Journal of Language & Communication

j&C

Journal of
LANGUAGE
& COMMUNICATION

VOL. 1(2) September 2014

A scientific journal by published Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication,

Universiti Putra Malaysia

EDITORIAL BOARD

INTERNATIONAL ADVISORY BOARD

_____

Editorial Office

Publisher

REVIEWERS

Sharifah Fazliyaton Shaik Ismail
College of Arts and Sciences, Universiti Utara Malaysia

Suzana Muhammad
*English Language Studies and Literature Section, School of Humanities,
Universiti Sains Malaysia*

Tan Kim Hua
*School of Language Studies and Linguistics, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities,
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia*

Ting Su Hie
Centre for Language Studies, Universiti Malaysia Sarawak

Yong Mei Fung
*Department of English Language, Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication,
Universiti Putra Malaysia*

Zarina Omar
*Centre for Latin American Studies, Institute of Malaysian and International Studies,
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia*

Zainor Izat Zainal
*Department of English Language, Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication,
Universiti Putra Malaysia*

Journal of Language and Communication
Vol. 1(2) September 2014

Contents

STANCE-TAKING USING LEXICO-GRAMMATICAL FEATURES IN ARGUMENTATIVE WRITING OF MALAYSIAN UNDERGRADUATES

Lee Geok Imm[1], Wong Bee Eng[2], Chan Swee Heng[3], Mardziah Hayati Abdullah[4]
Department of English, Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication
Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia
e-mail: gilee@upm.edu.my[1]; bee@upm.edu.my[2];
shchan@upm.edu.my[3]; mazha@upm.edu.my[4]

ABSTRACT

Argumentative writing is an important skill expected of all students from the institutions of higher learning. These tertiary students are often required to state their opinions and put forward their arguments in their written essays, assignments, and projects. As Shannon (2011) points out students are required to write to fulfill their academic course requirements. Hyland (2005) also emphasises the importance of writing which involves interactions between writers and readers. The ways that the writers express their opinions to the readers are very much related to the choices of their language use. Therefore, this study explores how undergraduate writers state their stances in English argumentative essays. The analysis of the argumentative essays for stance was based on the framework proposed by Biber (2006), focusing on the lexico-grammatical features. The findings of this study were obtained from the argumentative essays of thirty undergraduate writers from a public university in Malaysia. The findings of this study have provided a more in-depth understanding of how stance-taking can be identified through the use of particular linguistic features such as modal verbs, stance adverbs, and stance complement clauses in argumentative writing by these ESL undergraduate writers. Further, the findings from the analysis of the use of linguistic features in English for stating stances can then be used to guide these writers improve their abilities to write for academic purposes, specifically in argumentative writing.

Keywords: argumentative writing, Malaysian undergraduates, stance, writing performance

INTRODUCTION

Writing is an important skill expected of all the undergraduates from the institutions of higher learning (IHL). It is often the case that these undergraduates need to do some forms of writing like essays, assignments, projects or theses. The writing skills that are required of them are often to state their stances and put forward their arguments. As Shannon (2011) points out, the students are required to write to fulfill their academic course requirements.

As writing is considered important to the undergraduates, it is essential for them to be aware of how they express their stances in their academic writing, particularly in their argumentative writing. According to Hyland (2005), when the writers state their stances, they show how they convey their opinions, judgments, and commitments to the propositions. To him, stating a stance in writing involves interaction with the readers. The competency in stance-taking can establish writer-reader dialogue, and relationships between people and ideas.

Taking a stance is considered as one of the important discourse acts of human communication (Jaffe, 2009). According to Jaffe, giving a neutral position itself indicates one's stance. In addition, Biber (2006) states that stance-taking reflects how certain the writers feel and also what perspective they take towards a proposition. Du Bois (2007) mentions that stance-taking involves several stages. The first stage is to evaluate an object. The next stage is to position a subject (self and others). Then, the following stage is to align with other subjects with respect to the presupposed system of socio-cultural values and ideologies. Therefore, the understanding of a stance is closely related to the understanding of social aspects of human conduct.

The concept of stance has been discussed by different linguists under different terms and definitions to refer generally to reflecting interpersonal meanings. Hyland (2005) uses a set of concepts in evaluating stance. These concepts are evidentiality, affect and relation. Hedge and booster are two other subsets of interpersonal meanings used in evaluating stance. Stance is also referred to as "a textual voice", revealing the attitudinal aspect (Hyland, 2001, p. 176). Writers can either assert their personal authority onto their arguments or disguise their participation. Chandrasegaran and Kong (2006) refer to stance in the attitudinal dimension. They further state that the essential concept of stance is the writers' points of view or positions that they take based on issues. Similarly, Conrad and Biber (2000) refer to stance as attitudinal stance. They see stance in the sense of attitude, that is, the writer's attitude towards an issue, event, or person. On the other hand, Hunston and Thompson (2000) use the term "evaluation" to refer to the "writer's attitude or stance towards, viewpoint on, or feelings about the entities or propositions that he or she is talking about …" (p. 5). Martin and White (2005) adopt the term "appraisal" to refer to the way the language is used to evaluate, judge, and adopt stances to build up textual personas by the writer.

The ways that the writers express their stances to the readers are very much related to the choice of the stance expressions. Several studies have been conducted on the use of different types of stance expressions for analysis. For example, stance expressions can be expressed through the use of special classes of verbs (Thompson & Ye, 1991; Hunston, 1995; Hyland, 2002), adverbials (Biber & Finegan, 1988; Biber et al., 1999; Conrad & Biber, 2000), hedges (Hyland, 1996) and metadiscourse features (Hyland, 2002; 2004). Therefore, the grammatical forms and lexis that construct a text are a resource for realising social intentions and performing discourse acts like expressing one's stance on an issue.

This study adopts Biber's (2006) lexico-grammatical features for stance analysis: modal verbs, stance adverbs, and stance complement clauses. Modal verbs can be grouped into three categories according to their main meanings. These categories are possibility/permission/ability, necessity/obligation, and prediction/volition. For stance adverbs, they are divided into three major semantic categories which are epistemic (certainty and likelihood), attitude and style. Finally, complement clauses are stance complement clauses controlled by verbs, adjectives or nouns.

The expression of a stance has been much researched on in academic writing, particularly academic research articles (Hyland, 1998, 1999, 2005; Hunston & Thompson, 2000; Conrad & Biber, 2000; Phuang, 2008) and post graduate theses (Hyland, 2004; Hood, 2004). The examination of the use of stance expressions by professional academic writers and advanced writers has been investigated. In the Malaysian context, although such research has been conducted on work done by undergraduate writers (Ting & Chai, 2013; Ting & Tee, 2008), to the knowledge of the writers of this paper, no research has investigated the relationship between the use of stance expressions and performance in writing upon exposure to and training in the English language. Therefore, this study aims

to fill this gap and report on how two groups of Malaysian undergraduate writers use stance expressions in their argumentative writing and the relationship between this use and their writing performance.

This study investigated the types of lexico-grammatical features used by the first year and final year undergraduate writers in stating their stances in their English argumentative essays. The framework of lexico-grammatical features proposed by Biber (2006) were used to analyse the stance expressions of the undergraduate writers. The use of stance expressions for both groups in their argumentative essays was also compared. According to Halliday (1994), systemic functional grammar allows the analysis of the lexico-grammatical features in a text in terms of what the writer intends to do and mean. The results of a functional analysis of a student's text can provide insights, that is, whether a student writer has the lexico-grammatical resources to project an effective stance or otherwise. Observing the link between grammar and discourse functions can yield results that can prove to be more useful pedagogically than merely listing linguistic forms as presented in some studies of students' writing (Hinkel, 2002).

Participants

The participants in this study were thirty undergraduate writers from a public university in Malaysia, who had obtained Bands 3 and 4 in their Malaysian University Entrance Test (MUET). These undergraduate writers were from both the fields of social sciences and sciences. They were categorised into two groups based on two criteria: according to their exposure to the English language and the academic experience that they had in their programmes of study at the university.

The first group consisted of fifteen undergraduate writers who were in their first semester of their first year of study. They did not enrol in any of the English proficiency courses in the university. This group was categorised as "junior undergraduates".

The second group consisted of fifteen undergraduates who were in their final year of their studies. These senior undergraduates had completed six credit hours of English proficiency courses. They had gone through various academic writing training over the period of their studies such as writing academic essays and assignments which included reports, projects and term papers.

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

The required data were drawn from thirty argumentative essays written by the participants of both groups. They wrote 350 words on a given topic, that is, "Facebook". In their writing, the undergraduates had to state their stances and support them with arguments. The procedures were timed. The writers were asked to complete the essay writing in one hour and fifteen minutes. They were also encouraged to prepare an outline before they wrote their essays.

Once the undergraduate writers had completed their argumentative essays, the essays were coded according to the groups. These codes were kept confidential and used for research purposes only. Subsequently, the essays were graded by two experienced raters to determine the English language proficiency level in each essay. The raters graded the essays using the writing marking scheme of the International English Language Testing System (IELTS). Then, these essays were analysed for the use of lexico-grammatical features (Biber, 2006) in stating stance. The lexico-grammatical features used to investigate the stance expressions were modals, adverbials, and complement clauses.

The researchers first manually coded the stance expressions according to the categories of the lexico-grammatical features by Biber (2006). Then, they discussed to confirm the categories. When there were discrepancies during the coding process, they had to come to a consensus. The essays by the 15 first year (5,099 words) and 15 final year undergraduates (6,001 words) were analysed based on frequency counts for the number of occurrences of the lexico-grammatical features used by them.

The overall distribution of the three major categories of stance is shown in Table 1. On the whole, the two groups of undergraduate writers showed attempts to use lexico-grammatical features in their argumentative writing. However, the final year undergraduates used more lexico-grammatical features compared to the first year undergraduates for all the three categories. Both groups showed their preferences in using modal verbs, followed by stance complement clauses and stance adverbs respectively. This finding is consistent with Biber's (2006) study. He found that modal verbs were used more frequently than the other two categories in both spoken and written registers.

Table 1. Comparison of three major categories of lexico-grammatical features
for first and final year undergraduates

Lexico-grammatical Features (Biber, 2006)	First Year Undergraduates	Final Year Undergraduates
Modal Verbs	269	283
Stance Adverbs	47	78
Stance Complement Clauses	74	104

Modal Verbs

Among the subcategories of the modal verbs (Table 2), possibility modals were found to be the most frequently occurring type in the argumentative essays of both first year and final year undergraduate writers with a total number of 144 and 146 instances respectively. The next most frequent modal verbs used in their argumentative essays were prediction modals, with frequency counts of 58 and 83 respectively, and this is followed by necessity modals, with frequency counts of 18 and 25 respectively.

Table 2. Subcategories of modal verbs

	First Year Undergraduates (Frequency of MV)	Final Year Undergraduates (Frequency of MV)
Subcategories of Modals Verbs (MV)	269	284
Possibility/Ability Modals	144	146
Necessity Modals	18	25
Prediction Modals	58	83

Possibility/Ability Modals

Based on the manual analysis of the essays, the undergraduate writers preferred the use of *can* followed by *may* as ability and possibility modals. A similar result was found in a study conducted by Ting and Chai (2013), i.e. the most frequently used modal verb was *can* for cohesion in discussion texts. This modal verb *can* was found to be used more by non-native writers when compared to native writers (Neff-van Aertselaer & Dafouz-Milne, 2008). Non-native writers use *can* in a dynamic sense with variable meanings while the native writers use *can* to present a change from problem to solution.

In this study, the following examples of the use of the modal *can* show how Facebook is able to help people in business and we as a global community are able to

communicate with each other. The modal *may* was used to express their uncertainty towards a proposition in a text.

Examples of the use of the modal *can* are:

1. Facebook *can* act as business medium for certain people.
2. We *can* communicate with foreigners anytime regardless the whereabout.

Examples of the use of the modal *may* are:

1. These activities *may* destroy young people as they spend most of their time visiting the website through Facebook.
2. Secondly, *Facebook* content and services *may* spread the bad culture to people rapidly.

Prediction Modals

Prediction modals such as *will* and *would* were the next most commonly used modals to mark stance expressions in the argumentative essays of both groups of undergraduate writers. The modal verb w*ill* was commonly used as a prediction modal in their essays to show how they make their predictions of forthcoming events or activities in their propositions. Examples of the use of the modal *will* are:

1. With Facebook, students *will* sit in front of their laptops for hours and hours.
2. They *will* addicted to always online their account for a long day.

The modal *would* was also used by the undergraduate writers to show their assertiveness in their stance-taking. Examples of this subcategory are as follows:

1. Many people *would* rather chat through Facebook than email or phone.
2. Nowadays, young people *would* not resist uploading immoral activities from their friend Facebook.

Necessity Modals

The necessity modals were the least popular lexico-grammatical features in the undergraduate writers' argumentative essays. In this category, the modals *should* and *must* were most common in the essays of the final year undergraduates compared to those of the first year undergraduate writers. These modals occurred more in the conclusion section of the essays of about two-third of essays by the final year undergraduate writers. A possible explanation is that the final year writers had the tendency to further strengthen their stances before they ended the essay due to their training in writing academic and research papers. They were likely trained to use stance expressions in academic writing.

