# Morpho-syntactic competence of L2 speakers:
# The case of Malay L2 speakers of English

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# Abstract

This study compares the morpho-syntactic competence of two groups of Malay speakers of English. Its purpose is to investigate whether the English of Malay L2 speakers of English who had exposure to English-medium instruction is closer to the norms of the inner circle English variety (Kachru, 1986,1988) when compared to Malay L2 speakers of English who received Malay-medium instruction.

Prior to Malaysia's independence from Britain in 1957, the colonial government and missionaries set up primary and secondary schools using English as the medium of instruction. In 1970, in the process of developing a unified multiracial, multicultural and multilingual nation, Malaysia made Malay the official national language and Malay replaced English as the medium of instruction in all government and government-aided schools (except vernacular Chinese and Tamil schools). That meant that there was a generation of students, between 1957 and 1970, who were educated in English. Since the 1970s, there has been a popular assumption in Malaysia s that the English of Malaysian speakers has declined, particularly with respect to the use of inflection morphology. Despite this long-held assumption, no study has explored the morpho-syntactic differences for pre-1970 and post-1970 generations in Malaysia. A complicating factor is that there has since been considerable development in Malaysian English and it has emerged as one of the New World Englishes (Platt *et al*., 1984; Kachru, 1986). Malaysian English, according to Schneider (2003) was still in its nativization phase.

It is in this environment the present study is set. In particular it looks at speakers' production of aspects of English morpho-syntax including pronominal subjects, past-tense inflection, copula verbs, auxiliary verbs, subject-verb agreement in main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs, articles and plural marking. It also investigates whether certain extralinguistic factors can be found to have influenced speakers' English. These included sex, level of education (secondary or tertiary), formal

exposure to English (total hours of English instruction) current use of English at home/office and online; interaction in English with native speakers in English and with non-native speakers in English. Results from 23 participants for whom these factors as well as English-medium education showed that their English was closer to inner-circle English than the Malay-medium educated participants.

This work is especially dedicated to my late mother, Hajjah Hadiah Haji Ali, who inspired me and who I miss so much, and to my late father, Haji Sarbini Haji Amin, who I know would have been proud of me. Al-Fatihah.

To

**KAI**

**HOPE**

**QOYD**

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*In syaa Allah*

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# Chapter 1. Introduction

## 1.0 The Context: General Perception of English in Malaysia

The way English is written and spoken among English second language (L2) speakers in Malaysia has been a nationwide concern among Malaysians for more than three decades now.

A general assumption still held among Malaysians is that the people of the older generation on the whole have acquired the so-called inner core (e.g. British English) grammatical features and constructions of English while those in the younger generation have not (Wang, 1987; Ismail, 1988; Kaur Gill, 1993; Abdullah, 1994; Asmah, 1992, 1994; 2000; Nunan, 2003; Rajadurai, 2004; Chan and Tan, 2006; Bolton, 2008; Dumanig, David and Symaco, 2012; Phan, Kho and Chng, 2013).

This is based on the fact that Malaysians from the older generation underwent English-medium instruction during their primary and secondary schooling. It is these speakers who are perceived to be more proficient in British English compared to the younger generation of Malaysians who have, since 1970, received Malay medium instead of English medium education (Gobel, 2011; Dumanig, David and Symaco, 2012; Phan, Kho and Chng, 2013).

This perception is expressed by the general public including in the social media, the mainstream media, by employers' complaints and is supported by English examination results (Pillai, 2008). The perception is widespread that the standard of English among the younger generation is too low to enable Malaysians to compete globally (Gobel, 2011; Dumanig, David and Symaco, 2012; Phan, Kho and Chng, 2013).

It is helpful to look at Malaysia's language policy in the context of its colonial and post-colonial history. During the colonial period from 1824 to 1957, British English was the official language. Bhatt (2010) noted that the 'high level of English proficiency' among Malaysians is said to be one

of the best British legacies. This seems to assume that in the British colonial and early post-colonial period (until 1970), Malaysians spoke English well. The reason was attributed to the then education system whereby at the secondary level many chose to have English medium education in English secondary schools.

Since independence Malay has been the official language and English has had the status of a second official language. *Bahasa Melayu, literally 'language Malay'* specifically refers to the language of the Malays. The Federation of Malaya gained its independence in 1957 and the Constitution of Malaya stated that 'the Malay language shall be the national language' whereupon English was concurrently accorded an official status for a period of ten years, which it still remains (Hon-Chan, 2017, p. 16; Roff, 1967, p.316; Thirusanku and Md Yunus, 2014). Although the choice of Malay as a national language seems to have been scarcely diputed, the Chinese and Indian communities feared the domination by the Malay language as the only national and official language. While it was agreed that a common language was needed to build a nation, the Chinese and the Indian communities wanted to preserve their own languages and cultures (Roff, 1967, p.316). To a large number of Malays, a great majority of these communities were 'culturally alien' and Malay leaders emphasized the need for them to assimilate into a Malayan culture of which the Malay language is central (Hon-Chan, 2017).

By the Malaysian constitution (article 160) a Malay is defined as 'a person who professes the Muslim religion, habitually speaks Malay, and conforms to Malay customs ' (Hon-Chan, 2017, p.12; Prasad, 2014). Hence, assimilation into the Malayan culture entails, among others, speaking the Malay language.

Tunku Abdul Rahman, the first Malaysian Prime Minister after independence, instead used the term *Bahasa Malaysia* literally 'language Malaysia' to inculcate a Malaysian identity for the entire country. Between 1986 and 2007, *Bahasa Melayu* was used as the official term to

refer to the national language. However, the cabinet in April, 2007, decided to revert to the term introduced by Prime Minister Tunku Abdul Rahman *Bahasa Malaysia* which they felt could help to instil 'a sense of belonging for all citizens irrespective of race' (Prasad, 2014, p.13; David, Tien and Yee, 2009). The name change from *Bahasa Melayu* to *Bahasa Malaysia* was a seen as welcome move 'to show that the language [i.e. Malay] does not belong to just one race' (David *et al*., 2009, p.3). Furthermore, 'by using the term *Bahasa Malaysia*, a psychological barrier would be removed, not just for Malays but also other races' (ibid., 2009, p.3).

These terms are not interchangeable and have socio-political implications that are not the main focus of the present thesis. Therefore, a more neutral term, 'Malay', will usually be used to refer to the language spoken by the native speakers whose English is addressed in the present thesis.

Malaysia has changed in its national language policies and English was used as the medium of instruction in state primary and secondary schools from the time of achieving independence in 1957 up to 1970. The Malaysian Ministry of Education then implemented Malay-medium instruction in 1970. All school subjects (except English) were to be taught in Malay beginning from primary one in government English primary schools, (Ministry of Education, http://moe.gov.my/en/hala-tuju-pendidikan) These changes were made to resolve the unification and identity issues of an emerging multilingual nation.

Two decades later, in 1991, the then Prime Minister, Dr Mahathir Mohamad, mooted The National Vision 2020 philosophy.  Its aim was for Malaysia to become a developed and industrialized nation by the year 2020. To achieve this goal, Malaysians must have a sound knowledge of all fields including economics, science and technology. New knowledge in these fields is more and quickly accessible if Malaysians master English, partly because printed and digital materials for these fields of knowledge are largely published in English and partly because English had become a

very widespread and powerful language that also operated as an information pathway in technology, economics, etc. (Ridge, 2010).

Despite being only a second official language, English was highly regarded as a prestigious and functional language to be used well in Malaysia (Gill, 2003; Ridge, 2010). Its importance is highlighted in Vision 2020, which aspired to produce skilled workers, proficient English speakers and the 'right mix of human capital' (Malakolunthu and Rengasamy, 2012, p.64). Given the high priority of Vision 2020, one would expect making English the medium of instruction rather than Malay would speed up the process towards achieving Malaysia's goals, but the matter was not that straightforward. Ridge (2010) underscored the need for high-level English language skills to support access to science and technology, creating new pressure on Malay and its relative status in the educational system.

This led in 2003 to a language-in-education policy, which has seen the introduction of the teaching of science and mathematics in primary and secondary classes in English and the use of English as an instruction medium for science and technical courses in higher education institutions.

Irrespective of these efforts, a major challenge to the nation's aspirations is the standard of proficiency in English, which is commonly perceived to be poor among young Malaysians and is seen as a hindrance to the country's advancement to a developed status.

Many discourses on the English of second language speakers in Malaysia revolve around the perceived changes or differences in the standard of English. Gill (2003) acknowledged that currently there is a generation of Malaysians below 50 years old who have had Malay as the medium of instruction in their school years and who are 'generally more competent and comfortable in Malay than in English'. There is also a minority of Malaysians who are 50 years and above that make up an older generation who have been English educated. As for this older generation, English is practically their first language and their children would have been brought

up using the language, either as a first language or an important second language (Gill, 2003). Then there is also a Chinese educated generation who speak mainly Mandarin and are not so conversant in Malay and English (Gill, 2003).

The English of this group of older Malaysian English speakers is part of the focus of this study. A pertinent question is whether there is any substance in the claim that Malaysians from the older generation use English more proficiently. That is, are they better able to use British English grammatical features and constructions compared to their younger counterparts?

The extracts below (see 1.1 and 1.2) are some of the examples of utterances collected for this study. The extracts contain a number of features that are deviant from the inner circle (Kachru, 1988) norms. The inner circle norms, British and American Englishes, are still adhered to as the standard varieties in post-colonial countries (Nair-Venugopal, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 2010b; Schneider, 2014; Hashim and Leitner, 2014, 2011). In South East Asia, apart from the Philippines, British English is typically the norm that educational authorities use as a reference (Schneider, 2014; Kirkpatrick, 2010b). According to Schneider (2003, p.262) Malaysia's 'norm orientation is exonormative' [although it is] no longer exclusively so in light of the efforts taken by local linguists to address 'the issue of accepting certain elements of Malaysian English usage as correct in the educational system' (Halimah and Ng, 2000). Schneider's (2003, p.263) Dynamic Model of New Englishes includes five chronological evolutionary stages: 'foundation', 'exonormative stabilization', 'nativization', 'endonormative stabilization' and 'differentiation'. Exonormative stabilization, in particular, is when the English language gets established through a period of colonial stability. At this stage, the norms are exonormative, that is, the standards or models of English are based on the countries they came from originally, that is, outside of the country in question. In most cases, these models are British or American

Standard English. An endonormative norm, on the other hand, refers to the model or pattern of English as used by local speakers.

Gill (1999) has also promoted the development of endonormative standards. However, Schneider (2003, p.273) added, 'of linguists striving for descriptiveness, norms are still required as guidelines in certain spheres of society — language teaching and formal public discourse, to name two of the irrespective most important ones'. The difficulty is on deciding on which linguistic norm to accept partly because 'issues of linguistic correctness often function to camouflage power relations' Schneider (2003, p.273).

In this study, British English is used as a normative reference to analyze the spoken linguistic data because of the necessity to have a 'guideline' and because this inner circle variety is the one that Malaysia typically adopts to as a consequence of its historical link to Britain (see above). The other reason for using British English and not Malaysian English as one may suggest, is that Malaysian English does not have a written grammar yet. Morais (2000, p.104) affirmed that 'there is as yet no grammar of Malaysian English and this will need to be written before this variety can be accepted by the local and international community of users of English'.

Below are excerpts from the speech data of two of my participants which exemplify Malaysian English.

> (1.1)   This first wave *lah[1]*, maybe one of the wave *lah*. And then there is two, there is couple right[?] Most of the people is the tourist people right? After the disaster happen…the people are escaping… (Data from RA)[2]

In the first set of data, extracted from a participant who was Malay-medium educated of a younger generation, the deviant features are:

Lack of plural inflectional morpheme / Plural marking: one of the **wave**

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[1] *Lah* is a particle, among many others, very often used in Malaysian English, but this is not discussed in this study.

[2] Initials are used to name the participants in this study. Data in (1.1) are utterances from RA one of the participants in Malay- medium group.

Lack of subject and verb agreement:

(1.2) there **is** two

most of the people **is**

Lack of past-tense inflectional morpheme: after the disaster **happen**

In the second set of data shown below, the utterances are from an older English-medium educated speaker.

(1.3) So was thinking …probably uh they were angry with, angry with America.

That how effects her. (Data from BJ)

The following linguistic features are deviant from the inner circle norms.

Omission of pronominal subject:

(1.4) So _ was thinking

how _ effects[3] her

Omission of copula verb:

(1.5) that _ how

What these two data extracts reveal is not only the linguistic features that are deviant from the inner circle norms, but also the deviant features produced by both Malay-medium and English-medium educated participants.

In fact, the linguistic features exemplified above are also characteristic of the Malaysian English variety (Baskaran, 1987; Newbrook, 1997; Preshous 2001; Schneider, 2003; Hashim *et al.*, 2011). We now briefly consider Malaysian English before moving on to the research questions which guide the present study.

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[3] Lexical items – nouns, verbs, prepositions and adjectives (e.g. here effects) - are also not within the scope of the present study.

Malaysian English has developed considerably in the years spanning English medium and Malay-medium instructions in the education system. Malaysian English is one of the New Englishes (Platt *et al.,* 1984; Kachru, 1986) that has emerged from the past colonial context. It is one of the varieties of English in Southeast Asia that Kachru (1986, 1992) categorized in the Outer Circle. Research on English in this region has grown over the past few decades because of its rich and diverse linguistic environment with English playing a dynamic role in intranational and international communications. Malaysian English has developed from the time English was transplanted in the late eighteenth century to what is believed to be its current nativized form (see Schneider, 2003 for a fuller documentation of this development).

Nativization refers to the processes that create a localized linguistic identity of a variety (Kachru, 1986). In Schneider's (2003) Dynamic model (see 3.4.3), nativization is the most important and vibrant phase when cultural and linguistic changes take place between the settlers and the indigenous peoples. Traditional cultural identities and sociopolitical realities transform into new ones and these processes have linguistic impacts. The status of Malaysian English in Schneider's view is in line with those of Nair-Venugopal (2000) and Morais (2001), who recognized Malaysian English as a nativized variety. Rajadurai (2007, p.415) has also remarked that English has adapted to its local surroundings in Malaysia among the repertoire of languages existing in the community that '[has] evolved to meet new cultural and communicative needs, acquired a large range of functions, [taken] on a local flavour and [become] nativi[z]ed'.

In Malaysia, approximately 32% of Malaysians use English in daily communication in the country (Bolton, 2008). Phoon *et al.* (2013, p.21) asserted that most Malaysians now recognize Malaysian English as a New English, 'a non-Anglo variety (Schneider, 2003) which is a first language for many of its speakers […] the Malaysian variety here represents speakers who use English either as an L1 or who have acquired it from a young age and use it side-by-side with other languages, e.g. Malay,

Mandarin or Tamil'. Through contact with indigenous languages, Malaysian English has evolved and developed its own characteristics (see 3.7 on Malaysian English), which have become identity markers for Malaysian speakers of English (Rajadurai, 2004; Phoon *et al.*, 2009; Schneider, 2014).

The contention in Malaysia (as in Singapore), however, has been and still is whether English is spoken 'properly' or 'correctly' which purportedly contributes to the 'decline' of English among Malaysian speakers. Muniandy *et al.* (2010, p.145) expressed this sentiment quite clearly:

> … there has been a strong decline in the levels of English proficiency in the country. This is evident in Malaysians' everyday speech, which are often marred by grammatical and phonological errors or at times too loaded with "suffixes" (e.g. *lah, lor, meh*) and loan words from other languages.

Muniandy *et al.*'s (2010) statement implies that inner circle English, British English in particular, which was the official language of Malaysia until circa 1970, was the variety that the older generations or rather the overseas-educated speakers and those with high proficiency or near native attainment in Malaysia used (Wang, 1987; Newbrook, 1997; Asmah, 2000; Schneider, 2003) and aspired to (Newbrook, 1997; Schneider, 2003; Kirkpatrick, 2010b; Bolton, 2012).
However, he further noted that the situation has now changed when he stated that 'in fact, Malaysians have come to realize that it is no longer necessary, nor desirable to aim at an English (typically in Malaysia, it is British or American English) native speaker's speech to achieve their communicative function'.

Schneider (2014, p.253) too observed the changing situation. According to Schneider, although the preferred model promoted by government and education authorities remains the inner circle variety, or varieties, the exonormative norm orientations are becoming 'increasingly blurred, in various ways and for different reasons'. Furthermore, scholars have

observed that in practice, the English that Malaysians speak is a localized variety, which is characterized by local features in its grammar, lexis and phonology (Newbrook, 1997; Rajadurai, 2004; Schneider, 2003, 2014; Pillai, 2008; Pillai *et al.,* 2010; Hashim and Leitner, 2011). Schneider (2014) also noted the growth of mixed varieties in Asian Englishes such as Manglish (also known as 'Rojak' which is a Malay word meaning fruit salad, or a mixture) in Malaysia, Singlish in Singapore, Taglish in the Philippines, Hinglish in India, Brunglish in Brunei, and 'mix-mix' in Hong Kong, which is not sufficiently recognized and researched.

The usage of these mixed varieties is customarily discouraged by educational and political authorities. Singapore, for instance, has a long running campaign discouraging Singlish. In Malaysia, the fear of jeopardizing the standard of English spoken by its Malaysian speakers which may lead to the tainting of the country's image, and threatening the intelligibility of its speakers, has seen English being reinstated as a teaching medium for mathematics and science in 2003, but this has now ceased since 2012. Schneider, however, also found that young Malaysians he worked with (Schneider, 2003, 2014) reveal that code mixing in Manglish does not necessarily indicate lack of education as often implied. Young, urban and highly educated speakers regularly mix codes in the languages that they speak freely, a skill they view as a symbolic expression of their multicultural and multilingual backgrounds. In addition, Rajadurai (2004, p.57) had also asserted that: 'it is the more colloquial variety that is overtly Malaysian, and unlike standard English, it lends a unique and exclusive sense of identity to its users, providing not only a means of communication, but also a sense of community'.

Thus far, there has been an assumption that generally Malaysian speakers are not speaking English as is expected of them (Asmah, 2000; Darus and Subramaniam, 2009; Muniandy *et al*., 2010). Distinctive Malaysian usage of English or use of English that is different from the inner circle norm has been regarded as inappropriate or judged 'wrong' even by Malaysians themselves (Newbrook, 1997; Kirkpatrick, 2006; Pillai, 2008). Yet, in the

period between Malaysia's independence in 1957 and the present day, Malaysian English has developed into a nativized phase (Schneider, 2003). Scholars have reflected on the changes that have taken place – that the inner circle norms may no longer be necessary for communicating in English, that the use of a localized English variety among Malaysian speakers is now more evident, although the norm orientation remains exonormatively the inner circle varieties.

Therefore, there is a tenacious debate on the quality of English that Malaysian speakers use, and on the changing situation concerning English in Malaysia. A major question that needs to be answered is whether there is any difference between the English of those educated when English was an official language and the medium of instruction, and the English of those educated when Malay became the medium of instruction. If there is a difference, what is the difference and what difference does it make? It is important to address this issue not only because of the necessity to provide empirical evidence for the long held perception of the decline in the English among younger Malaysians, but also because we need to gauge how widely Malaysian English is used. Although there is grave concern about the growing 'decline' in English, which is seen as detrimental to the image and development of the country, having a realistic sense of the covert value of Malaysian English will better inform authorities in their language development plans and aspirations. Unlike in Singapore where there was an overt campaign discouraging Singlish, Malaysian scholars, as mentioned above, have been pushing towards endonormative stabilization (Halimah and Ng, 2000), and like Schneider (2003), they have acknowledged that Malaysian English is in its nativization stage albeit with an exonormative norm (Nair-Venugopal, 2000; Morais, 2001).

Investigating differences in the oral production of grammatical features and constructions between these two groups of Malay adult speakers of English as a second language, can systematically address the concerns of those who perceive standards of English to have declined.

To explore differences between these two groups, oral production data were collected and differences in the production of grammatical features and constructions were analyzed.

In addition to finding differences, if any, between the two groups, given the perception that English-medium educated Malaysians are better able to produce inner-circle variety grammatical features and constructions in English, it is also worthwhile to look at additional possible influences on speakers' use of inner-circle vs. Malaysian English.

## 1.1  Research Aims

This thesis sets out to explore whether English as a medium of instruction as well as the amount and nature of exposure to English in school and beyond school have affected second language speakers' use in Malaysia. It aims to find out if speakers who went to English-medium schools (pre-1970) differ systematically in their English use compared to those who went through Malay medium education (post-1970).

Claims about differences in the use of English between two generations have yet to be substantiated empirically. In spite of much discussion on English proficiency, very little major work has been undertaken on the possible differences between the language of English-medium educated speakers and Malay-medium educated speakers. The impetus for the present study stems from the need to find out whether there are differences and if so, what they are.

Apart from simply exploring how English-medium educated speakers differ from Malay-educated speakers, this present study also aims to investigate whether the speakers, particularly the English-medium educated speakers, speak English that is close to the inner circle norm as is widely believed.

The present study also aims to discover if social factors such as level of education and sex have any influence on the English of the two groups. Factors such as English use at home, office, and online are also explored to find out if these differences relate to variations between and within the two sample groups. Searching for answers to these questions will provide an informed insight into the English linguistic competence as indicated by speakers' oral production among second language speakers of two generations, and more importantly into how prevalent Malaysian English seems to be among these speakers.

In addition to determining whether there is a difference in the English of the two generational groups, uncovering which aspects of English the two groups of second language speakers demonstrate different linguistic competence is invaluable to the purpose of the entire research. In fact, the results can also be expected to have wider-reaching relevance in corroborating with a different population of learners that those normally studied what previous SLA research has shown about aspects of a given language (in this case, English) that are least likely to be acquired by second language learners.

Research questions include: for English grammatical features and constructions studied, which group produces more or fewer deviant forms from the inner circle norm? There have been some small-scale studies on students' proficiency in English focusing on English grammatical features (Marlyna Maros *et al.*, 2005; Khazriyati Salehuddin *et al.*, 2006; Wong and Quek, 2007; Nor Hashimah Jalaluddin *et al.*, 2008 among others) which have found common English grammatical features that speakers produce which are deviations from the inner circle norms. Many of these studies collect written samples for data. This study, however, investigates spoken English between two groups of speakers – older people who received English medium education, and younger people who had Malay as their medium of education in school.

The grammatical or linguistic features/morphemes that this study chose to analyze were based on those that Malaysian speakers tend to produce as noted by scholars such as Baskaran (1987), Wang (1987), Newbrook (1997), Zuraidah (2000), Schneider (2003), Botley *et al.* (2004, 2005) and Darus and Subramaniam (2009).

Comparing English use between the two groups is essential to address linguistic competence as well as to provide empirical evidence for claims that there is a difference in English use or in acquisition of its grammatical features and constructions. Findings from this study on how the two groups perform in terms of grammatical features and constructions will also provide a better understanding of Malaysian speakers' English. Is Malaysian speakers' English closer to the inner circle norms or the new Malaysian variety?

Findings on the impact of social factors of the two groups of speakers on their English will provide information about potential variation across speakers. These findings will hopefully elucidate perceptions that people have about English in Malaysia and inform debates regarding the future of English in Malaysia.

### 1.1.1    Research questions

This study sets out to look for evidence for any differences in English by comparing Malay L2 English speakers who were exposed to English with those who were exposed to Malay as a medium of instruction. Its focus is on morpho-syntax, specifically on grammatical features and constructions that are considered common non-inner circle forms from the inner circle norms, as found in previous studies, for Malaysian second language learners of English.

The research questions in this study are:

1.     Is there is a difference in morpho-syntactic competence between those who, as primary, secondary and/or tertiary students, were educated in English or in Malay?

2.     Do the two groups of adult Malay speakers educated in English or Malay differ in their competence in these dependent linguistic variables selected for this study namely:

- Omission of pronominal subjects

- Lack of past-tense inflection

- Omission of copula verbs

- Omission of auxiliary verbs

- Lack of subject and verb agreement  in main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs

- Omission of articles

- Omission of plural marking

3. Are there factors other than the medium of education that have influenced adult Malay English speakers' morpho-syntactic competence?

a. Extralinguistic factors namely sex, level of education (secondary or tertiary), formal exposure to English (total hours of English instruction).

b. Current use of English (at home/office and online; interaction in English with native speakers where English is expected and with non-native speakers in English).

The thesis is organized as follows. Subsequent to this introduction, Chapter 2 gives some background literature on the Malaysian national language policy and education system. It briefly describes how the education system developed from the period before independence to its current status where English is now reduced to a single learning subject in

school, and from which a dual medium-of-instruction school system is created. This provides understanding of the context from which participants for this study are selected.

Chapter 3 is a chapter on English in Malaysia. The chapter presents a description of how the English language expanded in Malaysia and how as one of the New Englishes Malaysian English is modelled by various internal and external scholars In addition to a review on Malaysian English in Chapter 3, Chapter 4 provides a literature review of previous research on Malaysian English and previous research in the areas of second language acquisition. Reviewing existing studies will help to identify the gaps which this study aims to fill.

In chapter 5 an overview of the methodological procedures used to collect linguistic and extralinguistic data for the study is provided. The criteria and procedures for selection through stratified random sampling and how the linguistic data are coded are described. The thesis then proceeds to Chapter 6 that focuses on the findings, and Chapter 7, which includes a discussion of the implications of the findings, and addresses the initial research questions raised in this study, with a conclusion that ties together key issues and prospects for future research in this area.

# Chapter 2. Language Policy and the Education System in Malaysia

## 2.0 Introduction

This chapter provides insights into the complexity of society in Malaysia, which is made up of people of different ethnicities and languages. It aims to show how such a nation uses education and language policies in an attempt to build a non-divisive society.

## 2.1 The Linguistic Antecedents

Present linguistic debates, particularly concerning Malay and English, are largely due to the influence of these two languages in Malaysia. The consequences of the continuous 'tug-o-war' in terms of the importance of these two languages have led to constant changes in policy in Malaysia. In order to understand the current discourse on the status of English and Malay, it is important to take a historical view. This chapter will also try to explain the vibrancy and complexity of the multi-linguistic scene in Malaysia. This includes various factors that contribute to the social multilingualism in this nation. The multi-faceted 'linguistic scenery'[4] influences the nation's language situation in its volatility, especially in issues that are affected by the two main languages, Malay and English.

Looking at the historical development of language and the education system in Malaysia, the two seem to intertwine thus creating, at times, thorny and precarious issues. In order to understand the present day situation particularly how Malay and English complement each other as

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[4] The term 'linguistic scenery' is borrowed from Omar (1992) where instead of connoting a static picture of language distributed in a particular geographical area, the term interprets it as something that is beyond a landscape, i.e. 'a landscape that has life and character about it'.

agents of nationism and nationalism[5], it is thus important to look at the education system of the country from pre-independence up to the present day as well as the history and events that led to the formation of the national language policy.

## 2.2 Context

### 2.2.1 *Malaysia as a pluralistic society*

Malaysia is a heterogeneous country with an estimated population of 27.17 million in 2007 (Department of Statistics Malaysia). Its population is made up of people of different ethnicities, cultures and religions with differing mother tongues. The ethnic composition is 65% Bumiputera (literally translated as 'sons of the soil' to mean the indigenous peoples), 26.0% Chinese, 7.7% Indians and 1.2% others (National Census 2000, Department of Statistics Malaysia). At this juncture, it is useful to note that in Malaysia, the term 'race' may be used instead of ethnicity. Prasad (2014, p.126) noted that 'Malaysians commonly refer to their ethnic groups [as] 'races''. Hence, the translation of *bangsa Melayu is* 'Malay race', *bangsa Cina is* 'Chinese race', *bangsa India* 'Indian race', *bangsa Iban* 'Iban race') and *bangsa Kadazan-dusun* 'Kadazan-dusun race'. This term is used for what are considered main or majority ethnic groups whereas the term 'ethnicity' is used for the minority groups within them. Thus ethnic minorities include indigenous peoples of Peninsular Malaysia, Sabah and Sarawak. These indigenous peoples or *Orang Asal* are the 'sons of the soil' (*Bumiputera*) or the 'natives' (Prasad, 2014, p.128) – a category of citizens instituted since 1963, the other category is the non-*Bumiputera,* that is the Chinese and Indians. According to Masron,

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[5] The concepts of nationism and nationalism were posited by Fishman (1968). Nationism is concerned with nation building, especially the importance of efficiency and group cohesion. This was achieved through English. On the other hand, nationalism is defined as 'the process of transformation from fragmentary and tradition-bound ethnicity to unifying and ideologized nationality' (Fishman, 1968, p.41). The Malay language was chosen for this purpose.

Masami and Ismail (2013), the indigenous peoples are not a homogenous group as each has their own distinctive language and culture. There are estimated to be at least 95 sub-groups of *Orang Asal* in Malaysia. In Peninsular Malaysia, the indigenous peoples are also known as *Orang Asli* (original people) separated into three tribal groups which are the Semang (Negrito), Senoi and Proto Malay (Aboriginal Malay). From these main groups there are 19 ethnic groups such as *Temiar, Orang Kanaq* and *Batek*. In Sabah, ethnic groups include *Kedayan, Bisaya* and the *Iranun* people. The *Kelabit, Kenyah, Orang Ulu, Punan* and the *Penan* people are some of the ethnic groups of Sarawak.

Wade (2010, p.4) argued that the terms 'race' and 'ethnicity' do not have fixed referents which have to be seen 'in the context of a history of ideas, of Western institutionalised knowledge (whether social or natural science) and of practices'. They are not terms that 'refer in some neutral way to a transparent reality […]; instead they are terms embedded in academic, popular and political discourses that are themselves a constitutive part of academic, popular and political relationships and practices' (Wade, 2010, p.4). Wade provided a historical account of how the meanings of the terms 'race' and 'ethnicity' have changed over time. In short, it is suffice to say that racial meanings have varied tremendously over time and between different societies.

To draw the difference between the two terms, Wade (2010) stated that many biologists, geneticists and physical anthropologists have concluded that biologically races do not exist. In fact, according to Omi and Winant (1994, 2014) social scientists have rejected biologistic notions of race and regarded race as a social concept (see also Wade, 2010). There are no significant individual human variations that correlate with categories like skin colour. Wade (2010, p.12) emphasized that

> The idea of race is just that – an idea. The notion that races exist with definable physical characteristics and, even more so, that some races are superior to others is the result of particular historical processes which, many would argue, have their roots in the colonisation by European peoples of other areas of the world.

Race is primarily understood by the laymen as how people are categorized by skin colour and phenotype or observable characteristics that are shared to a certain degree by a given group; a concept which implies and symbolizes social conflicts and interests by referring to different types of human bodies.  But, as we can see this common understanding is not that simplistic and as stressed by Omi and Winant (1994, p.7) 'effort must be made to understand race as an unstable and "decentered" complex of social meanings constantly being transformed by political struggle'. Unlike race which is often understood to refer to phenotypical differences, ethnicity is a social construction that refers to cultural differences (Wade, 2010). It is centrally about identifications of difference and sameness based on a shared common culture, including elements like language, religion, art, music, literature, norms, customs, practices, and history. An ethnic group is said to exist not simply because of the common national or cultural origins of the group, but as a result of the development of the group's unique historical and social experiences, which become the basis for its ethnic identity.

Connected to the concepts of race and ethnicity is community. One may refer to the Malay community or the Kelabit community. Whereas we now understand that Malay and Kelabit are ethnic groups (although as previously mentioned, in Malaysia, Malays are referred to as a 'race' while the kelabit would typically be referred to as an ethnic group).

Chanan (2002, cited in Lee, Seung Jong, Y. Kim and R. Phillips, 2015, p.13)  defines community as 'a number of people who have some degree of common identity or concerns often related to a particular locality or conditions […] a community is not a thing. It is a number of people who

have repeated dealing with each other'.  In social sciences, several types of communities such as community as a place, community as relationships, and community as collective political power have been identified and concepts such as 'community development', 'community sense' and 'community well-being' have also developed (Chavis and Wandersman, 1990). In other words, a community is a population often related to one place where members are involved and dependent on each other in performimg a variety of tasks (see also Wood and Judikis, 2002).

In this present study, for reasons that have been explained above, 'ethnic' or 'ethnicity' is used when referring to the different communities in Malaysia.

With regard to the languages spoken, the main languages of Malaysians are Malay, Chinese and Tamil. The Iban language, which is the indigenous language of the Iban people which makes up the largest ethnic community in Sarawak, is also a main language. Likewise, the Kadazan-Dusun language is the main language in Sabah as the Kadazan-Dusun forms the largest ethnic community in Sabah.

Other ethnic languages are spoken in different regions of the country. Some examples are *Temiar* in Perak, Kelantan and Terengganu in Peninsular Malaysia, *Biatah* in First Division, Kuching District in Sarawak and *Bajau* in Tawau, Sabah. Altogether there are 140 living languages in Malaysia (Gordon, 2005). Malay is the official and national language as it has been the lingua franca of the South-East Asian region for many centuries. English used to be the official language during the British colonial period (1824–1957) and with the passing of the National Language Act in 1963; the switch was made for Malay to be the official and national language (Chan and Tan, 2006). Presently, English is officially the second language of the country, after Malay, and is primarily used for science and technology, information and communication technology (ICT), commerce and finance, law and international trade. Due to its global importance, the Malaysian government has stepped up its

efforts in promoting the learning and mastery of English. This aspiration is clearly reflected in the education system, which will be discussed in 2.4.

### 2.2.2 *Malaysia's multilingualism*

As mentioned above, Malaysia's pluralistic society has made the country multilingual. The heterogeneous languages in Sabah and Sarawak dynamically enhanced the number of languages spoken in Malaysia when these two states joined the peninsular states, forming Malaysia in 1963.

The Malay language is the pre-eminent member of the far reaching Austronesian language family which sprung from the East Asian civilization ten thousand years ago (Collins, 1996). It has been the lingua franca of not only Malaysia but the South East Asian region for centuries. The strategic location and the abundance of spices had drawn traders from all over the world to South East of Asia to trade. Consequently, the arrival of Arabs, Chinese and Indians with their languages added to the already multilingual region.

The English language spread rapidly to the region when the British established their empire there in the nineteenth century. During this period, Britain's trading interest in Malaya had been superseded by superior authority to protect the Malay states against their neighbouring countries, which eventually brought about control over the Malay states. Reciprocally, the Malay Sultans aligned themselves with the British Empire so as to get protection and benefit from their associations with the British in the belief of superior British civilisation (Andaya and Andaya, 2016). The British introduced secular education through the Malay vernacular schools, and the English schools eventually cultivated a new effect on the linguistic scenario which is felt to this day. The establishment of these schools marked the birth of the English speaking Malay elites. The British also carefully engineered the knowledge of English by providing full support to children of royal families and the rich, as well as

awarding very limited scholarships to promising commoners. This effort consequently created exclusiveness in English, making it a high variety (H-variety) language[6].

The rich also included wealthy Chinese and Indian communities. They realized that education in English promised a good job and a handsome salary apart from putting one on a higher social standing. Furthermore, the wealth of knowledge that was attached to English had made it an attractive language for people to learn.

The poor Malays, Chinese and Indians were deprived of attending these schools due to the high fees imposed by them. Instead, they attended separate vernacular schools, viz. Malay, Tamil and Chinese schools, where education was free for the former while a nominal fee was imposed on the latter. While the setting up of English schools in large towns and cities made them widely accessible, the majority of children in the rural areas did not have access to English education except for the brightest who were awarded scholarships to attend English schools in towns.

In brief, Malaysia was already home to many indigenous languages, and had contact with traders from Arabia, China and India particularly, and ultimately colonial Britain, which created a multi lingual nation. However, due to its exclusiveness in the early nineteenth-century colonial era, English did not function as a unifying language, but on the contrary it was perceived as divisive as it was only accessible to the elites, not the common people, especially those in the kampungs and rural areas.

The next section will explain the establishment of the national language policy, which eventually heightened the challenge faced by second language speakers of English in Malaysia.

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[6] This diplomatic and subtle methodological approach has not only managed to make English language subsist in the local scene but also promoted it to the pinnacle of the linguistic order in Malaysia today.

## 2.3 The National Language Policy

As a newly formed nation after independence in 1957, with a heterogeneous population, Malaysia needed to be politically stable and socially unified to develop. New nations require a national symbol that strengthens ties among the various ethnicities which can motivate common participation towards aspired goals. A national language can be a national symbol and can foster a sense of belonging and unity among the populace of a new nation (Fishman, 1968). Selecting a local language as a unifying national language appeals for a common code for easier communication and helps maintain a further sense of value and identity.

Language policies aim 'to influence the behaviour of others with respect to the acquisition, structure, or functional allocation of their language codes' (Cooper, 1989, p.45). In other words, language policies are intended to influence language use. Language policies involve certain processes, which start with selection, codification, elaboration, and securing acceptance of the language. In creating language policies profound consideration on various aspects is required; language policies have to be overt and transparent to the public.

The first national language policy was introduced in 1956, just before Malaya gained its independence from Britain. The Razak Committee, which was to investigate the then existing education system (see 2.4.2), proposed a new national language policy with the intention to make Malay the national language as well as the medium of instruction in all schools. It stated that:

A National System of Education acceptable to the people of the Federation as a whole which will satisfy their needs and promote their culture, social, economic and political development as a nation, having regards to the intention to make Malay the National Language of the country, whilst preserving and sustaining the growth of the language and culture of the communities living in the country. This is an essential move towards the ultimate objective of making Malay the medium instruction in all schools.

(The Razak Report, 1956)

The main objective of the committee was to develop an education system which is linguistically plural in form, national in content, Malay in symbolism and developmental in purpose (Rudner, 1977).

Until 1970, English was still the medium of instruction, as it was seen as instrumental and pragmatic in facilitating communication among the people of various ethnicities. English played a key role as the medium for teaching and learning in all primary and secondary government schools as well as primary and secondary government-aided missionary schools, and Quranic schools. However, English was not, or rather, has never been made the medium of instruction in Chinese and Tamil vernacular primary schools. Instead, it was learned as a subject in these schools. Hence, it can be said that English was made available and accessible to everyone at this point in time, that is, circa the beginning of the twentieth century. English was not elitist as compared to its more exclusive status in the mid-nineteenth century. Although the Malay language had already been made a national language in 1963 (Chan and Tan, 2006) and was fully instituted in 1967 (Ministry of Education; Dumanig, David and Symaco, 2012), the change from English to Malay was slow (Chan and Tan, 2006). The 13th May 1969 race riots (Goh, 1971) were a wakeup call for the government to finally realize that the language and the education system of the country had segregated the people instead of unifying them. Thus, to boost national unity Malay was declared as the national and official language of the nation reducing the importance of English. Starting from 1970, English-medium schools were gradually converted to Malay-medium

schools. By 1976, all English primary schools in the Malay Peninsula were fully converted to Malay-medium schools and by 1982 the secondary-tiered schools completed the conversion (Ministry of Education Malaysia; Solomon 1988). In East Malaysia, the implementation of the Education Act in Sarawak took place in 1977 and the conversion to English-medium schools was completed by 1985. This was also the case for the state of Sabah (Solomon, 1988). Nevertheless, all the government and government-aided Chinese and Tamil-medium schools continued to exist.

Language policies in Malaysia have been influenced by political and economic developments in the country and the entire world. As the country continues to develop and as the world continues to change, the use of the language also develops and changes. Language policies in Malaysia remain complex to this day due to the existence of many ethnic groups.

Malaysian founding leaders felt that a national language would help to create a national unity notwithstanding cultural and linguistic diversity, and for that reason, Malay was chosen as the national language. The choice had been successful to some extent. Many non-Malays were able to use the language relatively well due to the schooling system where Malay was used as the medium of instruction. However, the scenario was (and, to a certain extent still is) different in the Chinese and Indian vernacular schools with Mandarin and Tamil used as the medium of instruction respectively in primary schools. With Malay taught only as a subject in the formative years of the vernacular schools the impact on the use of Malay by these speakers was not as expected. Segregation of the schooling system at the formative years had also resulted in polarization among the three ethnic communities and this became evident particularly in schools, colleges, and universities.

In addition, there were economic disparities along racial lines and urban and rural settlements, and social animosity began to grow and had peaked, resulting in the race riots of 13th May 1969. These riots, between the

Malays and the Chinese, shocked the young nation into realizing the realities that existed *vis-a-vis* national unity and national integration (Ratnavadivel, 1999). In the aftermath of the riots in Kuala Lumpur, the Malaysian Government set out to redress what they regarded as the causes of Malay unease — their fear of being left behind in the rush to modernization (Fenton, 2003), and the economic disparities among the major races. Up to this point in 1969, the process of changing the national language from English to Malay was 'carried out with moderation' (Chan and Tan, 2006, p.308), but, the race riots had become a catalyst for the implementation of Malay as the national language. The riots 'played a major role in hastening the completion of the change in the language of instruction: the policy change was completed by 1977, 14 years after the Act was passed' (Chan and Tan, 2006, p.308).

After decades of legislation and implementation of Malay as the main medium of instruction in state schools, there was a drastic shift towards English as the instructional language. Nevertheless, the substitution from Malay as the medium of instruction to English was only for science and technology subjects in schools. Hence, on 6th May 2002, the then Prime Minister Dr. Mahathir Mohamad announced that the government was to re-introduce English-medium education based on the necessity to keep up with rapid scientific and technological advances and to remain competitive in a globalized world (Heng and Tan, 2006).

The announcement of the policy change received varying reactions from interested parties, including the three major ethnic communities and educational practitioners, and resulted in a public debate on the possible consequences (Heng and Tan, 2006). For the reason that English was limited to the teaching of Mathematics and Science, consequently, the move was widely seen as a controversial watershed in language-in-education policy in Malaysia, for not so long before, Malay had replaced English as the medium of instruction in government schools and universities (Gills, 2005; Collins, 2006). Subsequently, this policy of English for the teaching of Mathematics and Science (ETeMS) was short-

lived and it was swung back when on 8th July 2009, the Minister of Education, Tan Sri Muhyiddin Yassin, announced that the teaching of Mathematics and Science in English would revert to Malay as of 2012.

## 2.4 Education System

In the fifty-six years since independence, Malaysia has undergone tremendous changes and developments in education. The system of education has evolved from one which was perceived as divisive and fragmented to one which is perceived to be a cohesive and unifying national system.

The next sections provide further insights into the development of education from pre -independence era to post-independence. These insights aim to show how the school systems in Malaysia had developed based on the needs of the three main communities with their respective languages as medium of instruction which eventually led to the differing vernacular school systems still in existence today.

### 2.4.1   *The period before colonization*

The only form of education in the pre-British-colonized era was *Sekolah Pondok* or cottage schools, a form of Muslim religious school which saw its heyday in the period between 1910 and 1945.  The Madrasah system of education, which was focused on both religious and secular education, later replaced the *Sekolah Pondok* system. Hitherto, there are still some privately run cottage schools, mainly in the states of Kelantan and Terengganu. The main purposes of these schools are the learning of Quran and Islamic teachings, and Malay and Arabic would be the languages used in these schools.

### 2.4.2 *The period under British rule*

The current system of education originated from the British system. At the very beginning, four types of schools were set up using four languages as medium of instruction. These were: English, Malay, Mandarin and Tamil-medium schools. The Malay vernacular schools were set up by the government and were free whereas the Chinese and Tamil vernacular schools were established by their respective communities. The latter two schools were non-government aided – instead the Chinese schools received financial aids from individuals, the London Missionary Society and the Manchu Government in China. The Tamil schools were set up by rubber planters or Christian missionary societies. English-medium schools were established by the British government, individuals and missionary societies aimed at providing a western education for the general population irrespective of their ethnicity (Baginda and Schier, 2003, p.15). However, it must be noted that although an English-medium education was available for the general population, only a fraction of the Malay, Chinese and Tamil communities enrolled their children in English-medium schools. These were typically educated, rich or noble families. For various reasons, which include economic, geographical and religious factors, many families were reluctant to send their children to English-medium schools. As a result, English schools became exclusive and accordingly they gained their elite status.

In 1816, the first English school, the Penang Free School, was established. The word 'free' meant that the school was open to all ethnic communities. Following this, many more English-medium schools were set up in Penang, Singapore and Kuala Lumpur by Christian missionaries. The schools were financially aided by the East India Company and the members of the Founder's church. The general curriculum of the English-medium school was aimed at producing officers to support British

administrative and commercial interests. Knowledge of English was seen to bring about economic security and a certain measure of prestige.

The Malay-medium schools, on the other hand, started with the Quranic or Madrasah schools. Arabic was not used as the medium but the schools' primary aim was to teach the reading of Quran and the Arabic script. However, the first formal Malay-medium schools were set up under the Penang Free Organisation, which were initially assisted by the East India Company. Later, they were controlled by the state and received financial assistance from the British government.

Chinese education, on the other hand, started in Singapore in 1819. Various Chinese dialects were used as media of instruction in these schools, based on the traditional village schools in China. In 1911, the schools adopted the pattern of modern Chinese schools and in the following year, Mandarin was adopted as the medium of instruction. The close-knit ties within the Chinese community made the financing of these schools possible. They were also aided by Christian missions. In return, English was taught in many of the large schools.

Tamil-medium schools started in 1834 as an attachment to the Singapore Free School. The schools were usually managed by estate managers, as a large proportion of the Indian community lived in rubber plantations, and were also assisted by Christian missionaries and Tamil bodies. The growing size of the Indian population as result of the increased demand for rubber had led to many more Tamil-medium schools in Province Wellesley and Melaka. English was not taught in these schools during school hours.

The Second World War triggered some awareness of the disparity and socio-economic gaps in the communities. The Japanese occupied Malaya for about three and a half years during which time Japanese came to be the most important subject in schools. After the war, there was a drastic change in the political and social scene in the country. The short period of Japanese occupation had cultivated the spirit of nationalism among the

citizens and the ideas of independence and self-government were highly felt by people of all races. This led to a consensus that independence could only be achieved through unity of all ethnic communities and thus, a common education system and language were of utmost importance.

Malay and English were noted to be the official languages of the Federal Legislative Council. It was also decided that either Malay or English was to be an important requirement for the status of a federal citizen. In 1949, there was a demand that the teaching of Malay in all government and government-aided schools should be made compulsory alongside English. Hence, two types of national primary schools were established, viz. Malay-medium primary schools with English as a compulsory subject throughout the whole school curriculum and English-medium primary schools with Malay as a compulsory subject from the beginning of the third year. English was also taught as a second language in private and government aided Chinese and Tamil-medium schools (Wang, 1987).

At this juncture, there was also a need for tertiary education and thus, in 1949, the University of Malaya was established in Singapore, which was then part of Malaya, with English as its medium of instruction.

Secondary education then was only made available in English Mission and Chinese Schools. In order to continue to secondary education, Malay- and Tamil-speaking children had to go to English-medium schools. For this, Malay children had to transfer to special Malay classes in English-medium schools at the end of their four years of primary education.

Suffice it to say, there was no uniformity in the provision of education in Malaya at the beginning. These schools had different curricula, methods and media of instruction to cater for the respective ethnic communities (Adris, 2001). The need of a cohesive education in this multi-ethnic system was realized as an after-effect of the Japanese occupation (1941–1945), as mentioned above.

On the basis of the need to unify the nation through language, the education system before independence was reviewed. The next section looks at the major education reports in relation to language policy.

### 2.4.2.1  Education reports in relation to national language policy

The first education report, the Cheeseman Plan (1945), was opposed by the *Majlis Perundangan Persekutuan,* or the Federal Legislative Council, as it proposed English to be made the medium of instruction in all schools. A subsequent report, the Holgate Report (1949), proposed the establishment of two types of schools, the Malay and English schools, and proposed that English be taught in all primary schools. This idea was objected to by the Chinese and Indians.

In 1950, the British appointed a Committee on Malay Education under the chairmanship of Mr. L. J. Barnes, Director of Social Training at the University of Oxford, to inquire into the adequacy or otherwise of the educational facilities available for Malays (Purcell, 1953). It did not concentrate just on Malay education but it was also concerned with nation building of Malaysia's, then Malaya's, plural society and made suggestions towards this end (Gaudart, 1987). Under the heading of Primary Education, the committee declared that primary schooling should be purposely used to build up a common Malayan nationality, and that it should be re-organized on an 'inter-ethnic' basis. The report proposed a single type of primary school common to all and eventually the abolishment of separate vernacular schools. The committee introduced the National School that provided a free six-year course for pupils between the ages of six plus and twelve plus and the school would produce pupils who were bilingual (i.e. effectively literate in Malay and English) by the end of the course.

In order to improve education for the Chinese, the Fenn-Wu committee (1951) was set up to deliberate in such matters with the Barnes Committee.

The Chinese feared that the elimination of Chinese schools and the relegating of the Chinese language to an inferior status would result in the extinction of Chinese culture in Malaya. The English- and Malay-language press had on the whole favoured the Barnes Report, the Chinese press unanimously supported the Fenn-Wu Report, while the Indian press remained neutral (Purcell, 1953).

The above arguments formed the basic principles of Malaysian education. Multi-cultural schools with a single national system of education are important to all Malaysians. These are schools that satisfy the need to promote various cultures, social, economic and political development as a nation. There has been a strong intention to make Malay and English the languages of instruction, but at the same time preserving the language and culture of other communities living in the country.

The multi-cultural and language challenges later became the basis for the Education Ordinance 1952 and at the onset of independence, in an effort to revamp the colonial system of education, the Razak Report (1956) became the basis of the Education Ordinance 1957 (Adris, 2001; Baginda and Schier, 2003). The Razak Report recommended that vernacular primary schools be permitted to continue, but to share a common syllabus with national schools.

At independence in 1957, all existing primary schools were converted to national and national-type schools. Malay-medium primary schools were renamed national schools with Malay as the medium of instruction whilst English, Chinese and Tamil schools became national-type schools with English and both vernacular languages as languages of instruction. Malay was also a compulsory subject in these national-type schools.

At the secondary education level, English and Chinese secondary schools were converted into national-type secondary schools. Chinese schools which accepted the government's full assistance became known as 'conforming' schools whereas those which rejected became 'independent' schools (Adris, 2001, p.10). In 1958, Malay- medium secondary classes

were started as an annex in English secondary schools and these eventually developed into national secondary schools.

A review of the education policy and its implementation was carried out in 1960. The review, known as the Rahman Talib Report, which aimed at bridging the socio-economic gap between the races[7] 'confirmed the soundness of the education policy as laid down by the Razak report and its general acceptance by the public' (Adris, 2001, p.8). The recommendations of the two reports formed were integral to the Education Act 1961. This Act was extended to Sabah and Sarawak in 1977 (Solomon, 1988), the two states having been incorporated into Malaysia in 1963.

To summarize, under the Razak Report, there were two types of primary schools, namely, the national schools (with Malay as the medium of instruction) and the national-type schools (with English, Tamil and Chinese as medium of instruction respectively). The Rahman Talib Report concluded that there would be Malay-medium secondary schools alongside English and other vernacular schools.

### 2.4.3   Post-independence

The Education Act 1961 enabled Malay as the national language to be made compulsory in primary and secondary schools and in all training institutions.

In 1970, all subjects taught at primary one level in English primary schools were taught in Malay. The rationale behind this was that the usage

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[7] In 1970, it was estimated that Bumiputras held only 2.4% of the economy, while the rest in Chinese and foreign hands (Ho, Andy "Reviving NEP, Umno's race card, again?" New Straits Times. Aug 6, 2005). The New Economic Policy (NEP) as stated in Article 153 of the Constitution has been implemented since 1971 as an attempt to resolve the economic disparities especially between Malays and Chinese, the government aimed to increase Malay participation in manufacturing from 16% (1970) to 48% (1990) and in commerce and construction from 28 to 50% (Malaysia, 1976). It also planned for Malays to own a 30% share in commerce and industry by the 1990s (Kassim, 1998; Ratnavadivel, 1999; Agadjanian and Liew, 2005).

of Malay language will help to develop the wide utilization of that language and also to elevate its status to that of a language of unity, knowledge and learning.

In Sarawak, the use of Malay in national-type primary schools only began in 1977 starting with primary one (Report of the Cabinet Committee; Gaudart, 1987; Solomon, 1988; Ting, 2001; Prasad, 2014).

Another review was undertaken in 1974, culminating in the Mahathir Report or the Cabinet Report in 1979, which recommended that the current system be maintained. This review also made several other recommendations which were implemented in the 1980s in order 'to bring about greater democratization in educational opportunities and reduce the balance between the urban and the rural areas' (Adris 2001, p.15). One major reform is in the school curricula – in 1983 the New Primary School Curriculum was introduced and by 1989 the integrated Secondary School Curriculum was implemented (Adris, 2001).

This Cabinet Report became the basis for the amended Education Act of 1995 and 1996, which repealed the Education Act of 1961. It retained the status of Malay as the main medium of instruction in all institutions in the National System with the exception of the national-type schools, which treats Malay as a compulsory subject. National type-Chinese and Tamil schools and private secondary schools were also preserved.

## 2.5 English in the Current Malaysian Education System

The present education system of Malaysia is a simple 6–3–2 structure, which provides eleven years of basic education to every child in the country (refer to Appendix 1). What is basic is six years of primary education, three years of lower secondary education and two years of upper secondary education (Lee, 1999).

In the national schools, the English language is a compulsory subject taught from primary one (age 7) to secondary 5 (age 17). However, in the national-type schools (Chinese and Tamil schools), English is compulsory but only taught from primary 3 (age 9). Independent pre-school education began long before the Ministry of Education initiated their pre-school programme in 1992, which has expanded ever since. English is also taught in the government's pre-school programme (ages 4 to 6). It is also a language of choice in many private kindergartens.

## 2.6 Summary

This chapter described the pluralistic society of Malaysia, multilingualism, the formation of the national language policy and the development of the Malaysian education system. It highlighted the aspiration of a newly independent nation to unify its people via its language-in-education policy. Many decisions were made in various education reports on education over the choice of medium of instruction in schools, which eventually resulted in the present education system. As Malay became the main medium of instruction in all national schools, and Chinese and Tamil remain the media of instruction in vernacular or national-type schools, English is only taught as a subject in schools. The scenario in this chapter provides the educational background of the participants in this study.

In the next chapter, Malaysian English will be explored in detail.

# Chapter 3. English in Malaysia

## 3.0 Introduction: The Status of English in Malaysia

The common public perception concerning the standard of English language in Malaysia is that speakers have a problem of non-acquisition of certain constructions and features of standard British English. In Malaysia, Standard British English (BrE) is generally assumed as the 'standard' that is used as a point of reference as well as a pedagogical model (Gill, 1994; Normazla and Mariatul, 2007 among others). As an ex-colony of Great Britain, Malaysia has inherited BrE (Hashim and Leitner, 2014, 2011; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Nair-Venugopal, 2000). As mentioned above, prior to independence, English had been the medium for education and administration. As a result, the populace had a native-like command of (often British) English (Crystal, 1997; Schneider, 2003). Kirkpatrick (2010) described how in the minds of Malaysians, British English remains the variety that is aspired to.

Perceived differences in the English of people educated in the two different media of instruction have been attributed to the switch of the official language from English to Malay. English was the language used for official purposes during the colonial administration and this continued from 1957 (independence) to 1967 (Dumanig, David and Symaco, 2012; Darus and Subramaniam, 2009). Many studies have discussed the relegation of English, following the Education Ordinance 1957, the Education Act 1961 and the National Language Act 1963/67 (Revised - 1971), in relation to Malay in Malaysia (see, inter alia, Wang, 1987; Ismail, 1988; Gill, 1993; Asmah, 2000; Nunan, 2003; Rajadurai, 2004; Chan and Tan, 2006; Muniandy *et al.*, 2010).

Asmah (2000, p.19) noted that after twelve years of learning English, Malaysian learners in general have not acquired all of the grammatical features and constructions of the English language. Considering the

expectation of educational authorities in Malaysia, it can be assumed from Asmah's statement that Malaysian learners have not acquired the inner circle norms. Likewise, Darus and Subramaniam (2009, p.486) wrote that 'the standard of English among Malaysian children is on the decline despite learning English for several years. Malaysian students are still weak in English, especially in their writing skills. They still seem to commit errors in all aspects of language'. These 'errors' were most likely evaluated with reference to the inner circle varieties.

Public examination results in English generally seem to support the scholars' claims. For example, Ler (2010, p.26), stated that English exam results 'hovers [sic] at a low level of around 60% candidates achieving passes since 2000'. In 2001, more than 40 percent of candidates (158,530 out of 392,692) failed their English subject in the *Penilaian Menengah Rendah* (PMR) or Lower Secondary Assessment (LSA), taken by form three students at the age of 15 (Ler, 2010).

In the Ministry of Education's (MOE) Examination Analysis Report on PMR (http://www.moe.gov.my), the percentage of passes for English subject increased by only 2.9 per cent. The percentage of candidates with Grade A only rose by 0.8% between the two years. The Ministry reported that the percentage of candidates obtaining the minimum threshold (Grade D) is still high at 21.3 per cent (see Table 3.1).

**Table 3.1: Analysis of PMR candidates' performance in English for 2010 and 2011**

| Subject | Year | Percentage of Candidates (%) | | | | | | Total number of candidates |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | A | B | C | D | ABCD | E | |
| English | 2010 | 17.6 | 18.6 | 18.1 | 21.5 | 75.8 | 24.2 | 438 898 |
| | 2011 | 18.4 | 18.7 | 17.8 | 23.8 | 78.7 | 21.3 | 440 462 |
| | Difference | 0.8 | 0.1 | -0.3 | 2.3 | 2.9 | -2.9 | 1564 |

In the *Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia* (SPM) or Malaysian Certificate of Education (MCE) examination, taken by students at form five secondary

level at 17 years old, which is equivalent to the British Ordinary Level or General Certificate of Education (GCE) examination, the percentage of candidates obtaining distinction (Grade A) in the English subject between 2009 and 2010 showed a reduction of 10.4 per cent, from 14.1 per cent (MOE reported in The Malay Mail, 2010, March 11) to 3.7 (MOE reported in The Star.com.my, 2011, May 8).

At the tertiary education level, Sarjudin *et al.* (2008) described the feeling of uneasiness concerning English among Malaysian university graduates. Chan and Tan (2006, p.312) reported that 'English spoken in the Malaysian university campuses today was very much below the expected standard, irrespective of whether the student was Malay, Chinese or Indian'.
English among university graduates has also raised concerns especially among employers. Ler also (2010, p.27) wrote how

> new graduates face a serious problem in English… are
> not conversant with English that has become a key
> medium of business worldwide […] struggle to speak
> English in job interviews[…] almost everyone is aware
> of the rapidly declining standard of English in schools as
> well as the emergence of a substitute of English
> language, Manglish.

Manglish is the informal colloquial variety of Malaysian English in the continuum of English 'dialects' spoken in Malaysia (Kirkpatrick, 2012). Puteh (2010) observed that the problem with English use is more apparent among the graduates of public (government-sponsored) universities than those from private institutions which use English as the medium of instruction in twinning courses with foreign universities.
Dumanig, David and Symaco (2012, p.112) noted that unemployed graduates 'lack English language skills'. Another interesting finding is that graduates from private universities were in greater demand by private sector employers than graduates from public universities, giving English proficiency and communication skills as some of the main reasons for this (Lee, 2004; Gill, 2005, 2006; 2007; Zaaba *et al*., 2010). Educational

institutions in Asia, including in Malaysia, have developed and established English-medium programmes and partnerships with overseas institutions. Such programmes are generally presumed to be more authoritative and more advantageous in the global labour market (Phan *et al*., 2013; Singh and Han, 2008 in Phan *et al*., 2013).

Language-in-education policies for higher institutions of education in Malaysia have been altered in past decades. This is partly due to economic reasons when Malaysia was hit severely during world economic crisis in late 1980s and later in 1997/1998. The increasing level of unemployment among graduates from the public universities led to the use of English for all science and technology courses starting from 1993. This step was also taken to help spur Malaysia's advancement in science and technology by 2020.

Furthermore, private universities have expanded after the 1997 economic crisis as a step to provide opportunities for those who could not afford overseas education. The 1996 Private Higher Education Institution Act was introduced to allow the use of English in dual programs with overseas institutions and offshore campus situations. As a consequence of the liberalization of polices for higher education, the public universities use Malay as the medium of instruction (except science and technology courses) and the private universities use English (Zaaba *et al.*, 2010).

Much recently in November 2015, the President of the Malaysian Medical Association (MMA) Malacca Chapter, Dr M. Nachiappan, citing a poor grasp of English, revealed that over one thousand medical graduates quit their ambitions to become doctors even though these graduates had completed their two-year housemanship in public hospitals. (http://www.themalaymailonline.com).

The government took measures by changing the language policy in education to ensure that Malaysians would be able to keep up with employment demands and be proficient in English. Gill (2006) claimed that if policy changes were not made, unemployment among graduates

from public universities would worsen. A programme called *Pengajaran dan Pembelajaran Sains dan Matematik Dalam Bahasa Inggeris* (PPSMI) or English for Teaching Mathematics and Science (ETeMS) (Phan *et al.*, 2013, p.64; Gill, 2006) had been introduced in 2003 as a measure to address the issue of English where mathematics and science subjects were taught in English in secondary schools.

English for Teaching Mathematics and Science, however, was short-lived (ending in 2012 and reverting to Malay), as it was claimed that it had not produced the expected outcome. Hashim (2009) found that students' English did not improve as desired and Faizah *et al.* (2011, p.39) in their study of fifty secondary students of English for Teaching Mathematics and Science concluded that 'more students (56.8%) felt it was difficult learning Mathematics and Science in English. Learners attributed the difficulty in learning Mathematics and Science in English to two reasons: their own lack of fluency in English and their teachers' limitations in English'.

It is apparent that there is a tension between English and Malay, as they are frequently exchanged as the medium of instruction in schools: from English in the colonial days to Malay at post-independence, reverting to English for Teaching Mathematics and Science, and recently, with the implementation of the Malaysian Education Blueprint for 2013 to 2025 English for these two subjects is replaced with Malay as the medium of instruction.

In consequence, public examination results for English have been generally affected; employment of graduates is also believed to have been influenced by their inability to use English. The emergence of a substitute of English language, Manglish (Ler, 2010) is perceived to add to the predicament of English in Malaysia. It is believed that the separate functions of the two languages where Malay functions as a nation building mechanism while English serves economic needs, have resulted in a natural cross-fertilisation between Malay, English and the other two

dominant languages Chinese (local Chinese dialects) and Tamil. This is observed by Vatikiotis (1991, p.30) who stated that '[...] Malaysians of every race perform linguistic acrobatics in almost every conversation they hold. It is a mixed lexicon bred of a pluralism where English is a common arena of interaction'.

In sum, complaints about the quality of English voiced by various sectors of society are on-going and lead to the plight of English in Malaysia being an on-going national interest.

This section has provided the context to this study by detailing contentious issues relating to English in Malaysia. The subsequent sections focus on World Englishes followed by Malaysian English, which have not been discussed in previous chapters. There will now be a literature review on how English has come to be widely used in Malaysia and gradually has evolved into a variety with its own distinctive features, coming to be recognized as Malaysian English.

## 3.1 World Englishes

The spread of English around the globe has contributed to the existence and the vitality of localized forms of English throughout the world. For example, in Asia there are Hong Kong English, Filipino English, Malaysian English and Singaporean English (Bhatt, 2001; Bolton, 2008; Hamid and Baldauf Jr., 2013).

The rapid spread of English across the world, especially in non-western societies, has been studied in the last four decades. Implications of its spread in terms of depth and range of penetration and its functions across different countries have been studied by various scholars in the fields of English language, linguistics, literature and applied linguistics; and there is now consensus that there are many Englishes and not just one (McArthur, 1998; Bhatt, 2001, Mesthrie and Bhatt, 2008). 'World Englishes' (WE) is a term long used, since the 1970s, by Kachru to

capture the depths, ranges and roles of Englishes. Kachru (2000, p.17) clarified that:

> WE captures several demographic and contextual characteristics of the current cross-cultural profile of the English language. The following come to mind: the functional range and the depth of penetration of the language in various levels of society; the resultant localized innovations and the creativity in the language; the multi-cultural and literary identities of the language and its multiple canonicity; and, indeed, the agony and ecstasy about the global presence of the language.

