in achieving good quality in interpreting by focusing on the listeners' different demands. Pöchhacker (2004) states that interpreting as an immediate form of translational activity is performed "for the benefit of people who want to engage in communication across barriers of language and culture" (p.25). Users' perceptions, expectations, and satisfaction are significant in identification of the parameters to define and achieve a good interpreting (Sunnari, 2003, p.244), and a highly outstanding feature of quality notion (Grbić, 2008, p.236). Perspectives of different parties and the sum of these perspectives are used for research on quality in interpreting. Considering the relationship between different perspectives on interpreting quality, as depicted for abstract and concrete events, Pöchhacker maintains that interpreters, users (source-text producers and target-text receivers), clients and colleagues' points of view on interpreting quality underlying the two significant analytical distinctions of an "off-site" research in an abstract (hypothetical or previously experienced) interpreting event, or with reference to a concrete communicative event in a given situation (2001, p.412). The diversity in the results of the evaluation of parameters in survey studies might even lead to a more complex picture of the quality notion.

Conference typology has been explored in several studies on users' expectations. Survey research on quality in conference interpreting offers a number of replication studies, and a closer examination of them, with regard to errors and shortcomings as well as standard-setting achievements, enables us to learn valuable lessons and move forward by going back to what has been done before. For example, the user expectation study conducted by Kurz (1989) on the basis of Bühler's (1986) survey on quality criteria among AIIC members extended the target population from conference interpreters to conference interpreting users. Based on her definition of quality, as a function of situation and contextual variables which might call for different priorities in different interpreting situations, Kopczynski (1994) conducted a survey among Polish users of interpreting services to determine their attitudes and expectations. The questionnaire was not administered to delegates at a conference but to persons who attended international conferences or participated in negotiations.

In Moser's (1995) survey, the conferences were of five categories including large scientific-technical conferences, small general administrative meetings, large formal plenary sessions, international legal hearings, and meetings with unclear classification. Two hundred and one questionnaires were collected at 84 different meetings. Forty-two (20%) of his research participants were women. The spontaneous responses to the expectation of the quality revealed the parameter of faithfulness to the original as the most significant content-related expectation (45%). The results revealed that users' expectations do not vary considerably according to the conference type. While, in this study no clear distinction was found between the type of a conference and the users' expectations (Moser 1995, p.9), Zwischenberger and Pöchhacker (2010) survey showed that 43.3% of interpreters answered "Yes" when they were asked whether the importance

of the quality criteria varied depending on the type of meeting. However, empirical research on conference interpreting that might yield robust generalisations and applications remains difficult given the speed, complexity, immediacy of the multilingual events, the quest to obtain valid representative samples from a small and mobile professional population, and wide individual variation in interpreting strategies (Setton, 2010).

Conference interpreting is Euro-centric and developed there, while it is still young and arising in Malaysia. The unique feature of Malaysia, being multi-lingual and multi-cultural, has inevitably made English language somehow perceived as the medium of communication in most of Malaysian international conferences, and not many conferences provide interpreting service in this country. One reason could be that in most of European countries and even Asian countries, their first languages are used in social and academic situations, while in Malaysia, English language is a compulsory language; therefore, most educated people have or assume that they have an "acceptable" command of English and or the organisers who should supply interpreting service do not believe that providing such service is necessary. This has created a gap in Malaysian conference interpreting research and practice.

Considering the unique scene of multi-lingual and multi-cultural Malaysia, the role and importance of the key players of conference interpreting in Malaysia, and the potentiality of Malaysia in becoming a conference hub for international conferences, the need to address quality of interpreting in Malaysian conferences is becoming more apparent. Conference typology is the missing element in the existing research literature of interpreting quality. Therefore, the findings of this study could give rise to meaningful suggestions and recommendations for the improvement of the quality and status of the Malaysian conference interpreting profession.

Zwischenberger and Pöchhacker' (2010) study forms the main part of the present research because of its relevance, particularly in terms of using a scale that its items have been tailored in previous accredited studies. The scale can be considered as the most comprehensive one for evaluating the quality criteria since it consists of the most common parameters used in previous studies on quality expectations (Bühler, 1986; Kurz, 1989; Moser, 1995). Therefore, the core of the present study is focused on the degree of importance respondents attach to the quality criteria by a four-point ordinal scale adopted from Zwischenberger and Pöchhacker' (2010) survey. Their scale which has common items from Bühler's (1986) scale, consists of eleven quality criteria including fluency, grammar, intonation, logical cohesion, completeness, accent, terminology, voice, sense-consistency, style, and synchronicity. Adapting Bühler (1986), Moser (1995), and Zwischenberger and Pöchhacker's (2010) surveys for the purpose of the present study provides the opportunity to assess whether earlier results in the scope of quality and conference interpreting are capable of being generalised to the users at different conferences in Malaysian setting, while being idiosyncratic or localised in nature.

METHODOLOGY

The study adapted an empirical survey study using questionnaires for evaluation of users' perspectives on interpreting quality based on conference typology. Relevancy of this strategy to the overall characteristics of the study was the main reason for using survey study. In addition, the on-site questionnaire-based survey method allowed the researcher to observe the research setting, and collect data while monitoring the procedures in obtaining data. According to Pöschhacker (2001, p.412-4), survey studies have been deemed as the most popular and productive line of empirical studies on quality in Interpreting. For this purpose, questionnaire was used as the research instrument. Conducting other research instruments, such as interviews, was not possible due to the limitations of the study, namely time restrictions, availability of the respondents, and particularly research methodology. Exploring the expectations of users, it was necessary to make sure that all the questionnaires were completed before the users listened to the interpretations. Borrowing questions from other significant established questionnaires that had been used in similar studies, the questionnaire consisted of multiple-choice items, as well as open-ended questions enquiring about the respondents' comments and perspectives on interpreting quality and other quality-related aspects of interpreting. The four-point ordinal scale, adopted from Zwischenberger and Pöschhacker (2010) and Bühler (1986), formed the quantitative part of the survey, asking the respondents to rate the importance the eleven quality criteria tailored in those studies. Open-ended questions were also included in the questionnaire to find any relationship between findings from them and the results from the scale analysis. Open-ended questions were adapted from Moser (1995). To make sure that all the questions and definitions were clear, a list of the definitions of the scale items and other necessary terms was attached to the questionnaire. Simple a language was tailored for explanations of the terms. A cover letter containing clear instructions on the front page introduced the researcher and his affiliation, and provided a brief explanation of the objectives, as well as the ethical considerations of the study. In short, the questionnaire had five sections: cover letter, background information, output-related quality criteria (scale), explanation of the terms, and the glossary of terms with translation. Only quality expectations and perceptions, i.e., the general points of view, or what is expected from a good quality of interpreting, were explored. Therefore, examining the quality itself was beyond the scope the study.

Bühler's (1986, p.233) definition of ideal interpreter, as "one who supplies an ideal interpretation in a given situation for a given purpose", is based on Reiss's (1984) functional approach (1984), according to which "an interpretation is good if it serves its purpose, if it is adequate". In Skopos theory that is a functional theoretical general theory covering process, product and function both in production and reception, the function is the text purpose as inferred, ascribed by recipient (Chesterman, 2010).

The framework of the surveys adapted for the purpose of the present study was somewhat similar in that interpreting is good if it serves its purpose; an ideal interpreting is not an absolute value but depends on the communicative context. Accordingly, the theoretical framework of this study is depicted in the Figure 1.

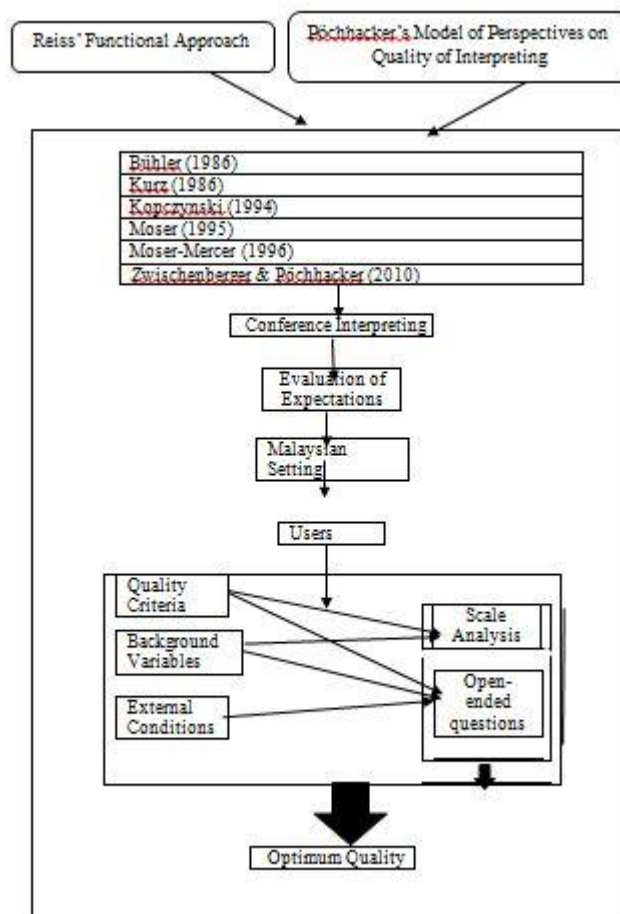


Figure 1. Theoretical Framework

Participants

Having a large sample is one way to gain accuracy in survey studies; therefore, the larger the absolute size of the sample, the more accurate the data obtained through the questionnaires (Denscombe, 2007, p.26). Hence, when it is not possible to predict the number of the participants and their probable background characteristics, “non-probability” sampling is preferred (Denscombe, 2007, p.16). The method of choosing the participants or sampling would not be random in all non-probability samplings. One particular way in this respect is “purposive” sampling. Purposive sampling is economical and informative because the participants are handpicked for the study. In other words, the researcher intentionally selects some particular population or some particular events because they all share one or several common features that contribute to the research and can bring about the most valuable data (Denscombe, 2007, p.17).

Users were selected based on several criteria. Those participants, as speakers or listeners, who attended the international conference and received headsets to listen to the interpretation before the session started, were identified as users and given questionnaires to complete, immaterial of their background such as nationality, language, etc. When such equipment was not provided for consecutive interpreting users, the subjects received questionnaires if only they were waiting at the rooms before the sessions started. This was usually done 10-15 minutes before the session started.

Using a non-probability purposive sampling method (Denscombe, 2007), a total number of 256 questionnaires was obtained at the end of data collection procedure. The number of the research participants from each conference and their correspondent conferences are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Conference names and users' number per conference

Conference name	Number of users per conference
1. 14th International Conference of Translation and the FIT 7th Asian Translators 2012 Forum	63
2. Third World Tourism Conference 2013	54
3. The 3rd Regional Conference on Educational Leadership and Management 2013	49
4. The Impact of Science on Society 2013	35
5. Offshore Technology Conference Asia 2014	55

They are in short referred to as 1. "Translation", 2. "Tourism", 3. "Management", 4. "Science", and 5. "Technology" conferences, respectively. The size of the conferences was similar, except for the Science seminar that can be categorised as a small meeting (less than 100 participants). The rest of the meetings were of large (250 and over participants). The rationale for selecting these conferences was the diversity of conference types in terms of the topics and the theme each conference was based on. It should be noted that only those conferences in which interpretation service was provided could be selected for the purpose of data collection. Obviously, in this case the number of this type of conferences in Malaysia is not large, and even in case of availability of such conferences with interpreting service provision, it is extremely arduous and sometimes impossible to get the permission from the authorities to conduct studies of this type (Amini, Ibrahim- González, Ayob, & Amini, 2015).

Report of Data and Procedures

Translation Conference: 14th International Conference of Translation and the FIT 7th Asian Translators' Forum, Penang, Malaysia.

The data collection procedure started at 14th International Conference of Translation and the FIT 7th Asian Translators' Forum, a biennial conference which was held in Penang, Malaysia on Aug. 27-29, 2013. Universiti Sains Malaysia hosted the conference together with the cooperation of other co-organisers including Malaysian Translators Association (MTA), Malaysian Institute of Translation and Books (ITBM), the Institute of Language and Literature (DBP). The language of interpreting was English through channel one and Bahasa Malaysia (Malay Language) through the second channel. The questionnaires were distributed by the researcher personally before the interpreting sessions started. While distributing the questionnaires, the users were elaborated on the objectives of the study while emphasising that the research was not meant to assess interpreters. At the end of data collection at this conference, 87 questionnaires were distributed to the users in total,

71 were on the first day, 12 on the second day, and four on the last day. Only four users refused to receive the questionnaires, because of "lack of time", and "lack of sufficient knowledge to read and answer the questions". Fifty-nine questionnaires were returned by the last day. Four more questionnaires were sent back to the researcher within the following week. The overall number of the questionnaires from users was 63 at the end of data collection at this conference. The unreturned questionnaires were largely from the first day, as 26 out of 71 of the users from the first day did not return the questionnaires.

Tourism Conference: Third World Tourism Conference, Melaka, Malaysia.

This conference was held in Melaka on Oct. 21-23, 2013 hosting more than 3000 participants. The conference organisers did not permit the researcher to enter the main hall and distribute the questionnaire despite all previous negotiations. They mentioned that the event was under World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) and that they had to maintain the security issues. However, before the opening ceremony the researcher had two hours to talk to the conference attendants individually to see whether or not they were going to use the interpreting service at that conference. In that very limited time, 76 questionnaires and explain briefly to those who said they were going to listen to the interpretation. They were asked to complete the questionnaire before using the interpreting service. Finally, 54 of the users returned completed questionnaires, four were left blank, and three people said they could not understand the questions and returned them incomplete.

Management Conference: The 3rd Regional Conference on Educational Leadership and Management (RECLAM), Genting Highlands, Malaysia.

The 3rd Regional Conference on Educational Leadership and Management (RECLAM) was held in Nov. 18, 2013 in Genting Highlands, Malaysia. This conference was organised by Institute Aminuddin Baki (IAB), The National Institute of Educational Management and Leadership, which is under the Ministry of Education Malaysia and was initially known as Malaysian Education Staff Training Institute (MESTI). Participants were school principals and headmasters, leadership and management trainers, and graduate students. The languages of the conference were Malay, English, and Arabic. The majority of the participants were Malaysian, but there were other participants from other countries. A total number of 120 papers were presented at the conference among which 96 were in English with no interpreting to any other language. Twenty-four papers were presented in Malay/Arabic languages in three days. Eight of the papers were presented in Arabic and 16 in Malay. Malay/Arabic papers were interpreted consecutively to English by one interpreter. Each of the five interpreters was supposed to interpret during the whole parallel session, usually for 15 minutes. Out of six rooms allocated for all parallel sessions, five were allocated for English papers (Rooms 1-5) and one only for Malay/Arabic papers (Room6). In room 6, participants were supposed to present their papers either in Malay or Arabic in about 15 minutes immediately followed by the interpreter's interpreting. As the parallel sessions with interpreting all were maintained in one room in three days, the researcher could catch up with most of these presentations and interpreting. There were no earphones, remote receivers, booth or any other interpreting equipment and all the interpreting procedure took place by a microphone and separate desk provided at the front for the interpreters in the same room. The interpreters used paper and pen for note-taking while sitting next to the speaker. Every session lasted approximately about 30 minutes which exceeded the time they were expected to finish. In one day of data collection at this conference, out of 82 distributed questionnaires 49 questionnaires were returned completed. Thirteen people left the questionnaire blank,

nine said they did not understand the questions, 11 people did not return the questionnaires. Some of the open-ended questions were also left blank.

Science Conference: Impact of Science on Society, Penang, Malaysia.

The seminar on “Impact of Science on Society” was held on 27th December, 2013 at University of Science Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia. The event was organised by the university’s Postgraduate Students Association (PSA), in a single day seminar with questions and answer sessions. The languages of the seminar were Arabic, Malay, and English. The mode of interpretation was consecutive, whereby the interpreter was placed beside the speaker, and the interpretation was accompanied by the questions and answers. At the end of the session 35 questionnaires were collected from the users.

Technology Conference: Offshore Technology Conference Asia (OTC Asia), Kuala Lumpur Convention Centre, Malaysia.

The Offshore Technology Conference Asia (OTC Asia) was held on March 25-28, 2014 in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. Thirteen energy industry's associations collaboratively organised the inaugural OTC for the first time in Asia to “highlight Asia's growing importance in the global energy mix”. In one day of data collection at this conference, 55 completed questionnaires were collected from the users.

Frequency of Output-Related Criteria by Users

The cumulative percentages of very important and important attributions to the eleven quality criteria determined to what extent users’ expectations vary based on conference type. The details of users’ attributions to each criteria including number of the participants, frequency, valid percentage attributions, of cumulative percentages are reported here (very important=1, important=2, less important=3, unimportant=4).

Sense-consistency with the original message

All of the users at Translation conference rated sense-consistency very important or important. Sense-consistency was rated very important by 76.2% of users and the other 23.8% marked it important at Translation conference. Interestingly, no user rated this parameter less important or unimportant at this conference. The cumulative percentage of very important and important attributions for sense-consistency by Science users was 97.1%, while the other 2.9% rated this criterion less important. At Management conference 91.8% of users rated self-consistency either very important or important, while this percentage was 90.9% at Technology conference and 90.7 at Tourism conferences.

Table 2. The relative importance of sense-consistency with the original message by users at different conferences

Conference type			Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Translation	Valid	very important	48	76.2	76.2
		Important	15	23.8	100.0
		Total	63	100.0	
Tourism	Valid	very important	26	48.1	48.1
		important	23	42.6	90.7
		less important	5	9.3	100.0
		Total	54	100.0	
Management	Valid	very important	24	49.0	49.0
		important	21	42.9	91.8
		less important	4	8.2	100.0
		Total	49	100.0	
Science	Valid	very important	19	54.3	54.3
		important	15	42.9	97.1
		less important	1	2.9	100.0
		Total	35	100.0	
Technology	Valid	very important	26	47.3	47.3
		important	24	43.6	90.9
		less important	3	5.5	96.4
		unimportant	2	3.6	100.0
		Total	55	100.0	

Fluency of Delivery

Fluency of delivery was rated either very important or important by all of the users at Translation conference, while 97.1% of Science users and 91.8% of Management users rated fluency very important or important. At Technology and Tourism conferences, 90.9% and 90.7% of users rated fluency of delivery as very important or important.

Table 3. The relative importance of fluency of delivery by users at different conferences

Conference type			Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Translation	Valid	very important	40	63.5	63.5
		important	23	36.5	100.0
		Total	63	100.0	
Tourism	Valid	very important	28	51.9	51.9
		important	23	42.6	94.4
		less important	3	5.6	100.0
		Total	54	100.0	
Management	Valid	very important	17	34.7	34.7
		important	20	40.8	75.5
		less important	10	20.4	95.9
		unimportant	2	4.1	100.0
		Total	49	100.0	
Science	Valid	very important	23	65.7	65.7
		important	11	31.4	97.1
		less important	1	2.9	100.0
		Total	35	100.0	
Technology	Valid	very important	23	41.8	41.8
		important	25	45.5	87.3
		less important	7	12.7	100.0
		Total	55	100.0	

Terminology

Users' cumulative percentages of very important and important attributions to terminology were 93.9% and 93.7% at Management and Translation conferences respectively. Terminology was rated either very important or important by 91.4% of users of Science conference. At Technology conference, 87.3% and at Tourism conference 83.3% of users marked terminology very important or important.

Table 4. The relative importance of correct terminology by users at different conferences

Conference type			Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Translation	Valid	very important	29	46.0	46.0
		important	30	47.6	93.7
		less important	4	6.3	100.0
		Total	63	100.0	
Tourism	Valid	very important	18	33.3	33.3
		important	27	50.0	83.3
		less important	9	16.7	100.0
		Total	54	100.0	
Management	Valid	very important	23	46.9	46.9
		important	23	46.9	93.9
		less important	3	6.1	100.0
		Total	49	100.0	
Science	Valid	very important	17	48.6	48.6
		important	15	42.9	91.4
		less important	3	8.6	100.0
		Total	35	100.0	
Technology	Valid	very important	19	34.5	34.5
		important	29	52.7	87.3
		less important	7	12.7	100.0
		Total	55	100.0	

Grammar

Grammar was rated very important by 39.7% of Translation users while 52.4% rated it important at this conference. Science and Management users' very important and important attributions were 88.6% and 79.6% respectively, while the cumulative percentages of very important and important attributions were 77.8% for Tourism users and 76.4% for Technology users. The only conference whereby users gave an unimportant attribution to grammar was Technology in which only 3.6% considered grammar unimportant. In all conferences, the users' ratings accumulation for important and very important attributions were above 76.4%.

Table 5. The relative importance of correct grammar by users at different conferences

Conference type			Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Translation	Valid	very important	25	39.7	39.7
		important	33	52.4	92.1
		less important	5	7.9	100.0
		Total	63	100.0	
Tourism	Valid	very important	17	31.5	31.5
		important	25	46.3	77.8
		less important	11	20.4	98.1
		unimportant	1	1.9	100.0
		Total	54	100.0	
Management	Valid	very important	15	30.6	30.6
		important	24	49.0	79.6
		less important	10	20.4	100.0
		Total	49	100.0	
Science	Valid	very important	12	34.3	34.3
		important	19	54.3	88.6
		less important	4	11.4	100.0
		Total	35	100.0	
Technology	Valid	very important	13	23.6	23.6
		important	29	52.7	76.4
		less important	11	20.0	96.4
		unimportant	2	3.6	100.0
		Total	55	100.0	

Lively Intonation

Lively intonation was rated very important either very important or important by 68.5% of users at Tourism conference and 66.7% of users at Translation conference. The cumulative percentage of very important and important attributions for lively intonation was 64.7 for Science users and 54.5% for Technology users. At Management conference only 46.9% of users rated lively intonation either very important or important.

Table 6. The relative importance of lively intonation by users at different conferences

Conference type			Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Translation	Valid	very important	14	22.2	22.2
		important	28	44.4	66.7
		less important	21	33.3	100.0
		Total	63	100.0	
Tourism	Valid	very important	13	24.1	24.1
		important	24	44.4	68.5
		less important	15	27.8	96.3
		unimportant	2	3.7	100.0
		Total	54	100.0	
Management	Valid	very important	3	6.1	6.1
		important	20	40.8	46.9
		less important	21	42.9	89.8
		unimportant	5	10.2	100.0
		Total	49	100.0	
Science	Valid	very important	6	17.6	17.6
		important	16	47.1	64.7
		less important	12	35.3	100.0
		unimportant			
		Total	34	100.0	
Technology	Missing	System	1		
		Total	35		
	Valid	very important	10	18.2	18.2
		important	20	36.4	54.5
		less important	22	40.0	94.5
		unimportant	3	5.5	100.0
		Total	55	100.0	

Native Accent

The parameter of native accent was rated very important by only less than one-fifth of the users in all conferences. In other words, the percentage of users who rated this parameter as very important never exceeded 20% in all five conferences. For the criterion of native accent, 64.8% of Tourism users, 61.9% of Translation users, 59.3% Technology users, and 43.8% of Management users marked native accent very important or important.

Table 7. The relative importance of native accent
by users at different conferences

Conference type			Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Translation	Valid	very important	12	19.0	19.0
		important	27	42.9	61.9
		less important	22	34.9	96.8
		unimportant	2	3.2	100.0
		Total	63	100.0	
Tourism	Valid	very important	10	18.5	18.5
		important	25	46.3	64.8
		less important	18	33.3	98.1
		unimportant	1	1.9	100.0
		Total	54	100.0	
Management	Valid	very important	4	8.3	8.3
		important	17	35.4	43.8
		less important	20	41.7	85.4
		unimportant	7	14.6	100.0
		Total	48	100.0	
	Missing	System	1		
Science	Total	49			
	Valid	very important	4	11.8	11.8
		important	14	41.2	52.9
		less important	12	35.3	88.2
		unimportant	4	11.8	100.0
		Total	34	100.0	
Missing	System	1			
Technology	Total	35			
	Valid	very important	10	18.5	18.5
		important	22	40.7	59.3
		less important	18	33.3	92.6
		unimportant	4	7.4	100.0
		Total	54	100.0	
Missing	System	1			
Total	55				

Synchronicity

Synchronicity was rated very important or important by 87.3% of Translation users, 74.3% of Science users, 72.4% of Technology users, 69.4% of Management users, and 59.3% of Tourism users.

Table 8. The relative importance of synchronicity by users at different conferences

Conference type			Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Translation	Valid	very important	21	33.3	33.3
		important	34	54.0	87.3
		less important	8	12.7	100.0
		Total	63	100.0	
Tourism	Valid	very important	11	20.4	20.4
		important	21	38.9	59.3
		less important	20	37.0	96.3
		unimportant	2	3.7	100.0
		Total	54	100.0	
Management	Valid	very important	9	18.4	18.4
		important	25	51.0	69.4
		less important	14	28.6	98.0
		unimportant	1	2.0	100.0
		Total	49	100.0	
Science	Valid	very important	6	17.1	17.1
		important	20	57.1	74.3
		less important	9	25.7	100.0
		Total	35	100.0	
Technology	Valid	very important	15	27.3	27.3
		important	25	45.5	72.7
		less important	13	23.6	96.4
		unimportant	2	3.6	100.0
		Total	55	100.0	

Style

Translation users gave the highest ratings for the parameter of style as it was rated very important by 32.3%, and 53.4% important. In other words, 85.5% of translation users considered style either very important or important and no one marked this parameter unimportant. The cumulative percentages of very important and important attribution for style were 85.5% at Translation conference, 71.4% at Science conference, 67.3% at Management conference, 63.6% at Technology conference, and 62.3% at Tourism conference.