The following examples illustrate that the necessity modal *should* was used to show some form of advice, whereas the modal *must* was used to show strong obligations in stances that they take.

Examples of the use of the necessity modal *should* are:
1. We *should* not point out our finger at anyone as it is depends on how we use it.
2. As Facebook users, they *should* allocate their time and do not get addicted to the use of Facebook.

Examples of the use of the necessity modal *must* are:

1. So, we *must* use this Facebook smartly than only we can get awesome benefits.
2. Thus, I stressed out that youngsters *must* use Facebook effectively.

Stance Complement Clauses
The next type of commonly used lexico-grammatical feature was the complement clause. Table 3 displays the comparison of the different types of stance complement clauses for both groups of undergraduate writers. Although the final year undergraduate writers showed more usage of stance complement clauses than the first year undergraduate writers, the preference for the types of stance complement clauses is similar. The most frequently used stance complement clauses by both groups of writers were those controlled by verbs, and these were followed by those controlled by nouns, and adjectives. Among the three subcategories of stance complement clauses, there is not much difference in terms of the number of occurrences for stance complement clauses controlled by adjectives and nouns. However, the use of stance complement clauses controlled by verbs was found to be more in the essays of the final year writers (59) than in the essays by the first year writers (38).

Table 3. Subcategories of stance complement clauses

	First Year Undergraduates (Frequency of SCC)	Final Year Undergraduates (Frequency of SCC)
Subcategories of Stance Complement Clauses (SCC)	74	104
a) Controlled by Verbs	38	59
- Stance verb + that-clause		
- Stance verb + to-clause		
b) Controlled by Adjectives	14	19
- Stance adjective + that-clause		
- Stance adjective + to-clause		
c) Controlled by Nouns	22	26
- Stance noun + that-clause		
- Stance noun + to-clause		

In the following sentences, some examples of the different types of stance complement clauses found in the essays of the first and final year undergraduate writers are presented.

Stance Complement Clauses Controlled by Verbs
The constructions of stance verbs + that-clause were used to evaluate the likelihood of information, certainty of an issue, and claims based on non-factual information as shown in the following examples. The undergraduate writers could show different degrees of support for the truth value of a proposition through the choice of verbs like *think*, *know* and *say*. Examples of these constructions are illustrated in the following sentences:

1. I *think that* the use of Facebook can have more disadvantages.
2. Everyone *knows that* posting a status on Facebook has become a trend.
3. Some people *say that* Facebook can have more disadvantages.

The constructions of stance verbs + to-clause were used to show the possibility and also the desirability of some actions or events, as well as the willingness of the effort put in. Examples of these constructions are illustrated in the following sentences:

1. Some people *tend to* spread rumours about someone or something.
2. If we *know* how *to* make use of Facebook, it would be a good tool.
3. They *prefer to* play and chat on-line games.
4. Facebook *help to* communicate with other people and make student's work easier.

Stance Complement Clauses Controlled by Nouns

Stance complement clauses controlled by nouns were the next frequently used stance complement clauses. Based on the essays of the undergraduate writers, the constructions of stance nouns + that-clause were used to show how the nouns modify the information given in the that-clause. Examples of these constructions are illustrated in the following sentences:

1. It has been an *argument that* the use of Facebook can have more disadvantages.
2. I agree with the *statement that* the use of Facebook can bring more disadvantages.

Stance Complement Clauses Controlled by Adjectives

The least used stance complement clauses were those controlled by adjectives. Based on the essays of the undergraduate writers, two types of stance complement clauses controlled by adjectives were found. They were constructions of stance adjectives + that-clause and stance adjectives + to-clause. The first type, constructions of stance adjectives + that-clause, was used to evaluate the certainty of an issue, and the likelihood of information. Examples of these constructions are illustrated in the following sentences:

1. It is *true that* there are a lot of fun in Facebook.
2. Some people might have thousands of friends on Facebook, but they are *not likely* to know all of them.

The second type, constructions of stance adjectives + to-clause, was used to show the certainty of an issue, the evaluation of the situation in terms of the importance, and the level of difficulty. Examples of these constructions are illustrated in the following sentences.

1. I am *sure* to make friends in the Facebook.
2. It is *important to* further weigh the value of Facebook.
3. Assignments are *easy to* send through Facebook.

Stance Adverbs

Stance adverbs were the least used lexico-grammatical features compared to modal verbs and stance complement clauses. Table 4 displays the comparison of the different types of stance adverbs for both groups of undergraduate writers.

Table 4. Subcategories of stance adverbs

	First Year Undergraduates (Frequency of SA)	Ranking	Final Year Undergraduates (Frequency of SA)	Ranking
Subcategories of Stance Adverbs (SA)	47		68	
Certainty Adverbs	13	2	16	3
Likelihood Adverbs	3	4	8	4
Attitude Adverbs	9	3	21	2
Style adverbs	22	1	23	1

Among the subcategories of stance adverbs, the results showed that style adverbs were found to be the most common grammatical feature used to indicate stance in argumentative essays by both the first and final year undergraduate writers. This finding is in contrast with the findings of other studies (Biber, 2006; Ai, 2012). They found that style adverbs were the least used stance expressions in their corpus data.

However, there were differences in the choices of the undergraduate writers' use of stance adverbs. For the first year writers, they chose certainty adverbs, followed by attitude adverbs and likelihood adverbs. On the other hand, the final year writers preferred attitude adverbs, followed by certainty adverbs and likelihood adverbs.

In the following sentences, some examples of the different types of stance adverbs from the essays of both the first and final year undergraduate writers are presented.

Style Adverbs
Style adverbs were the most popular type of adverbs used to express the writers' stances by both groups of undergraduate writers. A possible explanation for this choice could be due to their intentions of sharing the same values and perceptions of the readers to promote interaction between the writers and readers. As Hyland (2005) points out, the purpose of writing does not only focus on the written product, but also on the social relations with the readers. The following are examples of style adverbs:

1. *Generally*, as humans, we choose to relax rather than studying.
2. *Nowadays*, Facebook has become one of the famous social networking in the world.

Certainty Adverbs
Certainty adverbs were also used in argumentative essays to show how the undergraduate writers expressed their certainty in what they conveyed to the readers. Examples of certainty adverbs are:

1. *Of course*, there is also some advantages by using Facebook.
2. Facebook is *certainly* outweighted the disadvantages of using it.

Likelihood Adverbs
The following examples show how both groups of the undergraduate writers made use of likelihood adverbs to express their uncertainty towards a proposition in a text. They are:

1. *Maybe* many people still do not believe how much role the Facebook has play in this century.
2. Young generation can *possibly* destroy their future if they don't use Facebook properly.

Attitude Adverbs

Lastly, the use of attitude adverbs in the undergraduate essays reflected the writers' emotive response in their stances towards some proposition. The undergraduate writers revealed their attitudes at different levels of disagreement and importance as shown in the following examples:

1. I am *strongly* disagree with the statement.
2. More *importantly*, coverage of Facebook is wide, even Americans or British may have a chance to know about your products.

Results of Argumentative Writing

This section reports on the results of argumentative essay writing of the first and final year undergraduate writers based on the use of IELTS writing band descriptors. This holistic rating scale describes ten bands of the users in writing, ranging from 0 (the lowest) to 9 (highest). For example, if a writer is given Band 6, he or she is considered as a competent user in writing who can present a relevant position (stance) supported with relevant ideas although some ideas may be inadequately developed. If a writer is given Band 5, he or she is considered as a modest writer who can express a position (stance) but is not always clear. He or she can present some main ideas but these are limited and not sufficiently developed. There may be irrelevant details in the ideas presented. If a writer is awarded band 4, he or she is considered as a limited user who can present a position (stance) but this position is unclear. He or she can present some main ideas but these are difficult to identify and the ideas may be repetitive, irrelevant or not well supported. Table 5 shows the results of the argumentative essays of the first and final year undergraduate writers.

Table 5. Results of argumentative essay writing
for first and final year undergraduate writers

Group	n	Mean	Sd	Significance (p)
First year	15	4.70	0.455	
				.000
Final year	15	5.47	0.481	

The results of an independent sample t-test showed that there is a significant difference in the results of the argumentative essays of both the first and final year undergraduate writers. The final year writers did better than the first year writers. Generally, the final year writers obtained a band of 5.5 for their essay writing whereas the first year writers obtained a band of 5. This finding indicates that the final year undergraduates are considered as modest to competent users of English in writing whereas the first year undergraduates are modest users. The academic writing experience over the years of study and exposure to the English language programme at the tertiary institution of the final year undergraduates may have assisted these undergraduate writers to demonstrate better writing as compared to the situation for the first year writers, who had not enrolled in any English courses at the point of this study.

This finding also reveal that the writers who did better in their essays used more lexico-grammatical features which helped to convey their personal feelings, attitudes, and judgments based on the topic of discussion. As stated by Biber, Johanson, Leech and Finegan (1999), many of the lexico-grammatical features in English are used to indicate the personal stance of a writer in terms of personal feelings, attitudes, judgments, or

assessments. In addition, the better writers showed their ability to use a variety of lexico-grammatical features when compared to the first year writers.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Knowledge of the most frequently used to the least frequently used lexico-grammatical features by the first and final year undergraduate writers can provide insights into understanding the learners' argumentative writing practices, particularly in stance-taking. This awareness can help ESL instructors to understand the learners' stance-taking behaviour in their argumentative essay writing. Further, instructors can use the data as a useful classroom resource. The less commonly used lexico-grammatical features can be emphasised to undergraduate writers to widen their choices of expressions. The types and meanings of the less used lexico-grammatical features should be explained to the writers so that they are able to apply these features in stance-taking according to the context. As Hinkel (2002) suggests, explicit teaching of language structures in the context of their discourse function is necessary for learners to notice the structures and their functions in authentic texts or excerpts from authentic texts.

This study also showed the importance of lexico-grammatical features in academic writing, particularly in argumentative writing. Appropriate use of lexico-grammatical features could have contributed to the better performance of the final year undergraduate writers as shown by the results. The academic experience and exposure at the tertiary institution of the final year undergraduates may have contributed to more and better use of lexico-grammatical features in their argumentative writing as compared to the situation for the first year writers. This finding is consistent with the finding from a study that compared more skilled writers and less skilled writers (Saddler & Graham, 2007). Saddler and Graham found that the more skilled writers were able to perform better in their writing due to their writing knowledge. There was a statistically significant correlation between the quality of their stories and knowledge of substantive and production procedures. No statistically significant correlations were observed between less skilled writers' knowledge and their writing performance. The knowledge of the less skilled writers is poorly integrated, thus limiting the impact of its application. Therefore, there is a need to promote the development of writing knowledge, in this case, the knowledge of stance-taking expressions among inexperienced writers.

While this study is able to illustrate some patterns of the use of lexico-grammatical features by the undergraduate writers, future studies can use larger samples which can give better generalizations of the results. In addition, future research can focus on corpus analysis using concordance software for more accurate results. According to Barlow (2003, p. 9) who has developed a concordance software, MonoConc Pro 2.2, the use of a software allows a corpus to be analyzed "to reveal formal patterns, particularly those which cannot be perceived easily in the linear stream of written or spoken text".

REFERENCES

Ai, H. (2012). The expression of stance in Mandarin Chinese: A corpus-based study of stance adverbs. *International Journal of Asian Language Processing, 22*(1), 1-14.

Barlow, M. (2003). *Concordancing and corpus analysis using MP 2.2*. Houston: Athelstan.

Biber, D. (2006). Stance in spoken and written university registers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 5*(2), 97-116.

Biber, D., & Finegan, E. (1988). Adverbial stance types in English. *Discourse Processes, 11*(1), 1-34.

Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., & Finegan, E. (1999). *Longman grammar of spoken and written English*. London: Longman.

Chandrasegaran, A., & Kong, K. M. C. (2006). Stance-taking and stance-support in students' online forum discussion. *Linguistics and Education*, *17*(4), 374-390.

Conrad, S., & Biber, D. (2000). Adverbial marking of stance in speech and writing. In S. Hunston & G. Thompson (Eds.), *Evaluation in text: Authorial stance and the construction of discourse* (pp.56-73). New York: Oxford University Press.

Du Bois, J. W. (2007). The stance triangle. In R. Englebreston (Ed.), *Subjectivity, evaluation, Interaction* (pp. 139-182). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). *An introduction to functional grammar.* (2nd. ed.). London: Edward Arnold.

Hinkel, E. (2002). *Second language writers' text: Linguistic and rhetorical features*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Hood, S. (2004). *Appraising research: Taking a stance in academic writing* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Faculty of Education, University of Technology, Sydney.

Hunston, S. (1995). A corpus study of some English verbs of attribution. *Functions of Language, 2*(2), 133-158.

Hunston, S., & Thompson, G. (2000). *Evaluation in text: Authorial stance and the construction of discourse*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Hyland, K. (1996). Writing without conviction? Hedging in science research articles. *Applied Linguistics, 17*(1), 432-454.

Hyland, K. (1998). *Hedging in scientific research articles*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Hyland, K. (1999). Disciplinary discourses: Writer stance in research articles. In C. Candlin & K. Hyland (Eds.), *Writing texts: Processes and practices*. London: Longman.

Hyland, K. (2001). Humble servants of the discipline? Self-mention in research articles. *English for Specific Purposes*, *20*(3), 207-226.