The concept of World Englishes according to Kachru (1994a, p.447) involves understanding the difference between language as a 'medium' and language as a 'message'. Language as a medium denotes the form of the language, that is, the phonology, morphology and syntax of the language, while the 'message' represents the functions in which the medium is used. 'Englishes' and not 'English' is used because of the various multiple motives — 'theoretically, functionally, pragmatically and methodologically' — underlying pluralization of the term.  The emphasis, according to him is on the 'WE-ness' associated with 'the medium and its multiple messages'. Kachru (1994a) emphasized that World Englishes stresses the 'pluricentricity of the language and its cross-cultural reincarnations'. Based on the pragmatic functions of English, the concept of WE 'naturally rejects' the dichotomy between 'native' and 'non-native' (Kachru, 2000; p.17; Bhatt, 2001).
Bhatt (2001, p.528) remarked that as a result of a 'conceptual-theoretical' shift, English is considered more as a 'pluricentric language representing diverse sociolinguistic histories, multicultural identities, multiple norms of use and acquisition, and distinct contexts of function' and less as a European language; the ratio of non-native speakers to native speakers is quoted at 4:1 (Crystal, 1995).

English is thus accorded a 'global language' for the recognition it receives in every country for the special role it plays functioning as the native

language of the majority of the country, an official language, serving as language of instruction in schools or achieving the status of a second or foreign language (Crystal, 1997; Nunan, 2003).

Bhatt (2001, p.529) reviewed the ways that English spread across the globe, describing this diaspora in two ways, the first diaspora is how English was 'transplanted by native speakers' to North America, Canada, Australia and New Zealand that adopted English as their nations' language 'though it was still not, as it is now, a global language, numerically or functionally'.

The first dispersion took place after the expansion of English toward Wales (in 1535), Scotland in 1603, and (parts of) Ireland (in 1707), when English-speaking populations moved to the four other British countries. The second diaspora marked the global spread of English when it was brought into contact with 'un-English' socio-cultural contexts, to Africa, Latin America and South East Asia.

In the second diaspora, the English language was introduced as an official language alongside other national languages in these countries, and contact with the diverse languages of each given country eventually resulted in the development and establishment of regional contact varieties of English. In addition, language contact between English and the various languages of the host countries have resulted in modification and variation in English and the native sociolinguistic profile of the language.

The second diaspora which has brought English in contact with diverse languages of different regions has led to the evolution of varieties of English such as Indian English, Nigerian English, Ghanaian English, Singaporean English, Filipino English and Malaysian English (Bhatt, 2001). The English language, a global language and lingua franca, widely used as an instrumental language in commerce, politics and media has developed into multiple varieties of English with differentiated sociolinguistic profiles (Kalantzis and Cope, 1999, p.2).

Schneider (2003) preferred to use the term 'New Englishes' (Platt *et al.*, 1984) as opposed to 'World Englishes' (Kachru, 1992, p.2; Kachru, 1985; Kachru and Smith, 1988) or 'Global Englishes' to describe the varieties of English that have emerged from colonial countries around the world. The term lends support to his argumentation for his Dynamic Model in describing the developmental phases all varieties go through from 'the early phases of colonial and postcolonial histories until the maturation and separation of these variants as newly recognized and self-contained varieties' (Schneider, 2003, pp. 234–235).

New Englishes include Asian Englishes of which Malaysian English is one, just like the Englishes of countries in Malaysia's proximity — Bruneian English, Filipino English and Singaporean English (Kirkpatrick and Sussex, 2012). For obvious reasons of geographical proximity, similar linguistic and demographic mix and historical links, Malaysian English is often compared with Singaporean English. In fact, early descriptions of Malaysian and Singaporean Englishes viewed them as a single entity (Tongue, 1974, p.3; Tongue, 1979; Platt and Weber, 1980 and Brown, 1988a, 1988b): this is possible as Singapore was also a part of British Malaya until the two states separated in 1965 (Schneider, 2002). Imm (2013) noted that it was only in the 1980s that the two varieties were treated separately by scholars in this field as non-native varieties (Baskaran, 1987, 1994). More recently, Singaporean English is described as a separate entity due to its evolution by Brown, Deterding and Low (2000), Wee (2004) and Deterding (2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2005, 2007). Malaysian English, too, has been studied for decades as a variety in its own right (Baskaran, 1994, 2004; Newbrook, 1997; Preshous, 2001; Schneider, 2003; Rajadurai, 2007; Hashim *et al.*, 2011; Imm, 2009, 2013 among others).

## 3.2 Malaysian English

To set the context for this section, the historical emergence of English in Malaysia is described. Then Malaysian English is introduced along with the different models that are used to categorize the many varieties of English that have emerged in post-colonial settings such as Malaysia.

### 3.2.1 *The historical emergence of English in Malaysia*

The relationship of English with Malaysia can be traced back to 1786, when the British East India Company set up a harbour and a British colony in Penang (Schneider, 2003; Stephen, 2013). In 1824, the British took over Melaka from the Dutch and thereafter united its three establishments, Penang, Melaka and Singapore into what is known as the Straits Settlements. Throughout the second half of the nineteenth century and the early twentieth century up to Malaysian independence in 1957, Britain expanded its influence politically and geographically (Schneider, 2003; Hashim *et al.*, 2011, cf. Schneider, 2002 for a comparison of English in Singapore and Imm, 2009 on English and Chinese contact in Malaysia, Imm, 2013).

The British influence also expanded linguistically during a period of colonial stability. During this period, as Schneider (2003) stated, there was an increasing demand for English, resulting in the set-up of English-medium schools by Christian missions and the British government. Their goal in educating the locals in English was 'strictly utilitarian to serve the interests of the British: to train a local elite for administrative and service functions, and essentially formal access to English was a privilege to those of higher status amongst the indigenous population' (Schneider 2003, p.50).

Asmah (1996, p.515) commented that 'English had an exclusionist-cum-divisive function'. Indeed, the establishment of elite boarding schools for the sons and daughters of Malay rulers and noble families represented this

ideology. By the end of the 1950s, when the British withdrew from the country, 'English had become the dominant language of the non-European elites, both as a language of power and prestige and as an inter-ethnic link language' (Lowenberg 1991, p.365). Notwithstanding, throughout this period of colonialization although 'only hesitantly so' (Schneider, 2003, p.50) English spread out of the confines of the elitist social domain into the vernacular domain through daily interactions among the ethnic groups.

The proceeding section will discuss the development of Malaysian English.

## 3.3. The Development of Malaysian English

The emergence of Malaysian English has been connected to the development of English-medium education during the British colonial period described above and to the spread and permeation of English into the domains and speech repertoires of the local communities (Platt and Weber 1980; Schneider, 2003; Imm, 2009). Contact between speakers of English and local languages spoken in Malaysia, mainly Malays, Chinese and Indians, have substantially influenced the English that was adopted from the British English source. Malay has its dialects such as Kedah Malay, Kelantan Malay, Johor Malay and Sarawak Malay. The Chinese dialects spoken in Malaysia include Mandarin, Hokkien, Hakka, Cantonese, Teochew, Hainanese, Kwangsai, Hokchiu, Henghua and Hockchia, while the Indian languages comprise Tamil, Telegu, Malayalee, Singhalese, Urdu and Bengali (Imm, 2009, p.451; Phoon and McLagan, 2009).

Interactions among these different ethnic communities with their differing educational and linguistic backgrounds have produced sub-varieties of Malaysian English characterized by variations in phonology, vocabulary, morphology and syntax. The socio-cultural make up of Malaysia also results in a complex kind of new English whose speakers are wide ranging. At one end of the spectrum, there is a small minority of Malaysians for

whom British English — and not Malaysian English — is their first language (Crystal, 1997). It is actually difficult to support this assertion, as studies tended to focus on the colloquial variety and not much on the formal variety of English in Malaysia (Newbrook, 1997; Pillai, 2008). In addition, Pillai (2008, p.43) pointed out that most of the early studies were 'generally impressionistic'. However, Newbrook (1997, p.231) did mention that 'there are indeed, small (but influential) groups of Malaysians for whom (British) English is a native language, often their only native language (this applies especially to Eurasians and members of minority Indian groups)'.

However, the proportion of these speakers is relatively low. Asmah estimates these speakers at about one per cent of the population (Schneider, 2003). According to Asmah, these speakers 'do not form a community that can be culturally or geographically defined' (Asmah, 2000, p.13), probably because, as mentioned above, this small community is made up of Eurasians, small groups of Indians and urban Chinese families (Newbrook, 1997; Schneider, 2003, p.54) and overseas-educated speakers with near native proficiency (Wang, 1987).

David (2000, p.65) also remarked that, in the urban areas of Malaysia, there is now 'a new generation of Malaysians for whom English has become the first language and by whom the original ancestral language has been discarded'. While there are many Malaysians who use Malaysian English in public or home domains, at the other end of the spectrum, there are also others who do not use it at all at home. Malays in the rural areas according to Abdullah (2005) have not achieved an elementary level of English.

Another observation is that the English used in Malaysia is now influenced by American English. Phoon and McLagan (2009) claimed that the English in Malaysia was 'very similar' to British English in the first half of the twentieth century but in the period after independence in 1957,

Malaysian English was impacted by the influx of American television programmes.

Similar observations were made with Singaporean English by Schneider (1999) when discussing Singapore's orientation towards an exonormative standard. He remarked at the time that the orientation might be changing from the traditional speech model which was British English to American English — 'as in many countries world-wide, for practical and economic reasons American English (AmE) has been encroaching rapidly on traditionally British territory, and I believe that, in terms of linguistic prestige, it has overtaken BrE (British English)' (Schneider, 1999, p.196). Kirkpatrick (2006, p.11) confirmed this development when he wrote, 'but there is no doubt that American values and culture have permeated most corners of the world, primarily through the reach of popular American culture'.

Schneider (2014) once more noted that Asian speakers of English are increasingly exposed to American English rather than British English. This is probably due to the sheer impact of the size and degree of contact these speakers have with this variety through the media, economy and politics.


**3.4 Approaches to Modelling World Englishes/New Englishes and Malaysian English**

The following section will first briefly outline existing models of or approaches to World Englishes/New Englishes and will then proceed to Malaysian English. A description of how World Englishes/New Englishes is understood by scholars will provide a better sense of where Malaysian English is in the bigger picture and how it may further develop in the future.

Scholars have made attempts to model the spread of English and to categorize the varieties of worldwide English. It can be said that there are

so far three main classifications describing the varieties of world Englishes by the way they are spread and diffused and in their functional roles in the respective countries.

### 3.4.1  ENL/ESL/EFL trinity approach

The first classification is the distinction between English as a native language (ENL), English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL).  Countries where English is the native language of all or the majority of the population such as Britain, the United States of America, Canada, Australia and New Zealand are ENL countries. ESL countries are where English, alongside primary indigenous languages, operate as a secondary language for official functions in the domains of politics, business, law, tertiary education, media, etc. in multilingual societies such as Malaysia, Singapore, India and Nigeria. In EFL countries, English does not have official functions but is 'still strongly rooted and widely used in some domains (like the press or tertiary education) because of its special international usefulness in such fields as business, the sciences, and technology' (Schneider, 2003, p.237). The status of English is not fixed and may change over time as can be seen in Malaysia where English moved away from an official language and was replaced by Bahasa Malaysia (Schneider, 2003; Halimah and Ng, 2000).

Newbrook (1997, p.231) in his description of Malaysian English, emphasized that English in Malaysia is '**not** a foreign language'. It is still very much a second language for the majority of its speakers. Malaysians often learn English from a very young age and 'it is eventually mastered to what are still frequently high levels of proficiency' (Newbrook, 1997, p.231). It is learned in school and used in the street and at work as a language for wider communication with foreign expatriates and other Malaysians who are of different ethnicities. Where Malay is or may not be the language of choice in certain situations, for instance, when one or more of the interlocutors are not proficient in it or when it may not be

socio-culturally appropriate to use it, English is preferred. English is still widely used in international contexts, in commerce and finance, in the legal system, in the higher education system and the mass media, although it may no longer need to be used for everyday purposes as much or as widely as it used to be before.

### 3.4.2  The Concentric Circle Model

According to Bhatt (2001) in the interest of the 'other tongue' that is the non-native speakers of English (Kachru, 1997; Bhatt, 2001a, b) the ENL/ESL/EFL classification has been replaced by a model that presents the diffusion of English in reference to its historical, sociolinguistic and literary contexts.

The second classification is Kachru's (1988, 1997) concentric circle model, which depicts this dispersion of English (see Figure 3.1).

The Expanding Circle, e.g.

| Bhutan | Brunei | China | Caribbean countries |
| Egypt | Fiji | Hong Kong | Indonesia |
| Israel | Japan | Korea | Maldives |
| Myanmar | Nepal | Saudi Arabia | South America |
| South Korea | | Taiwan | Thailand |

The Outer Circle, e.g.

| Bangladesh | Ghana | India |
| Kenya | | |
| Malaysia | Nigeria | Pakistan |
| Philippines | Singapore | |
| South Africa | Sri Lanka | Tanzania |
| Zambia | | Zimbabwe |

The Inner Circle, e.g.

| USA | UK | Canada |
| | Australia | New Zealand |

**Figure 3.1: The Concentric Circle Model (Adapted from Kachru, 1997, 1998)**

The three concentric circles differentiate countries of an 'Inner Circle', an 'Outer Circle', and an 'Expanding Circle'. The inner circle is represented by countries where English is the first language, the outer circle is made up of countries where English functions as an institutionalized language and in the expanding circle, English is primarily used as a foreign language by countries such as Brunei, Indonesia and Thailand. Malaysia, as shown in Kachru's model, represents the outer circle where English has spread in non-native contexts and has been established as an additional language for formal functions. Bolton (2008) specified that Malaysia has

eight million (32%) English speakers from a total population of 25 million people. This figure is based on informed estimates, principally on percentages derived from Crystal (1997).

Kachru and Smith (2009, p.3) explored the spread of English and discussed the impact it had in the world, acknowledging that English has been 'acculturated' and 'nativized' in diverse contexts linguistically and culturally, and that there is 'Englishization' of world languages due to contact and convergence with English.

Schneider (2003) pointed out that, although the criteria for inclusion of countries in the above categories are not precisely clear, countries in the three circles essentially correspond to the ENL/ESL/EFL classification. The difference between the two models is in the emphasis that Kachru (1992) has given to the 'Outer Circle' and 'Expanding Circle'. Schneider (2003) stated that the implication of this is that the Inner Circle/ENL contexts should no longer determine norms and standards (cf. Kirkpatrick and Sussex, 2012).

### 3.4.3   The Dynamic Model

More recently is Schneider's (2003,) Dynamic Model of the Evolution of New Englishes. Schneider's model is based on the theory of language contact of Thomason (2001), which predicts that specific linguistic changes are derived from specific types of language contact. Schneider (2003) claimed that the Dynamic model is a much more improved model than the trinity model of ENL, ESL and EFL and the three concentric circles model because, unlike the other two which categorize nation states, this latter model takes into consideration 'subnational speech communities' (Schneider, 2003, p.243), the linguistically heterogeneous settings of the given countries where language varieties of minorities exist. So, for instance in Singapore the influence of English-speaking expatriates and

the growing number of Singaporeans who speak English as a first language are not captured in the earlier models.

As has been mentioned in the introductory chapter, in the Dynamic Model, Schneider proposed five developmental stages that post-colonial countries where English has been positioned, go through. These are: 'foundation', 'exonormative stabilization', 'nativization', 'endonormative stabilization' and 'differentiation' (refer to Schneider (2003) for a full and detailed description of the stages in the Dynamic Model).

The 'foundation' stage refers to the time when English first arrives and words for places, plants and animals are borrowed. Next, the 'exonormative stabilization' stage is when the linguistic standards and rules of the English of the colonial country are adopted, e.g. British English in Malaysia. The 'nativization' stage is where the bilingual and multilingual speakers create a new variety of English with phonological and syntactic features of local languages being transferred to the new variety. Elite speakers of English typically see the new English variety as inferior. Next comes the 'endonormative stabilization' stage, when the new English variety becomes socially acceptable, followed by the 'differentiation' stage when the new English variety itself develops its own varieties which may be based on the specific speech groups.

In Malaysia, different speech communities have been observed to manifest linguistic characteristics of the new English variety. In other words, Malaysian English linguistic features may differ depending on whether the speaker is Malay or Chinese or Indian. The borrowing of lexical items from Malay into Malaysian English, for instance, include words like *kacau* (disturb) in sentences like 'Don't *kacau* me' and *bomoh* (a Malay shaman); and from Chinese, words such as *tapau* (to pack food to take away) as in, 'You hungry? Let's *tapau* some food.' and *cincai* (doing things simply/casually as one wishes); and from Indian, *mamak* (referring to an Indian Muslim) like in, 'Come, I *belanja* (treat) you *mamak* food' and *minachi* (young lady).

These stages in the Dynamic Model are mutually experienced by participant groups — the 'settlers (STL) or colonizers strand' and the 'indigenous population strand (IDG)' — and 'these developmental strands become more closely intertwined and the linguistic correlates come to approximate one another in an ongoing process of mutual linguistic accommodation over time' (Schneider, 2003, pp. 243–244).

In the case of Malaysia, according to the Dynamic Model, the colonial period between 1786 (when the British colony was established in Penang) and 1957 (when Malaysia gained its independence) is the period when English in Malaysia evolved and this period conforms well with the foundation (phase 1) and the exonormative stabilization (phase 2).

Among the factors that Schneider identified that go in line with the two stages are: The arrival of the English language which eventually gained more influence and prominence as the colony became politically stabilized, the establishment of English education which resulted in bilingualism spreading in the indigenous population albeit only among the minority elites, and 'structural effects' associated with phases 1 and 2 were observed in the form of toponyms (e.g. *Penang*) which are the earliest borrowings of indigenous words into English, followed by those for flora and fauna (e.g. *orang utan*).

Schneider (2003) placed Malaysian English in the third phase of 'nativization' since 1957. Sociolinguistically, English is still very strong and widely used especially in urban areas. Most Malaysians are bilingual in English and another indigenous language and being multilingual in English and Malay plus another indigenous language is not at all unusual. Gill (2002) also noted that the mesolectal sub-variety is the one used by multi-ethnic Malaysians for communication intranationally. English has gone through nativization, as it is being acquired as a mother tongue or a first language by some Malaysians, notably in urban areas.

Exposure to English is also readily available through the mass media and the internet. Asmah (2001) contended that children in the villages acquired

English naturally but passively by watching popular English films on TV. It must be mentioned however, that English TV programmes in Malaysia which are available on public channels (e.g. TV1,TV2, TV3, NTV7) and private channels (ASTRO channels — HBO and FOX as examples) are mostly American. This underlines the idea on the impact American English has on New Englishes in general and Malaysian English in particular (Newbrook, 1997; Kirkpatrick, 2006; Phoon and McLagan, 2009).

In 1998, statistics taken from a Radio Listenership Survey conducted by AC Nielsen (Malaysia) revealed that 9,738,000 people listened to the radio every week in Malaysia and 3,076,000 of them, 31.6%, were listeners of English stations. Despite the small percentage of the listenership, this group represents an educated urban group with a high purchasing power (Gill, 2000, p.85).

Scholars in the field of New Englishes and sociolinguistics have described Malaysian English in many ways. The next section presents how Malaysian English has been modelled by various scholars. It will show how the different attempts in categorizing and labelling Malaysian English reflect the intricateness of the English used in a multilingual society with diverse social, cultural and educational backgrounds, which in turn reveal the variation of the English spoken in Malaysia.


## 3.5 Modelling Malaysian English

The linguistic and cultural pluralism in Malaysia has impacted the varieties of English spoken in the country. The varieties of Malaysian English have been extensively studied by researchers, viz., Tongue (1974), Platt and Webber (1980), Wong (1981) and Baskaran (1987), Tan (1998, 2001, 2005) Preshous (2001), Nair-Venugopal (2003), Tan (2009), Pillai *et al*. (2010), Azirah (1999, 2011, 2012), Deterding and Kirkpatrick (2006), Kirkpatrick (2008, 2012) among others.

Preshous (2001, p.47) highlighted that Malaysian English is not one 'uniformed variety'. He acknowledged that Augustin (1982) first identified the Malaysian English continuum and its 'strains' and Benson (1990) classified English into 'Anglo-Malay' (this variety is formal and is utilized by older speakers who were English-educated), 'Colloquial Malaysian English' (an informal variety with local features in pronunciation, syntax and lexis) and 'Malay influenced Malaysian English' (where there is extensive code-switching).

As in the words of Pillai *et al*. (2010, p.159), 'English in Malaysia has many varieties, ranging from the more colloquial to the standard form of English, spoken in many different local accents, and used in a variety of social and professional contexts'.

This perspective on Malaysian English is crucial to further comprehend the context for this study where, as has been mentioned in Chapter One, Malaysian speakers of English are faced with a situation where they are expected by governmental and educational authorities to use the kind of English which is closer to the inner circle norm, in an environment where Malaysian English has considerably developed over the years.

### 3.5.1   Sociolects: Lectal Continuum

Platt and Weber (1980, p.3) had described Malaysian and Singaporean Englishes using a 'Lectal Continuum'. The Lectal Continuum, which follows the creole continuum model (Bickerton, 1975; Newbrook, 1997; Bhatt, 2001) is a continuum on which a range of types of English can be placed. Platt and Weber (1980, p.23) recognized that

> ... it is very obviously a continuum, ranging from an
> educated acrolect which is most definitely an
> international language comprehensible to speakers of
> English outside the country, through to mesolects which
> vary more and more from the acrolect, to the basilectal
> end of the continuum, a variety spoken by those with
> minimal English-medium education or by others in very
> informal situation.

The acrolect speakers are able to switch across the lectal continuum while the mesolect speakers can only switch between two lects (mesolect and basilect). The basilect speakers, however, are limited to the basilectal level (Platt and Weber, 1980, p.112).

Newbrook (1997, p.234) stated that in countries where New Englishes have emerged, a range of types of English — from the most to the least standard, the most to the least formal, have developed. He noted:

> …these ranges of types are complex, with the key
> variables correlating with user's level of education (and
> in second-language settings, her proficiency), the level
> of formality (etc.) of the situation, etc. This situation is
> very clearly manifested in Malaysia.

The terms, 'acrolect', 'mesolect' and 'basilect' (Platt and Weber, 1980) respectively refer to the 'least divergent' or 'localisable' types of English, the 'intermediate' type and the 'most localisable' type according to Newbrook. He further added that the acrolect is usually the 'formal careful usage of the most highly educated/proficient' and the basilect is the 'informal or the only usage of those with least exposure to English and/or education' (Newbrook, 1997, p.234).

This Lectal Continuum model was critiqued for its seemingly rigid limitations in defining boundaries between lects (Gupta, 1998) to which Platt (1977, p.84) responded that there was, of course, a gradation along

the continuum and that there were no clear cut boundaries along the sociolectal scale.

Baskaran's (1987) study of Malaysian English was also based on the Lectal Continuum and adopted Platt and Weber's lects. Baskaran categorized Malaysian English into 'Standard ME' (acrolectal), 'Dialectal ME' (mesolectal) and 'Patois ME' (basilectal). Her classification of Malaysian English sub-varieties was derived from analyses of written English in terms of lexis, phonology, morphology and syntax which were compared with Standard British English.

Baskaran (1987, p.53) divided the features of the three sociolects into the syntactical, lexical and phonological levels, as in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2: Features of sociolects of Malaysian English (Adapted from Baskaran, 1987, p.53)**

|  | **Acrolect**: standard ME, formal use, international intelligibility | **Mesolect**: dialectal ME, informal use, national intelligibility | **Basilect**: patois ME, colloquial use, patios intelligibility and currency |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Phonology** | Slight variation tolerated so long as it is internationally intelligible | More variation is tolerated, including prosodic features especially stress and intonation | Extreme variation- both segmental and prosodic with intonation so stigmatized – almost unintelligible internationally |
| **Syntax** | No deviation tolerated at all | Some deviation is acceptable although it is not as stigmatized as broken English (intelligibility is still there) | Substantial variation/deviation (national intelligibility) |
| **Lexis** | Variation acceptable especially for words not substitutable in an international context (to give a more localized context) | Lexicalization quite prevalent even for words having international English substitutes | Major lexicalization heavily infused with local language items |

The acrolect can be described as something that is closer to the inner circle variety. The groups of people in Malaysia who speak at this level are only those who are educated in English-speaking countries, such as the United Kingdom and Australia, from early schooling up to university, and it is important to note, as mentioned before, that only a small percentage of Malaysians are at this acrolectal level.

The next level, mesolect, is spoken by academics, professionals and other English-educated Malaysians. According to Gill (2002), Malaysian English belongs to the mesolect, and that is the type of English that is used in daily interactions in Malaysia.

The basilectal level can be linked to what is commonly known as Manglish (Gill, 2002). Manglish is a type of 'bazaar English' that is used by many Malaysians on the street on a daily basis to communicate with each other. Manglish is a colloquial variety that is sometimes used to refer to Malaysian English (which is generally applied as an umbrella term for different 'strains' or varieties of English used in Malaysia) in a rather derogative way (Pillai *et al*., 2010; Gut, 2013).

In Manglish, Malay or Chinese grammar is often quite spontaneously used with English words, sometimes even for comic effect. Borrowed words usually are common non-English nouns and verbs from Chinese and Malay (see Tan, 1998; Preshous, 2001; Tan 2009; Kirkpatrick, 2012). Gill (2002) observed that the insubstantial structure and the frequent borrowed words suggest that Manglish may be a pidgin (see Preshous, 2001; Lirola and Stephen, 2007). Manglish is different from 'Singlish'[8] (Singaporean English) although there are many similarites between the two. Basically, both are products of sociocultural influences. The term Manglish was coined not long after Singlish. What is common between the two is the way local language terms, intonation, exclamations and grammar are fused

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[8] The Singapore government attempted to stop Singlish being accepted on public media. For some reason however, it has turned out to be amusing to foreigners and this has guaranteed its position.

with English. Manglish however is fused more with Malay nouns and verbs as all Malaysians learn Malay in school whereas Singlish is more fused with Chinese terms as most Singaporeans do not learn Malay in school and due to an overwhelming majority of Chinese speakers in the republic. Manglish and Singlish do not simply use the substitution of English words with words from Malay or Chinese. These varieties involve changing the pronunciation, intonation, over-simplifying the grammar, redefining the use of certain English words, use of phrases and exclamations common to the region (Baskaran, 1987, 1994, 2005, 2008a, 2008b; Azirah, 2002, 2007; Pillai *et al*., 2010; Kirkpatrick, 2012; Gut *et al*., 2013).

In the first half of the 20th century, Malaysian English was akin to British English (BrE) (albeit spoken with a Malaysian accent) (Gill, 2002; Bhatt, 2010; Nunan, 2003; Rajadurai, 2004; Chan and Tan, 2006; Bolton, 2008; Dumanig, David and Symaco, 2012; Wong, *et al*., 2012, Phan, Kho and Chng, 2013). However, after independence, when Malay replaced English as the official language and the medium of instruction in schools, the change was perceived to have an effect on the English used by the Malay-medium educated younger generations. English in contact with local languages, notably Malay and Chinese dialects, undergoes nativization with Malay and Chinese lexis, grammar, and pronunciation fusing into the native variety of English.

Figure 3.2 below shows the usage of the speakers of the three sociolects in the 1960s and 1970s. According to Gill (2002) generally, people who went through the English- medium education speak the acrolect Malaysian English. Gill (1993, pp.223–238; 2002, p.52) claimed that 'there were a large number of people' who were English- medium educated speakers in the 1960s and 1970s who were 'able to speak the acrolect' (Gill, 2002, p.52). This particular group was able to switch to the mesolectal and basilectal levels depending on who they interacted with and the context in which the conversation took place. In other words, they would use the

acrolect when they spoke in a formal situation such as talking to their teachers, but the basilect in their interaction in an informal setting.
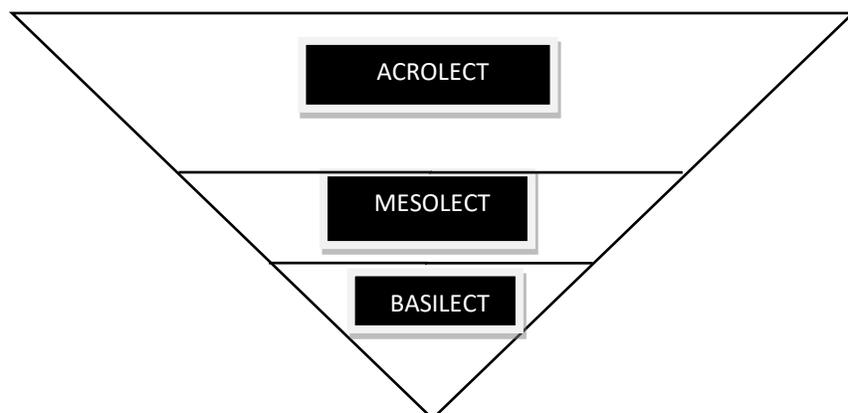


**Figure 3.2: Speakers of the three sociolects in the 1960s and 1970s (Adapted from Gill, 2002)**

However, Gill further asserted that in the 1980s and the 1990s, the situation reversed, as described in Figure 3.3. The number of acrolect speakers dwindled and the number of mesolect and basilect speakers of English dominated the language scene in Malaysia. Unlike the acrolect majorities in the 1960s and the 1970s, the majorities of these eras do not possess the ability to switch to the acrolectal level. According to Gill, it appears that there were more fluent, accurate and internationally intelligible speakers of English in the early post-independence era than there were in the 1980s and 1990s. Gill attributed the decrease in the number of acrolect speakers to the decline of English which has resulted from 'mainly the relegation of English from the medium of instruction to a mere subject taught in schools, as well as the number of quality English speakers' (Gill, 1993; p.225). She further went on to say that this situation 'is worrying the government: maintaining English as a means of international communication will become difficult because of the decreasing numbers of people who will be able to utilize it as such' (Gill, 1993, p.225).
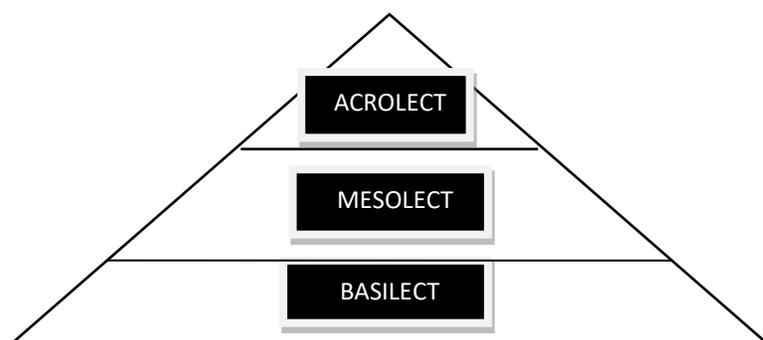
**Figure 3.3: Speakers of the three sociolects in the 1980s and 1990s (Adapted from Gill, 2002)**

Kirkpatrick (2012, p.5) also acknowledged that there exists a 'dialect' continuum of the English variety from an informal colloquial variety […] 'Manglish' […] to a formal, educated variety.

### 3.5.2   Diglossia

Diglossia (Ferguson, 1964) refers to a situation in which two distinct varieties of a language co-exist and are spoken within the same speech community. Diglossia has been used as a model to explain or define Malaysian English. A 'high' or 'H' variety is restricted to certain formal situations as in government, religion, education, law and the media functions, and a 'low' or 'L' variety is for everyday interaction in informal contexts.

Like Singaporean English, which Gupta (1998) posited as diglossic, Malaysian English has an H variety which is Standard Malaysian English (just like Standard Singaporean English) and colloquial Malaysian English as the L variety (Kaw, 2006). But Gupta's claim is said to miss out on the complexities of New Englishes like Malaysian English. For instance, the 'L' variety in New Englishes possesses orthography and vocabulary associated with the 'H' and 'L' varieties which are distinct from Ferguson's diglossia where the orthography does not reflect the variety,

and the same referent is referred to using different words (Kandiah, 1998, pp. 96–97).

Other scholars who have discussed Malaysian (and Singaporean) English using the diglossic model are Tongue (1979), Wong (1981) and Wang (1987). Tongue (1979) likened the formal style of standard Singaporean and Malaysian English ('standard ESM') to standard British English and the informal style as 'sub-standard'. Wong (1981) divided Malaysian English into two varieties — the formally learnt variety used for wider communication internationally and the informally acquired local dialect for intranational communication. The borderline between the two varieties becomes fuzzy when she noted that deviations from the standard British English at the grammatical level were rife and widespread among average educated Malaysian English speakers.

In a similar way to Wong, Wang (1987) categorized speakers of Malaysian English into two groups: Speakers of the '1st Variety of Malaysian English' and the '2nd variety of Malaysian English'. The 1st variety is 'standard' spoken by overseas-educated and proficient speakers with near native attainment. Although they have a distinctive phonology and use local expressions, their syntax and lexis are claimed to be close to standard British English. The '2nd variety' is more colloquial and simpler with 'unEnglish' expressions that are deemed 'unacceptable' in comparison to the native variety standard (British English), but this is the variety that she found to be more commonly spoken among Malaysian students at tertiary level.

Earlier descriptions of Malaysian English, however, suggest that this new English variety is 'polyglossic' (Platt and Weber, 1980, p.7) pointing out the complex socio- cultural settings of Malaysia (and Singapore) which give rise to more than one 'H' and 'L' variety. Kaw (2006) also acknowledged the possibility of more than one 'L' sub-variety in Malaysian English.

While the studies mentioned above describe mainly formal and informal structures and styles in Malaysian English which are different from standard British English, some other studies have framed the Malaysian English variety in other ways. For example, Lowenberg (1986, 1991) placed Malaysian English on a continuum of 'Standard Malaysian English' to 'Colloquial' on the grounds of lexical borrowings, code-switching and code-mixing. Benson (1990, pp. 20–21) looked at registers and styles and classified Malaysian English into three sub-varieties. The first type is formal 'Anglo Malay' used by older speakers who received English education during the colonial period; the second type is a colloquial variety with local pronunciations and expressions in syntax and lexis and is spoken by those educated in English-medium schools, and a third sub-variety which is code-mixed between Malay and English, referred to as 'Manglish', and used by younger Malaysians who were Malay-medium educated. According to Benson, most Malaysians considered the second variety as the actual Malaysian English and he predicted that, in the future, the third type would take over the highly colloquial second type.

In all the descriptions of Malaysian English above, there appears to be some similarities. Firstly, the studies established that there are sub-varieties in Malaysian English, and secondly, they seemed to conclude that the colloquial form — the 'mesolect' (Platt and Weber, 1980; Baskaran, 1987; Wong, 1991); the '2nd variety' (Wang, 1987); the second 'colloquial' type (Benson, 1990) — represents actual Malaysian English which is spoken among Malaysians largely for communication within the country. Kaw (2006, p.74) remarked that there seems to a shift in what is perceived to be Malaysian English and that from these studies 'most predictions for ME since 1980 have anticipated a decline in the English proficiency of Malaysians, especially among the younger generation who go to Malay-medium schools'.

The thesis now proceeds to a discussion on the current status of Malaysian English.

## 3.6 Current Status of Malaysian English

Schneider (2003) claimed Malaysian English is at the nativization stage of his 5-phased model. But, whether Malaysian English has moved beyond phase 3 of the Dynamic Model, Schneider (2003, p.59) noted that 'in cyclic models overlapping phenomena from successive phases are to be expected'. He pointed to the existence of a typical transitional feature between phase 3 and phase 4 which is the 'complaint tradition'. He further added:

> This attitude of upholding an external norm and complaining about the presumed loss of old standards can also be observed at times in Malaysia's public discourse, in laments on "falling standards of English" (Asmah 1996:520; cf. Nair-Venugopal 2000:17; Lowenberg 1991; Gill 2001), commonly voiced in English-language newspapers.

Hence, English in Malaysia is not yet at the endonormative stage (phase 4) because, as mentioned in Chapter One, the linguistic orientation has been exonormative (Newbrook, 1997; Schneider, 2003; Kirkpatrick, 2006; Bolton, 2012). Schneider (2014, p.253) and Kirkpatrick (2010b) said that in former colonies and ASEAN countries, British and American Englishes are still upheld as the standard and as 'the correct language form and the target of teaching'.

Kirkpatrick (2006) in his presentation of the advantages and disadvantages of choosing an exonormative or endonormative norms by outer circle countries mentioned Malaysian English as a nativized model (which, according to Kirkpatrick, Indonesia, an expanding circle country, can adopt as an exonomative nativized model as its reference).

But these norm orientations are becoming more unclear (Newbrook, 1997; Schneider, 2014; Kirkpatrick, 2010b). Although at an official level, an exonormative 'standard English' is advocated, in practice most English speakers in Asia inevitably speak English 'with a local flavor, with accents, lexis and other features caused by transfer from indigenous languages or

local conventions — and there is nothing wrong about that; after all, 'native' British or American speakers also regularly use local accents and speech forms, especially in informal contexts' Schneider (2014, p.253).

Becoming more apparent is the increased drive in the direction of endonormative norms as scholars put forth their arguments for a localized educated variety (Halimah and Ng, 2000; Gill 1999, 2002; Kirkpatrick, 2006; Schneider, 2003, 2014). D'Angelo (2014, p.79, in Schneider, 2014) argued for 'localized educated forms of English as spoken by international non-native speaking leaders, for 'pluricentric standards' and, most importantly, for the need to purposely raise awareness and tolerance among tertiary level students (and their teachers as well!) of the pluralistic and evolving nature of Englishes in Asia today'. Schneider (2009, 2014, p.253) also believes that eventually 'endonormativity is unavoidable, caused by real-life conditions and trajectories of language change and the evolutionary paths of postcolonial varieties…'.

Kirkpatrick (2010b) similarly acknowledged the likelihood of outer circle countries to choose an endonormative model as a norm where [or only when] the local variety is socially acceptable. Singapore, he added (p.10), has moved 'from insisting on a native speaker model for the classroom to one which is internationally intelligible'.

However, Kirkpatrick (2012) later asserted that in multilingual nations like Malaysia, Singapore and the Philippines, in contrast with a homogenous nation like Hong Kong, English is a lingua franca and in these countries there is enough linguistic evidence that the varieties of English in these countries have reached the stage of differentiation (phase 5) when the new English variety itself develops its own sub-varieties which may be based on the specific speech groups.

In Malaysia, different speech communities have been observed to manifest linguistic characteristics in the new English variety. In other words, Malaysian English linguistic features may differ depending on whether the speaker is Malay or Chinese or Indian. Among the studies on Malaysian

English that have aimed to illustrate this point are Phoon and McLagan (2009), Imm (2009) and Phoon *et al*. (2013). Phoon and McLagan (2009) investigated the phonology of Chinese Malaysian English. They examined the oral speech production of ten Malaysian Chinese adults who speak the mesolectal sub-variety of Malaysian English. Their participants were Malaysian Chinese undergraduates who were exposed to English at birth and used it dominantly at home. Their findings generally concur with the most common distinctive phonological features of Malaysian English which are glottalization of final stops, devoicing of intervocalic and final consonants, final consonant cluster reduction, avoidance of dental fricatives, lack of distinction between the long/tense and short/lax vowels and simplifications of diphthongs (Zuraidah, 2000; Schneider, 2003; Baskaran, 2004; Rajadurai, 2007). They also included a small number of past tense words where the past tense morpheme is realized as a consonant cluster (e.g. *jumped*, *kicked*, *laughed*) in their word list. They found that the past tense marker –ed was omitted in 22.5% out of 120 instances, and four out of the ten participants did not realize the consonant clusters at all.

Phoon *et al*. (2013) studied the phonological characteristics of Malaysian English sub-varieties which they called Malay-influenced, Chinese-influenced and Indian-influenced Malaysian English. They set out to describe the consonant features that are shared and not shared. They had five participants from each ethnic community: Chinese, Malay and Indian with a mean age of 20.1 years. The participants had to read a list of words with all the English consonant phonemes. Their findings revealed some features in the participants' pronunciations, which marked them as distinctively 'Malaysian' and some others which disclosed their ethnic origins as Chinese, Malay or Indian. They concluded that 'Chinese Malaysian speakers can be identified by th-fronting in syllable-final position and deletion or vocalization of coda /l/. Indian Malaysian speakers can be identified by th-fronting in syllable-final position and the realization of /r/ as a tap or a trill. Malay Malaysians do not have such strong tendencies, but a combination of th-fronting in syllable-final

position and the realization of a /r/ as a tap or a trill would indicate a speaker of Malay ethnicity' (pp.24–25).

The section above provides a macro-picture of Malaysian English. The characteristics of Malaysian English in its nativized stage where there are linguistic differences from standard British English (Newbrook, 1997; Deterding, 2010; Kirkpatrick, 2010b; Schneider, 2014) will be discussed in Chapter 4.

## 3.7 Acceptance of Malaysian English

What 'standard' English is in the Malaysian context is a delicate subject. In non-native English speaking countries, the issue of what is 'standard' English, is complicated in view of the vibrant developments of World Englishes. Much of the debate in the wake of World Englishes or New Englishes, is on whether countries outside the inner circle should subscribe to the inner variety norms. Nativization of English in the Malaysian context for example, as in other Asian countries, raises many related issues of 'right' and 'wrong' in the new varieties and against which 'standard' are the Englishes measured. Reactions and acceptance of the people on these issues often vary.

Bhatt (2001) revealed that one perspective of the spread of English in the third phase of the second diaspora in non-native contexts is that its rapid promotion was managed through English language teaching agencies, for instance the British Council. He further explained:

This theory, known as English linguistic imperialism (Phillipson 1992), argues that English is universally imposed by agencies of linguistic coercion, such as the British Council and TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages), which introduce and impose a norm, Standard English, through which is exerted the domination of those groups that have both the means of imposing it as "legitimate" and the monopoly on the means of appropriating it (cf. also Pennycook 1994, 1998).

(Bhatt, 2001, p.532)

Kachru and Smith (2009, p.6) questioned the conceptualization of 'global' or 'lingua franca' or 'world' English finding it perplexing to understand the concept considering that the Inner Circles, and even the Outer and Expanding Circles have had their English varieties kept intact. The labels accorded to English 'perpetuate a myth' and do not signify any 'sociolinguistic and functional validity'. They stressed the need for a socially realistic approach and the inevitability of accepting the existence of variations within a national variety.

The notion of one standard language — the Queen's English, or American English — has to change: there are now multiple standard Englishes (Australian, Canadian, Caribbean, New Zealand, Indian, Nigerian, Philippine, Singaporean, and others). Some of these have grammars and dictionaries; others are developing them. It is worth remembering that language is not dependent on grammars and dictionaries; English English existed long before it was codified in a dictionary or a grammar.

(Kachru and Smith, 2009, p.5)

In Malaysia, however, 'Standard English' or the inner-circle variety still appears to be the preferred choice of English, and the generally accepted frame of reference for 'Standard English' is British English of which the acrolectal Malaysian English is likened to (Gut *et al*., 2013).

But, although the term 'Malaysian English' is not the preferred choice in official or government contexts, it is by and large gradually accepted in

the continuously changing school curriculum in attempts to improve students' command of communicative English. *English 112, English for Primary Students, Malaysian English, Conversational English* to name a few are official modules and include use of the word 'Malaysian'. Nevertheless, despite the influence and the vast number of speakers of mesolectal and basilectal Malaysian English it is still not officially recognized as a variety of choice.

Despite the richness of the English varieties, the degree of acceptance of these Englishes by Malaysians varies. The responses from educational, political and business sectors have been less enthusiastic. Grouses about the 'standard' of English and Malaysian English from these quarters are debated in Parliament and extensively reported in the local newspapers. The seemingly high aspirations for success have triggered a great economic shift in many Asian countries, that is, from the traditional labour-intensive mass production to higher-level service industries. This has consequently generated a high-level demand for speakers of English. Nair-Venugopal (2003, p.16) in her studies on language choice and use in Malaysian business contexts reported that 'the institutional imperatives are clearly at variance with the situated discourse [and this] is evident from more recent on-the-ground research reports' (see related studies Nair-Venugopal, 1997, 2000a, 2000b, 2000c, 2000d, 2001). She further remarked:

> It thus appears to be a paradox of Malaysian business communication that while the rhetoric of the gate-keeping echelons of senior management displays a preoccupation with establishing and maintaining or preserving "standard", "good", "proper", "correct" and even "quality" English (to mention some of the most common descriptors of linguistic aspiration used as normative benchmarks), such norms are not always present or put into place by trainers, who are inevitably more sociopragmatically savvy than the gatekeepers.

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Malaysia's goal towards becoming a self-sufficient industrialized developed nation by 2020 makes English or Englishes a critical issue that is not to be disregarded or taken lightly. Other Asian countries, for instance Singapore and Hong Kong, have also pursued economic goals by tackling their respective linguistic issues. In recent years, the governments of these two countries have introduced various campaigns to improve standards of English at work and in the public domain. Similar schemes have also been introduced and supported in India and the Philippines (Bolton, 2008) in efforts to produce competent English users.

In 1990, a letter written by Alistair King to *The Star* newspaper created mixed responses from the general public. He wrote:

> I am constantly disheartened by the awareness that they (students) will walk out my class and into the morass of slipshod, incorrect English usage as they meet with other speakers of what is increasingly becoming a pejorative term – 'Malaysian English'.

Many readers supported him by stating that the sub-standard language will affect Malaysians' ability to communicate globally. Nevertheless, there were also many readers who disagreed. Those who opposed felt that the development of Malaysian English is a sociolinguistically acceptable feature of language development and thus, this so-called 'pejorative term' seems to function effectively and blend in well with the linguistic and social scenario in Malaysia as well as in the workplace. The newspaper extract above may be outdated but the complaint and dissatisfaction exhibited may well represent the sentiments that today's public hold.

Kirkpatrick's (2012, p.5) observation somehow seems much more accurate:

[Nevertheless] the extent to which the local educated variety is accepted as the classroom model remains the topic of much debate. It would appear, therefore, that, in linguistic terms, varieties of English can reach Schneider's final stage of 'differentiation' linguistically, but sociolinguistically they remain somewhere between stage two and stage three, as the idealised classroom model remains provided by an inner circle variety.

This section presents some scholarly views on other Englishes which may not correspond with the views of those who are adamant that an exonormative benchmark is obligatory. The acceptance of Malaysian English — the 'local-educated variety' — remains a debate as observed by Kirpatrick. Institutions, authorities and certain sections of the public may still subscribe to a particular benchmark; others may not share the same sentiment. Understanding this scenario in Malaysia will provide further understanding of why this study is relevant.

# Chapter 4. English as a Second Language

## 4.0 Introduction

The concern over the so-called decline[9] of English in Malaysia creates the need to investigate, empirically, if there is a difference in the English of the two groups of Malay L2 speakers of English who were educated in English-medium and Malay-medium schools respectively. This is only a part of the motivation for this research. This study also explores the literature on linguistic theories that could explain linguistic variation and variability that are inherent in second language learners' speech especially when viewed in the context of changing amounts of exposure; in particular in this study, the two selected groups of participants received exposure in school and beyond school from different media of instruction. In view of this, this research has been equally inspired to examine other academic literature that could shed light on the research findings and could also place this research into the context of existing literature. This thesis is also motivated by questions about the relations between social factors, such as sex, level of education and exposure to formal English medium of instruction, and current informal use of English, with English performance by L2 Malay speakers of English.

To this end, this chapter aims to present a review of relevant literature and studies of Malaysian English and second language acquisition. Reviewing relevant literature will also highlight some of the gaps in the existing research which this study hopes to fill. In this chapter, research on Malaysian English is first discussed followed by an exploration of the relevant literature on second language acquisition. After this, a

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[9] Recall that a decline in English proficiency in the context of the present thesis means a shift away from the British English Standard to what is believed to be Malaysian English.

comparative account of the grammatical features of Malay and English is given.

## 4.1. Studies of Malaysian English

According to Baskaran (1987), up to the mid-1980s, many of the works on Malaysian English were general in nature and were mostly undertaken by non-Malaysians *viz*. Tongue (1974), Crewe (1977) and Richards (1977). Others like Platt *et al*. (1980, 1984) were more thorough in their description of Malaysian English but had offered only a superficial treatment of the structural aspect of the variety. Other notable studies which Baskaran (1987) mentioned looked at some aspects of the structure of the variety by Malaysians, which showed that most of the work on Malaysian English in this era was in the form of papers or reports, for instance by Singaporean researchers such as Wong (1981) and Tay (1981). Wong detailed 'the structural elements of variation' whilst Tay's description of Standard Singapore English is 'representative enough', but Baskaran felt that it lacked detailed linguistic focus. In sum, research has largely given 'full impetus' to syntactic features and, according to Baskaran, this is the feature that most distinguishes Malaysian English from other varieties.

Baskaran's own study was a description of Malaysian English in terms of structural differences in comparison with Standard British English. His main goal was to simply describe the 'non-British aspects of the syntax of English' (Baskaran, 1987, p.107) that the average mesolectal Malaysian English speaker produced.

The syntactic aspects he examined included the noun phrase, verb phrase and clause structures. Mass plurals, article ellipsis, personal pronominal concord, modal verbs, tense, the use of stative verbs in the progressive, copula ellipsis, word order and tag elements in interrogatives were also featured in his thesis. His descriptions of these features were derived from

data he collected via a questionnaire comprising a judgement test of fifty sentences with specified syntactic features. The test was administered among seventy in-service teachers and ten clerks and required them to make judgements on what would be considered 'right' (hence 'Malaysianised' English) and what would be 'wrong' (not 'Malaysianised' English) (Baskaran, 1987, p.114). The fifty sentences were categorized on the basis of the structural features Baskaran aimed to study, and were compiled and selected from various sources, such as the written and spoken language of postgraduate in-service English Language teachers, undergraduate and secondary school pupils, press reports and official statements, advertisements, news items, editorials, comic strips and film reviews from the local press, local radio and television, both official and casual, programmes; and also general observations from people of other work domains such as professionals, semi-professionals and non-professionals.

Baskaran's (1987) empirical study of Malaysian English confirmed the existence of Malaysian English as a localized form and a nativized variety which is systematically different from British English at all levels. Baskaran showed that the structural features of Malaysian English are distinctive, systematic and consistent and they mark, as she claimed, Malaysian English as a new variety of English (Rajadurai, 2004, p.42).

Baskaran's study was crucial, as it examined linguistic or structural properties and established Malaysian English features which are different from British English. The linguistic features that were examined were quite extensive and have since been the subject of many other studies. Nevertheless, the nature of Baskaran's study is only descriptive in nature as it was her goal to just describe Malaysian English syntax.

Another early study, however, examined more aspects of English spoken by Malaysians. Wang (1987), focused on the issue of international intelligibility of the Malaysian English variety. The study which aimed to measure the intelligibility of Malaysian university students' speech in

English, also set out to analyze the main causes of intelligibility problems at the phonological, syntactic, lexical and discourse levels. Wang collected data from three types of source - (a) ten oral interviews, (b) readings of words and sentences, and (c) summary; with (a) as the main source for measuring the intelligibility of the oral speech of ten university students. Their interviews, each lasting between three and seven minutes, were recorded and played for British native speakers to listen to and make judgments on a five degree intelligibility scale.

The ten test subjects were selected to meet a 'racial ratio' criterion and 'other criteria' which appeared to be vaguely stated. There were two Indians, three Malays as they happened to be among the twenty students recorded by the researcher's colleagues, and five Chinese. The five were chosen out of the fifteen Chinese from a total of twenty on the basis that they manifested features of what Wang termed the Second Variety of Malaysian English i.e. mesolectal Malaysian English, that they were first year students from the Chinese-medium schools (with one exception, the subject had both Chinese and Malay-medium education) 'who need to improve their spoken English urgently' (1987, p.69) and that they spoke the same L1, i.e. Hokkien (with one exception, who was a Cantonese speaker) for analysis purposes. The other criterion was that the interview was neither too long nor too short and Wang pointed out that one of the Malay subjects was not a first year university student but rather a member of staff of the same university. Wang, however, stressed that despite non-random selection, the main corpus had 'a wide range of language proficiency' (1987, p.70).

Intelligibility in Wang's study was measured and analyzed in terms of linguistic errors produced by students in their oral speech, phonological segmental and supra-segmental errors, syntactic and lexical errors and nonlinguistic features at discourse level which affected intelligibility.

The scores Wang obtained ranged from 32.8% to 44.5% with a mean score of 37.5% of the utterances said to be unintelligible by the British judges.

These results were supported by findings from the other two data sources. From among the main causes of intelligibility, Wang found that lack of schematic or background knowledge was the main cause for unintelligibility of the students' speech by the British native speakers.

Wang identified 18 syntactical errors, that is, 'all formal errors concerning grammatical rules, forms of words and sentence structure' (1987, p.182) and regarded them as universal errors committed by all learners of English and 'were not characteristics of a particular ethnic group only' (1987, p.196). Nevertheless, the analysis of error type and error frequency produced by the three major ethnic groups in Wang's study was useful in highlighting the errors made by the Malays, who are the focus group of my own study.

The Malay subjects in Wang's study showed higher error frequencies than the Chinese and Indian subjects in these error types:

**Table 4.1: Types and frequency of errors by Malay subjects in Wang's (1987) study (Adapted from Wang, 1987, pp.184 and 196)**

| Error Types and Descriptions | Error Tokens | Frequency of Errors by Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| 2 (Wrong tense) | 3/5 | 60 |
| 12 (Omission / addition /misuse of adverb or conjunction) | 6/12 | 50 |
| 14 (Miscellaneous- one-off errors in the main corpus e.g. negation error, question tag, possessive construction, past/ present participle, etc.) | 5/10 | 50 |
| 6 (Omission of dummy subject 'it' and /or + verb; misuse of 'it is' and 'there are'. | 3/7 | 42.9 |
| 11 (Omission/addition of preposition; misuse of preposition) | 7/17 | 41.2 |
| 15 (Phrases that need restructuring) | 3/8 | 37.5 |
| 4 (Misformation of verbs in passive) | 1/3 | 33.3 |

It must be said however, that as Wang has pointed out, these errors patterns by ethnic characteristics 'were not very significant' (p.197).

Wang's ten participants is a rather small corpus, and seems to be unbalanced — some were from Chinese-medium schools, and presumably some from Tamil-medium and Malay-medium schools — and the interviews were short when compared to interviews produced using a sociolinguistic approach. Thus, the results could not be 'very significant' or conclusive, let alone valid. However, the study does highlight some grammatical features that are common 'errors' or non- target-like features Malaysian L2 speakers make such as omission of subject  and lack of tense inflection.

Many years later, Botley *et al*. (2004, 2005) studied a computerized corpus of learner English compiled from essays written by undergraduates from three major universities in the states of Sabah and Sarawak, the two large Malaysian states located on Borneo alongside Brunei and Kalimantan. Adhering as closely as possible to the guidelines laid down by the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE)[10] Botley's CALES project (Corpus Archive of Learner English in Sarawak / Sabah) consisted of almost 500,000 words of argumentative essays written by undergraduates of the Sabah and Sarawak branches of University of Technology MARA (UiTM), Universiti Malaysia Sarawak (UNIMAS) and Universiti Malaysia Sabah (UMS).

Botley *et al*. (2005) worked on a small 90,000 word sub-corpus from CALES drawn from the UiTM Sarawak data in the corpus, and revealed what they termed 'performance features' which included grammatical

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[10]The ICLE guidelines: a. corpus must be at least 200K words in length, b. each student must submit up to 1000 words, c. each essay must be at least 500 words in length, d. the students who write the essays must be degree students, equivalent to 3rd to 4th year students of English in a university, e. the students are learning EFL, f. all essays in the corpus must be argumentative essays or literature exam papers, g. all students must fill in a standard Learner Profile form for each essay submitted, h. and essays can be written at home or in class under timed conditions.

errors[11]. Comparing two samples of essays produced by Iban and Malay students, they found significant differences in the frequency of errors made over a wide range of errors notably 'noun number', articles and lexical choice. Noun number refers to singular-plural errors, an example of this from the paper is (the correction is given in $ $ signs):

(4.1)    Also it can cause fight $fights$ among the family.

Both sets of learners also frequently produced errors in the use of articles specifically over-using [12]'the' and 'a' as in:

(4.2)   Also, the $0$ money can increase the numbers of the $0$ greedy person.

They also identified cases of under-use and misuse of articles as shown below respectively:

(4.3)    This is to ensure that $the$ young generation are not left behind in science and technology.

(4.4)   ...the willingness to do criminal work it not fair and will broken the $their$ future.

Botley, Zin and Sarbini-Zin (2005) analyzed a sub-corpus from CALES consisting of 16,569 words written by Malay students. From 40 essays totalling 89,874 words 18.44% of this corpus was selected for

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[11] The word 'error' throughout the present thesis refers to systematic production which does not represent the English target. I make a distinction between 'error', and 'mistake' in the context of Chomsky's (1965) theoretical standpoint of linguistic competence and performance. Linguistic competence refers to the speaker-hearer's mental knowledge of his/her language while performance is the actual use of the language in real time. During language use, the speaker may be tired or inattentive and produce mistakes which do not reflect their linguistic competence. This distinction is made in reference to the study of second language acquisition by Corder (1967, p.18).  He calls for use of the term 'error' to refer to the learner's systematic but non-target-like production and use of 'mistake' in the same way Chomsky has used it, to indicate one-off (not systematic) usage, in that the latter is caused by some failure in performance.  Hence, an error is regarded as resulting from a learner's lack of linguistic competence in reference to a particular linguistic phenomenon.

[12] Botley *et al*. (2005) found that overuse was much more common than underuse, which in turn was more frequent than misuse. The percentages were 60.67% (overuse), 21.46% (underuse) and 17.51% (misuse). Also, it was found that definite articles and indefinite articles were over-used a great deal more than they were under-used, in two corpora. Furthermore, the definite article was overused far more frequently than the indefinite article.

investigation; this formed the bulk of the Malay data. Evidence was also found for transfer errors and overuse and under-use or 'avoidance' errors of articles. Botley *et al*. (2005) attributed these errors to the lack of definite and indefinite articles in Malay. They also revealed other errors of various language features. Table 4.2 displays error frequencies in the various language features uncovered in the writings of the Malay learners. The error tags are explained in Appendix 2.

**Table 4.2: Error frequencies in various language features in Botley *et al*. (2005)**

| Error Tag | Frequency | % | Error Tag | Frequency | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| LS | 558 | 15.15 | GVAUX | 23 | 0.54 |
| GNN | 466 | 12.66 | LCLC | 20 | 0.49 |
| WM | 439 | 11.92 | GVM | 18 | 0.49 |
| **GVT** | **354** | **9.61** | FM | 18 | 0.49 |
| FS | 349 | 9.48 | GNC | 13 | 0.35 |
| **GA** | **338** | **9.18** | LCS | 12 | 0.33 |
| WR | 290 | 7.88 | GVV | 12 | 0.33 |
| GP | 226 | 6.14 | R | 9 | 0.24 |
| GVN | 122 | 3.31 | XVPR | 8 | 0.22 |
| SU | 100 | 2.72 | GADJCS | 8 | 0.22 |
| GWC | 96 | 2.61 | GVNF | 7 | 0.19 |
| S | 77 | 2.09 | LCLS | 6 | 0.16 |
| WO | 42 | 1.14 | LCC | 5 | 0.14 |
| LP | 29 | 0.79 | XNPR | 3 | 0.08 |
| LSF | 23 | 0.62 | XADJPR | 1 | 0.03 |
| | | | Total | 3682 | |

Therefore, Botley *et al*. (2005) found that the highest frequency of errors the Malay learners made were in lexical items (LS), plurals (GNN), the omission of copula 'be' (WM), verb tense (GVT), articles (GA), redundant words (WR) and pronoun errors (GP). Darus and Subramaniam (2009) also found that Malay learners made six common errors in their error analysis of written essays by 72 secondary school students. They found six errors that are common, namely singular/plural, verb tense, word choice, prepositions, subject-verb agreement and word order. Table 4.3 lists grammatical and lexical errors found in the two studies. Common errors are highlighted in bold letters.

**Table 4.3: Common grammatical and lexical errors by Malay learners**

| Botley *et al*. (2005) | Darus and Subramaniam (2009) |
|---|---|
| **Lexical** | **Singular/plural** |
| **Plurals** | **Verb tense** |
| Copula omission | **Word choice** |
| **Verb tense**[13] | Prepositions |
| Articles | Subject- verb agreement |
| Redundant words | Word order |
| Pronouns | |

As was discovered by Wang (1987) Malay learners committed quite frequent tense errors, which are high in the frequency counts gleaned by Botley, Zin and Sarbini-Zin (2005).

The second CALES project (Phase 2) investigated and analyzed idioms, and discussed spelling and pronoun errors in Learner English (Botley *et al*., 2007). In addition to the CALES project, there are several other corpus-based research projects in Malaysia, such as the EMAS (English of Malaysian School Students) corpus (Arshad *et al*., 2002) and the MACLE (Malaysian Corpus of Learner English) corpus by Knowles *et al*. (2003) (see also Abdul Kader, Begi and Vaseghi, 2013; Joharry and Abdul Rahim, 2014).

Another research study with a focus on the intelligibility of Malaysian English was that of Rajadurai (2004) which, from a sociolinguistic perspective, focuses on phonological variation. The study had specifically investigated phonological features of Malaysian English that affect the intelligibility of Malaysians' speech. Her thesis was based on case studies of three proficient Malaysian speakers. Audio-taped oral data, interviews and 'retrospective participant commentary' on some selected recordings were recorded, and provided a broad description of the sub-varieties of spoken English produced by Malaysian speakers yielding 'insights into the social significance of phonological choice, as Malaysians respond to the tension between

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[13] This includes future although, strictly speaking English does not have a future 'tense'.

achieving intelligibility and maintaining identity' (Rajadurai, 2004, p.14).

A study of primarily Malay learners was carried out by Ismail (1988). Investigating the standard of competence among Malay ESL learners, Ismail investigated how much learner variables like exposure, attitudes and motivation affected their competence. Data were collected from a sample of 441 Form Four students (16 year olds) from selected schools in Selangor using a battery of tests which include an achievement test, and three types of scales for measuring exposure, attitude and motivation.

His analyses of the data revealed that, *inter alia*, the Malay participants displayed a low competence in their English and students from urban schools performed better than their counterparts in rural schools.  Their exposure to English (in the form of written English, radio and television English and unscripted spoken English) was found to be low. Despite this, their attitudes and motivation to learn English were determined to be 'generally favourable' and 'strong'.

Ismail had also investigated the strengths of the relationships between the three variables and concluded that as the results did not show regular high correlations, the variables were not established as predictors of competence.  Ismail's study also included exposure and motivation factors to see if they had any correlation with competence on several tests, including achievement tests, but not particularly on grammatical features or structures of English.

Up to this point, studies have generally focused on establishing Malaysian English and describing features its features that are unique to Malaysian English and displaying in its own right variations in its phonology and its structures. Most have examined written English data to describe features of Malaysian English. The influence of sociolinguistic factors on the competence of learners has also begun to be of interest in research on Malaysian English.

Studies of Malaysian English are quite extensive. Apart from older studies, some being mentioned earlier (Tongue 1979, Asmah, 1982; Platt and Webber, 1980; Baskaran, 1987, Wong, 1987, Lowernberg, 1991 to name a few), newer studies that are more likely to have captured the state of this variety when through data collection have looked at various aspects of Malaysian English in more empirically systematic ways. Earlier research on Malaysian English tended to be impressionistic in nature (Pillai, 2008) as well as being rather systematic and limited in scope, and thus may result in stereotypical descriptions.

Studies by Malay scholars especially are inclined to focus on micro-linguistic aspects of Malaysian English, and many of these studies have focused on phonology (Zuraidah, 1997, 2000; Baskaran, 2004; Pillai, 2008; Pillai *et al*., 2010; Phoon and McLagan, 2009; Phoon *et al*., 2013; Yamaguchi, 2014 among others). Some studies have looked at lexical aspects of Malaysian English (e.g. Imm, 2009; Hashim *et al*., 2011; Thirusanku and Md. Yunus, 2012) while others looked at the status of Malaysian English and the role it plays as well as general descriptions of the variety (Preshous, 2001; Rajadurai, 2004; Kaw, 2006; Imm, 2013; Hashim *et al*., 2014; Azirah and Tan, 2012). There are, however, not as many studies which focus on the morpho-syntactic features of Malaysian English, the topic of the present study. Neither the lexicon nor the phonology are the focus of this study, but it is beneficial to provide some lexical and phonological features that characterize Malaysian English in order to present a full picture of the context of research on Malaysian English.