Table 9. The relative importance of style by users at different conferences

Conference type			Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Translation	Valid	very important	20	32.3	32.3
		important	33	53.2	85.5
		less important	9	14.5	100.0
		Total	62	100.0	
	Missing	System	1		
Tourism	Total		63		
	Valid	very important	10	18.9	18.9
		important	23	43.4	62.3
		less important	18	34.0	96.2
		unimportant	2	3.8	100.0
Total	53	100.0			
Management	Missing	System	1		
	Total		54		
	Valid	very important	9	18.4	18.4
		important	24	49.0	67.3
		less important	12	24.5	91.8
unimportant		4	8.2	100.0	
Science	Total	49	100.0		
	Valid	very important	8	22.9	22.9
		important	17	48.6	71.4
		less important	8	22.9	94.3
		unimportant	2	5.7	100.0
Technology	Total	35	100.0		
	Valid	very important	17	30.9	30.9
		important	18	32.7	63.6
		less important	16	29.1	92.7
		unimportant	4	7.3	100.0
Total	55	100.0			

Completeness

Completeness was rated very important or important by 91.8% of Translation users, and 83.7% of Management users. Exactly 80% of Science users and Technology users rated completeness very important or important, while the other 20% of Science and Technology users considered completeness less important. Tourism users' cumulative percentage of very important and important attributions was 64.2%.

Table 10. The relative importance of completeness attached by users at different conferences.

Conference type			Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Translation	Valid	very important	30	49.2	49.2
		important	26	42.6	91.8
		less important	5	8.2	100.0
		Total	61	100.0	
	Missing	System	2		
Tourism	Valid	very important	12	22.6	22.6
		important	22	41.5	64.2
		less important	16	30.2	94.3
		unimportant	3	5.7	100.0
		Total	53	100.0	
Management	Valid	very important	20	40.8	40.8
		important	21	42.9	83.7
		less important	7	14.3	98.0
		unimportant	1	2.0	100.0
		Total	49	100.0	
Science	Valid	very important	15	42.9	42.9
		important	13	37.1	80.0
		less important	7	20.0	100.0
		Total	35	100.0	
Technology	Valid	very important	22	40.0	40.0
		important	22	40.0	80.0
		less important	11	20.0	100.0
		Total	55	100.0	

Pleasant Voice

At different conferences 73% of Translation users, 68.6% of Science users, 61.1% of Tourism users, 52.7% of Technology users, and 49% of Management users rated pleasant voice as very important or important.

Table 11. The relative importance of pleasant voice by users at different conferences

Conference type			Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Translation	Valid	very important	13	20.6	20.6
		important	33	52.4	73.0
		less important	17	27.0	100.0
		Total	63	100.0	
Tourism	Valid	very important	12	22.2	22.2
		important	21	38.9	61.1
		less important	17	31.5	92.6
		unimportant	4	7.4	100.0
Management	Valid	Total	54	100.0	
		very important	8	16.3	16.3
		important	16	32.7	49.0
		less important	19	38.8	87.8
Science	Valid	unimportant	6	12.2	100.0
		Total	49	100.0	
		very important	5	14.3	14.3
		important	19	54.3	68.6
Technology	Valid	less important	10	28.6	97.1
		unimportant	1	2.9	100.0
		Total	35	100.0	
		very important	7	12.7	12.7
	Valid	important	22	40.0	52.7
		less important	19	34.5	87.3
		unimportant	7	12.7	100.0
		Total	55	100.0	

Logical Cohesion

All of Translation users rated logical cohesion as very important or important. While 64.5% of Translation users marked logical cohesion very important the other 35.5% marked it important. The cumulative percentages of very important and important attributions for logical cohesion were 93.9 for Management users, 91.4% for Science users, 90.9% for Technology users, and 79.6% for Tourism users.

Table 12. The relative importance of logical cohesion by users at different conferences.

Conference type			Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Translation	Valid	very important	40	64.5	64.5
		important	22	35.5	100.0
		Total	62	100.0	
	Missing	System	1		
	Total		63		
Tourism	Valid	very important	19	35.2	35.2
		important	24	44.4	79.6
		less important	11	20.4	100.0
		Total	54	100.0	
Management	Valid	very important	25	51.0	51.0
		important	21	42.9	93.9
		less important	2	4.1	98.0
		unimportant	1	2.0	100.0
		Total	49	100.0	
Science	Valid	very important	14	40.0	40.0
		important	18	51.4	91.4
		less important	3	8.6	100.0
		Total	35	100.0	
Technology	Valid	very important	30	54.5	54.5
		important	20	36.4	90.9
		less important	5	9.1	100.0
		Total	55	100.0	

Users' Mean Scores Based on Conference Type

The overall mean averages were as follows: Translation=1.71, Science=1.88, Technology=1.98, Tourism =1.99 and Management=2.03. One represents very important, two means important, three is equal to less important, and four represents unimportant.

Analysis of Open-Ended Questions per Conference

After codifying the raw data from open-ended questions into matrices, the following results were obtained. Table 13 summarises the valid number of respondents for each open-ended question and the valid number and percentage of the respondents who answered a particular question in each conference.

Table 13. Summary of users' answers to the open-ended questions

	Problematic area		Principal shortcomings		Irritating aspect		Improvement suggestions		Interesting aspect	
	*N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Total	101	39	98	38	101	39	108	42	103	40
Translation	89	88	65	66	60	58	105	96	48	46
Tourism	49	48	33	34	33	33	29	26	78	76
Technology	26	26	37	37	32	31	44	41	18	17
Science	61	61	83	85	76	75	14	12	26	24
Management	60	59	26	26	36	35	48	44	30	29

*N=valid number per conference

When they were asked “What is the most interesting aspect of interpreting profession?” 103 users out of 256 (40%) of all conference users answered the question. The Translation users mentioned “diversity/variety/wide range of topics” (24%), “bridging gaps” (12%), and “improving language skills” (9%) as the most interesting facets of an interpreter’s career. The Tourism conference users indicated “interacting with different cultures” (24%), and “travelling” (14%), while in the Science conference users’ opinion “challenges” (16%) and “satisfaction” (8%), and in the Technology conference users view “broadening one’s knowledge/improving understanding” (10%), and “international contacts” (7%) were the most interesting aspect of conference interpreting. The Management conference users believed that “payment” (15%), and “improving confidence” (13%) were the most interesting aspects of conference interpreting.

Users were asked “In your opinion, what difficulties an interpreter faces? What is the most problematic area in interpreting profession?” 101 users (39%) answered this question. The Translation conference users considered “faithful rendition/sense-consistency with original message” (18%), “full rendition/completeness” (14%), “fluency” (10%), “grammar” (10%), “style” (7%), “adapting to the speaker” (6%), “stress” (5%), “speed/time constraints/speaking fast” (4%), “synchronicity/simultaneity” (4%), “cognitive overload” (3%), and “formal/informal context” (2%) as the most difficult aspects of conference interpreters’ job. In Tourism conference users’ opinion, “working in a booth” (23%), “ability to adapt with different cultures” (13%) and “physical resilience” (12%) were the most problematic areas of in conference interpreting. While “confidence” (33%), “concentration” (11%), “wide/up-to-date knowledge”(9%), and “responsibility” (5%) were specified by the Management conference users as the most difficult challenges that interpreters have to face in conferences, the Technology conference users marked “poor working conditions” (12%), “distractors” (6.6%) and “unprepared material for the session” (6%), and The Science conference users indicated “memory” (25%), “correct terminology (20%)”, and “accuracy” (15%) as the most problematic facets of conference interpreting.

The third question that users were asked was “Based on your past experience with conference interpretation and your expectations, what are the principal shortcomings of conference interpreting in general?” 98 users (38%) answered this question. The Translation conference users attached the utmost importance to “lack of sense consistency” (15%), “incomplete delivery” (12%), “lack of fluency” (11%), “inappropriate style” (10%), “asynchronicity” (8%), and “incorrect grammar” (7%). The Management conference users believed that “external distractors” (10%), “pauses/hesitant delivery” (7%), “changing interpreters” (4%), and “unprofessional interpreters” (4%) were the most important shortcoming. In Science conference users’ opinion “incorrect

terminology" (39%), "loss of information" (26%) and "not translating titles/subtitles" (18%) were the principal shortcomings, while "equipment failure/poor microphone/earphone quality" (24%), and "interpreters' technical knowledge" (13%) were marked by the Technology conference users. The Tourism conference users indicated "interpreters' accent" (13%), "inappropriate environment/too hot or cold temperature" (11%), and "interpreter's monotonous/unanimated/unnatural/exaggerated intonation" (9%) as the most important shortcoming of interpreting in conferences.

Users were asked "What usually irritates you most in a conference?" 101 people (39%) answered this question. The Translation conference users believed that "incomplete rendition of message" (23%), "unfinished sentences/communication breakdown" (14%), "incorrect grammar" (11%), and "inappropriate style/too formal or informal" (9.8%) as the most irritating features in conference interpreting. The Tourism conference users mentioned "foreign accent" (12%), "speed of delivery/too slow or fast speech" (8%), "interpreter speaking very quietly" (6%), and "unpleasant voice" (5%), and the Technology conference users indicated "inappropriate environment/too hot or cold temperature" (13%), "technical breakdown/equipment failure" (8%), "poor quality of microphone or earphone" (5%), and "change of volume" (4%) as most irritating. "Wrong terminology/bad choice of vocabulary" (38%), "long pauses/hesitant delivery" (22%), and "exaggerated/unnatural intonation" (14%) were pointed out by the Science conference users, while the Management conference users believed "mistranslation" (19%), "distributing papers/materials during interpreting" (10%), and "frequent change of interpreters" (5%) were the most irritating aspect in conference interpreting.

Finally the users were asked "What are your suggestions for improving interpreting service quality?" 108 users (42%) put forward suggestions to improve the quality of interpreting in conference interpreting. The Translation conference users suggested interpreters should "render the original message faithfully/maintain sense-consistency" (15%), "adjust to formal/informal situations/appropriate style" (12%), "concentrate well" (12%), "deliver message fluently" (10%), "improve their confidence" (9%), "maintain synchronicity" (8%), have "neutrality towards the speaker" (6%), "correct their own mistakes while interpreting" (6%), use "correct terminology/jargons/terms" (5%) and "correct grammar" (5%). They also indicated "access to the documents and materials before the session" should be provided for interpreters to enable them review of the materials before the session (3%) and suggested that "the listeners and speakers should have "more tolerance and patience" (2%). The Management conference users believed there should be "more investment" in the industry (15%) and more "paid preparation" for the interpreters (12%). They also attached importance to "selecting and using professional interpreters" (6%), as well as "training interpreters/updating knowledge" (5%) and "working with professional organisers" (4%). In Technology conference users' opinion, "advanced equipment/up-to-date devices" (22%), "interpreters' summary after equipment failure" (12%), and "interpreters' cooperation with the speaker" (5%) were the important suggestions to improve interpreting quality in conferences, while the Tourism conference users suggested interpreters "avoid monotony/speak with lively intonation" (16%) and "long pauses" (10%). Accurate interpretations by interpreters particularly interpreting "abbreviation/slugs/jokes/titles/subtitles/graphs" (9%) and "feeling/emotional congruence" (3%) were expected by the Science conference users.

Validity and reliability

The validity of the scale is assured by its construct and content validity, because it was adapted from established studies by Bühler (1986), and Zwischenberger and Pöschhacker (2010). As for the validity of the open-ended questions, they were tailored by Moser's (1995) accredited study. Quantitative and qualitative statistical analysis was processed for the scale and open-ended questions. To achieve reliability, the internal consistency of the scale was calculated for the four-point ordinal scale. The Cronbach alpha coefficient, as the most prominent indicator of self-consistency, which shows how closely related a set of items are as a group, should be above (0.7) for the sample above 10 items (Pallant, 2001, p.85) to represent a measure of scale reliability. The Cronbach alpha coefficient amount was for the scale of this study was 0.81 ($\alpha=0.81$).

CONCLUSION

The Translation users rated most of the quality criteria higher than the users of the other conferences. The Translation conference users attached the highest ratings respectively to sense-consistency with original message, fluency, logical cohesion, grammar, completeness, style, and pleasant voice. Correct terminology was considered as the most important quality criterion by the Management conference users. Native accent and lively intonation were rated highest by the Tourism conference users. Synchronicity received the highest ratings by the Science conference users. The least degree of importance attached to the quality criteria were mostly by the Tourism conference users. Sense-consistency with original message, terminology, synchronicity, style, completeness, and logical cohesion were given the least importance by the Tourism conference users. Pleasant voice, native accent, lively intonation, and fluency received the least degree of importance by the Management conference users. The Technology conference users gave the lowest ratings to the criterion of grammar. The Translation users considered sense-consistency and fluency as the most important quality criteria, and native accent as the least important criterion. The most important quality criterion by the Tourism users was fluency and the least important one is synchronicity. The Management conference users rated logical cohesion as the most important and attached the least importance to native accent. The Science conference users indicated sense-consistency and fluency as the most important criterion, and native accent as the least important one. The Technology conference users identified sense-consistency and logical cohesion as the most important quality criteria, and attached the least importance to pleasant voice. Therefore, analysis of the findings showed that the principal expectations remained almost constant for different conference types with only a subtle difference of priorities in rating the quality criteria.

Furthermore, in a Malaysian conference interpreting setting, simultaneous interpreting service is normally supplied at the plenary sessions, or position papers in simultaneous mode, normally at the opening and closing days of the conference event. Consecutive interpreting is provided in small seminars and meetings without any particular kind of equipment. Based on the observations of the researcher, the official opening or the closing day at conferences could be the best days for data collection for any research of this type. This can be because of availability of the interpreting service and number of the participants. Most of the questionnaires of the study were also distributed and collected on such days. A multi-situational and multi-perspective approach is recommended for exploring the quality of a conference interpreting performance.

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AGENCY THROUGH HINDU SPIRITUALITY IN K.S. MANIAM'S *THE RETURN*

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ABSTRACT

Hinduism plays an integral role in the Malaysian Indian identity construction. Its philosophical and spiritual tenets provide a crucial epistemic understanding of selfhood and existence to the Malaysian Indians for them to live a meaningful and flourishing life. Nonetheless, there is a perceived lack of discussion on the transformative role of Hinduism to the Malaysian Indians. The existing body of research predominantly views Hinduism as an outward representation of the Malaysian Indian identity through its religious festivals, rituals, and ceremonies. Hinduism is deemed to either exacerbate their sense of alienation and marginalization in Malaysia or reiterate the community's nostalgic longing for Mother India. In this line of thought, religion is said to lack the capacity to grant agency to the Malaysian Indians. This article explores how these views are challenged by K.S. Maniam, a Malaysian Indian author who explores the transformative capacity of Hindu philosophy and spirituality to the Indian community in his literary works. Using Maniam's first novel, *The Return* (1982), this article explores the transformative role of spirituality in bestowing the Malaysian Indians an alternative form of agency. Maniam's narrative strategies reflect the Indian philosophy, Advaita Vedanta which stresses on the concept of "oneness" and the obliteration of the self-other and subject-object duality. Indian philosophy of space, time, reality and selfhood are woven into and embodied by one of the novel's main characters, Periathai. Periathai attains the highest form of Hindu identity, *Atman* or True Self through spiritual knowledge, rituals, and self-reflexivity. This article suggests adherence to Hinduism provides the Malaysian Indians the agency to transcend the corporeal and physical realms, deconstruct the normative view of Hinduism as an ethnocentric religious nostalgia for India, and challenge the idea that religion further aggravates the Malaysian Indian sense of marginalization and displacement.

Keywords: advaita vedanta, agency, hinduism, K.S. Maniam, *The Return*

INTRODUCTION

Religion and spirituality are crucial identity markers for any ethnic or cultural group. In the context of the Malaysian Indians, Hinduism is an integral feature of their identity. Beginning in the early 19th century, the system of indentured labour or *kangany* provided mainly South Indian labour for Malaya, Burma and Ceylon. They were brought in to these countries to work on sugar, rubber and coffee plantations. The specific conditions, the composition and the structure of the migrating South Indian populations have shaped the succeeding socio-cultural, religious and economic life of Hindu diasporic communities in Malaya. It is estimated that about 80% of the Indians who migrated to British Malaya were Hindus, while others were Sikhs, Muslims and Christians (Sandhu 1969, p.161). As Sinha (2013) notes, "with Hinduism in the diaspora, a clear pattern

emerges: particular structural and cultural details of Indian populations that moved (or were moved) have left an indelible mark on present manifestations of ‘Hinduism’ overseas” (p.117).

Despite the significance of Hinduism in the worldview of the Malaysian Indians, there is still lack of attention given to its transformative role to the community’s identity and sense of agency. Existing discourse on Malaysian Indian identity primarily revolves around the economic, political and social issues of the community therefore systematically relegating religion to the periphery of the discussion. While the focus on Hinduism in the Malaysian Indian identity is not altogether neglected by scholars, there is a tendency to politicize the religion, which further consolidates the dominance of socio-economic and political discourse of Indian identity. Past anthropological and socio-cultural studies share a common concern and emphasis on the political significance of Hindu rituals and festivities (such as Thaipusam) that are said to challenge the state sponsored Malay-Islam hegemonic discourse of Malaysian identity (Lee & Ackerman, 1997; Kent, 2004; Willford, 2006). At the same time, these studies also reveal how Hinduism, especially through public display of rituals and ceremonies, reiterates the marginalization of the Indian community in Malaysia. Hinduism emerges as the final resort for the Malaysian Indians to assert their sense of agency, as Willford (2006) observes, “in a political system which is defined by ethnic criteria, cultural and religious expressions (i.e Hinduism) have become the sole avenue for the expression of group aspirations” (p.247). In other words, religion provides an inferior form of agency, “a weapon of the meek” (as cited in Willford, 2006, p.263).

However, the recourse to religion should not be seen purely as a response to external factors such as politics. As Kent (2004) duly notes, religion “goes beyond the matters of authority... (It) has not only to do with ideology and community, but is also deeply personal” (p.4). Kent (2004) captures the intrinsic dimension of spirituality which is to provide a meaningful sense of selfhood and existence to human beings. By reorienting the focus on religion from an external (such as politics or ideology) to a more interiorized and personal paradigm, we are able to gain insight into the ways religion and spirituality bestow an individual a crucial form of agency. In the context of Hinduism for instance, its philosophical and spiritual tenets are rich with teachings and methodologies aimed at deconstructing a disciple’s understanding of selfhood and reality. The ultimate aim of Hindu spirituality is *moksha* (liberation), a complete awareness of true self and the discovery of the ultimate truth of reality (Arapura, 1989, p.64). In this light, spiritual agency is not just a symbolic form of political or ideological resistance but a real and embodied emancipation from an ignorant to an enlightened state of human existence and reality.

It is within this context that this paper situates Maniam (1981) and his literary endeavor to promote the transformative role of Hindu spirituality to the Malaysian Indian identity. It argues, using Maniam’s first novel, *The Return* (1981) that Maniam challenges the normative view of Hinduism as an inferior form of agency and demonstrates instead its transformative capacity to his Malaysian Indian characters. This paper unpacks Maniam’s literary strategies which intimately reflect the Indian philosophy of identity, Advaita Vedanta. It also explores how this Indian philosophy is embodied by Periathai, one of the main characters in Maniam’s *The Return*, who acquires her sense of agency through spiritual knowledge of the true nature of self and reality. This knowledge consequently frees her from the fetters of external, corporeal and material desires and permits her to embrace the highest form of identity, *Atman* (True Self).

K.S. MANIAM AND HINDU SPIRITUALITY

In one of his earliest essays, K.S. Maniam, a Malaysian Literature in English author states that Hinduism provides him the means to explore the Malaysian Indian psyche with greater depth, as he describes his literary oeuvre as an “attempt to bring the precision of the English language to the versatility and depth of Hindu mythology and spirituality” (as cited in Quayum & Wicks, 2001, p.264). Scholars and critics alike have acknowledged the presence of Hinduism in his literary works. As Wicks (2002) rightly observes, “light and darkness, the immanence of Hinduism, the density and naturalness of Hindu ritual” permeate through his works (p.9). However, the role of Hindu spirituality in his works, especially in relation to the Indian identity is frequently overlooked. Scholars are more concerned with the ways Maniam portrays Indian identity and sense of agency through postcolonial concepts such as ethnicity (Ariffin, 2009), subalternity (Pillai, 2004) and diaspora (Gabriel, 2010). These concepts are employed by past scholars to show how Maniam challenges the stereotypical and static representation of Malaysian Indians and portrays instead a more fluid, contemporary and transformed Indian identity. However, these concepts often limit the discussion on identity in Maniam's works to the socio-political realm. As a result of this reductive scope of identity, spirituality in Maniam's works often occupies a peripheral position.

Even when Hinduism is considered by past scholars in their analysis of Maniam's works, it is often discussed with much contention and pessimism. To them, Hinduism reifies social and political marginalization of the Malaysian Indians. Lim, Maniam's contemporary writer and critic, states that religious themes in Maniam's works are “to some extent a turning away from nationality to identity” by choosing to “retreat into their separate selves” (as cited in Quayum & Wicks, 2001, p.132). In her analysis of Maniam's novel *The Return*, Lim states “an unknowledgeable reader may well believe Malaysia to be, even if pluralistic, an Indian-dominant nation, or at least not a Malay dominant country” (p.132). Tang, another critic, asserts similar sentiment, stating that Maniam's novel, *The Return* as “so inward looking” that it disregards “the larger multi-racial society outside” (as cited in Quayum & Wicks, 2001, p.278).

Tang also sees Maniam's novel *The Return* as a “failure of the marginal life” (as cited in Quayum & Wicks, 2001, p.288) due to the novel's focus on Hinduism which she dismisses as “bizarre superstition...that offers no sustenance” (p.282). In her interpretation, Hinduism further breeds ethnoreligious nostalgia for Mother India as they are inevitably doomed for the exilic “neither here nor there” space. This view is echoed by Wicks (2002) who believes that religion and culture in Maniam's fiction is a form of memory, an active reimagination and reenactment of Mother India. Religion can only provide a temporary feeling of relief, as nostalgia and mourning for the cultural loss would return once their memory fades (p.16). Thus, similar to Tang, Wicks reduces the capacity of religion in providing the Malaysian Indians a sense of empowerment. Since the adherence to Hinduism has often been associated with nostalgia, mourning, and a sense of loss, therefore the Indian community is portrayed as fragmented. To these scholars, the Indian community's practices and embodiment of religion and culture are futile attempts to connect with “India”.

These criticisms are reasonable insofar that they push for a more inclusive and trans-cultural construction of the Malaysian identity. In fact, in his own essays and interviews, Maniam continuously urges for literary works to be more dynamic and to transcend communal and racial prejudices. As Maniam states, “in a multi-racial society such as ours in Malaysia, it is not feasible or safe to encourage communal isolation and development” (as cited in Quayum & Wicks, 2001, p.265). However, Maniam is equally aware of the importance of one's unique religious or spiritual identity. In relation to this,

Maniam consistently argues that his decision to focus on the Indian community is not to “merely exploit the community’s domicile in Malaysia, its history, and problems purely for the sake of promoting a communal outlook”, but rather an attempt to present “universalised picture of man and society in conflict” (as cited in Quayum & Wicks, 2001, p.264).

Maniam’s view of this “universal conflict” of man lies in his inherent pursuit of meaningful and flourishing life. Maniam once states that “I want to see the universe in man...that is the opposite of seeing man in the universe” (Kee, 1992, p.16). In the context of Hinduism in Maniam’s fiction, this paper argues that spirituality provides a sense of agency to the Indians due to its deconstructive approach to the way they perceive their sense of self and the reality they inhabit. Within the Hindu spiritual tradition, concepts of selfhood and identity rest primarily on monistic metaphysics, an undifferentiated whole called *Atman* (True Self) which is none other than *Brahman* (Absolute Reality). This is indeed a stark contrast to the Western discourse of identity, where the subject-object and self-other distinctions are accepted givens. According to Ho (1995), the key to understanding most Eastern religious and philosophical systems such as Hinduism is in their “psychological decentering” (p.133), where they approach the notion of identity by confronting “the problem of egocentric predicament and thus to rid oneself of prejudices” (p.133). In Hinduism, the main issue that it tries to tackle is the human condition, characterized by suffering, as a result of a misconstrued conception of selfhood (Ho, 1995, p.124). A wise discrimination is therefore crucial, and as espoused in the Vedantic teachings: “the true self is permanent and unchanging; the nontrue self is impermanent and changes continually” (Ho, 1995, p.124).