Hyland, K. (2002). Activity and evaluation: Reporting practices in academic writing. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic Discourse* (pp. 99-121). New York: Longman.

Hyland, K. (2004). *Disciplinary interactions: Metadiscourse in L2 postgraduate writing*. Retrieved from http://www.sciencedirect.com.

Hyland, K. (2005). Stance and engagement: A model of interaction in academic discourse. *Journal of Discourse Studies, 7*(2), 173-192.

Jaffe, A. (2009). Introduction: The sociolinguistics of stance. In A. Jaffe (Ed.), *Stance: Sociolinguistic perspectives*. Oxford: Oxford Universtiy Press.

Martin, J.R., & White, P.R.R. (2005). *The language of evaluation: Appraisal in English*. London: Palgrave.

Neff-van Aertselaer, J. A., & Dafouz-Milne, E. (2008). Argumentation patterns in different languages: An analysis of metadiscourse markers in English and Spanish texts. In M. Putz & J. A. Neff-van Aertselaer (Eds.), *Developing contrastive pragmatics: Interlanguage and cross-cultural perspectives* (pp.87-102). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Phuang, D. P. (2008). Research article abstracts in applied linguistics and educational technology: A study of linguistic realizations of rhetorical structure and authorial stance. *Discourse Studies, 10*(2*)*, 231-250.

Saddler, B., & Graham, S. (2007). The relationship between writing knowledge and writing performance among more and less skilled writers. *Reading and Writing Quarterly, 23*(3), 231-247.

Shannon, S. L. (2011). *A guide to academic and scholarly writing*. Florida: Baldwin Book Publishing.

Thompson, G., & Ye, Y. (1991). Evaluation in the reporting verbs used in academic papers. *Applied Linguistics*, *12*(4)*,* 365-382.

Ting, S., & Chai, A. (2013). Textual and language features of students' written discussion text. *Issues in Language Studies, 2*(2), 67-81.

Ting, S., & Tee, P. (2008). TESL undergraduates' ability to handle academic text-types at University Malaysia Sarawak. *Asiatic, 2*(2), 85-100

GENDER DIFFERENCES IN USING TOPICS AND FORMS OF COMPLIMENT AMONG JORDANIAN STUDENTS IN MALAYSIA

Mohammad Yahya Al-Rousan[1], Norsimah Mat Awal[2], Khazriyati Salehuddin[3]
School of Language Studies and Linguistics
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia
e-mail: mohammed.alrosan@yahoo.com[1]; norsimah@ukm.my[2];
khazudin@ukm.my[3]

ABSTRACT
This study was conducted to examine the speech act of compliment among Jordanians residing in Malaysia. It aims to explore the forms of compliments, and the differences in using compliments in different gender group among Jordanians. The corpus of the current research consists of 132 compliments collected from eight participants through an ethnographic method during the holy month *Ramaddan* and *Eid al Fitri*. The data were analyzed in terms of the strategies, topics and syntax of the compliments. The findings of this study revealed that the forms of compliments differ by gender. The most frequent compliments occurred in interactions within the same gender than between opposite genders. Females paid more compliments than males. While almost half of the compliments were given between females and almost one third of the compliments between males, only few compliments were given between the opposite genders. Women gave compliments the most on appearance whereas men paid more compliments on personality, possession and children. The present study shows that traditional Islamic values play an important role in complimenting behavior among Jordanians.

Keywords: compliment, forms, functions, gender, Jordanian society, speech act.

INTRODUCTION
The essential component of any interaction is politeness. People behave and talk politely in order to show respect and to be respected at the same time. Politeness is a vital part of social reality and is more than just a question of formality and routine. Compliment is an aspect of daily relation in a person's life which has become embedded in our daily life. Speech act of compliment is one of the many possible politeness devices. According to Brown & Levinson (1987) and Holmes (1995), speech act of compliment is considered one of the most obvious positive politeness strategies.

Prior to the 1950s, when the traditional Islamic values were the basic socio-cultural rules in Jordan, the concept of the "evil eye" was pervasive among Jordanians. The evil eye, which refers to the possibility of someone to "project harm by looking at another's property or person" (Maloney, 1976, p. V) became part of the beliefs among most Arabs. The evil eye "relates to the fear of envy in the eye of the beholder" and it particularly is dangerous to children, attractive people (Spooner, 1976, p. 77-80), and a big families. For example, in a situation when one compliments a mother on her beautiful child, the complimenter is believed to be able to cause harm to the child. To avoid the effect of the evil eye, the complimenter seeks Allah's help by saying *ma sha' allah* 'the grace of Allah be upon you' (Nelson, Bakary & Batal, 1993), or *Allah yehfadha* "May Allah keep (the project of compliment)", or *salatalaannabi* ' Peace be upon the prophet', or *Tabarak Allah* 'Allah bless you'. Such invocations are recommended in the Quran,

where Muslims are ordered to "take refuge with the lord of the daybreak, ….from the evil eye of an envier when he envies." (Surah al Falaq, verse 6). The evil eye is most likely to correlate with the complimenting behavior of older generation of Arabs.

As in the case of many cultures, Jordanian men and women seem to use compliments differently (for Yemeni Arabic: Qanber, 2012; Singaporean Chinese: Lee, 2009; New Zealand English: Holmes, 1988a; American English: Parisi & Wogan, 2006; Herbert, 1989). For example, compared to men, women tend to 1) give more compliments (e.g., Parisi & Wogan, 2006; Wolfson & Manes, 1980; Holmes, 1988), 2) praise appearance in higher percentage (c.f., 1988; Nelson et al., 1993), and 3) use more personal references and intensifier as a means of expressing reverence (c.f., Herbert, 1990, Johnson & Roen, 1992). In addition, many languages use cross-gender compliments more often than compliments between members of the same sex. Migdadi (2003) showed in his results that there are differences between Jordanian males and females in using compliments. In Jordanian society, however, compliments between sexes are expected to be more restricted because traditional Arab Islamic societies, Jordan among them, limit intimate communication including complimenting between men and women.

Speech Act of Compliment

Complimenting as a speech act has been classified under the expressive category of the speech acts. According to Austin's (1962), and Searle's (1969) theory, Cohen (1996) categorizes five categories of speech acts based on the functions assigned to them:

Representatives	Directives	Expressives	Comissives	Declaratives
assertions	suggestions	apologies	promises	decrees
claims	requests	complaint compliments	threats	declarations
reports	commands	thanks	offers	

Hatch (1994) defines compliment as an expression carrying a positive assessment by speaker to the addressee. Matsuoka (2003) maintains that compliments are an "intricate combination of positive evaluation, displayed good feelings, implicit friendliness, and half-admitted desire to please (p.1)."

Some researchers have graded the significant functions of compliments. For example, Hatch (1994), ordered the significant functions of compliment into four: First, to create relationship and to ease the shifting from greeting to the first topics; second to promote and motivate individuals, in the manner trainer compliments his team to motivate them; third as a form of tool for thanking;, and fourth to ease criticism.

Wolfson (1981) categorized compliment topics into three categories: 1. Appearance/possession, which is the most frequent in American English; 2. Performance/skills/abilities, which was later found by Herbert (1990) as a topic that is given by men; and 3. Personality trait, which Holmes (1988a) found as the least used compliment topic.

Research Questions
1. What do Jordanian students in Malaysia compliment each other on?
2. What is the most frequent structural form of compliment among Jordanian students in Malaysia?
3. How does gender influence the choice of compliment forms among Jordanian students in Malaysia?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Studies on speech act of compliment concerning cultures have previously been conducted. Most studies have been conducted from different perspectives, namely from cross-cultural perspectives (Farghal, 2006; Barnlund & Araki, 1985), and from ESL perspective (Nelson et al., 1993; Qu & Li-ying, 2005).

Speech act of compliment have been considered as extremely gendered (Qanber, 2012; Holmes 1995; Lee, 2009; Parisi & Wogan, 2006; Eckert & McConnell-Ginet 2003; Herbert, 1990). Such a claim is made because those studies found that the speech act of compliment is more common among female than among males. To illustrate, Holmes (1995), for example, found that females use compliments more than their counterpart while women gave 68% and received 74% of all compliments, and she stated that compliments between males were uncommon, and only 9% of the compliments were used between males. Overall, men received considerably fewer compliments than women (26%). Many earlier investigation are in line with Holmes's. Findings in studies on the American society by Wolfson (1983, 1984) and Manes (1983), for example, showed that males give compliments less than females. This finding is especially true with regard to compliments on appearance. Manes (1983) explained:

> In our society it is assumed that women are concerned about appearance, both their own and others … Compliment of this sort is more than just a reflection of the importance of personal appearance for women in our society: they are a means of reinforcing that importance (p. 98).

Nelson et al., (1993) studied complimenting behaviors of people in Egypt and America. They made a comparison between Egyptian Arabic and American English in terms of topics and forms of compliments, with gender as a social variable. (Nelson et al, 1993) found that the Egyptians used long compliments and they employed similes and metaphor in their compliments. (Nelson et al., 1993) also found that Egyptian females focused on appearance in their compliments, while both Egyptian and American males pay more compliments on skill and work rather than any other topics.

Wolfson (1984) also attributes women's frequent use of more compliments on appearance to sex role. He explains that the frequent use of compliments among females is referred to the social role. To illustrate that, in the American culture, women are expected to be attractive, whereas men, on the hand, are more concerned about accomplishment and ability.

Holmes (1995) found that the percentage of compliments on appearance was 61% among New Zealand women, while the percentage on appearance was39% among New Zealand men. She found that among men, compliments on possession were most used form of compliments. Parisi & Wogan (2006) support Holmes' (1995) argument, as their study revealed that gender has a major effect in the use of compliment topics. Their studies show that while the focus of compliments by males on females was mainly on appearances, the focus of compliments by females on men was mainly on skills rather than appearance. Lee (2009), on the other hand, revealed that the most compliments occurred between married women. Lee's research also found that there are differences in compliment functions between the western and the Chinese culture. While compliments occur in the western culture to create solidarity, in the Chinese culture, compliments occur to increase social distance.

Studies on compliments have also been conducted in the Arab world, particularly by Qanber (2012) and Migdadi (2003). Qanber (2012) found that there are differences in using compliments among Yemenis based on gender. Females used compliment more

than males; and she added that compliments between females were on appearance while men focused more on personal traits. In addition, Migdadi's (2003) study indicates that there are differences regarding gender in the use of compliments in Jordanian Arabic. While females concentrate their compliments on appearance using explicit compliment, exclamatory syntactic patterns, and compliment plus explanation, males focused on possession.

Correlations of age with the compliment event have received less emphasis than social variables such as gender and social status. The findings of Knapp, Hopper and Bell (1984), for example, indicate that the speaker's age interacts with the topics and syntactic patterns of compliments. Younger interlocutors (i.e., 30 years or less) tended to pay more compliments on appearance, but older speakers (i.e., 31 years and more) were more likely to compliment people on performance or personality. The younger interlocutors use more syntactic forms than the older interlocutors. Yuan (1998) addressed the relationship between the use of compliment or compliment responses and the age of a group of Chinese people in Kumming. Lee's (2009) study demonstrated that age plays central role in speaker's choice of different types of compliments/compliment responses. For instance, younger generation used more indirect compliments and made more requests of interpretations in their compliment responses than older generation. They used fewer explanations in their compliments. Interestingly, among Jordanians, Migdadi (2003) found that the older generation of Jordanian people do not use compliments as much as younger generation do. He also found that older generation used more Islamic invocations such as *Ma sha' Allah* in compliment rather than the youth generation.

METHODOLOGY

Obtaining natural data has the advantage to reflect the real use of language. Many researchers supported the participant observation technique to be implemented in speech act studies and they describe it as the best way to collect natural data (Labov, 1972; Hymes, 1974; Wolfson, 1983). The authentic data come from observing the language of the people while they are not aware of being watched (Labov, 1972). Wolfson (1983, p.95) believes that "ethnographic research is the only reliable method about the way speech act function in interaction".

The subjects of this study were eight postgraduate students from Jordan (four males, four females) who were living and studying in Malaysia. They were randomly invited to participate in this study. The researcher lives and studies in Malaysia. He has chosen the holy month Ramadhan and Eid al Fitri as the setting for collecting compliments as it is the most important period among Jordanian students in Malaysia because they have the habit to gather every day in Ramadhan and Eid al Fitri in different places and also because in the Jordanian culture the occasions of the holy month Ramadhan and Eid al Fitri are governed by certain conventions, exchanging compliments is one of them. The conventional setting helps us understand the functions of compliments better.

The period of the data collection was 23 days and the data collection was conducted on the last 20 days of the holy month of Ramadhan and the three days of the Eid al Fitri. The method of data collection was through note-taking techniques. The researcher used his notebook and wrote down what he identified as compliments from the Jordanian students during their gathering in holy month Ramadhan and Eid al Fitri. Before administering the observation, the researcher asked the subject's permission to collect data from them and he explained to the subjects that he was conducting a research concerning conversations among Jordanians in Malaysia. The corpus of this study

consists of 132 naturally occurring compliment exchanges during the holy month Ramaddan and Eid al Fitri period collected from the 8 participants all of them Arabic native speakers.