### 4.1.1  Lexical features

As English has been in contact with the various indigenous languages in Malaysia for over a century, it is to be expected that Malaysian English has incorporated borrowings from the local languages. The lexical features described below serve to show how indigenous languages have impacted English in Malaysia, yielding a bona fide variety. Words like *amok*, *rakyat*, *tapau* and *kiasu* are commonly used words among Malaysians of all socio-economic and socio-cultural backgrounds. Research into lexical borrowings has looked deeper, for instance, by exploring knowledge of loan expressions in a multilingual context. Hashim *et al*. (2011) set out to establish whether loan words from Malay, Chinese and Indian languages, as well as Arabic, are known and to what extent knowledge of this stratifies in terms of ethnicity and religion.  They learned that their selection of mixed loan words from Malay, Chinese and Indian languages such as *rakyat* and *amok* (Malay), *tapau* and *towkay* (Chinese) and *dhobi* and *coolie* (Indian) 'followed a similar pattern of "most known" and "least" across ethnic groups in terms of clustering rank order' (Hashim *et al*., 2011, p.567). This indicates a 'common Malaysian- ness' of Malaysian English. As for loan words from Arabic, *salam* (a greeting) and *haram* (meaning forbidden) are the most commonly known words among Malaysians.

Imm (2009) on the other hand, specifically examined loan words from Chinese into Malaysian English. A total of eighty-five words from the MEN Corpus (Malaysian English Newspaper Corpus) were explored in terms of changes in their lexical patterns (orthography, compound blends, loan translations, morpho-syntax) and motivations for lexical borrowing (to fill a lexical gap, to denote one's Chinese background). Some of the typical Chinese loan words into Malaysian English are *kway teow* (broad rice noodle), *wantan* (Chinese dumpling), *tai chi* (a type of Chinese martial art), *kiasu* (meaning being afraid of losing out to others), *sinseh* (a traditional Chinese healer), and *amah chieh* (a traditional Chinese domestic servant).

Morais (2000) gave examples of nativization in Malaysian English —
words with 'new meanings' such as in 'he wants to hammer people' and
'new forms' such as 'we can okay the car'. Others who have examined
lexical features of Malaysian English include Lowenberg (1991), David
(2000), Preshous (2001), Schneider (2003), Thirusanku and Md. Yunus
(2012) and Hashim and Tan (2014) who have provided listings of lexical
features of Malaysian English.

### 4.1.2   Phonological features

Malaysian English vowels have been found to lack a distinction between
minimal paired vowels in English (Platt and Weber, 1980; Zuraidah, 1997;
Baskaran, 2005; Rajadurai, 2007). So, word pairs (e.g. cart and cut, cot
and caught) tend to be realized as homophones, which can be attributed to
vowel quality, as vowel quality in Malaysian English differs from RP
(Pillai *et al*., 2010). Baskaran (2005, p.28) describes /ɔ/ and /ɑː/ as being
produced as 'half-open and a more central vowel' in Malaysian English.

Studies of Singaporean English and Bruneian English have reported
similar findings. Deterding (2003, pp.6–8) in his study of Chinese
undergraduates fluent in English, reported that the vowel space for /iː/ and
/ɪ/, /e/ and /æ/, /ɔ/ and /ɒ/ were closer together in Singaporean English
than in British English; and for /ʊ/ and /ʊː/, the latter is made further back
in British English than Singaporean English. Bruneian English vowels
possess the similar characteristic of lacking distinction in vowel length or
duration. Salbrina (2006, p.254) noted that her ten Malay speakers of
Bruneian English did not discriminate the vowel pairs of /iː/ and /ɪ/, /e/
and /æ/, /ɔ/ and /ɒ/, and /ʊ/ and /ʊː/ were more frontal than in Singaporean
English.

Zuraidah (1997, p.38–40), in her analysis of the phonological features of
vowels by twelve adult Malay speakers of English, found a lack of
contrast in vowel quality and quantity between Malay and English. The

vowel pairs were realized as single vowels: [iː] and [ɪ] become [ɪ]; [ʊː] and [ʊ] become [ʊ]; [e] and [æ] become [e]; [ɒ] and [ɔː] become [o]; [ʌ] and [ɑː] become [a]; and [ə] and [ɜ] become [ə].

Zuraidah's (1997, p.38) account for the lack of distinction for the vowels from her Malay speakers is the influence of the speakers' first language, that 'RP vowels which do not exist in Standard Malay tend to be pronounced with Standard Malay vowel quality'. The Malay vowel inventory is smaller than that of British English, and Malay does not distinguish vowel length (Zuraidah, 1997; Nair-Venugopal, 2000; Pillai *et al*., 2010).

The schwa [ə] is often substituted by a full vowel depending on the orthography (e.g. octopus [ɒktəpʊs], ambulance [ambjuləns] (in Phoon and McLagan, 2009; Zuraidah, 1997; Baskaran, 2004). Malaysian English speakers usually do not reduce their vowels in their pronunciation; as such, the schwa can be realized as [a], [e], [o], [eɪ] or [ɪ] (Hashim and Tan, 2012).  Diphthongs tend to be monophthongized - coat, load with [o], make, and steak with [e] (Zuraidah, 1997; Nair-Venugopal 2003; Rajadurai, 2004; Baskaran, 2005; Phoon and McLagan, 2009).

Preshous (2001) also noted that longer vowel sounds tend to be shortened, so words like leave[iː] sounds like live [ɪ] and diphthongs are reduced to monophthongs, for instance, take [ei] to tɛk. Rajadurai (2006) found that Malaysian English has six short monophthongs out of the seven that British English has ([ɪ] [e] [æ] [ɒ] [ʊ] [ʌ] and [ə]). The six vowels are a high front vowel [ɪ], a mid-front vowel [ɛ] that represents both [e] and [æ], a low central vowel [ʌ], a mid-central vowel [ə], a low central back vowel [ɒ] and a high back vowel [ʊ]. It appears that the speakers of Rajadurai's study produced a short phoneme /ɜ/ (which is typically a long, mid, central vowel).

Phoon and McLagan (2009, p.38) in their research on Malaysian Chinese speakers of English, also observed that there is 'lack of distinction between long/tense and short/lax vowels and simplification of diphthongs'.

The lack of contrast in vowel quality was also apparent in Pillai *et al*.'s (2010, p.159) study on vowel contrast where they noted that Malaysian English vowels, like the varieties in neighbouring countries, 'occupy a smaller vowel space' than British English vowels. They identified contrasts in the vowels [ɪː] and [ɪ], [e] and [æ] and [ʌ] and [ɑː].

Now we turn to consonants. How consonants are realized in Malaysian English has relevance for how inflectional suffixes such as agreement and past are realized in the data in this thesis. Phoon *et al*. (2013, p.24) carried out a study of consonant realization in Malay-, Chinese- and Indian-influenced Malaysian English, and concluded that 'Malaysians maintain a combination of features in their pronunciation which mark them out as "Malaysian", such as the reduction of final stop clusters (e.g. elephant /ɛlɪfənt/- [ɛlɪfən]), devoicing of final fricatives and affricates (e.g. vase /vaz/- [vas], bridge /bɹɪdʒ/- [bɹɪtʃ]), th-stopping in initial position (this /ðɪs/- [dɪs]; nothing /nʌθɪŋ/- [nʌtɪŋ]), deaspiration of voiceless stops (kitchen /kʰɪtʃən/- [kɪtʃən]) and glottalization of stops (e.g. black /blæk/- [blæʔ])'. These features are shared with Singaporean and Bruneian English and may be part of a variety of South East Asia (cf. Hashim *et al*., 2014, for shared features among ASEAN speakers).

Schneider (2003) recognized similar characteristics in educated Malaysian speakers' pronunciation, notably the omission of final consonants in monosyllabic words with a CVC structure (for examples, spea'(k), flo'(p), no'(t), bu'(t), wha'(t), loo'(k), go'(t)), reduction of word-final consonant clusters (for examples, earlies'(t), wen'(t), an'(d), stric'(t), difficul'(t), suppose'(d), firs'(t)), the replacement of a word-initial dental fricative with a stop which is frequent with voiceless consonants, for instance thirty, thanks, three, and think with an initial [t-], but, also this as [dɪs] (see also Preshous, 2001 and Yamaguchi, 2014).

In oral production and often in writing, too, the non-marking of verbs that require a final –d or –t for the past tense markers, is related to pronunciation features in Malaysian English, and Singaporean English, i.e.

the reduction of final consonant clusters (Platt and Weber, 1980). Schneider (2003) and Preshous (2001) also noted variant stress patterns in Malaysian English (e.g. [ˈprouvaɪd 'provide'], [ˈkɒns ɜːnd 'concerned']) (for a comprehensive description of Malaysian English at the phonological level, see Hashim and Tan (2014).

### 4.1.3 *Morpho-syntactic features*

Studies of the syntax of Malaysian English include Newbrook (1997), Baskaran (1987, 2008b), Preshous (2001), Schneider (2003) and Hashim and Tan (2014). Structural nativization at the grammatical level is evident in recent accounts of Malaysian English (Schneider, 2003; Hashim and Tan, 2014). According to Hashim and Tan (2014), simplification of grammar via strategies such as overgeneralization, reduction, substitution and restructuring often occurs in the mesolectal and basilectal sub-varieties of Malaysian English where contexts are less formal. It is also more likely to occur in the spoken than the written form of Malaysian English. The syntactic differences between Malaysian English and standard British English can be ascribed to the influence of the local languages spoken in the community. One can suggest, then, that it is at these mesolectal and basilectal levels that the most distinctive features of Malaysian English, ones that differ from the standard inner circle (British and now American) varieties (Newbrook, 1997, Imm, 2009) are found, and hence are very appealing to study by researchers on Malaysian English.

Newbrook (1997, p.229) noted that at the time there had been 'relative neglect of the "acrolectal" usage' in research on Malaysian English and it was 'unfortunate' that not much work was done on formal proficient usage, because if and when an endonormative standard variety is to exist in Malaysian English, it is the acrolectal sub-variety that is likely to be most relevant. More recently, Pillai (2008) too stated that there is a lack of research on the acrolectal sub-variety. With little research on this sub-

variety, lack of awareness of its existence or of what its attributes are is not surprising. Newbrook (1997, p.235) stressed the point that that there is a misperception of the idea of a local variety as a standard; the mis-perceived notion being that it is the more distinctively local, informal local forms resulting from language transfer — the mesolectal and basilectal sub-varieties — that are promoted as standard. This misperception largely stems from a failure to recognize that the acrolect exists, which in turn results in the acknowledgement that Malaysian English refers only to the mesolect and basilect.

Newbrook's (1997, p.230) comprehensive study of Malaysian English grammatical features focused on the acrolectal sub-variety of educated proficient Malaysian usage at the more formal end of the stylistic range as might appear in print (his data was from a corpus of 338 pages from two Malaysian English newspapers — The New Straits/Sunday Times and The Star/The Sunday Star) or in careful speech (tape-recorded spoken data). Newbrook (1997, p.239) grouped the findings of his analyses into four categories among which are grammatical features that appear to be characteristic of Malaysian English and not (or not for the most part) of Singaporean English (Group 1) and some which also appear to be characteristic of acrolectal Singaporean / Malaysian English and also of 'acrolectal' Australian English (Group 2). From the corpus data, Newbrook (pp.246–250) categorized the features of Malaysian English under ten broad categories, namely sentence structure and complementation, noun and verb singular and plurals/concord, tenses and aspects, modals, other verb matters, noun phrase structure, adjectives and adverb(ial)s, prepositions and particles, conjunctions and punctuation.

## 4.2 Characteristic Features of Malaysian English

The characteristics of Malaysian English are evident in the lexis, phonology, morphology, syntax, stylistic and discourse features of this variety. The purpose of a micro-picture of Malaysian English is to provide

some understanding of the linguistic variability in the current Malaysian context.

The present study examines oral production of Malay speakers of English to provide a picture of the variability of English among speakers who had or did not have the best chance of acquiring inner core British English by attending English-medium schools. In relation to this study of the morpho-syntax of Malaysian English speakers, descriptions of Malaysian English features will mostly highlight morpho-syntax, although some insights on lexis and phonology will be given.

### 4.2.1 Syntax and morpho-syntax

The first syntactic feature of Malaysian English is SVO word order where there is negative inversion in standard British and American English after no more, never, etc. For example,

> (4.5)   Never I am going to lend him money again. (Categorized as group 1 in Newbrook 1997)

No expressed object (this applies to full noun phrases, not only pronouns) where expected as in

> (4.6)   By restricting [phone calls] to 300 minutes… (Newbrook, 1997)

Use of 'as such' (as in 'therefore') without antecedent (and extended use of whereby):

> (4.7)   This sentence is passive; as such, the agent is not the subject. (Newbrook, 1997)

> Variant complementation pattern:

> (4.8)    ... instead of merely present detached information. (Schneider, 2003)

> The subject is ellipted in single/first subordinate clause as in

(4.9)　…he had lodged a complaint…because [he] did not own an Atur telephone… (Newbrook, 1997)

(4.10)　ø is very difficult (Schneider, 2003)

The use of direct question word order in indirect questions (see Baskaran, 1994; Govindan and Pillai, 2009; Ting *et al*., 2010)

(4.11)　He asked me where is the shop. (Govindan and Pillai, 2009)

Present for past, specifically in reported speech

(4.12)　I asked her if I could bring the card when I collect the dictionary. (Newbrook, 1997)

Present for past specifically in adverbial clauses with when …and the like

(4.13)　…despite the time students spent time learning both languages… it is saddening to note that the level of mastery…leaves much to be desired. (Newbrook, 1997)

Omission of expected auxiliaries particularly a) any auxiliary, by way of extended use of ellipsis and b) passive be, for example:

Where been is used statively in perfect passive, been is omitted

(4.14)　have [been] registered twice (Newbrook, 1997)

Where finite forms of be are omitted

(4.15)　that [was] launched on (Newbrook, 1997)

Omission of inflections, notably past participle –ed and irregular participle forms

(4.16)　make/send for made/sent (Newbrook, 1997)

Got as auxiliary (with bare infinitive) in sense 'have' (but this he remarked is not acrolectal, but basilectal) as in:

(4.17)　I got go there before (Newbrook, 1997)

It is interesting that Baskaran (2008b, p.618) also identified that got is commonly used, in colloquial basilectal Malaysian English, in place of auxiliaries, in for example these structures:

(4.18)   Where got meaning

(4.19)   You got bring the book

Already as perfective/completive marker preceding verb (see also Platt, Weber and Ho, 1984; like Malay sudah 'already') as in:

(4.20)   My father already pass away (Newbrook, 1997)

These grammatical features also seem to be common even at the mesolectal level.

Absence of pronoun person agreement

(4.21)   End users will be able to…needs of your organization (Newbrook, 1997)

(4.22)   because of this two languages ... (Schneider, 2003)

Special cases of pronoun concord absence

(4.23)   … they need to go to the Remove Class as it is in his or her best interest (Newbrook, 1997)

Baskaran (2008b, p.612), however, seemed to indicate that a singular/plural distinction is made for animate nouns but not inanimate nouns. So, for example,

(4.24)  Salina bought two bags yesterday but absent-mindedly left it on the bus on her way home.

Baskaran (2008b, p.612) attributes this lack of pronominal concordance to Malay, which uses the same pronoun (i.e. *ia*) for both inanimate and animate non-human nouns. Newbrook (1997) also noted that there is often absence of noun-verb concord where the intended number is unclear.

Pronouns too are often omitted in Malaysian English, typically in the basilectal sub-variety of Malaysian English. Ellipted pronouns take place

in both the subject and object positions of the noun phrase structure, for instance,

(4.25) Always talk like a towkay (a Chinese business owner) (Hashim and Tan, 2012)

(4.26) He knows the story but won't say [it]. (Hashim and Tan, 2012)

Other familiar features are verbs lacking –s in present 3rd-person-singular environments, (especially where subject and verb are separated) and verbs with 'redundant' –s in present non-3rd person singular environments (especially where subject and verb are separated).

In addition, nouns lacking expected plural –s and nouns with plural –s where not expected are also common:

(4.27) equipment, staff, furniture (Newbrook, 1997; cf. Hashim and Leitner, 2014)

Also, lack of number concord between noun phrase and anaphoric pronoun, inconsistent concord, etc.

For tense and aspect:

Present for past specifically after it is time that… and the like

(4.28) It is time that intense research is carried out (Newbrook, 1997)

-ing-participle or which+finite present or past perfect verb

(4.29) He suggested that barter trade, existing since the East India Company period, be kept alive. (Newbrook, 1997)

Familiar features include simple past for expected present perfect, present perfect for simple past, simple past for past perfect and past perfect for simple past (especially referring to the earlier of two past events or to a remote past event); past perfect for present perfect, generally present for

past, generally past for present past, shifting between present and past, present progressive for present perfect, etc.

As for tense, Hashim and Tan (2012, p.64) in more recent work, remark that 'tense in formal acrolectal is similar to standard English'. Newbrook's (1997) findings were different but presumably this is because it is not clear how Hashim and Tan arrived at their findings for tense usage at the acrolectal level. This too underscores the lack of research on the acrolectal sub-variety of Malaysian English.

Nevertheless, regarding the more colloquial sub-variety of Malaysian English, Hashim and Tan (2012) noted the absence of tense and aspect markers (cf. Hashim and Leitner, 2014). What are commonly used in replacement of these markers are adverbial time markers such as yesterday, now and tomorrow. Preshous (2001, p.51) also detected the same phenomenon where a time marker 'after' is used to replace the auxiliary 'will' as in the example:

> (4.30)  After you become black lah! (meaning – you will become black/dark/tanned)

Indeed adverbs of time are common to mark verbs for temporality (Platt, Weber and Ho, 1984) for example (in Preshous, 2001, p.5):

> (4.31)  Before I always go to that market

> (4.32)  Last time she come on Tuesday

Malay, which does not have deictic tense marking, could be the influencing factor for the absence of tense markers (Baskaran, 2008b, p.614).

For aspect in the colloquial Malaysian English sub-variety, the simple and uninflected form is often used for the present perfect tense, as in these examples (in Hashim and Tan, 2012, p.65):

(4.33)  Since you start work here…

(4.34)  Since she marry you…

In sentence complementation, Hashim and Tan also noticed that verbless complements are also common in very informal situations in colloquial Malaysian English, for instance,

(4.35)  Where pain?

and the omission of the auxiliary verbs in continuous (-ing) structures as in:

(4.36)  Teacher coming

### 4.2.2  *Other*

The use of singular concord with collective proper nouns

(4.37)  Singapore is winning its games easily (Categorized as group 2 in Newbrook, 1997)

Noun and verb singular and plural/concord:

Nouns lacking expected plural-s specifically after 'one of the…'

(4.38)  one of its main aim… (Newbrook, 1997)

Much with plural nouns:

(4.39)  much resources (Newbrook, 1997)

Verb phrase (often be) is not expressed as in:

(4.40)  …as [is] evident from inspections. (Newbrook, 1997)

(4.41)  They ø nice to me. (Schneider, 2003)

By + -ing –participle where by is not expected, as in:

(4.42)  …among the Ministry's efforts…was by conducting in-house courses… (Newbrook, 1997)

Absence of pronoun gender agreement:

(4.43)  Nine immigrants which included three children… (Newbrook, 1997)

Every with plural verb:

(4.44)  Every other business…issue receipts (Newbrook, 1997)

The descriptions above from Newbrook (1997) are only a part of his elaborate and wide-ranging set of features. Newbrook's descriptions also include adjectives and adverb(ial)s, prepositions and particles, conjunctions and punctuation but these are not discussed here as they are not relevant to the present study.

It should also be noted that Newbrook's descriptions are not variations within Malaysian English relating to the various ethnicities of its users. Nonetheless, his study is one of the few that provides insights into Malaysian English with findings that can be compared with those from others.

A number of the grammatical features noted by Newbrook (1997) have also been identified by Schneider (2003).  He also listed some of the syntactic features from other studies (e.g. Platt, Weber and Ho, 1983; Newbrook, 1997; Morais, 2000, 2001; Nair-Venugopal, 2000; Gill, 2002) which include:

missing sentence constituents (indicated by Ø) in:

(4.45)  They Ø nice to me

(4.46)  Ø is very difficult

and missing concord in noun phrases

(4.47)  because of this two languages ...

Schneider (2003, p.57) also observed that deletion of nominal inflectional endings is common even in formal contexts. The most salient is the plural –s deletion in nouns but he also noted the occasional genitive –s deletion:

(4.48) the difference between your opinionø and other people opinion

The missing plural -s in the context of 'one of the' is also a morphological feature that Newbrook reported and one that Schneider identified even in formal and public contexts. Another feature that he frequently encountered in acrolectal Malaysian English is the omission of articles particularly in (pre- or post-) modified noun phrases which, he added, Malaysian speakers construct with remarkable ease.  Some of the examples that he provided are:

(4.49) Ø English football league has ...

(4.50) I was educated at ø University of Malaya

(4.51) Leading diploma programs that lead you to ø local and international degree.

Variability in article usage is specially well-noted in other new varieties, in particular in Asian Englishes (Preshous, 2001; Schneider, 2003; Hashim and Leitner, 2014; Hashim and Tan, 2012). Hashim and Tan (2012, in Hashim and Low, 2014, p.62) also pointed out that ellipted articles occur especially before modified abstract nouns or concrete nouns that are used as generic nouns in predicate position.

(4.52) Main reason for their success so far is…

(4.53) He was top student of the state

Article ellipsis before modified abstract nouns may well be an influence from Malay which does not have an article system (Baskaran 2008b, p.612).

Semantic shift is another feature that occurs in the new English variety where the meaning of a word is broadened from its original meaning. For

example, the word 'bring' used in Malaysian English as in the sentence, 'I'll use the money to bring my family for a holiday in Melaka' (Kirkpatrick, 2012, p.7) means 'take' in British English. Another example is the word 'shift' to mean 'move' as in the context of moving house, or 'fetch' to mean 'pick up' the children from school. Semantic shift is not a part of this study, however it is certainly an interesting area for future research.

It is also noteworthy to mention that 'lah' is one of the many particles commonly used in and is a prominent characteristic of Malaysian English, but is not discussed here as it is not within the scope of the present study (but refer to Hashim and Tan, 2012 for a listing of common particles). The use of particles, according to Kirkpatrick is the most iconic feature of the Malaysian English as well as the Bruneian and Singaporean Englishes. Particles, such as 'lah' and 'meh' are frequently used in these Englishes. To quote examples, 'no money lah' and 'she knows meh?' are how these particles are used in Malaysian English.

Kirkpatrick (2012, p.7) presents a good summary of the most distinctive features of Malaysian English which may be shared with other varieties of English. He observed that the most common grammatical features of Malaysian English, and other varieties of English, are the different markings of countable and uncountable nouns, the non-marking of past tense forms and the use of an invariable form of question tag — for example, in Malaysian English 'is it?' is used indiscriminately. Some phonological features of Malaysian English are the tendency to avoid reduced vowels which according to Kirkpatrick is a common feature for all varieties of ASEAN Englishes. These Englishes commonly use full vowels in unstressed syllables, for example, in 'It's officially launched' (Kirkpatrick, 2006, p.29); and in segmental features, the dental fricative /θ/ is replaced by /t/ and /ð/ is replaced by /d/. Diphthongs are regularly replaced by monophthongs, for instance, /əʊ/ or /oʊ/ are replaced by /o/, as in 'go'; and /ei/ in 'place' becomes [ple's] (Kickpatrick, 2006, p.29).

To sum up this section, it can be said that research on Malaysian English has been quite extensive in the past four decades. These studies began with early general and impressionistic studies (Pillai, 2008) that aimed only to establish the existence of Malaysian English, and moved on to focus on the characteristics of the variety and analyzing different lexical and phonological features according to ethnic characteristics of the speakers.

Although there has been interest in associating competence with social factors, these are minimal. Gill (2003) mentioned that English-medium educated speakers in 1960s and 70s were more 'competent in the acrolect' (cf. Rajadurai, 2004, p.19), fluent, accurate and internationally intelligible than those in the 1980s and 1990s, but there are no known studies that examine Malaysian English speakers from two different types of medium of instruction in terms of their linguistic or grammatical competence and associate their competence with social or extralinguistic factors.

This study, then, builds on Gill's (2003) claim that speakers who received English-medium education were more accurate, fluent and competent than those who received Malay-medium education. Because there is no study that compares speakers with different amount of English contact, the current study aims to fill this gap. It also complements existing studies that explore social or extralinguistic factors that may have influence on speakers of Malaysian English.

The following sections present a review of studies in second language acquisition.


## 4.3 An Overview of Research in Second Language Acquisition

Linguistic competence and performance (Chomsky, 1965) have been central to research in linguistics and applied linguistics; (see also footnote 12 in this chapter). Chomsky's (ibid., p.3) well-known statement in which he said — '[w]e thus make a fundamental distinction between competence

(the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and performance (the actual use of language in concrete situations), and '[o]bserved use of language [...] cannot constitute the actual subject matter of linguistics, if this is to be a serious discipline' (ibid., p. 4) — sparked an intensive debate among linguists. Chomsky's view on the central importance of competence in linguistics was met with criticisms by those with differing views on language or linguistic systems. His view on competence is criticized for its limitation in scope. Hymes (1972) in his 'On Communicative Competence' paper attacked Chomsky's view from a sociological direction, stressing that the notion of language based solely on grammatical competence is '(…) The controlling image is of an abstract, isolated mechanism, not, except incidentally, a person in a social world' (ibid.; p.272). Similarly, for Halliday (1978, p.2), language is a 'social fact' and a 'social reality', highlighting that '[b]y their everyday acts of meaning people act out the social structure, affirming their own statuses and roles and establishing and transmitting the shared systems of value and of knowledge' (Halliday, 1978, p.2). Language has a functional dimension to it and, arguing against Chomsky that the sentence is the primary unit of linguistic analysis, Halliday (ibid., p.2) claims that language comprises text or discourse, i.e. 'the exchange of meanings in interpersonal contexts of one kind or another'. Linguistic competence from a discourse perspective entails the choices that speakers make when speaking or writing and adapting and clarifying information to achieve efficient and relevant language interchange (Newby, 2017).

This discourse approach recognizes that in both formal and functional terms people do not always speak in grammatical sentences.  Indeed, '[a]ll language is subject to variability: some of which is completely predictable, some is not (Meyerhoff, 2009, p.202). In any language, there are 'inconsistencies' and 'irregularities'. In other words, there is linguistic variation and variability is inherent in human language. A single speaker may use different linguistic forms in different situations or contexts; sometimes different groups of speakers use different words to express the

same meanings, or different pronunciations without changing the meanings of the words.  In fact, Meyerhoff (ibid., p.202) says that:

> Often where there is this kind of variation between speakers (interspeaker variation), we also find the same variation within speakers (intraspeaker variation), in other words, the same person may alternate between different pronunciations of a word, or different ways of ordering elements in a sentence.

Importantly in the investigation undertaken in the present thesis, most of the variation is not 'free', but rather systematic, There is variation in a speaker's choices in pronunciation, word choice and grammar and interspeaker variation and intraspeaker variation is partly the consequence of interactions between linguistic factors (that is, aspects of the grammar and phonology of the language) and partly the consequence of interactions between social factors and language or extralinguistic factors (e.g. the social status of the speaker and addressee, the (in)formality of the setting and the topic under discussion, (Reppen *et al.*, 2002; Meyerhoff, 2009; Mougeon *et al*., 2010)

Variation in language learners is a much-observed phenomenon. In fact, as mentioned by Reppen *et al.* (2002) it is not possible not to be faced with linguistic variation or variability when studying language forms used in natural language use. Variation among second language learners is often characterized by the linguistic or grammatical errors that they produce along with target-like production. To address linguistic variation as well as sociolinguistic variation (Mougeon *et al*., 2010), this section provides an overview of studies in second language acquisition (SLA) whose authors have conducted research on both linguistic and sociolinguistic variation. This provides some background to the present study on Malay L2 speakers of English and to the research questions it poses.

Language acquisition aims to understand language learners' systems of rules (Hakuta, 1979) and SLA research, specifically, has mostly been focused on assessing the linguistic competence of second language

speakers and explaining the grammatical systems that underlie this competence (Rickford, 1987). Several earlier studies on SLA were also directed at socially marginalized speakers.

Rehner *et al*. (2003) noted that L1 variation — native speakers' alternation between two or more linguistic elements that express similar meaning — as L1 sociolinguistic research has shown, is part of spoken language competence which influences all aspects of language, occurring very regularly in L1 discourse and constrained by both linguistic and extralinguistic factors. But SLA research has mostly been focused on aspects of the target language in which native speakers' usage is unvarying, that is, only one linguistic element is used to express a given notion.

Some SLA research adopts a sociolinguistic standpoint and embarks on studying variation by focusing on language aspects where native speakers display variations. Several decades ago, Adamson and Regan (1991) observed how immigrants from South East Asia to the United States alternate alveolar /ŋ/ in words like *workin'*. This study revealed that men increased their use of the informal variant in more formal styles in which intense attention was needed. The informal variant they noted is associated with masculinity. Major's (2004) study of university L2 learners of English conveyed similar outcomes. It appeared that in these studies, gender played a role more than style.

There has been much research on the French language which has focused on the acquisition of native speakers' variable features used to construct identity, in various situations that emphasize the importance of contact with native speakers (Bayley, 2005). Regan (1996) investigated the acquisition of the deletion of French *ne* (negation particle) by Irish learners studying in France for a year and found that Irish learners began to use native speaker's colloquial speech after their time in the country. Studies on the acquisition of native-like patterns of variation by learners in French immersion classes in Toronto, revealed that the learners very

seldom or hardly used marked vernacular variants. However, they made some use of mildly marked variants; this is common with students who had been in Quebec for some time (Mougeon and Rehner, 2001; Mougon, Rehner, and Nadasdi, 2004; Rehner, Mougeon, and Nadasdi, 2003).

Furthermore, Rehner, Mougeon, and Nadasdi (2003, pp.148–149) reported their findings on the learning of linguistic variation by French second language learners: 'the immersion students do not prefer the formal variant *nous* but instead use the mildly marked variant *on* somewhat more frequently…[because] *on* is not avoided by the teachers and the dialogues contained in the teaching materials'. Thus, educational input may also have an effect on the learning of target language variation. Contact with L1 speakers outside the classroom and in Francophone environments as well as the use of the spoken French media increased the use of *on.* This study allows us to suppose that with longer exposure to a Francophone environment, these results might show that the immersion learners might use the mildly marked variant as frequently as L1 speakers. Regan (1996) found that after a 1-year stay in France, Irish learners deleted the particle *ne* in the formal register even more often than the native speakers.

Rehner, Mougeon, and Nadasdi (2003) also discovered that gender and social class produced the effect they had expected. Female and middle-class learners were found to use more of the formal variant *nous*. Many of the studies on the acquisition of native speakers' variation of French studied learners who had spent a year in the target language environment (Regan, 1995, 1996; Dewaele, 1999, 2002) and these studies have shown that learners could acquire native speakers' variations if they had contact with native speakers 'often with similar rates of use of variants and often similar constraint ordering' (Bayley and Regan, 2004, p.326). On the other hand, classroom learning is not adequate for learners to approximate native speakers' variable patterns and rates of use of variants (Mougeon *et al*., 2004).

Research in SLA has revealed that variation in interlanguage is systematic and, like native speaker language, it is linguistically and socially constrained (Bayley and Regan, 2004). A study on past tense marking by Vietnamese immigrants in Washington D.C. showed that acquisition of English was constrained by saliency of the distinction between the root form and the past tense form of the verb, the more salient form was more likely to be marked, for regular past tense verbs, by the features of the surrounding phonological environment (Wolfram, 1985).

Young's (1991) study of plural marking by adult Chinese learners of English revealed that their plural marking was affected by proficiency level apart from other constraints that included phonological environment and ethnicity of the speaker. Bayley (1994) also studied past tense marking by adult Chinese learners of English and he found that it was constrained by both linguistic and social factors. The learners were 'more likely to use past tense forms with perfective verbs and to use bare forms with imperfectives' (ibid; p.324). He also found that past tense marking, as in Young's study, was affected by the saliency of the difference between the base and the past tense forms of the verb. In addition, social factors such as how Chinese learners were networking had an effect on their past tense marking. Those whose social contacts were with both English native speakers and Chinese learners were more likely to use past tense forms than those whose networks were limited to other Chinese speakers. The findings of these two studies that involved two different groups of adult Chinese learners of English with different interlanguages are consistent with those by Regan, Dewaele, and Mougeon *et al*. stated above.

Mahadeo (2003) explored the factors leading to variation in English language proficiency levels in Mauritius. The study sought to characterize and compare learners in the rural and urban contexts in Mauritius to find out whether the conditions prevailing in an urban classroom setting and outside the classroom in Mauritius are more conducive to language learning than the conditions available in the rural schools and areas.

Taking exposure factors into account, the study considered what the variation in achievement actually involves in terms of morpho-syntactic competence. The language sub-systems investigated were pluralization, adverb placement, tense formation, passivization, relativization and WH-movement.  The participants for his study were French-based creole speakers at three levels of education from six different English-medium schools in Mauritius. The researcher observed and analyzed (quantitative and qualitative) interactions inside and outside English classes in both rural and urban settings involving 240 students. Social factors included home factors which took into account exposure to English including the use of English for reading, writing, watching TV, etc.

The comparison between the two types of school indicated that there were marked differences between the rural and urban contexts in terms of the nature of the opportunities for exposure to language input, the extent of the opportunities available for learners to participate in interactions in English and the nature of the learning environment available inside and outside the school, at home and in the community. The study found that conditions for language learning in the urban schools were more conducive that those available in the rural schools.

More recently, Leung (2012) examined the L2 phonology of Cantonese children in Hong Kong who were exposed to multiple varieties of English (Filipino English, Hong Kong English, British English and American English). The study also investigated how sociolinguistic factors in Hong Kong affected their L2 phonology. The findings of his study revealed that L2 phonology acquisition is possible when learners have sufficient amounts of exposure to the target language input. Leung (2012) further explored attitude as a sociolinguistic factor and concluded that his participants' attitudes towards Filipino English was one of ambivalence. His study highlights the importance for the researcher to examine the nature of input from several perspectives and to understand variability in the input before making any solid conclusions about learners' phonological competence in a second language.

Interlanguage variation is not random and it is constrained by linguistic and social factors, as explained by Bayley (2002, p.117): ''speakers' choices between variable linguistic forms are systematically constrained by multiple linguistic and social factors that reflect underlying grammatical systems and that both reflect and partially constitute the social organizations of the communities to which users of the language belong'.

## 4.4 Variability in Second Language Acquisition

Variability discussed in this section particularly centres on studies in SLA that have investigated this among second language learners.

Utterances produced by second language learners that deviate from the target language are traditionally viewed as problematic by language teachers. However, research in SLA has shown that errors are not random or unsystematic; on the contrary they are systematically patterned. Since the 1970s, researchers have shown that learners develop in stages from non-target  to more target-like structures and use of forms and that they seem to follow a common route, albeit at a different pace or rate across individual learners. Thus, although there seems to be differences across learners in their linguistic competence, upon further scrutiny, researchers have found more commonalities than differences in acquisition of second language competence. Brown's (1973) longitudinal morpheme study on first language acquisition of three children established that English children of different backgrounds learned grammatical morphemes in a definite sequence, but at varying rates. The morphemes were scored for their suppliance in obligatory contexts and from this study a sequence of morphemes was revealed.

**Table 4.4: Brown's order of acquisition of morphemes by English children (Adapted from Myles and Mitchell, 2004, p. 36 and Eun-Young Kwon, 2005)**

| Rank | Grammatical morphemes | Examples |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | Present progressive | boy sing**ing** |
| 2/3 | Prepositions | **D**olly **in** car |
| 4 | Plural | Sweeti**es** |
| 5 | Past Irregular | **broke** |
| 6 | Uncontractible copula | is,am,are |
| 7 | Possessive | baby**'s** biscuits |
| 8 | Articles | **a** car |
| 9 | Past regular | Want**ed** |
| 10 | Third person singular | She likes |
| 11 | Third person irregular | He put |
| 12 | Uncontractible auxiliary | is, am, are |
| 13 | Contractible copula | She's |
| 14 | Contractible auxiliary | We've |

DeVilliers and deVilliers (1973) replicated the same morpheme study in a cross-section of 21 English children at an early stage, and their results were consistent with Brown's.

Following Brown (1973), researchers on SLA embarked on establishing an order of acquisition of grammatical morphemes for second language learners. Dulay and Burt (1973) conducted a cross-sectional study and investigated whether Spanish children learning English could also supply eight of the grammatical morphemes in Brown's study accurately. The sample group consisted of 151 children who were divided into three groups with different abilities depending on the length of exposure to English from three different geographic areas in the United States. They used the Bilingual Syntax Measure, which is a technique designed to elicit the grammatical structures through conversations and use of pictures. They found that the sequence of acquisition of the morphemes among the groups were similar even though they were at different levels (Dulay *et al*.,1982); the order of morphemes for these L2 learners differed from that of Brown's (1973) L1 study. Dulay and Burt's two other studies (1974, 1975) with Spanish and Chinese children learning English also showed very similar results with 11 and 13 respectively of Brown's morphemes.

**Table 4.5: Acquisition order of children whose L1 was Spanish (Dulay and Burt, 1973) (Adapted from Cook, 2001, p.28)**

| L2 learning of grammatical morphemes | |
|---|---|
| Plurals '–s' | 'Books' |
| Progressive '–ing' | 'John going' |
| Copula '–be' | 'John is here' |
| Auxiliary '–be' | 'John is going' |
| Articles | 'The books' |
| Irregular past tense | 'John went' |
| Third person '–s' | 'John likes books' |
| Possesive '–s' | 'John's book' |

Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) looked at a set of morphemes which they grouped into four, instead of looking at them as individual items. They concluded that children of different language backgrounds learning English in different host country environments are highly likely to acquire eleven grammatical morphemes in a similar order.

Bailey, Madden and Krashen (1974) replicated Brown's study (1973) on L2 adult learners of different L1s in a cross-sectional study using the same Bilingual Syntax Measure as used in other studies. They investigated whether the morpheme order for adults would be more similar to children learning English as an L2 or children[14] acquiring their L1. The results were consistent with those of Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974). L1 Spanish learners of English charted similar accuracies in the eight morphemes, and their order of morphemes was similar to that of other L2 learners of different L1 backgrounds rather than that of child native speakers of English.

Bailey *et al*. (1974) also found that the present progressive appears early but, unlike those found by other researchers (e.g. Hakuta, 1976) the possessive and third person singular appear later. In Bailey *et al*. (1973), it was found that plural –s was acquired first while the possessive –'s was acquired last. They affirmed that the order of morphemes for child L1

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[14] Krashen (1982) makes a distinction between language *acquisition* and language *learning*. Acquisition is akin to the way children develop their first language. It is an informal subconscious process and results in linguistic competence. Learning, on the other hand, is a formal and conscious process of knowing about a second language. In the present thesis, unless specified, both terms are used interchangeably.

learners is separate from child and adult L2 learners of English and concluded that there is a distinct natural order of acquisition of morphemes for L2 learners of English regardless of age and L1 background.
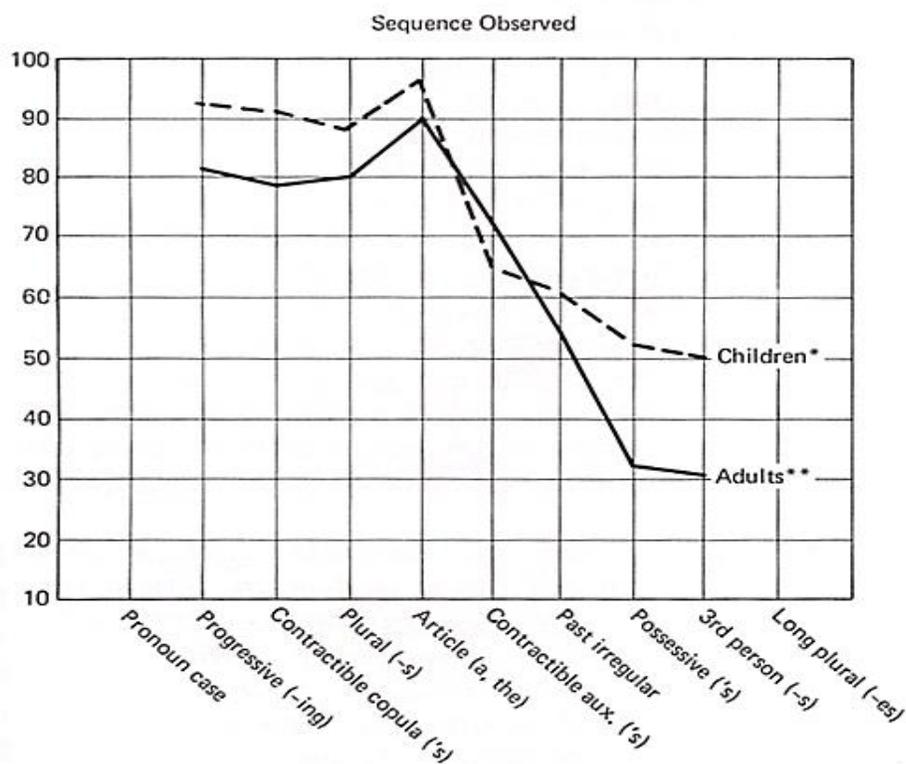


**Figure 4.1: Morpheme order for adults and children learning English as an L2**
*Dulay and Burt (1974)
** Bailey *et al*. (1974)

Not only has learners' interlanguage been observed to have systematicity but it is also characterized as being extremely variable. Variability is a basic characteristic that is present in both child and adult interlanguage (Towell and Hawkins, 1994). According to Mitchell and Myles (2004, p.16), the utterances that learners produce appear to vary in the types of 'errors' that they made and they also seem liable to vary for a momentary period as well as over a lengthy period alternating between correct and incorrect forms. Their study on L2 French (1998) found that a learner produced variable forms of negation within the same twenty minute period.

This is akin to Ellis's (1985a) findings where a child L2 English learner produced variable utterances — *no look my card, don't look my card* — but, over a long period of time.

In explaining why second language use is distinctive and variable in nature, Romaine (2003) grouped possible explanations into two categories, namely internal variability and external variability. In the internal variability sub-group, Romaine included linguistic markedness to account for variation as it is claimed from research that second language learners are inclined to produce more target-like structures which are unmarked and less target-like structures that are marked. Keenan and Comrie (1977) had suggested that relative clauses, in general, tend to be mostly applied in the Subject position (the unmarked position), and least in the Object position (the marked position). Second language learners of English are found to produce relative clauses in the Subject position first and move towards the Object position as they develop their ability to use relative clauses, thus allowing for variability in producing relative clauses.

Language change is another explanation for interlanguage variability. Sociolinguists perceive variations in language as a reflection of the process of language change in that a new linguistic rule is implemented in a specific linguistic environment at the beginning and later spread gradually to others. Learner interlanguage is also likened to contact languages like 'pidgin' where they share simplified grammatical characteristics, for example, the omission of definite or indefinite article or the absence of 'be'. Schumann (1978a, cited in Myles and Mitchell, 2004, p.226) claimed that 'pidginisation may be a universal first stage in second language acquisition' and this factor of 'universal developmental constraints' is one factor that can explain variations in learner language. In addition to this, cross-linguistic influences or language transfer from the L1 is a source of variability. Studies of the acquisition of the article system by learners of different first languages generally point to faster progress among learners whose first languages possess an article system than those whose first languages do not (Romaine, 2003).

Explanations for external variability are basically sociolinguistic in nature and among those that Romaine (2003) included are differentiation in the way one uses a language which varies in style, task and is also dependent on the interlocutor, such as gender-based variation. In Young's (1991) study on plural –s marking, it was found that Chinese first language learners were also influenced by the interlocutor, whether Chinese or English, in marking plural–s on English nouns, as well as being influenced by linguistic elements, for instance the position of the noun in the Noun Phrase, the syntactic function of the noun and the phonological environment.

## 4.5 Explanations from Second Language Acquisition: The Universal Grammar Approach to Variability in L2 Acquisition

Universal Grammar (UG) is a linguistic theory that is primarily concerned with 'knowledge of language' or 'linguistic competence', that is, the subconscious mental representation of language that underlies all language use. Although it is not universally accepted as an explanation of first language acquisition, (White, 1989) it has received strong support in first language acquisition research and has been very influential in second language acquisition research (Mitchell and Myles, 2004).

UG offers an explanation to as to how children acquire language given the logical problem of language acquisition or language learning, whereby children are faced with underdetermination in the input they are exposed to or which they receive. In short, for children, linguistic properties are not immediately obvious, they are not explicitly taught, and the input does not provide negative evidence or evidence about ungrammaticality. Moreover, what children hear is speakers' performance which could be said to be degenerate as it can include the speaker's mistakes, for example false starts and slips of the tongue (see footnote 12).   Negative evidence is contrasted with positive evidence, which is provided by the utterances of other speakers that children hear. Take for example, questions (a) What

did Mary believe that John bought? And (b) *What did Mary believe the story that John bought? (White, 1989, p.13). How does a child learn that the later example is ungrammatical? Children may be informed and corrected by adults about the errors that they make but providing negative evidence to children is not always possible and if at all is not effective, as children seem to be oblivious to correction. L1 acquisition research points to the absence of corrections or feedback by adults when children make errors of grammatical form (Brown and Hanlon, 1970) and when they do get corrected, they pay no attention to it (Braine, 1971) .

A shortage of reliable negative evidence motivated the innate endowment argument. Generative grammar provides a solution to the logical problem of acquisition by proposing that an innate language faculty or device is present in all humans and this endowment controls and shapes human languages and makes languages similar to one another. Built into the language acquisition device (LAD) are specific linguistic components in the form of UG, which Chomsky (1981, 1986a, 1986b) called principles and parameters. UG constrains the types of analyses and determines the hypotheses that children make and prevents them from entertaining incorrect hypotheses. Principles are unvarying or constant and all languages are governed by principles that dictate the grammatical options available for analyses. This is the reason why children make fewer extensive errors than might be otherwise expected. But even though principles are universal, it does not follow that every principle is necessarily operational in every language. Parameters, on the other hand, have a limited number of options which depict the differences between languages. UG thus provides a 'genetic blueprint which determines in advance the shape which language will take' (Mitchell and Myles, 2004) and it provides an explanation for the similarities found in different world languages. Thus, for generativists, UG is a linguistic theory that explains the logical problem of language learning and its solution.

Following studies that addressed the logical problem of first language acquisition, research in second language acquisition found notable

similarities between L1 and L2 language learners. The logical problem of second language acquisition posits that L2 learners, too, have to build second language knowledge based on limited samples and fragmentary input that they encounter. Research has found that L2 learners, too, exhibit systematic development in the acquisition of English morphemes, as revealed by Bailey, Madden and Krashen (1974), Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974) and Hakuta (1976) who concluded that there is a natural order of acquisition of morphemes for L2 learners. Although their morpheme order is distinct from child L1 learners, there are similarities (and see e.g. Vainikka and Young-Scholten, 1994, on L1-L2 similarities with respect to German). L2 learners have also been seen to follow similar common stages to child L1 learners, while acquiring structures such as negatives and interrogatives. Children acquire negatives at more or less the same age and in the same fashion in all languages (Mitchell and Myles, 2004). For English negatives, they first position the negative marker outside of the sentence — *not a teddy bear* — for example; then the negative marker is inserted into the sentence, negators such as *don't* and *can't* are used as unitary items and negative commands may appear— *you can't dance*; *don't bite me yet* — and in the next stage, negators are always positioned in the sentence and the construction of negative sentences with the 'auxiliary + not' rule is introduced — *I don't have a book* (Klima and Bellugi, 1966; Cazden, 1972 in Ellis, 1994, p.78)

If L2 learners go through stages of development as do L1 learners, then logic would have it that UG could also explain L2 acquisition. But the L2 learners' situation is in some respect dissimilar from and more complicated than that of L1 learners. L2 learners are already competent in at least one language and they are also cognitively mature and are therefore presumably more enterprising in solving problems and capable of dealing with abstractions of ideas. They have different needs that drive them to learn a language. Considering these differing L2 learner factors, there are logical possibilities within the UG hypothesis that have been considered. Unlike L1 learners who always end up with correct grammar,

L2 learners generally do not seem to achieve complete success in L2 acquisition. Due to the complexity of second language acquisition, research has delved into the different roles of how UG interplays in the acquisition process. L2 learners have been observed to show certain characteristics:

- They do not produce 'wild grammars' (Goodluck, 1986 on L1 acquisition; White, 1989) which is the idea that the child does not produce grammar that violates UG, suggesting that their grammars are constrained by UG;

- Their grammars are not always like their L1 or L2, raising the possibility of other setting(s) than those operational in their L1 and L2;

- The resetting of some principles and parameters is easier than others while some seem to be impossible to reset (Mitchell and Myles, 2004).

These scenarios have given rise to a number of positions on the availability of UG in L2 learners, which follow in the next sections.


### 4.5.1. No access to UG

Children have been observed to be more successful language acquirers than adults. Immigrant children are generally found to acquire native-like competence more than their parents in their adopted countries. Johnson and Newport's (1989) study found that immigrants to the USA who arrived before the age of seven were more native-like in their judgements of some grammatical properties of English than those who were older on arrival. (The explanation of this is that there is a critical period for acquiring a language after which beyond early child development, UG is no longer available to adult second language learners (Clahsen and Musyken 1986, Schachter 1988b). Children's and adults' ultimate attainment in language acquisition is observed to be dissimilar. Normally,

children will always attain a complete knowledge of their native language while adults in acquiring an L2 rarely attain complete knowledge of the L2.

The Fundamental Difference Hypothesis (Bley-Vroman 1989, Schachter 1988) views that the mechanism underlying L2 acquisition is different from that of L1 acquisition, that the L2 learner's grammatical competence is different from the L1 learner. The UG-is-dead position assumes L2 grammar is not facilitated by UG but by knowledge which includes UG-type knowledge tapped from L1 grammar (Bley-Vroman 1989, Clahsen and Musyken 1989, Schachter 1988b). Research on the accessibility of UG is also concerned with which sub-components of UG might be available to L2 learners and what role L2 learners' L1 grammar play in language acquisition. L2 learners do not appear to produce grammars that violate principles, although their grammars are different from those of native speakers suggesting that they are UG-constrained. However, questions regarding the variability of attainment and fossilization in L2 learners and the success or failure of L2 input still remain unanswered (White, 1996, p.115).

### 4.5.2 Full access to UG

There are several positions on the full access to UG hypothesis.

Firstly, there is the full access /no transfer position. Proponents of the full access to UG hypothesis view UG as also accessible to L2 learners, children as well as adults. Flynn (1996) believes that there is no critical period and UG continues to operate in L2 acquisition. She found that Japanese L2 learners of English were able to reset the head-direction parameter (head-last Japanese to head-first English) and instantiate principles (e.g. Subjacency principle –wh-movement),and acquire functional categories that do not exist in Japanese. If an L2 learner can acquire principles and /or parameter settings in the L2 which are different from his/her L1, then UG is still operational in L2 acquisition. Flynn and

Manuel (1991) therefore reject the Critical Period hypothesis in L2 acquisition on the basis of evidence that adult L2 learners also possess grammatical knowledge that could not be acquired from input alone. Among other pieces of evidence, their knowledge has been shown to be structure-dependent and they produce original utterances which they have not been exposed to before.

White (1992) found that French L2 learners of English were able to determine the ungrammaticality of verb raising in English questions and negatives although they were not so accurate in adverb placement. Inflection in French is strong, that is to say that inflection can pass or rise past adverbs, negatives, etc. while in English inflection is weak. Yuan (2001) in his studies on parameter setting in inflections found that L2 learners, regardless of their L1 or proficiency level were able to make grammatical judgements on verb raising in Chinese (weak inflection) by French and English learners.

The full transfer/full access model hypothesizes that L2 learners have full access to the principles and parameters of UG (Schwartz and Sprouse, 1994, 1996). L2 learners are believed to transfer all their L1 grammar parameter-settings in an initial stage, i.e. the whole of the L1 grammar is set as the initial setting for L2 acquisition, but when the L2 parameter-settings do not match their L1 settings, some adjustments are made to initial hypotheses. L2 learners are believed to initially access UG through L1 and thereafter have direct access to UG to arrive at new hypotheses when the L2 input does not conform to the L1 settings. On the contrary, the full access/partial transfer (or full access/impaired early representations) model suggests that L2 learners at initial stage lack functional categories. Also known as the Minimal Trees approach, Vanikka and Young-Scholten (1996b, 1998) assert that the L2 learners begin with lexical categories that are transferred from their L1 but lack functional categories. Thereafter, the L2 learner builds structure developing functional categories but which are not from their L1 settings. In Eubank's (1996) Valueless Features both lexical and functional

categories are projected at an early stage but there is for a short period of time only lexical categories with functional categories playing the role of syntactic markers but lacking grammatical values such as tense and agreement.

The views held by the full access/full transfer and full access/partial transfer models are similar in that they claim that parameters can be reset.

### 4.5.3  *Partial access to UG*

This is the view that learners only have indirect access to UG. L2 learners are believed to access UG via their L1. Learners have access to principles and parameters that are set in their L1 values and are not able to reset parameters. So if they encounter parameters that are different from their L1 values, they will have to turn to general problem- solving mechanisms in order to internalize the second language input.

Schachter (1988) considers the possibility of learners having access to linguistic principles but not to all parameters, and as such L2 learners will not produce wild grammars as they are UG constrained; yet they are not able to acquire L2 parametric values that are not instantiated in their L1. Schachter (1996) claims that adult L2 learners do not have access to principles that are not operative their L1. In her study of Korean L2 learners of English on grammatical judgement tests of wh-movement, she found that learners failed to recognize wh-movement in English. Under the Subjacency principle, wh-movement is allowed across certain structural boundaries in English, Korean, on the other hand, does not have wh-movement. As they failed to recognize wh-movement in English, Schachter concludes that UG is not accessible to them when principles are not available in their L1. Schachter however raises the possibility of UG being available to child L2 learners, but they are restricted by a critical period for a successful acquisition of a second language.

## 4.6 The Endstate in Adult Language Acquisition

Since the last decade, current research in L2 acquisition has been aimed to address the variability in morphology in non-native language L2 acquisition. L2 learners have been observed to have persistent problems with nominal (gender and case) and verbal inflectional morphology (agreement, tense, aspect). Variable use of inflectional morphology is found even in advanced stages or in the endstate grammar (Lardiere, 1998a; 1998b) L2 learners' problem, particularly, in verbal inflectional morphology in which they either frequently omit inflections or inappropriately substitute inflection of one type with another (Wong and Muneera, 2011), raises the question of whether errors in inflectional morphology means that functional categories are impaired in L2 grammars (Haznedar, 2003). For some researchers, the presence of non-target-like inflections reflects some kind of deficiency in L2 adult underlying grammar. Inflectional errors are understood as evidence that L2 learners do not project functional categories or features (Eubank 1993/94, 1996; Eubank and Grace, 1998; Vanikka and Young-Scholten, 1994, 1996a, 1996b, 1998). This is the view of the Impairment Representation Hypothesis (IRH). According to Meisel (1997), UG is not available to adult L2 learners, hence, they do not make distinctions between finite and non-finite forms and L2 grammars are believed to 'suffer from a global impairment in the domain of abstract features' (Haznedar, 2003, p.140). Persistent verbal morphological errors in L2 grammars or interlanguage is believed to indicate that L2 acquisition is fundamentally different from L1 acquisition and with the difference in L1 and L2 grammars. Prévost and White's (2000b) contention is that if L1 and L2 grammars are not the same, then functional categories, features, and feature-checking mechanisms are lacking in L2 systems The local view of impairment advocated by Beck (1998) and Eubank *et al*. (1997) claims that feature strength is impaired, Functional categories are available but verb placement is not related to feature checking. According to Prévost, this

means that a verb whether finite or non-finite could be placed in a finite or a non-finite position resulting in morphological variability.

Contrary to IRH, there are researchers (Epstein *et.al.*, 1996; Prévost and White, 2000a, 2000b; Schwartz and Sprouse, 1996) who claim that L2 grammars are not impaired. They argue that abstract functional categories and features are available in  L2 grammars and the variability in inflectional morphology reflects the difficulties in realizing appropriate morphological forms at the surface level, that is, 'the problem lies in mapping from abstract features to their surface morphological manifestation' (Prévost and White, 2000, p.108).

## 4.7 Theories on Variability in Inflectional Morphology in L2 Acquisition

The Minimal Trees/ Structure Building or Weak Continuity hypothesis proposed by Vainikka and Young–Scholten (1994, 1996a, b, 1998) states that the missing inflectional forms evident in L2 acquisition indicate missing functional projections. From their series of studies of German L2 data from adult speakers of English, Korean, Turkish and Romance languages, they conclude that errorful or deficient morphological forms are manifestations of the lack of functional categories in the early stages of L2 acquisition. Subsequently, L2 learners posit functional projections, but, they are not from their L1. In Vainikka and Young-Scholten's view, to acquire functional categories, there must be production of modals, auxiliaries, subject-verb agreement and tense marking, production of yes/no questions with fronted auxiliary/ modal verbs, as well as, wh-questions with a fronted wh-phrase; and the use of embedded clauses with overt complementizers.  In other words, functional categories are directly related to the production of the overt production of overt or morphological forms or lexical elements (Haznedar, 2003).

Hawkins and Chan (1997) argue for the Failed Functional Features Hypothesis (FFFH) in which learners' interlanguage is restricted to the features and feature values that are available in their L1. They propose that any functional categories and their features which are required by the target language but not available in the L1 can no longer be acquired by adult L2 learners. Hawkins and Chan's study on English restrictive relative clauses by L1 Chinese speakers supports Tsimpli and Smith's (1991, 1995) theory that features of functional categories are not accessible to L2 adult learners. In fact, they propose that only functional categories features are subject to a critical period (Hawkins and Chan, 1997, p.188). Hawkins and Chan also propose that where the L2 specification of a functional feature is different or absent in the L1, L2 grammars can make a local adjustment and approximate to the target language grammar, resulting in the ability of L2 learners to produce target-like sentences. The FFFH predicts two possible effects of learning an L2 by post-critical period learners with differently fixed functional category features, L2 learners will produce 'morphonological forms from the L2 on to the L1 specifications' and 'L1 syntax with L2 lexical items' (Hawkins and Chan, 1997, p.216). The other effect is that continued exposure to the L2 will facilitate post-childhood learners' performance towards the target language and away from their L1, but according to Hawkins and Chan (1997, p.216) 'to do this, given that the differently fixed functional features are inaccessible, they will establish grammatical representations which diverge from those of native speakers, as well as from their own L1s, but which are nevertheless constrained by the principles of UG: 'possible grammars'. The FFFH is believed to provide a testable explanation of why many adult L2 learners 'never fully acquire the same syntactic representations as native speakers despite long exposure to a second language' (Hawkins and Chan, 1997, p.220; Coppieters, 1987, Johnson and Newport, 1991).

The Minimal Trees/Structure Building Hypothesis (Vainikka and Young-Scholten, 1994) and Full Transfer/Full Access (Schwartz and Sprouse,

1996) assume complete and direct access to UG by both younger and older learners but Hawkins and Chan (1997) contested the view that UG is entirely available to adult learners. Unlike Clahsen and Muysken (1986) the proponents of the Fundamental Difference Hypothesis (FDH) (Bley Vroman, 1990; Clahsen and Muysken, 1986), Hawkins and Chan's (1997) view on the accessibility of UG to L2 learners is that their grammars are also UG-constrained, but, UG is only partially available to adults, that is, only certain sub-components of UG are accessible, otherwise they are not accessible to L2 adult learners. The FFFH (Hawkins and Chan, 1997) also refers to the idea of a Representational Deficit (Hawkins, 2005) theorizing the idea that it is uninterpretable syntactic features rather than interpretable features that are problematic for L2 learners if they are not available in their L1. This idea, also referred to as the Interpretability Hypothesis (Hawkins and Hattori, 2006; Tsimpli and Dimitrakopoulou, 2007), distinguishes between interpretable features and uninterpretable features. Interpretable features are syntactic features that are used in the semantic computation to determine the meaning of syntactic expressions. They remain active in the syntax-semantic interface (for example, tense, aspect, definiteness, etc.). Uninterpretable features are formal and grammatical features and are not usable by the semantic component (Snape *et al.*, 2009). They are only responsible for movement of constituents in the narrow syntax for which they have to be checked and deleted before that interface (e.g. case) (Amaro *et al.*, 2012). Amaro *et al.* (2012) provide examples of both interpretable and uninterpretable features — agreement features (person, number and in some languages, gender) — where features are interpretable on the subject but uninterpretable on the verb that must agree with the subject. Specifically, the Interpretability Hypothesis postulates that uninterpretable features that are not represented in the L1 are obscured in adult L2 acquisition, suggesting that there is a locus for fossilization or the loss of ability for acquisition beyond the critical period (Hawkins and Hattori, 2006).

Beyond the critical period, the uninterpretable features are said to be inaccessible for any form of modification except for those that are already available via the L1 grammar. Because L2 grammars lack uninterpretable features, L2 learners are believed to have only partial access to UG (Hawkins *et al*., 2002; Hawkins and Liska, 2003; Hawkins and Franceschina, 2004; Hawkins and Hattori, 2006; Hawkins *et al*., 2008).

Under the FFFH, Hawkins (2001) posits that the L2 learner's initial state does not include the entire knowledge of the L1. At the initial point the L2 learner is assumed to have only lexical projection but syntactic structure will be gradually built up. However, the development of the L2 learner's syntactic projection is restrained by his or her L1. So, functional projection can only take place when functional categories and features can be drawn from the L2 learner's L1.

Like the FFFH (Hawkins and Chan, 1997) the Minimal Trees/Structure Building hypothesis assumes that the learner's L2 grammars begin with lexical projection. Vainikka and Young-Scholten rebranded The Minimal Trees/Structure Building or the Weak Continuity Hypothesis (Vainikka and Young-Scholten, 1994, 1996a, b, 1998) as the Organic Grammar (Vainikka and Young-Scholten, 2005) which posits that only lexical categories transfer from L1 to L2 initial state and that functional categories and properties that are dependent on them, such as verb raising, do not transfer. But unlike the FFFH, Organic Grammar (Vainikka and Young-Scholten 2005; 2007), also theorizes that the building of L2 syntactic structure is constrained by UG in interaction with primary linguistic data. On the basis of verb raising (Vainikka and Young-Scholten, 2009), they argue against the partial UG availability that the FFFH advocates (Hawkins and Chan, 1997; Hawkins and Hattori, 2006).

Gill (2003) carried out a study on the acquisition of English Tense and Agreement Morphology by L1 Malay and L1 Chinese Speakers. A grammaticality judgement task, comprising 16 correctly inflected items with thematic and copula/auxiliary 'be' verb forms and 32 incorrectly

inflected items, was designed to test the learners' underlying knowledge of tense and agreement morphology in English. The test results revealed that overall both groups did not have difficulty with the grammatical items as they were also accurate in their judgement of the grammatical auxiliary 'be' and copula 'be' (with adjective) items with scores of over 90%. However, they did not perform well in the ungrammatical items as they were not able to judge accurately and reject the ungrammatical items to a native-like level. Wong noted that the Malay group specifically had difficulty with ungrammatical items with omission of non-past third person singular morpheme with thematic verbs, and ungrammatical items with non-past third person singular morpheme with a plural subject, Wong (2012, p.11) observed that 'the L1 Malay speakers were indeterminate in their judgement of these items even at a higher level of competence'. She resolved that her findings were concurrent with the FFFH (Hawkins and Chan, 1997) which claims that post-childhood L2 learners are not able to acquire functional features that have not been instantiated in the learners' L1 (see also Kang, 2002). Wong explained that the learners' acquisition of tense and agreement in English is due to the under-specification of these features in Chinese and Malay, hence the lack of formal features of parameterized [±past], [±finite] and [±agreement]. Wong also recognized that the results also indicated that some learning has taken place with respect to surface morphology associated with English functional categories and their associated features of Tense and Agreement but learners had difficulty with the underlying representation of these features as shown in their performance for the ungrammatical items.