In this light, spirituality becomes a crucial avenue for agency because it necessitates a critical reevaluation of one’s default assumptions of one’s identity and what he or she considers to be real, meaningful and valuable. Spiritual knowledge modifies one’s thoughts and actions, therefore opening up an alternative to assert his or her will and independence and resisting passive submission to the material and corporeal desires (Radhakrishnan, 1977, p.33). As Maniam expresses, his literary endeavour is “to see the destructuring so that man can get to be himself [...] I don’t see why human beings should serve out their lives in this materialistic sense” (as cited in Greet, 1991, p.6).

SPIRITUAL AGENCY IN *THE RETURN*

The Return is a *bildungsroman* novel which highlights the protagonist’s (Ravi’s) journey towards adulthood and his experience of constructing personal identity. Written in 1981, Maniam views *The Return* as an exploration of “how Indian religious belief can be modified to suit new lands, peoples, and customs” (as cited in Quayum & Wicks, 2001, p.81). *The Return* primarily engages with the complexities of the intraethnic issues of the Malaysian Indian community such as identity construction, the inevitable effects of British colonialism and modernity to the Indian community, and the replication of caste-based society which hamper a more united and cohesive Indian community. Thus, in his first novel, it is strategic for Maniam to tackle the internal fissures faced by the Indian community and consequently suggest that the return to Hindu spirituality may provide the solution to the problems faced by the Malaysian Indian community. This paper will focus on Periathai or “The Big Mother”, one of the main characters of the novel, who demonstrates her sense of agency and asserts her true identity through Hindu spirituality.

Maniam describes Periathai as the “source of intellectual, emotional and particularly spiritual development” who represents the “spiritual strength and vision of a people” (as cited in Quayum & Wicks, 2001, p.267). Due to her (Periathai’s)

“accommodative openness” (p.267), Maniam adds that her presence is important to other characters who would come to her in “times of distress and for guidance” (p.267). As Maniam states, “it is my hope that Periathai comes to inhabit the mind of those who read my fiction as a complex source of wisdom within themselves” (p.267). Clearly for Maniam, Periathai is a timeless archetype of wisdom; a source of enlightenment to other characters in his novels. Periathai, or “The Great Mother” is indeed the spiritual archetype of the novel.

The novel strategically places Periathai's account at the very beginning of its narrative to indicate the centrality of Hindu spirituality (represented by Periathai) and the effects of the decline of Hinduism to the Malaysian Indian community in the subsequent chapters of the novel. *The Return* focuses on Periathai only briefly, that is, in the short first chapter of the novel. The descriptions of Periathai come primarily from the protagonist's (Ravi's) point of view and recollection. We gain very little insight from Periathai herself. This fact notwithstanding, Periathai proves to be a profoundly influential character to the other two major characters, Ravi and Kannan (Ravi's father). Despite her death, Periathai appears to be ever present in the psyche of Ravi and Kannan throughout the novel. Indeed, Periathai or the “Big Mother” serves as the novel's Indian-Hindu cultural and spiritual metaphor that guides both Ravi and Kannan towards achieving a more liberated sense of selfhood.

The narrative of *The Return* begins with Ravi's recollection of Periathai, or the “Big Mother”, as having mysteriously arrived in Malaya “suddenly out of the horizon, like a camel with nothing except some baggage and three boys in tow” (Maniam, 1981, p.1). It is crucial to note that despite the novel functioning as Ravi's coming of age narrative, Periathai is given a special place in his recollection. While the recollection of his grandmother, Periathai certainly allows Ravi's narrative to unfold the story of his family genealogy in a chronological order, it also indicates how profoundly influential Periathai is to Ravi as the former makes “a vivid impression” (p.1).

Periathai's agency in this novel reflects the contemporary connotation of the term, which centers on the concepts of choice and freedom as choice. Hirschmann (2003), as paraphrased by Madhok (2013) sees choice as moving beyond one's ability to make a choice, to one's “opportunity and power to meaningfully participate in the construction of choice” (p.103). Though agency often denotes a form of political and social resistance or assertion of autonomy, Periathai embodies an alternative form of agency, one that asserts spiritual freedom as the source of empowerment and sustenance. Spiritual knowledge becomes the core of her agency. In the novel, Periathai is described as a person who maintains a strict religious lifestyle, portrayed by her elaborate prayer ritual on Fridays worshipping Nataraja, “the cosmic dancer” (Maniam, 1981, p.5). Sugirtharajah (1998) explains the symbolic meanings of Lord Nataraja;

The four-armed dancing Siva of the Cosmic dancer (Nataraja)...holds a drum and a fire-ball in two of his hands. The drum symbolizes rhythm and sound – both are associated with creation. The fire-ball and the circle of flames around Siva symbolize the destruction of the world. He is the symbol of life and death and the renewal of life. The hand in an upright gesture...signifies grace and protection, and the one pointing to his feet signifies that liberation is open to all those who seek refuge in him. He has one foot on a demon, symbolizing the triumph over evil, ignorance, or ego (p.180).

The significance of Lord Nataraja's dance is to banish the illusion of *maya* and transform it (*maya*) into power and enlightenment. This description of Nataraja reveals the Indian philosophy teachings on the notion of reality and self, especially in relation to self-ignorance and identification with the phenomenal world (*maya*) which veils human from experiencing Absolute Reality (*Brahman*). This is the fundamental philosophy of the main Indian school of thought, Advaita Vedanta, which Maniam incorporates into the novel. According to the Vedantic school of thought, 'liberation' (*moksha*) from 'bondage' (*samsara*) can only be attained with right knowledge, therefore a fundamental shift or restructuring of our psyche is required. This would include the task of transcending the narrow identification with one's body, mind and senses. The outcome is a transformed sense of self and the attainment of wisdom which lifts a person up from the burdens of psychological sufferings.

Here, the manifestation of agency takes a distinctively inward turn from the external forces such as socio-economic stature, politics, and ideology. This may appear as though Maniam as a writer shies away from overt racial and political issues of the nation (Ariffin, 2009, p.7), but read in tandem with Maniam's aspiration of creative writing, one could not deny the presence of Hinduism in the novel which propagates a turning away from the physical and corporeal world and engages instead with the most crucial aim in life: to achieve True Self (*Atman*), the highest form of identity in Hinduism.

This is further validated in the novel when Periathai is portrayed as having the ability to disassociate the "pain" in her body from her mind. Periathai is said to have terminal cancer on her shoulder which "had grown to the size of a clenched fist" (Maniam, 1981, p.8). Despite her attempt to incise the lump, it never "ripened" (p.8). When she finds out that her 'lump' is terminal cancer, she only shrugs off the diagnosis and instead "continue(s) to occupy her place at the pawnshop pillar" (p.8). This further negation of a corporeal suffering exemplifies Periathai's virtuous spiritual discipline. She does not succumb to the ailment. Instead, as Ravi, the protagonist and narrator of the novel recalls, Periathai continues to be industrious at work and performs her spiritual practice.

Periathai's negation of her corporeal self indicates an intrinsic Hindu spiritual practice of asceticism. This is an example of Periathai's detachment from the body-mind-sense complex. According to Advaita Vedanta, a person living in a state of bondage (*samsara*) is subjected to various kinds of sufferings when one identifies with his or her human mind-body-sense complex, as Rambachan (2006) states;

Ignorance of the specific nature of the Self causes one to fully incorrectly identify the self with the attributes of the body, senses and mind to superimpose the finitude of these upon the self. The self is then regarded as a limited entity that is bound by time and space and subject to bodily characteristics such as birth, growth, change, decline and death (p.99).

The gross body, according to the Indian philosophy, Advaita Vedanta, is the same with what is generally understood as the physical body. The body is subject to "innumerable diseases...arising from disorders in the wind, bile, and phlegm...and it is exposed to other defects such as bad odour, deformity, burns, fractures, and the like" (Vidyaranya, 1954, p.248). In Periathai's case, she ceases to focus on her cancer and remains industrious both in the physical and spiritual ways. This is another feature of Hindu asceticism, where an ascetic "disciplines and transforms the mind, senses, and bodily appetites and overcomes the fetters of the body-mind complex" (Holdrege, 2008,

p.26). The practice of asceticism, according to the Upanishads is one of the means to achieve liberation (*moksha*) from the bondage of suffering (*samsara*).

Attachment to the body causes consequent failure to recognise one's true identity as *Brahman-Atman* is essentially "nonchanging, unbounded, and formless" and an "undivided reality that is unified and whole" (Holdrege, 2008, p.25). The Vedantic teachings mention that the human body is frequently ascribed with negative valances, thus affecting the knowledge of oneself and the world one inhabits. What stems from this attachment is a constant fear of lacking, knowing that the body is subject to perils, sufferings, and death. This creates a duality in thinking and being – the root of self-ignorance and bondage (*samsara*) about the ultimate truth. A person with this dualistic thinking is trapped within the illusion of "*maya*", the physical and mental reality in which our everyday consciousness has become entangled. *Maya* veils an individual from the Absolute Reality (*Brahman*). The only way to transcend this limited dualistic approach to thinking and living is through the right knowledge.

In this light, Periathai as the embodiment of Hindu teachings challenges normative views on Hinduism as a form of ethnoreligious nostalgia or longing for India. In his analysis of Periathai, Quayum (2007) sees her as a tragic fixture of the Indian community (p.39). Quayum (2007) attributes Periathai's failure to her "regressive tendencies...with the symbols and artefacts of India" (p.39). Quayum also adds that Periathai fails "to break away from the hierarchic structure of the caste system, even outside her originary homeland" (p.39). The analysis indirectly suggests that religious adherence and spiritual practice evoke specific time and space and therefore reiterate her alienation, powerlessness and lack of agency. However, read from a Hindu spiritual perspective, intrinsic to the Hindu teachings is the obliteration of time and space. Periathai's true yearning, this paper argues, is to be liberated from time and space. Indeed, Periathai's spiritual endeavour is to be completely emancipated from the phenomenal world in order to experience Absolute Reality (*Brahman*). The Lord Nataraja statue is not to be read as an artefact of some distanced country. Rather, its presence in the novel stands as a symbol for Periathai's spiritual endeavour to realize her true self (*Atman*).

Due to her spiritual knowledge, Periathai understands the underlying wisdom behind her worship of the Nataraja statue. The Nataraja statue is a symbol of fluidity of creation and destruction. The Nataraja statue serves as a reminder that everything is temporary and only *Brahman* is permanent. Periathai's spiritual wisdom on this matter is implied in the way she relates to her own material desires. Earlier in the novel, Periathai harbours an intention to claim an ownership over a small piece of land near the Hindu cemetery (Maniam, 1981, p.1). Despite her efforts, the Town Council rejects her appeal as she has "no papers, only a vague belief and a dubious loyalty" (p.8). As a consequence, Periathai faces the danger of being evicted from her land. In the novel, the house or the land represents Periathai's material desire. Periathai's attachment to this desire can be traced when she refuses to leave the house for fear that it might be demolished during her absence (p.8). Her kneeling down in front of Nataraja after the Town Council's verdict of demolishing her house symbolizes her rectification of 'error' or self-ignorance. Periathai redirects her internal state of mind from identifying with the phenomenal world (represented by her desire to own a house) to focusing only on gaining understanding and freedom (represented by her action kneeling in front of the Nataraja statue). Instead of being sorrowful, Periathai remains content and even smiles at the verdict (p.10). This self-correction indicates a state of *vairagya* or dispassion for worldly things (Deutsch 1969, p.105). *Vairagya* is not a complete disengagement from the world, but rather a lack of passionate interest in it. It also further implies the way Periathai disregards the body-

mind-sense pleasures as she is aware of the limitations of material desires (e.g. owning a house).

Before Periathai dies, she tells Ravi that ‘my many spirits roam it’ (8) and “when I die I’ll never stop haunting the place” (8). The dialogue reflects the Hindu view of the self. The True Self (*Atman*) is not subjected to life and death because the true soul transcends such biological processes. Indeed, the short account on Periathai ends with Ravi describing the former as though she is still alive, as Ravi says “if her body diminished, her eyes never lost their vitality. And on the morning she died...her eyes never spoke a farewell” (10). Quayum (2007) notes how Periathai’s “obsession to possess the land...in order to find her identity...turned out as a fatal weakness for her, causing disillusionment, despair and eventually her tragic death” (p.39). Similarly, Lim (2005) also analyses Periathai not as a spiritual “infallible Super-Mother”, but rather as a woman who is “nonetheless ultimately killed by her compulsive obsession with her House-Thing” (p.133). Both Quayum (2007) and Lim (2005) limit the scope of Periathai’s identity to the material and corporeal realm, consequently reducing Periathai’s agency that she finds through spirituality. As argued before, Periathai’s knowledge of the ephemerality of the phenomenal world is crucial as it allows her to gain insight into the limitations of material and corporeal desires. As argued before, instead of an obsession with materialism, Periathai only shows a dispassionate interest in it. Periathai knows that the object of her attention (the house) would be an impediment to her journey towards self-realization. As expounded by the Indian philosophy, Advaita Vedanta, desire is insatiable and causes existential sufferings. Since Periathai’s true desire is *moksha* (liberation), she rectifies her preoccupation with the house and quickly prays to Nataraja, a symbolic gesture of repentance.

In the context of Hinduism, the death serves as a symbol of Periathai’s ultimate departure from her body-mind-sense complex. This paper suggests that the “eyes” referred to in this context is not to be understood merely in the physical sense but rather in the spiritual sense: the “eyes” of wisdom (Maniam, 1982, p.10). It indicates Periathai’s biological “death” as the ultimate release from the physical and corporeal self. The death levitates her into the sphere of complete liberation as she triumphs over the limited physicality of her being and transcends the illusions of *maya*. As Maharaj (2006) explains;

The indwelling principle ‘you are’ without words, let us call it *atman*, the self. You are the self, and you are not the body. With that conviction, you must meditate, and I am that self only. The self or the *atman* sheds the body, which event we normally call “death” but to the self there is no death. (p.134)

As Ng (2011) duly notes, Periathai’s faith in Hinduism gives her a sense of survival (p.116). Ng’s analysis therefore supports the idea that spirituality allows Periathai to have a sense of agency. Furthermore, Ng also notes Periathai’s asceticism and affirms that her ascetic spirituality provides her the insight into the notion of “self” and reality”. As Ng (2011) states;

If an ascetic is one “whose inmost self” has become lost in *Brahman*, then Periathai could be said to exemplify this, to a point, in her slow slippage from an identity premised on worldly desires, to a transcendent self united with the Divine oneness. (p.114)

Ng's analysis is useful as it highlights the importance of Hindu spirituality in providing an alternative route of self-identification and sense of agency. In the same vein, Lim argues that *The Return* "demonstrates (the) move from estrangement to the possibility of renewal of significance through a return to religious values" (as cited in Quayum & Wicks, 2001, p.128). Lim focuses on Periathai as an example who finds inner strength by "adhering to the Hindu rituals of purifications which she performs" (p.128). Indeed, it is Maniam's argument that spirituality provides the Indian people agential power as he further states that "it (Hinduism) allows for a more complete response to life and the purpose of man" (as cited in Quayum & Wicks, 2001, p.267).

CONCLUSION

Through his first novel, *The Return*, K.S. Maniam challenges the predominant idea that Hinduism would either exacerbate the marginalization faced by Malaysian Indians or reinforce their longing to connect and return to India. In line with the more dynamic and contemporary view of Indian diaspora which suggests a rethinking and rerouting of their sense of home, identity and agency, Hinduism – through its philosophy and goals – actually contributes and facilitates such a project. Hindu philosophy and spirituality deconstruct and revise the paradigm of one's identity by tackling the same major concepts that concern the rereading of diaspora such as time, space, agency and identity. Hinduism provides an alternative avenue for the Malaysian Indians to assert their agency and identity by engaging with existential issues such as the ultimate goal of life and the strategies to achieve it. Periathai, the spiritual archetype of *The Return* demonstrates how she secures her sense of agency by transcending the reductive scope of corporeality and materialism and achieving her true sense of liberation and spiritual transcendence through religion. At the same time, *The Return* also marks Maniam's optimism in the transformative role of Hinduism in providing the Malaysian Indians a more paradigmatic discourse of identity and agency.

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AN ANALYSIS OF JAPANESE CONVERSATION IN INTERVIEW CONTEXT**Muhammad Haikal Shariff¹, Roslina Mamat² and Hazlina Abdul Halim³***Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication**Universiti Putra Malaysia*e-mail: gs42871@mutiara.upm.edu.my¹;linamm@upm.edu.my²; hazlina_ah@upm.edu.my³**ABSTRACT**

Aizuchi or short utterance, and responses are some of the Japanese linguistic features. Each of them holds significant meaning and functions from the listener to the speaker. Therefore, this paper aims to analyze the occurrence of *Aizuchi*, short utterance, and responses in the interview context by Japanese native speakers. By using 15 episodes of Easy Japanese videos, the study found a few types of *Aizuchi*, short utterance, and responses produced by the interviewee in the interview conversation. From the data, it was found that *Aizuchi* (*hai*), short utterances (*hai*), and responses (*hai*) occurred the most in interviewees' utterances. Each *hai* held significant functions to maintain the naturalness of Japanese conversations. It also indicates that the term *hai* are frequently used in the Japanese conversation regardless of the context. The findings showed that *Aizuchi*, short responses and responses occur in the Japanese conversation in the interview context. In addition, the use of the term *hai* also extensively occurred in the conversation either as the *Aizuchi*, short response or response.

Keywords: *Aizuchi*, interview context, short utterance, response

INTRODUCTION

Japanese conversation has long been a topic of interest to many researchers. This is not only due to the structure and the value of unique politeness, but equally to the way Japanese conversations are conveyed which marks the uniqueness of Japanese language. This study focuses on three of the vital elements in the Japanese conversation namely *Aizuchi*, short utterance, and responses, which generally occur in Japanese conversation. Among Japanese native speakers, *Aizuchi*, short utterance, and responses are more generally immaculate coordination between participants of the conversation and are considered to be very important. It is because, the usage of the language marks the assimilation among participants of the conversation (Kita & Ide, 2007).

***Aizuchi*, Short Utterance, and Response**

Aizuchi is the Japanese back-channel that carries various functions in a conversation. It is usually performed by the listener within the utterance of the speaker as the act of listenership. *Aizuchi* generally composes of connotative words such as *hai*, *ee*, *un*, *soudesune*, *soudesuka*, *hontou*, *hontouni*, *aa*, *ho*, *ha*, phrasal repetition or reactive tokens and signs of body language. The example of *Aizuchi* (taken from Tanaka, 2000) is shown as follows:

Example 1

A: Sono (*ee*) okangae (*hai*) chotto moo sukoshi ohanashi itadakemasuka

[That (*Aizuchi*) idea (*Aizuchi*), could you talk about it a little more?]

As illustrated in the example, *Aizuchi*, which is produced by the listener, is indicated in the bracket (). *Aizuchi* took place during the interlocutor utterances. On the other hand, short response is the term that does not bring any specific meaning in the utterance; as compared to *Aizuchi*, while short response usually happens within the utterance of the speaker itself. An example of the short response is as follows (Roslina Mamat, Sanimah Hussin, & Eriko Yamato 2011):

Example 2

A: *Hontouwa eeto tawaa no ue kara mitakattandesukedo,?*

(Actually, *eeto* I want to see from the top of the tower, should I get the ticket?)

B: *Hai.*

(Yes)

In this example, the term *eeto* does not give any significant meaning to the utterance. However, the term was used to precede the next utterance of the speaker. Therefore, it is called the short utterance. On the other hand, by using the same example, the response *hai* by B is considered as a response. The response is in fact the reply to the question by the other speaker. B gave the response *hai* to answer the question posed by A. The details of *Aizuchi*, short utterance and response will be further explained in the latter section of this paper.

As Japanese conversation marks its uniqueness in terms of linguistic features, native and non-native speakers must use them appropriately to avoid miscommunication or else violating face saving among the participants. *Aizuchi* and responses are generally misunderstood in the conversation. For example, the term '*hai*' may be interpreted as *Aizuchi* or responses depending on the context. Likewise, the utterances *hai*, *un* and *ee* in the context of *Aizuchi* (or even feedback) do not necessarily give the same meaning as printed in the dictionary. Due to this, it is rather difficult for us to interpret if the speaker's *Aizuchi* agrees or not with the interlocutors. *Aizuchi* will then merely act as a filler in a conversation. This is a normal phenomenon in a language society especially in a Japanese society, as one of the reasons of eloquence is to be friendly to fulfil the social target.

Previous research on Japanese discourse and communication often emphasized on the vitality of a category labeled *Aizuchi* in the casual conversation (Saft, 2007). A recent study of injected *Aizuchi* such as *hai* (Yes), *ee*, *soudesu ne* (Yes, quite right), and *naruhodo* (I see), discovered that *Aizuchi* occurs every few seconds in an average Japanese conversation. However, some may not be sure about the functions of *Aizuchi* in Japanese conversations. It is considered reassuring to the speaker, as it indicates that the listener is active and involved in the discussion. *Aizuchis* are frequently misinterpreted by non-native speaker as an agreement (responses), the listenership or short utterances. Participants of the Japanese conversation need to understand on how to use them appropriately.

Example 3

A: *Un. Janakatta xxx. Ano suteeki hausuno nakani jittoshita,*

(Un. Not xxx. Ano when in steak house)

B: *The ship deshou?*

(The ship, right?)

Example 4

A: *ee. Zutto aruita mon dakara soko de haitte, kokode tabeyoukanato omotte suteeki, de aruiteruto massaji (un) ni sasowaretato nee (un), ee,ma, sorewa,*

(Yes. Because I was walking a lot I went in there, here I thought of eating steak, when I started walking massage (un) invited nee (un), ee, maa, that is,)

B: *narandearukara, ano, misega...*

(It's because it is lined up, that shop...).

(Roslina Mamat, Sanimah Hussin, & Eriko Yamato, 2011, p.240)

In the above examples, A used the term *un* as the short utterance and *Aizuchi* at different places. The first application of *un* indicated that A started the conversation by saying the term before proceeding with the next sentence (Janakatta). Therefore, *un* was used as a short utterance which acted as an opener to the next utterance. On the other hand, the next *un* in the bracket (*un*) indicated that it was expressed during the interlocutor's utterance, hence was used as *Aizuchi* in the utterance. The insertion of the word was not considered as an interruption but an act to show listenership to what is being uttered. In this example, we can see that the same term (which is *un*) is again used in the same utterance. The participants of this utterance are considered well-versed on the use of *Aizuchi* and short utterance since in the two instances, *Aizuchis* were used appropriately.

In the example on the use of *ee*, we can observe that the term *ee* was first of all used as a response to the question (*The ship deshou?*). Here, the term *ee* can be literally understood as affirming the stated question. Using the same example on the latter part of the sentence, it is observed that *ee* was used within the utterance by A (*ee, ma, sorewa*) as the short utterance to fill the loop sequence of the current speaker so as to continue the utterance. In this example, *ee* was used efficiently and appropriately by the speaker to maintain the naturalness of the conversation.

As a result of various uses, functions and efficiency of *Aizuchi*, short utterances, and responses, many studies are conducted to clarify and attempt to explain on these short utterances and *Aizuchi* (Roslina Mamat, Sanimah Hussin, & Eriko Yamato, 2011; Mizutani, 1998). In normal conversations, *Aizuchi*, short utterance and response often take place in Japanese conversations.

Oppositely, in the normal interview session, the questions are already prepared before the interview, hence, it is rare to hear the occurrence of *Aizuchi* by the interviewer. However, for the interviewees, although the questions are given in a sequence, they still need time to think of the answer. As a result, a lot of *Aizuchis*, short utterance and responses will be uttered as to fulfill its function as an act of listenership, as to agree on the statement, and to fill the gaps in the utterances. In this study, the objective is to give better understanding on the use of *Aizuchi*, short utterance, and response by looking at the conversation among native speakers.

Likewise, Japanese conversation holds its own structure as compared to the other style of conversations. Kogure (2007) stated that the difference between Western and Japanese style of conversation has been debated between the scholars. It is because Japanese seems comfortable to be silent during conversation while Westerners feel uncomfortable of the loop sequence in the conversation. Iwasaki (1997) also added that during loop sequence, Japanese used gaze (body language), *Aizuchi*, short utterance, and response to run the conversation longer.

The study also focused on the utterance data by the interviewees. The demographic data of the interviewees was put as the limitation because the video involved random people with different topics. The focus of Japanese linguistic features was only on *Aizuchi*, short utterance, and response. Hence, this study aimed to:

- 1) identify the *Aizuchi*, short utterance and response produced by the interviewees.
- 2) identify the highest frequency of *Aizuchi*, short utterance and response produced by the interviewees.
- 3) analyze the functions of the highest frequency of *Aizuchi*, short utterance and response produced by the interviewees in the interview.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Japanese conversation is one of the unique style of conversations and has numerous significant cross-cultural differences. The frequent use of *Aizuchi* or also known as called backchannels, short utterance, and response which makes them as the important elements in Japanese conversations. Ohama & Nishimura (2005) stated that in the conversation between Japanese and Westerners, Japanese people use more *Aizuchi* and nodding behavior compared to Westerners. Similarly, the comparative study of American and Japanese bank executive by Yamada (1997) showed that the use of *Aizuchi* by Japanese was about twice that of American.