DATA ANALYSIS

Topics

Many studies (Lees, 2009; Qanber, 2012; Migdadi, 2003; Parisi & Wogan, 2006) showed that the compliments topics can be divided into only four categories: namely appearance, skill, personality, and possession. The current study, however, found that there were five categories of compliment topics among Jordanians in Malaysia. The fifth category is children. The following are examples for each category:

1) Appearance

   لبستك حلوه كثير

   e.g. lebstak ra'iah ktiir

   suit-your- (Male) unique very

   "your suit is very unique"

2) Skill

   يا الله ما ازكى ريحة الكيك والله انة بشهي

   e.g. Ya Allah ma azka rehet el cake, wallah eno beshahi ktiir

   Oh God what nice smell the cake, by God that is delicious very

   "The smell of your cake is nice, I swear it is very delicious"

3) Personality

   انت زلمه كتير منيح

   e.g. enta zalameh ktiir mneeh

   you man very good

   "You are a very good man"

4) Possessions

   عن جد سيارتك حلوه بالصلاة علي النبي

   e.g. Anjad siartak helwah bel salat ala el nabi

   In reality car-your nice in pray on the prophet

   "Really, your car is nice, peace be upon the prophet"

5) Children

   ابنك مؤدب كثير ما شاء الله عليه

   e.g. ebnak mu'adab ktiir. ma sha' Allah aliah

   son-your polite very grace of Allah on him

   "Your son is very polite. The grace of Allah be upon him"

Table 1: Topics of compliments among the Jordanian respondents

	Topics	Frequency (%)
1.	Appearance	66 (50%)
2.	Skill	26 (19.6%)
3.	Personality	13 (9.8%)
4.	Possession	17 (12.8%)
5.	Children	10 (7.5)

Table 1shows that appearance is the most common compliment topic among the eight Jordanians investigated in Malaysia, which was 50% of the collected compliments. The second most common compliment topic was skill 19.6%, followed by possession 12.8%, personality (9.8%) and children (7.5%).

Strategies

Many researchers (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 1989; Herbert; 1990; Boyle, 2000) stated that there are two main compliments strategies – *implicit/direct and explicit/indirect*- that are often differentiated. Implicit compliments correspond to indirect speech acts and explicit compliments correspond to direct speech acts.

Both explicit and implicit complements were found in the current study. The explicit compliments contain positive semantic carriers that directly serve compliments in the forms of verbs, adjectives and nouns. For example,

1) Verbs

عجبتني تسريحتك الحلوة

e.g. ajbtne ktiir tasrehtak el helwah

impress-it.-me very hairstyle-your the nice

"I like you hairstyle very much"

2) Adjectives

نظارتك حلوة كثير

e.g. nadartak helwa ktiir

sunglasses-your pretty very

"your sunglasses are very nice"

3) Nouns

يا رجل شو هالحلاوة

e.g. Ya rajool sho hal halawah

oh man what this handsomeness

"Oh, man, what is this handsomeness?"

On the other hand, implicit compliments are remarks which, though allowing other interpretations, can often be interpreted as having a complimentary function.

e.g. wallah ele beshoofak el yoom begool arees

والله الي بشوفك اليوم بقول عريس

By God who see-you-(Male) today say-you-are groom

"By God, whoever sees you today would say that you are a groom"

e.g. elii beshofak w beshof ebnak behkii eno akhok

الي بشوفك وبشوف ابنك بحكي انو اخوان

who see you and see your son say that brother
"who could see you and see your son would say that he is your brother"

Table 2: Tabulation of Frequency and percentage
of Compliment Strategies among the Jordanian respondents

	Strategies	Frequency (%)
1.	Explicit	106 (80.3%)
2.	Implicit	26 (19.7%)

The table above demonstrates that 80.3% of the compliments were explicit compliments, while only 19.7% of the compliments were implicit compliments.

Syntax
Six syntactic patterns were identified in this study:

1) noun phrase + adjective + (intensifier)
شعرك بجنن كثير
Sha'rak bejann ktiir
Hair-your beautiful very
"Your hair is very beautiful"

2) Ayesh 'what' + pronoun + noun phrase
ايش هالحلاوة
Ayesh hal halawah
What this-the handsomeness
"What is this handsomeness?"

3) Noun phrase + verb phrase
هاي البسه بتجنن كتير
Hay el labsah bithaliki ktiir
This the-suit make-beautiful-you very
"This suit makes you very beautiful"

4) Ma sha' allah + noun phrase (adjective)
ما شاء الله يا هل بنت بتجنن
Ma sha' Allah ya hal benet btjann
What God wanted oh this-the-girl pretty
"The grace of Allah be upon her, she is pretty"

5) Ma 'what' + adjective + noun phrase
يا الله ما احلى الطقس
Ya Allah ma ahla el taqes
Oh God what beautiful the weather
" Oh God, The weather is beautiful"

6) Noun phrase + zay\Mithel (like) + noun phrase
بجنن كثير والله مثل الوردة
Bejann kteer . wallah mithel el wardeh
Handsome very. By God like the rose
"(The little boy) is very handsome. By God he is like a rose"

Table 3: Tabulation of Frequency and percentage of the most common syntactic patterns in compliments

Syntactic patterns	Frequency/%
NP + Adj + (int.)	25 (18.9%)
Ayesh 'what' + PRO + NP	21 (15.9%)
NP + VP	14 (10.6%)
Ma sha' Allah + NP (Adj)	27 (20.4%)
Ma 'what' + Adj + NP	21(15.9%)
NP + zay\Mithel + NP	18 (13.6%)
Others 7	6 (4.5%)

This study found differences in percentage of the syntactic patterns. The most frequent pattern is Ma sha' Allah + NP (Adj) which accounted for 20% of the collected compliments. While least frequent pattern is NP + zay\Mithel + NP, accounting for 13% of the compliments. This result proved that Jordanian compliments are not limited for number of syntactic patterns as in case of other studies.

Social variable

This section discusses the effect of gender on topics, strategies and syntax when giving compliments.

Gender

The table below displays the differences in giving compliment among male (m) and female (f).

Table 8: Number of compliments by gender

Gender	Frequency (%)
f-f	68 (51.5%)
m-f	9 (6.8%)
f-m	12 (9%)
m-m	43 (32.5)

The table above shows that females paid more compliments than males, while 51.5% of the compliments were given between females and 32.5% of the compliments between males, while only 9% of compliments were from females to males and 6.8% of compliments were from males to females. It also shows that the most frequent compliments occurred in interactions within the same gender (84%) than between opposite genders. In total, 80 compliments were provided by female speakers and 52 were given by Male speakers.

Table 9. Number of compliment topics by gender

Topics	f-f	m-f	f-m	m-m	Total
Appearance	38(28.7%)	1(0.75%)	4(3%)	23(17.4%)	66(50%)
Skill	12(9%)	5(3.7%)	4(3%)	5(3.7%)	26(19.7%)
Personality	5(3.7%)	1(0.75%)	1(0.75%)	6(4.5%)	13(9.8%)
Possession	10(7.5%)	0	2(1.5%)	5(3.7%)	17(12.8%)
Children	3(2.2%)	2(1.5%)	1(0.75%)	4(3%)	10(7.5%)

From the above table, it is clear that the Jordanian male speakers placed more emphasis on personality and children when they interact among the same gender and with opposite gender. Jordanian female speakers, on the other hand, focused on appearance, skill and possession in their interactions with same gender and opposite gender. Both male and female score almost the same with personality, 6 for female and 7 for male.

Strategies

Table 10: Number of compliment strategies by participants by gender

Strategies	Male	Female	Total
Explicit	44 (33.4%)	62 (47%)	106 (80.3%)
Implicit	8 (6%)	18 (13.6)	26 (19.7%)

The table above illustrates that both males and females use explicit compliments more than implicit compliments. 80% of the compliments were explicit and 20% of compliments were implicit. The explicit compliments used by females were 47% while 33% of compliments were used by males.

Syntax

Table 12: Number of syntactic patterns by gender

Syntactic patterns	Male	Female	Total
NP + Adj + (int.)	6 (4.5%)	19 (14.4%)	25 (19%)
Ayesh 'what' + PRO + NP	11 (8.3%)	10 (7.5%)	21 (16%)
NP + VP	5 (3.7%)	9 (6.8%)	14 (10.6%)
Ma sha' Allah+ NP (Adj)	15 (11.3%)	12 (9%)	27 (20.4%)
Ma 'what' + Adj + NP	4 (3%)	17 (12.8%)	21 (16%)
NP+ zay\Mithel+ NP	10 (7.5%)	8 (6%)	18 (13.6%)
Other 7	1 (0.75%)	5 (3.7%)	6 (4.5%)

The table above shows that the most frequent pattern by females is NP+Adj+(int.), and the most frequent pattern by males is (Ma sha' Allah + NP (Adj)). Male speakers preferred Masha' Allah + NP (Adj), Ayesh 'what' + PRO + MP and NP + zay/Mithel + NP while female speakers tend to employ NP + Adj + (int.) + Ma 'what' + Adj + NP

DISCUSSION

The aims of the current research were to identify what Jordanian students compliment each other on, to identify the most frequent structural forms of compliment used by Jordanian students residing in Malaysia and to determine how gender influences the choice of compliment forms. The results of 132 compliments are discussed in the subsequent paragraphs.

The most frequent compliment topic among the Jordanians in Malaysia was appearance. This is similar to findings among American English (Manes, 1983), and New Zealand English (Holmes, 1988a). Numerous studies revealed that women compliment on appearance more than any other topics (Qanber, 2012; Holmes 1995; Lee, 2009; Parisi & Wogan, 2006; Eckert & McConnell-Ginet 2003; Herbert, 1990). The current study supports previous studies, as Jordanian women in Malaysia gave compliments the most on appearance whereas their male counterpart gave compliments on skills and personality more than appearance.

There are two main compliments strategies: explicit/direct and implicit/indirect compliments (Japanese: Adachi, 2011; Chinese: Lee, 2009; Jordanian Arabic: Migdadi, 2003; Egyptian Arabic: Nelson et al., 1993; Polish: Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 1989). Both explicit and implicit compliments were found in the current study. The result above shows that the vast majority of the compliments were explicit compliments. This high percentage of explicit compliments is attributed to the solidarity function of compliments in Jordanian Arabic. Both genders used explicit compliments more than implicit compliments. It appears that Jordanians in Malaysia prefer to use compliment directly more than indirectly.

Many researchers point out that compliments are syntactically formulaic in many languages (Holmes, 1988a; Herbert, 1990; Wolfson & Manes, 1980; Nelson et al., 1993; Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 1989). This is also true about the compliments produced by Jordanians in Malaysia. For example, in the current study 6 syntactic patterns were identified. It shows in the result that women used more syntactic patterns than men.

It is also interesting to find that more than half of the compliments belong to females, which shows that complimenting is mostly women's behavior. The result proved that the most frequent compliments occurred in interactions within the same gender than between opposite. In contrast, American and New Zealand data (see Manes, 1983; Holmes, 1988a) respectively revealed high frequencies of compliments between people of different sexes. Manes (1983) and Holmes (1988a) studies also appear that females paid more compliments than males. The high frequency of females in using compliments supports the findings of many of the previous studies (Wolfson, 1983; Lee, 2009; Sifianou, 2001, Qanber, 2012). This is because, women consider compliments as a positive device to build a good relationship, while men may consider compliments as embarrassing or a Face Threatening Act (Holmes, 1988b, 1984; Wolfson & Manes, 1980). In the Jordanian society, however, compliments between sexes are restricted because the traditional Arab Islamic societies prohibit intimate communication between men and women, and this includes complimenting between men and women.

CONCLUSION

The main aim of this study was to examine the differences in using compliments among Jordanian people in Malaysia. The data were collected from a specific setting governed by specific occasion of Behavior the holy month (Ramadhan) and Eid al Fitri. The findings revealed that speakers of the same sex exchanged compliments more than speakers of different sex. Females tended to focus on appearance in their compliments,

while men are more likely to give compliment on skills and personality. Males used more blessing in their syntactic patterns than females. Both sexes used explicit compliment rather than implicit compliments. Finally, it can be concluded that Jordanian students in Malaysia differ in using the topics and the forms compliments regarding gender.

Lastly, the current study has its limitation. Due to inadequate sample size the research was not able to make generalization across the entire population of Jordanian Arabic speakers

REFERENCES

Adachi, C. (2011). *A sociolinguistic investigation of compliments and compliment responses among young Japanese* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Edinburgh.

Austin, J. L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Barnlund, D., & Araki, S. (1985). Intercultural encounters: The management of compliments by Japanese and Americans. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 16*(1), 9-26.

Boyle, R. (2000) 'You've worked with Elizabeth Taylor': Phatic functions and implicit compliments. *Applied Linguistics, 21*(1), 26-46.

Brown, P. & Levinson, S. (1987). *Politeness: some universals in language usage.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cohen, A. (1996). Speech acts. In S. McKay & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language teaching* (pp.383-420). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Eckert, P., & McConnel-Ginet, S. (2003). *Language and gender*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Farghal, M. (2006). Compliment behaviour in Bilingual Kwaiti college students. *International Journal of Bilingual Education & Bilingualism*, *9*(1), 94-118.

Hatch, E. (1994). *Discourse and language education*. Los Angeles: Cambridge University Press.