Unlike proponents of the IRH (Hawkins, 2001; Hawkins and Chan, 1997; Hawkins and Hattori, 2006; Vainikka and Young-Scholten, 1994, 1996a, b, 1998, 2005), some researchers (Epstein *et al*., 1996; Prévost and White 2000a, b; Schwartz and Sprouse 1996), suggest that adult L2 interlanguage is not impaired. Under the IRH view, non-target-like inflectional suffixes are taken as evidence that L2 learners do not project functional categories. UG is not available to (adult) L2 learners (Meisel, 1997) according to the

global impairment view and under the local view of impairment, functional categories associated with feature strength is permanently impaired in L2 learners (Beck 1998; Eubank *et al*., 1997), even if they acquire overt agreement morphology (Haznedar and Schwartz, 1997). To proponents of the Missing Surface Inflection Hypothesis (MSIH), inflection is assumed to be absent only at the surface level rather than at the abstract level. The problem is mapping between abstract features and surface morphological forms (Prevost and White, 2000b). This means that it is possible to have a lexical item produced with some of its features missing or only partly specified. Based on this assumption, the underlying syntactic representation in interlanguage grammars is correct, but the surface functional morphology is 'errorful' due to mapping problems in production. The difficulty in producing target-like overt forms is attributed to processing reasons or pressure in communication, causing performance limitations (Prévost and White, 2000, p.129) in 'accessing the relevant lexical items by which inflection is realized, particularly when speaking' (White, 2010, p.9).

Haznedar and Schwartz (1997), who studied data from L1 Turkish child learning English, found evidence of accurate agreement when it occurred and use of finite and non-finite forms. They argue against the Optional Infinitive (OI) (Wexler, 1994) phenomenon in which children's main clauses show variability during L1's acquisition in the presence of a finite or a non-finite main verb. OIs are structurally determined: when the child uses non-finite forms in place of finite ones, these are indeed non-finite and are found in structural positions typical of finite verbs. 'Variation in the use of finiteness, then, is not random' (Prévost and White, 2000, p.106). Wexler (1994) accounted the OI stage as Tense being underspecified whereas Hoekstra *et al*. (1997) said it is Number that is underspecified. Haznedar and Schwartz (1997) found some evidence associated with the OI stage, such as the occurrence of null subjects and ungrammatical use of Case. They concluded that there is no evidence of a syntactic deficit, for example under specification of Tense, in the English

of their subject. The child's non-finite morphology specifies missing inflection at the surface level rather than at the abstract feature level.

Prévost and White's (2000) longitudinal study on spontaneous data obtained from four adult L2 learners — two Morrocan-Arabic learners of French and two Spanish and Portuguese learners of German — also found variability in morphology. They reported that finite and non-finite forms were found (Prévost, 1997; Prévost and White, 1999) and considering data as a whole, the incidence of finite forms in non-finite contexts was very low. As in Prévost and White (1999), where incidence of non-finite verb forms in finite contexts was evident, Prévost and White (2000) found that the incidence of non-finite verbs in finite contexts was much higher than the incidence of finite verbs in non-finite contexts for three of the four subjects. They stated that non-finite forms occur in both non-finite and finite positions but finite forms were largely limited to finite (raised) positions. In verb placement and negation, they confirmed the systematic placement of finite verbs before the negator (in French and German) by the subjects and this shows that movement occurred. This, they say, shows that learners know features and feature strength are involved in raising and checking.  Their study supports MSIH which assumes that 'syntactic consequences of finiteness are known to learners' (ibid, p.119). Consequently, finite forms are associated with finite features and appear in raised positions while non-finite forms occur in non-finite contexts and in finite contexts but as the default form. On verbal agreement where they looked at person and number inflection on the verb and whether agreement was correct  with the appropriate subject, that is, whether a form, if it was inflected, showed agreement accurately. They focused on the accuracy of the agreement when it was present and not on whether the subject was found with an agreeing verb form (as in Meisel, 1991). Meisel (1991) looked for subjects and then checked whether the verb was in appropriate agreement with the subject. Meisel (1991) found that there were not many verbs that showed agreement with the subject. Prévost and White (2000), on the other hand, found that there was accurate use of

inflectional marking with a rate of about 95%; agreement was found to be largely accurate when an inflected form was used. The MSIH claims that non-finite forms that occur in finite forms are actually the finite default forms rather than incorrect agreement. L2 learners are believed to have abstract knowledge of non-finiteness/finiteness and agreement but are not able to access the appropriate surface forms from the lexicon, hence the use of the default forms.

Lardiere (1998a, 1998b) had also found irregularity in the production of inflectional morphology although syntactic representations of English verbs such as nominative case assignment and lack of thematic verb-raising were intact by an adult Chinese L2 English learner. Patty's production of past tense and third person singular morphology on thematic verbs were low but Patty's representation is taken to include functional categories of tense and agreement and the lack of them in their production does not signify otherwise.

Lardiere's (2000) study showed Patty producing appropriately inflected 'be' forms but hardly any –s inflection. This suggested Patty's mastery of the suppletive agreement morpheme, as she has an agreement feature-checking mechanism. Her omission of the affix –s inflection was explained by the learner's L1 phonological constraint (Lardiere, 2007) whereby Chinese disallows word final consonant clusters (e.g. tal**ks**) which are often found in English inflected main verbs. Uninflected forms or bare forms produced may also be the result of the tendency of *t/d* deletion in past tense markings (e.g. passed) rather than in bare forms (e.g. past) by native speakers of English.  The point made by Lardierre in her studies (Ladiere, 1998a, b, 2000, 2007) is that L2 learners do not have difficulty in acquiring L2 functional categories but they do have difficulty in mapping surface inflection with abstract features. Hence, L2 learners use the bare forms as the default forms where the inflected forms are required. The absence of verbal inflectional morphology does not mean that there is impairment in a learner's interlanguage.

Studies carried out by Lardiere (1998a; 1998b) and Prévost and White (2000; 1999) showed that tense and agreement morphology remain variable in an end-state L2 English grammar, and that in their later study on L2 French and L2 German, non-finite forms never disappear. According to Prévost and White (2000, p.129) underspecified forms continue to surface because 'access to the more fully specified lexical entries is sometimes blocked'.

In another study, Haznedar (2003) analyzed child L2 data of L1 Turkish–speaking child, Erdem, who started learning English at 4.0, and adult L2 data of an English-speaking adult learning Turkish.  The child's data which were collected longitudinally over a period of 18 months consist of 46 recordings. The adult data were spontaneously obtained from John over a period of 5 months and consist of 6 recordings. Results from Haznedar's (2003) study showed that for overt subject and nominative subject pronouns, almost all of Erdem's pronominal subjects were nominative tense marking. For subject–verb agreement and tense marking for irregular past and regular past tense, Erdem's development of the third person singular and use of past tense is gradual (Haznedar, 2001). Haznedar argued that missing agreement and tense marking in early L2 data do not indicate a syntactic deficit in the learners' interlanguage. John's results revealed a high suppliance rate for past tense and subject–verb agreement but the suppliance rate in Case morphology in Turkish is low. But, although he produced many non-Case-marked sentences, 'all subjects consistently appear in nominative form in the data [...] The presence of native-like agreement morphology and nominative subjects suggests that this adult L2 learner of Turkish has nominative Case checking as an abstract syntactic operation' (Haznedar, 2003, p.148). Haznedar (ibid.) argued that absence or lack of functional categories in L2 grammars should not be considered evidence for the absence of associated functional categories.

Geckin and Haznedar (2008) provided further evidence in support of MSIH. The study investigated the distribution of the copula 'be', subject–

verb agreement (third person singular –s), irregular and regular tense marking, overt subjects, and nominative subject pronouns in obligatory contexts. The data obtained from three Turkish-speaking children learning English revealed that although they produced a high suppliance of uninflected verb forms, they never use agreement morphemes for inappropriate tense, person or number. They also showed that these children were more productive in the use of 'be' forms than in the use of main verb inflection. Haznedar (2001), in a case study of an L1 Turkish-speaking child learning English also found that the copula 'be' forms were produced accurately over 90% of the time after 4 months of exposure whereas inflectional tense morphemes were produced less than 75% correctly in context, after 17 months of exposure. The lack of inflectional verbal morphology is taken as an indication of the absence of surface realization of inflectional morphology and not a representation of syntactic impairment in early L2 grammar.

Wong and Muneera (2011) carried out a study which investigates the acquisition of the 'be' auxiliary form and thematic verb constructions in non-past contexts by adult Arab L2 learners of English. In their study, the researchers conducted an oral production task (a picture-based task in which learners had to narrate the story using the verbs and phrases given under each picture) with 77 adult Arab English L2 learners who were sub-divided into three levels of proficiency (lower intermediate, upper intermediate and advanced). The main finding of this study was that the adult Arab L2 learners of English 'were more sensitive to the thematic-verb constructions than to the 'be' auxiliary constructions' (ibid., p.91). On grammatically inflected items (GI) of the auxiliary *be* and thematic verb inflectional morphemes in non-past [-past] contexts — the third person singular-agreement morpheme –s —, the results showed that the learners performed better on the thematic verb constructions than on the 'be*'* auxiliary verb (*is, am, are*) constructions. The performance of the advanced learners on GI [-past] thematic verb constructions stabilized at 74.00% while the upper and lower intermediate groups were at 60.28%

and 44.14% respectively. On the correct use of GI [-past] 'be' auxiliary constructions, the groups' scores were lower; 60.00% for the advanced group, 30.00% for the upper intermediate group and 14.89% for the lower intermediate group. In terms of Omission items (OI), the data of their study revealed that the morpheme omission was greater for the [-past] 'be' auxiliary forms, 27.56%, than for the non-past tense third person agreement morpheme –s, 25.89%. The advanced learners were observed to make a lower number of omissions of morphemes compared to the other two groups with 10.00% for the OI [-past] 'be' auxiliary and 4.00% for the OI [-past] thematic verbs. The upper intermediate group's score were 23.33% for the OI [-past] 'be' auxiliary and 25.53% for the OI [-past] thematic verbs. The lowest intermediate had the highest scores, i.e., 40.43% for the OI [-past] 'be' auxiliary and 33.79% for the OI [-past] thematic verbs. Wrongly inflected items (WI) were also taken into account whereby wrongly inflected items in obligatory contexts in which –s was used with any subject other than the third person singular , and the 'be' auxiliary forms are used for inappropriate  person, number and tense. Results showed that all groups appeared to produce fewer errors (WI) in the use of non-past third person singular agreement morpheme –s than in the non-past 'be' auxiliary verb forms. The advanced group's score for the –s morpheme was 22.00%, while the upper intermediate group's was 14.16% and the lower intermediate group 22.07%. These scores were lower compared to the scores for the production of WI in the non-past 'be' auxiliary verb forms — 30.00% for the advanced group, 46.67% for the upper intermediate group and 44.68% for the lower intermediate group. Their overall results, showing better performance in thematic verb construction than 'be' auxiliary construction, are in contrast to those of Haznedar (2001), but from their findings, Wong and Muneerah (2011) summarized that 'the functional categories and features of non-past T[ense] and Agr[eement] including the *be* auxiliary verbal inflection (*am, is, are*) and the thematic verb inflection *(-s)* are available to L2 learners  even at the lower intermediate state of L2 acquisition (either from the L1 or from UG) […] There is an observed gradual development in L2 acquisition

where it is possible for L2 learners to attain native-like proficiency of the target language as they and their L2 mature over time' (Muneerah,2011, p.101). Lending support to MSIH, they claimed that functional categories and features are accessible to L2 learners but failure to produce the obligatory inflectional morphology overtly is because of the complexity in mapping between surface forms and underlying abstract features.  They concluded that the adult Arab L2 learners of English have full access to UG, as advocated by the MSIH, even in the initial stage but parameter setting takes time.

A similar study of agreement and tense morphology of three English morphemes — the third person singular –s, the regular past tense –ed, and the copula 'be' by L1 Chinese-speaking learners (Chinese does not have subject–verb agreement and tense marking ) — was carried out by Hsieh (2008). Predictions made on the production of non-finite forms to replace finite forms in verbal inflections *(*–s and –ed) and better performance in copula 'be' than in verbal inflections were confirmed. The omission of verbal inflections was in line with the MSIH (Prévost and White, 2000) where the problem is due to the realization of surface morphology, and the forms of copula 'be' are acquired before inflectional morphology on *in situ* thematic verbs.

It must be clarified here that, although this study is about the morpho-syntactic competence of two groups of adult L2 Malay speakers of English rather than a study on testing any hypothesis about the initial and final state of the speakers, the discussion on generative theories of grammatical acquisition which are represented here provides better insights into how second language researchers have been trying to explain the acquisition of formal features.

## 4.8 Malay and English Grammatical Features Compared

The similarities and differences between English and Malay are not the pivotal point of this study but giving a description of how the grammatical features studied in this research are manifested in Malay helps towards a better understanding of the linguistic issues raised.

The grammar features that I have analyzed in the spoken data are:

- Null subjects

- Tense

- Aspect

- Subject–verb agreement

- Articles

- Plurals


### 4.8.1 Null subjects

Radford defines a null subject language as 'a language which allows any finite clause to have a null *pro* subject' (Radford, 2009, p.469). English is a non-null subject language as it requires each of its finite clauses to have an overt subject.

However, there are exceptions where English allows the subject to be dropped. Radford (2009, p.93) listed three different types of null subjects. The imperative null subject in imperative sentences is one type. For example:

> (4.54)  Don't *you* lose your nerve!
>          Don't *pro* lose your nerve!

Radford calls the pronoun which is deleted or omitted here 'null spellout' (Radford, 2009, p.93).

The second type is called a 'truncated null subject'. This means that a sentence is shortened when the subject pronoun is deleted with the condition that the subject pronoun is the first word of the sentence. This type of sentence is commonly found in informal spoken English as well as the diary style of written English. Examples of truncated null subject sentences are:

(4.55)  I don't think so.
   *pro* don't think so.

(4.56)  I can't find it.
   *pro* can't find it.

(4.57)  I am not too sure.
   *pro* not too sure.

Radford reminds us that not all sentences with initial subjects can be truncated and why this is so is still 'unclear' (Radford, 2009, p.93).

(4.58)  She is pretty.

   * is pretty.

The third type is what Radford describes as a 'nonfinite null subject' which is found in non-finite clauses and does not have an overt subject. Non-finite clauses contain verbs that are not marked by tense and agreement, and overt subjects may not be present in them.  The examples given by Radford include main clauses (4.56) and complement clauses (bracketed in 4.57 and 4.58) such as

(4.59)  Why worry?

(4.60)  I want [to go home]

(4.61)  and I like [playing tennis]

Malay, on the other hand, is a null subject language. It allows both referential and expletive null pronominals (Kader, 1981; Muysken, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 2010).

Take for instance, the sentences below:

(4.62)  Speaker A:

Suka    tak                          makan   ayam
tandoori?
Ø Like     not [−question marker] eat          chicken
tandoori?
'Do you like to eat tandoori chicken?'


Speaker B:

Suka.
Ø Like.
'I like it'.


(4.63)  Sekarang       hujan terlalu   lebat, jadi      tak dapat
pergi.
Now        Ø    rain    too       heavy, so   Ø  cannot
go.
'Now, it is raining too heavily, so I cannot go'.


(4.64)  Motorsikal  tak  sepatutnya  berada di lorong  tengah
melainkan                   motorsikal   besar.
Motorcycle not  should      be    at   lane    middle
prefix +except+suffix     motorcycle  big.
'Motorcycles should not be in the middle lane except big
Motorcycles'.


The following sections, instead of describing the entire English tense and aspect system, I will highlight how concepts of time are manifested in the Malay language and then will refer to English. Note that tense 'relates to time' while aspect 'has to do with the internal structure of the action occurring *at any time*' (Celce-Murica and Larsen-Freeman 1999, p.118).

The English tense-aspect system is more complex than in Malay. The table below from Celce-Murcia and Larsen Freeman (1999, p.118) displays the 12 combinations of tense and aspect English is said to possess. Celce-Murcia and Larsen Freeman pointed out that the 12 'tenses' are in actual fact the 12 combinations of tense and aspect; note that strictly speaking,

future is not a tense in English, but is instead marked by use of the modal 'will' (see below).

**Table 4.6: Combinations of English tenses and aspect (Adapted from Celce-Murcia and Larsen Freeman, 1999, p.118)**

|  | Simple | Perfect | Progressive | Perfect progressive |
|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | Ø | have + -en | be + -ing | have + -en  be + -ing |
| Present | write/writes | has/have written | am/is/are writing | has/have  been writing |
|  | walk/walks | has/have walked | am/is/are walking | has/have been walking |
| Past | Wrote | had written | was/were writing | had  been writing |
|  | Walked | had walked | was/were walking | had been walking |
| Future | will write | will  have written | will be writing | will have been writing |
|  | will walk | will  have walked | will be walking | will have been walking |

The following section explores how tense and aspect are signified in Malay.

### 4.8.2 *Tenses*

### 4.8.2.1 *Simple present tense*

Hirtle (1967) as cited in Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999, p.112) clarifies that the simple present indicates events that are 'complete wholes'. In other words, they are events that are on-going or continuous. Malay holds a similar concept.  Consider the sentences below:

> (4.65) Dia          berbasikal   ke  pejabatnya        setiap    hari.
>       He/She prefix +bicycle    to  office his/her   each/every day.
>       'He/She cycles to his/her office each/every day'.

> (4.66) Matahari   terbit  di timur  dan    terbenam      di barat.
>       Sun        rise    at east   and    prefix + set   at west
>       'The sun rises in the east and sets in the west'.

In sentence 4.65 the simple present tense is used for showing habitual actions in the present whereas in sentence 4.66, the sentence exemplifies a general timeless fact or a true notion.

We know that in English, in a simple present tense sentence, the rule requires that the lexical verb be inflected when the subject of the sentence is a first person singular. Malay does not inflect its lexical verb in any condition and noun number is irrelevant. That is, Malay does not mark subject–verb agreement.

The Malay lexical verb may either be in its root form or it may accommodate some form of affixation.

The word *berbasikal* 'cycle' in 4.62 takes the prefix *ber* while *terbenam* in sentence 4.65 has *ter* as its prefix. *Terbit* in this sentence is a root word.

The prefix *ber* in 4.65 is what Asmah (2009, pp.143–144) classifies as *ber* which signifies the notions of to use, to have or to wear. This prefix when formed with nouns for things and animals will become a verb with semantic notions as mentioned. So, *ber* + *basikal* (prefix + noun) become *berbasikal*, meaning, cycling. Likewise, *ber* + *kuda* 'horse' become *berkuda* which means riding a horse.

Likewise, in other conditions where the English simple present tense applies (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p.113) the Malay equivalents of these notions are expressed simply using lexical verbs in their base or affixed forms.

- With 'be' and other stative verbs (is/are; e.g. know, want, like).

- With future marking in a main clause (e.g. When he receives some money, he will pay you).

- To express the future (e.g. I have a date this coming weekend).

- To describe procedures or present event in sports (e.g. I add in butter; and the whistle blows).

- To present speech acts and hence the action is accomplished at the moment of speaking (e.g. You're fired!).

- To refer to certain past events in narrations/conversational historical present (e.g. At that time, I feel so lost).

### 4.8.2.2  Simple past tense

The core meaning of the simple past tense is 'a sense of remoteness' and its function too is to express facts (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p.113). This 'sense of remoteness' can be a feeling of an action or event that is completed or is done and the event is as remote or as recent in time. It can also be a hypothetical event.

Respective examples are as follows:

> (4.67)   Malaya obtained independence in 1957.

> (4.68)   He won a prize!

> (4.69)   If she took the bus, she would be late.

In all the uses of the past tense in English  which include to describe an event in the past, a habitual action or event in the past or an event with duration in the past but which no longer applies in the present,  these past tense concepts in Malay are expressed using lexical verbs which are uninflected. However, depending on contexts, an adverb of time may be added. Otherwise, the sentence is understood in the context it is spoken of or about.

Take for example:

> (4.70)  Hamid   menjual       rumahnya   pada 1984.
>          Hamid  prefix + sell    house  his   at    1984.
>          'Hamid sold his house in 1984'.

(4.71) Dia    menjualnya         setelah isterinya meninggal
       dunia.
       He/She prefix+sell+suffix it   after   wife his  prefix+left
       world (literal translation) i.e. passed away.
       'He/She sold it after his wife passed away'.


In the Malay sentence 4.70, the past event is indicated by a time marker. The second sentence in 4.71, although without a time marker, is still a past tense sentence and it is understood as such contextually.

The verb *men*jual stems from the prefix *men* + the verb *jual* meaning 'sell'. The verb *meninggal* is derived from the prefix *men + tinggal* with a spelling change in which 't' is dropped.

In English, 'sold' is the past tense of the irregular verb 'sell'. 'Passed' in the second sentence is the inflected past tense of the regular verb 'pass'. In Malay, such inflections do not occur.


### 4.8.2.3 Futurity

In English, the future is marked in various ways which relates to future events 'cannot be factually knowable' (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p.115). 'Will' is used for strong predictions and among its uses are when we want to describe an action that is to take place at a definite time in the future and a future habitual action. There are many other situations where 'will' with a strong predictability core meaning applies (cf. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999; Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973).

'Is going to' is another form used for a future action in English.

(4.72)   We will take the children for a holiday this year.

(4.73)   He is going to watch a movie next Saturday.

Malay uses the word *akan* to indicate an action in the future and this word applies for all situations to express actions in the future.

(4.74)  Kami akan pergi    bercuti             pada hujung tahun ini
        We   will go       prefix +holiday  at   end    year this.
        'We will go for a holiday at the end of this year'.


(4.75)  Dia     akan  pergi ke Jepun  dua minggu lagi.
        He/She  will/is go    to Japan  two week   more.
        'He/She is going to Japan in two more weeks'.

In sentence 4.74, the word *akan* 'will' is added to *pergi* 'go' + *bercuti* (prefix *ber + cuti* 'holiday') making use of a serial verb. Likewise, in sentence 4.75, *akan* is simply positioned in front of the verb *pergi* 'go'. There is no inflection in Malay verbs to mark the future.

Alternatively, apart from using *akan*, adverbs of time are used to mark a future intention.

(4.76)  Kita      pergi   esok.
        We        go      tomorrow.
        'We will go tomorrow'.


(4.77)  Nanti     saya masak  kari    ayam.
        Later     I    cook    curry   chicken.
        'I will cook chicken curry later'.


### 4.8.3 *Aspect*

### 4.8.3.1 *Perfect aspect*

Quirk and Greenbaum (1985, p.188) refer to aspect as 'a grammatical category which reflects the way in which a verb action is regarded or experienced with respect to time'. Aspect is not like tense in that the former is 'not relative to the time of utterance' (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1985). This reference to time is what Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999, p.115) relates the 'core meaning' of the 'perfect', that is "prior", to.

The perfect aspect is thus used 'in relation to some other point in time' (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p.115). So, they explain, 'the

present perfect is used retrospectively to refer to a time prior to now' (ibid.) and the example given is:

(4.78)   Have you done your homework?

The past perfect refers to a 'retrospective point of view on some past time' (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman 1999, p.115) as in:

(4.79)   He had left before I arrived.

and the future perfect — a 'retrospective point of view on some future time' (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman 1999, p.115). For instance:

(4.80)   Nina will have finished all her chores by the time we get
there.

In Malay, only sentences 4.78. and 4.79. are plausible, that is to say, it is possible to construct sentences like 4.78 and 4.79. Sentences 4.81 and 4.82 below illustrate this point.  In these sentence *telah* and *sudah* are used to signify what would be marked by the present and past perfect aspect in English.

(4.81)   Sudahkah awak   menghabiskan              kerjarumah?
         Already    you     prefix +finish+ suffix    homework?
         'Have you done your homework?'

(4.82)   Dia        telah/    sudah pergi       sebelum saya  tiba.
         He/She   already   left/gone              before    I      arrive.
          'He/She had left/gone before I arrived'.

However, sentences which use 'will' and perfect aspect as in 4.80 are not possible in Malay. This is explained below:

(4.83)   Nina  will    have          finished        all     her   chores
         by the time   we     get      there.
          Nina   akan telah/sudah    menghabiskan semua nya  kerja
         apabila  masa  kita  tiba      di sana.
         * 'Nina akan telah/sudah menghabiskan semua kerjanya
          apabila kita tiba di sana'.

It is ungrammatical to have *akan* 'will' with *telah* or *sudah* — the two words to mark the perfect aspect in Malay which literally mean 'already'. The notion of a future time in a retrospective point of view as conceptualized in the English sentence 4.80 above is not present in Malay. As there is a strong predictability that Nina will get her chores done — this is indicated by the use of modal 'will to indicate future — the closest interpretation to the intended meaning of sentence 4.80 is to employ the adverb *telah* to mark a perfective aspect preceded by the adjective *pasti* which conjures the perception of certainty or sureness.

(4.84)  Nina will have finished all her chores by the time
         we get there.
        'Nina pasti telah/sudah menghabiskan semua kerjanya apabila
         kita tiba di sana'.

Although *telah* is often used to indicate a perfect aspect, there are situations when it cannot be applied; instead an alternative word — an adverb of time — like *baharu* is needed.

Take for example in expressing a very recently completed action with 'just':

(4.85)  Dia    baharu sahaja   menghabiskan      kerjarumah-nya.
        He/She just    only  prefix+finish+suffix homework his/her.
        'He/She has just finished his/her homework'.

Otherwise, the sentence can be expressed in another way with a time marker added as in:

(4.86)  Dia    telah    menghabiskan     kerjarumahnya sebentar
        tadi.
        He/she already prefix+finish+suffix homework his/her just
        now.
        'He/She has finished his/her homework just now'.

Consider a sentence with a conditional in the subordinate clause which refers to the past such as:

(4.87) *Jika Adam telah berlari    lebih pantas, dia tentu    akan
dapat   mengejar    bas  itu.
 If  Adam  had  prefix+run  more  fast,   he definitely will
can   prefix+catch  bus  that.
Jika Adam berlari lebih pantas, dia tentu akan dapat
mengejar bas itu.
'If Adam had run faster he would have caught that/the bus'.

The word *telah* cannot be utilized. Instead, the word *berlari*, which is not marked for tense but understood as a past event contextually, and *tentu* meaning 'definitely', preceding *akan,* are used.

Asmah (2013) captures six stages of time in Malay.

**Table 4.7: Stages of time in Malay aspect verbs (Asmah, 2013, p.52)**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Action in waiting | Progressive action | Non-progressive action | Action done | Action completed | Experienced |

Asmah (2013, p.52) describes action in waiting (inchoactivity) as referring to the notion of the beginning of an action is captured by the word *belum* ('not yet') or *akan* ('shall') as in for instance, *belum datang* ('not yet come') and *akan datang* ('shall come'). Progressive action is encapsulated in the words *sedang* and *tengah* to mean 'in the process of' like in *sedang buat* or *tengah buat* ('in the process of doing'): For non- progressive action *masih* ('in the state of') is used as in this example, *masih buat* ('in the state of doing'). Asmah differentiates between an action done and an action completed using *telah* ('done'), like in *telah buat* ('done') for the former, and *sudah* ('completed') for the latter as in *sudah buat* ('done and completed').

### 4.8.3.2  *Progressive aspect*

Progressive aspect is imperfective; that is, it has a meaning that an event or an action is allowed to be incomplete or restricted in some way. This core meaning can be understood when an event of a temporary nature is

contrasted with an ongoing state, and, how a simple tense is employed in generic statements when the progressive aspect is specific. Compare the sentences below:

> (4.88)   Jason is living in Madrid.
>           Jason lives in Madrid.
> (4.89)   Kids play in the park.
>           Kids are playing in the park (in front of my house).
>
>           (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999, pp.116–117)

English has a combination of the present tense, past tense and future marking with progressive aspect. Hence, we have the present progressive (or present continuous) of several environments as in for instance:

a)   Activity in progress

> (4.90)   Aisya is talking on the phone now.

b)   Extended present where the action will end and this means that it is temporary

> (4.91)   Danial is taking part in the reality show *Fulfil Your Dream*.

In both contexts above, in Malay *sedang* is applied to express this sense of incompleteness or an ongoing process as in sentence 4.92:

> (4.92) Aisya      sedang    bercakap          di telefon   sekarang.
>         Aisya      prog      prefix + talk     at telephone now.
>         'Aisya is talking on the telephone now'.

However, there are situations when *sedang* cannot be used where a verb + -ing form would be used in English to indicate the future. (4.93) can only refer to the present

> (4.93) *Aflin   sedang datang.
>          Aflin   prog   come.
>          'Aflin is coming'.

English sentences which include an adverb of time make this clearer as in the following sentence is another context where *sedang* cannot be used along with *esok* (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p. 117).

> (4.94) *Dia      sedang  datang  esok.
>         He/She       prog    come  tomorrow.
>         'He/She is coming tomorrow'.

Instead, the Malay would be: *Dia datang esok.*
The root word of the verb dating suffices in this context. Alternatively, *akan*, that is, 'will' to convey the future can also be used.

> (4.95)  Dia datang esok.

> (4.96)  Dia akan datang esok.

Similarly in English sentences that convey a change in progress — 'She is becoming more and more beautiful' — *sedang* cannot be applied in the Malay translation for this sentence.

> (4.97) * Dia     sedang menjadi   semakin          cantik.
>           She    prog    become   more and more  beautiful.
>           'She is becoming more and more beautiful'.

Instead, the grammatical Malay is *Dia semakin cantik.*

### 4.8.3.3 Past progressive and future progressive

Once again, the word *sedang* is used to indicate the progressive aspect in Malay but it cannot always be used in the past or future. There is no way to express progressive aspect in the future; *akan tidur* is used to mean 'will sleep'. There is one exception, where the past progressive in English is used to describe a past action which is simultaneous with another event that is stated in the simple past.

> (4.98)  Dia      sedang tidur bilan seseorang  mengetuk      pintu
>          He/She  was    sleep when someone    prefix+knock door
>          'He/She was sleeping when someone knocked on the door'.

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So, *sedang telah tidur* (was sleeping) is not possible in Malay.

Another plausible environment in which *sedang* may be exercised is when describing an action in progress at a specific time in the past as in:

> (4.99)  Saya  sedang  memandu        ke pasar    pada pukul  7.30
> pagi tadi.
> I      prog     prefix+drive   to market   at     o'clock 7.30
> morning this (time marker).
> 'I was driving to the market at 7.30 this morning'.

In other environments, *sedang* cannot be used.

For example, when describing a repetition of some ongoing past action:

> (4.100)  *Yusuf  sedang mengerang     dalam kesakitan
> sepanjang   hari   semalam.
> Yusuf  prog   prefix+groan  in     prefix+pain+suffix
> all  long    day   yesterday.
> 'Yusuf was groaning in pain all day long yesterday'.

The sentence in (4.101) refers to an action that will be in progress at a specific time in the future:

> (4.101) *Dia     akan sedang terbang ke  Bali  pada  11.00  esok
> pagi
> He/She will prog    fly    to Bali  at    11.00  tomorrow
> morning
> 'He/She will be flying to Bali at 11.00 tomorrow morning'.

In sentence 4.101 above, the simple tense and the future marking are permissible.

Likewise, in sentences to describe duration of some specific future action, *sedang* is not used.

> (4.102) *Mereka akan  sedang membina     hotel  baru mereka
> dalam tempoh dua tahun akan datang.
> They    will    prog  prefix+ build hotel new   their
> in     period  two year  will  come.
> 'They will be building their new hotel in a period of two
> years to come'.

In sentence 4.102, only *akan,* to indicate the future, seems applicable in this context.

### 4.8.4 Subject–verb agreement

There is no subject–verb agreement (SVA) in Malay. In other words, in any Malay sentence the subject does not have to agree or be in harmony with the verb in it. In English, Celcia-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) conferred that for verbs other than 'be', the difficulty in number agreement between the subject and verb, for non-native speakers, is in the present tense. This is due to the explicit inflection that occurs in the third person singular forms, the other singular forms do not.

In Table 4.8 below, the English verb 'walk' in their present tense forms and their concordance with subject number are compared with those in Malay.

**Table 4.8: Comparison between Malay non SVA and English SVA (Adapted from Celce-Murcia and Larsen Freeman, 1999)**

| NUMBER | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Person** | **Singular** | **Plural** |
| **1st** | I walk to the park | We walk to the park |
| | *Saya berjalan ke taman* | *Kami berjalan ke taman* |
| **2nd** | You walk to the park | You walk to the park |
| | *Awak berjalan ke taman* | *Awak berjalan ke taman* |
| **3rd** | He/She/It walks to the park | They walk to the park |
| | *Dia/Dia/Ia berjalan ke taman* | *Mereka berjalan ke taman* |

From the table, we can deduce a general rule for English SVA. In the present tense, the third person singular inflection, –s or the 'be' form 'is', is used when the subject refers to one entity. 'Are*'* is a plural verb to be used when there is more than one entity in the subject that it refers to. If the subject refers to more than one entity or for first and second person pronouns, there is no inflection on the verb.

In the past tense, the same past form of the verb is used regardless of the number of entities the subject refers to and whether it is a first, second or third person pronoun.

Celcia-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999, p.59) explain that 'if the predicate of a sentence starts with an inflectable, tense-bearing auxiliary verb such as 'be' or 'have', it is the auxiliary verb that indicates the third person singular inflection (not the verb)'. Examples provided are:

(4.103)   John <u>is</u> walking to school.

(4.104)   This water <u>has</u> boiled for 10 minutes.

Celcia-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999, p.68) also add that English has two other principles that govern subject–verb number agreement — the proximity principle and the principle of non-intervention

(4.105)   a. Either my sister or my brothers <u>are</u> going to do it.

        b. Either my brothers or my sister <u>is</u> going to do it.

(4.106)   Peter, along with us brothers, is to open a store.

The principle of non-intervention states that in intervening prepositional phrases and expressions such as 'together with', 'along with', 'as well as' and 'not others', plural forms should be ignored and a singular verb inflection should be in place.

None of these rules apply in Malay sentences.

### 4.8.5 Articles

In the English language, in most cases, articles precede nouns and are used to indicate the specificity of the reference being made by the noun. Indefinite articles, 'a' and 'an', specify that the identity of the noun has not introduced or been made known. These articles are only used when the head of the noun phrase is a singular count noun (Chalker, 1984).

In a noun phrase that takes plural count or mass nouns, zero article is applied. 'A'/ 'an' therefore alternates with zero in the indefinite system (Chalker, 1984, p. 52). This can be clearly explained by the following table.

**Table 4.9: Article system with singular, plural and mass nouns (Adapted from Chalker, 1984, p.52)**

|  | Singular | Plural | Mass |
|---|---|---|---|
| **A/An** | A furniture shop<br>A factory<br>A carpet factory |  |  |
| **Zero** |  | Furniture shops<br>Carpet factories<br>Carpets | Furniture<br>Factory furniture |
| **The** | The furniture shop<br>The factory<br>The carpet factory | The furniture shops<br>The factories<br>The carpet factories | The furniture<br>The factory furniture |

According to Heim (1991, cit. in Ionin & Wexler, 2003), 'a' is underspecified for definiteness, while 'the' is specified. In other words, 'the' can only be used when there is definiteness whereas 'a' does not. 'A' is used when the condition for definiteness is not met in singular nouns; otherwise zero articles apply for plural and mass nouns as aforesaid (Chalker, 1984). As illustrated by Bee and Soh (2007, p. 216), the use of 'the' and 'a' in the sentence:

> (4.107)  I saw a cat. I gave the cat some milk.
> I      saw      a (classifier) cat.      I      gave cat      the some  milk.
> Saya nampak se ekor        kucing. Saya beri kucing   itu sedikit susu.

In this sentence, there is no presupposition of the existence of a 'unique' cat, with the first mention of a cat. Thus as the condition of definiteness is not met, the indefinite article 'a' is applied in this sentence. In the second mention of the cat, its existence has been established and as such, the state of 'definiteness' is met and the definite article 'the' is used.

The feature [+definite] is related to the knowledge or mind state of the speaker and/or the hearer in a discourse. Definiteness is discourse related

in the way that 'if a Determiner Phrase (DP) is [+definite], then the speaker assumes that the hearer shares the speaker's presupposition of the existence of a unique individual in the set denoted by Noun Phrase (NP), in the contextually relevant domain' (Hawkins, 1978 in Bee and Soh, 2007) . The sentence below exemplifies this:

(a)    Definite

(4.108)   I read a book. <u>The book </u>was interesting.

Elsewise, the DP is indefinite (Ionin, Ko & Wexler, 2004).

(b)    Indefinite

(4.109)   I read <u>a book </u>yesterday.

Malay, like many other East Asian languages, does not have a functional equivalence to the English articles. A possible view is that Malay's '*se*' which precedes *penjodoh bilangan* or a classifier or a measure word, functions as the article 'a' in English. Measure words are words or morphemes that are used in combination with a numeral to indicate an amount of some nouns.

For example:

(4.110)   seekor                        kucing
          a/one tail (classifier)  cat
          'a/one classifier) cat'

Nik Safiah Karim, Farid M. Onn, Hashim Hj. Musa and Abdul Hamid (1997, pp.349–361) classify the use of classifier or measure word which precedes a noun as a pre-determiner (shown in the following samples), the other type being the post-determiner.

(4.111)   seorang                      askar
          a/one person (classifier)   soldier
          'a / one soldier'

<pre>
(4.112)   sebidang                    tanah
          a  piece (classifier)        land
          'a piece of land'
</pre>

They confirm that 'although not equivalent, the use of *seorang* here could be described as functioning almost like the indefinite article 'a' (Nik Safiah Karim, Farid M. Onn, Hashim Hj. Musa and Abdul Hamid, 1997).

When '*se*' is used with a classifier or measure word, '*se'* has an equivalent meaning to 'a'. Nevertheless, '*se'* cannot always be equated with the article 'a' in sentences where classifiers are not needed. Take for instance the sentences below:

<pre>
(4.113)   seluruh   kampung
          whole     village
          'the whole village'
</pre>

<pre>
(4.114)  Warna    kereta  itu  semerah  darah
         Colour    car     that as red    blood
         'The colour of that car is as red as blood'.
</pre>

The concept of the article 'an' which in English is placed before a noun that has an initial vowel sound is non-existent in Malay. The equivalent to the English article 'the' does not exist in Malay. Compare 'the Thames' or 'the moon' to refer to a proper noun or to refer to something that is one of a kind or as Quirk and Greenbaum described as 'aspects of experience common to mankind as a whole' (1973, p.71), in these two examples, with *Sungai Thames*, 'the River Thames' dan *bulan*, 'the moon'.

However, the Malay word *itu*, apart from functioning as a demonstrative and pronoun as in 'that', may also function as 'the' in certain contexts.

<pre>
(4.115)  Mercedes   baru itu     adalah      hadiah  untuk
         harijadinya
         Mercedes   new the/that is     Ø      present  for
         birthday his/her
         'The/That new Mercedes is a present for his/her birthday'.
</pre>

Marsden (1812, cit. in Chan, 1996 in Bee and Soh, 2007, p.214) viewed *itu* as equivalent to 'that, those, the' as so did Winstedt in Malay Grammar

(ibid.), in which he affirmed that there are no 'articles' in Malay although he did admit that there were a few exceptions in *itu* and *yang*. Winstedt considered *itu* as being corresponding with 'the, that, those' in the sense of the distant, remote in space and time, the aforesaid. In actual fact, the two are demonstrative pronouns 'which appear to have the force of the article' (ibid.) and are used when referring to particular objects.

Gonda (1939 as cited in Chan, 1996 in Bee and Soh, 2007, p.214) is resolute in his stance that there are no articles in Malay. He strictly maintains that the morpheme *itu* is not an article. Instead, *itu* has a dual role, one that is used to mark generic nouns and another as a demonstrative determiner. In an English sentence which engages the copula 'is' (cf. Hopper, 1972, p.129, cit. in Chan, 1996 in Bee and Soh, 2007, p. 214) the example (4.116) below illustrates the former role.

> (4.116)   Perempuan itu                          lemah badannya
>                Women      (generic noun marker)  weak  body  their
>                'Women are physically weak'.

> (4.117)   Perempuan itu         lemah   badannya.
>                Woman    Det (that)   weak    body  her -3PS
>                'That woman is physically weak'.

In 4.117 the use of *itu* as a determiner with a demonstrative meaning is exemplified. In this sentence, the noun phrase is singular.

Lewis (1963 cit. in Chan, 1996 in Bee and Soh, 2007, p.214), however, argues that *itu* and *ini* are the equivalents of the definite article in terms of their property of describing the familiarity of the thing the noun refers to, for instance,

> (4.118)  kereta itu/ini
>                car     that/this DET
>                'that/this car'

Karim *et al*. (1997) in their labelling of determiners assert that *itu* 'that' and *ini* 'this' are post determiners which come after nouns as in *kereta wanita cantik itu* ('that beautiful woman's car') or *kasut sekolah kotor ini*

('these dirty school shoes') exhibit the role *itu* 'that' and *ini* 'this' play in signifying the notion of definiteness in Malay. However, as specified by them both words do not correspond with the article 'the'.

On articles, Cummings' (1992, cited. in Chan, 1996 in Bee and Soh, 2007, p.215) statement is apt when he says that in Malay, 'there are no morphemes which are specialised for marking definiteness, specificity, or identifiability; but as in many languages, other resources may be co-opted for these purposes'.

Based on this, Bee and Soh (2007, p.215), conclude that indefiniteness in Malay may be indicated by the numeral *satu/se* 'one' while definiteness may be manifested by *ini* and *itu,* the deictic pronouns/demonstratives.

Zero article is an invariable feature of the Malay language. This is obviously not the case in English. To illustrate a case in point, compare the two sentences below:

> (4.119) Sekolah- sekolah   di Malaysia  bercuti            panjang
>        pada hujung tahun
>        Schools-PL           at Malaysia  prefix+holiday  long
>        at    end    year.
>        'Schools in Malaysia are on a long holiday at the end of the
>        year'.

In Malay, a noun may or may not be accompanied by a noun classifier, which shows a conceptual classification of the referent of a noun (not the noun itself) and is commonly used when counting.

For example,

> (4.120)  Tiga     orang
>         'Three   people/persons'

In this instance, a classifier is not present. On the contrary, a classifier may also be present as in the sentence below.

> (4.121)   Sebatang              pokok
>          a log (classifier)     tree
>          'a tree'

Noun classifiers are not grammatical items but rather lexical. There are many noun classifiers in Malay, for example, *ekor* for animals; *orang* for humans; *batang* for objects and many more.

English, on the other hand, has different names for groups, especially of animals, e.g. 'a flock of sheep', 'a herd of cattle', 'a gaggle of geese', etc.

### 4.8.6 *Plurals*

English nouns have grammatical number or quantity and these are marked by grammatical morphemes. In other words, English nouns have inflections for plural. The English number system consists of 'singular' which denotes 'one' and 'plural' which denotes 'more than one'. Singular nouns include non-count nouns and proper nouns. Count nouns can be 'variable' occurring with either singular or plural, for instance, 'book' and' books', or 'invariable' – 'cattle' (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p.80). A comprehensive summary of the number system in English is provided by Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) as shown in Appendix 3.

Basically, nouns in English can be classified into regular or irregular nouns. Regular nouns are formed by adding the morpheme –s, or –es at the end of the nouns depending on the class they fall into.

Regular singular nouns that end in a sibilant sound (s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/ or /dʒ/) take a /ɨz/ sound in their plural form. Orthographically, this is realized by adding –s if the base ends in –e, or –es if the singular already ends in –s as in 'faces' and 'masses'. If a singular noun has a voiceless consonant ending (/p/, /t/, /k/, /f/ or /θ/), its plural form is formed by adding –s which will sound as a voiceless, for instance, 'parks',' caps' and 'mats'. For all other words ending with vowels or voiced non sibilants or consonants, the plural forms are pronounced with a /z/ sound represented by –s, for example, 'bags', 'chairs', 'girls'. Other rules apply for variations in word spelling such as nouns with 'o' and 'y' endings.  For nouns that

end in 'o' and are preceded by a consonant, their plurals are formed by adding –es (sounds /z/, e.g. 'tomatoes'), while those that have a 'y' ending preceded by a consonant like 'strawberry' and 'puppy', the plural forms are spelt by dropping the 'y' and changing it to 'i' and added with –es. This '–ies' morpheme is pronounced /iz/.

 Nouns that end with 'y' but are preceded by a vowel, takes the regular form –s (e.g. 'boys'). Some nouns that end with 'f' (e.g. 'wolf') and 'fe' (e.g. 'wife') will have to drop the 'f' changing it to 'v' and adding –es to form their plurals — 'wolves' and 'wives' in the case of the examples given.

As for irregular nouns in English, there are a few nouns that do not take the –s but the –n or –en to form their plurals. These words, said to have survived from Old English, are words such as 'children' and 'oxen'. 'Man' in '**man**', 'wo**man**', 'gentle**man**' and 'policewo**man**' are turned into 'men' in plural forms. Other examples of odd singular –plural pairs are 'foot' and 'feet', 'tooth' and 'teeth', 'mouse' and 'mice', 'louse' and 'lice'.

On the other hand, there are nouns in English that do not change in the plural. The singular and plural forms are alike, as in, 'deer' and 'salmon' (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, pp. 81–87).

Quantity in English is not only marked on nouns but also on demonstratives which can function both as determiners and pronouns (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p.107). These too have singular and plural number — 'this' and 'these', 'that' and 'those'.

Quantity in pronouns is lexical — 'she'/ 'he'/ 'it' — are singular whereas 'they' is plural. Cardinal numerals (one, two, three), collective numerals (e.g. pair, dozen), distributive numerals (each, every, either) and quantifiers (all, many) indicate quantity in the English language. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, pp.108–109) clearly explain how 'universal pronouns' and determiners which consist of '*each, all, every* and *every* compounds*' (Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, p.108) are used with singular

and plural nouns (see Appendix 4 for a summary of 'universal' and 'partitive pronouns' and determiners in their singular and plural forms).

Unlike English, Malay lacks grammatical number. Grammatical number is a morphological category characterized by the expression of quantity through inflection or agreement.

Plurality in Malay is conveyed by the usage of lexis that indicates plurality. Reduplication is also used to express plurality but there are constraints in the articulation of number in the reduplication system of the Malay language. Reduplication in Malay can be found in nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. I will only discuss reduplications in nouns in discussing plurals.

Malay lexical items, like English, that mark quantity in nouns are quantifiers, determiners and pronouns.

Quantifiers in Malay are like *banyak* or *kebanyakan* ('many'), *sedikit* ('little'/'few'), *beberapa* ('several') and for determiners examples are, *setiap* ('each'/'every'), *semua* ('all'), *kedua-duanya* ('both'), *beberapa* ('some'),and *apa jua* ('any').

In addition, numerals — cardinals (one, two, three) and collective (e.g. pair, dozen) are also applicable to indicate plurality in Malay. The difference, however, is that, nouns in Malay do not inflect with the usage of these plural markers. Compare these examples:

(4.122) Satu    orang
        'One    person'

(4.123) Dua    orang
        'Two    **persons'**

The plural words of the English demonstratives 'this' and 'that', namely 'these' and 'those', do not have equivalents in Malay. Malay only has *ini* to refer to something that is in proximity to the speaker or *itu* to refer to something in the distance.

Plurality in the Malay pronouns is not as elaborate as English ones. Table 4.10 compares Malay pronouns with English ones.

**Table 4.10: Comparison between Malay and English pronouns**

| | | | Personal Pronouns | | | | Reflexive Pronouns | | Possessive Pronouns | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | | | Subject | | Object | | | | Determiner Function | | Nominal Function | | |
| 1st person | Sg | | Saya/ Aku/ Beta[15]/ Patik[16] | I | Saya/ Aku/ Beta/ Patik | Me | Saya sendiri Aku sendiri Beta sendiri Patik sendiri | Myself | My | Saya punya/ Aku punya/ Beta punya/ Patik punya/ | Mine | Saya punya/ Aku punya/ Beta punya/ Patik punya | |
| | Pl | | Kami/ Kita | We | Kami/ Kita | Us | Kami sendiri/ Kita sendiri | Our-selves | Our | Kami punya/ Kita punya | Ours | Kami punya/ Kita punya | |
| 2nd Person | Sg | | Awak/ Anda/ Kau/ Kamu | You | Awak/ Anda/ Kau/ Kamu | You | Awak sendiri/ Anda sendiri/ Kau sendiri/ Kamu sendiri | Yourself | Your | Awak punya/ Anda punya/ Kau punya/ Kamu punya | Yours | Awak punya/ Anda punya/ Kau punya/ Kamu punya | |
| | Pl | | Awak semua/† Anda semua/ Kau semua/ Kamu semua | You | Awak semua/ Anda semua/ Kau semua/ Kamu semua | You | Awak sendiri/ Anda sendiri/ Kau sendiri/ Kamu sendiri | Yourselves | Your | Awak punya/ Anda punya/ Kau punya/ Kamu punya | Yours | Awak punya/ Anda punya/ Kau punya/ Kamu punya | |
| 3rd person | Sg | Masc | Dia | He | Dia | Him | Dia sendiri/ Dirinya sendiri | Himself | His | Dia punya | His | Dia punya | |
| | | Fem | | She | | Her | | Herself | Her | | Hers | | |
| | | Non-personal | Ia | It | Nya | It | Ianya sendiri | Itself | Its | Ia punya | Its | Ia punya | |
| | Pl | | Mereka | They | Mereka | Them | Mereka sendiri | Them-selves | Their | Mereka punya | Theirs | Mereka punya | |

Referring to Table 4.10, if we take the 1st and 2nd persons pronouns in English, the singular and plural terms change forms in the object position of the sentence, as well as in the reflexive and possessive pronouns. In Malay, on the other hand, the singular and plural terms for the 1st and 2nd person pronouns remain the same, only that another word is added – *sendiri* for the reflexive and *punya* for the possessive pronouns. The word

---

[15] *Beta* is the 1st person singular pronoun members of the royal families use to refer to one self, while *patik* is the term a commoner uses to refer to him/herself when talking to a member of royalty.

[16] *semua* is optional and can be omitted.

*semua* which means 'all', can be used alongside the plural personal pronouns.

The 3rd person pronouns are more complex in English. There are masculine and feminine terms for referring to the other person. This however does not exist in Malay. The term *dia* is used for both genders. *Ia* (a non-personal pronoun for the English 'it') is replaced by *nya* in the sentential object position.

One way of marking plurality in Malay is through reduplication. Reduplication or *penggandaan* in Malay refers to the process of repeating some part of a word- a segment, syllable, morpheme- either fully or partially (Asmah, 2009). Malay nouns can reduplicate in three ways, namely, full, partial and rhythmic reduplications. Full reduplication involves a repetition of the whole meaningful constituent while partial reduplication is a process where only a part of a constituent is repeated (Kajitani, 2005; Nik Safiah, 2008). In rhythmic reduplication ('*penggandaan* be*rima'* or 'be*rentak*'), repetition can occur in any part of the base word, whether it is a syllable, a consonant or a vowel (Asmah, 2009, p.254).

A noun in Malay can be fully reduplicated to make it a plural form. Some examples are given in the table below:

**Table 4.11: Reduplication of Malay nouns to mark plural**

| Words | Singular | Plural |
|---|---|---|
| **Base** | *Rumah* 'house' | *Rumah-rumah* 'houses' |
| **With Affixes** | Prefix + Base<br>***Peng**ajar*<br>'instructor'<br><br>Base + Suffix<br>*Cadangan*<br>'suggestion'<br><br>Circumfix + base + circumfix<br>***Per**satu**an***<br>'association' | *Pengajar-pengajar*<br>'instructors'<br><br><br>*Cadangan-cadangan*<br>'suggestions'<br><br><br>*Persatuan-persatuan*<br>'associations' |

According to Nik Safiah (2008), partially reduplicated words are derived from repeating the first syllable of the base word. Take for instance,

    (4.124)   Laki   →   La laki       Lelaki (pronounced with the /ə/)
           'Man'                    'Man'

To make it plural *Lelaki* is repeated:

    (4.125)   Lelaki-lelaki
           'Men'

Partial reduplication also occurs in words with affixes:

**Table 4.12: Partial reduplication in Malay**

| Affixed Words | Singular | Plural |
|---|---|---|
| *Sayuran* 'vegetable' | *Sayuran* | *Sayur-sayuran* 'vegetables' |
| *Kenangan* 'memory' | *Kenangan* | *Kenang-kenangan* 'memories' |

In rhythmic reduplication, repetition takes place in the sound of the vowels or consonant of a noun. It can also be free-bound or independent of the vowel or the consonant sound. Some examples are:

Repetition of certain vowel sounds:

    (4.126)   Batu         →     batu-batan
           'rock'                'rocks'

Repetition of certain consonant sounds

    (4.127)   Kuih         →     kuih-muih
           'cake'                'cakes' (varieties of cakes)
                                 Free bound

    (4.128)   Saudara    →     saudara-mara
           'relative'            'relatives'

Asmah (2009, pp. 255–256) on the other hand claims that there is no formula for rhythmic reduplication. The emphasis is more on the euphonic value of the words.

A caveat is in place at this juncture as not all reduplications in nouns signify plurality. Words such as *rama-rama* 'butterflies' and *biri-biri* 'sheep' are naming words for animals, whereas words such as *apa-apa* 'whatever' and *mana-mana* 'wherever' are used to express uncertainty.

This chapter has presented an overview of studies on grammatical features in the context of Malaysia and a literature review of second language acquisition hypotheses that debate on the extent of L2 learners' accessibility to UG in attempt to explain variability, in particular, L2 learners' morphology inflection. It ends with a description of how Malay and English compare in the grammatical items that are studied in this research.

# Chapter 5. Methodology

## 5.0   Introduction

This chapter will lay out the methodology of this research. The methods and materials that were used to obtain data for the research, as well as problems and obstacles faced in collecting the data and the limitations in analyzing them, will all be discussed.

The study aims to find out if there are differences in the English of two groups of Malay English L2 speakers and what accounts for any variation between them. In particular, it aims to examine if they vary in these grammatical features — pronominal subjects, past tense inflection, copula verbs, auxiliary verbs, subject and verb agreement in main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs, articles and plural marking. Extralinguistic factors and current use of English are also looked at to investigate if they have any influence on adult Malay English speakers' morpho-syntactic competence.

With regard to the research questions presented in Chapter 1, the Introduction, the expectations are that there will be a difference in the morpho-syntactic competence between the two groups of adult Malay L2 speakers of English. It is uncertain, however, how they will differ in their competence with respect to the linguistic variables selected for the present study (see 1.1.1 and the previous chapter). Nonetheless, L2 English speakers in Malaysia educated in the English medium, on the whole, are expected to produce a higher frequency of target-like instances of all the linguistic variables investigated. In relation to this, the exposure to English they received in their formal schooling years in English-medium schools is expected to have influenced their morpho-syntactic competence. Level of education is also expected to have affected their competence, but sex as an extralinguistic factor is not expected to do so. Current use of English is an indeterminate element which may influence the speakers' competence in this study; it is difficult to predict as well as to determine how their current

use of English has had an influence, as this variable is difficult to control in this type of study. Having said this, a cautionary statement must be made about the present study in relation to the concepts of linguistic competence and use/performance (as discussed in 4.3).

The present study adopts a sociolinguistic approach with the main aim of investigating whether two groups of adult L2 Malay speakers who received English and Malay medium education differ. The study also adopts a second language acquisition approach to address their morpho-syntactic competence in selected grammatical features, as informed by the generative SLA research paradigm.

The methodology of the present study is quantitative in nature rather than experimental, where hypotheses can be tested. In this sense, this study can only logically assume that the participants' target-like and non-target-like production of the grammatical phenomena under investigation are a manifestation of their linguistic competence. Hundreds of utterances and thousands of instances of the linguistic variables examined were produced by the participants, and this justifies the conclusions which will be drawn.

Oral production data from two sample groups of Malaysians from two generations can provide the best kind of data for the purpose of this research.

## 5.1 Data Collection

The materials and instruments used for both components of the study and the specific procedures for how data was obtained are detailed in the later part of this chapter.

## 5.2 Sampling

Two groups of speakers who were educated in the English medium and Malay medium were selected for this study to investigate if there are variations in their morpho-syntactic competence. Only Malay speakers were chosen for this study. The rationale for doing is two-fold. First, Malay is the researcher's mother tongue and the analysis of spoken data from such a sample group would be much more manageable for the researcher. Secondly, the Malay replaced English as a medium of communication in schools and this would entail selecting Malay speakers for whom, in general, English is the second language. Hence, they wold make a fitting sample for this study which looks at second language learners.

Taking into account practical challenges that arise in finding people who are willing to participate in the research, the target sample group was twenty-four people. The sample comprises native speakers of Malay who were taught through two media of instruction — either English or Malay — in their school years (Tagliamonte, 2006, pp.28–32).

From the grid in Table 5.1 which shows the target sample, we see that there are two groups of participants namely, the Pre-1970 English-medium group (EM) which consists of an older group and the Post-1970 Malay-medium group (MM) which is made up of people who are from a comparatively younger generation. For ease of use, I will use the shorter acronyms viz. EM and MM throughout the rest of this thesis.

**Table 5.1: Target sample group: Pre-1970 English medium and post-1970 Malay-medium education**

| Education level /English contact | Pre-1970 EM | | Post-1970 MM | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Sex | | Sex | | |
| | Male (age:49 and above) | Female (age:49 and above) | Male (age: between 39 and 18) | Female (age: between 39 and 18) | |
| Primary school up to Form Three (Lower secondary)/ with little English | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 8 |
| Secondary school (Upper secondary)/ with more English | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 8 |
| Tertiary education/with a lot more English | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 8 |
| Total | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 24 |

For this study, twenty-four people were to be selected consisting of twelve females and twelve males for each of the main categories. The EM group includes participants of forty-nine years of age and above, the MM group has participants who are thirty-nine years old and below. The ten year gap in between the two groups is due to the age criterion that is set for sampling of the participants. The youngest of the participants should not be younger than eighteen years of age as the cut-off point for the MM group is set at eighteen years old. All the participants are adults and would probably have stabilized in their acquisition of English as a second language and probably have fossilized and reached the end-state of attainment.

The age criterion is set by determining the year when the change of English-medium instruction to Malay-medium commenced. In July 1969 (after the May 1969 incident), Dato Haji Abdul Rahman Ya'akub the Minister of Education at that time had announced that, from January 1970 English-medium schools would be phased out and turned into Malay-medium schools or 'national' schools by 1985. So, 1970 is taken and used as a point of reference when selecting participants for this research. The

youngest age cut-off mark at eighteen is based on 2003 being the year when the Malaysian Cabinet under Tun Dr. Mahathir Mohamad decided to simultaneously implement the English for Teaching Mathematics and Science (ETeMS) programme at Primary One, Form One and Form Four (Chan and Tan, 2006, p.310; Ain Nadzimah and Chan, 2003, p.104).

Bearing in mind that 1970 is the year when the change from English-medium instruction to Malay began to gradually take effect, commencing with the teaching of all subjects (except Malay) in Primary 1, in the sampling of participants, I have selected only participants who started their first year in primary school (typically at the age of 7) five years or more before 1970 and five years after 1970 and onwards. This means that the older EM group comprises male and female participants who were born in 1958 and earlier, whereas the younger MM group has people who were born in 1968 and later, up to 1996.

The justification for this time lapse resulting in an age gap of ten years in between the two groups was to ensure stability in the medium of instruction when they were in school. It is widely recognized that whenever there is change in a system an unstable transitional period occurs. When Malay was affirmed the national official language in 1967 a decade after Malaysia achieved independence, the change from the former national language English to Malay occurred in stages. Commencing January 1968, Arts studies such as Art and Craft, Music and Local Studies as well as Physical Education were to be taught in Malay in the Lower Primary 1 to 3 classes of English medium schools. This was followed by other conversions of more art subjects before implementing the change to the sciences. For a brief period during transition, some of the science subjects were taught in 'two streams, Malay and English. Pupils in the transition period might have a mixed medium education: English for science and mathematics; Malay for history and geography' (Darus and Subramaniam, 2009, p.484).

### 5.2.1 Stratified Random Sampling

Although there are many possible contributing factors, such as, pedagogical factors, the opportunity for using English based on a rural-urban divide or regional divide and socio-economic background which may influence the competence of L2 speakers of English (Hazita, 2009), the present study only included the following orthogonal factors: the level of education, sex and exposure to English medium education. These variables were kept constant as much as possible; age was controlled for as described above, and the rural-urban divide was controlled for by locating participants who were all from the same urban region. Other factors as initially mentioned in the research questions are also investigated to find out if they contribute to the participants' morpho-syntactic competence.

Stratified Random Sampling was employed in this research because it is considered amenable to the data required to capture the difference in the English competence of two groups of Malay L2 English speakers. Sankoff (1988a, p.902) stipulates that the minimum condition for a sample is for it to have 'a degree of representativeness on the bases of age, sex, and (some way of determining) social class, education level, or both' so that linguistic diversity in the target community is represented in the sample as much as possible.

Here in this study, representativeness is realized by stratifying the participants according to age, sex, medium of instruction used in their formal schooling and the highest education level. Education level helps provide a calculated estimation of the amount of English that the participants were exposed to.

In determining the age group, the participants were Malay L2 English speakers who were born before and up to1958 and had started Primary 1 in the English-medium education system before and up to 1965. This pre-1970 EM group is composed of participants who would be, at the time of testing, at least 49 years old and above.

The MM group on the other hand is made up of Malay English speakers who were 39 years and below who were born in or after 1968 but not later than 1996 and had started Primary 1 in 1975 onwards.

For this study, the intended number of participants for each group is six males and six females making up a total of twenty-four participants.

The MM group also includes those who were in Form 1 at the secondary school level in 2002 as they make up the last batch in the fully Malay medium system before the bilingual system of Mathematics and Science in English began its implementation in 2003[17].

The sample groups are further stratified by how much exposure to English they had received from formal schooling at the primary level up to Form 3/Lower secondary (15 years old), upper secondary level (17 years old) and tertiary levels.

Research in second language acquisition indicates that the learning of a second language is much facilitated by the presence of rich and varied input. Rich and varied input is not to be equated with the amount of contact with native speakers. Rather, it refers to types of contexts of interaction with speakers. So, with regard to how much contact with English the participants in this study have, they comprise people who attended only up to primary or lower secondary level (up to form three), upper secondary and tertiary levels. An extralinguistic factor is also addressed in the present study, that of participants' current use of English. This relates to their rich and varied input. As mentioned before, this variable was not controlled for in this study and as we shall see in the following chapter, it is difficult to determine its impact on learners' morpho-syntactic competence as measured at the time data were collected.

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[17] Recall from Chapter 2 that bilingual education was proposed in 2002 and began implementation in 2003 (cf. Choong, K.F., 2004; Hashim and Ramlan, 2004; Chan and Tan, 2006; Chap and Cheng, 2007; Faizah and Marzilah, 2008; Chap and Presmeg, 2010; Ismail, 2009; Faizah, Marzilah and Kamaruzaman, 2011).

## 5.3 Selecting Participants

One main issue which arose when establishing the criteria in sampling was deciding and identifying the participants and the location of the fieldwork. The Malays form the largest ethnic group Malaysia. In 2007, from a total population of 27,173,600 people in Malaysia, 13,773,100 were Malays making up 50.7% out of the total (The Department of Statistics of Malaysia, 2007). As the original inhabitants of Peninsular Malaysia, Sabah and Sarawak in particular and the Malay archipelago at large, the Malays live alongside other  multi-ethnic groups in all the 15 states of the country. It would have been more convenient to seek participants among the Malays and collect data for this study in Sarawak (the researcher's home state) but instead, the fieldwork was carried out in the state of Selangor because the composition of its Malay population compared to the composition of Malay population of the other states in Malaysia is higher. Selangor's Malay population is 51.1% (see Appendix 5.1 which shows the population of Malaysia and the percentage of Malay population for all the states). Selangor is the nearest to the percentage of the Malay population for the whole country which is 50.7% (The Department of Statistics of Malaysia, 2007) and thus the sample can be taken to be representative of Malays in Malaysia. The notion of representativeness, according to Sankoff (1988a, p.900), entails 'not that the sample be a miniature version of the population, but only that we have the possibility of making inferences about the population based on the sample'.

Data collection in this study limits its scope to only the Malays residing in the state of Selangor. In selecting the participants, three criteria were used; ideally all criteria should be met but if this was not possible, at least one of these should be complied with.

- The participant would have to have lived in Selangor before the age of fifteen;

- He / She has only lived outside of Selangor for not more than 5 years;

- Both of the participant's parents originate from Selangor.