Aizuchi

Past studies have affirmed *Aizuchi* as a part of Japanese linguistic practice in daily conversation. *Aizuchi* is therefore the technical terms that brings a lot of meanings and functions to make the communication going well (Kita & Ide, 2007). In addition, Schegloff (1982) stated that *Aizuchi* meanings and functions and the reactive tokens or backchannels in English language cannot be compared. It is because in English, although the backchannels such as 'uh-uh' or 'yeah' are often used, they only indicate technical terms in conversation and not as a part of the conversational element.

Aizuchi also plays an important role to maintain smooth turn-taking. Mori (2013) conducted a study on a group of students who was exposed to the audio with natural *Aizuchi* occurrence in the conversation and random placing of *Aizuchi* occurrence. The results showed that, most students could identify whether the *Aizuchi* was placed correctly in the natural conversation. This supports the findings by Kita and Ide (2007), that *Aizuchi* in Japanese conversation has brought socio-historical motivations to maintain the naturalness of Japanese dialogues.

Looking in details, *Aizuchi* brings various definitions by previous scholars. Miyata and Nisasawa (2007) divided *Aizuchi* into two parts which are utterance-internal (such as ee, eeto, un, hai, phrasal repetition, etc.) and utterance-final (such as hee, souka, hontou, hontouni, etc.). Iwasaki (1997) further divided the categorization of *Aizuchi* into several parts. He classified it as: (1) a closed set of non-lexical forms (n, nn, e, ee, a, aa, hai, haa, ha, ho, hoo, hn); (2) a closed set of phrasal *Aizuchi* (hontou, sodesuka, usso,

naruhodo); (3) an open class of substantive of any expression. In this study Aizuchi will be defined according to Roslina Mamat (2004) as it meets the requirement of the study.

Short Utterance

Short utterances are very important to attribute towards the naturalness of the Japanese conversation. The examples of short utterances are '*soudesune*', '*hai*', '*aa*', and '*eeto*'. This kind of Japanese linguistic features also occur at the beginning, in the middle and at the ending of the utterances. Short utterances are usually misinterpreted with the *Aizuchi* and response. For example, by taking an example from Kitagawa (1980) mentioned in Angles, Nagatomi and Nakayama (2000) on the short utterance, we can see that *hai* does not indicate neither *Aizuchi* nor response. The word is merely used to start the utterance and break the silence.

Example 5

Teacher: ***Hai***, *sore dewa kyoo wa san peeji kara hajimemasu.*
(*Hai*, we start from page three today.)

Likewise, Okutsu (1988) also found that some of the terms in Japanese were just merely used to introduce another statement. In his example, the term *ee* is used to introduce another phrase so that there is coherence in the reply. On the other hand, the word *ano* is used to fill the gap of not finding anything to say within the utterance.

Example 6

A: *Kore suzushisoo de suteki da wa nee*
(This one is nice. It looks so cool).
B: ***Ee***, *kore mo ano kirei desu.*
(*Ee*, this too. *Ano*, it's pretty).

Short utterances happen in various locations within the utterances. The term might interchangeably be used as the *Aizuchi* depends on the intention of the speakers. To differentiate *Aizuchi* and short responses, the speaker needs to use the term at the appropriate place and function. The term might equally be used to show listenership as *Aizuchi* during other speakers' utterances. On the other hand, to fill the gap and create a bridge of coherency to the answer, the term will be used as short utterance.

Response

Unlike *Aizuchi* and short utterances, responses in Japanese conversation brings the significant meaning in its language institution. The Japanese continuously use verbal as well as nonverbal signal (*Aizuchi*) to indicate that they are following what is being said. A recent study of injected *Aizuchi* such as "*hai*" (Yes) and "*ee*", "*Soudesu ne* (Yes, quite right)", "*Naruhodo* (I see)", found that it occurs every few seconds in Japanese conversation (taken from www.japanese.about.com). Angles et al. (2000) found that in formal and informal context, the direct response to the question usually occurs just like other normal conversation. Observe the following from Kitagawa (1980):

Example 7

A: *Ikimashita ka?*
(Did you go)
B: ***Hai***, *ikimashita.*
(Yes, I did.)

In this example, the term *hai* can be adequately translated into ‘yes’ in English. The answer given by B matches the question by A. In addition, in order to identify whether the answer is a response, the short utterance (e.g: *hai, ee, un, soudesune*) must be followed by the question’s answer. In the example, we could observe that the word *hai* (yes) followed by the word *ikimashita* (I did) in answering the question, *ikimashita ka?* (Did you go?). In this formal context, the word *hai* is suitable to begin with the answer as Japanese are really concerned about politeness to each other (Kita & Ide, 2007). The next example will illustrate the informal context in Japanese conversation.

Example 8

A: *Itta?*

(Did you go?)

B: *Un. Itta yo.*

(Yes, I did).

Compared to the previous example, B answers the question with the term *un* (yes), instead of *hai*. Nevertheless, this is still considered as a response because it answered the question being asked. In Japanese society, it is crucial for them to follow the politeness rule in the conversation, otherwise the conversation would be odd (Angles et al., 2000). Furthermore, responses can also occur as to answer the request. Okutsu (1988) observed that positive responses can also appear as a response to requests. Observe the following example:

Example 9

A: *Moo sukoshi yoku nette kudasai.*

(Please knead it a little better).

B: *Hai*

(Alright / Okay / Yeah)

A: *(Nekoza ni naranakute ii wa yo.)*

(You shouldn’t slump over.)

B: *Hai.*

(Alright / Okay / Yeah).

Based on the examples, it can be seen that the response presupposes the statement uttered by A. Although it is not a direct question which needs a ‘yes’ or ‘no’ answer, the utterances by A presuppose that B should give a respond to the request. As Japanese communication is considered as communication of high context, some of the utterances occur indirectly (Salleh, 2005). In short, responses in Japanese conversation may occur in many ways.

Interview Context

By analyzing discourse through interviews, this study aims to explore *Aizuchis*, short utterances and responses by native Japanese speakers. Unlike the usual structured interview, the interviewees were chosen randomly and utterances produced were not planned beforehand. According to Wetherrel & Potter (1988), as cited by Talja (1999), interview talk is approached with very different anticipations from how we have learned, as members of culture, to deduce people’s conversation in daily life. Participants’ accounts, or spoken expressions, are not treated as portrayals of actual processes, conduct, or mental events. Interview talk is by nature a cultural and communal phenomenon.

METHODOLOGY

The corpus of this research was data from 15 episodes of Easy Japanese videos. These videos were produced by Easy Language Network which are the non-profit video project for global communities to learn languages of the world. The videos were hosted by a Japanese native known as Miss Mona Kumagai. Each episode will cover different topics. The interviewer will interview street people randomly at different places in Japan in each episode.

Averagely, each video was recorded between 4 to 6 minutes. For each interview, a number of 7 to 35 interviewees were approached randomly on the street in various places, depending on the theme. The interviewees were among high school students, youths, old citizens, and professionals. Each video brought the specific theme to initiate the conversation to the interviewees. In addition, for each episode, the duration of the interview will be depending on the duration and the number of interviewees in a episode. For example, in episode 2, the interviewer managed to interview 24 people randomly in 4.42 minutes. Averagely, each interviewee was interviewed for 0.15 minutes (15 seconds). Throughout 15 seconds of the conversation, many evidences of *Aizuchi*, short utterance, and response could be seen during the conversation. The summary of the details of each video was explained in Table 1.

The interview sessions were observed and transcribed using Usami transcriptions. In these transcriptions, *Aizuchi* was inserted in the brackets (), while full stop notation (.) marks the completion of the utterances. The three dots (...) indicate the utterance is taken apart from the full utterance.

Table 1. The details of videos

Theme	Episode	Number of Interviewees	Duration	Duration Per Minute (M)
Typical Japanese	1	11	4.42	0.30
Rain In Japan	2	24	4.46	0.15
PublicTransportation	3	9	4.34	0.10
Martial Arts	4	11	5.57	0.32
Student Life	5	10	4.53	0.29
Tourism	6	15	5.46	0.23
Sushi	7	9	5.30	0.36
The Secret Of Longevity	8	7	4.43	0.40
Learning Japanese	9	7	4.44	0.40
Christmas In Japan	10	9	5.32	0.36
What Makes You Happy?	11	35	5.13	0.10
Love	12	19	5.39	0.17
New Years' Resolution	13	17	5.43	0.20
Why Do Japanese Wear	14	19	5.13	0.16
Valentines Day	15	19	6.16	0.19

Instruments

The study used the researcher's observation as a method to gain the data from the videos. The videos were observed carefully to obtain firsthand information that met the aim of the study. Therefore, the possibility of distorting fact and record are reduced to the minimum.

Easy Japanese video

Easy Japanese video is one of the non-profit videos of Easy Languages project which aims to make global communities learn languages through interactive way. Further, the project aims to help people learn languages through authentic street interviews. The videos also showcase the street culture of participating partner countries, through its portrayal of typical, everyday situation that otherwise would have not been covered by regular media. Each episode focuses on different topics, and is produced at various locations around the globe. Every Easy Languages video is subtitled in its local language and in English—a valuable feature for learners of all levels. Easy Languages started as Easy German, a multimedia learning project by The Global Experience at Schiller High School in Minister, Germany. Its free, accessible format, and original approach to language learning made the videos popular on YouTube, attracting a worldwide audience interested in foreign languages and intercultural exchange (<http://easy-languages.org/about/>). In this study, the Easy Japanese videos which were hosted by Miss Mona Kumagai were chosen as the instrument to meet the objectives of the study.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data were presented according to the following research questions. The data were mostly analyzed by dividing the utterances into three types of Japanese linguistic features: *Aizuchi*, short utterances and responses that occurred in the interview sessions. After analyzing and transcribing the data, the study found 16 *Aizuchis*, 133 short utterances, and 33 responses were produced by the interviewees in the video.

What are the types of *Aizuchi*, short utterance and response produced by the interviewees?

Based on the findings, this study identified the types of *Aizuchi*, short utterances, and responses produced by the interviewee in the interview session. By referring to Table 2, there were 8 types of *Aizuchi* found in the interviewee utterances which were *hai*, *ee*, *soudesune*, *sou*, *sousou*, *e*, *un* and *a*. On the other hand, 24 types of short utterances were produced by the interviewees. They were *ano*, *hai*, *a*, *soudesune*, *soudane*, *ne,sou*, *yaa*, *aa*, *ee*, *maa*, repetition of words, *un*, *eeto*, *yappari*, *sonna kanji*, *desune*, *sousou*, *nanka*, *wa*, *iya*, *e*, *de*, and *soudesu*. As for the responses, 7 types of responses were observed to be produced, which were *hai*, *soudesune*, *hai*, *un*, *sonna kanji*, *ee*, *soudesu*, and *soudane*. Although there were some terms recurrently found in other types of linguistic features, the study divided them based on the definition and functions for which the utterances were produced. The findings of types for each features was summarized in Table 2.

Table 2. The *Aizuchi*, short utterance, and response production by the interviewees

Aizuchi		Short Utterance		Response	
Types	Frequency	Types	Frequency	Types	Frequency
<i>hai</i>	8	<i>ano</i>	13	<i>hai</i>	16
<i>ee</i>	1	<i>hai</i>	14	<i>soudesune</i>	5
<i>soudesune</i>	1	<i>a</i>	8	<i>un</i>	2
<i>sou</i>	1	<i>soudesune</i>	9	<i>sonna kanji</i>	3
<i>sousou</i>	1	<i>soudane</i>	1	<i>ee</i>	1
<i>e</i>	1	<i>ne</i>	2	<i>soudesu</i>	5
<i>un</i>	1	<i>sou</i>	1	<i>soudane</i>	1
<i>a</i>	1	<i>yaa</i>	1		
		<i>aa</i>	5		
		<i>ee</i>	2		
		<i>maa</i>	13		
		<i>Repeatition</i>	3		
		<i>un</i>	10		
		<i>eeto</i>	9		
		<i>yappari</i>	5		
		<i>Sonna kanji</i>	1		
		<i>desune</i>	1		
		<i>sousou</i>	1		
		<i>nanka</i>	6		
		<i>wa</i>	2		
		<i>iya</i>	6		
		<i>e</i>	7		
		<i>de</i>	2		
		<i>soudesu</i>	1		
Total	16	Total	133	Total	32

Based on Table 2, it was found that the respondents produced more short utterances as compared to *Aizuchi* and responses. As the context of the study was the interview, the pattern of expected utterances from the interviewees' answers was flexible. The researcher only examined the data uttered from the interviewees instead of both interviewer and interviewees. Therefore, the interviewee produced more opinion which resulted to highly produce of short utterance. On the other hand, most of the questions were open-ended, which required the interviewees to elaborate on the answer. Therefore, there was limited production of response in the interview session.

What are the highest frequency of types of *Aizuchi*, short utterance and response produced by interviewee?

Based on the analysis of the 15 episodes of the interview video, the study identified the highest frequency of *Aizuchi*, short utterances, and responses by the interviewees. The most frequent used of *Aizuchi* was '*hai*' which were produced 8 times. '*Hai*' was equally the most occurred in the short utterances, which marked 14 instances, as well as on the responses with the occurrence of 16 times by the interviewees.

What are the functions of the highest frequency of *Aizuchi*, short utterance and response produced by interviewees?

Based on previous questions in this study, surprisingly, the data found that the regularity of certain types of *Aizuchi*, short utterances and responses produced in the utterance of the interviewees. As we analysed the video, this study identified the functions of the respective linguistic features of Japanese language.

Aizuchi

The speaker while talking, will look and wait for a signal from the listener in order for him to continue or not to continue the conversation, through *Aizuchi* that is sent by the listener. The listener waits for the speaker when he is at the last predicate of a conversation. It is clear that because Japanese language has many utterances which has uncertain connotation, the listener has to listen to the last predicate or sentence to know what the speaker really wants to convey.

Excerpt 1

A: *Oneesanmo (hai) yapperi nihon de ichiban sukina tabemonowa okome?*

(Miss also (hai), I assume your favourite food is rice? Isn't it?)

B: *Hai, okomedesune, hai.*

(Yes, It is.)

Excerpt 2

A: *Sounanda. Nanka kou renshuu huukei tokamo mite, (hai) sugoi kinpaku shita kuukiga attandesukedo (hai)...*

(I see. You know when I see you practice (hai), there was a very tense atmosphere (hai)).

B: *Kendo no seishintte iunowa soudesune,....*

(Spirit of Kendo I guess....)

Based on Excerpt 1 and Excerpt 2, the *Aizuchi hai* was used by the interviewee (B). The *Aizuchi hai* produced was not indicated as agreement nor turn taking signals. Most of the interviewee produced *Aizuchi hai* as to continue the conversation (Iwasaki, 1997). Therefore, most of the interviewee produced *Aizuchi hai* to continue the conversation. This agrees with the Hirabayashi and Long (2011) who explain that Japanese (male or female) use *hai* or other forms of *Aizuchi* to continue the conversation. Mori (2013) also agrees that *Aizuchi* used by the Japanese is mainly to maintain the smoothness of the conversation. Compared to other style of conversation, the usage of the *Aizuchi* or backchannel does not indicate the agreement or disagreement in the conversation, but it is to extend the conversation before the turn taking process takes place (Roslina Mamat, Sanimah Hussin, & Eriko Yamato, 2011).

Short Utterance

Short utterances are the terms used in the conversation which do not literally refer to the specific meaning in the dictionary. However, short utterances are very important to attribute towards the naturalness of the Japanese conversation. The examples of short utterances are '*soudesune*', '*hai*', '*aa*', and '*eeto*'. This kind of Japanese linguistic feature also occurs at the beginning, middle and ending of the utterances.

Excerpt 3

A: ...*kendou ni yotte kou jibun ga takamarutte iu koto?*

(...improve yourself in terms of personality through Kendo?)

B: *Hai, ano, yappari kendou to nichijou seikatsu toka....*

(Hai, ano, yappari Kendo and daily life...)

Excerpt 4

A: *Kotoshi wa donna koto sareru yotei nan desu ka?*

(This year, what do you plan to do?)

B : *Yappari kazoku to. Un, ano, mago to, hai, obaachan to, hai, ojiichan to...*

(Definitely with my family, *un, ano*, my grandchildren, *hai*, my grandpa, *hai* my grandma.)

Based on Excerpt 3 and Excerpt 4, the short utterance, *hai*, was used at different locations. In the Excerpt 1.3, the role of *hai* can be defined as the expression used to begin the answer similar to the usage of other types of short utterances (*soudesne*, *eeto*, *maa*, and *a*). In Excerpt 1.4, the short utterance *hai* acted as self-confirmation of the thought answer (Angles et al., 2000).

Responses

Responses is defined as an information that is received as an answer to a question.

Excerpt 5

A: *Benkyouwa shite masuka?*

(Do you study?)

B: *Hai, shite masu.*

(Yes, I do)

Excerpt 6

A: *Hontodesuka?*

(Really?)

B: *Hai.*

(Yes).

Based on Excerpt 5 and Excerpt 6, the response, *hai*, is used as the affirmative answer to the questions. To differentiate the short utterance, *hai*, from the response, *hai*, the latter was directly answering the question, while the former short utterance, *hai*, was used as the term inserted in the utterance to maintain the naturality of the Japanese conversation.

Generally, the findings showed that there was some significant result in terms of *aizuchi*, short utterances, and responses production in interview context. As the data was collected from the interviewee, short utterances were produced more compared to *Aizuchi* and responses. The frequent production of types of *Aizuchi*, short utterances, and responses indicated the similar functions throughout the interviewee from the videos.

The Use of 'hai'

As the most frequent type of *Aizuchi*, short utterance and response in this study is *hai*. This study concludes that the term *hai* is regularly used by the Japanese people in the conversation regardless of its functionality (Angles et al., 2000). This supports the use of *hai* in many situations (formal and informal) and contexts compared to the other terms such as *un*, *ee*, *soudesune* and *soudesu*. The use of *hai* is more to discourse based in which it is used to convey certain illocutionary acts in conversation (Togashi, 2002).

On the other hand, as mentioned in Tanaka (2010), Okutsu (1989) found that Japanese people tend to use affirmative responses than negative response as to maintain a friendly and harmonious relationship. Togashi (2002) also found in its study in the TV interviews that the *hai* is overwhelmingly used by the interviewees compared to the interviewer. This proves that the role of the speaker is an important factor in their use and distribution and most importantly, their affectiveness stance or emotive value are different. Likewise, based on this study, the use of *hai* seems to be more related to the content of the conversation than to the interpersonal relations.

In the interview context, the conversation is structures based on the question-answer based (Clayman & Heritage, 2002). Therefore, it is rare to see the interviewer used *hai* in the utterance as most of the content is provided by the interviewees. On the other hand, as the interviewees used frequently *hai* to indicate many functions (*Aizuchi*, short utterance, and responses) to express the opinion in the utterance. The interviewer will encourage to use more *Aizuchi* to promote and encourage further talk from the interviewees. As the result, the interviewees produced more utterances use many linguistic features (*Aizuchi*, short utterance, and response) to convey the intended meaning from their point of view.

Furthermore, the functions of *hai* can be varied depending on the context. Angles et. al (2000) indicates that there are 11 functions of *hai* in the conversation namely positive response to Yes-No questions, back-channel, acknowledgement of having heard before answering, self-confirmation, response to a suggestion, response to a command or a strong request, attention-getting, submission, roll call and use as a repeated back-channel to cut off. The multi-functionality of *hai* is the factor of its frequent used by the Japanese speakers in the conversation in different context.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the production of *Aizuchi*, short utterances, and responses by the interview in the interview context marked the significant difference with the casual conversation. Although, the interviewees were chosen randomly, the study found that the production of *Aizuchi*, short utterances, and responses indicated similar function. This shows that native Japanese speakers were well known on the natural of Japanese linguistic features. The future studies need consider the interviewer and interviewee using similar approach.

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ESTABLISHING THE FEMALE VOICE IN CONTEMPORARY NIGERIAN NARRATIVE THROUGH NEGOTIATION: A STUDY OF ABUBAKAR GIMBA'S *SACRED APPLES*

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ABSTRACT

In African Male Writings, as in other writings from the other regions of the world, the tradition of domination of women has been long established- a patriarchal (mis)adventure. This is partly because for a very long time, male authors have dominated the writing and criticism of African Literature which gives birth to the present state of affairs. Negotiation-Feminism is a relatively new theory which confronts the issues of patriarchy and female dominance through negotiation and non-confrontational attitudes in dealing with the feminist struggles that occur on the continent. It considers the implications of patriarchal traditions and customs and aims to dismantle them and negotiate for a better position through the power of the pen in the literary discourse. This article seeks to interrogate this exercise of negotiation in the contemporary African Novel in relation to the female voice as given to women by male writers to express their non-confrontational stand in the contemporary male authors narrative from Northern Nigeria using Abubakar Gimba's *Sacred Apples* as an example.

Keywords: African novel, female voice, gender, negotiation-feminism, northern Nigerian narrative, patriarchy

INTRODUCTION

For a very long time, male authors have dominated the writing and study of African literature. The general assumption in African literary circle has pointed to the domination of the female voice by males. It is always argued that the male authors and sometimes critics of African literature present male characters from the male point of view thus denying the female a voice of her own. They are generally portrayed as passive, dependent and sometimes parasitic in their relationship to their husbands. In order to defend their position and create a voice of their own, African Women Writers came out in full force in defense of their status and promoting their cause through asserting their roles using the literary medium. This they experiment with both literary work of arts and embracing certain western forms of Feminism. Unfortunately, as noted by Stratton (1994, p.5);

...is not surprising given the fact that women's text are being assessed on the basis of standards established first by Western and then by African men writers and it illustrates the extent to which African Women Writers have been alienated from the African literary tradition.

Women African Writers therefore become trapped in the literary mud created by their male counterparts. This critical and unfortunate situation created out of desperation the total condemnation of all writings coming from the male quarters in Africa. The scenario, equally led to what Ade (1977) calls; 'extremism' in both their fiction and theoretical approaches to blatant hatred and bitterness in the literary works of women in an attempt to counter male chauvinism. It is the concern of this paper to show that the attacks and 'extremism' of African Women Writers have been demonstrating are un called for because some Male African Writers, 'men of good will' as Ba (1991) would call them, have transcend the sexual allegory and hence have been writing with 'gender on their agenda'. An example of such a writer is Abubakar Gimba. Gimba is what Oba (2005) calls 'a giant oak of the North' (p.5), who apart from having added some half dozen to his collection, has gone on to provide an inspiring leadership to the Association of Nigerian Authors (ANA). Babajo (2003) notes that Abubakar Gimba is a gem 'completely detribalized, and his novels show undistinguished patriotism, honesty, and a clear conviction as to the realities of African cultures' (p.437-9). In this study, the novel selected for the 'repositioning crusade' in gender roles from a 'Nego-Feminist perspective', is Gimba's *Sacred Apples* (1994). The novel accounts for Gimba's compassion for women in a fast changing Northern Nigerian society. His is not only an attempt to balance the situation but to further prove that if a man loses his brain in the literary jungle, women 'of good will' and zeal are always there to show him where to find his senses. And to further show that women can lead a virtuous life alone, independent of what the society views as cultural obligation, he masterfully points to the weak points of some cultural practices that deny women their status in the society and most of the time backing his stance with religious illustrations. Gimba, in *Sacred Apples*, seems to echo what Thiong'O (2004) said about his major female character in *Detained* (his prison Diary) 'because the women are the most exploited and oppressed of the entire working class, I will create a picture of a strong determined woman with a will to resist and struggle against the conditions of her being' (p.10)

NEGO-FEMINISM AND NORTHERN NIGERIAN NARRATIVE

Hiding under the generally misunderstood deeply rooted culture of ascribing the roles that Islam attributed to women, the typical male Northern Nigerian perception of woman has been very traditional to say the least. The question is how Islamic are those traditional values? Are they just patriarchal extension of dominance under the religious pretext? Specifically, these are the kinds of issues *Sacred Apples* raised and tasks the reader to look for answers within the pages of the book through the travails of a strong female character. The traditional values, beliefs and practices are critically analyzed using practical examples from what obtains presently in the society. This enables the reader to glaringly see the evil of some of such traditional practices and how they are tackled through negotiation between the sexes. Because of the subtle and non-confrontational manner the author tackles the issues, the best theory to relate this approach, is Nego-Feminism. This is because apart from the theory being non-confrontational to the male writers, it is at the same time bent on seeking avenues to restore every right of women through dialogue and logical argument which Gimba proves to be a master at in the pages of *Sacred Apples*.