Herbert, R. K. (1989). The ethnography of English compliments and compliments responses: A contrastive sketch. In W. Olesky (Ed.), *Contrastive pragmatics* (pp. 3-35). Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Herbert, R. K. (1990). Sex-based differences in compliment behavior. *Language in Society, 19*(2), 201-224.

Holmes, J. (1988a). Compliments and compliment responses in New Zealand English. *Anthropological Linguistics, 28*(4), 485-508.

Holmes, J. (1988b). Paying compliments: A sex-preferential politeness strategy. *Journal of Pragmatics, 12*(4), 445-465.

Holmes, J. (1995). *Women, men and politeness*. London: Longman.

Hymes, D. (1974). Ways of speaking. In R. Bauman & J. Sherzer (Eds.), *Explorations in the Ethnography of Speaking* (pp. 433-51). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Johnson, M. D., & Roen, D. H. (1992). Complimenting and involvement in peer reviews: Gender variation. *Language in Society, 21*(1), 27-57.

Knapp, M., Hopper, R., & Bell, R. (1984). Compliments: A descriptive taxonomy. *Journal of Communication, 34*(4), 12-31.

Labov, W. (1972). *Sociolinguistic Patterns*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Lee, C. (2009). Compliments and responses during Chinese New Year celebration. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *19*(4), 519-541.

Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, B. (1989). Praising and complimenting. In W. Oleksy (Ed.), *Contrastive Pragmatics* (pp. 73-100). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Maloney, C. (1976). *The evil eye*. New York: Columbia University Press.

Manes, J. (1983). Compliments: A mirror of cultural values. In: N. Wolfson & E. Judd (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language acquisition* (pp. 96-102). Rowley: Newbury House.

Matsuoka, R. (2003). Gender variation in explicitness of proffering compliments. *Proceedings of the 2nd Annual JALT Pan-SIG Conference*. Kyoto, Japan. Retrieved from http://jalt.org/pansig/2003/HTML/Matsuoka.htm

Migdadi, F. (2003). *Complimenting in Jordanian Arabic: A socio-pragmatic analysis*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Ball State University, India.

Mendoza-Denton, N. (2008). Home girls: Language and cultural practice among Latina youth gangs. Malden: Wiley-Blackwell

Nelson, G., Bakary, W. E., & Batal, M. A. (1993). Egyptian and American compliments: A cross-cultural study. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 17*(3), 293-313.

Parisi, C., & Wogan, P. (2006). Compliment topics and gender. *Women and Language, 29*(2), 21-28.

Qanber, N. (2012). Compliments in the Yemeni society: A Sociolinguistic perspective. *GEMA Journal of Language Studies, 12*(3), 999-1017.

Qu, J., & Li-Ying, W. (2005). Pragmatic transfer in compliment responses by Chinese learners of English. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 2(12), 64-74.

Searle, J. R. (1969). *Speech Acts*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sifianou, M. (2001) "Oh, how appropriate" compliment and politeness. In A. Bayraktaroğlu & M. Sifianou (Eds.), *Linguistic politeness across boundaries: The case of Greek and Turkish* (pp. 391-430). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Spooner, B. (1976). The evil eye in the Middle East. In C. Maloney (Ed.), *The evil eye* (pp.76-84). New York: Columbia University Press.

Tang, C., & Zhang, G. (2009). A contrastive study of compliment responses among Australian English and Mandarin Chinese speakers. *Journal of Pragmatics, 41*(2), 325-345.

Wolfson, N. (1981). Invitations, compliments and the competence of the native speaker. *International Journal of Psycholinguistics, 24*(4), 7-22.

Wolfson, N. (1983). An empirically based analysis of complimenting in American English. In N. Wolfson & E. Judd (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and Language Acquisition.* Rowley Mass: Newbury House.

Wolfson, N. (1984). Pretty is as pretty does. A speech act view of sex roles. *Applied Linguistics, 5*(3), 236-244.

Wolfson, N., & Manes, J. (1980). The compliment as a social strategy. *International Journal of Human Communication, 13*(3), 391-410.

Yuan, Y. (1998). *Sociolinguistics of the compliment event in southwestern Mandarin spoken in Kumming*, *China.* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Indiana University.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY AND ORAL PERFORMANCE AMONG UNDERGRADUATE ESL LEARNERS

Sarah Syazana Baharuddin[1], Sabariah Md Rashid[2]
*Department of English Languange. Faculty of Modern Language and
Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia.*
e-mail: sarahsyazana@upm.edu.my[1]; smrashid@upm.edu.my[2]

ABSTRACT
Feelings of anxiety, apprehension and nervousness are common problems voiced out by second or foreign language learners in acquiring the speaking skills in a second or foreign language. Such feelings are said to have a potentially negative and debilitating effect on oral performance. This study aimed to examine the level of English language learning anxiety of undergraduate ESL learners, its causes and relationship with the learners' oral performance in English. This study employed both quantitative and qualitative approaches in data gathering. Data were collected via the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) questionnaire (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986), a structured interview, as well as class oral assessment tasks. Participants of the study comprised 70 undergraduate ESL learners of Universiti Putra Malaysia. Findings of the study revealed that the undergraduate ESL learners experienced a medium level of anxiety. English classroom anxiety, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety, were identified as factors that significantly contributed to the language anxiety experienced by the learners. The findings suggest that anxiety is a learner variable that needs to be minimised so as to enhance optimal learning of a target language.

Keywords: ESL learners, language learning anxiety, oral performance, undergraduate

INTRODUCTION
Successful language learning is influenced by a variety of factors, amongst which can be categorised as both cognitive such as aptitude and motivation, and affective factors, such as age, personality, and learning styles and strategies (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Among these factors, some such as aptitude are said to be rather fixed and very difficult to change, while others such as affect can be modified to enhance language learning. Although affect involves both individual factors that are part of the learner's personality as well as environmental or relational aspects, an individual's anxiety, a somewhat possible affective factor that most pervasively hinders the process of learning (Arnold & Brown, 1999). In fact, anxiety has been regarded as one of the most fundamental affective factors that influences the learning of a second language (Schmidt, Boraie & Kassabgy, 1996). In relation to performance, research has suggested a positive relationship between anxiety and performance (Khalid & Hasan, 2009; Tobias & Everson, 1997), and a debilitating effect of anxiety on learning and achievement (Humphries, 2011; Scovel, 1991; Tobias, 1980). In their seminal article, Horwitz and Cope (1986, p.128) conclude that language anxiety, which they define as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process", have an effect on students' performance and learning experiences in the classroom. Since then, research has focused on this issue, attempting to ascertain how the construct of anxiety is related to or affects foreign and

second language learning and performance in test and classroom conditions. This emphasis has been a widely examined topic, especially in the past several decades. Various studies have measured the degree of anxiety that language learners experienced, examined predicting factors, and even established correlations with other variables (Bailey, Onwuegbuzie, & Daley, 2000; Dörnyei, 2005; Gregersen, 2005; Hewitt & Stephenson, 2012; Horwitz, 1991; Matsuda & Gopel, 2004). Such studies have revealed a high level of anxiety among language learners and a positive relationship between anxiety and language learning. Noting this crucial role of anxiety in language learning, particularly the learning of English language, it is warranted to further examine the nature of anxiety in the English language classroom and its association with speaking performance carried out in this condition. The classroom, which is a familiar context and less threatening, may reveal different findings from those examined under test administration condition. Since anxiety can hinder performance and achievement, it, therefore, deserves a continuing investigation, in particular, with learners from different groups and backgrounds and in different contexts. If anxiety in the English classroom can be reduced, it will help minimise any feelings of apprehension and nervousness that may hinder students' learning or discourage them from further enhancing their knowledge of the language. In this light, various scholars have attempted to establish a firm theoretical foundation for determining the construct of anxiety associated with foreign language learning, its development and maintenance, together with its dimensions (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; 1991a; 1994). In this light, instruments were designed to measure general and skill-specific types of language learning anxiety (Horwitz et al, 1986; Perez-Parédes & Martínez-Sánchez, 2000-2001; Saito, Horwitz, & Garza, 1999) and also its contributory factors. Further studies related to anxiety and its causes are thus timely to give better insights into the nature of anxiety, its causes and its relationship with oral performance in English. In this vein, further research on the aspect of anxiety in language learning of university undergraduates in the classroom, its contributory factors, and the relationship between anxiety and speaking performance would contribute further to the existing state of knowledge on language learning anxiety, in general and specifically to the literature on its relationship to speaking performance as measured by classroom speaking assessment procedures.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The past two decades have witnessed an increasing number of research focusing on second language anxiety, which is related to the notable advances in the second language related anxiety theories and measurement since the mid-1980s (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Young, 1991a, 1991b; MacIntyre& Gardner, 1994; Horwitz, 2001). Coupled with this was the move in research emphasis from teachers to learners in second language acquisition and learning, and the consideration of affective factors such as attitude, motivation and anxiety in accounting for successful language learning outcomes. Anxiety, considered one of the most fundamental affective factors, has been extensively investigated since the1970s by many researchers. Brown (1973), Chastain (1975), and Scovel (1978) were among the pioneer scholars to highlight the fundamental and distinct role of anxiety, as an affective factor, albeit the various factors that have influenced foreign language learning.

Research with such focus during the 1970s, however, was insignificant in number and revealed inconclusive results. Such research continued to develop in the 1980s, (e.g., Daly, Vangelisti & Lawrence, 1989; Horwitz et al., 1986), and it was during this period that one study (Horwitzet et al., 1986) suggested that foreign language anxiety is different

from other anxieties. Subsequently, research grew tremendously with the landmark publication of Horwitz's and Young's *Language Anxiety: From Theory to Research to Classroom Applications* in 1991. This includes the work of Aida (1994), MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a; 1991b; 1994), Phillips (1992), Saito and Samimy (1996), and Aydin (2008), Williams and Andrade (2009), among many others. In relation to this, a negative relationship between language anxiety and achievement was reported by some researchers (Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999b) whereas no relationship or a positive relationship was reported by others (e.g., Scovel, 1978).

Besides the negative influence of language learning anxiety on language performance, anxiety has also, occasionally, been revealed to influence language learning in a positive manner (Madsen, 1982). Anxiety, in its facilitating forms, "motivates the learner to "fight" the new learning task; it prepares the learner emotionally for approach behaviour" (Scovel, 1991, p22).

In the early millennium, Horwitz (2001, p.121) reiterated that the issue of understanding the relationship between anxiety and achievement was still unclear. These inconclusive results were perhaps due to the complex nature of anxiety. Addressing this issue, Phillips (as cited in Shamas, 2006, p. 8) emphasised:"a comparison of the experimental research examining the relationship between anxiety and second language learning is, to a degree, perplexing, presenting some conflicting evidence and illustrating that anxiety is a complex, multi-faceted construct".

With the extensive research carried out since the 1970s, different researchers have investigated the issue of second or foreign language anxiety from different perspectives (Bailey, 1983; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Hewitt & Stephenson, 2012; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Young, 1990). In an earlier study, in his analyses of 11 learners' diaries, Bailey (1983) found that anxiety could have been caused by competitiveness among the learners. Apart from the students' tendency to do better than each other in gaining positive feedback from their teacher on their language learning development and competence, he further discovered that the learners' perceived relationship with their teacher and tests was a significant contributor to the learners' language anxiety.

Many scholars have also examined foreign language anxiety related to specific language skills, and have found that although a strong positive correlation between global foreign language anxiety and specific skills was observed, anxiety can be considered as distinctive constructs. Elkhafaifi (2005) supported this view based on his findings of a moderate correlation (a coefficient of 0.66) between foreign language anxiety and listening anxiety, indicating an approximately 56% of the variance that was not usual to the measures.

In a study conducted among 97 college students learning French, MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) found that those students with language anxiety had greater difficulty in voicing out their own opinions and tended to underrate their own abilities. In the process of the three stages of language acquisition, namely, input, processing and output, anxiety also had a negative correlation with learning achievement. (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). In the same vein, Campbell and Ortiz (1991) found an 'alarming' level of language anxiety among university students and estimated that debilitating levels of language anxiety was experienced by up to one half of all language students. Similar findings were noted in several more recent studies on language anxiety (Hewitt & Stephenson, 2012; Humphries, 2011; Liu & Jackson, 2008).

In another study among Indonesian EFL learners, Marwan (2007) investigated the Indonesian students' foreign language anxiety and the strategies used by them to cope with their anxiety. The findings of the study revealed that the students experienced a

certain level of anxiety in their language learning. Lack of confidence, lack of preparation and fear of failing were among the factors identified as the main reasons for their anxiety.

Given the need to learn a second language or foreign language, in particular, the English language, which is, currently the widely accepted global language, ESL or EFL learners strive to be competent in their communication skills in English. Such learners of English, nevertheless, often experience feeling stressful, nervous or anxious while attempting to acquire the speaking skills of English and claimed to suffer from a 'mental block' when learning English (Pappamihiel, 2002; Tanveer, 2007).This problem exists among ESL learners at various proficiency levels; a problem occurring even among nearly competent ESL learners in some English speaking contexts, both inside and outside of the classrooms. According to Swain and Burnaby (1976), a high negative correlation was observed between anxiousness and language performance, illustrating the occurrence of language anxiety, and its unfavourable effects on language learning and oral performance.