## 5.4 The Fieldwork: Finding Participants

Finding participants as well as getting their consent to play a part in this research was not straightforward nor unchallenging. For one, Selangor is not my home and secondly, Malays are generally a very shy people especially if they know that they are going to be recorded. From my fieldwork experience, I gathered that the EM group with lower qualifications are generally more shy. For these two seemingly simple reasons, the task of forming a sample was very demanding. It became trickier when the criteria for the selection of the participants were applied. With few personal contacts living in Selangor, employing a data collection approach based on the Milroy's 'social networks' model had to be used. In this model the key feature is that 'the unit of study is some pre-existing social group, not the individual as the representative of a more abstract social category' (Tagliamonte, 2006, p.21). This approach is viable in that it allows me to associate myself to a group thus enabling her to gain access to the kind of information or data that she wants (Milroy, 1987). So, by means of the friend- of- a- friend approach, I distributed the Information leaflet and Informed consent form (Appendix 5.2) and Part One of my questionnaire to several of my friends and acquaintances, each one supplied with ten to forty copies of both documents. Friends or contacts were provided with two hundred questionnaires altogether. They in turn gave them out to their friends whom they knew or thought met the criteria.

## 5.5 Ethics

In strategizing fieldwork procedures, ethics in data gathering, especially where and when speech communities are involved, is an obligatory issue for researchers to consider. As noted by Tagliamonte (2006), ethical guidelines in current times are more stringent than before and so to observe these guidelines I attached an information leaflet and a consent form to each preliminary questionnaire (see Appendix 5.2). The information leaflet covered a brief description of the research and its prime aim, the tasks required of the participants namely an oral interview in which they would be recorded, risks and benefits of the research to them and their rights as participants. Assurance that their participation in the research would be kept confidential was guaranteed as their real names were replaced by pseudonyms. Anonymity also applies to people whom they might have referred to in the interview whose names were changed to pseudonyms when relevant. In this way, taking part in the study was risk-free. The benefits of their involvement in the study were also stated in the leaflet, and more importantly, their rights as an informant namely that their participation was not forced and therefore based on this voluntary agreement they could withdraw from the study at any time they wished - were clearly explained before they gave their consent to partake in the research (Tagliamonte, 2006, p.33). Part One of the questionnaire, on the other hand, served as a preliminary survey to gather demographic information as well as information about participants' English usage. Specifically, the object of the preliminary survey was to locate people who best met the criteria and classify them as potential participants. In particular, facts about participants as well as their parents' place(s) of birth/ origin, their residency in Selangor in the first fifteen years of their lives with no time lag of more than five years could be obtained from the questionnaire. Thus, in so doing it was possible to screen through all the questionnaires that were returned and list potential candidates for the face-to-face interviews in which the audio recording would take place. Once participants were chosen, an appointment for a meeting was arranged with

each of them at a mutually convenient time. In this meeting, the oral task was carried out first and the second part of the survey i.e. the main part of the questionnaire, was administered immediately after. The oral task aimed to gather authentic spontaneous speech data with the informant feeling at ease to talk about the issue at hand, without actually realizing that their speech production was what mattered in this study. The questionnaire on the other hand was to obtain information about participants' English use. If they did the questionnaire first, they would be conscious and apprehensive about their English and might not therefore have produced the desired data (Tagliamonte, 2006, pp.19–22).

## 5.6 The Questionnaire

The questionnaire used in this survey was adapted from Moyer's (2004) PhD study on age, accent and experience in SLA. Although Moyer's study focused on the effect of age and input on phonological attainment, other aspects of her study that looked at individual differences such as motivation, attitudes and language use are of interest to this study. The questionnaire for the present study had 42 questions altogether. It was divided into two parts: Part One (Questionnaire One, henceforth Q1) (see Appendix 5.3) and Part Two (Questionnaire Two, henceforth Q2) (see Appendix 5.4) with Q1 consisting of 25 questions sub-headed under Section A (Information About You). The main objective of this questionnaire was to acquire demographic information and participants' experiences with the English language. Q2, on the other hand, comprises core questions which are categorized under the following sub headings: Section B (School Years), Section C (English Use), Section D (Personal Drive, Aims and Strategies) and finally Section E (Malaysian English).

In view of the lengthy questionnaire of 42 core questions with many sub-questions, the practicality of conducting the task was naturally considered. Knowing so well that people in general are not particularly fond of time-consuming tasks such as filling up a questionnaire, it was necessary that

the questionnaire be split up. Not only are long questionnaires, time consuming, but they also reduce the chances of a high return rate as well as the probability of getting back a fully-filled in questionnaire. Administering Q1 separately as a way of cutting short the time a participant would have taken, if all questions were to be attempted simultaneously, also doubled as a means of screening and selecting suitable participants for the interview (stimulated oral tasks) and consequently filling up Q2.

Therefore, the short listing of potential participants was a way of screening from those participants who complete Q1 and finding those who match at least one if not all of the criteria in 5.3.

Q1 took about ten minutes to complete while Q2 needed about half an hour to fill in. Both the interview and Q2 were conducted in a single meeting. In this way, the lengthy questionnaire was not attempted in one go which otherwise would inevitably consume a much longer time to complete making it very wearisome for the participants. Conducting the questionnaire in two parts at two intervals helped in two ways: firstly, only targeted participants who were chosen and  agreed to take part in the research needed to fill in the questionnaire and secondly, doing part two of the questionnaire after the oral interview ensured a one hundred percent return rate.

## 5.7 Speech Data

Spoken linguistic data was gathered by interviewing the participants individually. For this purpose the same pictures and video were used with all of the participants. I have chosen a tsunami as a prompt for spontaneous oral production. The tsunami that hit Acheh and Thailand in 2004 was a global phenomenon that everyone was aware of and for people in South East Asia the catastrophe might have affected them in one way or another. Pictures and a video clip of the natural disaster that took the

world by surprise on that Boxing Day 2004 were used to elicit use of tense and aspect. Pictures were intended to stimulate a conversation about present and past situations (see Appendices 5.5 and 5.6) whereas the video clip (see Appendix 5.7) which shows the tsunami striking Thailand was intended to elicit descriptions of on-going actions.

### 5.7.1 *Interviewing participants*

According to Labov (1984, p.34) once people are engaged in personal stories, they are inclined to talk naturally and in their vernacular or colloquial style. In my interviews with participants, the main goal was for them to speak English to me instead of Malay. Being Malay, I represent the observer's paradox as participants will normally be consciously aware that they are speaking in a second language with a fellow Malay. Equally important is for the participants to be at ease when they speak English and in their most natural and colloquial English. Using a video clip and two sets of pictures, each participant had to talk about the scenes in these visuals; the idea was that this would subsequently lead him/her to talk spontaneously about personal experiences surrounding the event. Labov (1984, p.34) recommended that the interviewer 'become intimately acquainted with a module format' – one that he clarified as one '[showing] a certain degree of hierarchical structure', also referred to as 'conversational modules' by Tagliamonte (2006, p.37). The module begins with general questions and proceeds to more 'detailed issues, which may be penetrated to the extent that the interviewer's and speaker's interests allow'. Not quite like Labov's sociolinguistic interview, the interview questions that I used are centred on the sets of pictures and the video clip. Primarily these visuals function as a stimulant and a refresher to jog the memory of the participants. But like the sociolinguistic interview, there is a topic or a central theme to the 'conservation module' and the interview schedule that was used was meant to move along a general and impersonal to a more specific and personal continuum hoping

to attain that optimality in a sociolinguistic interview. Tagliamonte (2006, p.38) defines 'Optimal' as 'those questions which elicit "narratives of personal experience", stories that people tell you about their lives'. The way this research tackled this is explained below in the description of the materials used in the oral task and the way they were used.

## 5.8 Materials: Visuals

To elicit spoken data from the participants, two sets of pictures were used in the face-to-face oral interview. These pictures which illustrate the events that took place in 2004 act as stimuli to draw out utterances from the participants. Set A (Appendix 5.5) had fourteen still pictures of actual occurrences on the day the tsunami struck on 26th December 2004 in Banda Acheh and Phuket, Thailand. Set B (Appendix 5.6) is made up of ten pictures of Banda Acheh three years later, as a newly developed township. Since the data were collected in 2008, this was present day for the participants at the time of testing.

In addition to the picture sets, a video clip was included (Appendix 5.7) showing several shots of the tidal waves hitting a beach resort in Thailand. The footage contains scenes of people scurrying up the hotel staircase as the water rushed into the hotel, several tourists hanging onto palm trees, and a ship landing further on shore after the tsunami. The video clip was taken from You Tube with permission from the author who was happy to have me use it to raise awareness about the tsunami and its victims.

The use of different and varying sets of visual stimuli was to elicit utterances with the grammatical features that the study aimed to examine, namely: omission of pronominal subjects, copula and auxiliary verbs, omission of articles and plural marking, lack of past tense inflection and lack of subject and verb agreement in main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs.

The pictures in Set A which were dated '26th December 2004' were aimed at eliciting use of the past tense. The video clip was intended to draw out use of the present tense and progressive aspect whilst Set B pictures were intended to facilitate the use of utterances in the simple present tense. How these materials were used in the interviews will be briefly explained in the next section.

## 5.9 Procedure

The interview off by asking general questions to break the ice, with the purpose of putting the informant at ease. This then led on to questions about the tsunami such as:

- Do you remember when the tsunami hit Sumatra in December 2004?

- Where were you when it happened?

- What were you doing at that time?

- How did it affect you and your family?

Once the participants had begun to speak and was focused on the topic, the participants were invited to look at pictures in Set A and they were asked to describe what they saw in them. Whenever the participants faced any difficulties in describing the pictures, they were prompted by asking more questions. Once the participants became more self-assured and focused on the task at hand, the interview was then directed to more talk about some other events surrounding the tsunami, anything at all that the participants remembered happening then. This task in particular was for sampling utterances in the past tense.

The second task was video viewing in which the participants were required to watch the whole video clip in full the first time around. It was played again the second time with the volume muted and the participants were requested to talk about the series of occurrences displayed in the clip,

describing as much detail as they possibly could. The scenes in the video clip were meant specifically to induce the use of present progressive tense. The video clip was also used to generate more personal stories about the tsunami in any tense/aspect.

The third task in the series of visual materials involved a discussion on the pictures in Set B. Here the participants described pictures of Banda Aceh in Northern Sumatra three years after the calamity. These pictures were captioned with 'Present Day' and were aimed for the elicitation of utterances in the present tense. To end the interview session, the participants were asked to talk about what the tsunami meant to them or what they had learnt from it or any other issues that might have arisen then. Again, the idea was to let the participants talk and produce spontaneous data. Depending on the participant, these main interview tasks generally took half an hour to forty-five minutes.

When all these were done, the next step was to ask the participants to speak in their best English and then their most colloquial English for about two minutes each time so that in so doing, it was possible to find out each participant's normal speech pattern.

### 5.9.1 *Self-monitoring*

When conducting the interview, several measures had to be taken into account to minimize the effects of the 'observer's paradox' (Labov, 1972, p.113; Labov, 1984, p.30) — 'the more aware respondents are that speech is being observed, the less natural their performances will be' (Preston, 1996, p.2). It is natural that we become self-conscious when we are being observed, hence we are likely to change our behaviour and our speech patterns, monitoring ourselves more than normal, and are more likely to produce a typical behaviour or unnatural speech patterns. Thus, the observer's paradox as normal behaviour is not quite observable because

we are being observed. It is a paradox according to Labov (1984, p.30) 'since it can never be solved completely in principle'.

Because all the participants were Malay and I am Malay, as aforementioned, the tendency for them to respond in Malay was greater. Consequently, when interviewing the participants it was crucial for me to monitor my own speech mode in terms of the language that I chose to speak and the way I spoke to them. Thus I had decided to speak in English to them consistently and in a neutral style instead of Malay to make matters easier in that the participants would get the cue that they would have to speak English during the interview. This requirement was also made known to them in the information leaflet and the consent form.

In monitoring my own speech patterns and style I sought to ensure as much as possible that I was consistent throughout the interview session of each participant. Like many second language speakers specifically in a culturally and linguistically mixed Malaysia where interlocutors are at least bi-dialectal if not also bilingual, code-switching between two codes and style-shifting are common. As observed by Platt and Weber (1980) and Tongue (1974) Malaysian English (ME) 'like SE [Singapore English] possesses a range of styles which enables Malaysians to shift from one to the other with great facility and dramatic effect. This characteristic feature of communicative behaviour in ME points to a speech style continuum along which speakers are able to drop down from a very formal to the most informal of styles'(as cited in Nair-Venugopal, 2000,p.53). When meeting the participants face-to face to administer the oral interview I decided to use my most natural and comfortable way of speaking English, for an informal conversation situation, as a way to determine my own speech pattern along the 'stylistic continuum' (Preston, 1996, p.2). This falls between the acrolectal–mesolectal (see Platt and Weber, 1980; Baskaran, 1987). I monitored my speech by attempting to follow the same style, intonation, register and choice of lexis as all of the participants.

## 5.10 The Actual Fieldwork

The actual fieldwork was carried out over a period of 3 months from mid-January to mid-April in 2008. I was based in Kuala Lumpur during these months and working from there making contacts through a handful of friends and acquaintances who live in Kuala Lumpur and different parts of Selangor namely Bangi, Petaling Jaya, Shah Alam, Subang Jaya, Serdang and Sepang. Through these Questionnaire One (Q1) was disseminated, specifying the criteria that needed to be met to ease the task of narrowing the profiles of their relatives, friends and acquaintances so that the right kind of candidates could be recruited. The nine people that I had direct contact with in turn had also made contact with people they knew who might be able to take part in the study. As briefly mentioned above, these nine friends and acquaintances were given between ten to forty sets of questionnaires each to give out to people they knew. This first task which required the first few contacts to find potentially suitable candidates to fill in the questionnaire was not difficult, but getting back the questionnaires took quite a long time. Many calls or meetings were made with the initial contacts before finally getting back the returns over a span of three to four weeks. The actual number of questionnaires that given out to friends of friends was 165 of which 74 questionnaires were returned answered while the remaining 91 were given back unanswered. The returned and answered questionnaires account for 44.8% of the questionnaires that were actually distributed and considering the difficulty of tracking the agents, a return of near 50% was acceptable.

The 74 participants recruited from the preliminary survey were shortlisted and finally selected based on the pre-set criteria. Not all of those who filled in Q1 met all of the three criteria. All of the twenty-three participants who were selected fulfilled at least one or two of the criteria (see Appendix 5.8 for a break-down of the participants' social profiles).

One other obstacle in the search for participants was the difficulty of finding one older male participant and one younger female participant. All

the while, while meeting and talking with those participants already recruited, people who would fit in these profiles were being sought. It was impossible, and the final number of participants was twenty-three. This resulted in a grid filled with 11 participants in the EM group and 12 in the MM group (Table 5.2). The initial plan was to have 24 with equal distribution in the age- group, sex and level of education/exposure to English medium of education but the final group was 11 males — excluding the one older male (EM group) with tertiary education background — and 12 female participants — as displayed in the grid below, there is only one, instead of two, young female participants (MM group) with primary school background. On the other hand, there were three female participants (MM group) with the tertiary education/'lots of English' cell. By the education level variable, there were seven participants who had primary and up to lower secondary education of whom three were female and four male. Eight participants with an equal number of males and females had completed secondary education and eight more had tertiary education. There were five female participants and three male participants in the tertiary sub-group. The final sample is much more unbalanced in these education level/sex variables for the tertiary sub-group. Unbalanced data may skew results which call for caution when analyzing and interpreting results although the difference in number between the two groups in terms of sex, age and education level is only one for each variable.

**Table 5.2: Final sample: Distribution of participants**

| Education level /English contact | Pre-1970 EM | | Post-1970 MM | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Sex | | Sex | |
| | Male (age:49 and above) | Female (age:49 and above) | Male (age: between 39 and 18) | Female (age: between 39 and 18) |
| Primary school up to Form Three (Lower secondary)/ with little English | MKMH MAM | BJ RAM | KAT AJMS | MS |
| Secondary school (Upper secondary)/ with more English | NA SMD | KA DMY | MMM AB | SAMRS YM |
| Tertiary education/with a lot more English | MKM | NZA NH | RA NAAW | ZMS MAG SH |
| Total | 5 | 6 | 6 | 6 |

It was indeed extremely challenging to find participants who only had primary school education. Prior to the actual fieldwork, the idea was to find information representing three levels of education — primary, secondary and tertiary. The Malaysian primary school typically commences the year a child reaches the age of seven and ends when he or she is twelve years old, then the child carries on to secondary school for another five years from form one to form five, and within this time period a child has to take two public examinations, typically at form three, when the child is fifteen and form five, when he/she is seventeen. For the form three public examination, the participants in the EM group took the Lower Certificate of Education (LCE) while those in the MM group sat the Malay equivalent (*Sijil Rendah Pelajaran*/SRP), both of which required a pass for promotion to form four. This was later changed to *Penilaian Menengah Rendah* (PMR), an open certificate examination that promotes students to form four automatically[18].

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[18] The former Deputy Prime Minister Tan Sri Muhyiddin who was also holding the Ministry of Education portfolio announced on the 20th June 2010 that *Ujian Penilaian Sekolah Rendah* (UPSR) which is the primary school assessment at the end of Standard six as well as the PMR might be abolished. According to him, this is a move towards the restructuring of the education system which has been criticized as being too heavily laden with examinations and failing in providing a more comprehensive and holistic education (The Star, 2010, June 20, The Malay Mail, 2010, June 20). The latest update on this issue is that the PMR examination will be a school-based assessment while the

At form five, participants in the EM group would have sat the Malaysian Certificate of Education (MCE) while the MM group would have to take the *Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia* (SPM). Upon completing form five, there are several avenues to take. Students can go on to form six where they would be assessed in the Higher School Certificate (HSC)/*Sijil Tinggi Persekolahan* (STP) or the *Sijil Tinggi Pelajaran Malaysia* (STPM), which had replaced the former examination in 1982. They could also go on to pre-university and tertiary education either locally or overseas or if conditions do not permit them to do so then the obvious alternative would be to enter the job market.

As aforementioned the education variable was to be of three strands, the primary level accordingly is only up to primary six. Assuming that there were students who did not complete their primary education or were unable to proceed to secondary education, it had been a goal of the study to capture the significance of this variable. But faced with the difficulties of even finding one person who could meet this criterion, the sample was expanded to include participants who received lower secondary education up to form three.

### 5.10.1 *Interviews*

Once the list of participants was obtained, it was necessary to set up meetings for each of them; appointments were made by contacting them through the telephone**.** All but one meeting, which was in the participant's home, took place at the participants' work places respectively, but always in a private setting where there were minimal distractions and little noise. The participants lived and worked in the different districts of Selangor ─ Kuala Lumpur, Shah Alam, Bandar Baru Bangi and Sepang.

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UPSR will have a new improved format from 2016, as was announced on October, 9th 2010 by the former Malaysian Deputy Prime Minister, Tan Sri Muhyiddin Yassin (The Sundaily, 2010, October 10). In 2014, the new Form 3 school-based assessment called *Pentaksiran Tingkatan 3* (PT3)/Form 3 Assessment.

The 23 participants were met and interviewed between 30 and 45 minutes each over a period of one month. With the interview, one of the main concerns was being able to be consistent in conducting the oral task. For most of the participants speaking English almost always all the way through in my most comfortable style was practicable but it proved to be more difficult at times with some of the participants whose education background was categorized as primary level. A couple of them, a female, SYM[19], and a male, NZA from the MM group, understood most of the instructions that I had given verbally but they found it very difficult to respond in English, confessing that they '*tak pandai cakap Bahasa Inggeris*' ('don't know how to speak English'). But after much persuasion and a lot of encouragement by which I found myself inevitably speaking in Malay, they managed to spill out some of their ideas in English. The female participant (SYM) could say a lot more in English amidst code switches (see Appendix 5.9 for the transcript of the interview with SYM) compared to the male participant (NZA) who resorted to being silent when really finding it difficult to say much more. And likewise, another female participant, MS, in the MM group, it was extremely difficult for her to do the interview and oral tasks in English. At that point in time all that could be done was to give a lot of prompts and pose questions in order to draw out some responses from MS. And again for this participant, it was extremely difficult not to switch to Malay to help her make sense of the tasks at hand.

As a result of these difficulties, the outcome of the oral interviews with these participants was dissimilar to those interviews obtained from participants with higher education levels. In terms of the length and quality of the spoken data, they are much shorter and linguistic features much simpler. Samples of these data were analyzed in the same way as all the others. This will be exemplified in the data description section.

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[19] Each participant was given a code which used his /her initials.

## 5.11 Handling Data

At the end of the fieldwork 12 hours and 47 minutes of recorded spoken data had been acquired from 23 participants, using an Olympus DS-50 Digital Voice Recorder to record the participants. All recordings were audible and generally clear but as with any recorded utterances, some elements are bound to be indecipherable, such as whispers and mumbles. Other paralinguistic elements such as hesitations or diversions which indicated a change of mind, backchannel or repetitions were plentiful and sometimes tricky to capture. Transferring the data to a personal computer made some differences as it was possible to control the audio system better but not very much more when trying to make sense of the barely audible utterances. In this case there was not much else that could be done but listen back and forth.

The transcribed data resulted in 659 double-spaced A4 pages. The data were transcribed verbatim and the transcription applied a system of marking speech features such as overlaps, gaps and intonation solely for personal purposes, to remind one of the speaker's intended meaning. Speakers were marked using tags and each speaker's turn started on a new line which was double spaced from the next. To mark an overlap in speech, that is, when both speakers speak at the same time, a square bracket [ ] was used to indicate simultaneous acts of speech. A normal micro pause is marked using the comma, a short pause with '..' while a longer one is indicated with '…' and when there is a very long interlude, when a speaker was engaged in some cognitive process, this lengthening pause is marked by ………accordingly to its duration. Unintelligible utterances were marked with double brackets (( )) and also approximated to their duration. When I had comments or notes on utterances I put them in single bracket ( ). Apart from these, I also marked the rising and falling intonation of certain utterances with ↻ and ↺ respectively. I found these two symbols very useful for signifying statements which were meant as questions for instance, or represented a fallen mood. Laughter and giggles were indicated with @.

One other important exercise in transcribing is to note down the counter number; I did this on every page and I found it to be a crucial feature in the transcription for without these counter numbers, tracing back the transcription to the original recording would have been needlessly troublesome. The transcriptions were finally checked by a native speaker of English, who listened to several sound files paying particular attention to the morphemes in the utterances. This check agreed with over 90% with my own transcription.

The following section will discuss the challenging task of coding these linguistic data.

## 5.12 Coding

As this study aims to examine the morpho-syntactic competence of two groups of Malay L2 speakers of English and factors that may correlate with the linguistic or grammatical features/morphemes under investigation, the grammatical features produced by the participants are essentially quantified and then compared between groups and among individual participants' performances. Before this can be carried out, the utterances the participants produced would have to be coded.

So, the next phase was to code them. The transcripts had to be transferred into an Excel document first, a process that involved the extraction of data and a system for coding. An Excel spreadsheet was created for each participant and labelled with his/her pseudonym. The first column was for the transcribed data while the subsequent columns were for the various grammatical features under study.

In each participant's spreadsheet, I had, at first, transferred the transcribed data into the first column. Then I realized that transferring the transcribed data into rows required a lot more thought on how the data could be managed more effectively. The length of utterances was quite wide-ranging and this posed a problem of how or where to break up the

utterances. Considering the goal of the study which is to inspect the speech data produced by L2 Malay speakers of English morpho-syntactically, it was logical therefore to truncate long utterances into informational units (Chafe, 1984c). In addition, in view of the number of linguistic features which were to be scrutinized, only the subject clauses of the utterances were examined. Why this was decided so was for reasons that were both practical and technical. As there were many thousands of utterances to pore over, time constraint was certainly a crucial factor to be considered. As aforementioned, recordings from the 23 participants produced over 12 hours of oral utterances, but all of these were transferred into Excel worksheets. After some trimming/editing, the utterances that were transferred into the Excel worksheets amounted to 5,844.

Coding the utterances single-handedly was inevitably going to be a very time-consuming task. Furthermore, with complex sentence type utterances, coding work was discovered to be much more complicated and trickier to handle. Complex utterances were technically difficult to code for the features that are examined; that is, it is not possible to code for a particular feature more than once in one cell. Take for instance, when coding for plural nouns in a sentence like 'We raise up all their houses for the infant in there' as compared to simple sentences such as 'the tsunami is happen very fast' and 'I was quite lucky-lah'.

As a consequence, and bearing in mind the feasibility of completing the coding work within a constrained time period, it was felt best to only tag the subject clause of the utterances. One way to tackle the technical problem of coding is to create another worksheet for object clauses/predicate clauses/subordinate clauses, but this would entail endless coding which is not a realistic target at this point in time. This, however, can be taken up in another study.

### 5.12.1 *The coding schema*

In order to analyze the grammatical features/morphemes a coding schema was devised and used to tag the features involved.

**Table 5.3: Part of the codification table used to code utterances**

| Main Codes | What they stand for | Sub-codes | What they stand for | Examples |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| G | Utterance (Finite Clauses) | g | … is target-like[20] | They came over to…{tsk what I mean is uh…. }to help, to help the Acheh people (DMY) |
| | | u | … is non-target-like | They are [move go maybe] go to a another place for the safe (KAT) |
| | | ug | The utterance overall is non target-like but the actual phenomenon we are looking at is target-like. | Then we can see anywhere got water flow (SAMR) |
| S | Noun in the subject clause | b | …is present and target-like | They're happy, naturally happy (AB) |
| | | w | …is present but non-target-like (in number, and person) | the God want to show something (NA) |
| | | a | …is absent | of course was sad.. (SYM) |

Referring to Table 5.3 above (which shows a part of the whole codification table, see Appendix 5.10 for a full codification table) the first column contains the main codes while the second denotes what the main codes signify. Then for every main code there are sub-codes and what these stand for is explained in the fourth column. Examples of the kind of non-target-like-ness made in the grammatical features/morphemes that are analyzed are given in the last column. Take for instance, the first row in the table which contains a main code – G. G describes the grammaticality of the whole utterance. If an utterance is target-like then a sub-code 'g' is used to signify this, and if it is not the sub-code, 'u' is applied. However, when an utterance is wholly non-target-like as a result of a non-target-like element in the predicate clause, the feature or a phenomenon studied

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[20] Target-like in this study is taken to mean approximating the Inner Circle norm variety of English, i.e. in the Malaysian context, British English.

contained in the subject clause is target-like, the whole utterance is coded with 'ug'.

The other codes or sub-codes in the table are specifically for each feature that is examined in the oral data. The utterances were coded in Excel worksheets. So each column in the worksheet is used for the main codes. 'S' which focuses on the pronominal subject of the utterance takes a column and the same was done for the other main codes. The sub-codes for this S (pronominal subject) category are 'b', 'w' and 'a'. When the subject of an utterance is present and target-like, code 'b' is assigned and if it is present but it is non-target-like then this is coded with a 'w'.

These were accordingly labelled in the row for each respective utterance but under the same 'S' column. An example of coding is shown in Figure 5.1.

| | G | S | C | CT | XA | XT | XP | M | MT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Examples | | | | | | | | | |
| Uh..This is about the.. tsunami tragedyM | g | b | d | e | | | | | |
| { Um… I think uh} I was in the workplace, | g | b | d | e | | | | | |
| **Yeh, were working** | **u** | **a** | | | w | h | | | |
| Ah yes take, take it seriously | u | a | | | | | | w | w |
| Why, why, why it happen | u | b | | | | | | w | w |

**Figure 5.1: Coding utterances**

Referring to Figure 5.1, the utterance 'yeh, were working' (extracted from MMM's data), for example, was coded as 'u' for non-target-like in column 'G' which signifies the grammaticality of an utterance, 'a' for omission or absence of the pronominal subject in the utterance in the S — pronominal subjects — column.

All the other utterances are coded following a similar system whereby a main code with sub-codes are assigned for instances of (non-) target-like-ness of a particular grammatical feature/morpheme. In an utterance, when

a grammatical feature/ morpheme is identified as not target-like, a sub-code for non-target-likeness i.e. 'w' is applied; the conditions for the non-target-likeness of the feature are considered and described under this 'w' code. Conditions for target-likeness of the grammatical features/morphemes are based on British English as aforementioned in the introduction chapter. Subject and verb agreement has its own category (SVA) with various sub-codes for the various cases that occur. Here in this study, SVA in three verb types are considered, therefore there need to be sub codes for the three verbs ─ main/lexical verb, copula and auxiliary verbs with 'target-like' or 'non target-like' assigned codes for the three verbs respectively. Target-likeness in SVA should observe the relation between the subject and the verb in the utterance which considers number and person (for utterances in the present tense).

Non-target-like instances in tense for main verbs, copula and auxiliary verbs, for example, were treated separately in different columns with each grammatical feature having its own main code namely MT (main verb tense), CT (copula verb tense) and XT (auxiliary verb tense) and its respective sub-codes of target-likeness or non-target-likeness. Coding for articles necessitate creating sub- codes which consider the different environments for articles which include the omission of articles that are non-target-like and omission of articles that are target-like (zero articles). These various sub-codes are crucial for they fulfil the various distinctions each grammatical feature embodies, thoroughness in the analysis of the grammatical features can be ensured. Thus, for any other features or phenomena that are not the foci of this study, they are shelved in the 'OP' (Other Phenomena) column and can be potentially analyzed for other studies. Another code is 's' which is used for coding any grammatical item or feature that is not applicable to the feature in question or not overtly indicated, that is, the feature in question is not determined due to its absence in any of the main code columns in the excel spread sheet. To further comprehend the coding system that I used, the following example is presented.

| | G | S | C | CT | XA | XT | XP | M | MT | MF | MI | SV | DA | IA | PL | SG | SVA | OP | Grammatical structures | CLT | DCL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Examples | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Uh.. This is about the.. tsunami tragedy | g | b | d | e | s | s | s | s | s | s | s | s | s | s | s | r | c | O-pr;DA (l); Sg-r | | C | h |

**Figure 5.2: Example of coding**

Here in this particular example in Figure 5.2, as the utterance is target-like it is coded with 'g' in the 'G' column. The second column 'S' for the subject in the utterance which is target-like is coded with the sub-code 'b' (target-like). The copula verb and its tense form are also target-like, thus columns 'C' for copula verb and 'CT' for the tense form of the copula verb are coded with sub-codes 'd' and 'e' respectively for target-likeness. The following columns ('XA' till 'PL') are coded with's' signifying that these categories are not applicable. In the 'SG' (for singular noun) column, 'r' is used to refer to the target-like singular pronoun 'this', while in the 'SVA' column, the sub-code 'c' is applied to tag that there is concordance between the subject and the copula verb. The predicate containing the prepositional phrase 'about the tsunami tragedy' is shelved into the 'OP' column. The column labelled as 'Grammatical structures' is for writing down the correct or grammatical version of the intended utterance. The last two columns 'CLT' and 'DCL' are designated for coding clause types and dependent clauses.

Table 5.4 shows the coding schema for the types of clauses in the oral data as well as for the dependent clauses.

**Table 5.4: Codes for coding types of clauses and dependent clauses**

| Main code | How are clauses joined? | | Sub- codes |
|---|---|---|---|
| CLT (Clause type) | Not at all/ simple | | a |
| | Conjoined/co-ordination | | b |
| | Complex | | c |
| | Fragments (including adverbial phrases, prepositional phrase) | | d |
| DCL (Dependent Clause in bi-clausal utterances) [leave independent clauses without dependent clauses i.e. simple clauses] | Dependent clause precedes independent clause | dependent correct; independent correct | a |
| | | dependent wrong; independent wrong | b |
| | | dependent correct; independent wrong | c |
| | | dependent wrong; independent correct | d |
| | Dependent clause follows independent clause | dependent correct; independent correct | e |
| | | dependent wrong; independent wrong | f |
| | | dependent correct; independent wrong | g |
| | | dependent wrong; independent correct | h |
| Dependent clause in multi-clausal utterances | Complex clause | | c |
| | dependent correct | | i |
| | dependent wrong | | j |
| | independent correct | | k |
| | independent wrong | | l |

To illustrate the different clause types and how they are coded, I have selected several actual utterances have been selected from several participants:

| | G | S | C | SG | | SVA | OP | Grammatical structures | CLT | DCL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Examples (from AB/MM) | | | | | | | | | | |
| Mm..ah..they show mm..the..disaster. Mm..yah .. some .. this is Tsunami, in Indonesia. | | | | | | | | | a a | |

**Figure 5.3: Non-joined clauses/Simple clauses**

| | G | S | C | SG | SVA | OP | Grammatical structures | CLT | DCL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Examples (from KA/EM) | | | | | | | | | |
| My eldest, now is er working, as a nurse  in Tawakkal Hospital | | | | | | | | b | |
| they lost [their their relative… …and ... very close to them. | | | | | | | they lost [their relatives... ..and those (who were) very close to them | a<br>b | |
| but later if you are very er er thinking about it | | | | | | | | b | |

**Figure 5.4: Conjoined/Coordinated clauses**

In coding a bi-clausal utterance, it would have been necessary to firstly determine whether the dependent clause in that particular utterance precedes or follows its independent clause before assigning the appropriate codes to the utterance or sentence. Codes (see Table 5.4) are given for grammaticality of every possible option of both categories namely, 'Dependent clause precedes independent clause' and 'Dependent clause follows independent clause'.

| | G | S | C | SG | SVA | OP | Grammatical structures | CLT | DCL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Examples (from SMD/EM and DMY/EM) | | | | | | | | | |
| Well, I heard, they just dug up one big hole, | | | | | | | | c | a |
| [But, not really, but] when you look at the picture, it's been the total ruin.... | | | | | | | | c | b |
| I'm very sure that they have never experience this kind of thing, | | | | | | | | c | c |
| #then uh.. think they're trying hard lah | | | | | | | | | |
| #Maybe it's the beach flooded with water all over | | | | | | | | c | d |
| probably, {you know,} they couldn't recognize who the people who are, you know, lying on the ground. | | | | | | | | c | e |
| | | | | | | | | c | f |
| Of course, I was terribly, terribly shock when I heard about it, | | | | | | | | | |
| #So... it's not, hygienic for.. the people | | | | | | | | c | g |
| who's alive | | | | | | | | c | h |

**Figure 5.5: Complex (bi-clausal)**

As for utterances which contain more than two clauses, coding of each

clause is done depending on whether it is grammatically target-like or not.

| | G | S | C | SG | SVA | OP | Grammatical structures | CLT | DCL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Examples (from KA/EM) | | | | | | | | | |
| everybody, including the one | | | | | | | | c | i |
| | | | | | | | | c | j |
| who..{what er..}take the picture | | | | | | | | c | j |
| also run for life | | | | | | | | b | |
| | | | | | | | | c | j |
| So after one year ..{we got er,} | | | | | | | | c | k |
| when she born | | | | | | | | c | l |
| I said, | | | | | | | | | |
| I feel so.. thankful to God | | | | | | | | | |

**Figure 5.6: Complex (multi-clausal)**

Fragments include utterances that are incomplete and one or two word chunks.

| | G | S | C | SG | SVA | OP | Grammatical structures | CLT | DCL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Examples (from AJMS/MM, AB/MM, MAM/EM) | | | | | | | | | |
| [And… the … what's … ca( ) err]… a car!<br><br>KFC, hah,<br><br>about the Tsunami<br><br>Emm.. maybe er em majority,<br><br>Ah last time ah | | | | | | | | d<br><br>d<br><br>d<br><br>d<br><br>d | |

**Figure 5.7 Fragments**

It should be mentioned however that this study does not analyze types of clauses as it will be quite unmanageable given the time constraint. Nevertheless, these data can be taken up in future studies on L2 learners' competence.

## 5.13 Problems in Coding

Fundamentally oral data contains characteristics of natural speech that make analysis of the data a challenging task. Speech disfluencies are irregularities that break the flow of an otherwise fluent speech and are often inconsistent with any specific grammatical construction. They include interjections or fillers like 'er' and 'uhm' which function as pauses as well as repairs in utterances; they also include cut-off utterances, restarted and repeated phrases and repeated syllables. In order to make more sense of the data I had to trim down what was deemed inessential to the main objectives of the research.

I excluded utterances with the following characteristics in my analysis and the coding of the features that this research is aimed to investigate.

a. Ambiguous utterances

    i.   Incomplete and fragmented utterances

This is speech that is fragmentary 'lacking constituents that are normally obligatory' (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1985, p.838). They are not completed or just abandoned as fragments of what would be a complete utterance, for some reason or other like loss of ideas or change of mind or due to some kind of mental distraction. It is very difficult to define or interpret what the speaker intends to say and hence quite impossible to analyze. Quirk and Greenbaum (1985, p.838) consider these structures as 'nonsentences' as they cannot be analyzed with certainty with regard to clause elements. Likewise with indeterminate phrases, which were not included in the count.

    (5.1) Researcher: [I remember there was, there were lots of pictures showing lots of bodies and they didn't have enough manpower to, how do you say, to collect [the bodies ↻

    RA: [to, to clear up, all those...

    because ah….sorry…ah…

    Yeh only this em…aa…

    ii.   Indeterminate phrases

    (5.2) everybody↻ er..stand er…..is it standing? (AJMS)

    I think, after er...on TV. (KAT)

    Ah...I think was, ah ya (MS)

b. Copies or repeats of interviewer's utterances

These are instances of 'backchannel' that is, 'where one speaker repeats the other' or 'proffer-repetition' where speaker B offers the word speaker A was searching for and A repeats it (Buchstaller, 2004, p.27) as in the following examples.

(5.3)  A: dead bodies…

B: Ya dead body

RAM: There are things, rubbish…err…mm………
             floating…

M:                                            [floating


c.  Ellipsis

Ellipsis is 'strictly described' by Quirk and Greenbaum (1985, p.883) as 'grammatical omission' in contra to other types of omission in language viz the omission of phonological units (syllables), for examples, *'cos* in be*cause*, *flu* in *influenza*; semantic omission as in the example, 'Frankly, he is stupid' where there is an implied meaning by the use of the disjunct 'frankly'. The disjunct can be expanded to many other forms like *I am speaking frankly when I say*…In other words, 'there is no one set of missing words that can be supplied' (op.cit., p.884). Quirk and Greenbaum (op.cit. p.888) provided five criteria for ellipsis. The principle of 'Verbatim Recoverability' ─ the first criterion much emphasized- states that the actual missing word(s) or expression, their meaning understood or implied, must be recoverable. Textual recoverability according to Quirk and Greenbaum (op.cit. p.887) 'is the surest guarantee of ellipsis, since without it, there is usually no room for disagreement on what particular word or expression has been ellipted'. There are several types of ellipses Quirk and Greenbaum (1985, p.887) but as ellipsis is not the main concern of my study I excluded ellipses that are target-like. Some examples are:

(5.4) em normal (AJMS)

no, not all (MKM)

aah walking, without slippers (MAG)

I included cases that were non-target-like.

    (5.5) Maybe a bag from...somebody..er..visit this place
        (ZMS)

        ...ah...between the tree, okay (NA)

d.  Questions

Wh-questions which are used to request specific information and Yes/no questions, often defined as 'questions for which either "yes" or "no" is the expected answer' (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p.205) were not incorporated in the coding of the data.

    (5.6) Is it a bag? (MKMH)

        What? (NAAW)
        This after? (MS)

However, structures that look like questions but that function differently from Wh-and Yes/no questions are included. These are the clarification type questions such as 'Statement-form' or 'uninverted' questions and tag questions. I included these question types but analyzed them for the declarative sentences of the question structures:-

i.  These are statements uttered in a rising intonation to seek clarification or verification from the listener.

    (5.7) looking maybe.. for.. their families↺ (RAM)

        by..going up to to the higher level↺ (RAM)
        about er… forty fifty people↺ (SAMR)

ii. The tags were ignored.

(5.8) This tsunami from Acheh,{isn't it?} (MKMH)

er…but the tsunami is suddenly came,{isn't it?} (AJMS)

You won't mind it later, {isn't it} (NAAW)

iii. Other forms of clarification tag which may also be clichéd set phrases were left out.

(5.9) this all are water, ok? (RA)
can see the tree collapsed, ok? (BJ)
it has to go back to the ocean, {right?} (MAG)
but this under different view { correct or not? }
(MAM)
This is a..emm., [the thing polis (police)] , motorbike  eh?
(KAT)

'Correct or not' is a typical Malaysian English chunk used to seek agreement or clarification. 'eh' or 'ek' in a rising intonation are typically Malay tags used for the same purposes of confirmation and conformity.

e.   The abandoned part of self-corrected utterances were excluded.

(5.10) [but I remember that, some they said is aa oh, they are
running, hey ha, they he',
**they are running to the, high.. place..** (SH)
so {the beach..the beach is uh} **from the nice, nice** be**ach**
(SAMR)
{I think… was it cannot} **I cannot figure out** (NZA)
{For the amount, for this rubbish the surface of the water} **we
could just ever imagine what was the volume of water**
(NA)

The self-corrected word(s)/phrase(s) was/were included for analysis. In the samples above, the phrases in bold are the ones that were used and analyzed whilst those in bracket are left out.

f.   Projections

These are words or phrases that are given in anticipation the other speaker's utterance. The word provided by speaker B in the example

below is a projection of what speaker A is about to say, a 'form of anticipatory overlap due to the projectability of utterances', a 'foreshadowing' according to Buchstaller (2004, p.27).

> (5.11) DMY: husband who lost…..**wife**
> M**:**                   **[wife**
> DMY: children lost mothers

g.  Formulae and interjections

Formulaic utterances like fragments and interjections are classified by Quirk and Greenbaum (1985, p.852) as 'irregular' sentences. Formulae which are very used in informal communication make very limited use of grammatical structure and can be analyzed into clause elements in a very restricted way (op.cit. p.852). Interjections or fillers such as *mm, ah, er, oh,* and *wow* are 'purely emotive words' that do not possess any syntactic relations. Wray (2002, p.9) defines a formulaic sequence as 'a sequence, continuous or discontinuous, of words or other elements, which is, or appears to be, prefabricated: that is, stored and retrieved whole from memory at the time of use, rather than being subject to generation or analysis by the language grammar'.  Idioms, proverbs and set phrases such as seasonal greetings, introductions, thanks and expletives are among others which make formulaic language (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1985).

Some examples from my own data were eliminated from analysis.

> (5.12) You're welcome (NH)
> I think
> What do you call (SMD)

h.  Responses in Malay

A couple of the participants when finding it difficult to express themselves in English naturally resorted to Malay; these responses were not taken into account.

(5.13) Tak banyak, cuma saya rasa, macam.. aa… mangsa-mangsa
tragedi tu mungkin sampai sekarang pun takkan lupa apa
yang terjadi. (MS)
'Not many, only I think, like..aa victims of the tragedy
maybe uptill now will not be able to forget what
happened'.

However, phrases that contain proper Malay nouns or words that have no
English equivalent were included. Some examples are:

(5.14) She now.. ss schooling at, uh Sekolah Menengah Teknik,
Arau. (RA)
'She is now schooling at Technical Secondary School, Arau'.

Uh..My favourite food is uh..asam pedas. (RAM)

(*Asam pedas* – a favourite Malay fish dish cooked in hot and sour sauce
made from tamarind juice and chilli)

i. Responses that are code-switched between Malay and English

Code switching[21] is common linguistic phenomenon among bilingual
Malaysians. Changing from one language or language variety to another
frequently takes place in the informal conversations of Malaysians cutting
across all socio-economical status, age and gender (Nair-Venugopal,
Shantanair, 2000; Jacobson, 2004). Bilingual Malays switch between
Malay and English quite frequently (Noor Azlina, 1979). Among my
participants, in some more than others, this phenomenon is evident.
Responses such as the ones below were omitted from my analysis.

(5.15) Tak mute (MAG)
'is not mute'

No no, is it rescue from our Malaysia…but ini…ada bantuan
yang diterima aa… yang datang untuk membantu (MKMH)
'No, no, is it our Malaysian rescue team …but
this...there is help received...aa...that comes to help'.

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[21] Here code-switching is used interchangeably with code mixing. Code switching has
been defined by and large as the interchangeable use of two or more languages by a
speaker in the same conversation. (cf. Nair-Venugopal 2000, p.77; Scotton and Ury,
1977; Gumperz 1982, p.59; Richards, Platt and Webber, 1985).

Because long utterances are more complex they are quite complicated to tag. The embedded clauses in complex sentences would have to be broken down to make coding more manageable (see Figures 5.4, 5.5, and 5.6). In addition to this, at the early stage of coding the utterances, consequent to the realization that multi-coding of a particular grammatical feature is problematic ─ a grammatical feature, say plural nouns which appear twice or thrice in a sentence- to tag in one cell of the 'plural' column for that particular sentence. To tag all counts of plural items that could appear in a sentence, would require perhaps another column just for the second appearance of a plural item and another for the next one. The same would have to be done for singulars. This would not be feasible in my limited capacity dealing with copious data within a time constraint. The other way to tackle this difficulty is to decide on analyzing only the subject clause of the utterance which I did as elaborated in section 5.12. In cases where there are two plural nouns in the subject clause, then the second item has got to be analyzed in the next row for its grammaticality. Take this example: *I got two ch ah three children, two daughters and one son*. Finally, when a participant used a mix of tenses in an utterance it is sometimes not easy to determine the appropriate tense to be used. One may refer to the past in the present tense at the moment of speaking. For the purpose of my research, in the picture stimuli exercise when the participants had to describe what they remember about the tsunami, as the pictures are captioned with a date and a time marker I analyzed the tenses in the participants' utterances accordingly following the time sequence and context set in the pictures.

By the end of the coding exercise, I had analyzed 5,844 utterances and coded them into 20 separate columns with different codes; these amounted to a total of 116,888 coded units.

## 5.14 Recoding Coded Items

Once the utterances are coded, the next step is to recode the sub-codes into numerical values. This requires another set of codes (see Table 5.5).

## Table 5.5: Numerical codes for re-coding

| Main Codes | What they stand for | Sub-codes | Excel codes |
|---|---|---|---|
| G | Utterance ( Finite Clauses) | g | 1 |
| | | u | 3 |
| | | ug | 2 |
| S | Noun in the subject clause | b | 1 |
| | | w | 2 |
| | | a | 3 |
| C | Copula verb in subject clause | d | 1 |
| | | w | 2 |
| | | a | 3 |
| CT | The tense form of the copula verb in subject clause | e | 1 |
| | | w | 2 |
| XA | Auxiliary verb in subject clause (ACTIVE form) | f | 1 |
| | | w | 2 |
| | | a | 3 |
| XT | The tense form of the auxiliary verb in subject clause | h | 1 |
| | | w | 2 |
| XP | Auxiliary verb in subject clause (PASSIVE form) | g | 1 |
| | | w | 2 |
| | | a | 3 |
| M | Main verb in subject clause | I | 1 |
| | | w | 2 |
| | | a | 3 |
| MT | The tense form of the main verb in subject clause | J | 1 |
| | | w | 2 |
| MF | The participle or/and continuous forms of the main verb in subject clause | k | 1 |
| | | w | 2 |
| MI | Non finite verb (e.g. Infinitive, copula) in subject clause | o | 1 |
| | | w | 2 |
| | | a | 3 |
| SV | Serial verbs | g | 1 |
| | | w | 2 |
| DA | Definite article in in subject clause | L | 1 |
| | | w | 2 |
| | | a | 3 |
| | | q | 4 |
| IA | Indefinite article in the Noun phrase of the subject clause | n | 1 |
| | | w | 2 |
| | | a | 3 |
| | | q | 4 |
| PL | Plural noun in subject clause | p | 1 |
| | | w | 2 |
| | | a | 3 |
| | | z | 4 |
| SG | Singular noun in subject clause | r | 1 |
| | | w | 2 |
| SVA | Agreement of subject and verb in utterance in terms of number (plural or singular subject) and person | c | 1 |
| | | t | 2 |
| | | x | 3 |
| | | v | 4 |
| | | m | 5 |
| | | y | 6 |
| OP | Other phenomena | | |
| s | Non applicable or not overtly indicated | Does not apply to the feature in question or the feature in question is not determined due to the absence of an obligatory feature/a related feature | 7 |

All the sub-codes in each participant's Excel worksheet were replaced with the numerical values assigned to them respectively. Once this was done, each numerical value representing a sub-code in each column, allotted for each grammar feature, was counted. The sums of all numerical values within that particular column were also added up. Subsequently these figures were transferred into SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). Data from the questionnaire survey which provide other factors, extralinguistic variables, etc., were also assigned numerical values. These and the nominal data for the linguistic variables were entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.0 for windows. Frequency and correlation analyses were carried out using this statistical package.

The next chapter will present and discuss the results of the statistical analyses.

# Chapter 6. Results

**6.0 Introduction**

In this chapter, the results of the analyses of the grammatical features and constructions in the study are presented. The main aim of the analyses is essentially to find any differences in the production of grammatical features and constructions between Malay L2 English speakers who were exposed to English and those who were exposed to Malay as the medium of instruction. Malay L2 speakers who were exposed to English were the older group (EM) while those who were exposed to Malay medium of instruction, were younger (MM).

The research questions in this study are:

1. Is there a significant difference in the current morpho-syntactic competence of those who, as primary, secondary and/or tertiary students, according to their instruction medium i.e. English or in Malay?

2. Do the two groups of adult Malay speakers' educated in English or Malay differ in their competence in these dependent linguistic variables selected for this study namely:

- Omission of pronominal subjects

- Lack of past-tense inflection

- Omission of copula verbs

- Omission of auxiliary verbs

- Lack of subject and verb agreement in main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs

- Omission of articles

- Omission of plural marking

3. Are there factors other than the medium of education that have influenced adult Malay English speakers' morpho-syntactic competence?

a. Extralinguistic factors namely sex, level of education (secondary or tertiary), formal exposure to English (total hours of English instruction).

b. Current use of English (at home/office and online; interaction in English with native speakers where English is expected and with non- native speakers in English).

Results for the two groups' production of the grammatical features/ morphemes are presented first in the following sections. Individual performances will ensue after the section on summary of group performance (see 6.6 and 6.9). The following section describes how the data were analyzed.

**6.1 Data Analysis**

For this research, data were collected from 23 participants from English–medium education (11) and Malay-medium participants (12). The statistical significance level is set at a $p \leqq 0.05$ level at 95 per cent confidences level which is in line with social sciences conventions (Larson-Hall, 2010; Levine and Hullett, 2002). That is to say, results in the following section are only considered significant when a probability value smaller than or equal to 0.05 is yielded.

In order to determine the correlation level (r) and significant level (p) value, Pearson's correlation analyses were deployed.

The raw data obtained from the questionnaires were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) Version 22.0 for Windows and analyzed using both descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. SPSS is used to get an accurate result which minimizes errors (Konting,

2005). In addition, Chua (2006) mentioned that without statistics, the collected data is difficult to analyze, explain, and understand.

Descriptive statistics helps describe, show or summarize data or patterns might emerge from the data in a meaningful way. However, it does not allow us to make conclusions beyond the data we have analyzed or to reach conclusion on any hypotheses. It is simply a way to describe the data and it allows for a simple interpretation. It is useful for making the summary of the group of data using a combination of tabulated description such as tables, graphical description such as graphs and charts, and statistical commentary for instance, the discussion of the results (Larson-Hall, 2010). The descriptive statistic used in this study includes frequencies, percentage, means, and standard deviation.

Inferential statistics allows researcher to use samples to make generalizations about the populations from which the samples were drawn. The sample must accurately represent the population. Inferential statistics arise out of the fact that sampling naturally incurs sampling error and thus a sample is not expected to perfectly represent the population Barrow (2000). The method of inferential statistics deployed in this study was the testing of hypotheses. The following types of data analyses were deployed in this study:

### 6.1.1 Pearson's correlation analysis

Both regression and correlation are concerned with relationship between variables. Correlation analysis is a method that measures the strength of relationship between variables (Tiong, 2003). Statistical analysis in the form of Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to measure the strength of the relationship between independent and dependent variable. The Pearson correlation coefficient tested the research hypotheses concerning the relationship between variables which determine the relationship between the factors. Pearson correlation value, which has a value between

-1 and +1 determined the strength and direction of the relationship between two variables (Cooper and Schindler, 2008). The prediction of strength of relationship between variables by Miller (1991) is shown in Table 6.1 below:

**Table 6.1: Interpretation of the value of Pearson correlation coefficient**

| Correlation coefficient r  (+/ - ) | Relationship between variables |
|---|---|
| 0.00 – 0.20 | Little or no relationship |
| 0.20 – 0.40 | Some slight relationship |
| 0.40 – 0.60 | Substantial relationship |
| 0.60 – 0.80 | Strong useful relationship |
| 0.80 – 1.00 | High relationship |

Pearson's correlation coefficient was applied to examine the strength of relationship between the selected demographic backgrounds with grammatical features or linguistic variables.  The units of analysis used are the (r) value to indicate the strength of relationship either in positive or negative direction and the (p) value to indicate the significance level. The bigger the (r) value, the stronger is the relationship between studied variables whereas the smaller the (p) value is, the better the significance level of relationship between studied variables. For this study, the significance level is determined at 0.05 or at 95 percent confidence level for two-tail analysis or at 5% acceptable error.

### 6.1.2 *One Way ANOVA*

This is a statistical analysis tool that separates the total variability found within a data set into two components: random and systematic factors. The random factors do not have any statistical influence on the given data set, while the systematic factors do. The analysis of variance or ANOVA test will be used to determine the impact independent variables have on the dependent variable in the analysis. It is a way to test for significant differences among sample means when the independent (predictor)

variable is a set of discrete categories, and the dependent variable is continuous, ordinal, or dichotomous (Larson-Hall, 2010).

The ANOVA test is the initial step in identifying factors that are influencing a given data set. After the ANOVA test is performed, the analyst is able to perform further analysis on the systematic factors that are statistically contributing to the data set's variability.

### 6.1.3 *T-Test analysis*

A *t*-test is a type of inferential statistic, that is, an analysis that goes beyond just describing the numbers provided by data from a sample but seeks to draw conclusions about these numbers among populations. The *t*-test analyzes the difference between the two means (or two averages) derived from the different group scores. A *t*-test tells the researcher if the difference between two means is larger than would be expected by chance (i.e. statistically significant) (Larson-Hall, 2010).

### 6.2 Morpho-syntactic Competence

Utterances produced by the participants were analyzed for the grammatical features/morphemes selected for this study as mentioned above. Specifically, both the main/lexical and copula verbs were analyzed for past tense inflection, and for lack of subject and verb agreement. The participants' morpho-syntactic competences in these grammatical features/morphemes were analyzed for target-likeness measured against the inner circle variety.

The results were generated by calculating the frequencies of target-like items that is, the proportion of target-like instances of the grammatical feature and construction out of all instances of the grammatical feature and construction that were produced by the participants. Similarly, the frequencies of non-target-like items of the grammatical feature and

construction were generated by calculating the proportion of non-target-like instances of the grammatical feature and construction produced.

This section clarifies how participants' data were analyzed.

### 6.2.1 *Whole utterances*

The following section, presents the results of the grammatical features/morphemes but before presenting these results, the overall totals of utterances the participants produced are presented first. These are referred to as 'whole utterances'. An utterance produced by a participant could have (a) all of its elements target-like or there could be non-target-like forms.

For instance, the utterance below is target-like; there are no errors,

(6.1)  Uh, **I have seen** this uh.. email (SAMR, MM[22])

Whereas in (6.2) although there is an error in the utterance, making it non-target-like as a whole, the grammatical features under consideration in the present study are target-like.

(6.2)  **they want to go** <u>to</u>..[apa].. <u>holiday</u> (SAMR, MM)

[what]

(6.3)  they use to it (KA,EM)

In (6.3) the whole utterance is non-target-like.

**Table 6.2: Totals for target-like utterances**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| The whole utterance is target-like | 86.12 | 1712/1988 | 84.51 | 1260/1491 |

---

[22] Participants' initials (e.g. SAMR) and group (EM/MM) indicate the source of the utterances.

From Table 6.2, the EM group produced 86.12% (n=1712) whole utterances that were target-like compared to 84.51% (n=1260) of whole utterance produced by MM group. The difference in the production of grammatical utterances between the two groups is 1.61% (n=452).

The frequency of whole utterances that were non-target-like is lower for the EM group compared to the MM group. The EM group produced 13.88% (n=276) whilst the MM group 15.49% (n=231). In terms of percentage, the EM group produced less non-target-like whole utterances. It seems that the EM group performed slightly better in yielding whole utterances.

A t-test was conducted to investigate the significant difference between utterances with both groups- EM and MM. The statistical t-test result recorded significant level at p=0.000, which shows that there is significant difference in their production of target-like utterances.


### 6.2.2 *Pronominal subjects in utterances*

This section looks at subjects in the utterances that the participants produced.

The subject in the utterances was checked for its presence or absence. The subject is analyzed as target-like if it is present or supplied in the utterance as in (6.4). It is non-target-like if the subject is absent or omitted as in (6.5) where the participant had not supplied the subject 'the support' (when discussing help and support for the tsunami victims from other countries).

(6.4) I was in the workplace (MMM, MM)

(6.5) [The support] *is very strong (MMM, MM)

In an utterance where the subject is present or supplied but non-target-like, the utterance is taken as non-target-like. Some examples of this non-target-like type are:

(6.6) So …**they** [the tsunami] can do for..for  [to] human being… (MMM, MM)

In (6.6) 'they' is non-target-like as the participant was referring to the tsunami and this would require the pronominal subject 'it'. In (6.7) the participant provided the 3rd person plural nominative when the possessive pronominal was required.

(6.7) they.. they activities is uh (MMM,MM)

In the example (6.8a) the pronominal subject in utterance is target-like, but utterances (6.8b) and (6.8c) are non-target-like.

(6.8a)  I, I saw some pictures about that. (DMY, EM)

(6.8b)  So.. It looks like, (DMY, EM)

(6.8c)  it's not real. (DMY, EM)

In the context provided by (6.8a), the pronominal subjects in the following two utterances become non-target-like.

The next section presents the results for null subject.

### 6.2.3   *Omission of pronominal subjects*

As mentioned in Section 4.7.1, Malay is a language that allows null subjects. It allows referential and expletives null pronominals (Kader, 1981; Muysken, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 2010).

For the grammatical feature/morpheme of null subject, the spoken utterances were checked for the presence or absence of their subjects, for example in the utterance below the subject is omitted.

(6.9) * can see only (AB, MM)

**Table 6.3: Target-like pronominal subjects**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Subject in utterance is present and target-like | 86.10 | 2236/2597 | 82.88 | 1646/1986 |

Based on Table 6.3, both groups generated large tokens of utterances in which the subjects were present and target-like. The EM group had 86.10% out of 2597 generated utterances. The MM group on the other hand produced 82.88% out of 1986 utterances they generated.

The EM group created 13.90% (n=361) utterances with non-target-like subjects while the MM group produced 17.12% (n=340) of non-target-like subjects in their utterances. These percentages also include those utterances where subjects were omitted and not just utterances with different or non-target-like pronouns.

So, Table 6.3 shows the target-like subjects that were supplied by both groups but it does not reveal the percentages of utterances in which pronominal subjects were omitted by both groups.

Figures for null pronominal subjects only are shown in a separate table in 6.4 below. Note that utterances without subjects were treated separately from those utterances in which the subjects were supplied but were non-target-like. This is because although both types of utterances were counted as non-target-like, the use of a different or non-target-like subject is not similar to a missing subject.

**Table 6.4: Omission of pronominal subjects**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Pronominal subject is absent | 75.35 | 272/361 | 87.65 | 298/340 |

The EM group produced 75.35% of utterances without pronominal subjects. This figure is derived from dividing the number of utterances where the pronominal subjects were omitted (272) with the total number of utterances comprising non target-like subjects (361) and turning it to a percentage.

The same calculation is done for the MM group. This group produced 87.65% omission of pronominal subjects which is 12.3% more that the EM group. This means that the EM group produced fewer utterances where pronominal subjects were omitted compared to the MM group revealing that they are more target-like in pronominal subjects , that is they did not drop or omit pronominal subjects as much as the MM participants did in the utterances that they produced. That the EM group was more target-like in producing utterances with pronominal subjects is expected as the participants in this group have had more exposure to English in their formal years of schooling in the English medium. The production of utterances without pronominal subjects by both groups could be the influence of their mother tongue, Malay, which permits empty subjects. In Malay, as noted in Chapter 4, both referential and expletive null pronominals are allowed (Kader, 1981; Muysken, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 2010).

## 6.3 Lack of Tense Inflection in Copula Verbs

This section presents the results for the tense feature in the participants' utterances. Tense in English is marked by inflections of the copula 'be' forms and lexical verbs.  As discussed in Chapter 4, Malay, on the other hand, does not have an equivalent feature to the copula 'be', nor does it mark tense in the same way as English does for lexical verbs.  The marking of temporality in Malay is less complex as illustrated in Section 4.7.2.

Research that looked at the use of copula 'be' by L2 English Turkish children found that these children were more productive in the use of 'be' forms than in the use of main verb inflection (Geckin and Haznedar, 2008). According to Lardierre (2000), his adult Chinese L2 English learner, Patty produced appropriately inflected 'be' forms but hardly any – s inflection. Another study by Hsieh (2008) on L1 Chinese adult learners also confirmed their hypothesis of better performance in copula 'be' than in verbal inflections.

The results for tense of copula verbs are shown in Table 6.5. As this study aims to investigate tenses, copula verbs in the utterances produced by both groups were analyzed and counted for tense forms.

**Table 6.5: Target-like tense form of copula verbs**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| The tense form of the copula verb in subject clause is target-like. | 86.77 | 538/620 | 86.50 | 391/452 |

From Table 6.5, the EM group produced more target-like tense forms of the copula 'be' compared to the MM group. However, looking at the percentage of the two groups, the difference is minute with a difference of only 0.27%. Lack of tense inflection in the copula verbs by the EM group accounts for 13.23% while the MM group had just slightly more with 13.5%.

A t-test was conducted to investigate the significant difference between utterances between both groups. The statistics result recorded a non-significant level at $p > 0.05$ at 95 per cent confidence level, which indicates that there is no significant difference between the two groups. Both the groups are target-like in inflecting tense forms of the copula verb but the difference in their production is not significant.

### 6.3.1 *Lack of tense inflection in lexical verbs*

In the following section, the copula 'be' is examined first as research has shown that tense marking is more likely to be target-like on the copula 'be' before on main verbs. As initially stated, L2 learners appear to be more productive in generating copula 'be' than verbal inflections.

This section now looks at tense forms of the main or lexical verbs in the utterances produced by the EM and MM groups.

Lexical verbs were analyzed for tense marking. The following are non-target-like examples of tense marking on the main verbs.

    (6.10)   But this tsunami happens in Malaysia (DMY, EM)

    (6.11)   But that time, that time we hear it's in (KA, EM)

    (6.12)   no..actually that time I'm, busy (KAT, MM)

    (6.13a) this people who were supposed to be on holiday (ZMS, MM)

    (6.13b) or they work there on some some things (ZMS, MM)

In (6.13b) the main verb was counted as non-target-like based on the context provided in (6.13a). It must be noted that (6.13b) is not an example for tense marking on main verbs.

Some other examples of violation in the tense form of the lexical verbs are:

    (6.14)   er..everything er float..there, in the water (RAM, EM)

In the above example, the present tense form is expected is required whereas in the one below, the past tense form of the main verb 'keep' is required. Here, the participant had stated earlier that she was out on the day the tsunami happened in the context

    (6.15)   they keep on flashing back the news (ZMS, MM)

The three examples below illustrate other kinds of non-target-like tense marking of the lexical verbs.

(6.16)   It's look like a ferry (NA, EM)

(6.17)  This also, belongings to, people's one ah (MKMH, EM)

(6.18)  I just known (NA, EM)

**Table 6.6: Target-like tense form of lexical verbs**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Tense form of the lexical verb in subject clause is target-like | 77.60 | 717/924 | 80.79 | 572/708 |

Looking at only tense errors in the lexical verbs in Table 6.6, it is found that the MM group has a 3.19% more target-like tense form of the lexical verb compared to the EM group. The MM group produced 80.79% target-like tense forms of the lexical verbs and the EM group produced 77.60 %.