Achonolu (1995, p.92), had observed that Buchi Emecheta together with Molara Ogundipe-leslie and Ama Ata Aidoo “have misunderstood feminism to be synonymous with violent confrontation, militancy, and aggression” (p.92). And in actual sense, Mcfedden clearly tells the world that her brand of Feminism is confrontational and nothing else. The feminist discourse has been very confrontational and looks at men as enemies of progress and an opposite sex whose job is to use phallus as symbol of authority and dominance.

Unlike mainstream Feminism, Nego-Feminism, as defined by the theorist herself, Nnaemeka (1999), in her proposition and its definition in her paper, “Nego-Feminism: Theorizing, Practicing, and Pruning Africa's Way” (1999), defines it as “the feminism of negotiation; no ego Feminism” (p.360). Nego-Feminism describes a new paradigm that can finally take us beyond ‘winners’ and ‘looser’ in an endless ‘gender war’. A critical study of Nego-Feminism under the broad heading of African Feminism and by extension Feminism itself, shows that the term has a space in African literature and criticism because of the accommodative nature of Africa's traditional values and its perception of the symbiotic nature of the relationship that exist between man and woman since pre-colonial days. It is within this mutual relationship that Gimba in *Sacred Apples* presents to us a character – Zahrah who is an embodiment of the values Nego-Feminism is out to uphold. Achola (1977), in an attempt to call the attention of women to look inwards in their struggle with men, has this to say;

African Scholars, and especially women, must bring their knowledge to bear on presenting an African perspective on aspects and problems for women in local societies. Scholars and persons engaged in development research planning and implementation should pay attention to development priorities as local communities see them (p.13).

Therefore, according to Nnaemeka (1999), true development of women folk in Africa, involves much more than slogans from the West; at its heart, there must be a sense of empowerment and inner fulfillment. This alone will ensure that human and cultural values remain paramount in the struggle for the emancipation of women. In that her seminal paper, under what she calls ‘culture, development and (western) Feminism, in her quest to make a strong point on the (ir)relevance of (western) Feminism, as a tool for analyzing African Female experience, she employs the service of Vincent Tucker;

The development discourse is part of an imperial process whereby other peoples are appropriated and turned into objects. It is an essential part of the process where the ‘developed’ countries manage, control and even create the ‘third world’ economically, politically, sociologically and culturally. It is a process whereby the lives of some peoples, their plans, their hopes, their imaginations, are shaped by others who frequently share neither their lifestyles nor their hopes nor their values (p.1).

From the submissions of Nnaemeka, it is clear that the Northern Nigerian Narrative, which is shaped and characterized by the dynamic nature of cultural evolution and reformation from people's encounter and negotiations with their common heritage over a long period of time Nego-Feminism provides an important platform for such intellectual interactive activity with the wo/men folk. A literary stand point that is not *bole kaja* (come down let's fight) in outlook, but a mutual, collective journey into the inner feelings of both men and women with a view to understanding differences and

‘negotiating’ a way forward for the good of all. The goal will be accomplished through honest effort to humanize and respect both parties through finding those points of convergence within the cultural practice of the African communities involved; the principles of give and take; compromise; tolerance and deliberate seeking of balance.

Coming down home, the social transformation of the Northern Nigeria, the advancement in and access to Western education, the emergence of a highly mobile elite and the increase in literacy, especially in the 1970’s and 80’s created the suitable conditions for the development of the novel in English. In addition, the upsurge of writing clubs, literary societies and writer’s associations, encourage publication of creative works made up of short stories and novels whose themes revolve around “love, marriage, women’s roles, domestic power relations and generational struggle” (Furniss 1996, p.54). Northern Nigeria therefore, becomes a fertile environment of literary expression using the English language as a medium for transmitting the rich cultural and traditional values in a colonial foreign language. In a similar manner, Jibril (1990) further buttress this point when he opines that;

...Northern Nigeria is a fast-changing society. National integration is progressing at a tremendous speed and not least of its agents are the mass media. This in effect meansthat Northern Nigerians are being brought out of their tiny shells and are having their horizons widened...consequently, we may soon be confronted by a new generation of creative writers from the North who may choose English as their medium of expression (p.9).

As part of the fulfillment of that prophesy by Jibril (1999), many authors of Northern Nigerian extraction storm the literary scene. They include; Aliyu Jibia, Abubakar Gimba, Ibrahim Tahir, Labo Yari, Olu Obafemi, Mohammed Sule and Zaynab Alkali among many others. Out of that list, emerged Abubakar Gimba, a novelist who through his writings seek to re-invent the Nigerian dream through an obsession to (re)positioning of gender roles in contrast to what some of his counter parts have been committed to in their writings. Gimba’s novels are his contributions to the on-going social discourse in Nigeria. Gimba’s preoccupation with morality and other issues related to virtues, has been recognized by many of his admirers. According to Abubakar, in Okome (1999) “The creative works of Gimba are in general influenced by a powerful moral force which is subsumed in a worldview that is dominated by a powerful spiritual paradigm...” (p.106).

GIMBA’S APPROACH TO THE FEMALE VOICE IN *SACRED APPLES*

Undoubtedly, Abubakar Gimba in *Sacred Apples*, had a powerful vision saturated with strong cultural and spiritual devotion towards portraying a round heroine. This he achieves through creation of complex situations in line with the complexities of the cultural environment of the setting of the novel and the attitude of the society towards both patriarchy and matriarchy. Nego-Feminism as a theory of negotiation, is best suited for an intellectual exercise in an attempt to find a voice for the wo/man in Gimba’s literary sojourn without challenging the Northern Nigerian norms and cultural cum religious values especially as demonstrated in *Sacred Apples*. In finding a voice for the opposite sex, Gimba does not rely on sympathy to the plight of women but rather consciously commits his energy to gender justice and in the process found a lasting dignity for women. At the beginning of the novel, we came across a woman sent out of wedlock not because of her faults but because of the atrocities of her husband and his

desire to take a second wife. This is irrespective of her entire life investment into the success of the marriage;

Looking back now, she felt she had only lived her life for Yazid. A sheltered life defined for her by a partner she thought was an extension of herself. Now she castigated herself for accepting to live in such an illusion. She had thought she was doing the right thing.....being a housewife, a mother and a woman on someone's terms. A senseless self sacrifice, now...the bubble has gone a burst. There was no need for self pity. Just to pick up the pieces, and start again. Define her own life, and be the person she wanted to be – a woman (p.70).

His view point is clearly contrary to any feminist compassion usually associated to extreme Feminism as propagated by the Eurocentric literary critics or authors such as Virginia Woolf. The philosophical thought of Feminism seeks to equalize the sexes and further preaches female dominance over the male. Gimba sets out to acknowledge a mother's plight and dilemma vis-avis motherhood and wifehood, hence he created female-Zahrah as his main character. And for him to successfully show the contrast between the traditional setting of full house wife and a modern working class mother, he created another character – Miriam who becomes not only Zahrah's close friend but a sister of a sort owing to the conditions, circumstances and situations that brought them together. Miriam had become;

Zahra's role model as a woman: intelligent, assertive, and having a career. A job that guaranteed her an enviable independence, while remaining a wife... a good, obedient wife, saving herself the risk most women face as house wives – sub-servient partners. Independence of mind and from materiality. Dependence, Zahra thought, is a woman's worst enemy in matrimony...particularly material dependence. Miriam seemed to enjoy tremendous freedom from this (p.72).

Sacred Apples is a story of contemporary realities of the social status of women in Northern Nigeria, most especially, urban, Muslim settlement of Northern Nigeria. Zahra, the main character was built to be strong and exhibit qualities of impeccable moral standards. Gimba explores issues of marriage and the philosophy of human relationships. Zahra goes through turbulent social life but that does not deter her from maintaining her dignity, valor, and compassion. Undoubtedly, she has made mistakes in her life and through these mistakes; she has come to fully realize what life really means;

Zahra's fatal error, Miriam told her, was not taking a job. Consciously surrendering her destiny into the hands of a man, without any form of counter - indemnity. Blind trust, to which only a few men are entitled. Yes...God says that men are under obligation to cater for the material needs of women as part of his divine division of labor. But do most men listen? (p.72)

To appropriately answer this question, a voice devoid of confrontation was given to the women. A voice well informed to identify its boundaries and act within them for the betterment of the society. A voice with a conscious and holistic approach to its status, rights and positive mutual views of the society. This is a story of a woman in search of her identity in a modern world. Should she live as a woman of the times? – Independent, free, would she find fulfillment in marriage? She would searchThe answer, both radical and reactionary, had always been there but would her search lead her to it? Gimba, in the quest for these answers, allows his heroine to have a universal voice by allowing her to express values that are cherished globally- that of nurturing the child. Therefore barely six month into her new job in the Department of Trade and Industry, Rabah Regional Office as Industrial Officer, she felt was not having enough time with her children and she resolved to quit the job. So after a long telephone conversation with Miriam, she found herself desperately trying to explain the situation to her;

The children' Zahra managed to say. 'Yes, what about the children?' Returned Miriam. 'I don't feel happy leaving them behind....from eight o'clock in the morning till five o'clock in the evening.' 'Are they complaining...or is your brother's wife, with whom they stay, complaining?' No not at all she is a very nice woman'. 'Then, what is the problem?' Zahra hesitated then said, 'I don't know, I just can't leave them behind...I feel I have abandoned them, abdicated my responsibility to another woman and turned them into some little orphans. Motherhood by proxy... I just don't feel happy these days... (p.76-77).

Zahra, in her desperate attempt to present the evils of this lack of bond between mother and children, went to show that, and its subsequent psychological effect on the children, despite her terrible experience of divorce, she still can sacrifice this her new job for the happiness of her children. She is echoing a critical point to the society that the current trend of abandoning children with nannies daily from morning till evening, will certainly not augur well for the society in general;

' it is sad...it's a big problem...of children being brought up by surrogate mothers some competent, but most, no better than the children themselves. besides I begin to think that we're relegating parental care to a level no better than the role of animal breeders, say dog breeding. Our children get no more care than these animals get from their handlers: when they cry, throw food at them, keep them clean or remove the ticks when the suckers pester...though we are all animals, man's superior status demands that children's care remain the most superior of vocations, playing second fiddle to nothing else. Honestly... I feel quite guilty...' (p.77-78)

We thus noted Zahra's resolution when she pleaded: "A surrogate mother for my child, my jewel...While I am still alive? I will have none of motherhood by proxy..." (p.113) and she goes on to assert that; "...motherhood is much more than physical, outward caring..., it is a complex of emotional ties in explicable forces". In this submission, the point is made that woman, irrespective of her social standing, should not neglect her primary responsibility of providing emotional ties to her children. As this is a responsibility endowed to her by nature.

Gimba in a Nego-Feminist approach, attacked religious bigotry and self-imposed discrimination accrued from cultural biases, to illiteracy and the male dominating ego. To further express his belief, he weaves the narrative on marriage, the long human and social heritage to show that if gender roles can be negotiated within the family structure, then our society will achieve maximum development without having to borrow anything from the western concepts of Feminism. Zahrah, the major character, is depicted as a knowledgeable, wise, caring mother and wife. She is not afraid to consult extensively when faced with situations or circumstances out of control. These qualities signify an attempt by the writer to (re)position gender roles in the narrative. Gimba, by making Mariam a close friend of Zahrah, was creating a culture of friendship between modern women, even though; they are of different socio-cultural backgrounds. Mrs. George Rashad was a Christian, an intelligence officer, and one whose composure and countenance inspired Zahrah to be more self-reliant and independent minded. Also to further explain the need for men to extend a hand of friendship and recognition to the women, Gimba came up with a male character – YaShareef, who is versed in both the religious and the cultural obligations of his society. This enables him to view negotiating gender roles in contemporary Northern Nigerian setting as something long overdue. On women's education, YaShareef opined that: "men do have equal responsibility to protect and preserve marriage and ...if girls are to be forced to do anything at all, it should be to acquire education, learning and not marriage..." (p.56). This brand of negotiating Feminism implies men's 'superiority' to women only as "men are a *degree above* women..... a degree of *responsibility*, not of *superiority* (p.305, emphasis original). Therefore, as a young man with both Islamic and modern education, he reasonably but respectfully challenges the old (mis)interpretation of some old scholars that barred young girls from pursuing education and instead encourage early marriage:

'I respect Yazid's grandfather', Shareef said, but as a learned religious scholar, he should know better....the first word revealed in our book is of guidance is *Read* and not *Marry*. Marriage is therefore secondary to education'. But the learned man said the command refers to religious education, said Zubaidah. 'well God knows best but I will disagree. It is too convenient and narrow an interpretation exhortation to *Read* is for mankind to seek for knowledge. Not just religious knowledge....but all types of knowledge. Boundless knowledge...knowledge could be divided into disciplines, but cannot be confined to a boundary...in anycase, when does any knowledge become religious? Where is the dividing line? How do you determine it? (p.55)

Looking critically at Shareef's submission, one cannot but agree with his perception and interpretation of what seeking for real knowledge in Islam is all about. Knowledge as a universal term cannot be dichotomized into just religious and secular for the convenience of some self-serving scholars to the detriment of the society at large.

CONCLUSION

The relationship between man and woman on earth is not meant by nature to be an antagonistic one. Universal human values have pointed to the needs for maintaining intimacy, love, passion, commitment and trust to one another. The Nego-Feminist frame work, if studied in depth and utilized maximally, will open a way for such enduring human values. It is a guide for dealing with the Feminist struggles that occur that are presently occurring globally but in a much more subtle struggle to emancipate women from the domination of men while carefully maintaining the bond between the sexes. It has been the concern of this paper, using a Northern Nigerian Novel and setting, to show that those international borrowed approaches under the garb of the emancipation of women are not suitable for our society and our cultural heritage. Therefore, instead of fighting for imaginary rights, women are encouraged to look inwards and look clearly for those areas where they feel they have roles to play for the betterment of the society and negotiate with the males through commitment to ensure a lasting harmonious relationship. Part of that commitment is what Abubakar Gimba shows on the pages of *Sacred Apples*. He carefully created heroes and heroines who are willing to negotiate and find a common ground with the intention of saving the society as their primary focus. And he has set the example that for the unity of the family and the society in general you do not need 'men of good will' only, but certainly 'women of good will' as well. It is good will combined together that will ensure a harmonious coexistence in our society, not only among men and women but their siblings, who presently as pointed in the novel suffer greatly because of the inability of their parents to create a more conducive atmosphere for their survival.

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REMEDIATING NIGERIAN JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS WRITTEN ENGLISH ABILITY AND WRITING ANXIETY USING THE GUIDED WRITING STRATEGY

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ABSTRACT

This study is on remediating Nigerian Junior Secondary School (JSS) students written English competence and writing anxiety using the guided writing strategy. The quasi experimental research design involving two groups (one experimental and the other controlled) was used. The population of the study comprised JSS 2 students from the public Junior Secondary schools in Zaria Educational Zone of Kaduna State, Nigeria. Two (2) coeducation schools were selected by the simple random sampling method. The sample for the study comprised 132 students from two intact classes selected by the simple random sampling technique from the JSS2 arm in the respective schools. Three (3) validated instruments: Guided Expository Essay Performance Test (GEEPT), Guided Descriptive Essay Performance Test (GDEPT) and English Writing Anxiety Scale (EWAS) with reliabilities of 0.73, 0.78 and 0.84 respectively were used to collect data. The research hypotheses were analyzed using the t-test and Mann-Whitney U-test at $P \leq 0.05$ level of significance by the aid of the computer software Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS version 23). The results obtained showed a significant difference in written English performance in favour of student exposed to the guided writing strategy. It was also observed that students exposed to guided writing strategy had lower anxiety level compared to others taught by the conventional method. Based on the findings recommendations such as teachers should employ the use of guided writing were made in the teaching of written English among JSS students to enhance their writing skills, ability and competence.

Keywords: guided writing, written English ability, writing anxiety,

INTRODUCTION

Written English is an area which students at all levels of education have been observed to have problems with especially in countries where English is a Second Language (L2). This is because writing is a complex language activity that incorporates thought processes, feelings, and social interactions. It is expected that by the middle and high school years, students should possess a level of writing skill and competence that will help them express their complex thoughts and understanding of critical information (Graham & Perin, 2007; Ruiz-Funes, 2015).

Being one of the four major skills in language pedagogy (besides listening, speaking and reading), students at the secondary are expected to be proficient at it to be able to communicate daily, articulate ideas and synthesize perspectives in a persuasive manner that is independent of time and space constraints (Olaofe, 2013; Hann, Timmis, Alkhadi, Davis, Troncoso, & Yi, 2014). Students from the Junior Secondary Schools (JSS) in Nigeria have been observed to perform poorly in written English language

standardized examinations. These students due to learning problems are frustrated in their attempts at written expressions because their difficulty with the mechanical aspects of writing and consequently exhibit writing anxiety.

Adegbile and Alabi (2007), asserted that writing is the ability to tell or retell pieces of information in the form of narrative, descriptive, expository and argumentative texts. In the opinion of Harmer (2004, p.86), writing goes beyond the essay types just mentioned; it is a continuous process of thinking, organizing, rethinking and reorganizing. In addition, writing is described to be a powerful tool that facilitates an individual's ability to organize overwhelming events and make them manageable; it is also a form of thinking using written words (Napitupulu & Ernidawati, 2015). Perhaps all this adds up to the complex nature of writing in general which intimidates students especially in a foreign language. For the Nigerian students, English language is a second language (L2); this no doubt creates problems for them especially in writing. This problem according to Akujobi and Chukwu (2012) is unequivocally placed at the door step of teachers of English who unfortunately utilizes conventional teaching methods to teach written English in secondary schools.

A strategy noted for improving students' performance in written English is the guided writing (Oczkus, 2007; Bachtiar, & Sagala, 2012). Guided writing offers great opportunity for young writers to make valuable connections between text, sentence and word level decisions and help learners shape and redraft texts with particular criteria in mind. Learners receive support through different stages of the writing process (Department of Children, Schools & Family [DCSF], 2007). The strategy gives room to the teacher to guide a whole-class lesson, invite learner volunteer in each group to read what he/she has written down and identify struggling writers who need extra help for timely intervention (Oczkus, 2007).

Another variable associated with writing is called the writing anxiety or writing apprehension. Tsai (2008) identified fear of writing tests, anxiety about making mistakes, fear of negative evaluation and low confidence in English writing as factors that leads to writing anxiety. Added to these is the issue of error maniac teachers who due to too much error corrections may drive students into error phobia students. Olaofe (2013) argued that too much error correction impedes rather than enhance good writing habit. The World Bank Report (2004) asserted that the achievement of students in English language in Nigeria for children at the primary level was only 25.5% and that of secondary school students' credit level pass averages less than 15% over the years (Nta, Oden, Egbe & Ebuta, 2012). English language is a core subject for all students in Nigeria at the primary and secondary level of education; even at the tertiary level, most courses are still taught and assessed in it (Federal Government of Nigeria, 2004).

In terms of teaching methodology, the conventional method of teaching writing in English has been indicted by studies such as Muodumogu and Unwaha, (2013) to have contributed to students' poor ability and performance. This is because writing is one skill that is not amenable to mere memorization of a set of rules because it calls for development and application of composite skills in the writing process. Ho (2006) submitted that the conventional writing method gives limited opportunity to students to add a thought or an idea of their own in compositions such as essay writing. However, the guided writing strategy is an activity based strategy that takes every learners' needs into consideration in the overall process.

The major goal of this study is to guide students into independent writing at the JSS level. The guided writing strategy could be explored by teachers to enhance the writing ability of students at the JSS level and hopefully their performance at the Junior Secondary School Certificate Examination (JSSCE) will improve. The study is concerned with remediating Nigerian Junior Secondary School students written English competence and writing anxiety using the guided writing strategy.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The poor performance of JSS students in English language has been well documented and solution to this malady is being sought (Joseph & Joshua, 2010). Writing is an aspect of the JSS English studies where student have been reported to be weak at. Proficiency in English language skills especially in writing in today's dynamic society is a key to the world's proof of knowledge and universal culture and a gateway to success in the global economy (Carl, 2003). Many factors have been indicted for the poor performance at writing among the JSS students, they include: inadequate teaching and learning materials teaching methodology, the school system, apprehension and anxiety for writing among others. This study is aimed at remediating the observed poor written English ability and writing anxiety among the JSS students.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions are formulated to guide the study:

- i. What is the difference between the mean performance (content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanical accuracy) scores of students taught written English by the guided writing strategy and those taught by the conventional method?
- ii. What is difference between the writing anxiety level of Junior Secondary School Students taught written English using the guided writing strategy and those taught by the conventional method?

HYPOTHESES

The following null hypotheses formulated for the study will be tested at $P \leq 0.05$ level of significance;

H₀₁: There is no significant difference between the mean performance (content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanical accuracy) scores of students taught written English by the guided writing strategy and those taught by the conventional method.

H₀₂: There is no significant difference between the writing anxiety level of Junior Secondary School Students taught written English using the guided writing strategy and those taught by the conventional method.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework adopted for this study is the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) theory by Vygotsky (1978) and Scaffolding. The ZPD theory which is part of Vygotsky's work on theory of social development has a lot of implication for learning. Vygotsky believes that a learner's development level consisted of two parts: the 'actual

development level' and the 'potential development level'. The ZPD was originally established as a framework to describe the process of self-development as it occurs with the guidance of adults and peers in the learning environment (Van der Veer, 2007). Another description of the ZPD is, the difference between what a learner can do independently and what can be accomplished with help of a more knowledgeable other (such as an adult or a peer). This is critical for understanding how to scaffold learning which is what the guided writing strategy does (Fisher & Frey, 2010). Figure 1 illustrates the ZPD.

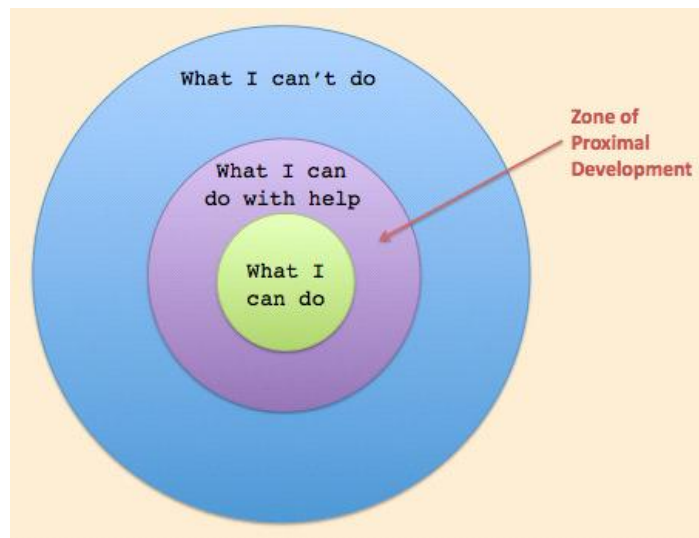


Figure 1. Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)
Source: Culatts (2011)

The guided writing strategy is a form of scaffold hence the more knowledgeable teacher or peer shares knowledge with the learners to bridge the gap between what is known and what is not known. Consequently, novice writers through the guided writing strategy can develop skills and concepts more readily with the guidance of their teacher who is more competent and has more knowledge. This is because when learners expand their knowledge, the actual development level increases and the ZPD shifts upward. This implies that the ZPD is ever changing as learners validates and extend their knowledge - a process Vygotsky commented as “through others, we become ourselves”.

The term scaffold as applied to learning situations is a process that enables learners or novice to solve a task or achieve a goal that would be beyond their unassisted effort. Sawyer, 2006 maintained that scaffolding is tailored to the needs of the student with the intention of helping him/her achieve his/her learning goals. Puntambekar (2009) added that scaffolding is an often-used construct to describe the ongoing support provided to a learner by an expert. Scaffolding is directly related to ZPD in that it is the support mechanism that helps a learner successfully perform a task within his or her zone. Liu (2012) opined that the ZPD can be viewed as the difference between what a child can do independently and what he or she is capable of doing with targeted assistance (scaffolding).

Guided Writing Strategy

Guided writing is an approach to teaching writing in which the teacher guides the learner through every step of the writing process, asking the student questions along the way, and providing answers when necessary. The teacher ensures the learner follows the rule of grammar (capitalization, punctuation, and spelling rules, and that they are creating complete sentences with relevant details). This guidance provides the building blocks for becoming an efficient independent writer (Wise, 2014).

According to Oczkus (2007), guided writing is an essential component of a balanced writing curriculum, which provides an additional supported step towards independent writing. It is an instructional writing context chiefly teaching the writing process through modeling, support, and practice (Tyner, 2004). Holdich and Chung (2003) asserted that guided writing offers greater opportunities for young writers to make valuable connections between text, sentence and word level decisions and help children shape and redraft texts with particular criteria in mind. The learners are grouped on the basis of their ability and need.

Bachtar and Sagala (2012) believed that guided writing is the most effective technique in improving student's achievement in writing. Further, Hoyt (2015) opined that small group time might be an opportunity to stretch and expand the writing skills of gifted students, to re-teach key writing skills to struggling students, and to demonstrate an informational text feature a group of students would find helpful in their content writing. Guided writing facilitates independence because it is implemented in small groups, short-termed and flexible.