In a much earlier study of 272 first and second year Japanese university students in Japan by Caprio (1987), it was revealed that the student reacted negatively when being called on in class and asked to speak in English. In addition, females had more negative reactions than males in that context, which was, perhaps attributable to cultural factors in conjunction with their minority status in the groups studied. Similarly, in a study of a small number of Japanese university students in the United States conducted 15 years later (Hashimoto, 2002), anxiety was identified as exerting a strong influence on perceived oral ability and had a negative effect on the students' willingness to communicate.

In another related study, Pappamihiel (2002) examined language anxiety of 178 middle-school Mexican immigrant school students in the United States. The students were asked to respond to the English Language Anxiety Scale (a means of determining the correlation between levels of anxiety with various factors such as duration of stay in the US, degree of academic achievement, the four language skills and gender. The results of the study show that these students' levels of anxiety were somewhat elevated by their interaction with the Mexican students and that strategies such as avoidance was used to reduce anxiety.

In the same vein, in a survey of 115 Chinese high school students' anxiety, Na (2007) revealed that the students experienced high anxiety in learning English, and the feeling of anxiety was higher in male students than female. The high anxiety also had a debilitative role in the students' language learning, which resulted in them shying away from the assigned task to prevent further anxiety.

On a different stance, a survey on 243 Japanese university students in four English conversation classes in Japan revealed a frequent association between language anxiety and the output and processing stages of the language learning process (Williams & Andrade, 2008). The experience of anxiety was attributed to their teachers and classmates.

The review of various studies included in this paper points to the fact that anxiety, which is a negative emotions, is caused by various factors and may hinder the smooth progress of language learning, and in extreme cases may prevent a successful mastery of any target language. Several other causes have also been identified as possible contributing factors to language learning anxiety, which may hinder good language achievement. Considering such influence of anxiety on the learning of a language, further research is thus warranted to investigate the level of anxiety experienced by undergraduate ESL learners in English speaking classes. As pointed out earlier, further studies related to anxiety and the speaking classroom context would shed further light on

the level of anxiety experienced by the learners, its causes and relationship with oral performance in English. In this light, speaking performance has been claimed to be "extremely anxiety-provoking" (Price, 1991; Riasati, 2011) in comparison to the three other language skills, namely, listening, reading and writing. With this in mind, this study sought to examine the level of anxiety among the undergraduate ESL learners in the context of oral classroom and the causes of their anxiety. It also aimed to determine the relationship between learners' language learning anxiety and their oral performance, as measured by classroom assessment instruments.

METHODOLOGY

This study, which is a descriptive survey, also employed a correlational research design for the above stated objectives.

Participants

Using purposive sampling, seventy undergraduate ESL students, 32 male and 38 female from Universiti Putra Malaysia were involved in the study. Their age ranged between 20 to 24 years old. The participants were local students enrolled in an English proficiency course, with a focus on Oral Interaction Skills at the time the questionnaire was administered and the interview conducted. All of the students have taken the Malaysian University English Test (MUET) and their results are in the range of Bands 3and 4. For the interview, 6 participants were randomly selected based on their FLCAS scores (3 of high anxiety and 3 of low anxiety).

Data Collection

Data of the study were collected via several instruments. Firstly, an anxiety measure instrument, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986) was utilised to evaluate the respondents' nervousness and apprehension when using English as a second or foreign language receptively and productively in the classroom context. The scale was designed for this purpose based on the construct of foreign language classroom anxiety which is a composites of communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety.The FLCAS elicits data on the respondents' extent of agreement or their disagreement with statements about their learning experience in a second or foreign language classroom. It comprises 33 statements, and each statement is followed by a five Likert-type response options. Respondents are required to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with each statement by choosing one of the response options from 'strongly agree' (S) to 'strongly disagree' (SD). All the statements are reflective of the four dimensions of foreign language classroom anxiety construct. To date, the FLCAS has been administered in numerous related studies and has demonstrated reliability, achieving test-retest reliability ($r = 0.83$, $p = 0.001$).

The second set of instrument comprised two class oral performance tasks that assess the undergraduate students' speaking performance, namely, a role play and an oral presentation. The first task, the role play was a communicative, one-to-one interaction between two individuals whereby each pair of students was assigned a role in a given situation, such as a mutual discussion or a conversation between two friends on campus. Each pair of students was given 2 to 3 minutes to prepare their responses to the given situation and each role play session lasted 10 to 15 minutes. The second, the oral presentation is a group task, which required the students in each group to present their findings of a survey on a chosen topic. The students' performance scores in the oral

presentation were used as the second measure of their oral performance. For this assessment, the students were graded based on four criteria, content, language, delivery and task fulfilment. The students' total scores obtained from the two tasks were then calculated as an overall measure of their oral performance. For the qualitative phase of the study, open-ended interview questions were adapted from Tanveer (2007), focusing on the potential causes of foreign language classroom anxiety. Each interview session lasted approximately 15 to 20 minutes.

Data Collection Procedures

The data collection procedures were done in several stages. The first stage was the administration of the FLCAS questionnaires, which were administered to students from three different English proficiency classes, which took approximately 20 to 30 minutes. The second gathered data from the students' performance scores of their oral assessment: the role play task and oral presentation, which were conducted during class time. The final phase was the collection of the interview data, which were gathered from the students' responses to the questions in the structured interview. For this purpose, 6 students (3 of high anxiety level and 3 of low anxiety level) according to their FLCAS scores were interviewed to identify possible causes of their English language learning anxiety.

Data Analysis

Data were analysed in three parts. Firstly, the respondents' FLCAS and Oral Assessment scores were entered into the SPSS 16.0 spread sheet to determine the level of anxiety experienced by the students. For the students' responses to the FLCAS, scores of each respondent's responses to the questionnaire were computed by assigning values ranging from the lowest 1 (strongly disagree) to the highest 5 (strongly agree). The respondents' level of anxiety was determined by adding each student's total scores of responses to the various statements in each section of the questionnaire, which range from 33 to 165. Based on Muszbek et al's procedure of analysis (2006), scores lower than 99 reflect lower level of anxiety and scores above 99 indicate higher anxiety level. The respondents' overall scores of the FLCAS were then calculated to determine the level of anxiety experienced by them. Even though there were no specific guidelines on the analysis of the responses on the FLCAS, the literature suggests computing the points of the 33 items. Secondly, the relationship between language anxiety and oral performance was determined by the computation of the Pearson correlation coefficient via the Pearson Product-moment correlation analysis between all the students' FLCAS scores and the scores of the Oral assessment using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 16.0. Finally, for the qualitative data, the interview transcripts were analysed in terms of the respondents' reaction to the oral assessments and possible causes of the language anxiety experienced by them in their classroom. The respondents' responses were further categorised as those belonging to L1, L2 and L3 (students with low anxiety) and H1, H2 and H3 (students of high anxiety). These data were used to substantiate the findings derived from the questionnaire and correlational analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 displays the level English language learning anxiety of the undergraduate ESL students in terms of their FLCAS scores. It illustrates the three highest and three lowest FLCAS scores of the students.

Table 1: Undergraduate students' FLCAS scores

Student	FLCAS Score	Mean Score	Range
High-Anxiety Student 1 (H1)	136		
High-Anxiety Student 2 (H2)	123	124.33	
High-Anxiety Student 3 (H3)	114		60
Low-Anxiety Student 1 (L1)	76		
Low-Anxiety Student 2 (L2)	80	80.33	
Low-Anxiety Student 3 (L3)	85		

As shown in Table 1, the highest FLCAS score is 136 lowest, 76, with the range 60. The mean FLCAS score of the high-anxiety students is the range, together with the mean (3.0) and standard deviation 0.29 (see Figure 1) illustrate that generally, the anxiety level of language learning for the undergraduate students is at a moderate level (80%), with 12% of the students having low anxiety and only 8% experiencing high anxiety. The result of this study does not support the results of most previous studies, which revealed a range of high to an alarming level of anxiety towards language learning (Campbell & Ortiz, 1991; Na, 2007). The moderate level of anxiety experienced by the undergraduate students could be attributed to the familiar and less threatening condition of the oral classes as students who are enrolled in the class are from the same programmes and have known each other for quite some time.

1.00 Very low   2.00 Low   3.00 Medium   4.00 High   5.00 Very high
Figure 1: Level of language anxiety
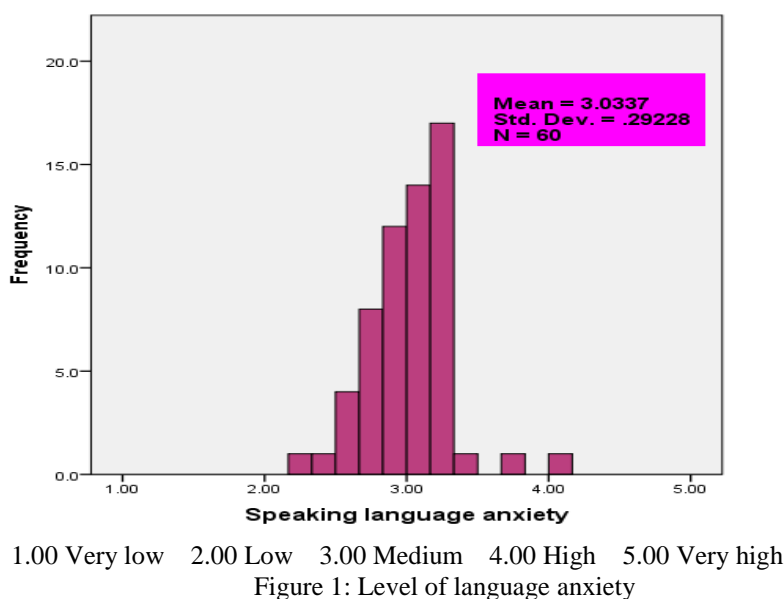
A further analysis was done to provide details of the FLCAS statistics of the four dimensions of language anxiety emphasised in the questionnaire. As can be seen from Figure 2, the students reported to have almost medium level for all the components (means, 3.1 to 3.45) with test anxiety showing slightly lower mean than the other components. This suggests that the students experienced a somewhat acceptable level of anxiety in all the four dimensions, in that they were rather nervous and confused when speaking in their English class, not at ease during tests, they have fear of negative evaluation in English classes felt somewhat apprehensive when communicating.
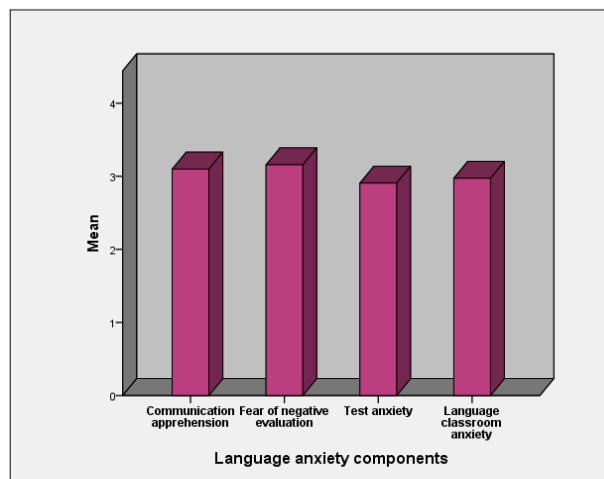
Figure 2: Means of language anxiety components

The results of the interview seem to be mainly supporting the findings on language anxiety by previous researchers. The explanation given by Horwitz and Cope (1986) of communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation as useful foundation in operationalising the construct of second or foreign language anxiety, is also noted in this study. These according to various students are potential contributors to language anxiety. The results obtained are substantiated by the data gathered from the interview pertaining to the causes of the students' anxiety, which is discussed in the following section. The results of the interview are discussed according to the four components of language anxiety, which are emphasised in the FLCAS.

Language classroom anxiety

Comparing the two identified groups with high and low anxiety, overall, the high-anxiety ESL students seemed to show greater anxiety when responding to the interview questions. They were also concerned about presenting a negative impression to the researcher and pointed out that they were rather anxious, as illustrated by their comments, such as "I don't feel well when I make mistakes", and "I feel very nervous".

The students appeared to be saying that their high language anxiety was significantly due to the rigid formal classroom environment. They viewed the classroom as a place where their inadequacies were pointed out. In this light, students H2 and H3 expressed their concerns about being criticised for admitting their lack of competence in the target language and being accused of not studying hard, as well as making mistakes due to the more formal condition of the classroom, respectively.

These negative comments on their fear of negative assessment in formal classroom setting corroborate the findings revealed in previous studies, which suggest that learners tended to have higher anxiety in highly evaluative conditions, in particular, in the L2 setting where their performance are continuously monitored by both their teacher and peers (Daly, 1991; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999a). The students asserted that the anxiety-provoking situation could be reduced by a more friendly and informal language classroom environment.

In contrast, students who experienced low anxiety tended to appear more natural and relaxed. They were also more pleased with their level of confidence during the interview. The students showed positive attitude and were aware of the importance of showing positive attitude in a language class. Some of their positive responses were

"willingness is important…", and "…my confidence affects many things, and it has to do with personality as well, it's not just English".