As described in the previous section the EM group had performed only slightly better in marking tense for copula verbs. However, for lexical verbs, the EM group produced more non-target tense forms (22.04%) than the MM group (19.21%). The EM group results for non-target-like tense forms for lexical verbs are not expected considering that they had produced more target-like tense forms for copula verbs when compared with the MM group.

Comparing Tables 6.5 and 6.6, it is also interesting to note that both groups generated more target-like tense forms of the copula verbs than target-like forms of lexical verbs. These results are consistent with what other research have shown (Geckin and Haznedar, 2008; Lardierre, 2000; Hsieh, 2008).

For copula verbs, the EM group has 86.77% of target-like tense form of the copula 'be' while the MM group has 86.50% in comparison to their lower scores in lexical verbs which are 77.60% and 80.79% respectively.

### 6.3.2 *Overall results:  Lack of past tense inflection*

This section presents the overall results for the tense feature.

**Table 6.7: Target-like tense form of copula and lexical verbs**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Tense form of copula and lexical verbs in subject clause is target-like | 81.28 | 1255/1544 | 83.02 | 963/1160 |

**Table 6.8: Non-target-like tense form of copula and lexical verbs**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Tense form of copula and lexical verbs in subject clause is non-target-like | 18.72 | 289 /1544 | 16.98 | 197/1160 |

The overall scores for the target-like tense forms of copula and lexical verbs of both groups were added up to find out which of the two groups is more productive in marking tense on verbs.

Tables 6.7 and 6.8 show both figures for target-like and non-target-like tense forms of copula and lexical verbs combined. The overall target-like score for the MM group is 83.02%. They produced a total of 1160 utterances with their copula and lexical verbs analyzed for tense inflection. 963 of these were target-like whereas 197 (16.98%) were not.

The EM group's overall score is lower than the MM group by 1.74%. The EM group produced 1544 utterances with copula and lexical verbs checked for their tense forms. Out if this total 1255 (81.28%) were target-like and 289 (18.72%) were not target-like.

It appears that the EM group has a slightly higher percentage of non-target-like tense forms in the copula and lexical verbs put together, suggesting that they tend to lack past tense inflection. As mentioned above, this is unexpected as participants of this group would have had more exposure to English. However, considering that Malay does not inflect its

lexical verbs to indicate past events, both groups showed a substantially good performance in past tense inflection. According to Baskaran (2008b) the absence of tense markers could be the influence of Malay which does not have deictic tense marking.

## 6.4 Omission of Copula Verbs

As noted in Chapter 5, instances of copula 'be' were also analyzed for their presence or absence and agreement. Some examples to illustrate these categories are:

(6.19) that how (BJ, EM)

(6.20) this all are water, ok? (AB, MM)

(6.21) there are only one mosque (AB, EM)

The example (6.19) is an example of an utterance that does not have a copula 'be' and the following examples are non-target-like instances of the copula 'be' where there is no agreement with the subject.

The results are presented below.

Table 6.9 which shows the results for copula verbs that were present and target-like is presented first.

**Table 6.9: Target-like copula verbs**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Copula verb in subject clause is present and target-like | 81.15 | 508/626 | 83.00 | 376/453 |

From these results, both groups produced more target-like copula 'be' forms than non-target like instances. The EM group generated 81.15% target- like copula 'be' utterances and 18.85% non–target like of the type where although the copula 'be' is present it is not appropriate. The MM

group provided 83.00% target like instances of copula 'be' and 17.0 % non-target like instances. Between the two groups, the MM group generated only 1.85% more target-like copula 'be' utterances than the EM group.

The following Table 6.10 displays the results for the omission of copula 'be' in the utterances generated by the two groups. Referring to this table, the MM group produced 73.08 % instances of missing copula 'be' in their utterances while the EM group produced 63.58%. There is a difference of 9.50 % in missing copula 'be' between MM group and EM group. The MM group seemed to omit more copula verbs than the EM group.

**Table 6.10: Omission of copula verbs**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Copula 'be' in subject clause is absent | 63.58 | 206/324 | 73.08 | 209/286 |

### 6.4.1 *Aspect: Omission of auxiliary verbs*

The analysis of the aspect feature is described first and is followed by the results of participants' production of aspect. In this section, auxiliary verbs, as a part of the aspect feature, are discussed. As a note, only utterances in the active forms were analyzed as aspectual utterances in the passive form is highly infrequent.

Participants' utterances were analyzed for the aspect feature where the auxiliary verbs be and have produced were checked for target or non-target-like.

The auxiliary verbs were coded as target-like if they were supplied and appropriate or target-like.

Non-target-like auxiliary verbs were analyzed in two ways ─ whether they were present or supplied by the participants but are non-target like as in (6.22) and (6.23) below:

(6.22)      because people is talking about it then (KA, EM,)

(6.23)  the thing is definitely {caught off} caught all of them off guard (DMY, EM)

or whether the auxiliary verbs were absent or missing (omission error type). An example of this omission error type is (6.24).

(6.24) that they taken aa (SYM/MMG)

A total of 1616 tokens of target-like auxiliary verbs in the active form were produced. Table 6.11 shows the percentage and number of target-like utterances with auxiliary verbs. The EM group produced 67.39% (n=618) from 917 utterances while the MM group yielded a higher percentage of 69.96% (n=489) out of 699 target-like auxiliary verbs. The MM group produced 2.27% more target-like instances of auxiliary verbs than the EM group.

**Table 6.11: Target-like auxiliary verbs**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Auxiliary verb in subject clause  is present and target-like | 67.39 | 618/917 | 69.96 | 489/699 |

 The percentages for omission of auxiliary verbs are calculated out of the total number of non-target-like auxiliary verbs.  In total, the EM group had 32.61% (n=299) non-target-like auxiliary verbs in the active form while the MM group had 30.04% (n=210). Referring to Table 6.12 which shows the results for omission of auxiliary verbs, for the EM group, out of the total non-target-like auxiliary verbs, 59.53% (n=178) were omission errors, which made up the bigger portion of all error types they produced. This is also found to be true for the MM group. They had also formed more utterances without the obligatory auxiliary verbs compared to the non-target-like type where the auxiliary verbs were supplied but were not target-like. The MM group had omitted 65.24% (n=137) tokens of auxiliary verbs.

**Table 6.12: Omission of auxiliary verbs**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Auxiliary verb in subject clause is absent | 59.53 | 178/299 | 65.24 | 137/210 |

The EM group produced 5.71% fewer utterances where the auxiliary verbs were omitted compared to the MM group. In other words, the MM group omitted more auxiliary verbs than the EM group.

So, for both omissions of the copula and auxiliary verbs, the MM group produced more non-target-like utterances than the EM group. This is also the case for omission of pronominal subjects where the EM group was more target-like. A reasonable explanation for the omissions of these verbs is that Malay does not have an equivalent to the English copula verb and the marking of English aspect is very often non-target-like for second language learners. Indeed, omissions of the copula and auxiliary verbs are characteristic of the Malaysian English variety (Newbrook, 1997; Schneider, 2003; Hashim and Tan, 2012; Hashim and Leitner, 2014)

**6.4.2** *Lack of subject and verb agreement in main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs*

In this section the analyses and results for subject and verb agreement (SVA) are presented.

The oral data generated by the participants were analyzed for the SVA feature in these three ways (a) agreement/non-agreement of the subject and copula 'be' (b) agreement/non-agreement of subject and lexical (main) verb and (c) agreement/non-agreement of subject and auxiliary verbs. Analyses for SVA were done separately for the three verb categories in order to capture the participants' linguistic performance in this feature

Recall that in Section 4.7.4, it is mentioned that there is no subject-verb agreement in Malay.

## 6.5 Subject and Verb Agreement: Subject and Copula 'be'

This section is on subject and copula 'be' agreement.

Utterances were checked to determine whether the subject in the utterance agrees or does not agree with its copula 'be'.

An example of non-target-like subject and copula 'be' agreement is

(6.25)    The families is gone – ah (AJMS, MMG)

Referring to Table 6.13, the EM group produced 94.28% (n=577), out of 612 target-  target-like instances of  subject and copula 'be' agreement The MM group on the other hand has a slightly higher percentage of 96.08% (n=392).

**Table 6.13: Target-like SVA (Subject and copula 'be')**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Number and person agreement of the subject and copula 'be' | 94.28 | 577/612 | 96.08 | 392/408 |

The EM group made 1.8% more errors than the MM group in agreement of the subject and the copula verbs in their speech. They had 35 (5.72%) utterances that flouted the rule of SVA while the MMG only had 16 (3.92%).

### 6.5.1 *Subject and verb agreement: Subject and main verb*

The analyses and results for subject and main verb agreement are described in this section.

In this SVA category, utterances were checked on whether the main verbs were marked or inflected for agreement in terms of number and person.

The two utterances below are characteristic of the errors participants made in the concordance of subject and main verb.

(6.26)   everybody.. want to escape from.. the building (SYM, MMG)

(6.27)   No, er..he just take some medicine lah, (RA, MMG)

(6.28)   just life have to go on (ZMS, MMG)

The results in Table 6.14 show that the MM group had produced more utterances with agreement between the subjects and the main verbs. They provided 84.27% of target-like instances of agreement between the subject and the main verb in their utterances.  On the other hand, the EM group had generated 690 (83.84%) target-like subject and main verb agreement; the remaining 133 (16.16%) were non-target like. The MM group produced slightly less non-target-like forms of this SVA category, which is 98 (15.73%).

**Table 6.14: Target-like SVA (Subject and main verb)**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Agreement of the subject and main verb | 83.84 | 690/823 | 84.27 | 525/623 |

### 6.5.2 *Subject and verb agreement: Subject and auxiliary verbs*

In this section, the results for agreement between the subjects in the utterances the participants produced with auxiliaries 'be' and have are given.

Similar to the previous category, utterances were analyzed for target-like and non-target like forms of agreement between the subject and auxiliary be and have.

Typical cases of this SVA ungrammatical type are:

> (6.29)   Maybe..he {want to..uh..} don't want  (SAMR, MMG)

> (6.30)   ah.. the world, the world are… support them  (MMM,MMG)

The results are presented below in Table 6.15.

**Table 6.15:  Target-like SVA (Subject and auxiliary verbs)**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Number and person agreement of  the subject and auxiliary be, do and have | 96.92 | 660/681 | 95.82 | 481/502 |

For this SVA category, the EM group yielded more target-like utterances ─ 660 from a total of 681 (96.92%) utterances both groups supplied. Agreement between subject and auxiliary verbs is the only category where the EM group has more target–like utterances than the MM group.

The MM group had 179 fewer utterances with target-like subject and auxiliary verbs agreement compared to the EM group. Their utterances totalled up to 502 utterances. But, they supplied a high percentage of 95.82% (n=481) in this particular SVA type.

For non-target-like subject and auxiliary verb agreement the EM group produced 3.08% while the MM group produced a higher 4.18%.

### 6.5.3    *Overall results: Lack of subject and verb agreement in main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs*

This section presents the overall results for the subject and verb agreement feature.

**Table 6.16: Target-like SVA** (**In main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs**)

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Subject and verb agreement in main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs are target-like | 91.07 | 1927/2116 | 91.19 | 1398/1533 |

**Table 6.17: Non-target-like SVA** (**In main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs**)

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Subject and verb agreement in main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs are target-like | 8.93 | 189/2116 | 8.81 | 135/1533 |

The number of utterances for subject and verb agreement in the three types of verbs that each group produced was totalled up and divided by the total number of utterances produced by the respective groups and then converted to percentages. From Tables 6.16 and 6.17, the overall score of target-like SVA in the three types of verbs for the EM group is 91.07%. They produced a total of 2116 utterances that were analyzed for subject and verb agreement in main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs. Out of this total, 1927 (91.07%) were target-like and 189 (8.93%) were not. On the other hand, the MM group's total utterance is 1533 of which 1398 (91.19%) were target-like while 135 (8.81%) utterances were off target.

The difference between the two groups' scores is only 0.12%. The EM group's overall score for non target-like SVA is higher than the MM group and the older participants appear to show lack of subject and verb agreement in all the verb types put together albeit by a very small difference. Once again, although the difference between the scores of the

two groups is very slight the EM group was expected to be more-target-like in the subject-verb agreement feature. Nonetheless, both groups produced more than 90% target-like instances of subject and verb agreement in main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs which are relatively high for these second language speakers given that Malay does not inflect its lexical verb in any condition and noun number is irrelevant. Their non-target-like productions in subject and verb concordance is reflective of the variability in the language competence of second language learners and the attributes of Malaysian English that surrounds the participants in this research (Newbrook, 1997; Schneider, 2003; Baskaran, 2008b). For instance, as observed by Baskaran (2008b) the lack of pronominal concordance could be due to Malay which uses the same pronoun (i.e. *ia*) for both inanimate and animate non-human nouns. In addition, there is often absence of noun-verb concord where the intended number is unclear (Newbrook, 1997).

## 6.6 Omission of Articles

Articles, in particular definite articles in the utterances of the participants are discussed in this section. Indefinite articles will be presented in the next section.

Articles are an interesting category to look at as Malay does not have an equivalent article system to the English article system English. In Malay, the word 'se' (meaning one) functions like the article 'a' and is used with a classifier following it (see 4.75).

The definite article is coded as (a) present and target-like, (b) present but non-target-like, (c) absent and non-target-like and (d) absent but target-like ─ where the definite article is non-mandatory ─zero article.

Some examples of non- target-like definite articles are:

(6.30)   why the God give me all…(KA, EM)

(6.31)   [What's that]…the bag? (MMM, MM)

(6.32)   {I think} the Florida, Texas, (SMD, EM)

The utterances (6.30 to 6.32) above are some examples of utterances which contain definite articles in contexts where definite articles are not obligatory. When the participants supplied definite articles in these contexts they produced the (b) type error, that is the definite article is present but not-target-like.

Below are utterances where definite articles were required, but were not supplied. These are utterances of the (c) type (absent and non-target-like):

(6.33)   day after Christmas… (SYM, MM)

(6.34)   of course like this, tsunami is derived {you know}, from an earthquake. (SMD, EM)

(6.35)   Then..er..all people is ah panic about that beach (KAT, MMG)

Some examples of utterances with zero articles are:

(6.36)   {I think, {after er}}.. on TV.   (KA, EMG)

(6.37)    But other, buildings, um, were damaged… (NAAW, MMG)

The results of participants' use of definite articles are presented below.

**Table 6.18: Target-like definite article (Present and target-like)**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Definite article in subject clause is present and target-like | 75.05 | 382/509 | 77.34 | 256/331 |

From Table 6.18, the EM group produced a slightly lower percentage of type (a) present and target-like definite article that is 2.29% than the MM group who scored 77.34%.

**Table 6.19: Target-like definite article (Absent but target-like)**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Definite article in subject clause is absent but target-like | 3.54 | 18/509 | 3.02 | 10/331 |

Table 6.19 shows the results for target-like zero definite articles. Here, the EM group performed a little better than their counterpart. There were 28 such utterances and the EMG is found to have made more 3.54% (n=18) of this (d) type of utterance, that is absent but target-like.

**Table 6.20: Overall target-like definite articles**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Definite article in subject clause is target-like | 78.59 | 400/509 | 80.36 | 266/331 |

In sum, when we consider the overall output of target-like definite articles by the two groups, the EM group had 78.59% (n=400) while the MM group had 80.36% (n=266). This means the MM group had produced more target-like definite articles.

For non-target-like instances of definite articles the EM group produced 21.41% (n=109 out of 509). This figure is for both types: (b) - present but non-target-like, and (c) omission of definite articles (absent and non-target-like). The EM group produced fewer (b) type utterance (n=23) as compared to the (c) type (n=86). The MM group, on the other hand, had 19.64% (n=65 out of 331) non-target-like definite articles. Like the EM group, they omitted more definite articles that the (b) type utterances.

**Table 6.21:  Omission of definite articles**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Definite article in subject  clause is absent | 78.90 | 86/109 | 76.92 | 50/65 |

Referring specifically to Table 6.21, omission of definite articles account for 78.89% of the non-target-like instances the EM group produced. The MM group's omission of definite articles is 76.92%. This is 1.98% less than the EM group.


**6.6.1 *Indefinite articles***

Determination of target-like or non-target-like indefinite articles was done by analyzing the utterances in which they appear (or not). The indefinite articles were coded for being (a) present and target-like  (b) present but non-target-like (c) absent and non-target-like and (d) absent but target-like (zero article). Examples of non-target-like indefinite articles include the (b) type error as in (5.38);

(6.38)  so {the beach..the beach is uh} from the nice, nice beach, change over, to..a miserable place. (DMY, EM)

(6.39)  er  if there is a lunch, maybe our Head of Department will entertain them. (SYM, MM)

And utterances of the (c) type below:

(6.40)  about er because er.. lot of people died (SYM,MM)

(6.41)  hundred thousand yeh   (SYM, MM)

(6.42)  smaller, smaller one lah.(MKMH,EM)

(6.43)  without uh, shirt, (NAAW, MM)

The EM group had given 78 utterances altogether while the MM group had provided even more (n=90). Out of this small number, the EM group supplied more target-like instances of the indefinite articles (Table 6.22).

**Table 6.22: Target-like indefinite articles (Present and target-like)**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Indefinite article in subject clause is present and target-like | 62.82 | 49/78 | 37.77 | 34/90 |

**Table 6.23: Target-like indefinite articles (Absent but target-like)**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | N | % | n |
| Indefinite article in subject clause is absent but target-like | 0 | 0/78 | 7.77 | 7/90 |

There were only 7 utterances without indefinite articles but were target-like as they were not deemed obligatory, this is the (d) type utterance absent but target-like (zero article). All of these were produced by the MM group (Table 6.23). The utterances were mainly one word, or short phrases, as in the following examples.

(6.44)   KFC also coming in (KA, EM)

(6.45)   Ya ya ya ya…hu

**Table 6.24:  Overall target-like indefinite articles**

| Features | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Definite article in subject  clause is target-like | 62.82 | 49/78 | 45.56 | 41/90 |

All in all for indefinite articles, the EM group produced 62.82% (n=78) target-like utterances while the MM group only produced 45.56% (n=41). The next section below presents non target-like results for indefinite articles.

The EM group had 37.18% (29 out of 78) non target-like indefinite articles. There were 5 utterances in which indefinite articles were supplied but they were non-target-like ((b) type). This accounts for 17.24 % of the (b) type utterance. The MM group, on the other hand, only 2 of this non-target like (b) type utterance, which is 4.08%. This figure is counted out of 49 or 54.44% non target-like indefinite articles the MM group made.

Referring to Table 6.25 which displays omission of indefinite articles by the groups, we find most of the non target-like utterances the groups made were omission type utterances.

**Table 6.25:  Omission of indefinite articles**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Indefinite article in subject clause is absent | 82.76 | 24/29 | 95.92 | 47/49 |

The MM group produced a higher percentage of omission of indefinite articles compared to the EM group who scored 13.16% less. Similar to definite articles, both groups have a tendency to omit indefinite articles but it is interesting to note that the EM group omitted more definite articles while the MM group omitted more indefinite articles.


**6.6.2 *Overall: Target-like articles***

Target-like definite and indefinite articles are summed up for the totals of target-like articles and it is quite apparent from Table 6.26 that the EM group has a higher score for target-like articles than the MM group. The latter has 3.57% more target-like articles than the former.

**Table 6.26:  Overall target-like articles**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Article is target-like | 76.49 | 449/587 | 72.92 | 307/421 |

### 6.6.3 *Overall: Omission of articles*

Similarly, the figures for omission of definite and indefinite articles are added up to get an overall figure for the respective groups.

In Table 6.27, the total number of omission of articles for the EM group is 110. This is 79.71% out of a total number of 138 non target-like definite and indefinite articles.

The MM group has 97 utterances in which articles ─ definite and indefinite ─ were omitted. This figure makes up 85.09% of the non target-like articles.

**Table 6.27: Omission of articles**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Definite and indefinite articles are absent and non target-like | 79.71 | 110/138 | 85.09 | 97/114 |

In sum, we see that the MM group made more omissions of articles than the EM group. The difference between the two groups is 5.38%. It is also clear that both groups have a tendency to omit articles. This is a characteristic that is well noted in Malaysian English and similar to other Asian Englishes (Preshous, 2001; Schneider, 2003; Hashim and Leitner, 2014; Hashim and Tan, 2012). Article omission is also seemingly attributed to the absence of an article system in Malay (Baskaran, 2008b); and according to The Failed Functional Features Hypothesis (FFFH) or the

Representational Deficit Hypothesis (RDH) (Hawkins and Chan, 1997; Hawkins, 2005), adult L2 speakers fail to acquire uninterpretable formal features which are not realized in the L1 grammar, resulting in permanent misrepresentation of L2 features. So, for instance, Chinese-speaking learners are argued to to be unable to acquire a tense feature due to the absence of such a feature in Chinese). Therefore, they have problems realizing tense morphology on verbs (Hawkins and Liszka, 2003) often omitting morphology in tense forms. Similarly, in the case of adult Malay L2 speakers of English in this study, articles are a common problem for the participants.

## 6.7 Omission of Plural Marking

In marking plurals, unlike English, the plural form in Malay is marked by reduplication. Malay does not inflect nouns to mark pluralization.

The plural forms of English nouns in the utterances of the participants were coded as (a) marked and target-like, (b) marked but non-target-like (c) unmarked and non-target-like.

The utterances below illustrate non-target-like plurals nouns.

(6.46)   and all the peoples are all…suffering lah (DMY,EM)

(6.47)   and all the peoples are all…suffering lah (DMY, EMG)

The utterances in (6.46) and (6.47) are examples of (b) above.

The following utterances are of the (c) category - unmarked and non-target-like

(6.48)   Three, three boat there. (MS,MM)

(6.49)    … so many thing (RAM, EMG)

The results for plural noun markings are presented below.

**Table 6.28: Target-like plural nouns**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Plural noun is target-like | 84.93 | 851/1002 | 84.09 | 539/641 |

In Table 6.28, we find that the EM group created a total of 1002 utterances with plural nouns and 84.93% (n=851) of these were target-like instances. The MM group produced 84.09% (n=539) which is a very minute difference of 0.84%.

Non-target-like plurals which consist of the (b) marked but non-target-like and (c) unmarked and non target-like were analyzed.

The EM group produced 15.07% (n=151 out of 1002) non target-like plurals while the MM group had slightly more of the non target-like plurals, 15.91% (n=102 out of 641).

Out of the EM group's non target-like plurals, about 27.15 % (n=41 out of 151) are of the (b) type, whereby a noun which should be in the plural form was marked but it was not target-like. The EM group produced more of the (c) type where they did not mark the plural forms at all. Referring to Table 6.29, the EM group had 72.85% (n=110 out of 151) of unmarked plurals.

**Table 6.29: Omission of plural marking**

| Feature | Groups | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | EM | | MM | |
| | % | n | % | n |
| Plural noun is unmarked and non-target-like | 72.85 | 110/151 | 70.59 | 72/102 |

As mentioned, the MM group only produced 102 utterances of the (b) and (c) type plurals. 29.41% (n=30 out of 102) were plurals that were marked but were not target-like; and like their counterpart, they made more of the

(c) type than the (b) type plurals. The EM supplied 70.59% (n=72 out of 102) plurals that were not marked.

On the whole for omission of plurals, the EM group supplied 2.26% more unmarked plural forms than the MM group. The absence of nominal inflection ending particularly the plural –s is a morphological feature which is salient in Malaysian English (Newbrook, 1997; Schneider, 2003). The omissions of plural –s and articles are noticeable not only among basilectal and mesolectal Malaysian English speakers but are also and encountered even in formal contexts (Schneider, 2003).

**6.8 Summary of Group Production**

This section summarizes the group's production of the grammatical features/morphemes or linguistic variables.

**Table 6.30: Summary of both groups' production of grammatical features /linguistic variables**

| Grammatical features and constructions/linguistic variables | EM group (%) | MM group (%) | Difference in % | T-Test (p Value) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Omission of pronominal subjects | Less (75.35) | More (87.65) | 12.30 | p=0.000 (p<0.05) |
| Lack of past-tense inflection | More (18.72) | Less (16.98) | 1.74 | p=0.071 (p>0.05) |
| Omission of copula verbs | Less (63.58) | More (73.08) | 9.50 | p=0.005 (p<0.05) |
| Omission of auxiliary verbs | Less (59.53) | More (65.24) | 5.71 | p=0.040 (p<0.05) |
| Lack of subject and verb agreement in main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs | More (8.93) | Less (8.81) | 0.12 | p=0.131 (p>0.05) |
| Omission of articles | Less (79.71) | More (85.09) | 5.38 | p=0.0040 (p<0.05) |
| Omission of plural marking | More (72.85) | Less (70.59) | 2.26 | p=0.05 (p<0.05) |

Table 6.30 is a summary of the grammatical features and constructions the groups produced. Specifically it shows whether the groups produced more or less of the features in percentages. How much the two groups differ in their production of the respective features and significant differences between the two groups' production are also displayed.

There are three grammatical features and constructions in which the EM group shows more non target-like percentages than the MM group. Although the differences in the percentages are not much, the EM group show lack of past tense inflection and subject and verb agreement in lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs more than their counterparts. The differences between the groups' production in past tense inflection and subject and verb agreement in main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs are only 1.74% and 0.12% respectively. There is a bigger difference in omission of plural marking. The EM group made 2.26 % more unmarked plural nouns.

The MM group on the other hand has four grammatical features in which they produced more non target-like instances. They omitted more pronominal subjects, copula verbs, auxiliary verbs and articles. The difference in the omission of pronominal subjects is the biggest — 12.30% followed by the omission of copula verbs — 9.50%, omission of auxiliary verbs — 5.71% and articles — 5.38%.

From the number of grammatical features and the differences in percentages between the two groups for each of the grammatical strands overall the EM group were more productive in the categories of grammatical features that are studied in this research.

To investigate the significant differences between EM and MM group based on grammatical features or linguistic variables, a t-test was conducted to generate significant level or 'p value'. As mentioned earlier on, the accepted significant level is at 0.05 for 95 per cent confidence level at two-tails analysis.

'Omission of pronominal subjects' recorded a significant level at 0.0000 (p=0.000) which is lower than 0.05 which shows that there is significant difference in the omission of pronominal subjects between the two groups. The EM group omitted pronominal subjects significantly less than the MM group.

Secondly, 'lack of past-tense inflection' recorded no significant difference which is proven by the significant value at 0.071 (p>0.005) which is larger than 0.05. Based on this result, it's shown that the difference in lack of past-tense inflection between the two groups is not significant.

'Omission of copula verbs' recorded a significant difference as shown by the significant value at 0.002 (p<0.005) which is lower than 0.05. Likewise, 'omission of auxiliary verbs' also recorded a significant difference but at 0.003 (p<0.005) which is lower than 0.05. In both of these grammatical features/morphemes, the EM group performed better than the MM group in that they omitted significantly less omissions in copula and auxiliary verbs.

Similar to the linguistic variable 'lack of past tense inflection', the t-test also shows that 'lack of subject and verb agreement in main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs' recorded no significant difference as indicated by the significant value at 0.131 (p>0.005) which is larger than 0.05.

For omission of articles and plural markings, the p values for these features are 0.004 (p<0.005) and 0.025 (p<0.005) respective showing that there are significant differences between the two groups' production. The EM group were significantly target-like than the MM group in producing less omission of articles whereas for omission of plural marking the MM group had produced significantly less target-like instances than the EM group. In the next section the results of each participant's production of the grammatical features are presented.

## 6.9 Individual Productions

Individual participants' production of the grammatical features and constructions that are studied in this research was calculated and presented in Tables 6.31 and 6.32.

**Table 6.31: Results from the Malay-medium group: Individual participant's production of grammatical features /linguistic variables**

| Grammatical features/morphemes | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Omission of pronominal subjects (%) | Lack of past-tense inflection (%) | Omission of copula verbs (%) | Omission of auxiliary verbs (%) | Lack of SVA in lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs (%) | Omission of articles (%) | Omission of plural marking (%) |
| (NAAW) 73.08 | (SYM) 5.71 | (AB) 41.18 | (AB) 33.33 | (MS) 0 | (MMM) 50 | (NAAW) 40 |
| (RA) 77.55 | (NAAW) 5.88 | (SH) 44.00 | (SH) 35.71 | (NAAW) 2.6 | (AJMS) 61.54 | (SH) 50 |
| (KAT) 81.82 | (AB) 9.62 | (KAT) 57.14 | (ZMS) 44.44 | (SYM) 4.84 | (SYM) 77.78 | (RA) 66.67 |
| (SH) 83.33 | (ZMS) 12.63 | (RA) 58.82 | (RA) 54.29 | (ZMS) 6.02 | (MAG) 81.82 | (SAMR) 66.67 |
| (SAMR) 83.72 | (MMM) 13.92 | (ZMS) 74.29 | (MMM) 55.17 | (MAG) 7.38 | (KAT) 83.33 | (ZMS) 66.67 |
| (MMM) 88.46 | (KAT) 14.29 | (NAAW) 78.57 | (MAG) 58.33 | (RA) 7.65 | (NAAW) 87.5 | (SYM) 75 |
| (ZMS) 90.63 | (MAG) 15.84 | (MMM) 81.82 | (KAT) 75 | (KAT) 8.7 | (RA) 88.24 | (MMM) 85.71 |
| (SYM) 91.3 | (RA) 18.91 | (MAG) 86.00 | (NAAW) 86.67 | (SH) 9.24 | (AB) 100 | (KAT) 100 |
| (MAG) 94.44 | (SAMR) 25 | (AJMS) 86.67 | (SAMR) 88.57 | (MMM) 12.38 | (MS) 100 | (AJMS) 100 |
| (AJMS) 100 | (SH) 33.73 | (SYM) 88.24 | (SYM) 90 | (AB) 20 | (SAMR) 100 | (AB) 100 |
| (AB) 100 | (AJMS) 61.29 | (SAMR) 91.67 | (AJMS) 100 | (SAMR) 27.87 | (ZMS) 100 | (MS) 100 |
| (MS) 100.00 | (MS) 100.00 | (MS) 100.00 | (MS) 100 | (AJMS) 31.03 | (SH) 100 | (MAG) 100 |
| **Averages (%)** | | | | | | |
| **88.69** | **26.40** | **74.03** | **68.46** | **11.46** | **85.85** | **79.23** |

Table 6.31 above shows the results of individual participants from the Malay- medium group (MM) while Table 6.32 contains the results for the English-medium group. The table for instance shows each participant's scores in percentage for the grammatical features and constructions respectively. In each row, we will find the participant's code and his/her score. There are 12 participants that made up the MM group. So, for omission of pronominal subjects, NAAW has a score of 73.08%. This score is below the average score of 88.69% (as shown in the bottom row of table) for this particular grammatical feature. In addition, the scores are presented from the lowest to the highest percentage.

Further discussions on individual participants' scores are reported in Section 6.9.2. Information for the EM group is displayed in a similar way in Table 6.32 below.

**Table 6.32: Results from the English-medium group: Individual participant's production of grammatical features /linguistic variables**

| Grammatical features/morphemes | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Omission of pronomi-nal subjects (%) | Lack of past-tense inflection (%) | Omission of copula verbs (%) | Omission of auxiliary verbs (%) | Lack of SVA in lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs (%) | Omission of articles (%) | Omission of plural marking (%) |
| (KA) 63.33 | (NH) 4.67 | (BJ) 34.78 | (DMY) 33.33 | (MKMH) 3.92 | (NH) 0 | (NH) 50 |
| (SMD) 64 | (MKMH) 6.59 | (KA) 35 | (NH) 37.5 | (SMD) 5.49 | (NA) 47.37 | (DMY) 53.85 |
| (DMY) 66.67 | (SMD) 11.3 | (DMY) 37.5 | (NA) 48.94 | (MKM) 6.4 | (DMY) 57.14 | (MKMH) 55.56 |
| (MKMH) 71.11 | (MKM) 15.79 | (NA) 59.02 | (MAM) 50 | (NH) 7.03 | (KA) 61.54 | (MKM) 57.69 |
| (MAM) 73.68 | (DMY) 16.33 | (RAM) 61.9 | (BJ) 50 | (BJ) 8.14 | (BJ) 83.33 | (NA) 71.43 |
| (NA) 74 | (BJ) 17.22 | (SMD) 63.64 | (SMD) 52.38 | (NZA) 8.37 | (RAM) 83.33 | (NZA) 74.07 |
| (NZA) 78.72 | (NZA) 18.52 | (NZA) 68.75 | (RAM) 52.63 | (DMY) 10.07 | (MKM) 85.71 | (MAM) 75 |
| (MKM) 80.25 | (MAM) 22.22 | (NH) 75 | (MKM) 63.64 | (NA) 10.38 | (SMD) 87.5 | (RAM) 83.33 |
| (RAM) 81.25 | (NA) 25.76 | (MKM) 80.33 | (KA) 68.29 | (MM) 10.71 | (MAM) 90.91 | (KA) 88 |
| (NH) 87.5 | (RAM) 27.54 | (MKMH) 82.61 | (NZA) 81.48 | (KA) 16.67 | (NZA) 95 | (SMD) 100 |
| (BJ) 88 | (KA) 40.17 | (MAM) 92.86 | (MKMH) 87.1 | (RAM) 17.78 | (MKMH) 100 | (BJ) 100 |
| Averages (%) | | | | | | |
| **75.32** | **18.74** | **62.85** | **56.84** | **9.54** | **71.98** | **73.54** |

### 6.9.1 *Averages for grammatical features and constructions*

Each participant's production for each grammatical feature is recorded and the average percentage for each grammatical feature is calculated by totalling up the percentages for all the twelve participants in the MM group and dividing the total by this number. The MM group's averages for all the seven grammatical features and constructions are as follows:

- Omission of pronominal subjects – 88.69%
- Lack of past-tense inflection – 26.40%
- Omission of copula verbs – 74.03%
- Omission of auxiliary verbs – 68.46%

- Lack of SVA in lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs – 11.46%

- Omission of articles – 85.85%

- Omission of plural marking – 79.23%

In comparison with the EM group, the average of each grammatical feature and construction is calculated by dividing the total percentages of all the eleven participants in the group. Referring to Table 6.30, we will find the averages of the features as listed below:

- Omission of pronominal subjects – 75.32%

- Lack of past-tense inflection – 18.74%

- Omission of copula verbs – 62.85%

- Omission of auxiliary verbs – 56.84%

- Lack of SVA in lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs – 9.54%

- Omission of articles – 71.98%

- Omission of plural marking – 73.54%

From Tables 6.31 and 6.32, the averages of all the participants from both groups are compiled into one table. Table 6.32 compares the averages of the grammatical features and constructions the groups produced.

**Table 6.33: Individual participants' (by group) average percentages for the grammatical features /linguistic variables**

| Grammatical features /linguistic variables | EM group Average percentage | MM group Average percentage | Difference in % | T-Test (p Value) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Omission of pronominal subjects | 75.32 | 88.69 | 13.37 | p=0.000 (p<0.05) |
| Lack of past-tense inflection | 18.74 | 26.40 | 7.66 | p=0.002 (p<0.05) |
| Omission of copula verbs | 62.85 | 74.03 | 11.18 | p=0.000 (p<0.05) |
| Omission of auxiliary verbs | 56.84 | 68.46 | 11.62 | p=0.000 (p<0.05) |
| Lack of subject and verb agreement in main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs | 9.54 | 11.46 | 1.92 | p=0.065 (p>0.05) |
| Omission of articles | 71.98 | 85.85 | 13.87 | p=0.000 (p<0.05) |
| Omission of plural marking | 73.54 | 79.23 | 5.69 | p=0.004 (p<0.05) |

For each of the grammatical features, the EM group's average score is lower than the MM group's. The differences in the score for each category between the two groups are between 1.92 to 13.87 per cent. The highest difference is for 'Omission of pronominal subjects', whereas, the lowest difference is for 'Lack of subject and verb agreement in main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs' at 1.92 per cent. Most of the grammatical features recorded significant differences namely, 'Omission of pronominal subjects' ($p=0.000$), 'Lack of past-tense inflection' ($p=0.002$), 'Omission of copula verbs' ($p=0.000$), 'Omission of auxiliary verbs' ($p=0.000$), 'Omission of articles' ($p=0.000$) and 'Omission of plural marking' ($p=0.004$), all with $p<0.05$. The remaining single feature 'Lack of subject and verb agreement in main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs', recorded no significant difference with a significant level at 0.065 at 95 percent confidence level.

Hence, we find that with the exception of the subject and verb agreement feature, the differences in the mean scores between the EM group and the MM group show significant differences. This shows that the participants who were English-medium educated were more target-like than their counterparts in the grammatical features or morphemes that this study examines.

Participants' production of each grammatical feature and construction is discussed in the subsequent section. For all the following discussions on the grammatical features refer to Tables 6.31 and 6.32 for the participants' production of the respective features.

### 6.9.2 *Omission of pronominal subjects*

For omission of pronominal subjects, in the MM group, the participants are equally divided with six of them scoring below the average percentage of 88.69% and the others scoring above that percentage. The percentage for omitting pronominal subjects is considerably high — the group has a

score range of 73.08% to 100%. Participants NAAW, RA, KAT, SH, SAMR and MMM made less omission of pronominal subjects compared to the other six participants who have more than 90% omissions of pronominal subjects with three of them (AJMS, AB and MS) scoring 100% in this feature. AJMS and AB are both male, aged 40 and 34 respectively at the time of testing; MS on the other hand is a 41 year old female. All of them were first exposed to English at seven years old upon entering primary education. They had Malay medium instruction up to upper secondary level- their total hours of English instruction are considerably little. AJMS had an estimation of 1701 hours of instruction in English; AB had 1470 hours while MS had only about 1134 hours. AJMS and AB reported having moderate motivation in being competent in English whereas MS's motivation was quite low. They all had positive attitude towards the importance of using 'good' or 'correct' (that is, target-like) English – AB and MS said that it is 'important' to be able to do so while AJMS accorded this as 'very important'. On current use of English, AJMS reported that he uses English only sometimes. He speaks to English native speakers sometimes and speaks to non–native English speakers in English only sometimes too. AB hardly uses English — he hardly speaks to native speakers of English nor does he use English with non-native speakers. MS too, hardly uses English and has never spoken to native speakers of English. In their daily activities like watching TV programmes or listening to radio programmes in English, AJMS and AB engage in these activities only sometimes. MS in particular only watches English TV sometimes but never listens to English radio programmes. In testing messages they typically use Malay rather than English. AJMS sometimes spends less than 2.5 hours daily emailing in English for business purposes while AB and MS do not engage in this activity.

Two other participants in this MM group who have the smallest scores in omission of pronominal subjects, NAAW and RA for example, have slightly different profiles. Both are male — the former was 36, the latter 40 years old at the time of testing — and they were first exposed to English at seven years of age. However, when compared to AJMS, AB

and MS, these two participants had tertiary education; NAAW has a master's degree while RA has a diploma. In terms of English instruction that they received, NAAW had more hours (7870 hours) compared to the rest that were mentioned before, RA had 3870 hours altogether. They both reported having quite high motivation in learning English and being competent in it and both said being able to speak 'correct' English is very important. In terms of frequency in using English, NAAW uses English only sometimes and he has never spoken to English native speakers but he does speak English to non-native speakers sometimes. RA in contrast uses English everyday and although he too has never spoken to English native speakers but he uses English with non-native speakers daily. It is interesting to note that NAAW is a lecturer, RA is a business man and one can assume that RA meets and talks to clients in English a lot more. NAAW and RA said that they sometimes watch English TV; as for English radio channels NAAW hardly listens to it while RA actually never does. RA however does use English sometimes when sending text messages and writing emails. NAAW does not use English when texting messages but he emails in English spending less than 2.5 hours daily.

Turning to the EM group, their average production in the feature omission of pronominal subjects is 75.32%. Six of the participants had scores less than the group's average. KA, SMD and DMY are the top three participants in the group whose percentages range from 63% to 67% which is 12% to 8% less than the average. They made the least omission in pronominal subjects. Five others NZA, MKM, RAM, NH and BJ all had more omissions of pronominal subjects — the last four participants' scores are more than 80%. NH and BJ scores are 87.5% and 88% respectively — making a difference of about 13% from the group's percentage.

The top three participants KA, SMD and DMY who made the least omission in pronominal subjects had secondary level education up to 17 years of age and took the Malaysian Certificate of Education (MCE)

which is equivalent to the O levels. Both KA and DMY are female aged 49 years old at testing time. SMD is male and was 54. They were exposed to English at different ages — KA at 8 years old, SMD at 13 and DMY at 5. KA had the most total number of hours of English instruction of approximately 14 400 hours; DMY had about 10640 hours while SMD received 7350 hours. KA has quite high motivation for learning English as compared with SMD and DMY who both said they were moderately motivated. All of them, however, regard being able to use 'good' or 'correct' English as very important for reasons like 'it would be difficult for others to understand us' (KA) or 'so that English-speaking people would understand more what we say or write' (DMY) and 'first, you have to use proper English with correct grammar, if you don't, you can't speak English, your English is poor. You need to be fluent' (SMD).

With the exception of SMD who reported using English only sometimes, the other two participants said that they use English daily. KA and SMD use English daily with non-native speakers of English whereas DMY only sometimes does. KA and SMD sometimes interact with English native speakers but DMY has never done so. In their other daily activities, all of them watch English TV programmes and  send texts messages or emails in English; only KA listens to English radio daily where as SMD only sometimes and DMY never listens to English radio channels.

The two participants from this EM group who had 88% of omission of pronominal subjects are interestingly more highly qualified in terms of their education. NH, aged 51 is a female who was pursuing a doctoral degree at the time of testing. Her first exposure to English was when she was 13 and the total hours of English instruction she estimated at 8206 hours. BJ was 53 and she too had her first English education at 13 years old. But her education was up to lower secondary level earning herself a Lower Certificate of Education (LCE). She had 10080 hours of English instruction. She is moderately motivated to learn English but she places quite a high importance to speaking 'good' English as it is important in

her daily professional lives. As such she uses English daily, sometimes interacts with English native speakers and uses English with non-native speakers daily at her work place as a senior executive in a hotel; and she engages in online activities in English sometimes. NH is a lecturer and she is highly motivated and places high importance to using 'good' English because 'it is a reflection on one self'. She uses English daily and sometimes interacts in English with native speakers but more often with non-native speakers whom she encounters. She watches English programmes daily and sends texts and emails sometimes. It is however worthy to note that although NH is the one with the highest qualification she has a high percentage in omission of pronominal subjects.

**Table 6.34: All participants' scores in percentage from lowest to highest: Omission of pronominal subjects**

| Omission of pronominal subjects | Participants' scores from lowest to highest (%) | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | KA 63.33 | SMD 64.0 | DM 66.67 | MKMH 71.11 | NAAW 73.08 | MAM 73.68 | NA 74.00 | RA 77.55 |
| | NZA 78.72 | MKM 80.25 | RAM 81.25 | S1 81.82 | SH 83.33 | SAMR 83.72 | NH 87.5 | BJ 88.0 |
| | MMM 88.46 | ZMS 90.63 | SYM 91.3 | MAG 94.44 | AJMS 100 | AB 100 | MS 100 | Average: 82.30 |

When the participants' scores are ranked in sequence from the lowest to the highest percentage (see Table 6.34), we will find that 12 out of 23 of the participants have scores that are less than the whole group's average of 82.30%. From these 12 participants, 9 are English-medium educated. Alternatively there are more participants from the MM group whose scores for omission of pronominal subjects are more than the average ranging from 83% to 100%. The profiles of some of these participants particularly those who tended to omit the least and the most pronominal subjects are described above. It is suffice to say that in general, for this grammatical feature, participants from the EM group omit less pronominal subjects than their counterparts.

### 6.9.3 *Lack of past-tense inflection*

On the whole, results for past tense inflections show that most participants are target-like in marking past tense in copula and main lexical verbs so that the percentages for lack of past tense inflection are small.

The average percentage for the MM group is 26.40%. Nine participants from this group have scores below the average percentage. The lowest score for lack of past tense inflection is by SYM (5.71%) followed by NAAW (5.88%) and AB (9.62%).   Subsequent participants' (ZMS, MMM, KAT, MAG, RA and SAMR) scores increase by only a relatively small percentage, between 0.3% and 6.1%. The highest scores for this group are MS's (100%) and AJMS's (61.29%). MS and AJMS also scored the highest percentage for omission of pronominal subjects. They are both Malay-medium educated and had considerably little instruction in English and they do not use very much English in their daily activities — AJMS for instance only sometimes interacts in English with native speakers and non-native speakers but MS has hardly ever done so. She does not watch or listen to English programmes or engage in online activities in English.

SYM is female and 33 years old at testing time, has the lowest percentage for lack of past tense inflection among the MM group. She studied up to secondary five qualifying with a Sijil *Pelajaran Malaysian* (SPM). The total hours of English instruction she received is estimated at 1470 hours. She reported having to use English sometimes in her job in an administration department in a teaching institution where she sometimes interacts with native speakers of English or foreign visitors. Hence, she felt it is very important to speak 'correct' English although she rated her own motivation to be competent in English as 'quite low'. She reported that she hardly use English with non-native speakers.  SYM watches English TV programmes daily but does not listen to English radio at all and neither does she text nor email in English.

AB's score for omission of pronominal subjects is 100% but he was a lot more target-like in marking past tenses (90.38%). NAAW was also target-like in marking past tenses (94.12%) and came out top of rank in his group for omission of pronominal subjects with 73.08% but in 6th position among 23 participants with a whole group average of 82.30%.

Two participants in particular scored the highest percentages for lack of past tense inflections. MS, like in omission of pronominal subjects, scored 100% in this grammatical feature. AJMS had also omitted all pronominal subjects in the utterances he produced, and in marking past tenses, his score for lack of it is high -61.29%, which is 34.89% more the MM group's average of 26.40%. AJMS if we recall is male and has a moderate attitude towards learning English, but he thinks English is very important. His job in sales and marketing gives him the opportunity to sometimes use English when interacting with native speakers and non-native speakers alike, as well correspond in English in emails.

As for the EM group, NH and MKMH have the lowest scores for lack of past tense inflection. Both were very target- like in marking past tenses in copula and lexical verbs.  NH, one of the participants with the highest qualification is very positive towards English using it frequently in her daily activities to interact and correspond with other people. However, she showed a lot of omissions of pronominal subjects in the utterances she produced; her score for this feature is 87.5%, the second highest percentage in her group for this grammatical feature.

MKMH was a 61 year old male pensioner at the time of testing. He had up to lower secondary education and left school with a Lower Certificate of Education (LCE). He was first exposed to English at 7 years old. He reported using English every day and speaking in English with native speakers of English as well as with non-native speakers. He reported that he hardly watches English TV programmes except for some documentary films; he also does not listen to English radio. He does not send texts or

emails either. However, MKMH has a moderate attitude towards being competent in English believing that being able to use English well is 'very important' because 'we have learnt it in school, we should use it properly'.

Like MKMH, RAM also had schooling up to lower secondary and received her Lower Certificate of Education (LCE). But she was only exposed to English at 13 years of age. RAM was 51 at the time of testing; she manages a food stall and reported that she hardly uses English, and she has never interacted with English native speakers or hardly speaks English to non-native speakers of English either. She watches English TV only sometimes but does not listen to English radio at all. She does not engage in online activities either nor does she send texts in English. She said her own motivation to be competent in English is very low although she places very high importance on using 'good' English.

KA on the other hand is interesting to look at as she has the lowest percentage in omission of pronominal subjects but the highest for lack of past tense inflections. Her score is 40.17% which is 21.43% more than the average percentage (18.74%) for the EM group.

On the whole, when all the participants are put together and ranked in the order of the lowest to the highest percentage (Table 6.35), we see that there is not a clear-cut pattern as there is for omission of pronominal subjects.

Most of the participants, 16 out of 23, have scores of less than the whole group's average percentage of 22.74%. Out of these16 participants, 8 are from the EM group and another 8 are from the MM group. As for those whose percentages are at the highest end, 3 participants are from the EM group while the remaining 4 are from the MM group. When viewed in this quantitative way, the EM group has more participants with lower scores for lack of past tense inflection.

**Table 6.35: All participants' scores in percentage from lowest to highest: Lack of past-tense inflection**

| | Participants' scores from lowest to highest (%) | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Lack of past-tense inflection** | **NH**<br>4.67 | SYM<br>5.71 | NAAW<br>5.88 | **MKMH**<br>6.59 | AB<br>9.62 | **SMD**<br>11.3 | ZMS<br>12.63 | MMM<br>13.92 |
| | S1<br>14.29 | **MKM**<br>15.79 | MAG<br>15.84 | **DMY**<br>16.33 | **BJ**<br>17.22 | **NZA**<br>18.52 | RA<br>18.91 | **MAM**<br>22.22 |
| | SAMR<br>25.00 | NA<br>25.76 | RAM<br>27.54 | SH<br>33.73 | KA<br>40.17 | AJMS<br>61.29 | MS<br>100 | Average: 22.74 |

### 6.9.4 *Omission of copula verbs*

There are only 4 participants in the MM group whose scores are less than the group's average of 74.03% (see Table 6.31). The remaining 8 participants' scores range from 74.29% to 100 %. AB has the lowest percentage of 41.18% for omission of copula verbs which is quite a difference of 32.85%. He also has one of the lowest scores for lack of tense marking, but he has the highest percentage for omission of pronominal subjects.

SH, KAT and RA are among those whose scores for omission of pronominal subjects are the lowest. SH is a female secretary aged 34 at the time of testing. She was first to learn English at home when she was 6 years of age. She went to a Malay-medium secondary school and later on earned herself a diploma. SH uses English every day and speaks English to native speakers and non-native speakers sometimes. She watches English TV programmes daily and sometimes listens to English radio channels. She does not entirely use English to send text messages but she does use English a lot in emails, about 4–6 hours daily. She is moderately motivated to be competent in English and she thinks that it is very important to use 'correct' or 'good' English because '[she] work[s]  in the corporate sector, it is important that [she] speak[s] correctly for the company's image and prestige'.

KAT, on the other hand, is male, aged 33. He completed lower secondary education and received his *Sijil Rendah Pelajaran* (SRP) equivalent to the Lower certificate of Education (LCE) which was given to those in the English-medium schools after completing school at 15 years of age. KAT hardly uses English and has never interacted with native speakers of English. He also hardly ever interacts in English with non-native speakers. KAT sometimes watches English movies on TV and never listens to English radio programmes. He does not use English when sending messages or sending emails. He is moderately motivated to learn English and he puts high importance to using it properly.

MS has 100% omission of the copula verbs; followed by SAMR (91.67%), SYM (88.24%) and AJMS (86.67%). AJMS and MS are also the least target-like in pronominal subjects and marking past tenses. SAMR holds a diploma and works as a supervisor in a company. She was 41 at the time of testing; her first exposure to English was when she entered at primary school at 7. SAMR uses English every day- she uses English to interact with non-native speakers daily — but she hardly interacts with native speakers of English. She watches English TV programmes but does not tune in to English radio channels. She sends texts and emails in English and spends about 30 minutes to 2.5 hours engaging in these activities daily. She has very high motivation in learning English believing that being able to use 'correct' English will make her more confident to speak with people of other races and opens up opportunities to further her studies. SYM has the lowest score for lack of past tense inflection among the participants in her group. But she seems to omit pronominal subjects and copula verbs much more.

For the EM group (see Table 6.32), BJ, who has relatively high scores for omission of pronominal subjects and lack of past tense inflections, performs better in producing copula verbs. Her score of 34.78% is 28.07% percent lower than the group's average (62.85%). There are only 5

participants in this group whose scores are lower than the average percentage. Like in the previous two grammatical features or linguistic variables, these 5 participants include KA, DMY and NA. NA is a 52 year old male and was only exposed to English when he was 13 years of age. He completed his secondary education and received his Malaysian Certificate of Education (MCE). NA is quite highly motivated and thinks it is important to be able to use English well. He uses English every day to interact with other non-native speakers of English and sometimes with native speakers. He watches English programmes everyday too, and uses English in his emails.

The highest percentage for omission of copula verbs among the EM group is by MAM (92.86%). This is a difference of about 30% from the group's average percentage. MAM is male and was 47 years old at the time of testing. His first exposure to English was when he was 8; he completed his lower secondary education and works as a driver for an education institution. His job provides him with the opportunity to use English with foreign visitors. So he uses English sometimes in his interactions with others including non-native English speakers. Sometimes he watches and listens to English programmes but he does not engage in online activities.

MKM also has a high score for this grammatical feature (80.33%). An English speaking pensioner aged 67 at the time of testing, MKM has a diploma and was a school teacher. He was only exposed to English at 10 years of age but has relatively many hours of English instruction, approximate 13680 hours. MKM reported to only use English sometimes instead of every day — he sometimes interacts with native speakers and non-native speakers of English. He sometimes watches English programmes on TV but hardly listens to English radio any more. MKM has a positive attitude towards learning to be competent in English and said that being able to speak 'correct' English is 'very important'. He commented that 'mixing English and Malay in speech is not a good style.

Obtaining good English gives good prestige and good Malaysian reputation'.

Table 6.36 shows scores of all the participants from the lowest to the highest percentages.

**Table 6.36: All participants' scores in percentage from lowest to highest: Omission of copula verbs**

| | Participants' scores from lowest to highest (%) | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Omission of copula verbs** | **BJ** 34.78 | **KA** 35.00 | **DMY** 37.5 | AB 41.18 | **SH** 44.00 | S1 57.14 | RA 58.82 | **NA** 59.02 |
| | **RAM** 61.9 | **SMD** 63.64 | **NZA** 68.75 | ZMS 74.29 | **NH** 75 | NAAW 78.57 | **MKM** 80.33 | MMM 81.82 |
| | **MKM** 82.61 | MAG 86 | AJMS 86.67 | SYM 88.24 | SAMR 91.67 | **MAM** 92.86 | MS 100 | Average: 68.69 |

The average percentage of omission of copula verbs for all the participants is 68.69%. Out of 23 participants, 10 of them have scores that are less than the average percentage. From the table, we will find that the first 3 participants whose scores are less the average are from the EM group. In fact 7 EM participants are in the top 10 rank, which also means that most of those who scored above the average percentage, are from the MM group, 8 out of 13 participants. In short, the participants from the EM group appear to produce more target-like utterances with copula verbs, that is, there are more of them with lower scores for omission of copula verbs.

**6.9.5 *Omission of auxiliary verbs***

The average percentages for omission of auxiliary verbs for both MM and EM groups are 56.84% and 68.46% respectively. This is a difference of 11.62% between the averages.

Among the MM group, AB has the least omissions of auxiliary verbs in the utterances he produced. In so far, AB has shown target-likeness in three of the grammatical features and constructions except for omission of pronominal subjects where his score is 100% signifying that he dropped pronominal subjects all the time in the utterances he produced. SH has the second lowest score for omission of auxiliary verbs; and for omission of copula verbs. Like AB, she shows target-likeness in three grammatical features except for lack of past tense inflection. The four other participants whose percentages for omission of auxiliary verbs are below the MM group's average are ZMS (44.44%), RA (54.29%), MMM (55.17%) and MAG (58.33%).

ZMS's profile is more like SHSH. ZMS is female aged 39 at time of testing. She was first exposed to English at 5 years old. She completed her master's degree and works as an administration executive in a company. She uses English daily, and speaks with non-native speakers in English every day. She sometimes interacts with English native speakers. In her daily activities, she frequently watches English TV and sometimes listens to English radio. She does not use English all the time in her texts messages but emails in English daily spending less than 2.5 hours a day. She rated her own motivation to be competent in English as moderate but said speaking 'correct' English is important.

Compared with AB, SHSH and ZMS are more active users of English as AB hardly uses English in his daily interactions with others and does not email or text in English at all although he watches English programmes on TV but this is only sometimes. It is therefore notable that AB has come up top of the MM group list for omission of copula and auxiliary verbs.

At the bottom of the list with the most omission of auxiliary verbs are AJMS and MS followed closely by SYM and SAMR. As mentioned before MS basically does not use English very much at all. AJMS,

however, does get the chance to interact with others in English sometimes and this is due to the nature of his job.

As for the EM group, DMY scored the lowest percentage in this grammatical feature- 33.33% which is similar to AB's score. DMY's score is 23.51% less than the EM group's average of 56.84%. This is smaller than AB's difference, which is about 35%, from his group's average of 68.46%.

Two participants, MKMH and NZA scored the highest in this grammatical category. MKMH made the most omission of auxiliary verbs in his utterances – 87.1%, NZA follows closely with 81.48%. The profiles of NZA and MKMH present a fascinating picture. MKMH described earlier, was 61 and had already retired from the army at the time of testing. NZA is female, aged 54 and a deputy registrar at a university when she took part in this study.  Both had English-medium education but NZA had gone on to her master's degree while MKMH completed his lower secondary education. In terms of English instruction, NZA had more total hours (estimated at 10938 hours) than MKMH (estimated at 3360 hours). They both reported that they use English daily. They both use English to speak with non-native speakers of English but NZA said that she has never interacted with native speakers of English. NZA watches English TV programmes daily and listens to English radio sometimes but MKMH hardly watches English programmes and never listens to English radio. NZA emails to her friends in English but use Malay for official emails. MKMH does not engage in online activities. NZA is also very highly motivated and said that it is important to be able to speak 'good' and 'correct' English.
The difference in both their scores is small and they made the most omissions in auxiliary verbs.

**Table 6.37: All participants' scores in percentage from lowest to highest: Omission of auxiliary verbs**

| | Participants' scores from lowest to highest (%) | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Omission of auxiliary verbs** | AB 33.33 | DMY 33.33 | SH 35.71 | **NH** 37.5 | ZMS 44.00 | **NA** 48.94 | **MAM** 50.00 | BJ 50.00 |
| | **SMD** 52.38 | **RAM** 52.63 | RA 54.29 | MMM 55.17 | MAG 8.33 | **MKM** 63.64 | **KA** 68.29 | KAT 75.00 |
| | **ZA** 81.48 | NAAW 86.67 | **MKMH** 87.1 | SAMR 88.57 | SYM 90.00 | AJMS 100 | MS 100 | Average: 62.90 |

Overall, we see from Table 6.37 that 13 participants have scores that are lower than the whole group's average of 62.90% while 10 participants have scores higher than the average. These results are the opposite of their performance for omission of copula verbs. Out of the 13 participants with the lowest scores, 7 are from the EM group. Alternatively, among the participants whose scores are on the higher end of the continuum, only 4 are from the EM group while 6 are from the MM group. In this way, the EM group appears to have more participants who made less omission of auxiliary verbs.

### 6.9.6 *Lack of SVA in lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs*

For the grammatical feature of subject and verb agreement in lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs, both groups are generally target-like achieving a small average percentage for lack of agreement between subject and the three verb types in the utterances produced. The average percentage for the MM group is 11.46% and the EM group, 9.54%.

There are only four participants from the MM group who have scores higher than the groups' average percentage. Referring to Table 6.31, AJMS has the highest percentage suggesting that he produced the least target-like SVA in his utterances. At the top pf the list is MS with 0% in

lack of SVA in the three verb types. It should be noted however that this is an outlier — MS utterances were mainly short phrases that were just sufficient to describe or explain the situations in the video or pictures shown to her. MS did not produce many utterances and it was noticeable that it was difficult for her to express herself in English. MS's profile shows that she is not a frequent use of English and she sees herself as someone who has low motivation to become a competent English user. MS's result is a reflection that she did not produce any utterance with SVA. She is still included in the statistics because her utterances are valid for all the other grammatical features. In fact her responses and utterances bring on a vivid picture of English use among different users.

In the EM group (see Table 6.32), there are 5 participants who scored higher than the group's average percentage and among these 5 participants, RAM has the highest score (17.78%) followed by KA (16.67%). The latter is noteworthy because for omissions of pronominal subjects, her score is the lowest among all the 23 participants. She also has a low percentage for omission of copula verbs but one of the highest for omission of auxiliary verbs.

MKMH is also interesting to observe. He has the lowest score for lack of SVA in the verb types which means that he is target-like in SVA. He is also target-like in marking past tense infections. However, from his scores for omission of auxiliary and copula verbs, MKMH is less target-like in using these two verb types.

From Table 6.38, we will find that 16 out of the 23 participants have scores lower than the whole group's average percentage of 10.55%. Out of these 16 participants, nine are from the EM group suggesting that they are more target-like in this grammatical feature.

**Table 6.38: All participants' scores in percentage from lowest to highest: Lack of SVA in lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs**

| | Participants' scores from lowest to highest (%) | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Lack of SVA in lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs** | MS 0.00 | NAAW 2.6 | **MKMH** 3.92 | SYM 4.84 | **SMD** 5.49 | ZMS 6.02 | **MKM** 6.4 | NH 7.03 |
| | MAG 7.38 | RA 7.65 | **BJ** 8.14 | **NZA** 8.37 | KAT 8.7 | **SH** 9.24 | **DMY** 10.07 | **NA** 10.38 |
| | MAM 10.71 | MMM 12.38 | KA 16.67 | RAM 17.78 | AB 20.0 | SAMR 27.87 | AJMS 31.03 | Average: 10.55 |

### 6.9.7 *Omission of articles*

In omission of articles, the lowest score among the MM group is 50% (MMM). The group's average percentage is 85.85% (see Table 6.31). Out of 12 MM participants, six have scores lower this average. MMM, in so far, for the previous grammatical features have fared relatively moderately among his group, but for omission of articles he shows that he omitted the least articles in the utterances that he produced. MMM is male aged 29 when he participated in this study. MMM was first exposed to English at 13 years of age, and completed his upper secondary education. MMM uses English every day; he sometimes speaks English with non-native speakers of English but has never interacted with native speakers. He watches English TV everyday but listens to English radio programmes only sometimes. He does not however use only English in his text or email messages. He has moderate motivation in being a competent English speaker but places high importance in speaking 'correct' English.

AJMS is surprising in that he often does not fare so well in the other features but has come out better for omission of articles. There are five participants with 100% of omission of articles. AB, MS, SAMR, ZMS and

SH omitted articles in their utterances. As mentioned before, AB has his best results in omission of the copula and auxiliary verbs. SH is like AB for she has produced better results for omission of copula and auxiliary verbs.

ZMS has her lowest scores in omission of auxiliary verbs, lack of past tense inflection and lack of SVA in lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs. The utterance she produced omitted a lot more pronominal subjects and all articles. As for SAMR most of her scores in the grammatical features that we look at are high suggesting that she was less target-like in the areas that this study looks at. This is also the case for MS.

The EM sees NH topping the scores for omission of articles. NH's score of 0% in this category shows that she did not omit articles at all in the utterances she produced. This is an amazing result considering that the EM group's percentage is a high of 71.98%. NA follows on with 47.37%, DMY with 57.14% and KA, 61.54%. These are the only four participants who score lower than the group's average percentage.

NH has performed quite well in lack of past tense inflections, omission of auxiliary verbs and lack of SVA in the verb types. NA's other better result is in omission of auxiliary verbs. DMY has the lowest score for omission of auxiliary verbs and she omitted fewer copula verbs, too, in her utterances. In fact, DMY's scores so far are all below her group's average scores in the grammatical features discussed up to this point. KA's utterances also showed that she omitted pronominal subjects but a lower percentage than the group's average. Her score for omission of pronominal subject (63.33%) is close to 61.54% in omission of articles.

MKMH omitted 100% of articles in the utterances he produced for this study. Interestingly, NZA who received a lot of English instruction and who uses English frequently in her daily activities also tended to drop articles in her utterances (95%). MAM's percentage of 90.91 for omitting articles follows not so far behind NZA. MAM as we recall has lower secondary education, hence, lesser English instruction hours when

compared with NZA, but he uses English sometimes with foreign visitors as his job presents him with opportunities to meet and interact with them in English.

Table 6.39 below has all the participants' scores in order from the lowest to the highest score. The average for omission of articles for the whole group is 79.22%. Only seven participants reveal scores below this average which means that most that is 17 participants have omitted articles more than the group norm.

**Table 6.39: All participants' scores in percentage from lowest to highest: Omission of articles**

| | Participants' scores from lowest to highest (%) | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Omission of articles** | NH<br>0.00 | NA<br>47.37 | MMM<br>50.00 | DMY<br>57.14 | AJMS<br>61.54 | KA<br>61.54 | SYM<br>77.78 | MAG<br>81.82 |
| | KAT<br>83.33 | **BJ**<br>83.33 | **RAM**<br>83.33 | **MKM**<br>85.71 | NAAW<br>87.5 | **SMD**<br>87.5 | RA<br>88.24 | **MAM**<br>90.91 |
| | **NZA**<br>95.00 | AB<br>100 | MS<br>100 | SAMR<br>100 | ZMS<br>100 | SH<br>100 | **MKMH**<br>100 | Average:<br>79.22 |

From the 17 participants with high scores for omission of articles, seven of them are from the EM group while ten are from the MM group. The EM participants are generally observed to have lower scores than their counterparts within this sub-group.
Among the seven participants with scores lower than the group's average, four of them are EM participants. The EM group on the whole produces better results in omission of articles.