The Concept of Anxiety

The concept of anxiety is vast and its definition varies among authors. Brooks and Schweitzer (2011), conceptualized anxiety as a state of distress and/ or physiological arousal in reaction to stimuli including novel situations and the potentials for undesirable outcomes. However, Hatfield (2013) asserted that anxiety is a state of inner unrest or uneasiness often described by nervousness and characterized by worry, jitteriness, sweating, an increased heart rate, rapid breathing and other feelings. This definition gave some of the factors that characterized anxiety as exhibited by individuals.

However, Goldberg (2014) submitted that anxiety is normal human emotion that everyone experiences at times. This presupposes that every individual experiences anxiety sometimes. The author opined that many people become anxious, or nervous, when faced with a problem at work, before taking a test, or when making an important decision. In another dimension, anxiety is viewed as a disorder. Crosta (2015) postulated that anxiety is generally a term for several disorders that cause nervousness, fear, apprehension, and worrying. He argued that these disorders affect how we feel and behave, and they can manifest real physical symptoms. Moreover, he said that people often experience a general state of worry or fear before confronting something challenging such as a test, examination, recital, or interview. These feelings are easily justified and considered normal.

Anxiety is considered a problem when symptoms interfere with a person's ability to sleep or function. Generally speaking, anxiety occurs when a reaction is out of proportion with what is normal in a certain situation. Anxiety has been categorized into components or dimensions: the trait, state and situation specific anxiety (Spielberger, Reheiser, Owen & Sydman, 2004).

Writing Anxiety and Writing Performance

The effect of anxiety in writing on quality writing has been reported to center on several variables (Kara, 2013). Anxiety in writing may be due to an individual's first language (L1) or second language (L2). Studies such as Lin (2009), Kara (2013) and Al-Asamari (2013) asserted that a relationship exist between writing anxiety and writing performance. Literature shows that highly anxious students are more likely to receive low grades in composition classes. Consequently, Chai (2006) reported that there were positive relationships between quality of writing plans and writing scores. In addition, it has been observed that writing anxiety decreases students' performance in writing (Rezaei, Jafari & Younas, 2014).

Types of Writing Anxiety

Literature is silent on the types of writing anxiety. However, Cheng (2004) based on an instrument tagged Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) postulated a three-dimensional conceptualization of anxiety namely: somatic anxiety, cognitive anxiety, and avoidance behavior. Somatic Anxiety refers to one's perception of the physiological effects of the anxiety experience, as reflected in the increase in the state of unpleasant feelings, such as nervousness and tension. Cognitive Anxiety refers to the cognitive aspect of anxiety experience, including negative expectations, preoccupation with performance and concern about others' perception.

Avoidance Behavior refers to the behavioral aspect of the anxiety experience, avoidance of writing. Cheng (2004) argues that the negative relationship between test anxiety and L2 writing performance is primarily due to the cognitive components rather than somatic components or avoidance behavior. This classification is used to identify the types of writing anxiety among English as Foreign Language (EFL) students.

METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted between April and June 2016. The research design used was the quasi-experimental design of non-randomized group type. The design had two-groups, one was tagged 'experimental' and the other 'control'. Both groups were pre-tested each on written English performance and anxiety level before the administration of treatment. The essence of the pre-test was to ensure uniformity and equivalence in performance and anxiety level of both groups treatment. The Treatment Guided writing strategy was then administered to the students in the experimental group only; while students in the control group were taught using the conventional method which implies no treatment. A Post-test was administered after treatment to both group of students to determine their comparative performance in written English and anxiety level.

The population of the study comprised 6,883 students of the Junior Secondary School Two (JSS2) from the public Junior Secondary Schools of Zaria Educational Zone, Kaduna State, Nigeria. Two co-educational schools were selected using the simple random sampling technique from the 20 coeducational schools in the study area. The schools selected are Government Junior Secondary School (GJSS), Tudun Jukun and Government Junior Secondary School (GJSS), Chikaji. GJSS, Tudun Jukun was taken as the experimental school while GJSS Chikaji as the control school.

In selecting the sample of students from the schools, one intact class from the JSS2 arm of each school was selected using the simple random method of sampling. This is because the intact classes give better pedagogical authenticity and has less disruption of a school's day-to-day activities (Beaudry & Miller, 2006). The sample for the study consists of 132 students (34 males and 33 females).

Three validated instruments were used to collect data for the study, they are: Guided Expository Essay Performance Test (GEEPT), Guided Descriptive Essay Performance Test (GDEPT) and the English Writing Anxiety Scale (EWAS). GEEPT and GDEPT were scored out of 100 marks. Each essay type was judged by the use of the marking scheme for guided expository and descriptive essays which was adopted from Jacob, Stephen, Deanne, Wormuth, Faye and Hughey (1981) Essay Analytical Scoring Profile. The profile consists of five sections: 'content', 'organization', 'vocabulary', 'language use' and 'mechanics' used in an essay. These sections are scored 30, 25, 20, 20 and 5 marks respectively which gives a total of 100 marks. EWAS was adopted from Choi (2013) which was originally constructed by Lee (2005) designed for assessing English writing anxiety among students. It comprised 24 open ended statements, each to be rated on a 5-point Likert scale: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3= Undecided, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree. The instruments for the study were validated by experts in the field of Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) in the Department of Arts and Social Sciences, Faculty of Education, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. The test-retest method was used to determine the reliabilities of GEEPT and GDEPT and $r = 0.73$ and $r = 0.78$ was obtained respectively. The reliability of EWAS was determined using the split-half reliability method which gave a Cronbach Alpha value of 0.84. GEEPT and GDEPT were analyzed using the t-test while EWAS was analyzed using the Mann-Whitney U-test at $P \leq 0.05$ level of significance.

RESULTS

Research Question One was answered by the descriptive statistics presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Performance between Experimental and Control Groups

Group	N	Mean	Mean	Mean gain	SD	SD
		Pre-test	Post-test		Pre-test	Post-test
Experimental	67	18.63	53.66	35.03	7.02	10.71
Control	65	18.97	32.02	13.05	9.75	11.10

Table 1 presents the mean GEEPT and GDEPT scores (pretest and posttest) and standard deviation scores of the experimental and control groups respectively. The experimental group had a higher post-test mean score of 53.66 compared to that of the control group who had a Post-test mean score of 32.02. In terms of mean gain, the experimental group had a higher mean gain of 35.03 compared to that of the control group who had 13.05. This implies that there is a difference in the performance (content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanical accuracy) scores of students taught written English by the guided writing strategy and those taught by the conventional method in favour of the former.

Research Question Two was answered using the summary of mean rank scores from EWAS as presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Summary of Anxiety Scores of Experimental and Control Groups

Group	N	Mean Rank		Sum of Mean Ranks	Sum of Mean Ranks
		Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
Experimental	67	64.85	35.96	4345.00	2409.00
Control	65	68.20	97.98	4433.00	6369.00

From Table 2, the pretest mean rank score of the experimental and control group were almost similar (64.85 and 68.20). However, at post-test the experimental group had a lower mean rank anxiety score of 35.96 compared to that of the control group who had 97.98. This means that the guided writing reduces writing anxiety in students when exposed to it. To test the Null Hypothesis 1, the mean performance scores presented in Table 3 for the experimental and control groups were subjected to the independent t-test statistics at $P \leq 0.05$.

Table 3. Independent t-test for Performance between Experimental and Control Groups

Group	N	Mean	SD	df	t-value	P-value	Decision
Experimental	67	53.66	10.71	130	11.40	0.001*	Reject H_{01}
Control	65	32.02	11.10				

*Significant at $P \leq 0.05$

From Table 3, the t-value of 11.40 has a corresponding P-value of 0.001 at 130 degrees of freedom, which was less than P-value of 0.05 level of significance. $P = 0.001$ is significant hence, the null hypothesis one (H_{01}) is hereby rejected. This means that there was a significant difference between written English performance of the experimental and control groups. The result therefore showed that the Guided Writing Strategy is more effective than the Conventional method in improving students' writing ability. Null Hypothesis 2 was analyzed using the Mann-Whitney U-test from the writing anxiety scores of the experimental and control groups (posttest). This is shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Summary of Mann-Whitney U-test for Anxiety Level Scores of Experimental and Control Groups

Group	N	Mean Rank	df	H-value	P-value	Remark
Experimental	67	35.96	1	131.00	0.001*	Reject H_{03}
Control	65	97.98				

*Significant at $P \leq 0.05$

Table 4 revealed that a H-value of 131.00 at 1 degree of freedom which corresponds to a P-value of 0.001 is significant at $P \leq 0.05$. Hence, the null hypothesis two (H_{02}) is hereby rejected. This implies that there is a significant difference in the writing anxiety level of the experimental and control groups.

DISCUSSIONS

Students taught using the guided writing strategy were found to be better in terms of content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanical accuracy used in the expository and descriptive essay that they composed. This was because the atmosphere for scaffolding and better Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) was enabled. This confirms the finding of Handayani, Dantes and Ratminingsih (2013) and Napitupulu and Erniduwati (2015) who observed that the guided writing strategy is effective in the teaching of written English in secondary schools. In particular, Saberi and Rahimi (2013) indicated that the strategy helps students' ability in paragraphs development which is very essential in independent writing. In addition, Oczkus (2007), Bachtiar and Sagala (2012) asserted that the guided writing strategy was one of the most effective ways of improving

students writing skill because students engage in discussions, asked questions, clarified any misconceptions and made observations which facilitated better test scores.

Also, students exposed to the Guided Writing strategy had a lower writing anxiety level compared to those taught through the conventional method. Writing Anxiety is a threat to writing especially in English which is an L2 in Nigeria. The guided writing environment relaxes the students and motivates them to move from being spectators to participants. With the enabling environment of scaffolding through the teacher and peers, writing anxiety is lowered. The revelation of the present study confirms the findings of Choi (2013) and Razaei, Jafari and Younas (2014) who argued that writing anxiety was a function of the somatic, cognitive and avoidance anxiety which can be addressed using an effective writing strategy. Hence the guided writing strategy is effective in checking writing anxiety among students in the junior secondary schools.

CONCLUSION

The guided writing strategy was more effective at improving students' written English performance compared to the conventional method. This is evident in the higher mean gain performance scores obtained by students who were exposed to it. It was also observed that the guided writing strategy reduces the writing anxiety of students exposed to it. This means that the strategy can facilitate students' confidence in writing in English language. The implication of the findings of this study is that Nigerian Junior Secondary School Students' poor writing skills and writing anxiety can be remediated by the use of the Guided Writing Strategy. Hence it is expedient that teachers and the relevant educational agencies explore the use of this method to enhance students' ability and competence at writing. Hopefully this can bring about a national transformation leading to better careers related to writing and better grades in standardized examinations.

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INITIAL SENTENCE ELEMENTS IN ENVIRONMENTAL ENGINEERING RESEARCH ARTICLE METHOD SECTIONS

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ABSTRACT

Initial sentence elements signal changes, shifts or stages in the progression of the discourse. These elements serve different functions in the discourse. Thus, this study aims to shed the light on the forms and functions of initial sentence elements of the method section of environmental engineering research articles. The data of this study comprises 10 method sections extracted from research articles published in three prestigious journals published by Elsevier. The data were analysed based on a framework suggested by Ebrahimi (2014). The results indicated the predominance of the research-related object grammatical subject, time context frame, and additive textual marker. The results showed that self-mention grammatical subject, time context frame, and additive textual performed greater variety of functions in method section. Thus, the results suggest that writers need to know that the selections of initial sentence elements' forms and functions are related directly to the rhetorical functions of the method section and to the disciplinary nature. Writers need to be aware that the initial sentence element is a pivotal position in which care must be practiced concerning the selection and realisation of the elements.

Keywords: context frames, grammatical subject, initial sentence element, method section, textual markers

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, researchers feel the need to publish research articles as promotion and professional advancement are directly linked to publication in high-impact disciplinary journals. To get their research article accepted, researchers need to meet the journal's requirements for two levels: macro- and micro-structures (Hanauer & Englander, 2011; Lillis & Curry, 2010). At the macro level, they need to follow the rhetorical structure of a research article (Introduction, Method, Results and Discussion) imposed by their discipline and disciplinary journals. At the micro level, there are some linguistic features that researchers are recommend to know how to use to be able to serve the functions of the macro structures. These requirements should be kept in mind while writing research articles.

Based on the mentioned requirements, a considerable amount of literature in the last two decades has been published on the macro- and micro-structures of research articles. As for the macro structure, literature has focused largely on the Introduction section (*e.g.*, Gledhill, 2000; Samraj, 2005; Swales, 1990; Ozturk, 2007; Hirano, 2009; Sheldon, 2011; Martin & Perez, 2014) or the Results and Discussion/Conclusion sections (*e.g.*, Brett, 1994; Holmes, 1997; Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Williams, 1999; Ruiying & Allison, 2003; Peacock, 2002; Bitchener & Basturkmen, 2006; Basturkmen, 2012), and comparatively less attention has been given to the Method section (*e.g.*, Bruce, 1983, 2008; Swales, 1990; Lim, 2006; Gollin-Kies, 2014). This lack of attention

motivated this study to focus on the method sections of research articles in the scientific discipline of environmental engineering. Concerning the microstructure, the literature indicated that the less attention has been paid to the microstructure of the method section. Thus, this study aims to investigate the forms and functions of initial sentence elements (elements preceding the main verb of the independent clause) realised in the method sections of research articles (RAM) from the scientific discipline of environmental engineering (EE). The results of this study could act as a guide to help writing RAMs in this specific discipline and others that are close in nature. This guide is more helpful to novice non-native EE research article writers. Based on the aim of this study, the following questions were posed:

1. What are the forms and functions of grammatical subjects used in RAM sections of EE RAs?
2. What are the forms and functions of context frames used in RAM sections of EE RAs?
3. What are the forms and functions of textual markers used in RAM sections of EE RAs?

Initial sentence elements and research questions

In this study, following Davies (1996) and Halliday (2004), initial sentence elements includes obligatory grammatical subject (GS) and optional context frames (CF) and textual markers (TM). CF (Example 1) are optional linguistic elements that precede the GS in declarative sentences. These elements intend to signal changes/shifts or stages in the progression of the discourse.

Example 1: ***In summer***, daytime cooling by the tree canopy due to reduction in sky view factor (shading component) is relatively small compared to cooling due to low transmissivity. (EE 1)

TM (Example 2) are optional linguistic features that link the current clause to the preceding clause or clauses. These initial elements are presented through one of, or combinations of, conjunction and conjunctive adjunct.

Example 2: ***However***, the hygienization effect, elimination of pathogens, achieved at mesophilic conditions is reported to be low or inexistent. (EE 2)

METHODOLOGY

Data

This study was carried out on a dataset of 10 RAs from the discipline of EE. The RAs were published as empirical RAs in 2008 to 2012 issues of three journals, namely: “Water Research”, “Building and Environment” and “Journal of Hazardous Materials”. The selected journals are all indexed by Thomson Reuters and published by Elsevier. From issues of each year (2008-2012), two papers that imply the structure of IMRD (Introduction, Method, Result and Discussion) were selected and prepared for analysis.

Framework of Analysis

To analyse the compiled data for the forms and functions of the initial sentence elements, the framework suggested by Ebrahimi (2014) was used. It is the modified framework of the available frameworks (Halliday, 2004; Davies, 1996) in relation to sentence initial elements forms and functions. The details of the framework are presented in Appendix 1.

Procedure

The researcher read all 10 RAM sections to analyse the forms and functions of the initial sentence elements based on Ebrahimi's (2014) framework manually. In this step, three raters who are pursuing their PhD in Applied Linguistics and have published some papers close to the topic of this study were invited to check a sample of four method sections from the corpus to mitigate the risk of false identification of the initial sentence element forms and functions. The raters are three experts in applied linguistics who have some publications in the same or related areas. The results of the corpus analysis were then tabulated and discussed.

RESULTS

The results of data analysis concerning the forms and functions of initial sentence elements are presented in this section.

GSs Forms in EE RAMs

The results concerning the GSs forms found in the data are presented in Table 1.

		Frequency	Percentage
1	Research-related object	438	73%
2	Research-related process	130	22%
3	Self-mention	4	1%
4	*Other	27	4%
	Total	599	100%

*Other includes introducing the study, personal and impersonal citation, this and empty theme GSs.

The results of the data analysis indicate the predominance of the research-related object GS over other GSs. This finding suggests that EE writers' desire to elaborate on the materials, data and objects with which a study runs. The second in the list is the research-related process GS, which was realised in 22% of initial sentence positions. This employment might stem from the experiment-based nature of the RAM section in this discipline. Based on the figures in Table 1, the realisation of self-mention indicates a small inclination at just 1%. This finding indicates that EE RAM sections are not interactional in nature.

GS Functions in EE RAMs

The results concerning the functions of the GSs in the EE RAM sections are plotted in Table 2.

GS	Function
1 Research-related object	Identify, explain and define the participants in or materials of the study
2 Research-related process	Identify, explain and define the processes adopted in the data collection, analysis and measurement
3 Self-mention	Describe a process or procedure Highlight the contribution to the existing literature

As for the function, the research-related object GS was used to serve the function of identifying, explaining and defining the materials on which a study was carried out (Example 3).

Example 3: ***The study sample*** consists of eight public housing estates and nine private housing estates in the coastal area of Hong Kong.

As for the function, the research-related process GS was used to identify, explain and define the processes adopted in data collection, analysis and measurement (Example 4).

Example 4: ***The separation of thiol-bimane derivatives*** was performed using an Agilent Technologies 1200 series HPLC system (Agilent Technologies Inc., Germany).

Interestingly, the self-mention GS, which received the least attention, indicated two functions. The main function is describing the process or procedure (Example 5).

Example 5: ***The authors*** estimated the uncertainties on the oxide content to be lower than ± 0.573 wt. % for the initial unsieved powder [17].

Another function enacted is highlighting the contribution to the existing disciplinary-based knowledge (Example 6).

Example 6: ***We*** now intend in this study to investigate the influence of other treatment parameters. (EE 4)

CF Forms in EE RAMs

The CF forms found in the data are presented in Table 3.

		Frequency	Percentage
1	Time	35	(39%)
2	Purpose	16	(18%)
3	Condition	15	(17%)
4	Location in discourse (data)	12	(14%)
	*Other	11	(12%)
	Total	89	(100%)

*Other includes *cause, means, comparison and addition* CFs whose manifestations did not reach 5% in at least one discipline.

The figures in Table 3 show that EE writers have a great inclination to include the time CF. This great employment may tell us that ideas are chronologically organised in EE RAMs. The second predominant CF was the purpose CF by 18% realisation in EE RAMs. Such a use by the writer could help the reader to reach a better interpretation of the findings. The condition CF was used in 17% of the EE RAMs. This may mean that EE writers are more inclined to clarify the conditions that a study is conducted in for the benefit of the reader. The least popular application was the location in discourse (data) CF in 14% of EE RAMs.

CF Functions in EE RAMs

As for the function of CFs, the findings are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Functions of CFs in EE RAMs			
CF		Function	EE
1	Time	Chronological presentation of the steps of data collection or an experiment	✓
		Chronological presentation of data analysis and measurement steps	✓
		Time period of the research	✓
2	Purpose	Justify and rationalise sampling procedures and data analysis	✓
3	Condition	Report a research action in a cause and effect form	✓
		Justify a research action	✓
		Report on a research action from earlier studies	✓
4	Location in discourse (data)	Present a discourse-related or real world-related context	✓

As for the functions served by the time CF, the results in Table 4 point to three functions. The first function was presenting the steps in data collection or an experiment chronologically in EE RAMs (Example 7).

Example 7: ***After germination of the seeds***, the pots were placed into six open top chambers (OTCs), as described in details in Wu et al. [23].

The second function was chronological presentation of the steps of measurement in EE RAM sections (Example 8).

Example 8: ***After cooling***, the samples were centrifuged and the glucose concentration was measured with high pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC).

The third function in the list is indicating the period of research in the EE RAM section (Example 9).

Example 9: ***From April to August 2004***, an epidemiological cross sectional study (the ALLHOME-1 baseline study) was performed in the cities of Burgas and Sofia, in Bulgaria.

As for functions of purpose CF, this CF was used to serve one function in EE RAMs. It is to justify and rationalise sampling and procedures of an experiment (Example 10).

Example 10: ***To avoid the entrance of air during effluent discharge***, a gas bag (5 L) containing nitrogen was connected to the headspace of the reactor.

The condition CF was implied to report a research action in cause and effect form (Example 11).

Example 11: ***When the frequency of dampness reported by parents was compared with that reported by inspectors***, the observations made by the two inspectors (a team) were merged together.

The next function is justifying a research action that might reveal the EE writer's tendency to present a plausible rationale and reasons for research actions (Example 12).

Example 12: ***By assuming the oxide is uniform around spherical Al particles***, it is possible to compute the oxide content of the overall powder for comparison with TGA results.

This CF was used to report on a research action from earlier studies (Example 13).

Example 13: ***In view of the difficulty to control the powder oxidation***, Baudry et al. were not able to test samples with oxide content between 4 and 6 wt.% and between 7 and 9 wt.%.

The result concerning the function performed by the location in discourse (data) CF shows that this CF was only used to serve the function of presenting the discourse-related or real world-related context in which one step of the data collection and experiment was carried out (Example 14).

Example 14: ***In the ALLHOME-2 study***, each team visited up to six homes per day. (EE 2)

TM Forms in EE RAMs

The results in relation to the realisation of TM forms are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Frequency and Percentage of TM Forms in EE RAMs

		Frequency	Percentage
1	Additive	21	(54%)
2	Time	7	(17%)
3	Others	11	(29%)
	Total	39	(100%)

*Others include cause, place, summative, condition and verificative textual themes whose manifestation does not reach 5% in at least one discipline.

The additive TM was the predominant TM used in the EE RAMs (54%). Such a finding might suggest the EE writers' inclination towards the creation of a positive link between the ideas and information presented in RAMs. According to the results in Table 5, the time TM was found in the EE RAMs for 17%.

TM Functions in EE RAMs

As for the functions served by the use of TM forms, the results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Functions of TM forms in EE RAMs

	Textual theme	Function	EE
1	Additive	State the steps of data collection	✓
		Tie the steps of measurement, experiment or procedure positively	✓
		Tie the steps of data analysis positively	✓
2	Time	Chronologically tie the procedures of a study	✓

Pertaining to the functions served by the use of the additive TM, EE writers intend to aid the replication of the study by indicating a positive links between the steps of a) sampling (Example 15), b) measurement or experiment (Example 16) and c) analysis (Example 17).

Example 15: Parents of 56 children refused to have their home investigated, ***and*** parents of 110 children refused to take part in the medical examinations.

Example 16: The teams did not have any information about the health status of the children ***and*** the inspectors were told not to discuss such issues with the family before filling out the evaluation checklist.

Example 17: All experiments were conducted with six replicates, ***and*** results are expressed as mean \pm standard deviation (SD).

The time TM was used to serve the function of chronologically linking the procedures of the study (Example 19).

Example 19: ***Finally***, samples of flooring material were taken for chemical analysis.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study aimed to investigate the forms and functions performed by the use of GSs, CFs and TMs. The findings of this study could help writers from the discipline of EE in particular and disciplines that are close in nature in writing the RAM section.

The use of the research-related object GS could be discussed based on the need felt by the EE writers to elaborate more on the characteristics and features of the implied resources in order to convince the reader about the objectivity of the methodology of their studies. This could consequently guarantee the significance of results emerging from such methodology. The use of the research-related process GS could be discussed based on the nature of EE discipline in which the importance of the processes of experiments imposes on writers to refer to the processes adopted while conducting experiments. A low inclination towards the use of the self-mention GS could be sourced from the fact that EE writers prefer not to show their viewpoint and stance concerning the research process to their peers in a subtle way.

From the above discussion, it could be concluded that writers should refer to objects and processes of experiments in the GS position. Writers need to keep in mind that these references are sourced from the nature of the RAM section. They also need to know that the RAM section is an interpersonal section in which writers do not present their stance concerning information presented in the RAM section.

As for the findings presented concerning the functions of GSs, the function served by the research-related object is not unusual as the nature of a RAM requires writers to provide the reader with sufficient information about the resources, materials and instruments on which the study relies. This function could be justified based on the move and step analysis of RAM by Lim (2006). He indicates that in the steps of moves 1 and 2 of a RAM, writers need to describe, define and explain the characteristics of the materials, resources and instruments. It seems that the function performed by the research-related process is imposed by the method section following Lim (2006). Writers need to state the processes used to conduct a study with regard to the three moves of data collection,

measurement and analysis. Stating these processes can help those readers who want to carry out similar experiments adopting the same processes. It also seems that such information can directly contribute to the better interpretation of an experiment, which in turn fosters better interpretation of the findings obtained and claims made.