The attitude of the students toward their English classroom and learning English is another cause of classroom anxiety. The high anxiety students seem to have more negative attitude towards learning English, which suggests the classroom as an anxiety-provoking place whilst the students with low anxiety levels seem to enjoy their class English and gain tremendously from it. Student H1's comment on their English class is as follows:

> "I think it's good to attend English class. If all the students are in the same level I think I can catch up with the lesson, I'm at the same level with the students. But if that is the English lesson, I think others are better than me and I feel a little bit nervous and I have pressure."

Similarly, H2 related her anxiety in the classroom in relation to the use of the language as follows:

> "I am always worry and scared to speak English in class. If it (English class) is not a compulsory course I won't take it. I'm not interested in having a lot of language exercises and assignments. If I'm not going to be English teacher, I don't want to spend really really a lot of time to dig very deep into it."

On the other hand, the low anxiety students seemed to have a more positive outlook of the language and their classroom, as seen in the following responses of students L2 and L3:

> "I love my English class. I'm crazy about languages especially English. I feel I am confident when I learn English in class "(L2)

> "Life is so short; I just want to cherish my time to communicate with people from different cultures. My English class can surely help me achieve this "(L3)

These findings suggest that personality variables such as students' attitude may have accounted for the presence of anxiety among ESL learners (Phillips, 1992).

Communication Apprehension
Communication is considered within two areas, speaking out of class and speaking in class. In response to the question related to this aspect, the students with low anxiety gave higher positive responses. All low anxiety students said they liked speaking in English and that they were not nervous speaking in English outside the classroom. In contrast, the students with high anxiety indicated that they were "quieter", and they seemed not very sure when using English outside the classroom. Such activities seem to be highly anxiety inducing, creating a classroom environment that is more formal and stressful. All the students seemed to agree that public speaking and speaking in front of their peers in a class induced anxiety. This is reflected in their interview responses; the group with low anxiety said that they were, "not nervous," "quite happy," "quite confident," "feel quite relaxed" whereas those with high anxiety felt "too afraid," "very nervous," and "actually very nervous during presentation".

The low anxiety students also explained that they had greater confidence speaking in class and performing oral presentation in English. They were quite pleased with their oral presentation assessment although they felt somewhat worried about them. StudentsL2 and L3 reported:

> "…quite happy with my presentation, obviously. I'm not too nervous, really, not too nervous, but I'm actually a bit worried about the flow of the materials. Personally, I didn't have a lot of time preparing for that, so it affects my presentation." (L2)

> "One thing I'm quite happy, I'm quite confident in front of people. I can still smile and I can still feel quite relaxed." I never take it (giving a presentation) as a kind of pressure." (L3)

On the other hand, the high anxiety students reported to be more nervous and less confident during an oral presentation, as shown below:

> "In class maybe I stand up and do the presentation, I usually feel nervous.
> I don't know when I talk to other students in normal class, I think it is ok.
> Maybe I lose the confidence". (H2)

This type of anxiety seems to be induced by the learners' perception of their inability in making themselves understood, or in Price's words, by their "frustration of not being able to communicate effectively" (1991, p.105). Previous studies have reported similar findings, in that the class oral presentation was regarded as the greatest anxiety-inducing activity by a significant number of their subjects (Koch & Terrell, 1991; Price, 1991).

Fear of negative evaluation

When asked about they felt about others' evaluation of them, some students felt that learning and speaking a foreign language in the classroom was "always a problem" because of their fear of making mistakes. StudentH3 expressed:

> "Classroom is always a problem …you find many people watching you and try to correct you, laugh at you, you will be blamed for any mistakes, …".

Similarly, H2 voiced out:

> "I am afraid I may make mistake in the class…for me I don't want to make any mistake".

This supports the finding of Gregersen and Horwitz (2002), which suggested that the students' desire for perfection and fear of making mistakes have strong correlation with their concern about saving a positive image or giving a good impression of themselves to their teachers and peers. A student, H2 expressed her concern on this matter:

> "I learn words, next day I forget. Lecturer may think I am a lazy guy, have bad memory, don't work hard".

This suggests that anxiety is not just about language but varying expectations about what will occur in oral interaction. Not surprisingly, students tended to have greater apprehension about the pressure to do well when presenting in front of their peers and instructors as they thought that it would be more likely to affect their final results, as mentioned by student L3:

> "I get nervous because instructors always give scores. …a lecturer will put this in the mind and will give grades at the end…I may feel better if there are no grades at the end".

This is in line with the finding of Tobias (1986) which revealed a negative relationship between anxiety towards language and its course grades. This suggests a significant contribution of assessment type and teachers' attitude towards assessment toward learners' anxiety. In this light, despite their report of feeling anxious towards over error correction, the learners also stressed that they would like to be corrected to help them minimise their language problems. This supports the language anxiety literature (e.g. Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1991), which suggests the necessity of error correction to improve speaking performance as not correcting errors (a technique used by lower anxiety learners) tends to contribute to anxiety. For some students, the absence of error correction by their instructor made them rather unsure and they, thus, prefer to keep quiet, as illustrated in the comments made by student L2:

> "I try to be silent, keep quiet…so that nobody should notice me, I try to escape…try to keep my conversation short as much as I can".

It appears that, as Horwitz et al. (1986, p.127) point out, the learners felt frustrated when failing to convey a message, which may cause apprehension about attempts to communicate in future. The findings of this study are in agreement with evidence obtained in previous studies, both ethnographic and empirical, which support the view that learners' anxiety towards language, for many, is derived from the fear of making mistakes and thus feeling awkward, "foolish and incompetent" as perceived by their friends or others (Jones, 2004, p.33).

Test Anxiety

Despite the tendency for the oral tests to be extremely anxiety-provoking, the findings of this study revealed otherwise. Test anxiety was not cited as one of the main causes of anxiety toward ESL learning. However, generally, the students who experienced low anxiety felt somewhat less anxious about sitting for a test in comparison to those with high anxiety. This is perhaps associated with the nature of the oral tasks carried out in class. To the lower anxiety students, the role play and oral presentation assessment procedures did not seem like 'real' tests as they did not have to memorise anything and perform under a pressured timed condition. In this context, the students were in control of the oral task content and the less-threatening situation. This, therefore, could have reduced their feeling of fear of failure. Had the oral assessment not been carried out during normal class time, it would have been more "test like" and induced greater test anxiety.

As expected, student H3, who experienced high anxiety, felt more nervous and that she was being tested during the oral presentation. According to H3:

"Having a test in front of classmates is quite different from taking a writing test because my performance will not be known by other classmates…Time already makes me nervous. I'm always afraid I can't finish within the time".

In contrast, all other students interviewed felt that the presentation was similar to an in-class exercise, an assigned homework, or information-sharing activity. This is perhaps due to the familiar kind of oral presentations carried out in class and in their other courses, as well as the flexibility in choosing their own topics. Two of the students who had low anxiety offered some strategies for thinking about a test. For instance, L3, emphasised the importance of regarding the presentation as a common classroom activity. He said:

"I never take it (giving a presentation) as a test. Because if I take it as a test, I will probably put myself under high pressure. …it would badly affect your performance".

For L3, however, a test tends to induce stress and could influence its outcome. L4, however, viewed testing in a more positive light. She explained that being positive facilitates in the preparation of a given task and linked her positive attitude to her enjoyment in learning languages, which could help her in class. She stressed that tests motivated her and if one has confidence, he/she would be able to overcome the fear of taking any tests.

Similar feelings were shared by H3:

"Giving a presentation is just like a practice for you. You will be given a topic… it's just like an exercise…but for a test you have to study very hard, …

Two other aspects related to test, content and time were also raised in the interview. Both L2 and L3 agreed that the oral presentation was not like a test because they were in control of the content albeit the specific amount of time allocated to the presentation. This helped L3 to feel more relaxed. She felt that being "well prepared" would prevent the feeling of nervousness.

It is noteworthy that almost all students interviewed did not really feel as though they were being evaluated in the oral presentation, thus, reducing their anxiety level. Although they pointed out that the instructors' evaluation and audience reaction could have been a cause of stress, these did not seem to be a major cause of stress, which is similar to the students' responses to the FLCAS questionnaire administered in this study. This is in contrast to what was highlighted by Woodrow (2006), that is, performing in front of a class was one of the significant contributors to language learning anxiety. It is interesting to note, however, that this is not so in this study.

Relationship between English language learning anxiety and students' oral performance
The computing of the correlation coefficient revealed a significant negative correlation between language anxiety and oral performance; (r = -0.45, p = 0.00, n = 60), suggesting that the higher the students' level of anxiety, the lower their oral performance scores.

In terms of the components of language anxiety, oral performance also had a significant negative correlation with communication apprehension, fear of negative apprehension and classroom anxiety (Table 2).

Table 2: Correlation between language anxiety and oral performance components

		Communication apprehension	Fear of negative evaluation	Test anxiety	Classroom anxiety
Exam Score	Pearson Correlation	-.292[*]	-.367[**]	-.188	-.352[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.024	.004	.150	.006

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As illustrated by the data in the above table, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and classroom anxiety also have a negative correlation with oral performance (r=-0.292, p=0.024; r = -0.367, p=0.004; r=-0.352, p=0.006) while test anxiety is not significantly correlated to oral performance (r=-0.188, p=0.150). The results suggest and inverse relationship between the different components of anxiety and the students' oral performance, which is consistent with the results of previous studies that revealed a negative relationship between anxiety and oral performance (Philips 1992; Cheng, Horwitz & Schallert, 1999). Such findings are a concern to many ESL instructors as they seem to suggest that the different types of anxiety have an influence on students' oral performance. This result, however, is in contrast to that of the qualitative data, which revealed lesser anxiety among the low level anxiety students due to the nature of the oral tasks, which could have produced better performance. However, there could be other reasons for their lower performance in the oral assessments, such as lack of competence in English (Tanveer, 2007) or their inability to fulfill the task requirements adequately.

The correlational data also indicate that test anxiety was the only construct that had no significant correlation with oral performance. This result is in line with the data from the interview, which indicate that the students were not anxious towards both the oral tasks as they had practised performing the role play tasks in class and were familiar with the topics of the presentation.

CONCLUSION

This study has examined ESL undergradutes' language learning anxiety, with an emphasis on oral performance and its relationship to the learning anxiety, as well as the contributory factors to anxiety. A noteworthy finding of the study is the presence of a medium level of anxiety among the ESL undergraduates in the study, which is rather encouraging. The familiar classroom, which seems less threatening could have contributed to this although in general, the feeling of anxiety and embarrassment, particularly, when speaking a second language such as English is still present. In terms of anxiety-evoking factors among the ESL undergraduates, the findings seem to corroborate with the findings of some previous studies which reported a negative relationship between fear of being negatively evaluated, communication apprehension and language classroom anxiety, and oral performance, which is enlightening. Also noteworthy is the finding which shows no association between test anxiety and oral performance. This, however, must be interpreted cautiously due to the nature of the classroom oral assessment tasks used and the small sample size of the study. The study also revealed a variety of causal factors of language anxiety that originate mainly from inside and out of the language classroom setting, such as fear of teacher and peer evaluation and perceptions, as well as

fear of failure. A finding that must be given due attention in this study is the extent of influence of the contributory factors reported by the low and high anxiety students, which as expected, seem more obvious among the latter group. This suggests that the language learning anxiety in the second or foreign language context, although having continuously been a subject of interest in language learning and teaching, is not something to be taken lightly or considered a problem that is left to the students to deal with. To optimise language learning and performance, language instructors must be aware of anxiety-provoking situations, regardless of its level, and must take suitable measures to reduce learning anxiety and minimise its negative impact on language learning. With positive reinforcement from and proposed use of appropriate language learning strategies by language instructors, ESL learners' anxiety would be reduced and their confidence level could be enhanced, in particular, in speaking in public and communicating with others in conditions that are considered threatening.

REFERENCES

Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*(2), 155-168.

Aydin, S. (2008). An investigation on language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation among Turkish EFL learners. *Asian EFL Journal*, *30*(1), 421-444.

Arnold, J., & Brown, D. H. (1999). A map of the terrain. In J. Brown (Ed.), *Affect in language learning* (pp.1-24). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bailey, K.M. (1983). Competitiveness and anxiety in adult second language learning: Looking at and through the diary studies. In H.W. Seliger & M.H. Long (Eds.), *Classroom oriented research in second language acquisition* (pp.67-102). Manchester: Newbury House.

Bailey, P., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Daley, C. E. (2000). Correlates of anxiety at three stages of the foreign language learning process. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 19*(4), 474-490.

Brown, H.D. (1973). Affective variables in second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 23*(2), 231-244.

Campbell, C., & Ortiz, J. (1991). Helping students overcome foreign language anxiety: A foreign language anxiety workshop. In E.K. Horwitz & D.J. Young (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From Theory to Research to Classroom Implications* (pp.153 168). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Caprio, M. (1987). University students and second language learning: A look at purpose and attitude. *Academia: Literature and Language, 42*, 23-36.

Chastain, K. (1975). Affective and ability factors in second language acquisition. *Language. Learning, 25*(1), 153-161.

Cheng, Y., Horwitz, E.K., & Schallert, D. L. (1999). Language anxiety: Differentiating writing and speaking components. *Language Learning, 49*(3), 417-446.

Daly, J. A., Vangelisti, A. L., & Lawrence, S. G. (1989). Self-focused attention and public speaking anxiety. *Personality and Individual Differences, 10*(8), 903-913.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition.* New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Elkhafaifi, H. (2005). Listening comprehension and anxiety in the Arabic language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, *89*(2), 206-220.