### 6.9.8 *Omission of plural marking*

Referring to Table 6.40 which shows the results of individual participants from the MM group, for omission of plural marking, NAAW has the lowest percentage (40%). NAAW also has the lowest percentage in omission of pronominal subjects. The other two grammatical features that he shows target-likeness are in marking past tense inflection and observing

SVA in lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs. NAAW is preceded by SH (50%) and three others, RA, SAMR, and ZMS who have the same percentage of 66.67%.

The average MM group's percentage is 79.23% (see Table 6.31). We will find that the group is equally divided with six participants having scores lower than the average point while the other six with higher scores — in fact five out six participants from this sub-group scored 100% in omission of plural marking. MAG is one of these participants. At the time of testing MAG was 42 years old. She completed tertiary education with a diploma. She reported that she uses English only sometimes. She sometimes speaks in English with non-native speakers of English but has never interacted with native speakers. MAG watches and listens to English programmes sometimes. She does not exclusively write texts and emails in English either. She sees herself as one who is moderately motivated to learn English but says using 'good' or 'correct' English is important. In all the other features discussed, MAG has fared moderately but it seems that she did not mark plurals in her utterances that she produced for this study.

Moving on to the EM group (see Table 6.32), NH has the lowest score with 50%. This is 10% more than NAAW's score (from the MM group). NH has been consistently showing target-like scores in the grammatical features except for omission of pronominal subjects with 87.5% omission. DMY too has been consistent in all the grammatical features — although in terms of ranking order, lack of SVA is the feature she ranks highest in, her score for omission of pronominal subjects (66.67%) is relatively high suggesting that she is less target-like in pronominal subjects. As for MKMH and MKM, the two participants appear to have lower scores for lack of SVA in verbs but not in omission of copula verbs.

There are six participants scoring higher than the group's average of 73.54%. BJ and SMD show 100% omission of plural marking. BJ has also a high percentage for omission of pronominal subjects but the least

for omission of copula verbs.  SMD on the other hand has fared relatively
in all the grammatical features except for marking plurals.

**Table 6.40: All participants' scores in percentage from lowest to
highest: Omission of plural marking**

| Omission of plural marking | Participants' scores from lowest to highest (%) | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | NAAW 40.00 | **SH** 50.00 | **NH** 50.00 | **DMY** 53.85 | **MKMH** 55.56 | **MKM** 57.69 | RA 66.67 | SAMR 66.67 |
| | ZMS 66.67 | **NA** 71.43 | **NZA** 74.07 | SYM 75.00 | **MAM** 75.00 | RAM 83.33 | MMM 85.71 | KA 88.00 |
| | KAT 100 | AJMS 100 | AB 100 | MS 100 | MAG 100 | SMD 100 | BJ 100 | Average: 76.51 |

Assessing the performance of all the 23 participants, 13 of them have
scores that are below the average of 76.51% (see Table 6.40). From
among the 13 participants, eight are EM participants and five are MM
participants.

From the remaining number who have scores that are higher  than the
average,  seven show 100% omission of plural markings in the utterances
that they produced. Five of them are from the MM group while two are
from the EM group. It seems that the latter group has also produced better
results in omission of plural markings. That is to say they are more target-
like in marking plurals in their utterances compare to the MM group.

**6.9.9  *Summary***

Briefly, in all the grammatical features and constructions that this study
investigates, it is found that the EM group has revealed more target-
likeness than the MM group.

Among the MM group, participants NAAW, AB and SH consistently
show low percentages for all the grammatical features and constructions.
Likewise, NH, DMY, KA and MKMH from the EM group display more

target-like-ness than the other participants of the group in all the grammatical features and constructions.

When all the participants' scores are combined and ranked in order from the lowest score to the highest for all of the grammatical features respectively, there is not one particular participant who top the rank in all the grammatical features or linguistic variables except for NH who has the lowest scores for lack of past tense inflections and omission of articles. There are two other participants that show more target-like-ness than the rest in the grammatical features — DMY and KA. The three participants are all female and aged 49 (DMY and KA) and 51 (NH) at the time of testing. Their age of exposure to English is different — NH's age of exposure is 13, DMY 5 years old and KA at 8 years old. All of them are English medium educated and had an estimated 8200 to 14 400 hours of English instruction. In terms of education level, DMY and KA completed upper secondary education obtaining the Malaysian Certificate of Education (MCE) which is akin to the British O levels. NH completed tertiary education with a master's degree. In their daily activities (reported at the time of testing), all three participants use English every day and interact with non-native speakers in English every day and sometimes (for DMY) but has never done so with native speakers with the exception of NH who sometimes gets the opportunity to meet native speakers of English. All of them watch English TV programmes but hardly or never listen to English radio. Among the three of them only NH sends text and emails using only English but not DMY who only does so for emailing but not for sending texts messages. KA does not use only English in both activities. NH also reported that she has 'very high' motivation for English but the other two participants recorded that they have 'moderate' (DMY) and 'high' motivation (KA).

At the higher end of the rank of scores showing least target-like-ness, MS and AB consistently display high percentages across grammatical features and constructions. The other participant who also appears to have high score across the table is SAMR. These participants are all Malay-medium

educated and comparatively had fewer hours of instruction in English (between 1700 to 5000 hours). AJMS and MS completed lower secondary education while SAMR has a diploma certificate. MS hardly uses English, she never interacts with native speakers nor non -native speakers in English. She only sometimes watches English TV programmes but does not text nor email at all in English. AJMS and SAMR uses English more than MS. AB sometimes uses English whereas SAMR uses it every day with native and non-native speakers of English. AJMS watches English programmes only sometimes but SAMR does it every day. Both of them also sometimes use only English in their texts and emails. Unlike AJMS and SAMR, MS has low motivation in being competent in English.

Although these participants' profiles seem varied when compared within their respective groups, viewed holistically between the EM and MM group, the EM participants who had more instruction in English and engaged in English in their daily activities such as watching TV and listening to the radio and texting and emailing among other online activities show high motivation in being competent in English and place high importance on being able to use it 'correctly'. The EM group on the whole reveals more target-like-ness constructions in the utterances they produced in all the grammatical features investigated in this study. To sum it up, as hypothesized, the results of this study point to the EM group of adult Malay L2 speakers producing more target-like English, reflecting morpho-syntactic competence that is closer to the inner circle variety of English.

**6.10 Other Factors**

This is the third objective of the study to answer the third research question as stated below.

RQ3:   Are there factors other than the medium of education that have influenced adult Malay English speakers' morpho-syntactic competence?

a.  Extralinguistic factors namely sex, level of education (secondary or tertiary) and formal exposure to English (total hours of English instruction).

b. Current use of English (at home/office and online), interaction in English with native speakers where English is expected and with non-native speakers in English]

### 6.10.1 *Correlation with extralinguistic factors*

For the second and third research questions of the study, bivariate statistics is used to identify the correlations between the participants' production with respect to the grammatical features presented earlier and several extralinguistic  variables, namely sex, level of education, formal exposure to English; and current use of English language (e.g., listening to English radio, watching  English programmes/films, and online activities; interaction in English with native speakers where English is expected, and with non-native speakers in English). In particular, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to test the significance of the correlations. The significance (p) value of lower than the 0.05 value will indicate that the correlation between the participants' production and the stipulated variable is statistically significant.

**Table 6.41:  ANOVA results between participants' production and sex**

|  | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|
| Null Subject | 0.317 | 0.579 |
| Tense | 0.257 | 0.618 |
| Aspect | 1.940 | 0.178 |
| Articles | 0.747 | 0.397 |
| Plurals | 0.016 | 0.901 |
| SVA | 0.091 | 0.766 |

As shown in Table 6.41, the results from the one-way ANOVA conducted on the effects of participants' sex on the use of linguistic features showed that there were no significant differences on all features (p>0.05). Hence, the participants' sex has no effect on their competency in using the language features.

**Table 6.42: ANOVA results between participants' production and level of education**

|  | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|
| **Null Subject** | **7.326** | **0.013** |
| **Tense** | **9.937** | **0.005** |
| Aspect | 0.273 | 0.607 |
| Articles | 2.184 | 0.154 |
| **Plurals** | **7.546** | **0.012** |
| **SVA** | **8.034** | **0.010** |

In Table 6.42, the ANOVA results revealed that there are significant differences between participants' level of education on the target-like suppliance of pronominal subjects (p=0.013), Tense (p=0.005) Plurals (p=0.012) and subject–verb agreement (p=0.010).

**Table 6.43: ANOVA results between participants' production and formal exposure to English (English Medium group)**

|  | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|
| Null Subject | 0.818 | 0.530 |
| **Tense** | **3.835** | **0.020** |
| Aspect | 1.146 | 0.367 |
| Articles | 2.001 | 0.137 |
| **Plurals** | **3.814** | **0.021** |
| **SVA** | **4.446** | **0.011** |

The ANOVA results as indicated in Table 6.43 reveal that there are significant differences between formal exposure to English for the EM group on the target-like use of Tense (p=0.020), Plurals (p=0.020) and SVA (p=0.011). This seems to suggest that the experience of going through the schooling period in English where the total hours of English instruction is higher has some influence on the participants' competency in

the grammatical features examined in this study which are often deemed as the 'common errors' among non-native speakers of English.

**Table 6.44: ANOVA results between participants' production and formal exposure to English (Malay Medium group)**

|  | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|
| Null Subject | 1.213 | 0.828 |
| Tense | 2.636 | 0.570 |
| Aspect | 2.130 | 0.367 |
| **Articles** | **1.105** | **0.014** |
| Plurals | 4.158 | 0.145 |
| SVA | 3.124 | 0.762 |

As for the MM group, the ANOVA results shown in the table above indicated that there is a significant difference between their production of articles and the formal exposure to English. The EM group's production of target-like articles was not significantly correlated with their exposure to formal English. However, article is the only grammatical feature that shows a significant difference with the MM educated participants' exposure to English which is lesser than the EMG.

**Table 6.45: ANOVA results between participants' production and current use of English**

|  | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|
| Null Subject | 1.045 | 0.529 |
| Tense | 1.320 | 0.408 |
| **Aspect** | **1.384** | **0.003** |
| Articles | 0.759 | 0.697 |
| **Plurals** | **1.213** | **0.036** |
| SVA | 1.456 | 0.360 |

As shown in Table 6.45, the results show that there is a significant effect of current use of English target-like use of aspect at the $p<.05$ level (p=0.003) and plurals (p=0.036). It indicates that current use of English has influence on the participants' production of aspect and plurals. The remaining linguistic features were not statistically significant.

As indicated in the ANOVA results, the participants' production is not correlated with their sex. However, there are statistical significances

between their overall production in the linguistic or grammatical features and their level of education, exposure to English medium education and also informal exposures to English.

Pearson's correlation is also used to test the significance of the correlations between the participants' production with respect to the grammatical features presented earlier and several extralinguistic factors, namely (i) sex, (ii) level of education (secondary or tertiary), (iii) total hours of English instruction; and (iv) current use of English language (e.g., listening to English radio, watching English programmes/films, and online activities; interaction in English with native speakers where English is expected, and with non-native speakers in English).

The significance (p) value of lower than the 0.05 value will indicate that the correlation between the participants' production and the stipulated variable is statistically significant.

The statistics shown in Table 6.46 below revealed that sex (see I in table) differences among the participants did not record any significant relationship with the grammatical features/morphemes or linguistic variables, which is indicated by the *p* values that are higher than 0.05 at 95 per cent confidence level

The participants' level of education (see II in Table 6.46 below) however, recorded the most significant relationship with the grammatical features/morphemes or linguistic variables. Six out of seven linguistic variables showed significant relationships with the linguistic variables. Lack of past-tense inflection (r=0.466, p=0.000) shows a substantial relationship which is very significant with the participants' level of education. The same can be said for lack of subject and verb agreement (r=0.488, p=0.000). Omission of copula verbs (r=0.235, p=0.016), omission of auxiliary verbs (r=0.322, p=0.001), omission of articles (r=0.283, p=0.003), and omission of plural marking (r=0.237, p=0.015) show some slight relationships with level of education but all them are significant relationships. Only 'omission of pronominal subjects' did not

record a significant relationship with education (r=0.090, p=0.363). This means that the differences in the participants' level of education have an influence on their production of the linguistic variables

Total hours of English instruction (see column III in Table 6.46) recorded significant relationships with omission of copula verbs (r=0.295, p=0.000) and lack of subject and verb agreement (r=0.277, p=0.000) although the strength of the relationship is slight. Other components of grammatical features recorded significance levels higher than 0.05. On the whole, 'total hours of English instruction' does not appear to have strong influence on the linguistic variables although it does exert some slight influence on the omission of copula verbs and lack of subject and verb agreement in lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs.

Finally, 'Current use of English language' recorded a significant relationship with 'Lack of past-tense inflection' at (r=0.149, p=0.035), while the remaining grammatical features recorded p values higher than 0.05. Again, this shows that 'Current use of English language' has minimal impact on the participants' suppliance of target-like grammatical features selected for this study.

**Table 6.46: Pearson's correlations analysis between extralinguistic factors and grammatical features**

|  |  | Extralinguistic factors | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  |  | I | II | III | IV |
| Omission of pronominal subjects | Pearson Correlation | .085 | .090 | .069 | .076 |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | .388 | .363 | .484 | .441 |
| Lack of past-tense inflection | Pearson Correlation | .079 | .466** | .041 | .149* |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | .422 | .000 | .679 | .035 |
| Omission of copula verbs | Pearson Correlation | .113 | .235* | .295** | .003 |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | .251 | .016 | .000 | .978 |
| Omission of auxiliary verbs | Pearson Correlation | .075 | .322** | .062 | .124 |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | .448 | .001 | .531 | .207 |
| Lack of subject and verb agreement | Pearson Correlation | .036 | .488** | .277** | .025 |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | .714 | .000 | .000 | .800 |
| Omission of articles | Pearson Correlation | .010 | .283** | .012 | .050 |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | .922 | .003 | .902 | .612 |
| Omission of plural marking | Pearson Correlation | .067 | .237* | .161 | .028 |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | .500 | .015 | .102 | .775 |

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

**Extralinguistic factors**

I = Sex

II = Level of education

III = Total hours of English instruction

IV = Current use of English language

### 6.10.2  *Current use of English*

Data about participants' daily activities where they use English informally (that is post-school and on-going use of English at the time of testing) were obtained from questionnaires distributed to them. Data for informal (outside school) use of English were collected to find out if current use is a factor that might contribute to the difference in the performance of English between the two EM and MM groups.

They were asked how frequently and how many hours they spent daily or weekly on certain key activities in English either at home or at work or both. The number of hours for these activities that they each reported were added up and then divided by the total number of informants to get the mean number of hours spent. A higher mean means more or longer hours are spent on the activities, which indirectly means they have more exposure on the activities.

**Table 6.47: Activities participants engage in on daily basis**

|  | Groups | |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | EM | MM |
|  | Mean | Mean |
| Hours per day of writing in English | 2.86 | 2.00 |
| Hours per day of speaking in English | 5.23 | 3.17 |
| Hours per day texting in English only | 1.18 | 1.17 |

*Mean/Average of total hours spent per day at the time of testing

Table 6.47 shows the average hours spent for a day on writing, speaking and texting in English. The EM participants are using more English for all three activities. However, the difference in time spent for the activities between the EM group and MM group is not huge except for daily conversations in which the EMG spend longer periods (m=5.23 hours per day).

Table 6.48 below shows the relationship between analyses on activities participants engage in daily basis according to groups. The statistics reveals that 'hours per day of writing in English' recorded a very significant 'strong useful' relation with participants from the English medium group (p=0.000, r=0.692), but no significant relationship with participants from the Malay Medium group as shown by the r and p values (p=0.167, r=0.116). This indicates that participants from EM spend more hours per day of writing in English compared to those from the MM group. Besides writing in English, 'hours per day of speaking in English' recorded significant and strong relationship with both groups (EM p=0.000, r=0.623) and (MM p=0.000, r=0.600). Both groups spend much more time in a day speaking English rather than writing suggesting that they value speaking more than writing in English.

In contrast, perception on 'hours per day texting in English only' recorded no significant relationship with both groups (EM p=0.667, r=0.036) and (MM p=0.207, r=0.106). Most of the participants do not text in English only but use or codeswitch between English and Malay.

**Table 6.48: Pearson's correlation analysis on activities participants engage in daily basis according to groups**

|  |  | Groups | |
|---|---|---|---|
|  |  | EM | MM |
| Hours per day of writing in English | Pearson Correlation | .692** | .116 |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .167 |
| Hours per day of speaking in English | Pearson Correlation | .623** | .600** |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 |
| Hours per day texting in English only | Pearson Correlation | .036 | .106 |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | .667 | .207 |

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The participants also reported on the time they spent on activities in which English might be used.

**Table 6.49: Frequency of using English**

| | Groups | |
|---|---|---|
| | EM | MM |
| | Mean | Mean |
| Frequency of using English | 1.45 | 1.83 |
| Frequency of interacting with native speakers of English | 2.73 | 3.17 |
| Frequency of interacting with non- native speakers of English | 1.45 | 2.00 |

Referring to Table 6.49, the participants were asked on how frequently they used English in general at the time of testing, and how frequently they used English to interact with native English speakers and non-native English speakers. They were asked to rate their activities on a Likert scale of 'every day', 'sometimes', 'hardly' and 'never'. On a scale of 1 to 4 where 1 is 'every day' and 4 is 'never', a lower mean score indicates a higher frequency in using English. In other words, the lower the mean score is for each activity, the higher the frequency in using English for the activity.

The EM group is found to have a lower mean score (mean= 2.73) for frequency in interacting with English native speakers than the MM group's (mean=3.17). This means that the EM group has a higher frequency ('sometimes') in using English to interact with English native speakers compared to the MM group ('hardly'). In general, the frequencies of using English across three situations are higher for the EM group as indicated by the lower mean scores.

Data on the frequency of the participants' interactions with native speakers of English show only one participant had daily interactions with native speakers of English. This sole participant who had interactions with native speakers or foreign visitors in English daily is MKMH. MKMH although retired, at the time of testing he was working in a hotel apartment in the capital city as a security personnel. This is probably why he had more chances than the others to interact with speakers of English in English.

Eleven others reported that they 'sometimes' interact with native speakers of English. Out of these eleven participants, seven were EM educated while four were MM educated. Thus, twelve participants had interactions with native speakers. However, another nine of them indicated that they never interact with native speakers. Three other participants reported that they hardly interacted with native speakers.

The participants were also asked how often they interacted with non-native speakers of English in English. Most of them (n=18) responded that they use English 'everyday' and 'sometimes' when interacting with non-native English speakers. There are eleven participants who reported using English with non-native speakers daily. Out of these eleven, seven of them were EM educated and four were MM educated. The EM participants in generally had also reported using English daily in their lives. As for using English 'sometimes' with non-native speakers there are altogether seven of whom three were EM educated and four MM educated.

Only three participants, one among them is from the EM group, reported that they 'hardly' use English with non-native speakers of English, and two from the MM group 'never' use English with non-native speakers.

**Table 6.50: Pearson's correlation for frequency of using English**

|  |  | Groups | |
|  |  | EM | MM |
|---|---|---|---|
| Frequency of using English | Pearson Correlation | .045 | .040 |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | .590 | .632 |
| Frequency of interacting with native speakers of English | Pearson Correlation | .385** | .281* |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | .004 | .038 |
| Frequency of interacting with non- native speakers of English | Pearson Correlation | .032 | .122 |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | .706 | .145 |

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 6.50 shows Pearson's correlation analyses for frequency of using English for both groups. Frequency of using English did not record a significant relationship with English Medium group (r=0.045, p=0.590) and Malay Medium group (r=0.040, p=0.632). Most of the participants

from both groups use English sometimes and not everyday. However, the frequency of interacting with native speakers of English recorded significant relationships with both groups; English Medium (r=0.385, p=0.004) and Malay Medium (r=0.281, p=0.038); twelve of the participants reported using English with native speakers everyday (1) and sometimes (11). On the other hand, frequency of interacting with non-native speakers of English revealed that there are no significant relationships with both groups; English Medium (r=0.032, p=0.706) and Malay Medium (r=0.122, p=0.145).

Further questions on how many hours per week participants spent on activities using English or that involved the use of English aimed to give insights on how much or to what extent  and what type of English use the participants engage in.

In Table 6.51 below, the total number of hours for each activity per week is averaged out (i.e. the number of hours that all the participants in each group spent for each activity are added up and then divided with the number of participants).

On average, the EM group spent more time using English to interact with English native speakers and non-native speakers, as well as listening to English radio programmes. The MM group on the other hand spent more hours per week on watching TV and films in English, and reading materials in English.

The MM group spent more time watching television and films in English (mean=13.33 hours per week); it seems that they get English exposure mostly from watching English programmes and films than the other activities. Listening to English programmes on the radio is not an activity they do much. This is in contrast to the EM group who spent more time listening to English radio programmes than reading in English. It is also interesting to note that the EM group spent more hours (mean=18.64 hours per week) interacting with non-native speakers than the MM group.

**Table 6.51: Activities participants engage in on a weekly basis**

| | Groups | |
|---|---|---|
| | EM | MM |
| | Mean | Mean |
| Hours per week of interaction with English native speakers | 2.75 | 1.96 |
| Hours per week of interaction with English non-native speakers | 18.64 | 9.50 |
| Hours per week spent on watching TV, films in English | 9.55 | 13.33 |
| Hours per week spent on listening to English radio programmes | 8.73 | 2.21 |
| Hours per week spent on reading English materials (newspapers, magazines, etc.) | 6.27 | 9.33 |

*Mean/Average of total hours spent per week at the time of testing*

From Pearson's correlation analysis, the EM group recorded a significant relationship ($p<0.05$) at 95 per cent confidence level with four activities, compared to 'hours per week of interaction with English native speakers' recorded no significant relationship with a significant level higher than 0.05. Lower mean for 'hours per week of interaction with English native speakers' was due to limited interaction or conversation with English native speakers.

The MM group recorded a significant relationship with three (3), ($p<0.05$).The most significant is 'hours per week spent on watching TV, films in English'. 'Hours per week of interaction with English native speakers' also recorded no significant relationship with the MM group. In addition, the MM group also recorded no significant relationship with 'hours per week spent on listening to English radio programmes', both variables recorded significant levels higher than 0.05.

**Table 6.52: Online activities**

| | Groups | |
|---|---|---|
| | EM | MM |
| | Mean | Mean |
| Hours per day IM in English only | 1.09 | 1.08 |
| Hours per day emailing in English only | 1.45 | 1.75 |
| Hours per day blogging in English only | 1.00 | 1.08 |
| Hours per day web surfing in English only | 1.27 | 2.25 |

*Mean/Average of total hours spent per day at the time of testing.*

The participants also reported on their online activities, particularly how many hours per day they spent on instant messaging (IM), emailing, blogging in English and surfing English web sites. The number of hours for each group were totalled up and then averaged out. From Table 6.52, the results show the time spent on online activities in English. The amount of English used when engaging in online activities seems to be rather similar for both groups of participants except for web surfing. The MM group tends to surf longer for web content in English (m=2.22 hours per day) compared to the EM group (m=1.27 hours per day.

Further Pearson's correlation analysis found that there is no significant relationship between online activities and the groups. The significance level recorded a reading over 0.05 for both groups.

## 6.11 Correlation between Overall Production and Current English Use

The data obtained from the participants' current use of English were then analyzed using Pearson's correlation within SPSS to find out if there is any correlation between their current use of English and their overall production of the grammatical features or linguistic variables. Participants' current use of English (e.g. daily activities, weekly activities, online activities; frequency of English use at the time of testing) were correlated with the overall production of all the linguistic features as a whole. The mean scores for all current use of English for both groups were added together and then correlated with the mean scores of all the grammatical features for both groups.

The results revealed that all categories of current use of English, that is, activities the participants engage in post formal education have no significant relationships with the participants' overall production (Table 6.53). The significant value (p) for each category was greater than the 0.05 level of significance.

These findings show that English use post formal education or current use of English did not influence the overall production of the participants in the grammatical features suggesting that current use of English at the time of testing or after formal education has not influenced or was not sufficient to impact the participants' English or their target-like-ness in the grammatical features that are investigated in this study.

**Table 6.53: Correlation between overall production and current use of English**

|  |  | Overall performance |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Daily activities (Work & Home) | Pearson Correlation | 0.100 |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | 0.650 |
| Weekly activities (Home) | Pearson Correlation | 0.143 |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | 0.516 |
| Online Activities | Pearson Correlation | 0.200 |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | 0.361 |
| Frequency of English Use | Pearson Correlation | 0.130 |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | 0.554 |

**6.12 Conclusion**

This chapter has reported the major findings of the study English-medium and Malay-medium educated participants on their production of grammatical features/morphemes and extralinguistic factors that may influence their morpho-syntactic competence. Major findings reveal that the EM group were more target-like in the features tested compared to the MM group; their education level appears to be a significant factor that influences their production of the grammatical features/morphemes. Formal exposure from their English medium education was also found to be a significant factor in influencing their production of the features, indicating their morpho-syntactic competence. However, the overall statistical results for their current use of English (at the time of testing) do not show that it is a significant influence on their production. Sex as a variable is also an insignificant factor in influencing their competence. These are the expected outcomes of the study.

# Chapter 7. Discussion and Conclusion

## 7.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the results from the analyses of the oral production of the grammatical features/morphemes by Malay speakers of English who had received English medium education and Malay-medium education. It also discusses analyses of the influence extralinguistic factors on their oral production.

## 7.1 By Group

The results from the frequency analyses of the grammatical features/morphemes revealed that on the whole the English-medium educated participants performed better than the Malay-medium educated participants. Specifically, the EM group were more target-like in the grammatical features namely in the production of pronominal subjects, copula verbs, auxiliary verbs, articles and in marking plural inflections. The MM group however, produced more instances of target-like past tense inflections and subject and verb agreement in lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs.

The EM group as compared to the MM group in the grammatical features/morphemes shows they are better and proven to be significant as indicated by the p values of less than 0.05. The MM group, however, although they were better in past tense inflections and subject and verb agreement in the three verb types compared with the EM group , their production of these features do not show a significant difference (p <0.05).

Both groups however show that they made a lot of omission in pronominal subjects, copula verbs, auxiliary verbs, articles and plural marking.

**7.2 By Individual**

As for individuals' production of the grammatical features, analysis was made on each participants' production of each grammatical or linguistic feature. For each grammatical feature the scores of the participants were averaged out and these were tabled according to their groupings.

Results from the MM group revealed that omission of pronominal subjects scored the highest percentage 88.69%, followed by omission of articles (85.85%), plural marking (79.23%), and copula verbs (74.03%), and auxiliary verbs (68.46%). For lack of past tense inflection and lack of SVA in verbs, the scores were low, 26.40% in the former and 11.46% in the latter.

The EM group showed the highest score in the omission of pronominal subjects (75.32%) followed by plural marking (73.54%), articles (71.98%), copula verbs (62.85%) and auxiliary verbs (56.84%). The scores for lack of past-tense inflection and SVA in verbs were low.

Omission of pronominal subjects is the grammatical feature that both groups scored the highest on. Their scores for omission of articles, copula verbs and plural marking are also high but in reverse order. Their average scores for omission of auxiliary verbs range in the 60%.

Both groups' results mean that these participants, on the whole, are not target-like in producing pronominal subjects, articles, copula and auxiliary verbs.
Nonetheless, the differences in the percentages in the individual production (by group) were run for significance test. The t-tests results of individual production according to groups indicated that participants from the EM group were significant (p <0.05) in six grammatical features, except for lack of subject and verb agreement in main/lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs. This result indicated that the participants from the EM

group were more target-like in their production of these grammatical features/morphemes.

When all the participants were ranked based on their scores for the grammatical features, a clear pattern emerges showing the participants from the EM group making the least omissions in the copula and auxiliary verbs, pronominal subjects, article and plural marking as well as lack of past tense inflections and SVA in lexical, copula and auxiliary verbs. Participants KA, NH, BJ, NAAW who scored the least in these features are all English-medium educated; only AB is Malay-medium educated. This gives support to the observation that the English-medium educated participants were more target-like in all the grammatical features investigated in this study

## 7.3 Discussion

The production of participants, both by group and individual, indicates that the EM group is closer than the MM group in terms of grammatical features of inner-circle English. This lends support to Gill's (2003) observation that English-medium educated speakers are more proficient in English compared to the Malay-medium educated speakers, and to Rajadurai's (2004) report that English-medium speakers were more fluent, accurate and internationally intelligible than those in the 1980s and 1990s who were Malay-Medium educated. That is, they were able to produce target-like grammatical features of English closer to inner circle variety norms (British English). It is noteworthy to mention that there is so far very little experimental study that compares speakers who are exposed to different medium of instruction. This study set out to fill this gap.

That L2 Malay speakers who were English-medium educated produced English closer to inner circle varieties is not unexpected as research has shown that learners who are exposed to the target language normally facilitates acquisition of the target language (Young-Scholten; 1994; 1995).

Leung (2012) found that the Hong Kong children in his study who were exposed to Filipino English were able to acquire the L2 English phonologies he examined. He remarked that acquisition is possible if learners have enough amounts of exposure to the target language.

The English-medium educated participants had more exposure to English as indicated by the total hours of English instruction they received which were a lot more than that of the Malay-medium group.

The individual participants' production revealed variations in their competence in the use of grammatical features/ morphemes. As Bayley and Regan (2004) stated, variation in interlanguage is systematic and it is linguistically and socially constrained just as in native speaker's language. Participants' morpho-syntactic competence in this study varies. Their production of the grammatical features range very widely — for instance, in marking past tenses, the scores for lack of past tense inflection ranges from 0% to 100%, with NH from the EM group scoring the 0% and MS from the MM group scoring 100%. The same pattern can be seen for lack of SVA in verbs and in omission of articles.

For omission of articles, it must be noted that the participants who omitted most articles were from both groups. ANOVA results show that for the MM group, there is a significant difference between their production of target-like articles and the formal exposures to English but not for the EM group. Perhaps as Leung (2012) stated sufficient exposure to the target language is possible but it is not a determining factor as other factors may have an influence on acquisition.

According to Towell and Hawkins (1994), variability is present in adult and child interlanguage. This investigation into the L2 of adult Malay speakers highlights the variability in their morpho-syntactic competence of the English language.

Among the explanations that scholars provide is language change which sociolinguists suggest can explain variations in learner language. Contact

languages which show features of simplified grammatical characteristics like the omission of articles (Schumann, 1978a) are likened to interlanguage. Malaysian English is not a pidgin, as noted by scholars in this area, but its new English variety that is in its nativization phase (Schneider, 2003; 2009). Indeed, we have seen, as elaborated in Chapter 3, how English in Malaysia has developed from phase 1, that is, the foundation phase, to phase 3, the nativization phase but not quite into the endonormative stabilization phase, which is stage 4 in Schneider's Dynamic Model of New Englishes (Schneider, 2003, 2007). In the very early stages, English was a foreign language to the local people and soon began to establish its 'standard' or the inner circle variety (Kachru, 1986, 1988) in the exonormative stabilization phase (phase 2). In fact, British English had been and is still the the variety that the Malaysian authorities – the government, the Ministry of Education, national and multi-national private employers – as well as some members of the public – see as standard for educated-urban/semi-urban communities, professionals, government and private sector high-ranking officials to conform to and which they are expected to maintain (Gut *et al*., 2013). Schneider (2003, 2014) and Kirkpatrick (2006, 2010b) highlight this point when they stated that the linguistic orientation in Malaysia has been exornomative, and when they reiterated that in former colonies, the inner circle varieties are still the standard variety which speakers should aspire to.

British English has been the prestigious inner circle variety in Malaysia. However, in the last thirty years, Malaysian English has been gaining prominence. Studies on Malaysian English have provided evidence for the manifestations of Malaysian English features by various ethnic communities in different linguistic respects (Phoon and McLagan, 2009; Imm, 2009; Phoon *et al*., 2013; Zuraidah, 2000; Schneider, 2003; Baskaran, 2004; Rajadurai, 2007; Hashim *et al*., 2014; Azirah and Tan, 2012 among others). The linguistic features of Malaysian English, which involve less inflectional morphology than inner circle British English, includes lexical items from the indigenous languages as well as from

Malay, Chinese and Indian languages, and these have been researched extensively (Platt, Weber and Ho, 1984; Newbrook, 1997; Preshous, 2001; Schneider, 2003; Baskaran, 2008b; Deterding, 2010; Kirkpatrick, 2010b; Schneider, 2014; Hashim and Leitner, 2014 among others) to provide descriptions of Malaysian English as it continues to evolve. Manifestations of Malaysian English features have subsequently made some researchers to re-evaluate the linguistic situation in Malaysia as there appears to be a movement towards the endornomative stabilization phase (phase 4).

Regarding the present study, Kirkpatrick (2010b) and Schneider (2014) observed that English speakers in countries such as Malaysia speak English with a local flavour – with accents, lexis and other features as a result of contact and influence of the indigenous and local languages. The two groups in the present study manifest this local flavour. That is, participants from both the English-medium and Malay-medium groups displayed an array of linguistic features of Malaysian English such as those of speaker SYM in the MM group omission of articles, plural marking, lack of subject-verb agreement, omission of copula and auxiliary verbs::

(7.1) 'hanging from tree'

(7.2) 'Before this, maybe, not same'

(7.3) 'ten womans'

(7.4) 'all the house or building'

(7.5) 'the human, move it back a bit'

(7.6) 'everybody.. want to escape from.. the building'

(7.7) 'I don't know where the(y) from'

(7.8) 'everything destroyed'

It is to be expected that Malaysian English contributes to participants' omissions of copula verbs, articles, plural markings and lack of past tense inflections and SVA in verbs. Schumann (1978a) also posits that 'universal developmental constraints' is one influence that can explain patterns found in learner language. It is difficult to separate the two.

Nonetheless, the influence of Malaysia English did not apply equally to both groups. Statistical results of the two groups' production of the linguistic features of inner circle English which this study looked at highlighted that the Malay-medium group manifests more Malaysian English features than the English-medium group.

Alongside the trend of Asian English speakers using their local variety in Malaysia there has been a push towards the endornomative phase where there have been efforts by linguists to 'standardize' English. A localized educated English seems to be preferred (Halimah and Ng, 2000; Gill 1999, 2002; Kirkpatrick, 2006; Schneider, 2003, 2014; D'Angelo, 2014). However, more sociolinguistic investigation would be required to determine whether we can conclude that the status of English in Malaysia is somewhere between the nativization (phase 2) and endornomative stabilization (phase 3) stages, as per Kirkpatrick (2012). While the idealized variety is still British English, in practice, in the spectrum of the ordinary lives of Malaysians, Malaysian English is the variety spoken.

The present study on English-medium vs. Malay-medium educated speakers took as its starting point second language acquisition rather than sociolinguistics; social factors were included in the analysis. Such a dual disciplinary study can fail to completely answer all the questions that arise. . One of these questions remains the influence of Malaysian English on speakers' inner circle English morpho-syntactic competence. Addressing this question would require collecting data on speakers' actual use (not just reported use) of the two English varieties in a diglossic situation like Malaysia where one of the varieties is changing in status. Research into how speakers from different socio-economic backgrounds

use these two varieties in different social domains and situations could provide a clearer picture.

The variability in the morpho-syntactic competence of the participants in this study can also be explained by studies in L2 acquisition. Variable use of inflectional morphology is present in advanced stages or in the end state grammar (Lardiere, 1998a, 1998b). Haznedar (2003) claimed that lack of inflections or omissions of grammatical features by L2 learners means that functional categories are impaired in L2 grammars .The Impairment Representation Hypothesis (IRH) understood lack of inflections as evidence that L2 learners do not project functional categories or features (Eubank 1993/94, 1996; Eubank and Grace, 1998; Vanikka and Young-Scholten, 1994, 1996a, 1996b, 1998). In the Failed Functional Features Hypothesis (FFFH) Hawkins and Chan (1997) postulated that interlanguage is restricted to the features and feature values that are available in their L1. Their study on English restrictive relative clauses by L1 Chinese speakers supports the theory that features of functional categories are not accessible to L2 adult learners and that only functional categories features are subject to a critical period (Hawkins and Chan, 1997). Consequently, they claimed that L2 adult learners will produce 'morphonological forms from the L2 on to the L1 specifications' and 'L1 syntax with L2 lexical items' (Hawkins and Chan, 1997, p.216). The other effect is that continued exposure to the L2 will facilitate post-childhood learners' performance towards the target language and away from their L1, but according to Hawkins and Chan (1997, p.216) 'to do this, given that the differently fixed functional features are inaccessible, they will establish grammatical representations which diverge from those of native speakers, as well as from their own L1s, but which are nevertheless constrained by the principles of UG: 'possible grammars'.

Organic Grammar (Vainikka and Young-Scholten, 2005) like Hawkin and Chan (1997) proposed that only lexical categories transfer from L1 to L2 initial state and that functional categories and properties that are dependent on them, such as verb raising, do not transfer. But, unlike Hawkin and

Chan (1997), Vainikka and Young-Scholten (2005) argues for UG constrained structure building with sufficient or exposure available. These propositions from L2 acquisition and the influence of a contact language offer plausible explanations for the variability in the morpho-syntactic competence shown by the participants in this study. Nevertheless, it is not possible to offer a conclusive explanation for the variability shown by these participants precisely because this study did not test any of the hypotheses posited by L2 acquisition research. The absence of target-like grammatical features in the participants' production is not frequent enough to rule out the possibility that they lack linguistic competence/ mental grammars for inner circle English. On the contrary, their ability to produce target-like grammatical features could well indicate otherwise, suggesting that the apparent absence of target-like inner circle features is due to their variable production. In other words, the features are not robust enough to be produced regularly. Having said this, the most plausible factor that can explain the overall closer to inner circle English of the English-medium participants is the effect of exposure to this target language variety (Vainikka and Young-Scholten, 2005) — the exposure they received from their English medium education and the total hours of instruction in English (level of education).

**7.4 Extralinguistic Factors**

Results on analyses on the extralinguistic factors sex show that they do not exert any influence on the participants' production of the grammatical features in this study. The one-way ANOVA conducted on the effects of these factors on the use of linguistic features showed that there were no significant differences on all features ($p > 0.05$).

However, ANOVA results revealed that the participants' level of education has an effect or influence on the participants' production of grammatical features particularly on the target-like suppliance of

pronominal subjects (p=0.013), tense (p=0.005) plurals (p=0.012) and subject and verb agreement (p=0.010).

Formal exposure to English (hours of English instruction) was also found to exert some influence on the EM's group on the target-like use of tense (p=0.020), plurals (p=0.020) and subject and verb  agreement (p=0.011), and for the MM group on target-like use of articles  (p=0.014).

Finally, participants' current use of English (at the time of testing) revealed no significant relationships with the participants' overall production. All categories of current use such as daily activities, weekly activities, online activities in English as well as interactions with native speakers and non-native speakers English where English is expected, show a p value of more than 0.05.

In brief, only level of education and formal exposure were revealed to have an influence on the participants' production of the grammatical features/ morphemes.

Formal exposure (total hours of English instruction) and level of education (secondary/tertiary) indicate the amount of exposure that the participants are exposed to. For level of education, participants who received higher education especially to tertiary level would entail having more exposure or a lengthier time in using or being exposed to English. Although Malay is the official language in Malaysia, English is widely used in institutions of higher education. From analysis of individual production, participants like NH and NAAW (although from the MM group who had received primarily Malay medium education) who completed their tertiary education display target-likeness in most of the features that the study examines. KA and BJ although completed their education at a lower level than NH and NAAW, they both received English-medium education.

The profiles of the participants like the four participants reveal that they use English  in their daily and weekly activities and they interact with non-

native speakers in English 'everyday' but for most of them , interaction with native speakers of English is only 'sometimes'.

Rehner, Mougeon, and Nadasdi (2003) in the learning of linguistic variation by French second language learners found that contact with L1 speakers outside the classroom and in Francophone environments as well as the use of the spoken French media increased the use of *on.*

Social factors like social contact and interaction with native speakers have an effect on L2 learners' use of grammatical features (Bailey, 1994). The Chinese learners in his study who had social contact with native speakers of English used more past tense forms that those who only interacted with speakers of their mother tongue.

Those whose social contacts were with both English native speakers and Chinese learners were more likely to use past tense forms than those whose networks were limited to other Chinese speakers. The findings of these studies are consistent with those by Regan, Dewaele, and Mougeon et al. stated above.

Mahadeo (2003) who looked at social factors which also included the use of English for reading, writing, watching TV found these as providing conducive learning environment for his participants but which  the rural learners in his study lack.

All these studies suggest that use of English in social or informal contacts have influence on L2 learners' acquisition of a target language.  These provide support to the results some of the participants in this study produced, like the four mentioned above. The result that shows current use of English does not correlate with participants' production could be explained by the varied responses the participants gave in all the categories in the 'current use' — many of whom reported that they ' never', 'hardly' and 'sometimes' for most of the categories ( e.g. interaction with native speakers, texting in English only or surfing in English). A more effective way to investigate the effect of current use of

English on their morpho-syntactic would be the study one or two variables but with more depth.

## 7.5 Conclusion

This study set out to investigate how Malay speakers of English as a second language who were English- medium educated and Malay-medium educated differ in their English in relation to the grammatical features/morphemes. These grammatical features include features that L2 speakers of English have been found to show non-target-likeness. These features are also characteristic of Malaysian English that the participants in this study are exposed to.

With reference to the research questions of this study, major findings of the study have found that the English-medium participants were more target-like or closer to the inner circle English variety norms in the grammatical features. To answer the research questions that this study set out to explore, there is a significant difference in the current morpho-syntactic competence of L2 Malay speakers. The English-medium educated speakers were more target-like in the grammatical feature/morphemes tested in this study compared to the Malay-medium educated speakers. Apart from medium of instruction, an extralinguistic factor that was found to have significantly influenced the participants is level of education; sex and current use of English do not have an impact on the participants' competence in the selected grammatical features.

## 7.6 Limitations of the Study

The limitation of this study mainly concerns the sample population. The study is limited to Malays speakers in a limited study area.  In this way, this study is only representative of the Malay community and due to the

small number of participants, the findings of this study are not representative of other Malay speakers and other ethnic groups.

Finding participants who fulfilled the criteria set for the study was extremely challenging. This caused an unbalanced number of participants in some of the grid cells. The small and unbalanced sample size however is compensated by the huge linguistic data.

## 7.7 Recommendations for Future Research

There are a number of interesting and feasible research topics that may be taken up from this study. This study can be replicated to explore morpho-syntactic competence of other ethnic communities or age groups. The sample size can be expanded to include more participants that would produce more conclusive results. This kind of research can also be extended to different settings that may compare, for example, the linguistic competence of rural-urban communities or people from different socio-economic backgrounds. Sociolinguistic investigation in this area, as suggested in section 7.3, could also be undertaken in order to find out how use of the two varieties of English has developed in recent years.

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# Appendix 1: Education system in Malaysia
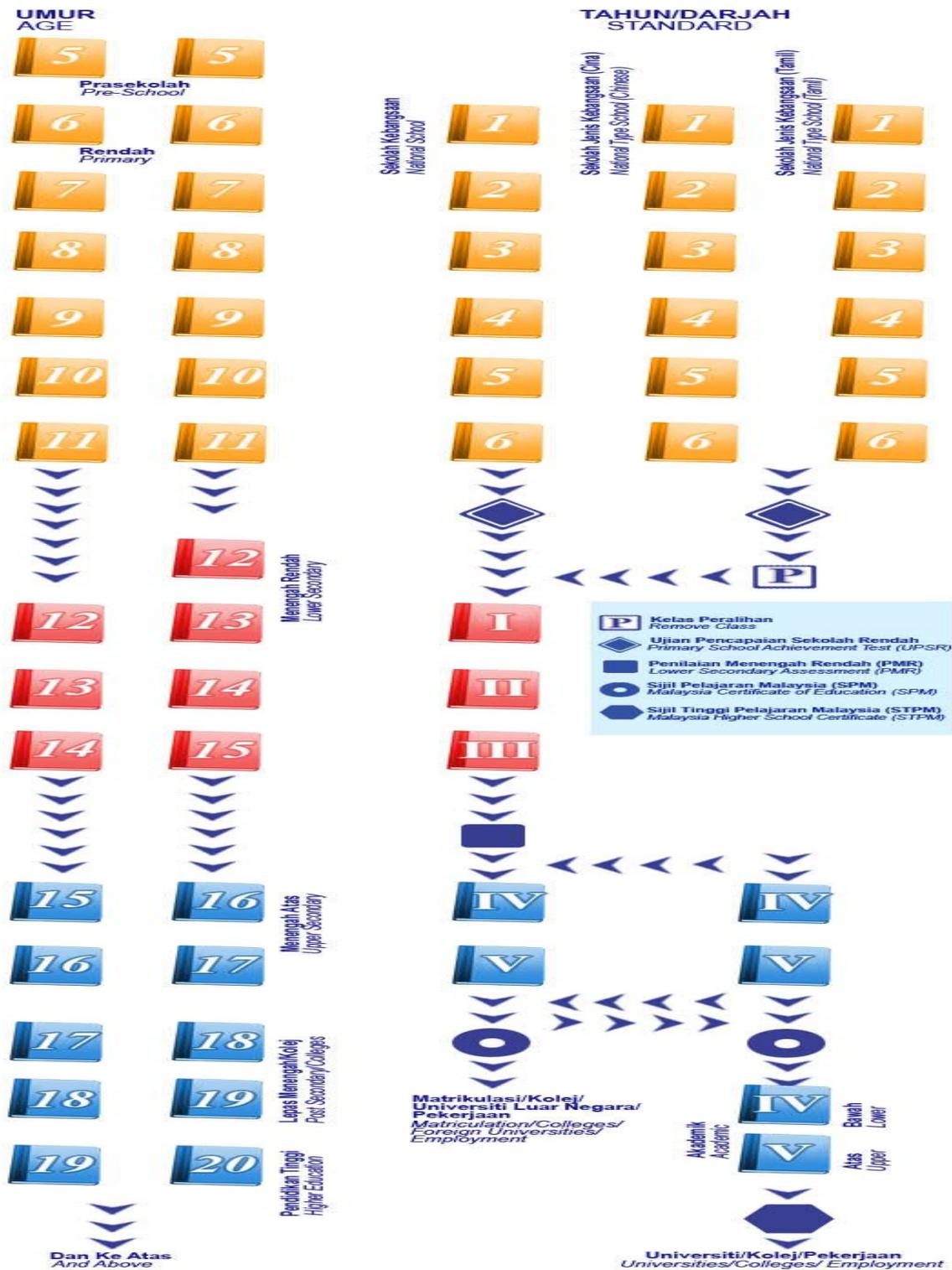
# Appendix 2: Error tags with explanations

| | |
|---|---|
| FM | **F**orm, **M**orphology |
| FS | **F**orm, **S**pelling |
| GA | **G**rammar, **A**rticles |
| GADJCS | **G**rammar, **Adj**ectives, **C**omparative / **S**uperlative |
| GADJN | **G**rammar, **Adj**ectives, Number |
| GADJO | **G**rammar, **Adj**ectives, **O**rder |
| GADVO | **G**rammar, **Adv**erbs, **O**rder |
| GNC | **G**rammar, **N**ouns, **C**ase |
| GNN | **G**rammar, **N**ouns, Number |
| GP | **G**rammar, **P**ronouns |
| GVAUX | **G**rammar, **V**erbs, **Aux**iliaries |
| GVM | **G**rammar, **V**erbs, **M**orphology |
| GVN | **G**rammar, **V**erbs, Number |
| GVNF | **G**rammar, **V**erbs, **N**on-Finite / **F**inite |
| GVT | **G**rammar, **V**erbs, **T**ense |
| GVV | **G**rammar, **V**erbs, **V**oice |
| GWC | **G**rammar, **W**ord **C**lass |
| LCC | **L**exis, **C**onjunctions, **C**oordinating |
| LCLC | **L**exis, **C**onnectors, **L**ogical, **C**omplex |
| LCLS | **L**exis, **C**onnectors, **L**ogical, **S**ingle |
| LCS | **L**exis, **C**onjunctions, **S**ubordinating |
| LP | **L**exical **P**hrase |
| LS | **L**exical **S**ingle |
| LSF | **L**exical **S**ingle, **F**alse friends |
| R | **R**egister |
| S | **S**tyle |
| SI | **S**tyle, **I**ncomplete |
| SU | **S**tyle, **U**nclear |
| WM | **W**ord **M**issing |

| WO | **W**ord **O**rder |
| --- | --- |
| WR | **W**ord **R**edundant |
| XADJCO | Le**X**ico-Grammar, **Adj**ectives, **Co**mplementation |
| XADJPR | Le**X**ico-Grammar, **Adj**ectives, Dependent **Pr**eposition |
| XCONJCO | Le**X**ico-Grammar, **Conj**unctions, **Co**mplementation |
| XNCO | Le**X**ico-Grammar, **N**ouns, **Co**mplementation |
| XNPR | Le**X**ico-Grammar, **N**ouns, Dependent **Pr**eposition |
| XNUC | Le**X**ico-Grammar, **N**ouns, **U**ncountable / **C**ountable |
| XPRCO | Le**X**ico-Grammar, **Pr**epositions, **Co**mplementation |
| XVCO | Le**X**ico-Grammar, **V**erbs, **Co**mplementation |
| XVPR | Le**X**ico-Grammar, **V**erbs, Dependent **Pr**eposition |

**Appendix 3: Number classes**

| Invariables | Singular invariables | non-count nouns: | concrete | gold, furniture |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | non-count nouns: | abstract | music, homework |
| | | proper nouns | | Henry, the Thames |
| | | some nouns ending in −s | | news |
| | | abstract adjectival heads | | the beautiful, the true |
| | Plural invariables | summation plurals | | scissors |
| | | other pluralia tantum in −*s* | | thanks |
| | | some plural proper nouns | | the Netherlands |
| | | unmarked plural nouns | | cattle |
| | | personal adjectival heads | | the rich |
| Variable | Regular plurals | | boy | boys |
| | Irregular plurals | Voicing | calf | calves |
| | | Mutation | foot | feet |
| | | *-en* plural | ox | oxen |
| | | Zero | sheep | sheep |
| | Foreign | *-us →-i* | radius | radii |
| | | *-a→-ae* | larva | larvae |
| | | *-um→-a* | stratum | strata |
| | | *-ex,-ix→-ices* | matrix | matrices |
| | | *-is→-es* | thesis | theses |
| | | *-on→-a* | criterion | criteria |
| | | *-eau→-eaux* | tableau | tableaux |
| | | zero | chassis | chassis |
| | | (spelling only) | | |
| | | *-o→-i* | tempo | tempi |
| | | base +-*im* | cherub | cherubim |

Adapted from Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, p.81)

# Appendix 4: A summary of universal and partitive pronouns and determiners

| | | | COUNT | | NON-COUNT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Personal | Non-Personal | |
| UNIVERSAL | singular | pronoun | Everyone everybody each | everything each (*place:* everything) | it(…)all |
| | | determiner | every each | | all |
| | plural | pronoun | (they(…))all/both (them)all/both | | |
| | | pre-determiner | all/both | | |
| PARTITIVE — Assertive | singular | pronoun | someone somebody | something (*place*: somewhere) | some |
| | | determiner | a(n) | | |
| | plural | pronoun and determiner | some | | |
| PARTITIVE — Non-Assertive | singular | pronoun | anyone anybody | anything (place: anywhere) | any |
| | | determiner | either any | | |
| | plural | pronoun and determiner | any | | |
| PARTITIVE — Negative | singular | pronoun | no one nobody | nothing (place: nowhere) | none |
| | | | none | | |
| | | pronoun and determiner | neither | | |
| | plural | pronoun | none | | |
| | determiner | | no | | |

**Appendix 5.1: Population of Malays in Selangor and other states**

| Age Group | Grand Total | Malaysian Citizens | | | Percentage |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total | Bumiputera | Malay | (%) |
| Malaysia | **27,173.6** | **25,265.8** | **16,768.0** | **13,773.1** | 50.7 |
| Johor | 3,240.9 | 3,025.4 | 1,756.5 | 1,714.9 | 52.9 |
| Kedah | 1,918.7 | 1,871.6 | 1,448.9 | 1,445.1 | 75.3 |
| Kelantan | 1,560.5 | 1,528.0 | 1,455.9 | 1,442.9 | 92.5 |
| Melaka | 738.8 | 705.4 | 462.8 | 452.9 | 61.3 |
| N. Sembilan | 978.2 | 937.0 | 556.3 | 542.1 | 55.4 |
| Pahang | 1,483.6 | 1,407.8 | 1,094.6 | 1,022.2 | 68.9 |
| P. Pinang | 1,518.5 | 1,426.6 | 631.2 | 625.3 | 41.2 |
| Perak | 2,314.6 | 2,251.6 | 1,275.4 | 1,218.6 | 52.6 |
| Perlis | 231.9 | 227.5 | 195.7 | 195.0 | 84.1 |
| **Selangor** | **4,961.6** | **4,686.1** | **2,612.0** | **2,537.3** | **51.1** |
| Terengganu | 1,067.9 | 1,043.2 | 1,011.7 | 1,008.3 | 94.4 |
| WP. KL | 1,604.4 | 1,481.2 | 667.7 | 652.2 | 40.7 |
| Sabah | 3,063.6 | 2,293.4 | 1,853.5 | 351.3 | 11.5 |
| Sarawak | 2,404.2 | 2,314.1 | 1,692.8 | 534.6 | 22.2 |
| W.P Labuan | 86.3 | 66.8 | 53.1 | 30.6 | 35.5 |
| | | | | Median: | 52.9 |

Notes: 1. Population projections based on the 2000 Population Census.

2. The Added Total may differ due to rounding.

# Appendix 5.2: Consent form

**Description**

You are invited to participate in a research on language shift in Malaysian English. One of the aims of this research is to study the consequences of the change in the medium of instruction in the national education system from English to Malay. The main goal of this research is to investigate the type of linguistic changes in English that have emerged in the light of the shift.

You will be asked several questions about yourself in a questionnaire – your educational background, the language(s) that you speak, the exposure that you get in English, etc. You may also be taking part in an interview. The interview will be in English. You will be recorded and for this purpose we will ask you to wear a small clip-on microphone. The interview will then be transcribed (we will write down what was said) and analyzed scientifically with respect to language use.

In writing or talking about this study, your real name will never be used. Also, names for other people you referred to during the interview will be changed. Short clips of your interview might be played in scientific meetings, such as conferences or in public forums such as the media.

*Penerangan*

*Kami mengalukan penyertaan anda dalam satu kajian berhubung perubahan bahasa dalam variasi Bahasa Inggeris di Malaysia. Salah satu dari tujuan kajian ini adalah untuk mengkaji kesan perubahan di dalam pengantaran bahasa di dalam sistem pendidikan kebangsaan dari Bahasa Inggeris ke Bahasa Malaysia. Tujuan utama kajian ini walaubagaimanapun lebih menjurus kepada mengenalpasti jenis perubahan linguistik di dalam Bahasa Inggeris yang wujud akibat dari perubahan tersebut.*

*Terdapat beberapa soalan berhubung dengan diri anda di dalam kaji selidik ini – latar belakang pendidikan, bahasa (-bahasa) yang dipertuturkan, pendedahan kepada bahasa Inggeris dan sebagainya. Anda mungkin akan terlibat dalam rakaman temubual yang akan dikendalikan dalam Bahasa Inggeris dan transkripsi (apa yang diperkatakan oleh anda akan ditulis) akan dibuat dan dianalisa secara saintifik dalam aspek penggunaan bahasa.*

*Nama dan identiti sebenar anda TIDAK akan digunakan dalam penulisan atau perbincangan kajian ini dan begitu juga dengan sebarang nama atau identiti yang anda rujukkan dalam sesi temubual. Hanya, nama samaran akan digunakan. Sedutan dari temubual mungkin akan disiarkan dalam perbincangan ilmiah seperti dalam konferens, atau forum umum seperti di dalam media.*

**Your Rights**

If you have read this form and have decided to participate in this project, please understand that your **participation is voluntary** and that **you have the right to withdraw your consent or discontinue participation at any time** without penalty. If you do not give consent to any aspect of the study, please indicate so. Also, if at any point in the study you change your mind, please let the interviewer know.

You have the right to refuse to answer particular questions. Your individual privacy will be maintained in all published and written data resulting from the study.

If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please contact:

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*Hak-hak Anda*

*Jikalau anda sudah membaca memahami kandungan risalah ini dan telah memutuskan untuk melibatkan diri di dalam kajian ini, adalah amat penting untuk  anda sedar dan faham bahawa penglibatan anda merupakan penglibatan sukarela dan anda mempunyai hak untuk membatalkan persetujuan anda untuk melibatkan diri di dalam kajian ini atau menarik diri pada bila –bila masa sahaja tanpa sebarang halangan mahupun denda.*

*Sekiranya anda tidak bersetuju dengan mana-mana aspek dalam kajian, atau sekiranya anda berubah fikiran pada bila-bila masa di sepanjang kajian ini, sila maklumkan kepada penemuramah atau penyelidiknya sendiri.*

*Anda berhak untuk tidak menjawab mana-mana soalan yang diajukan kepada anda. Hak peribadi anda akan sentiasa dijaga dan dihormati di dalam segala bentuk laporan dan penulisan yang diterbitkan hasil daripada kajian ini.*

*Seandainya anda mempunyai sebarang pertanyaan atau kemusykilan berkaitan kajian ini, sila hubungi*:

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*atau*

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**Consent Form**

*Borang Persetujuan*

Please ensure you have read and understood the information sheet about the study.

If you have read this form and have decided to participate in this project, please understand that your **participation is voluntary** and that **you have the right to withdraw your consent or discontinue participation at any time** without penalty. If you do not give consent to any aspect of the study, please indicate so. Also, if at any point in the study you change your mind, please let the interviewer know. You have the right to refuse to answer particular questions. Your privacy will be maintained in all published and written data resulting from the study.

*Jikalau anda sudah membaca memahami kandungan risalah ini dan telah memutuskan untuk melibatkan diri di dalam kajian ini, adalah amat penting untuk anda sedar dan faham bahawa penglibatan anda merupakan penglibatan sukarela dan anda mempunyai hak untuk membatalkan persetujuan anda untuk melibatkan diri di dalam kajian ini atau menarik diri pada bila –bila masa sahaja tanpa sebarang halangan mahupun hukuman.*

*Sekiranya anda tidak bersetuju dengan mana-mana aspek dalam kajian, atau sekiranya anda berubah fikiran pada bila-bila masa di sepanjang kajian ini, sila maklumkan kepada penemuramah atau penyelidiknya sendiri.*

*Anda berhak untuk tidak menjawab mana-mana soalan yang diajukan kepada anda. Hak peribadi anda akan sentiasa dijaga dan dihormati di dalam segala bentuk laporan dan penulisan yang diterbitkan hasil daripada kajian ini.*

I give consent to complete questionnaires during this study:

*Saya bersetuju untuk  menjawab  borang kaji selidik untuk tujuan kajian ini:*

Yes / *bersetuju* ☐     No / *Tidak bersetuju* ☐

I give consent to be recorded during this study:

*Saya bersetuju untuk dirakamkan di dalam kajian ini:*

Yes / *bersetuju* ☐     No / *Tidak bersetuju* ☐

I give consent for recordings and written materials resulting from this study to be used for research:

*Saya bersetuju untuk membenarkan hasil dapatan dari kajian ini samada dalam bentuk rakaman mahupun bahan tulis digunakan untuk tujuan penyelidikan:*

Yes / *bersetuju* ☐     No / *Tidak bersetuju* ☐

I give consent for recordings and written materials resulting from this study to be used in the media:

*Saya bersetuju untuk membenarkan hasil dapatan dari kajian ini samada dalam bentuk rakaman mahupun bahan tulis digunakan dalam media:*

Yes / *bersetuju* ☐     No / *Tidak bersetuju* ☐

I give consent for recordings and written materials resulting from this study to be used in presentations, talks, seminars and conferences:

*Saya bersetuju untuk membenarkan hasil dapatan dari kajian ini samada dalam bentuk rakaman mahupun bahan tulis digunakan dalam pembentangan-pembentangan dalam seminar-seminar dan konferens-konferens ilmiah:*

Yes / *bersetuju* ☐     No / *Tidak bersetuju* ☐

Full name / *Nama penuh:*_____

Signature /*Tandatangan:* _____

Date/ *Tarikh:*_____

(A copy of this consent form is for you to keep).

(*Salinan borang persetujuan penyertaan adalah untuk simpanan anda).*

# Appendix 5.3: Questionnaire Part 1

Dear informant,

This is the first part of a questionnaire which hopes to obtain some general personal information about you.

I would really appreciate your kind gesture in completing this questionnaire.

From this questionnaire, you may be found to be a suitable candidate for a research I am currently involved in. If you are that person, I wish to invite you to participate in it. I will soon get in touch with you and till then I would like to thank you for your time and I really hope to see you again.