Writers used the self-mention GS to serve the function of describing a process or procedure. This function could be based on the need to describe research processes or procedures in a RAM (Lim 2006). For Lim (2006, p.294), the use of self-mention in this manner can “further the objective of vigorous, direct, clear and concise communication” in a RAM. Further support for this use by the writers comes from Tang and John (1999), Kuo (1999) and Harwood (2005), who insist on the use of self-mention to serve this function and to provide the reader with adequate information concerning the processes and procedures of research. The second function, which is highlighting the contribution to the existing literature, could help writers in terms of “advertising their works as researchers” (Harwood 2005, p.1213). Writers rely on this function to signal the innovativeness of the procedures and processes undertaken. Kuo (1999), in this regard, points out that writers seek confirmation of their contribution to discipline-based knowledge. The contribution can also be overcoming a methodological difficulty (Harwood, 2005).

From the functions served by the use of the three GSs, we can conclude that writers must keep in mind that the selection of the GSs is highly linked with the functions of the moves of RAMs. EE writers need to keep in mind that such functions could play important roles in facilitating RA publication as they help in realisations of functions of RA macro structures by the use of GS forms.

The results concerning the use of CFs indicated that EE writers’ use of the time CF was to create chronological organisation between information presented in the RAMs. This use assists writers to provide the reader with a very straightforward description of the information, which contributes to a better interpretation of RAMs. As for the purpose CF, its use suggests the intention of indicating the standard-based nature of EE studies. It seems that the condition CF helps justifying procedures of sampling and analysis. This CF validates the study through these justifications and rationalisations. The occurrence of these justifications and rationalisations is not surprising, since justifying sampling procedures is a step in writing RAMs (Lim, 2006). The realisation of the location in discourse (data) CF helps achieve a better understanding and interpretation of ideas. This CF is frequently presented through “deictic forms”, thus it can contribute directly to the textual cohesion and interaction of RAMs (Gosden, 1992, p.212). From these discussions, it can be concluded that CF forms are selected to present the information in chronological and cause and effect forms and justify and validate the presented information. Writers should bear in mind that care must be practiced in the selection of the CF forms to meet the requirements discussed here.

The time CF was used to serve three functions. EE writers used this CF to chronologically present the steps of sampling and analysis or measurement. This could help stress the importance of the order of steps of measurement. This might suggest that any change in the order of steps of measurement could generate different findings. This function could help readers to have a clear and straightforward picture of the experiment and findings. The third function stresses the importance of the time length of an experiment or its steps. Such information helps researchers in the same discipline aiming to conduct similar experiments with the time needed for each step as well as the whole experiment. The purpose CF was used to assist writers justifying, rationalising and increase the reliability of sampling procedure and increases the validity of study findings.

The condition CF was used to increase the validity of the RAM section and contributes to the significance of the findings. The EE writers used this CF to state and justify actions from the current or earlier studies. They also intended to state the actions in cause and effect form. The location in discourse (data) CF was used to impress the necessity of presenting the context of the data or experiment. Lim (2006), in his move and step analysis of method sections, argue for the necessity of such information. Another justification for this discourse function comes from the helpful role that it plays in narrowing down data or an experiment to a specific context.

From the above discussions, it can be concluded that while writing the EE RAM section, writers need to keep in mind that the time, purpose, condition and location in discourse data CFs could play important roles in justifying, rationalising and validating the method section. These CFs could help in ordering steps in sampling and experiments, which help with better comprehension of RAM and increasing the chance of publication. As for the realisation of TMs forms, the results stress the use of the additive TM as the predominant TM. It seems that such a use is supported by the experimental nature of EE RAMs, where writers mostly present the experiment in steps and create a cohesive relation between the steps to help facilitate the interpretation. The other TM that received some attention was the time TM. This attention might tell us that EE writers prefer to organise the RAM sections from a time perspective, or in other words to achieve textual cohesion through use of the time TM.

From the above discussion, it could be concluded that EE writers need to keep in mind that successful writers in their discipline create cohesion in the RAM section by linking the ideas in an additive or chronological manner.

All three functions performed by the use of the additive TM were to help writers to indicate in an explicit way how the experiment or measurement was carried out, from sampling to analysis. The function performed by the time TM ideationally intends to connect the procedures of a study and signal that the writer understands the chronological relationship between the procedures (Hyland, 2005, p.43).

From the above discussion, it could be concluded that the use of the additive TM plays a crucial role in convincing the reader concerning the validity and reliability of findings of the study. To Lim (2006), such a use could help the realisation of obligatory steps in writing the RAM section. EE writers should bear in mind that the time TM could create a chronological connection between the ideas in a RAM that make a text easy to follow whilst at the same time contributing to better interpretation. Based on this study, we can suggest some further studies that focus on linguistic features used in RAM section to fulfil the rhetorical functions. The selection, use and discourse functions of the linguistic features could be highly related to the rhetorical functions of RAM section.

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1

Table of Analytical framework of theme types and discourse functions

Analytical framework of theme types and discourse functions		
Theme type	Discourse Function	Definition and Example
Textual Theme	Additive	Function: To add arguments together. Example: Finally, it has been demonstrated that disgust sensitivity is positively associated with neuroticism (Druschel & Sherman, 1999; Haidt et al., 1994; Hennig, Poßsel, & Netter, 1996), <u>and</u> it is generally assumed that this basic personality factor increases vulnerability to psychopathology (e.g., Claridge, 1997). (Psy 2)
	Contrastive	Function: To contrast arguments together. Example: It is clear that elevated CO ₂ affects plant growth in either unstressed or stressed environments, <u>but</u> little information is available in the literature concerning the combined effect of elevated CO ₂ and metal contamination on plant physiochemical processes. (EE 6)
	Appositive	Function: To provide a specific instance for a general statement. Example: Each faculty is in turn divided into a number of different 'schools', which are themselves often divided into separate 'divisions', reflecting the different research interests within the school. Thus, <u>for example</u> , the Faculty of Arts and Humanities hosts the School of English Studies, within which are the four Divisions of Medieval Studies, Modern English Language, Modern English Literature, and Drama. (AL 3)
	Consequence	Function: To show that conclusion is being drawn. Example: <u>In general</u> , and based exclusively on syntax, two types can be distinguished: yes/no questions and wh-questions. (AL 1)
	Sequence	Function: To order arguments with respect to their order of occurrences. Example: <u>First</u> , instead of words for the target and attribute stimuli, we used pictures. Second, we individualized the IAP, so the children could identify themselves more easily with the stimuli. (Psy 1)
	Time	Function: To order arguments chronologically Example: <u>Recently</u> , optoelectronic systems, which track light-emitting or light-reflecting markers attached to a subject's articulators, have become more prevalent. (AL 7)
Marked Topical Theme	Location in Discourse (Data)	Function: To show and describe the world-related or discourse-related context of the research or its findings and claims. Example: <u>In the present study</u> , we aim at establishing a detailed procedure to treat Al powder and to give reference treatment parameters to use in order to obtain the wanted oxide content. (EE 4)

Validation	<p>Function: To provide supportive evidences to validate the research hypothesis, findings, and conclusions. These supportive evidences could be sourced from the same study by reference to the tables, figures or from other studies in the disciplinary discourse community.</p> <p>Example: <u>In accordance with Alden et al., and consistent with overall research in the area,</u> we hypothesized that clinical self-evaluation, whether measured by the APS-R or FMPS, would be a positive predictor of social anxiety. (Psy 4)</p>
Condition	<p>Function: To report the real-world events and facts coming from process and procedures of the experimental section, with cause and effect relationship. It also focuses on hypotheses which are not fully tested yet. These hypotheses are resulted from observed phenomenon or unexplained or partial data that need to be clarified in the future.</p> <p>Example: <u>If BED is an associated feature of effective or anxiety disorders,</u> it should be more likely to co-occur with these conditions than to present without them. (Psy 7)</p>
Cause	<p>Function: To help writers present the cause or the rationale for the research actions and hypothesis.</p> <p>Example: <u>Since slightly elevated levels of heavy metals in the environment are more common than severe contamination,</u> the effect of elevated CO₂ on growth and development of plants grown in slightly heavy metal-contaminated soils should receive attention. (EE 6)</p>
Purpose	<p>Function: To present the purpose for which a research action was used.</p> <p>Example: <u>To improve treatment efficacy,</u> it is essential to gain more insight in causal and maintaining factors of anxiety disorders. (Psy 1)</p>
Contrast	<p>Function: To sharply juxtaposed with the positive additive aims of addition CF, since these CFs are mainly used for negative expansion.</p> <p>Example: <u>Although several researchers have reported structural and/or linguistic changes in certain sections of medical RAs (Atkinson, 1992; Ayers, 2008; Huangfu, 2005; Liang, 2005),</u> no report, to our knowledge, has specially dealt with the structural or linguistic changes in complete medical RAs. (AL 3)</p>
Addition	<p>Function: To exemplify and elaborate by using opposition and expanding on the preceding statements through positive emphasis.</p> <p>Example: <u>In addition to the analyses of treatment outcomes,</u> we also wanted to investigate the predictors of treatment adherence. (Psy 9)</p>
Means	<p>Function: To introduce common processes and techniques of scientific investigation.</p> <p>Example: <u>By comparing the locations of the IREDs over time,</u> it is possible to track movement in three dimensions. (AL 6)</p>

Unmarked Topical theme (GS)	Viewpoint	Function: To show overt viewpoint temporarily help writers to gain a high discourse profile, “similar to the participant role of We as subject.” Example: <u>From the semantic and pragmatic point of view</u> , she also detected a strong tendency towards self-promotion and “interestingness” in the group of titles written in English, which was almost absent in the Slavic title group. (AL 8)
	Time	Function: To show time-related context of the research, research actions, findings and claims. Example: <u>In the last three decades</u> the field of genre analysis has seen a great number of studies on written academic genres, especially the research article (e.g., Hyland, 2000; Swales, 1990, 2004). (AL 2)
	Research-related Object	Function: To present materials, entities and objects concerned with the physical world. Example: <u>The three disciplines</u> were selected as examples of the sciences (biology), social sciences (linguistics) and humanities (philosophy). (AL 2)
	Research-related Process	Function: To present actions and procedures executed in or resulting from scientific research activities. Example: <u>A movement away from the target</u> is seen as avoidance behavior, with negative valence. (Psy 1)
	Introducing (part) the study	Function: To refers to integral, parts or internal entities of a discourse. Example: <u>The purpose of this paper</u> is to present a generic description of discursive practices in law as they emerge from two different international academic and professional contexts of written communication. (AL 7) Example: <u>This paper</u> reports on a study of master’s theses from a cross-disciplinary perspective using both textual and interview data. (AL 2)
	Personal Citation	Function: To refers to earlier researches by citing the authors’ names of earlier studies. Example: <u>Ryalls et al. (1997)</u> reported that females produced longer positive VOTs for voiceless plosives and smaller negative VOTs for voiced plosives. (AL 1)
	Impersonal Citation	Function: To refers to earlier researches by citing the community-validated studies. Example: <u>Studies</u> suggest that perfectionism may be important in social anxiety disorder. (Psy 4)
	Self-mention	Function: To clearly present the author(s) and mostly recognized through the use of ‘we’, even in the case where there is a single named author. Example: <u>We</u> perceive speech sounds categorically—that is to say, we are more likely to notice the differences between categories than within categories. (AL 5)
	This	Function: The GS is clearly recognized through the use of “this”. Example: <u>This</u> results in the INTRODUCTION and BODY sections of Opinions to be less than concise and focused statement of the relevant law, and therefore leads Italian writers to give their Opinions a feel of a legal Essay. (AL 7)
	Empty Theme	Function: To postpone research-related entities and events characterized by seemingly formulaic patterns Example: However, <u>it</u> appears that the IAP might be an even more promising instrument than the IAT. (Psy 1)

APPENDIX 2

List of Articles

Environmental Engineering

- Cengiz Acar, C., & Cigdem Sakıcı, C. (2008). Assessing landscape perception of urban rocky habitats. *Building and Environment*, 43, 1153-1170.
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THE USE OF APOLOGY STRATEGIES AND GENDER DIFFERENCES AMONG IRANIAN EFL POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS IN AN ESL CONTEXT

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ABSTRACT

Apology is defined as remedial exchange to produce social harmony after an offended action has been committed (Goffman, 1971). Apology is a type of speech act which has been the object of numerous studies (Demeter, 2006). The notion of apology may differ from one culture to another based on the social norms of the target culture. With this concern in mind, this study aims to identify apology strategies used by Iranian postgraduate students who are living in Malaysia. To this aim, 50 Iranian postgraduate students in one of the public universities in Malaysia (Universiti Putra Malaysia) were selected. In order to investigate the apology strategies, the questionnaire proposed by Sugimoto's (1997) was used. The questionnaire was designed to compare the apology strategies used by male and female students. In this study, duration of stay and gender are the two variations which are also taken into consideration. The design of this study is quantitative and the framework to analyze the data from all responses was categorized according to Sugimoto's model of apology speech acts model. The findings of this study revealed that male and female respondents differed in the use of strategies they used and also showed that the duration of stay would affect the use of apology that one can use in an apology situation. This study shows whether English learning experience in the EFL context of the participants' home country helps them to use English in an ESL context communicatively.

Keywords: apologies, apology strategies, EFL/ESL learners, gender, Iranian EFL students, speech acts.

INTRODUCTION

Communication is an essential act among people in social life as they can make friends, know each other and make a good relationship via communication. When a person communicates, he may acquire a good command of lexico-grammatical knowledge of the language. However, communication can sometimes lead to violation or offense among the speakers of the language; therefore, one may offend others or do something that requires an apology in order to keep the communication alive (Anam, 2010). Olshtain (1983) defined apology as a speech act used to restore relationships between a speaker (S) and a hearer (H) after S has offended H intentionally or unintentionally.

As Boxer (2002) believes, different norms and rules of interaction can give rise to the escalating rate of misunderstanding and miscommunication between people coming from different speech communities. That is why, the use of apology in social interactions within speech communities is so widespread so that Brooks (1999) calls our time the *Age of apology*.

The subject of gender differences appears to have engaged peoples' curiosity for as long as people have been writing down their thought since the creation of Adam and Eve. Therefore the assertion that men and women communicate in different ways, about different things, and for different reasons seems to go un-argued and is accepted as true (Merchant, 2012). In spite of the fact that speech acts themselves are universal, their conceptualization and verbalization vary across cultures and most of the studies on apologies in English showed that there is a one to one correspondence between apologies and culture (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969, 1975; Leech & Leech, 1983). In other words, it can be inferred that the use of language and how one can apologize, vary across cultures and languages (Chamani & Zareipur, 2010).

Several studies have been carried out on apology strategy on native and non-native speakers of English which consider different social norms (Demeter, 2006; Alfattah, 2010; Bataineh & Bataineh, 2006; Butler, 2001; Kim, 2011), but, little research has focused on the notion of gender differences in ESL context (Afghari, 2007; Yeganeh 2012; Parsa & Jariah, 2016). Moreover, the need is felt even more when it comes to the variable of the duration of stay in the target country.

This study aims to investigate apology strategies used by Iranian postgraduate students in one of the public universities in Malaysia. The rationale for choosing these participants was the convenience of the accessibility to the data as these participants can represent the language use of the speakers in the real world, and show how speakers use the language to apologize and express themselves. So, the other rational for this study is the EFL background of the participants who are staying in the ESL context. In order to reach the aims of this study, the following research questions are considered:

- 1) What are the types of apology strategies employed by Iranian postgraduate students?
- 2) How is the effect of gender on the type of apologies employed by the Iranian Postgraduate students in Malaysia?
- 3) Does duration of stay in Malaysia influence the type of apology strategies employed by Iranian post graduate students?

METHOD AND PROCEDURE

The quantitative research method is used in this research. This kind of method is normally used in social sciences research for collecting large number of data where a suitable sample would be used from such population. As descriptive statistics can easily explain the sample studied, it is used in this study. They are numbers that are used to sum up and describe the data. The information that has been collected from a survey, an experiment, historical record and etc. are also refers to the data.

The target population in this study is a group of males and females Iranian EFL post graduate students at Universiti Putra Malaysia who are studying in this country as international students. They learned English as EFL students in their own country. Therefore, the number of sample that was selected from the entire population contained 50 male and female students from different faculties, (25 males and 25 females). And considering the duration of stay of the students as an variable the students were divided in two groups, the first group was who stayed for 2 years and the second group was who stayed for more than 2 years in Malaysia. For the purpose of this study, convenience random sampling technique is used, as the convenience sample may help to gather data and information. Even it is one of the major types of non-probability sampling methods that were used for easy-reach sampling group. Hence, the participants' gender and their duration of stay in the host country were examined as variables.

A set of survey questionnaire was used as means of gathering data in this study. There were 50 questionnaires that each contained 10 different situations on speech act for the case of using apology strategy by the speaker/wrongdoer. This study adopts Sugimoto's (1997) questionnaire to compare the apology strategies used by male and female students. The questionnaire consists of three parts. The first part is the introduction for answering the questions, while the second part contains three topics i.e. demographic information. Lastly, the third part consists of ten item questions on different situations based on Sugimoto's model in which all participants were asked to put themselves in each situation and answer properly. All the participants are Persian. They are similar in relations of their cultural background and all are EFL learner of English language.

A quantitative analysis in this study was the analysis of strategies speakers used when apologizing. After identifying apology strategies used by the respondents, the writer classified them according to Sugimoto's (1997) strategies. Analysis of data conducted is in the way with the research questions. The data was gathered by Sugimoto's (1997) questionnaires having 10 apology situations. Sugimoto's strategies that was used in this study were divided into three groups, primary strategies, secondary strategies and seldom used strategies as shown in (Table 1).

Table 1. Sugimoto's (1997) model of apology strategy

Apology Strategies	
1.	<u>Primary strategies</u> are those frequently used by offenders when attempting to apologize. They include:
a.	Statement of remorse in which the wrongdoer acknowledges that s/he has done something wrong
b.	Accounts in which the wrongdoer tells of what has happened (keeping in mind that this is highly subjective, depending on the way one tells the story and the roles/he played in it)
c.	Description of damage in which the wrongdoer describes what changes have been inflicted on the object in discussion or the repercussions of a certain deed on others
d.	Reparation in which the wrongdoer tries to repair the damage s/he has inflicted on others by offering words that may cause the harm done to be forgotten
2.	<u>Secondary strategies include:</u>
a.	Compensation, which differs from reparation in that the wrongdoer offers to replace the damaged object or pay for it
b.	Promise not to repeat offense in which the wrongdoer does his/her utmost to assure the injured party that what has taken place will not occur in the future.
3.	<u>Seldom used strategies include:</u>
a.	Explicit assessment of responsibility in which the wrongdoer attempts to describe his/her role in and responsibility for what has happened
b.	Contextualization in which the wrongdoer describes the context of the injury and what has happened in order to make the injured party see the whole picture,
c.	Self-castigation in which the wrongdoer claims responsibility for what has happened and is being hard on him-/herself
d.	Gratitude in which the wrongdoer is thankful that the offended is willing to give him/her a chance to explain and be forgiven

FINDINGS

Among the total apology strategies used by participants, the results showed that primary strategy was most frequently used by the respondents across the samples. *Statement of remorse, accounts, reparation and compensation* was the four most strategies used by our participant. Therefore, this result shows a negligible difference between the one that Sugimoto declared about the most apologies used with the exception of description of damage that was not in list as a most apology used by Iranian participants. Considering the total number of each strategies used by the whole respondents neglecting the genders, in total, 54.1% (n=242) primary strategies was occurred by the respondents when facing in apology situations while other two strategies, secondary and seldom used strategies were used respectively 28.8% (n=129) and 16.4% (n=74).

Self-castigation and *explicit assessment of responsibility* were used as the most secondary strategies used by the respondents. This is refers to sense of high responsibility of Iranian community. And the rest of strategies were used as a seldom used one (table 2). That is because in Iranian culture apology is as an act of respect toward the hearer who was offended by offender person and almost Iranian used apology words when they are doing wrong action. The analysis is based on the report that is given by the respondents is closely approximate to what the informer would say in a similar position. The suitable answer for each situation is considered while unacceptable answers excluded from the analysis in which, the response is a short answer, and the respondent misunderstood the situation or were not fulfilled at all.

Table 2. Overall apology strategies used by Iranian postgraduate students

Apology strategies	Total number of primary strategy by respondents	Percentage
<u>Primary strategies</u>		
a. Statement of remorse	76	17%
b. Accounts	52	11.6%
c. Description of damage	34	7.6%
d. Reparation	80	17.9%
Sub-total	242	54.1%
<u>Secondary strategies</u>		
	Total number of secondary strategies respondents	
a. Compensation	113	25.3%
b. Promise not to repeat offense	16	3.5%
Sub-total	129	28.8%
<u>Seldom used strategies</u>		
	Total number of seldom used strategies by respondents	
a. Explicit assessment of responsibility	25	5.6%
b. Contextualization	13	2.8%
c. Self- castigation	30	6.7%
d. Gratitude	6	1.3%
Sub-total	74	16.4%

Concerning the second research question and the effect of gender on the type of apologies employed by the Iranian postgraduate students in Malaysia, male and female respondents employed different strategies, but female respondents used more primary strategies. The most primary strategies used by the female respondents were *compensation* (23.5%), *statement of remorse* (18.7%), *reparation* (17.3%) and *accounts*

(7.8%). On the other hand, primary strategies used by male respondents were *compensation* (27.3%), *reparation* (18.9%), *statement of remorse* (15.2%,) and *accounts* (9.2%). Female respondents were more inclined to the use of statement of remorse and accept that they have done something wrong more than male counterparts (18.7% and 15.2% respectively). This may be because female respondents were more sensitive than male and wanted to acknowledge that they have done something wrong than male counterparts based on the results found and observations. As it was obvious that female respondents was more eager to use the primary strategies. This is in one line with the claims that females were prepared from their childhood to apologize more for their faults not only to females but also to males (Holmes, 1995).

Examples of statement of remorse:

Female: forgive me I cannot follow you to go to the concert.

Female: I'm so sorry about your umbrella.

However, male respondents used more compensation in apology situations than female counterparts (27.3% and 23.5% respectively). Because in Iranian culture males are more eager to use compensation as they tend to be more power centered to do things for compensation. They care more about all the things which may happen and they have more responsibility than women. Therefore, it causes to do more compensation for the loss. Being aware of these facts is related to the authors' own cultural background as it is coming from the same EFL cultural background in this study. Hence, there was no considerable difference between Iranian postgraduate male and female respondents even though it was a negligible difference. Generally, it seems they were slightly in equal position. This is because in Iranian culture apology is as a respect and almost people tend to use apology words when they are doing a wrong action (table 3).

Table 3. Frequency and percentage of apology strategies used by male and female respondents

Apology Strategies	Number of apology used by male	Percentage	Number of apology used by female	Percentage
1.Primary strategies				
1a. Statement of remorse	33	15.2%	43	18.7%
1b. Accounts	20	9.2%	32	7.8%
1c.Description of damage	16	7.4%	18	7.8%
1d. Reparation	41	18.9%	39	17.3%
Sub-total	110	50.7%	132	51.6%
2.Secondary strategies				
2a. Compensation	59	27.3%	54	23.5%
2b. Promise not to repeat offense	7	3.2%	9	3.9%
Sub-total	66	30.5%	63	27.4%
3.Seldome used strategies				
3a. Explicit assessment of responsibility	14	6.4%	11	4.8%
3b. Contextualization	10	4.6%	3	1.3%
3c. Self-castigation	13	6%	17	7.4%
3d. Gratitude	3	1.3%	3	1.3%
Sub-total	40	18.3%	34	14.8%
Total	216	99.5	229	93.8

The other variable was considered to identify the effect of duration of stay in Malaysia on the use of apology by Iranian students who are living in this country. Researcher started by identifying the duration of stay of participants. This identification was through the questionnaire that was given to the participants and they were asked to state about their duration of stay in Malaysia.

As it was stated earlier, students were divided in two groups with considering the duration of stay of participants, the first group was consisted of those who stayed for 2 years and the second group was consisted of those who stayed for more than 2 years in Malaysia. Both groups shared a similar percentage regarding the primary strategies (Table 4). Similar to primary strategies, seldom used strategies were used by the two groups of participants with approximately equal rate of use. The only considerable difference was with the secondary strategies in which the second group with more than 2 years of stay used the strategies more than the first group (29.2% and 19.1%, respectively). This result shows that the duration of stay would affect the use of apology one can use in the target situation. It means that the students who had stayed for more than 2 years in Malaysia could apply apology more useful than those with only 2 years.

Table 4. Duration of stay in Malaysia by Iranian postgraduate students

Type of apologies	2 years		More than 2 years	
<u>Primary strategies</u>	Number	percentage	Number	percentage
a. Statement of remorse	39	19.7%	38	15.2%
b. Accounts	23	11.6%	27	10.8%
c. Description of damage	11	5.5%	26	10.4%
d. Reparation	38	19.2%	47	18.8%
Sub-total	111	56%	138	55.2%
<u>Secondary strategies</u>				
a. Compensation	45	15.1%	65	26%
b. Promise not to repeat offense	8	4%	8	3.2%
Sub-total	53	19.1%	73	29.2%
<u>Seldom used strategies</u>				
a. Explicit assessment of responsibility	10	5%	14	5.6%
b. Contextualization	5	2.5%	6	2.4%
c. Self-castigation	14	7.1%	17	6.8%
d. Gratitude	4	2%	2	08%
Sub-total	33	16.6%	39	15.6%

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The present study aimed to determine and describe the apology strategies used by Iranian postgraduate students in one of the public universities in Malaysia based on Sugimoto's (1997) ten item questionnaire. The results indicated that, in general, primary strategy was the most frequently used strategy by participants as shown above in Table 2.

This study observes that gender does not have considerable effect on the type of apology employed by Iranian male and female participants. Male and female employed primary strategies approximately with the same level of percentage (50.7% and 51.6%, respectively). Seldom used strategies were the least strategy used by both groups of participants as it is clear from the name. But the only considerable effect was found in secondary strategies in that, male respondents tend to use compensation more than female

counterparts in their apology situations because their sense of responsibility are more than the female respondents.

Considering the duration of stay in Malaysia by Iranian postgraduate students who were divided into two groups, 2 years and more than 2 years stay. This study found that both groups of respondents in primary strategies approximately were in the same level of percentage with 2 years stayed and more than 2 years stayed (56% and 55.2% respectively). So there are not any clear differences in the use of primary strategies with regards to duration of stay for participants in host country. Seldom used strategies as well, like primary strategies were used by both groups of participants again approximately with the same level of percentage (16.6% and 15.6% respectively). But the only considerable difference was with the secondary strategies in which the second group with more than 2 years stay used the apology strategies useful and more than the first group (29.2% and 19.1%, respectively). This result shows that the duration of stay would affect the use of apology that one can use in apology situation. Therefore this study shows that the students who stayed for more than 2 years in Malaysia have tendency of applying apology more and in better way than the students who stayed for 2 years only, so they can learn better how to compensate, when they are in apology situations (Table 4). Results from this study have generated the following implications:

Apologies is a part of language, therefore it can be the basis of some problems for speakers of English as a second/foreign languages. Thus, for learning English as an L2, the researcher is in this believe that the school program should focus more on language functions (apologizing and requests) besides focusing on vocabulary and structure.

As speech acts can be cultural in spirit, so for easy and successful communication, ESL/EFL learners must be familiar with the cultural and also linguistic issues. And also, for L2 learners it is essential to comprehend speech act realizations in different because almost social relationships in L1 may not apply to L2 and, therefore, may not be understood by the addressees. Even though lots of researches have been done by researchers, but like the other types of speech act, apology is needed for more investigation.

There is a fact in communication between people from different cultures that apply speech acts may make a certain problems for them, so, further research is needed to be done, like comparing and contrasting the apology strategies used by subjects on different age groups of the same culture and other cultures to find out the differences between the strategies used by various social groups and recognize misunderstandings caused among participants from different culture.

In a nutshell, there would be additional research that can be generated from this study but the fact is that, language is very multifaceted, not only semantically and structurally, but also functionally. So, language users are familiar with what language means and what they can do with language in real life. People need to be aware of the importance of pragmatics in communicative communication; because miscommunication can affect interpersonal relationship. Thus, this study was conducted because it provides significant insights into inter-language pragmatics. It is hoped that the insights from this study make many help to future research in applied linguistics in general and to English language learners and teachers in particular.

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APPENDIX

Adopted from Sugimoto's (1997) Model of Apology Strategy

The Questionnaire

Dear Respondent,

- I. The researchers are conducting a study entitled Apology Strategies of Iranian (EFL) post graduate Students in University Putra Malaysia. You are kindly requested to answer the items of this questionnaire carefully and accurately. Rest assured that the information obtained in the course of this study will be kept confidential and used only for the purposes of academic research.

Thank you.

II. General Information:

Sex: ☐ Male ☐ Female

Major: -----

Duration of stayed in Malaysia: -----

III. Please respond to these questions as realistically and honestly as possible.

1. You borrowed an umbrella from your best friend, and the wind broke it beyond repair. What do you say to him/ her?

2. You have made plans to go to a concert with your friends; you could not make it and you still owe them money for the ticket. What would you say to them?

3. You showed up an hour late for a group trip on spring break. What do you say to the students traveling with you?

4. You have borrowed a classmate's homework, submitted yours and failed to return his/ hers. What do you say to him/ her?

5. You did not show up for a meeting due to a friend's accident. What do you say to the students who were supposed to meet with you?

6. You borrowed a CD from your roommate and did not return it for 3 weeks. What do you say to him/ her?

7. You failed to meet a friend at the hotel due to miscommunication. What do you say to him/her?

8. You were playing with your friend's computer and erased the important paper s/he had been working on for the past two weeks. What do you say to him/ her?

9. You borrowed your brother's/ sister's Walkman and broke it. What do you say to him/ her?

10. You cancelled a club meeting and inconvenienced all the members of the club. What do you say to them?

NORMALIZING MASOCHISM: SUBVERSION AND REIFICATION OF HEGEMONY IN LARRY KRAMER'S *THE NORMAL HEART*

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ABSTRACT

In its broadest sense, hegemony is defined as a set of agreed ideologies practiced by prominent regimes and governments which influences people's minds. One of the practices which can be observed in most societies is the exclusion and rejection of homosexuals of their fundamental rights as humans. As such, the issue will be magnified in this paper through a satirical play written by Larry Kramer, entitled *The Normal Heart*. Parallel with the dominant hegemony, the homosexual characters in the play are mistreated and isolated within their own society. To retaliate, these characters consider themselves as victims and intend to counter the situation by masochism. However, the attempt seems to backfire and reify the preexisting hegemony. As such, this paper explores *The Normal Heart* in light of Antonio Gramsci's concept of hegemony as well as Erich Fromm's masochism. To further specify, the paper examines the homosexual characters – their victimization and their fight against the dominant ideologies and how it all leads to their estrangement within the society.

Keywords: hegemony, masochism, reification, subversion, *The Normal Heart*, victimization.

INTRODUCTION

Historically, the term "hegemony" is derived from the Greek hegemon, which signifies a leader or a ruler, over a group of people or nation. Now, it is used widely in most fields of studies, especially in literary and cultural studies to illustrate how power is used to establish and elevate the position of governing bodies. In other words, hegemony can be defined as leadership and ruling over one's economic, political, military, or social status within subtle consent and permission. In this regard, the term has recently been questioned and pondered upon of its meaning and its actual impact on the people. Questions such as identity politics and cultural politics are some of the issues which are discussed greatly in this current age. Aforementioned, hegemony implies dominion of one group over another (this can be viewed differently on many levels and aspects) on the ground that there is, to a certain level, an agreement or allowance of the other group to submit itself to the higher power, so to say. However, "hegemony" can also be viewed and interpreted in different light apart from the one defined above. For instance, it is commonly used as a synonym for "superpower", as in the global hegemony of the United States. The emphasis is often on the pervading power, or its "total social authority" (Hebdige, 1979, p.15-16). In other words, the American culture has found its way to all nooks and parts of the world, just to have the countercultures accepting and embracing it.

One of the more prominent examples identified worldwide is the power which the government imposes upon its subjects. Governments are seen as the norm of respective nations, reflecting the “normal” cultures which they have set within the society. With the established value system, it is easier for hegemony to pan out because subjects are then expected to comply the rules set without raising any questions. One of the social values, which is heavily attached with religion and has been strongly rooted and embedded is the marriage system. It is decreed that a marriage should and must constitute between a man and a woman but as time progresses, the traditional sanction is questioned and challenged when homosexuality comes into the picture. As is the case with our study, we are looking into the case of homosexual characters who are marginalized within their own society by their own government. As homosexuality is ignored by the society, Howson (2006) notes that “the treatment of women and gay people, should not be seen as an exigency of nature but as a product of human practice through history” (p.34). Homosexuality, or gay relationship is not considered as a legitimate one in the country, as the hegemonic practice of the culture is still of that between a man and a woman. Only heterosexual relationships are recognized in the eyes of the law of the country whereas those of same-sex do not have much right in the heteronormative system.

In *The Normal Heart*, we argue that the gay characters in the play amp up their masochistic desire as they are deprived of what was supposed to be a general constitutional rights for every citizens in the country – healthcare. To retaliate, they take on the role of victims to fight for their individual rights as they are marginalized by their own government. Mennel (1998) emphasizes, masochism is “a political reaction to the insistence on victimhood by minorities” through which they can gain power (p.2). Masochism helps in subverting the value systems which is root of all the problems they face in the society. However, there is also a negative side to the counterattack – victimhood, in return, reifies the ruling system. Because the measures to normalize their status as ordinary citizens are not drastic, they still play by the rules set by the government. As Sedehi and Rosli (2014) mentioned, the characters use language to shape their subjectivity (p.56), in which this case, they use language to declare their victimization and indirectly characterize themselves as masochists. Alas, the victims do not have the capacity to change and overturn the predominant values set.

The term masochism was coined by Sacher-Masoch (1870) who wrote about the masochistic fantasies for the first time. Later on, the term was used and further developed by many others after him. Masochism indicates the deviant behavior or psychological illness whereby one takes pleasure in suffering. Krafft-Ebing (1886) used the terms masochism and sadism in psychology and Freud (1905) improved those concepts through his own clinical observation and experimentations. However, this paper will specifically focus on the definition of masochism based on Fromm (1942). According to Fromm (1942), masochists feel insignificant and suffer from inferiority complex. They have the tendency to belittle themselves. These people submit themselves to rules and regulations and they never voice out their needs. In most cases, they hurt, criticize, and accuse themselves unnecessarily. Fromm (1942) mentioned that “there are others, such as certain compulsive neurotics, who tend to torture themselves with compulsory rites and thoughts” (p.123). Ultimately, they depend on the other party for the gratification from the pain or humiliation inflicted upon them.

METHODOLOGY AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The primary text selected for this current paper is *The Normal Heart* by Larry Kramer. It is essentially a play written and published in 1985 which deals directly with homosexual

experience post-Stonewall¹ age against the setting of the viral spread of HIV/AIDS (unknown virus still in the context of the play) in New York City. The “gay theatre” was performed as AIDS theatre “before the 1985 premiere of *The Normal Heart*” (Juntunen, 2007, p.133). Even though *The Normal Heart* centers on AIDS and the gay community, the disease itself was never mentioned in the text and the characters always use “virus, epidemics and the plague” for reference (Schultz, 1999, p.27-28). Readers should notice that *The Normal Heart* is, after all, a history play of the past five years: “a period in which thousands died” (Sorrells, 2000, p.72). The main concepts used for the purpose of this study are hegemony and masochism. By reading and analyzing this play through the lens of these two distinctive concepts, we intend to shed some light onto the correlation between hegemony and masochism, and how the latter proves to be a paradoxical solution in combating the norm. To further specify, we agreed on borrowing Gramsci's (1971) concept on hegemony following that of Fromm's (1942) notion of masochism.

The term ‘hegemony’ explains how the leaders of regimes or governments exercise their ideologies through various means to influence the minds of people. Gramsci (1971) notes that “spontaneous consent given by the great masses of the population to the general direction imposed on social life by the dominant fundamental group” (p.12). Moreover, Hoare and Smith (2005), in their explication of Gramsci's *Notebook*, agreed that hegemony is the manipulation of politics, religions, education, history, and cultures by the ruling elites. The methods are subtle and many are not conscious of the seeping ideology imposed. According to a doctoral dissertation by Tan (1971), he stated that “[h]egemony also means there must be a moral and intellectual leadership in order to enhance domination. In this context, moral can be inculcated through education and culture” (p.17). In *The Normal Heart*, the government is the representation of hegemony which imposes its cultural values unto the subjects and denies healthcare to those who are admittedly homosexual. As a result, these homosexual characters begin to show masochistic tendency in their effort to fight for their fundamental rights as citizens of the country as well. According to Fromm (1942), “[m]asochistic strivings are caused by the desire to get rid of the individual self with all its shortcomings, conflicts, risks, doubts, and unbearable aloneness, but they only succeed in removing the most noticeable pain or they even lead to greater suffering” (Fromm, 1942, p.132). Therefore, it is within our interest in this paper to argue that masochism has the potential to subvert hegemony, but at the same time reifies its position in society.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Instantly after the premiere of *The Normal Heart* at the Public Theater on 21 April 1985, it became one of the most significant political plays in America which prided itself as one of the propelling factors in support of equal homosexual rights. In all its havoc, the play showed that the theatre was still a reliable medium for political uproar and social change. Such was the study of Juntunen (2007), who argued, “[in]1985, Public Theatre production of Larry Kramer's *The Normal Heart*, the emergent ideology was explicitly argued in the script and incorporated into the mainstream media, helping these ideas become part of the dominant ideology” (p.3). To simplify, he argued that mainstream theater supports and encourages the acceptance of emerging ideologies in the context of late twentieth century. His study was supported by ample proofs of the liberation of homosexual movements and how they gained their rights through protest which was potentially ignited by mainstream theaters (Juntunen, 2007, p.8-9). In relation to the study conducted by Juntunen (2007) which proposed that theatres propagate dominant ideologies, there is also a study found on *The Normal Heart* by Stock (2009) who discussed the play in terms of sexual

citizenship. He brought in various definitions of citizenship and sexual identity and then propounded that, not only the play describes the diverse practices of citizenship but in itself is the enactment of citizenship (Stock, 2009, p.10). Essentially, his thesis highlights the negotiation of sexual citizenship of homosexual characters in a gendered society (p.5).

To add on to the list, there is also a comparative study found between Larry Kramer's *The Normal Heart* and Tony Kushner's *Angels in America*. While both are significant plays which deal with homosexual experience, Cohen (1998) performed his study under a more structural view – narrative disclosure. He explained that writing about love and politics required different approaches as both concern distinct values. He stated, “[w]hile a focus on love tends to privilege the individual and the couple, a focus on politics – and especially AIDS politics – generally privileges *collective* form of action” (Cohen, 1998, p.197). In other words, a love plot will be satisfied once there is a union of lovers and all matters of complication are resolved (Cohen, 1998, p.198). Thus, Cohen (1998) analyzed Kramer's works as a negotiation of love/politics binarism and traced how the plot in *The Normal Heart* underwent a transition from love plot to political struggle. Kramer (1985) wrote this play in order to portray gay men as normal humans as they too, are able to fall in love, suffer, and die, as all other humans go through these similar processes (Kistenberg, 1992, p.106-107). The only difference that marks the discrimination of homosexuals are of their natural sexual preference towards the same sex as compared to the traditional man-woman relationship.

To summarize, some of the concepts which have been used to analyze this play include propagating dominant ideologies through mainstream theatres, questioning and expanding the definition of sexual citizenship, as well as negotiating the love/politics binarism in drama. As such, we want to expand the scholarship of the play by viewing it under the concepts of hegemony and masochism. This study intends to shed some light onto the concepts aforementioned in terms of gender studies and sexual identities.

ANALYSIS

Masochism and Hegemony in *The Normal Heart*

As the play starts, the audience is informed of an anonymous disease that threatens the gays' health. The situation wreaks a pandemic panic amongst the homosexual community because the disease seems to be “attacking” people of their kind only. As such, they try bring the matter to light by voicing it out in any way they can. However, the situation falls on deaf ears as the government chooses not to engage in such a politically abhorrent “mess”. “The city doesn't exactly show a burning interest in gay health” (p.15). The government ignores the gay community as their sexuality is not considered to be normal or that within the defined sexual relationships. This is parallel with the heteronormative society where predominant hegemonic patriarchy has been set and practiced for a long time. This includes the binary system of sex/gender where male are supposed to act masculine whereas females presume the role of the counterpart. Same sex tendency, as shown clearly throughout the play, is an “act”, a “choice of lifestyle” which is not acknowledged by the government due to their deviant sexuality. Later on, one of the characters emphasizes that “who cares if a faggot dies?” (p.16). The kind of tone and diction show the oppressive ideology of the society which is imposed upon the gay characters. Within the same society of what we term as a human civilization, the gays are marginalized and ignored solely because of their sexual preference and the later consequence has serious gravity in their reaction.

The ideology of the ruling government is so powerfully perpetrated into people's minds that even medical officers do not care about these patients. "Doctors are extremely conservative; they try to stay out of anything that smells political, and this smells. Bad." (p.16). The doctors are merely following the values which have been set and paved for them by the government. As these gays are ostracized, they lose their sense of identity. Ned, the protagonist of the play, protests with much rage that within magazines and journals, the journalists "won't even use the word 'gay' unless it's in a direct quote. To them we're still homosexuals. That's like still calling blacks Negroes" (p.17). As their sexuality is not acknowledged or respected, their identity is masked and rejected indirectly. As a result, they want to take action to have the same rights that all heterosexuals have, which is access to medical help. Ned complains that "I hate how we play victim, when many of us, most of us, don't have to" (p.19). Based on Fromm (1942), the masochists have the tendency to "submit to outside forces" which in this play is the ideology of the society and their indifference toward the gay (p.123). Therefore, they have decided to take upon them the role of 'victims', so that they can plea for the sympathy of the government but little did they know that the plan proves to be a backfire. This is because the government will only be more powerful for the attempt is not considered as drastic or radical enough to challenge the status quo of the society as well as the concurring power which the government hold. For the gay people, they intend to make a mark with their identity on the social and sexual spectrum which can be accepted by all. Much to their dismay, their effort comes up short and futility sweeps over them like a surge of powerlessness and they feel that their life has no significant value for the government and the general people.

Amidst the bleak situation, there is one doctor, Emma, who shows genuine concern about the homosexuals and advised them not to have sex anymore. Believing that it could be the cause of the viral disease, she cautions them to submit themselves and accept the fact that they are left alone by the government and that they should help themselves from caving in to their carnal desire – sex. Sometimes the dominant hegemony leads to inaction. Gramsci (1971) believes that "often powerfully enough to produce a situation in which the contradictory state of consciousness does not permit of any action, any decision or any choice and produces condition of moral and political passivity" (p.326-327).

The protagonist, Ned Weeks, is the only character who is fighting radically for their [the homosexual community] cause. Rampaging into the newspapers quarters, he laments, "[n]o one here wants to write another article. I've talked to half a dozen reporters and editors and the guy who wrote the first piece" (p.22). He and his friends should survive by ignoring their own needs and desires of having sex vicariously because no one knows the real cause of this disease. As these gay men are masochists, they have the feeling of "inferiority, powerlessness, individual insignificance" which are mentioned by Fromm as the symptoms of being masochist (p.122). In fact, people strengthen the values of the government by not supporting these gay men. The ideology just serves the interests of dominant groups and it is in the expense of subordinate ones (Gramsci, 1971, p.323); and in this play, the homosexuals are the victims of the dominant ideology. However, Ned is against this plan as these gay men should ignore what they fought for before. Therefore, Ned suggests them to "raise money and fight" (p.26). They should fight for independent identity to be approved by the society. When the gays lose their friends one by one to the widespread unknown disease, they contact the mayor and government; however, no one acts upon their request for proper treatment. "Hiram here just said they're aware of the figures. And they're still not doing anything" (p.63). It is clear from this excerpt that the government consciously choose to neglect the plight of the

homosexual community in terms of medical healthcare. Despite the headlines on many tabloids concerning the unknown disease going viral, they choose not to lend out a hand and provide the necessary treatment which the gay men direly need.

Journalists and reporters can talk about different issues in their magazines and newspapers; however, homosexuality is a taboo topic. "I work all day for the city writing stuff on breastfeeding versus formula and how to stay calm if you have herpes and I work all night on our Newsletter and my health columns for the *Native* and I can't take it anymore. Now this..." (p.73). The gay characters are doing everything in their best ability to get their situation noticed by any kinds of platform but there is only so much they can do without the support and help of the fundamental organizations such as the media as well as the medical sector. According to Tay and Wan Yahya (2016), "[f]or hegemony to pan out, all members of society have respective social duties to uphold in order for the entire mechanism to function" (p.41). Drawing from the excerpt, the government represents the concept of hegemony sanctified and perpetuated within the society; ergo, refusing to provide the homosexual characters any medical assistance solely on the fact that this group is considered as a "disease" and a threat to the gendered norm. Worse, Ned has an older brother, Ben who is a lawyer and also one of the founders of an independent law agency who seems to be siding the government as well. Amidst a heated argument, Ned flares;

I'm beginning to think that you and your straight world are our enemy. I am furious with you, and with myself and with every God damn doctor whoever told me I'm sick and interfered with my loving a man. I'm trying to understand why nobody wants to hear we are dying, why nobody wants to help, why my own brother doesn't wanna help. Two million dollars for a house! We can't even get twenty-nine cents from the city. You still think I'm sick, and I simply cannot allow that any longer. I will not speak again until you accept me as your equal. Your healthy equal. Your brother! (p.47)

Truth of the matter is, Ben is stuck in an awkward position where he is conflicted of his role as a family member to a gay brother and a perfectly normal heterosexual man in the society. He also knows of the promiscuous lifestyle which the gays lead, thus his skepticism in taking his brother's case to light. Ben's refusal to help his gay brother could be seen as an act of complicity towards hegemony. Due to his reputable position in his own law firm, he cannot risk going against the norm by lending a helping hand to the gay community.

In the context of the novel, none of the characters knew that the spreading disease was in fact AIDS (as medical discovery proved later on) and the fact that the "unknown" disease was taking so many lives by storm, it had created a pandemic amongst the gay circle. As nobody has the knowledge about the disease, speculations flare and Dr. Emma is adamant that the cause derives from the promiscuous lifestyle of the homosexuals, sleeping around with multiple partners simultaneously. Furiously dejected, the gays take to such statement; "maybe if they'd let us get married to begin with none of this would have happened at all" (p.75). Blaming it all on the government, again they portray a sense of victimization which does not help them in their case and instead, reifies the predominant norm of homophobic hegemony. As illustrated over and over again throughout the lay, these gay characters do not seem to have any rights when it comes to proclaiming individual rights as per other (hetero) people in the society. Due to the accustomed tradition of marriage between a man and a woman, people of same sex tendency do not have that privilege to be unified in the eyes of the law. As iterated before,

their situation in getting medical assistance got so bad that even “doctors refused to examine him to put a cause of death on the death certificate, and without a death certificate the undertakers wouldn’t take him away, and neither would the police” (p.79-80). We can then see how the social and political strata of society works in favor of the hegemony – without the acknowledgement of the government, the medical sectors cannot (and would not) do anything about the gay patients; and without the consent and approval of medical sectors the other forces such as undertakers and law enforcements cannot proceed with further actions. In short, hegemony in this case is a series of domino’s effect on the lives the homosexuals – one bad incident after another. Pober (1996) notes that, in the play the reader observes how characters struggle with the unknown disease and they literally waste away (p.37). The gay men tried hard to contact the important people but none of them helped these gay men. Left to themselves, with neither doctors nor politicians to help them, they lose their friends, dignity, and identity, one by one. The value system of the government against homosexuality is so powerful that these gays have no chance of being treated as equally as with the heterosexuals. The story concludes with a death scene of Felix, Ned’s boyfriend where he professes a heartfelt eulogy;

Why didn’t I fight harder! Why didn’t I picket the White House, all by myself if nobody would come. Or go on a hunger strike. I forgot to tell him something, Felix, when they invited me to gay Week at Yale, they had a dance... In my old college dining hall, just across the campus from that tiny freshman room where I tried to kill myself because I thought I was the only gay man in the world... (p.95)

Filled with regret, remorse, and sorrow, Ned’s confession highlights the inadequacy of his attempts and those of his comrades in getting recognition for their social status and individual rights. Alas, it proves that victimization not only renders them powerless, but it reifies and reinforce the power of the hegemonic opposition.

CONCLUSION

In brief, hegemony refers to the government practice to exercise their ideologies within the society. In *The Normal Heart*, the government inadvertently goes against the gays, neglecting the strange plague which has taken many lives in the gay community by storm. The men are left bereft by almost all political organizations including those from media and medical sectors. As such, they are rendered desperate and powerless in overcoming their misfortune. With no choice but to take the battle into their own hands, they fight their way through the event the only way they know how – by causing a political and social uproar on any media which allows them such platform. Victimization, a role in which they involuntarily slip into, helps them in gaining the kind of attention from the public, shedding some light on their crisis which is enough to be noticed by the government body, specifically the mayor’s assistant. However, as our study has pointed out across the analysis of this paper, masochism proves to be a double-edged sword which helped and severed their cause all at the same time. Their masochistic tendency in acting out their role in victimization could only garner so much help and attention from the public. To a certain degree, the gay characters are almost complacent with their marginalized position in the society that they do not do more than raising public awareness through their masochistic inaction. In other words, in their attempt to subvert the norm of hegemony which represses the lives of homosexual communities, they somehow reify the established dominant practice. To reiterate, hegemony functions in a

way that requires implied agreement from general population. Hence, not only their effort in playing “victim” failed, but it did the exact opposite of what they set out to do – to gain a proper acknowledgement and acceptance from society.

Note

[1] Stonewall generally refers to the climactic historical event which took place at a tavern in Greenwich Village, NY, where the first radical and sexual revolution for homosexual liberation happened. This incident is considered by many to be the starting point for sexual freedom and equality.

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