Yours sincerely,

Monaliza Sarbini-Zin

*Saudara saudari,*

*Ini merupakan bahagian pertama kaji selidik yang bertujuan untuk mengumpul maklumat tentang diri anda. Saya amat mengalu-alukan kerjasama anda dalam melengkapkan boring kaji selidik ini.*

*Dari kaji selidik ini, anda mungkin didapati sesuai untuk penyelidikan yang sedang saya jalani sekarang ini. Jika demikian, saya ingin mengundang anda menyertai penyelidikan ini. Saya akan menghubungi anda sekiranya anda terpilih dan sehingga waktu itu saya mengucapkan ribuan terima kasih kerana telah meluangkan masa anda. Saya amat berharap dapat berjumpa dengan anda lagi.*

*Yang benar,*

*Monaliza Sarbini-Zin*

## Section A: Information about You
### *Bahagian A: Maklumat tentang Anda*

1. Full name/*Nama penuh:*_____

2. Gender/Jantina: ☐ Male/ Lelaki ☐ Female/Perempuan

3. Age/*Umur*:_____

4. Ethinicity/*Etnik*:_____

5. State of origin / *Negeri asal:*_____

6. How long have you lived in Selangor? / *Sudah berapa lamakah anda menetap di Selangor?*

_____

7. Did you spend your childhood years (up to 15 years of age) in Selangor? / *Adakah anda menjalani zaman kanak-kanak anda (sehingga berumur 15 tahun) di Selangor?*

Yes / *Ya* ☐          No / *Tidak* ☐

8. Have you lived outside of Selangor for more than five years? / *Pernahkah anda tinggal di luar wilayah Selangor selama lebih dari lima tahun?*

Yes / *Ya* ☐          No / *Tidak* ☐

9. Are both your parents from Selangor? / *Adakah kedua-dua ibubapa anda berasal dari Selangor?*

Yes / *Ya* ☐          No / *Tidak* ☐

10. If they are not from Selangor, please state where they are originally from / *Jika mereka bukan berasal dari Selangor, sila nyatakan negeri asal mereka* :

_____

11. Your occupation/ *Pekerjaan anda:*

_____

12. Contact / *Kontak:*

Telephone number / *Nombor telefon*:_____

E-mail address / *Alamat e-mel*: _____

Home/Office address / *Alamat rumah/pejabat:*

_____

13. Schools attended/ *Sekolah-sekolah yang dihadiri:*

a. Primary school/ *Sekolah Rendah:*     Government/*Kerajaan* ☐

Private/*Persendirian* ☐

b. Secondary school/ *Sekolah Menengah:*  Government/*Kerajaan* ☐

Private/*Persendirian* ☐

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14.Highest level of education/ *Tahap pendidikan yang tertinggi*:

Primary school/ *Sekolah Rendah:*  ☐

Secondary school/ *Sekolah Menengah:*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| LCE | ☐ | SRP | ☐ | PMR | ☐ |
| Cambridge OSCE | ☐ | MCE | ☐ | SPM | ☐ |
| HSC | ☐ | STP | ☐ | STPM | ☐ |

Post Secondary/ *Peringkat Lepasan Sekolah Menengah:*

Matriculation/*Matrikulasi* ☐  A level ☐  IB ☐

Diploma/ *Sijil Diploma* ☐

University/ *Peringkat Universiti:*

Degree/ *Ijazah Sarjana Muda*  ☐

Masters/ *Ijazah Sarjana*  ☐

PhD/ *Ijazah Falsafah Kedoktoran*  ☐

15. **Medium of instruction** (the language that was used to teach all core subjects / ***Bahasa pengantar*** *(bahasa yang digunakan dalam pengajaran  semua mata pelajaran di sekolah)*:

a. Primary School/*Sekolah Rendah*:

Malay/ *Bahasa Malaysia*  ☐

English/ *Bahasa Inggeris*  ☐

Other vernacular (e.g. Chinese, Tamil)  ☐

*Bahasa lain (contoh: Cina, Tamil)*

Please specify/*sila nyatakan*: _____

b. Secondary School/ *Sekolah Menengah*:

Malay/ *Bahasa Malaysia* ☐

English/ *Bahasa Inggeris* ☐

Other vernacular (e.g. Chinese, Tamil)
*Bahasa lain (contoh: Cina, Tamil)* ☐
Please specify/*sila nyatakan*: _____

And if applicable / *Dan jika berkenaan*:

c. Post Secondary/ *Peringkat Lepasan Sekolah Menengah:*

Malay/ *Bahasa Malaysia* ☐

English/ *Bahasa Inggeris* ☐

Other vernacular (e.g. Chinese, Tamil)
*Bahasa lain (contoh: Cina, Tamil)* ☐
Please specify/*sila nyatakan*: _____

d. University/ *Peringkat Universiti:*

i. Degree level/*Peringkat Ijazah Sarjana Muda*

Malay/ *Bahasa Malaysia* ☐

English/ *Bahasa Inggeris* ☐

Other vernacular (e.g. Chinese, Tamil)
*Bahasa lain (contoh: Cina, Tamil)* ☐
Please specify/*sila nyatakan*: _____

ii. Masters level/ *Peringkat Ijazah Sarjana*

Malay/ *Bahasa Malaysia* ☐

English/ *Bahasa Inggeris* ☐

Other vernacular (e.g. Chinese, Tamil) ☐
*Bahasa lain (contoh: Cina, Tamil)*
Please specify/*sila nyatakan*: _____

iii. PhD level/ *Peringkat Ijazah Falsafah Kedoktoran*

Malay/ *Bahasa Malaysia* ☐

English/ *Bahasa Inggeris* ☐

Other vernacular (e.g. Chinese, Tamil) ☐
*Bahasa lain (contoh: Cina, Tamil)*
Please specify/*sila nyatakan*: _____

16. Your highest English language qualification (e.g. SRP/LCE/SPM/ MCE/Cambridge GCE English, HSC/SPM Literature in English, etc.)
*Kelayakan Bahasa Inggeris yang tertinggi (contoh: SRP/LCE/SPM/ MCE/Cambridge GCE English, HSC/SPM Kesusasteraan Bahasa Inggeris, dan sebagainya).*

_____

17. Native language (the language acquired in early childhood and used consistently over your lifetime):
*Bahasa ibunda (bahasa yang dituturkan sejak kecil dan sering digunakan dalam kehidupan seharian):*
_____

18. Your father's **native language:**
*Bahasa ibunda bapa:*

_____

19. Your mother's **native language**:
*Bahasa ibunda emak:*

_____

20. Other language(s) spoken or heard passively at home or growing up:

   *Bahasa(-bahasa) lain yang dituthur atau didengar di rumah atau semasa kecil:*

_____

21. Age of first exposure to English?

   *Usia ketika mula terdedah pada Bahasa Inggeris?*

_____

22. How were you first exposed to English (form of exposure, e.g. school, reading, TV, etc.)?

*Bagaimanakah anda mula didedahkan pada Bahasa Inggeris (Dalam bentuk apakah anda didedahkan,*

*contohnya, persekolahan – tadika, pembacaan, TV, dan sebagainya)?*

_____

_____

_____

_____

23. Have you been overseas to an English speaking country before? / *Pernahkah anda ke luar negara di mana*

   *Bahasa Inggeris adalah bahasa utama?*

         Yes / *Ya*  ☐           No / *Tidak*  ☐

24. Please indicate the nature of your overseas trip(s). / *Tolong nyatakan tujuan perjalanan anda ke luar*

   *negara.*

   Social /*Sosial*  ☐      Business / *Perniagaan*  ☐

   Professional / *Profesional*  ☐      Others: Please specify / *Lain: Sila nyatakan* _____

25. State the duration of time you have stayed/lived overseas in the said country (countries)? / *Nyatakan*

   *keseluruhan tempoh anda berada di negara (negara-negara) tersebut?*

_____

Thank you.

End of Preliminary Survey

A Questionnaire on the Use of English in Malaysia

*Kaji Selidik Tentang Penggunaan Bahasa Inggeris di Malaysia*

This is the second part of a set of questionnaire.

Please take your time to answer carefully. You may have to tick a box, circle the appropriate number or write your answers as accurately as you can.

**It should take you about 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire.**

*Ini adalah bahagian kedua dari satu set soalan-soalan kaji selidik.*

*Sila ambil masa untuk menjawab soalan-soalan dalam kaji selidik ini. Anda dikehendaki sama ada untuk menandakan (v) di dalam kotak yang disediakan, membulatkan pada nombor yang sesuai atau menulis jawapan anda setepat mungkin.*

*Anda memerkukan hanya kebih kurang 30 minit untuk menjawab kaji selidik ini.*

**Section B: School years**

***Bahagian B: Zaman Persekolahan*** 335

26. Instruction in English:

*Pengajian di dalam Bahasa Inggeris:*

a. Formal instructional years in English/ *Pengajian di dalam Bahasa Inggeris*

Answer where relevant to you. For those who went through both systems please answer i and ii / *Jawab soalan yang sesuai untuk anda. Kepada mereka yang mengikuti kedua-dua aliran persekolahan, sila jawab i dan ii.*

i. If you went to an English medium school, how many **years altogether** did you study in English?

*Sekiranya anda mengikuti sistem persekolahan yang menggunakan Bahasa Inggeris sebagai bahasa pengantar,* be*rapa* **tahunkah keseluruhannya** *anda telah* be*lajar di dalam sistem tersebut?*

☐ years / *tahun*

ii. If you went to a Malay-medium school, how many **years altogether** did you study English as a subject?

*Sekiranya anda mengikuti sistem persekolahan yang menggunakan Bahasa Malaysia sebagai bahasa pengantar* be*rapa* **tahunkah keseluruhannya** *anda telah belajar mata pelajaran Bahasa Inggeris?*

☐ years / *tahun*

b. Approximately how many **hours of instruction in English per week altogether** did you receive throughout your education?

*Beri anggaran kasar jumlah* **jam seminggu untuk pelajaran dalam Bahasa Inggeris yang anda jalani** *sepanjang pendidikan anda?*

Primary School/*Sekolah Rendah*      ☐ hours per week /*jam seminggu*

Secondary School/*Sekolah Menengah*      ☐ hours per week/*jam seminggu*

Post Secondary/*Peringkat Lepasan Sekolah Menengah*      ☐ hours per week/*jam seminggu*

University/*Peringkat Universiti*      ☐ hours per week/*jam seminggu*

**Total / Jumlah:**      ☐ hours per week/*jam seminggu*

c.  Types of instructional method for learning English / *Cara Pengajaran  Bahasa Inggeris*


Please describe briefly **how your teachers taught you English** (for example, were there direct explanations of grammar or pronunciation? Were there many communication and interaction activities? Or was it mostly translation and reading, etc.?).

*Dengan ringkas, sila huraikan **cara guru-guru mengajar anda Bahasa Inggeris** (contohnya, adakah anda diberi penerangan tentang nahu (tatabahasa) atau sebutan bahasa secara terus atau secara tersirat? Adakah anda diajar melalui aktiviti komunikasi dan interaksi? Atau adakah pengajaran berkisarkan bacaan dan penterjemahan dan sebagainya?).*

_____

_____

_____


d.  Were the types of instruction that you described (in c) above available to you consistently over a period of time (i.e. were you taught English the same way all the time for many years or were there any changes in the way you were taught English throughout your education) ? Describe your path of formal training in English if possible.

*Adakah anda terdedah kepada kaedah- kaedah pengajaran yang anda terangkan (dalam c) di atas*

*secara konsisten untuk jangakawaktu yang panjang (iaitu adakah anda diajar Bahasa Inggeris*

*menggunakan kaedah yang sama setiap masa untuk beberapa tahun atau terdapat perubahan dalam*

*cara-cara pengajaran sepanjang pendidikan anda)?*

*Jika boleh, hurai dengan ringkas pendidikan dalam Bahasa Inggeris yang anda jalani.*

_____

_____

_____


e. Informal exposure or immersion months/years in an English-speaking country:

*Pendedahan kepada Bahasa Inggeris di negara di mana Bahasa Inggeris adalah bahasa utama:*

i. Have you lived in an English-speaking country? /*Pernahkah anda tinggal di negara di mana Bahasa*

*Inggeris adalah bahasa utama?*

Yes / *Ya*　　☐　　　No / *Tidak*　　☐


ii. If yes, in which country? *Jikalau ya, nyatakan negara tersebut?*

_____

iii. For how long? / *Untuk berapa lama?*

_____

27. Feedback on your English:

*Maklumbalas tentang kemampuan anda berbahasa Inggeris:*

If you had to describe the feedback you get (or have received in the past) from **teachers** regarding your English, would you say that it has been focused on:

(You may give more than one of these possible answers)

*Jika anda diminta memberi gambaran tentang maklumbalas yang anda terima dari **guru-guru** berkenaan Bahasa Inggeris anda, adakah ia nya banyak tertumpu kepada:*

*(Anda boleh memberi lebih dari satu jawapan dari beberapa pilihan yang telah diberikan)*

pronunciation (phonology) / *sebutan (fonologi)* ☐

word meanings (lexicon) / *makna perkataan (leksikon)* ☐

word order (syntax)/ *susunan ayat (sintaksis)* ☐

grammar / *tatabahasa* ☐

some kind of pragmatic skill, like making your point clearly, using appropriate or polite forms of speech, etc.?/*kemahiran- kemahiran prakmatik seperti menyampaikan maklumat dengan jelas, menggunakan bahasa sopan, dan sebagainya?* ☐

Other forms of feedback / *Maklumbalas lain* ☐

Please specify / *Sila nyatakan:* _____

**Section C: English Use**

**Bahagian C: Penggunaan Bahasa Inggeris**

28. Contexts for using English

*Konteks penggunaan Bahasa Inggeris*

a. How many **years** have you been **using** English?/ *Berapa **tahunkah** anda telah **menggunakan** Bahasa Inggeris dalam*

    i. **Written/ *Penulisan*:** ☐ years/*tahun*

    ii. **Spoken/ *Pertuturan*** ☐ years/*tahun*

b. How **often** do you use English? / *Berapa **kerapkah** anda menggunakan Bahasa Inggeris?*

| Everyday | | Sometimes | | Hardly | | Never | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Setiap hari* | ☐ | *Kadang-kadang* | ☐ | *Terlalu jarang* | ☐ | *Tiada langsung* | ☐ |

c. How many **hou rs per day** do you spend on: / *Berapa **jam seharikah** yang diguna untuk:*

  i.   **Written** English/ ***Menulis** dalam Bahasa Inggeris*   ☐   hours per day /*jam sehari*

  ii.  **Spoken** English/ ***Bertutur** dalam Bahasa Inggeris?*   ☐   hours per day/ *jam sehari*

d. i. Do you use English interactively with **native speakers**?

*Adakah anda menggunakan Bahasa Inggeris secara interaktif dengan **penutur asli** Bahasa Inggeris?*

| Everyday | | Sometimes | | Hardly | | Never | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Setiap hari* | ☐ | *Kadang-kadang* | ☐ | *Terlalu jarang* | ☐ | *Tiada langsung* | ☐ |

ii. If so, how many **hours per week** do you spend informally speaking English with **native speakers** of English?

/ *Jikalau ya, **berapa jam seminggukah** yang diluangkan untuk bertutur Bahasa Inggeris dengan **penutur asli** Bahasa Inggeris?*

☐   hours per week / *jam seminggu*

e. i. Do you use English interactively with **non-native speakers** (these include your family and friends) of English?

*Adakah anda menggunakan Bahasa Inggeris secara interaktif dengan **bukan penutur asli** (termasuk keluarga dan sahabat handai) Bahasa Inggeris?*

| Everyday | | Sometimes | | Hardly | | Never | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Setiap hari* | ☐ | *Kadang-kadang* | ☐ | *Terlalu jarang* | ☐ | *Tiada langsung* | ☐ |

ii. If so, how many **hours per week** do you spend informally speaking English with **non-native speakers** (these include your family and friends) of English? / *Jikalau ya, berapa **jam semunggukah** yang diluangkan untuk bertutur dalam Bahasa Inggeris dengan **bukan penutur asli** (termasuk keluarga dan sahabat handai) Bahasa Inggeris?*

☐   hours per week /j*am seminggu*

f. i. How **often** do you watch English programmes and films? /***Seringkah** anda menonton program-program dan filem-filem dalam Bahasa Inggeris?*

| Everyday | | Sometimes | | Hardly | | Never | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Setiap hari* | ☐ | *Kadang-kadang* | ☐ | *Terlalu jarang* | ☐ | *Tiada langsung* | ☐ |

ii. Which English programmes do you watch on TV?

*Program Bahasa Inggeris yang manakah yang anda tonton di televisyen?*

_____

_____

_____

iii. How many **hours per week** do you typically spend on activities like TV, film, etc. **in English**?

*Kebiasaannya, **berapa jam seminggukah** yang anda luangkan untuk aktiviti menonton televisyen, filem,*

*dan sebagainya, dalam **Bahasa Inggeris**?*

☐ hours per week / *jam seminggu*

iv. How **often** do you listen to English programmes on the radio? ***Seringkah** anda mendengar rancangan*

*Bahasa Inggeris di radio?*

| Everyday | ☐ | Sometimes | ☐ | Hardly | ☐ | Never | ☐ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Setiap hari* | | *Kadang-kadang* | | *Terlalu jarang* | | *Tiada langsung* | |

v. Which English programmes do you listen to on the radio?

*Rancangan Bahasa Inggeris yang manakah yang anda dengar di radio?*

_____

_____

vi. How many **hours per week** do you typically spend listening to **English radio** programmes?

*Kebiasaannya, **berapa jam seminggukah** yamg anda luangkan untuk mendengar **rancangan radio** dalam*

*Bahasa Inggeris?*

☐ hours per week / *jam seminggu*

g. Please look at the table below. **Circle the number which best describes** your activities in **code-switching**

/ **mixing** between the languages for **i, ii, iii, and iv**. Please state which language(s) you use for each of

these activities.

For activity **v, state the language(s)** in which the web pages that you surf in are written.

Write your answers in the table below.

**Write N/A** in the appropriate box **if you do not engage** in any one activity.

*Sila lihat jadual di bawah. **Bulatkan nombor yang menyatakan** samada anda mencampur bahasa- atau*

*tidak untuk **i, ii, iii dan iv**. Sila catatkan bahasa (-bahasa) yang digunakan untuk setiap aktiviti tersebut.*

*Untuk aktiviti **v, halaman web dalam bahasa apakah yang anda susuri?***

*Sila catatkan jawapan anda dalam jadual di bawah. **Tulis N/A** di dalam ruangan yang berkenaan **jikalau***

***anda tidak melakukan** aktiviti tersebut.*

| Activities<br>*Aktiviti-aktiviti* | Do you code-switch?<br>*Adakah anda mencampur-aduk bahasa?* | | | | Which language(s) do you use?<br>*Apakah bahasa/bahasa-bahasa yang anda guna?* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| i. Texting<br>*Menghantar teks pesanan/SMS* | Not at all / *Langsung tidak*<br>Sometimes /*Kadang-kadang*<br>All the time / *Setiap kali* | 1<br>3<br>5 | Hardly / *Terlalu jarang*<br>Frequently / *Seringkali* | 2<br>4 | |
| ii. Instant Messaging<br>*menghantar pesanan segera* | Not at all / *Langsung tidak*<br>Sometimes /*Kadang-kadang*<br>All the time / *Setiap kali* | 1<br>3<br>5 | Hardly / *Terlalu jarang*<br>Frequently / *Seringkali* | 2<br>4 | |
| iii. E-mailing<br>*E-mel* | Not at all / *Langsung tidak*<br>Sometimes /*Kadang-kadang*<br>All the time / *Setiap kali* | 1<br>3<br>5 | Hardly / *Terlalu jarang*<br>Frequently / *Seringkali* | 2<br>4 | |
| iv. Blogging<br>*Menggunakan laman blog* | Not at all / *Langsung tidak*<br>Sometimes /*Kadang-kadang*<br>All the time / *Setiap kali* | 1<br>3<br>5 | Hardly / *Terlalu jarang*<br>Frequently / *Seringkali* | 2<br>4 | |
| v. Web-surfing (internet)/ *Menyusuri laman web*<br>State **the language(s)** in which the web pages that you surf in are written /<br>*Nyatakan **bahasa** halaman web yang anda susuri* | | | | | |

vi. Add some comments (e.g. reason(s) or explanation(s)) for your answers in the previous question.

*Berikan sedikit komen (contoh: sebab atau penerangan) untuk jawapan-jawapan anda untuk soalan terdahulu/di atas.*

_____

_____

| Activities<br>*Aktiviti-aktiviti* | In English only (hours/day)<br><br>*Dalam Bahasa Inggeris sahaja (jam/ hari)* | In your preferred language only (hours/day)<br><br>*Dalam Bahasa pilihan anda sahaja (jam/ hari)* | Code-switching (hours/day)<br><br>*Mencampur bahasa (jam/ hari)* |
|---|---|---|---|
| e.g. / contoh:<br>Texting<br>*Menghantar teks pesanan/SMS* | N/A | N/A | 1 hr / 1 jam |
| i. Texting<br>*Menghantar teks pesanan/SMS* | | | |
| ii. Instant Messaging<br>*Menghantar pesanan segera* | | | |
| iii. E-mailing<br>*E-mel* | | | |
| iv. Blogging<br>*Menggunakan laman blog* | | | |
| v. Web-surfing (internet)<br>*Menyusuri laman web* | | | |

Comments/*Komen*:

_____

_____

_____

h. How many **hours per day** do you usually spend on these activities? If you do not engage in any of the activities, please **write N/A** in the box (where applicable).

*Berapa **jam seharikah** biasanya anda meluangkan masa untuk aktiviti berikut? Jika anda tidak melakukan mana-mana aktiviti**, sila tulis N/A** dalam kotak yang berkenaan.*

i. How many **hours per week** do you typically spend on **reading English** (including newspapers, email, letters, etc.)?

*Berapa **jam semingukah** biasanya anda meluangkan masa untuk **membaca dalam Bahasa Inggeris** (termasuk suratkhabar, e-mel, surat, dan sebagainya)?*

☐ hours per week / *jam seminggu*

i. Are there contexts/situations where you **use English exclusively**?

*Terdapatkah mana-mana konteks atau situasi di mana **anda menggunakan Bahasa Inggeris sepenuhnya** ?*

Yes / *Ya* ☐     No / *Tidak* ☐

ii. In which **contexts/ situations** would you **use English exclusively** – home, school, or office; with certain friends, family or colleagues; when undertaking certain tasks, etc.? (You may provide more than one answer).

*Dalam **konteks/ situasi** manakah anda **menggunakan Bahasa Inggeris sepenuhnya** - di rumah, sekolah atau pejabat; bila be'rsama teman tertentu, keluarga atau rakan sejawat; dan bila menjalani tugasan-tugasan tertentu, dan sebagainya? (Anda boleh memberi kebih dari satu jawapan).*

Home/ *Rumah* ☐     Office/ *Pejabat* ☐

School / *Sekolah* ☐

Others: Please specify / *Lain: Sila nyatakan*_____

iii. Please describe briefly the type of **activities or tasks** that would be **done in English exclusively**.

*Sila huraikan dengan ringkas **aktiviti atau tugasan** yang **dikendalikan dalam Bahasa Inggeris dengan sepenuhnya**.*

_____

_____

_____


k. In those contexts do you feel comfortable using only English?

(Please circle the appropriate number).

*Dalam konteks yang anda nyatakan, adakah anda merasa selesa menggunakan Bahasa Inggeris sahaja?*

*(Sila bulatkan nombor yang sesuai untuk anda).*

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|

Not at all comfortable                                                                 Very comfortable

*Langsung tidak selesa*                                                                *Amat selesa*


l. What is your **preferred** language? / *Apakah bahasa **pilihan** anda?*

_____


m. In which contexts/situations and with whom do you **use the preferred language exclusively**?

*Dalam konteks/situasi apakah dan dengan siapakah anda **menggunakan bahasa pilihan anda sepenuhnya**?*

_____

_____

_____


n. i. Do you consistently use **only one** language **all of the time**?

   *Adakah anda sentiasa menggunakan **hanya satu** bahasa **pada setiap masa**?*

   Yes / *Ya* ☐     No / *Tidak* ☐

ii. If 'no', which **languages** do you use? / *Jika 'tidak', bahasa- bahasa apakah yang anda gunakan?*

   _____

o. i. Do you code-switch / mix languages when you talk to others? / *Adakah anda mencampur- aduk bahasa bila anda bercakap dengan orang lain?*

Yes / *Ya* ☐    No / *Tidak* ☐

ii. What would those languages be? / *Bahasa-bahasa apakah yang anda campur-adukkan?*

_____

p.    In **which contexts/ situations and with whom** would you **code-switch**? / *Dalam **konteks/situasi** apakah dan **dengan siapakah** anda **mencampur-adukkan bahasa**?*

_____

_____

q.    Which **variety (ies) / type(s)** of **native** English do you prefer? / ***Variasi / jenis Bahasa Inggeris asli** manakah yang menjadi pilihan anda?*

You can tick more than one box / *Anda boleh menanda lebih dari satu kotak.*

British English        ☐        Australian English        ☐
*Bahasa Inggeris Britain*                *Bahasa Inggeris Australia*

American English        ☐        New Zealand English        ☐
*Bahasa Inggeris Amerika Syarikat*            *Bahasa Inggeris New Zealand*

Canadian English        ☐        Others: Please specify
*Bahasa Inggeris Kanada*                *Lain-lain:*

*Sila nyatakan_____*

29. <u>Motivation and long-term goals</u>:

   <u>*Motivasi dan objektif jangka panjang:*</u>

Please **circle** the appropriate number / *Sila **bulatkan** nombor yang sesuai:*

a.   Please rate your **own sense of motivation to be competent** in English:

   *Sila berikan **tahap motivasi diri anda untuk menjadi mahir** berbahasa Inggeris:*

|     |     |     |     |     |
|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 1   | 2   | 3   | 4   | 5   |
|     | Low |     |     | High |
|     | *Rendah* |  |  | *Tinggi* |

b. i. Is it **important** to speak English **correctly**? *Adakah **penting** untuk bertutur dalam Bahasa Inggeris **dengan**

   **betul**?*

|     |     |     |     |     |
|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 1   | 2   | 3   | 4   | 5   |
|     | Not at all |  |  | Very |
|     | *Langsung tidak* |  |  | *Amat* |

ii. Why is that so? / *Mengapakah begitu?*

_____

_____

_____

c. i. Do you have **professional** reasons for studying/acquiring English?

   *Adakah anda mempunyai tujuan **profesional** untuk mempelajari/memperolehi Bahasa Inggeris?*

   Yes / *Ya*   ☐      No / *Tidak*   ☐

ii. If yes, which? / *Jika Ya, apakah tujuan anda?*

_____

_____

_____

d. i. Do you have **personal reasons** for studying/acquiring English?

*Adakah anda mempunyai **tujuan peribadi** untuk mempelajari/memperolehi Bahasa Inggeris?*

Yes / *Ya* ☐    No / *Tidak* ☐

ii. If yes, which?/ *Jika ya, apakah tujuan anda?*

_____

_____

iii. If no, what other reasons do you have?/ *Jika tidak, apakah tujuan lain yang menyebabkan anda*

*mempelajari Bahasa Inggeris?*

_____

_____

e. i. Have you ever changed your reasons/ purposes for studying or acquiring English in any way? Can you describe the **changes**?

*Pernahkah anda menukar tujuan / sebab anda mempelajari Bahasa Inggeris? Dapatkah anda menerangkan **perubahan tersebut?***

_____

_____

_____

30. If your goals for learning English have changed, has this changed any specific **behaviou**r, such as studying, forming friendships, working in English establishments, etc.? **Is the change in behaviour positive or negative**? Please describe the change in your behaviour.

*Jikalau matlamat-matlamat untuk mempelajari Bahasa Inggeris telah berubah, adakah ini telah **mengubah sikap/ kelakuan** anda, sebagai contoh, dalam pembelajaran, membentuk tali persahabatan, bekerja dalam institusi Inggeris, dan sebagainya? **Adakah perubahan dalam sikap atau kelakuan anda itu positif atau negatif**? Sila terangkan perubahan dalam sikap/ kelakuan anda itu.*

_____

_____

_____

_____

31. <u>Self-rating in the importance of sounding native/</u>*Ujian kendiri tentang kepentingan berbahasa seperti penutur asli:*

Please circle the appropriate number / *Sila bulatkan nombor yang sesuai*:

    a. It is **important** to me personally to **sound like a native speaker** of English:

      *Adalah **penting** untuk saya secara peribadi untuk bertutur **seperti penutur asli** Bahasa Inggeris:*

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Not at all | | | | Very |
| *Langsung tidak* | | | | *Amat* |

    b. Why is that so? / *Mengapakah begitu?*

_____

_____

    c. Which English accent(s) do you tend to emulate/copy? / *Loghat Bahasa Inggeris manakah yang cenderung anda ikuti/ tiru?*

     You can tick more than one box / *Anda boleh menanda lebih dari satu kotak.*

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| British English<br>*Bahasa Inggeris Britain* | ☐ | Australian English<br>*Bahasa Inggeris Australia* | ☐ |
| American English<br>*Bahasa Inggeris Amerika Syarikat* | ☐ | New Zealand English<br>*Bahasa Inggeris New Zealand* | ☐ |
| Canadian English<br>*Bahasa Inggeris Kanada* | ☐ | Indian English<br>*Bahasa Inggeris India* | ☐ |
| Singaporean English (Singlish)<br>*Bahasa Inggeris Singapura* | ☐ | Malaysian English<br>*Bahasa Inggeris Malaysia* | ☐ |

     Others: Please specify

     *Lain-lain: Sila nyatakan* _____

    d. Give your reasons for the choice(s) that you made in the question above.

     *Sila berikan sebab untuk pilihan anda untuk soalan di atas.*

_____

_____

32. <u>Self-rating of proficiency/</u> *Menguji tahap kefasihan kendiri:*

Please circle the appropriate number / *Sila bulatkan nombor yang sesuai:*

a. I am **satisfied** with the **level of proficiency** I have attained in English:

   *Saya **berpuas hati** dengan **tahap kefasihan** yang saya capai dalam berbahasa Inggeris:*

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Definitely not | | | | Very satisfied |
| *Tidak langsung* | | | | *Amat berpuas hati* |

b.  Please rate your **own proficiency in English** as honestly as possible:

   *Sila berikan **tahap kefasihan diri** anda **berbahasa Inggeris** dengan sejujurnya:*

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Very poor | | | | Native-like |
| *Tersangat lemah* | | | | *Seperti penutur asli* |

33. *<u>Strategies/ Strategi-strategi</u>:*

a.   Have you tried to improve your command of English? If yes, how?

*Adakah anda pernah mencuba untuk memperbaiki kemahiran anda berbahasa Inggeris? Jika ya, bagaimanakah caranya?*

_____

b. In a conversation, what do you usually do if you have difficulties understanding what is being said?

*Di dalam perbualan.apakah yang anda sering lakukan jikalau anda menghadapi masalah memahami apa yang dituturkan?*

_____

_____

c. What do you do if you have problems understanding something that you read or heard on the radio, TV, internet, etc (a word, a phrase, etc.)?

*Apakah yang anda lakukan jikalau anda mempunyai masalah memahami sesuatu yang anda baca atau dengar di radio, kaca televisyen, internet, dan sebagainya (perkataan, frasa, ayat, dsb.)?*

_____

_____

_____

**Section E: Malaysian English**

*Bahagian B: Bahasa Inggeris Malaysia*

34. a. Do you know about Malaysian English (the type of English spoken by Malaysians)? / *Tahukah anda tentang Bahasa Inggeris (ala) Malaysia (jenis Bahasa Inggeris yang ditutur oleh rakyat Malaysia)?*

   Yes / *Ya* ☐    No / *Tidak* ☐

   b. How would you describe Malaysian English? How is Malaysian English different from other varieties of English? Give some specific examples to illustrate your answer.
   *Bagaimanakah anda mengambarkan Bahasa Inggeris (ala) Malaysia? Bagaimanakah Bahasa Inggeris (ala) Malaysia berbeza dari variasi/ jenis Bahasa Inggeris yang lain? Beri contoh terperinci untuk menerangkan jawapan anda.*

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

35. In your opinion, how much potential is there for Malaysian English to be **used as a formal standard variety intra-nationally**?
   *Pada pendapat anda, apakah potensi Bahasa Inggeris (ala) Malaysia untuk **dijadikan standard (ukuran) variasi yang rasmi yang digunapakai dalam negeri?***

   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
   |---|---|---|---|---|
   | None | | | | A lot |
   | *Langsung tiada* | | | | *Amat banyak* |

36. In your opinion, how much potential is there for Malaysian English to be **used as a formal standard variety internationally?**
   *Pada pendapat anda, apakah potensi Bahasa Inggeris (ala) Malaysia untuk **dijadikan standard (ukuran) variasi yang rasmi yang digunapakai di peringkat antarabangsa?***

   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
   |---|---|---|---|---|
   | None | | | | A lot |
   | *Langsung tiada* | | | | *Amat banyak* |

37. Do you consider Malaysian English a **suitable** variety to be **used in the Malaysian education system**?

*Adakah anda berpendapat bahawa Bahasa Inggeris (ala) Malaysia **sesuai** untuk **digunapakai dalam sistem pendidikan Malaysia?***

Yes / *Ya* ☐   No / *Tidak* ☐

38. Give reasons for your answer. / *Berikan sebab untuk jawapan anda.*

_____

_____

39. Which **variety/ type of English** would you like to **set as a standard form to use in Malaysia** (for teaching certain subjects in the education system, for official use in administration, finance, banking, mass – media, etc.)?

***Bahasa Inggeris variasi/ jenis** manakah yang anda ingin **jadikan sebagai standard/ukuran yang sesuai untuk digunapakai di Malaysia** (untuk pengajaran subjek- subjek tertentu di dalam sistem pendidikan, untuk kegunaan rasmi di dalam pentadbiran, kewangan, pembankan, media masa, dan sebagainya)?*

_____

40. Is the variety that you have chosen above **the best** choice for Malaysia?

*Adakah variasi yang anda pilih di atas merupakan pilihan **yang terbaik** untuk Malaysia?*

Yes / Ya ☐   No / Tidak ☐

41. Give reasons for your answer. / *Berikan sebab untuk jawapan anda.*

_____

_____

42. Please rate **your own use of Malaysian English**. / *Sila berikan **tahap penggunaan Bahasa Inggeris (ala) Malaysia anda.***

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Not at all | | | | All the time |
| *Langsung tiada* | | | | *Setiap masa* |

**Congratulations!**
**You have come to the end of the questionnaire. Thank you for your time in completing it.**
**This questionnaire is adapted from Moyer, 2004**
***Tahniah!***
***Anda telah sampai ke penghujung kaji selidik ini. Ribuan terima kasih diucapkan kepada anda kerana telah sudi meluangkan masa untuk mengisi kaji selidik ini.***
***Untuk pengetahuan anda kaji selidik ini telah diadaptasikan daripada Moyer, 2004.***

**Appendix 5.5: Pictures used to elicit oral data (Set A)**

**Appendix 5.6: Pictures used to elicit oral data (Set B)**



**Present day**

**Appendix 5.7: Video clip of the tsunami (2004)**

Tsunami-Hits-Pantong-Beach-and-Banda-Ache-EarthQuake.asf

# Appendix 5.8: Participants' profiles

| Initials | Sex | Race | Age | Present address | No. of years in S'gor | First 15 years in S'gor | Lived outside S'gor > 5 years | Parents from S'gor Y/N | Highest level of education | Medium of instruction | Native language |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| MMM/MM | M | Malay | 39 | Nilai | 34 | Y | Y | Y | SPM | Malay | Malay |
| DMY/EM | F | Malay | 49 | Shah Alam | 38 | Y | Y | N | MCE | English | Malay |
| KA/EM | F | Malay | 49 | Shah Alam | 37 | Y | Y | N | MCE | English | Malay |
| ZMS/MM | F | Malay | 39 | Shah Alam | 39 | Y | N | N (Father - KL; mother - Selangor) | Degree | Malay | English |
| RA/MM | M | Malay | 40 | Shah Alam | 40 | Y | N | Y | Dip | Malay | Malay |
| SH/MM | F | Malay | 34 | Shah Alam | 34 | Y | N | N | Dip | Malay | Malay |
| SAMR/MM | F | Malay | 41 | Shah Alam | 35 | Y | Y | N | SPM /Dip | Malay | Malay |
| MAG/MM | F | Malay | 42 | Shah Alam | 42 | Y | N | N | Dip | Malay | Malay |
| AB/MM | M | Malay | 34 | Selangor | 34 | Y | N | N | SPM | Malay | Malay |
| NA/EM | M | Malay | 52 | Selangor | 45 | Y | Y | N | MCE | English | Malay |
| NAAW/MM | M | Malay | 36 | Kuala Lumpur | 26 | Y | Y | N | Masters | English | Malay |
| SYM/MM | F | Malay | 33 | Ampang, Selangor | 33 | Y | N | Y | SPM | Malay | Malay |
| NZA/EM | F | Malay | 54 | Selangor | 35 (50) | up to 11 years | N | N | Masters | English | Malay |
| NH/EM | F | Malay | 51 | Selangor | 51 | Y | N | Y | Masters | English | Malay |
| MKMH/EM | M | Malay | 61 | Selangor | 61 | Y | N | Y | LCE | English | Malay |

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AJMS/ MM | M | Malay | 40 | Selangor | 40 | Y | N | Y | SRP | Malay | Malay |
| MS/MM | F | Malay | 41 | Selangor | 41 | Y | N | Y | SRP | Malay | Malay |
| SMD/EM | M | Malay | 54 | Selangor | 54 | Y | N | Y | MCE | English | Malay |
| MAM/ EM | M | Malay | 47 | Selangor | 47 | Y | N | Y | LCE | English | Malay |
| MKM/ EM | M | Malay | 67 | Selangor | 67 | Y | N | Y | MCE & COSC | English | Malay |
| RAM/EM | F | Malay | 51 | Selangor | 51 | Y | N | Y | LCE | English | Malay |
| KAT/MM | M | Malay | 33 | Selangor | 33 | Y | N | Y | SRP | Malay | Malay |
| BJ/EM | F | Malay | 53 | Selangor | 53 | Y | Y | N | LCE | English | Malay |

**SYM, 33, F, Malay, MM/SPM/Secondary**

**DS500023/ Recording: 26:19**

{0:00:00 - }

M:        Okay now I'm talking to SYM from UKM. Alright, you just look at these pictures, can you guess what these pictures show?

SYM:     .…in English? ↷

M:        Yes. When you look at these pictures what does what what do they remind you of? What do you think? Do you remember?

SYM:     (softly) No

M:        Look at the date

SYM:     Tsunami? ↻

M:        Yes! (excitedly)

M:         so we're going to talk about Tsunami

SYM:     aha 'kay

M:        So…and these pictures are just pictures of Tsunami so that when you look at them you know ↻ four years ago.. it's quite a long time so we forget, so these pictures may help you to to to remember something you know when Tsunami happened 2004 ↻ do you remember where you were? ↻

SYM:      aaa…yes

M:        yeh do you remember where you were? And what were you doing…

SYM:     egh…[ennn…not sure

M:        […it was the day after Christmas

SYM:      day after Christmas ya.. at home, maybe

M:         yeh,

SYM:     ya

M:         yeh

{0:01:15 - }

SYM:      but not sure

M:        so you heard the news?

SYM:     yes

M:         on?

SYM:     TV

M:      and then when you heard the news how did you react? How did you feel about it?

SYM:     First I feel sad, about er because er.. lot of people died..and… there's a… what ah? (softly) em sorry…that's all,

M:      [ya

SYM:    [ ya okay

M:       and then you saw the news?

SYM:     yes

M:      Now when you saw the news, er first when you heard, have you heard of the word Tsunami before? ↻

SYM:     No

M:      and then when you first heard it, do you know what it meant? ↺

SYM:     No

M:      Now, but then, how did you learn what it it means?

SYM:     Aa…. what they told in…th on the television ↻ that's all.

M:      [ ya

SYM:    [And er ah the picture picture that they taken↻ aa..

M:      of,the big

SYM:    Yyes

M:       the big waves

SYM:    Yes

{0:02:15 - }

M:       Ya. And then, er okay, if you look at these pictures, this was the picture, these these are pictures of.. what happened on that day, maybe, maybe this one is after

SYM:    okay

M:       But these are pictures, of that day, can you, describe to me, anything that you want to say about pictures about, people's, faces or what you see?

SYM:    ..I.. can't..because I don't know how to….

M:      You can

SYM:    I don't know how to explain in English actually

M:      You can, mix it

SYM:    I'll still in English isn't it?

M:        Er, no you can, if you feel that, that.. you you feel like you don't know how to say it in English, you maybe want to say it in Malay, that's okay

SYM:     It's okay?

M:        Ya

SYM:     Okay

M:        But, like I said you have to be comfortable

SYM:     comfortable, okay

M:        It doesn't matter, you have to be comfortable, and just.. natural

SYM:     Okay, so.. okaylah (sniffed) mm

M:        Ya! like that

SYM:     Okay @. Untuk set A ni aa…

M:        But as much as possible you try to speak in English

{0:03:21 - }

SYM:     Ya okay I try ek, okay, but I don't think so, sorry..but, sometimes broke is it okay broken broken  also eh can? ↺ (sniffed).  Okay. Set A er  I tengok em.. dia punya what,gelombang air ↺yang saya tengok kat TV, terlalu tinggi sampai, can't believe it ↺,okay↺, aa ..dan terlalu banyak kemusnahan rumah dan harta benda↺, termasuk nyawa, nyawa yang tak berdosalah. ↺

M:        Ehem. Would you like to say that in English?

SYM:     Em,no I can't (can). Can't. Sorry (softly). Sebenarnya saya tak berapa confident, tak confident nak nak

M:        Why?

SYM:     I don't know.

M:        Ya

SYM:     Ya

M:        Yes, but you can try, it's okay. Right, let's, let me er okay, this picture

SYM:     Ehem

M:        What can you tell me about this picture? What can you say?

SYM:      Is it a body?

M:        Ya

SYM:      Ya , aa

M:        Dead bodies

SYM:     Ya dead body, okay

M:	and the

SYM:	a lot of people died ↻, in the Tsunami tragedy↻

M:	Do do you remember how many people died?

{0:04:35 - }

SYM:	more than thousand ↻[maybe

M:	[No, I think it was like more than er..more more than hundred thousand

SYM:	Hundred thousand yeh

M:	Now, do you remember seeing, I mean,we we, how many bodies can we see there?

SYM:	Four,.. maybe five?

M:	but, have you seen..pictures of, lots of bodies?

SYM:	Yes, in television ya

M:	ya

SYM:	e'em

M:	and what do you..think of that?

SYM:	of course was sad.. okay, and second aa.. can't believe it that's aa aa first aa terjadi di Malaysia↻, okay↻ aa..kerana selalunya benda benda ni terjadi di negara luar saja ↻,'kay. Er yang ketiga↻, em ancaman dapat tau kemudian, bukan.. ah, itu saja.

M:	((Inaudible)) ya ya and now, if, have you, do you remember seeing any old(?), maybe you read.. a story or you..heard a story about, er.. people, the victim of Tsunami

SYM: Ya but I can't remember

M:	You can't remember

SYM: em

M:	ah ah er.. like for example, I can remember stories about husbands who lost …

SYM: wife or.. aa children aa maybe lost mother

M:	mm, ehem

SYM: ya

{0:06:07 - }

M:	ya, I remember there was one man, he..he was just crying everyone.. everyone

SYM: Oh ya

M:	that kind of story

SYM: aha. So you want me to..tell the story?

M:       yeh or anything that you want to talk about.

SYM: emm…. saya rasa waktu tu memang ramai sangat, cerita benda yang samalah. It's all  same, ah, semua hilang ahli keluarga, tapi yang benar-benar menyentuh perasaan setakat ni semuanya sama saja, that's why I look, [tak ada.

M:    [ ya ya okay. What do you think of this? Can you describe what the man…

SYM: **No no, is it rescue from our Malaysia↻ or no no, but ini.. ada.. bantuan yang diterima aa..** yang datang untuk membantu.. pada Tsunami selepas [Tsunamilah↻.

M:       [ehm ehm. What is he wearing?

SYM:       top aa macam… topeng↻ untuk ..pasal bau bau bangkai yang, yang berbau tersangat [busuk tu lah ↻.

M:       [ehem, ya, that's that was what they said I remember it was.. just too… and the, there was, there were so many bodies, that they.. did not have enough people to

SYM:  to carry? And ..semuanya tanam dalam satu tempat↻, ya.

M:     do you remember?

SYM: Yes

M:       ya, ya. Okay right anything else you want to say about the picture here? If you want to say↻

SYM:       Tak banyak, cuma saya rasa, macam.. aa… mangsa-mangsa tragedi/ tragedy tu mungkin sampai sekarang pun takkan lupa apa yang terjadi↻

{0:07:51 - }

M:       em em

SYM:       dan kehilangan ahli- ahli keluarga yang.. yang mereka sayangilah↻.

M:       em em

SYM: Tu saja

M:        Alright okay. Now.. what I'm going to do is, I'm going to show you, er we take away this, I'm going to show you, er a video clip.. and, I'd like you to.. I'll just play to you the video clip, just very quickly with the sound, 'kay, er  and then er the second time I would show it to you without the sound and when you look at the picture I just, want you to describe as much as possible what you see, 'kay? So…

SYM: Example?

M:       Can you see? You just, whatever you see here you just describe

SYM: ((inaudible))

M:       Can you see the picture↻, it's a bit dark isn't it? Oh mute! Is this mute? Oh mute! Is this mute? I tak nampak. Macamana saya nak kuatkan suara dia? [Oh it's still mute, is it?

[Oh it's still mute, is it?

SYM:      [Still mute..no…ah okay

M:        Can you hear it?

SYM: Tak

M:        Volume mixer..is it mute?

SYM: Tak

M:        Tak mutekan?

SYM: Tak mute
{0:09:09 - }

M:        Kenapa tak de sound eh? aahh aahh. Is that a sound?

SYM: Hm. Ni.

M:     Oh ni. Oh ya , 'kay.

(Sound of the video clip coming through)
So, I'll just……..I'll just make it forward, so that it becomes faster because ...((inaudible)) we're going to play it again. (sound of video) .That one just now you see that

SYM: ehm

M:        and then you'll see this, see this and then you see these pictures of.. the waves and you see aa..can you see the pictures?

SYM:      one

M:        It's quite a long picture of the waves, mm.. people in a boat, oops….I cannot see…right? Until the end, 'kay? So...go back. Hm. That's how it starts.

  ((An inaudible, incomprehensible sentence, here))

M:        Okay right. So start again↺. 'Kay, you know what I need you to do↺, I need you to look at the pictures↺, and as you see the pictures↺, you just describe what you see it↺ as much as possible↺ what you see↺, in..in English okay?

'kay, rewind it once more. Okay. Is that is that the first one? [Is that the first picture?

SYM:      [Er…

M:        No eh, no eh?

SYM: er no.

M:        aa this one is. Okay you can start.

S:        ..Susah nak cakap..adoi..mm ( in a 'difficult and painful' kind of way)mm

M:    What can you see?

{0:11:04 - }

SYM: Apa? (Sounds of the microphone).

M:     We can go back again, it's too fast.

SYM: Mm saya tahu, tapi… nak beritahu dalam  in English (she said this in a sort of despair fashion)

M:     It's okay. Just tell me what you can see.

SYM: a lot of people, okay. Erm..

M:     What are they doing?

SYM: aa..maybe watching watching (sound like halfway in between watching and washing) aa what, wave?

M:     ehm ehm

SYM: aha, [okay

M:        [okay what can you see..?
SYM:   aa all the ...?

M:     'kay what can you see now?

SYM: everybody.. want to escape from.. the building ↻

M:        ehm

SYM: okay

M:     where are they going?

SYM:  upstairs↻

M:        mm

SYM: because aa downstairs er.. full of water↻

M:    ehm.. what can you see?

SYM:  er.. the….. what?, all the things↻

{0:11:57 - }

M:    ehm

SYM: see the em...human?

M:        no

SYM: no, okay

M:        like, what's that? Not human. Because the.. the human, move it back a bit, because it's fast, but this is interesting to..to describe, because hah hah  this one, stop, okay.

SYM: Sorry

M:        Let's go ah…(technical sound) see people?
SYM: Yes

M:        and what are they doing?

SYM: They watching for the wave

M:        ehm

SYM: okay, and suddenly all the, all the er aa I don't know maybe, all the things…sebenarnya nak kata air tu masuk penuh dalam bawah tu lah⌒

M:        Okay

SYM: Okay so everybody.. going upstairs ↻

M:        yes, …can you see?

SYM: Is it a bag?

M:        ya

SYM: ah, okay↻

M:        What can you see about the water?

SYM:  Memenuhi ruang, dan ..se, makin lama makin em menaik secara mendadak

M:        em and what,how do you say it in English? Is that fast or slow?

{0:12:59 - }

SYM:        Fast

M:          yeh

SYM:        ah, [okay

M:          [yeh. Look, [what

SYM:        [okay

M:          What can you see now?

SYM:        somebody trap↻

M:          ehuh. Trap where?

SYM:              and the water, ah.. between the tree, okay, but I'm not sure what's this

M:          that's a mattress

SYM:         oh mattress...! Okay. Ah, dia berpaut

M:          Do you know how to say that?

SYM:        No (shooked her head)

M:          [Hanging

SYM:    (almost at the same time) [Hanging  tree

M:       Ya, okay.What about this man? Can you say something about him?

SYM: Ya, er same aa he's hanging from; he's hanging for from, what I don't know

M:        Tree

SYM: Tree okay and the.. apa?

M:        That's another, what can you say about him?

SYM:    Okay dia berpaut pada daun ↺,ah

M:        ah okay

SYM:    okay…er leaves aa mean aa what? Coconut, maybe, leaves..

M:        'kay

{0:13:50 - }

SYM::   okay, yang ini

M:        ya, what can you say about the water now?

SYM:    Aa air dah surut⌢, is it?

M:        yeh how do you say that?

SYM:    (silence)…..….don't know

M:        What is that man doing?

SYM:    mungkin mencari harta, aa mencari saudara-saudara yang dah hilang?

M:        Do you know how to say that?

SYM:    Find somebody.. maybe alive↺


M:        Em, alright, now what can you see there? Can you see that one?

SYM:    Ya, er..kemusnahan yang teruk

M:        ya, but what is that?

SYM:    [but? (overlapping)

M:        [what is that?

SYM:    oh! Mana?

M:        What is that thing there?

SYM:    Bangunan yang dah runtuh?

M:        No!

SYM:     No? kapal.

M:          yeh, how do you say that?

SYM: A ship

M:          ya and what can you see on the ship?

SYM: everybody↻ er..stand er…..is it standing?

M          ya

{0:14:38 - }

SYM: but I don't know where, **because er kat ( kata) if the ship but not ful, not a full ship**

M:          ya, because of what? Where is the ship? Where is the ship? I mean, usually you find a ship in the water right?

SYM: **Yess?**

M:          but where is that ship?

SYM:     ….erh……ohhh….  o..kay

M:          Okay. Do you understand now?

SYM: @Yes…aa

M:          Ah,okay what can you say?

SYM: Dia betul betul ahh…okay dia betul betul berada di tengah tengah darat

M:          How do you say that?

SYM: **(Sigh)… land, in the..la (unfinished)** I don't know sorry. In the land,

M:          ehm

SYM: but not in the water

M:          ehm. Okay

SYM:  'kay

M:          and now you see..what are these people doing?

SYM:I don't know where the(y) from, but maybe they are from the sh (unfinished 'ship'), no mm maybe not from the ship, or maybe from the ship ↻

M:          ehm

SYM:     yang ada dekat tengah-tengah  tadi ↻

M:          ehm. Or, maybe from the, hotel!

SYM: But I don't know what hotel

{0:15:40 - }


M:          But what are they doing? Can you describe what they are doing?

SYM: Pergi ke satu tempat yang selamat?

M:          yep, how do you say that?

SYM: Going for some.. place, er… wheres they're ( could be 'their') safe?

M:          ehm

SYM: (Whisper) okay

M:          so now they're going there ↻

SYM: ehuh..

M:          Can you describe what what do you see here? Just

SYM: cakap semua barang  musnah..[tak tau (overlapping with)

M:    [no, you don't have to say oh what can you see there, what are these things?

SYM: pokok-pokok..

M:          ya how do you say that?

SYM: aa tr.. aa all the trees.. aa the things... em.. all the, house or..building

M:          mm mm

SYM: that em musnah( whisper)

M:    fall down

SYM: aa full down, okay

M:           damaged

SYM:  or damaged okay

M:           ehm what is that?

SYM: Bag↻

{0:16:36 - }

M:          Ya

SYM:     Okay (softly.) Maybe a bag from…..somebody.. er visit this place ↻


M:           mm

SYM:  Like them (sound like 'then')

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M:     Mm. Right now, these people, where are they?

SYM: The boat?

M:     Ya.What do you think, what is happening, can you tell me?

SYM:     mm..

M:         Well who are these people do you think?

SYM:     Visitor

M:         Visitors? Or people who.. er, people from, people who are…

SYM:     Safe?

M:         Em. Ya. Can you tell me how many men and women there are?

SYM:      em

M:         Roughly

SYM:     Maybe ten..maybe eight er, ten aa womans aa two or three (sounds like 'tree')
man

M:          ehm

SYM:     There

M:         Can you tell me, what you can see on their faces? What do they look like?

SYM:      look like tired ↻

M:         ehm

SYM:     aa and.. sad↻

M:         ehm

SYM:     some of the people↻

M:         Mm, mm. Are they talking to each other, or what do you think?


{0:17:34 - }

SYM:     No, aa not all

M:         What, not all what?

SYM:     **Not all talking to each other?**

M:         mm

SYM:     only one or two people↻

M:         em. Now, okay, alright these are the people just now, what is that man doing?

SYM:     taking pi…oh **they are taking a picture..about the Tsunami er about the damage**

M:       ehuh, what can you see here?

SYM:     **all the things aa what? terapong ↺**

M:       mm,

SYM:     What?

M:       floating

SYM:     **floating**

M:       e'em

SYM:     okay

M:       Is that scary?

SYM:     yes

M:       mm

SYM:     **because this is the first time me (?? Incomprehensible)**

M:       it happened

SYM:     ya

M:       Ya, that's all about the pictures

SYM:     Okay @

{0:18:14 - }

M:       ((inaudible comment))

SYM:     eh tak boleh teruk

M:       don't say that, I think you've done a lot. Okay just very quickly, now I want to show you a set of pictures, aa from.. that one was when it happened. If you look at these pictures, it says present day

SYM:     this after?

M:       ya,

SYM:     okay

M:       now

SYM:         Now?

M:       ya

SYM:         okay

M:      that means 2007, 2008, this this is a picture of Banda Acheh

SYM:    ehum. Oh Acheh

M:      where it happened. Can you tell me what you see?  You can describe one thing, you know you don't have to describe…, what can you see in some of these pictures?

SYM:    Okay, okay, aa… everything look like, turn to normal back,

M:      ehm

SYM:    aa..all the.. people also aa.. happy,aa..they're build another house, for the people..aa.. who lost their house and …….(long silence)

M:      What can you say about this? This..

SYM:    **..((inaudible- something in Malay 'tidak'))…aa.. semua orang macam dah berkumpul baliklah ↺, boleh..boleh keluar↺**

{0:19:36 - }

M:       ehm

SYM:    they can go out ↺, aa.. them (sounds like 'then'/ 'den') not worry anything

M:      what are they doing?

SYM:    aa picnic↺

M:      ehm

SYM:    **aa shopping↺**

M:      ehuhm

SYM:    aa..dan semuanya dah membangun baliklah ↺ macam..

M:      How do you say that?

SYM:    ….(silence)…apa ah? ( very softly)..mmm……………….(long silence)

M:      developed?

SYM:    develop↷

M:      Do you think Acheh was like this before?

SYM:    No. Before this, maybe, not same↺

M:      ehm

SYM:    aa.. maybe better, maybe more, more much better than before?

M:      now?

SYM:    ah ya ↷

M:      you have things like what?

SYM:    because ah? Sorry?

M:      what what can you see..?

SYM:    KFC (giggle)…..((incomprehensible))… before this no.. KFC? (giggle)

M:      ya…and this one what do you think of this picture?

{0:20:34 - }

SYM:    I don't know what's this? Istana?

M:       no.

SYM:     Masjid?

M:       a mosque

SYM:    oh the mosque!

M:      Do you remember that picture?

SYM:    Yeh only this em aa

M:      Do you know that famous mosque?

SYM:    Ya only the the mosque not (sounds like 'nut') aa.. destroyed! Every everything,
aa… everything.. what? everything destroyed, only the mosque.

M:      em, was not

SYM:    It was not, and **everybody in the mosque**

M:      Really?

SYM:    Ya,

M:      oh ya ya ya

SYM:    Yes. All the people in the mosque aa, emm… because this is only the safety
place for them to.. stay.

M:       ya ya ya I remember

SYM:    em

M:       I cannot remember that, in fact other people also didn't say but you remember
that

SYM:     em em

M:      Now, you see the mosque now when you compare with this picture… (Sounds
of paper flicking)

{0:21:26 - }

SYM:    yea, yes

M:       Can you tell me, here, and then you tell me about the picture here? Just tell me what you see here?

SYM:     aa..sini..

M:       What can you say?

SYM:     aa aa there's a no building or no..          aa nothing aa nothing here that I seen

M:       hm

SYM:     Like thisↃ

M:       hm

SYM:     aa this is more like beautiful..and all the trees… the, what? Ↄ fence all the grass.. all the…things ((sounds like 'things' – not clear)) it like? beautiful than  the other one

M:       ehem

SYM:     before Tsunami⌢

M:       Ya. Okay right, just very quickly, ah I want you to tell me what what is the last thing you want to say about the Tsunami. Maybe something that you've learnt about it, from it..

SYM:     Okay………(long silent)..em okay. First aa ..we better take care our familyↃ, and love our familyↃ before they are not, before they are mm gone em die.. or ever because of the, what disaster? (softly-  she was unsure)

M:       hm hmm

SYM:     disaster that aa sometimes, we can't aa sure, when it happen

M:       Ya

{0:22:54 - }

SYM:     That's the one, and the second thingↃ, aa.. we must be alertↃaa.. I think the g, sorry,  the government also must be alertↃ, about all the, aa.. disaster that, what happen to another countryↃ so, they.. will be more.. careful after

M:       Ya

SYM:     Be..more be careful, that's all⌢, okay ⌢.

M:       Thank you very much

SYM:     You're welcome….

M:       Is this how you normally speak English?

SYM:     Sorry?

M:       Do you speak in English like this? With your friends?

SYM:     No

M:          With the people at work, do you speak English?

SYM:     Yes..but not like this @

M:          Not like this…((inaudible)) to whom do you speak(??)  Malay?

SYM:     Speak Malay, but with aa aa like, visitor professor… em.. visiting

M:          [You speak in English?

SYM:     [Ya I'm speaking English but aa, sometimes it's not difficult to.. explain like this because this is a lot of things (giggle) so explain @

M:          ya ya but when you  you speak to professors is this how you speak English?

SYM:     Yea

M:          This is your normal, normal usual way?

SYM:     Yes but maybe more.. more…. more..maybe better than this

M:       Can you speak, for me, the better one?

{0:24.15 - }

SYM:     Ah! Because, it's it's like, norm it's, it's like normal actually but I can…

M:           Let's say I'm the professor

SYM:     ehem. I only talk about, aa ..about all their itenary… [all their work

M:          [Okay let's say

SYM:     Okay

M:          Okay can you tell me what do I have to do today? What is my appointment like today?

SYM:      Okay today↺.. you have aa appointment with Dean.. ↺ at 9.30↺ in the faculty↺

M:          After that?

SYM:     After that

M:          What about lunch?

SYM:     aa mm.. lunch for the professor, aa if there is a lunch maybe our Head of Department will entertain them

M:          The whole day?

SYM:     Ya

M:          and the ..mm..if I want to go to.. the  library over there, how do I go there?

SYM:     aa sometimes we.. aa book aa.. car ↺aa.. I mean UKM car with the driver, they will send them, they will send aa..the professor aa.. to the.. place that they want.

M:		okay. aa alright, with your friends do you speak English?

SYM:		No

M:		Okay, let's say you go to a shop to buy something do you speak English?
SYM:		No

M:		Do you speak like, your normal English...yang  paling biasa sekali?

{0:25:31 – 26.19}

SYM:		Broken (giggle)

M:		Ah! How do you speak broken English? Just give me example

SYM:		Okay…em…aa..something like "Jom window shopping" maybe aa.. atau aa….."I'm going to the bathroom"… maybe with my aa my…kids↻ and, aa.. with my ..aa..,colleagues, actually no no no no [English, no English, only Malay


M:		[So you either speak to your.. professor like that↻, or.. just now you speak it's quite, your.. normal[ way?

SYM:		[em normal

M:		Ya,okay.

SYM:		Okay

M:		Alright. Thank you very much.

# Appendix 5.10: The coding schema

| Main Codes | What they stand for | Sub-codes | What they stand for | Examples |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| G | Utterance (Finite clauses) | g | … is target-like | They came over to...{tsk what I mean is uh…. }to help, to help the acheh people |
| | | u | … is non-target-like | They are [move go maybe] go to a another place for the safe |
| | | ug | The utterance overall is non-target-like but the actual phenomenon we are looking at is target-like. | Then we can see anywhere got water flow |
| S | The subject (noun/pronoun in subject clause) | b | … is present and target-like | They're happy, naturally happy |
| | | w | … is present but non-target-like (in number and person) | the God want to show something |
| | | a | … is absent | of course was sad. |
| C | Copula verb in subject clause | d | …is present and target-like | It is sad. |
| | | w | … is present but non-target-like (in number and person) | |
| | | | - Also indicates non-target-likeness in the tense of the copula. | The children was afraid. |
| | | | - Also indicates non-target-likeness when an auxiliary verb is inserted inappropriately or the | This is show that they are really, what, proper-lah when this was happened. |

|    |    |   |                                                                                                                                                                  |                                                                                                                                  |
|----|----|---|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|    |    |   | inappropriate auxiliary verb is inserted.                                                                                                                        |                                                                                                                                  |
|    |    |   | - Also indicates non-target-likeness in subject-verb order (subject-verb inverson)                                                                               | but I'm not sure what's this                                                                                                     |
|    |    | a | … is absent                                                                                                                                                      | we / sure, when it happens                                                                                                       |
| CT | The tense form of the copula verb in subject clause | e | … is target-like                                                                                         | At that time I was in KL.                                                                                                        |
|    |    | w | … is non-target-like                                                                                                                                             | That is in Penang then.                                                                                                          |
| XA | Auxiliary verb in subject clause (Active form) | f | … is present and target-like (in number and person)                                                              | He is looking for somebody.                                                                                                      |
|    |    | w | … is present but non-target-like (in number and person)                                                                                                          |                                                                                                                                  |
|    |    |   | - Also indicates non-target-likeness in the tense of the auxiliary                                                                                               | She don't realize it.                                                                                                            |
|    |    |   | - Also indicates non-target-likeness when an auxiliary verb is inserted inappropriately or the inappropriate auxiliary verb is inserted.                          | I was read… what they, they, they, they have suppose to gone through the people who have struck by the Tsunami                   |
|    |    |   | - Also indicates non-target-likeness in word order                                                                                                               | [so I'm easily been exposed to this kind of thing}                                                                              |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | a | … is absent | Our country / helping them. |
| XP | Auxiliary verb in subject clause (Passive form) | g | … is present and target-like | a lot of people were … being drifted away by, by {you know} the big waves |
| | | w | … is present but non-target-like (in number and person)<br><br>- Also indicates non-target-likeness in the the tense of the auxiliary<br><br>- Also indicates non-target-likeness in word order | before the place being was struck by the tsunami |
| | | a | … is absent | a thousand of life has/been/taken off like that<br><br>who have/been/struck by the tsunami<br><br>Ya this is already, hit before, see this has already /been/ hit before |
| XT | The tense form of the auxiliary verb in the subject clause | h | … is target-like | He is studying in a very good school. |
| | | w | … is non-target-like | I am working when the Tsunami happened. |
| M | Main verb in subject clause | i | … is present and target-like | They saw everything. |
| | | w | … is present but non-target-like (in number and person)<br><br>- Also indicates non-target-likeness in the tense of the main verb | Maybe he want to remember |

| | | a | … is absent | I'll still / in English isn't it? |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| MT | The tense form of the main verb in subject clause | j | … is target-like | I first heard about it on the news. |
| | | w | … is non-target-like | It happens in 2004 |
| MF | The participle or/and continuous forms of the main verb in subject clause | k | … is target-like | Maybe he was screaming to get help. |
| | | w | … is non-target-like | The houses are destroy. |
| MI | Non finite verb (e.g. infinitive copula) in subject clause | o | … is target-like | She wants to go |
| | | w | … is marked but non-target-like | She did not told him |
| | | a | … is absent | They cannot / found |
| SV | Serial Verbs | g | are target-like (in tense) | |
| | | w | are non-target-like (in tense) | He keep on holding that. |
| DA | Definite article in subject clause | l | … is present and target-like | This is about the Tsunami tragedy. |
| | | w | … is present but non-target-like<br><br>- Also indicates non-target-likeness when a definite article is inserted inappropriately | In the land, but not in the water |
| | | a | … is absent and non-target-like | This is / Tsunami in Indonesia |
| | | q | … is absent but target-like | What they can do for human beings |
| IA | Indefinite article (in the noun | n | … is present and target-like | There's a van, there's a passer-by looking at the car |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | phrase of the subject clause) | w | … is present but is non-target-like<br><br>- Also indicates non-target-likeness when an indefinite article is inserted inappropriately | If there is a lunch maybe<br><br>to make a new houses |
| | | a | … is absent | Sometimes we book / car |
| | | q | … is absent but target-like | You might come across something |
| ZA | Zero Article | g | target-like | |
| | | w | non-target-like | |
| PL | Plural noun in subject clause | p | … regular plural noun is marked and target-like | They are looking for the bodies |
| | | w | … regular plural noun is unmarked and non-target-like. | all the relative come and then |
| | | | … irregular plural noun is non-target-like | childs |
| | | z | … irregular plural noun is target-like | sheep / feet |
| SG | Singular noun in subject clause | r | … is target-like | they are taking a picture |
| | | w | … is non-target-like | my third children is my son |
| SVA | Agreement of subject and verb in utterance in terms of number (plural or singular subject) and person | c | Agreement between subject and copula verb | My favourite food is uh..*asam pedas* |
| | | t | No agreement between subject and | The students is from |

|   |   |   | copula verb | Malaysia |
|---|---|---|---|---|
|   |   | x | Agreement between subject and auxiliary verb | Everybody is helping them |
|   |   | v | No agreement between subject and auxiliary verb | people is talking about it then |
|   |   | m | Agreement between subject and main verb | They come back |
|   |   | y | No agreement between subject and main verb | Everybody want to escape from the building |
| OP | Other phenomena |   |   |   |
| S | Non applicable or not overly indicated | Does not apply to the feature in question or the feature in question is not determined due to the absence of an obligatory feature | | |