Gass, S. & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second Language Acquisition: An Introductory Course (3rd Edition).* New York: Routledge/Taylor Francis.

Hashimoto, Y. (2002). Motivation and willingness to communicate as predictors of L2 use: The Japanese ESL context. *Second Language Studies, 20*(2), 29-70.

Hewitt, E., & Stephenson, J. (2012). Foreign language anxiety and oral exam performance: A replication of Phillips' MLJ study, *The Modern Language Journal, 96*(2), 170-189.

Horwitz, E.K. (2001). Language anxiety and achievement. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 21,* 112-126.

Horwitz, E.K. (1991). Preliminary evidence for the reliability and validity of a foreign language anxiety scale. In E.K. Horwitz & D.J. Young (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 37-39). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J.A. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety scale. *The Modern Language Journal, 70*(2), 125-132.

Humphries, R. (2011). Language anxiety in international students: How can it be overcome? *Griffith Working Papers in Pragmatics and Intercultural Communication, 4*(1/2), 65-77.

Jones, J.F. (2004). A cultural context for language anxiety. *EA (English Australia) Journal, 21*(2), 30-39.

Khalid, R. & Hasan, S. S. (2009). Test anxiety in high and low achievers. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research, 24*(3-4), 97-114.

Koch & Terell (1991). Affective reactions of foreign language students to natural approach activities and teaching techniques. In E.K. Horwitz & D.J. Young. (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 65-86). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Liu, M., & Jackson, J. (2008). An exploration of Chinese EFL learners' unwillingness to communicate and foreign language anxiety. *Modern Language Journal, 92*(1), 71 86.

MacIntyre, P.D., & Gardner, R.C. (1994). The subtle effects of language anxiety on cognitive processing in the second language. *Language Learning, 44*(2), 283-305.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1991a). Investigating language class anxiety using the focused essay technique. *The Modern Language Journal, 75*, 296-303.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1991b). Language anxiety: Its relationship to other anxieties and to processing in native and second languages. *Language Learning, 41*(4), 513-534.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1989). Anxiety and second language learning: toward a theoretical clarification. *Language Learning, 39,* 251-275.

Madsen, H.S. (1982). Determining the debilitative impact of test anxiety. *Language Learning, 32*(1), 133-143.

Marwan, A. (2007). Investigating students' foreign language anxiety. *Malaysian Journal of ELT Research, 3*, 37-55.

Matsuda, S., & Gobel, P. (2004). Anxiety and predictors of performance in the foreign language classroom. *System, 32*(1), 21-36.

Muszbek, K., Szekely, A., Balogh, E.M., Molnáar, M., Roháanszky, M. Rusza, A., Varga, K., Szöllösi, M., & Vadasz, P. (2006). Validation of the Hungarian translation of hospital anxiety and depression scale. *Quality of Life Research, 15*(4), 761-766.

Na, Z. (2007). A study of high-school students' learning anxiety. *Asian EFL Journal, 9*(3), Article 2.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Bailey, P., & Daley, C. E. (1999a). Factors associated with foreign language anxiety. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 20*, 217-239.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Bailey, P., & Daley, C. E. (1999b). Relationships between anxiety and achievement at three stages of learning a foreign language. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 88*(3), 1085-1093.

Pappamihiel, N.E. (2002). English as a second language student and English language anxiety: Issues in mainstream classroom. *Research in the Teaching of English, 36*(3), 327-355.

Perez- Parédes, P.F., & Martínez-Sánchez, F. (2000-2001). A Spanish version of the foreign language classroom anxiety scale: Revisiting Aida's Factor Analysis. *RESLA, 14*, 337-352.

Phillips, E. M. (1992). The effects of language anxiety on students' oral test performance and attitudes. *The Modern Language Journal, 76*(1), 14-25.

Price, M. L. (1991). The subjective experience of foreign language anxiety: Interviews with highly anxious students. In E.K. Horwitz & D.J. Young (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp.101-108). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Riasati, M.J. (2011). Language learning anxiety from EFL learners' perspective. *Middle East Journal of Scientific Research, 7*(6), 907-914.

Saito, Y., Horwitz, E., & Garza, J. (1999) Foreign Language Reading Anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, *83*, 202-218.

Saito, Y., & Samimy, K.K. (1996). Foreign language anxiety and language performance: A study of learner anxiety in beginning, intermediate, and advanced-level college students of Japanese. *Foreign Language Annals, 29*(2), 239-252.

Schmidt, R.W., Boraie, D., & Kassabgy, O. (1996). Foreign language motivation: Structure and external connections. In R. L. Oxford, (Ed.). *Language learning motivation: Pathways to the new century.* Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.

Scovel, T. (1991). The effect of affect on foreign language learning: A review of the anxiety research. In E.K. Horwitz & D.J. Young (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 15-23). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Scovel, T. (1978). The effect of affect on foreign language learning: A review of the anxiety research. *Language Learning, 28*(1), 129-142.

Shamas, A. (2006). *The use of computerized pronunciation practice in the reduction of foreign language classroom anxiety.* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). The Florida State University, U.S.A.

Swain, M., & Burnaby, B. (1976). Personality characteristics and second language learning in young children: A pilot study. *Working Papers on Bilingualism*, 11, 115-128.

Tanveer, M. (2007). *Investigation of the factors that cause language anxiety for ESL/EFL learners in learning speaking skills and the influence it casts on communication in the target language.* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Glasgow, U.K.

Tobias, S. (1986). Anxiety and cognitive processing of instruction. In R. Schwarzer (Ed.), *Self related cognition in anxiety and motivation* (pp. 35-54). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Tobias, S. (1980). Anxiety and instruction. In I. G. Sarason (Ed.), *Test anxiety: Theory, research and applications*. New Jersey: Erlbaum.

Tobias, S., & Everson, H.T. (1997). Studying relationship between affective and metacognitive variables. *Anxiety, Stress and Coping, 10*(1), 59-81.

Williams, K., & Andrade, M. (2009). Foreign language learning anxiety in Japanese EFL university classes: Physical, emotional, expressive, and verbal reactions. *Sophia Junior College Faculty Journal, 29*, 1-24.

Williams, K., & Andrade, M. (2008). Foreign language learning anxiety in Japanese EFL university classes: Causes, coping, and locus of control. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 5*(2), 181-191.

Woodrow, L. (2006). Anxiety and Speaking English as a Second Language. *RELC Journal*, *37*(3), 308-328.

Young, D. J. (1991a). Creating a low-anxiety classroom environment: What does language anxiety research suggest? *The Modern Language Journal, 75*(4)*,* 426 439.

Young, D. J. (1991b). The relationship between anxiety and foreign language oral proficiency ratings. In E.K. Horwitz & D.J. Young (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 57-63). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Young, D. J. (1990). An investigation of students'perspectives on anxiety and speaking. *Foreign Language Annals, 23*(6), 539-553.

ESL UNDERGRADUATES' EXPERIENCE OF WIKI AND SKYPE FOR COLLABORATIVE LEARNING

Yolanda Hiew Lee Lee[1], Tan Bee Hoon[2], Yap Ngee Thai[3], Zalina Mohd Kasim[4]
Department of English, Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication
Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia
e-mail: yolanda.hiew3@gmail.com[1]; tanbh@upm.edu.my[2];
ntyap@upm.edu.my[3]; zalina_mk@upm.edu.my[4]

ABSTRACT
In recent years, university instructors are required to integrate computer technologies in their teaching and to support student learning by employing computer-mediated communication (CMC) tools. Yet, the authentic experience of students' engagement with the technology is seldom explored. There is an apparent lack in research related to student satisfaction and their perceived usefulness of the CMC application for task completion in the public tertiary sector. Thus, this paper examines students' experience in using Wiki and Skype to complete two project-based tasks collaboratively. The sample comprised 25 ESL undergraduates from an intact class. Class observation, interview and a questionnaire with Likert-scale and open-ended items were administered for the investigation. Data from the questionnaire only are reported here due to space constraint. The results indicated that Skype is preferred over Wiki for interaction; however, the use of Wiki was more favorable as it can improve students' writing skills. Skype was perceived as more useful than Wiki for academic, social and technological aspects. Students also commented on the technological problems where poor Internet connection was the main interruption that caused delay in their work.

Keywords: collaborative learning, computer-mediated communication, ESL, interaction, Skype, Wiki,

INTRODUCTION
Research has revealed that students can learn effectively when they work in teams face-to-face as they are exposed to different ideas, and they also have the chance to collaborate in problem-solving for team projects (Garfield, 2013). Based on sociocognitive and constructivist theories of learning, it is believed that more learning can be achieved outside the traditional or formal classroom. In recent years, instructors in many universities are required to integrate technology in their teaching; therefore, students are able to share knowledge online when they are unable to interact face-to-face for their group projects. In this light, online collaborative learning among students is becoming extensively recognized in educational contexts (Parker & Gemino, 2001; Campos, Laferriere, & Harasim, 2001; Palloff & Pratt, 2010).

Review of Related Studies
Collaborative learning involves a group of students working at different places or paces on a shared purpose using online technology (Lipnack & Stamps, 2000; Palloff & Pratt, 2010). Recently, collaborative learning has become more crucial in course design and delivery probably due to the implementation of online learning in institutions (Wilson & Stacey, 2003). Many universities use Learning Management System (LMS) facilities such

as WebCT and Moodle discussion board for students to interact and collaborate in their learning processes, especially for courses that are fully online.

The use of e-mail, video conference and online learning platforms are helpful in collaborative learning among on-campus and distance learning students. Therefore, effective incorporation of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) into tertiary teaching and learning has now become necessary skills for both instructors and learners (Tapscott, 1998; Barnes, Marateo, & Ferris, 2007; Wang, 2009). However, there seems to be a lack of research in relation to how satisfied the students are with the use of CMC in their collaboration, and how useful these technologies are for task completion especially in the Malaysia tertiary contexts.

Although CMC research has been going on for more than a decade, it is still unclear whether online interaction can replace face-to-face interaction effectively (Lewandowski, Rosenberg, Jordan Parks, & Siegel, 2011). For instance, assigning students to a group project does not mean that they will work collaboratively (So & Brush, 2008), and the extent to which team members are willing to participate in the online interaction process is also questionable. Some research findings indicate that students' engagement in group discussion is often shallow, and is rarely developed into a higher level of communication where negotiation and agreement take place (Tallent-Runnels et al., 2006).

Moreover, online collaborative learning may be quite different due to the use of ICT, and to some students it may be considered as more challenging than face-to-face. The use of computer technologies may facilitate collaboration among students, yet there are a great number of inquiries on such learning modes (Joy & Garcia, 2000; Garrison, 2011). Nowadays, many courses are making use of online technologies such as asynchronous interaction using e-mail and discussion boards for outside classroom communication (Kahmi-Stein, 2000; Rovai, 2002). Asynchronous technology has been widely used in institutions, and most research has been done heavily on asynchronous interaction. However, there is little research on its impact on student learning as well as the use of synchronous interaction to supplement learning.

In addition, most research on CMC focused on native speakers of English or a combination of both native and non-native students, and rarely examines online interaction among ESL students in the use of CMC tools to support their learning. Thus, the purpose of this study is to find out students' satisfactory level and their perceived usefulness of Wiki and Skype in collaborative learning for the purpose of completing two group tasks.

METHODOLOGY

The study is predominantly quantitative research, but both qualitative and quantitative data were collected through an adapted questionnaire that consisted Likert-type and open-ended questions. The study adopted a one-stage cluster sampling where all the students in a class were included in the sample.

The participants consisted of Malaysian undergraduates who speak English as a Second Language (ESL), aged between 20 and 30, and enrolled in a full time programme for English Language Studies in a local research university. The total number of students was 25, with 21 female and 4 male. The students were randomly assigned to form a group of four to five members, and they worked together to complete their project-based tasks entirely through online interaction. There were six groups altogether; one group had five members while the rest had four members each. The group composition remained

unchanged throughout the semester for them to complete both the tasks on Wiki and Skype.

Data Collection

The study used two sets of questionnaire. The first set was called Students' Satisfaction Questionnaire (adapted from Biesenbach-Lucas, 2003), and it aimed to answer how satisfied students were with the use of Wiki and Skype in completing their project-based tasks in relation to social and academic benefits, and technological problems. The second set of questionnaire was to investigate the usefulness of Wiki and Skype (adapted from Wang, 2009), and it sought to answer how these tools benefited or limited the students' collaborative learning from the academic, social and technological aspects. The students were given both sets of questionnaire to answer after they completed the two assigned tasks.

The data collected were based on the students' online interaction using Wiki and Skype in completing project-based tasks for the whole semester of 14 weeks. At the beginning of the semester, students were introduced and guided with the use of Wiki for the first task which lasted for six weeks. For the second task, Skype was introduced and it took another six weeks to complete. The first week of the semester involved the introduction of the course and group forming, while the final week of the semester was a revision week before the examination, where students were given the questionnaires.

The first task required the students to design and create an e-textbook for the course. Each group of students was given a topic to discuss and subsequently write a chapter collaboratively on a Wiki platform. For the second task, students used Skype for synchronous interaction. Each group was required to read a few related research articles and to discuss their selected topic. Then they write a review paper in collaboration with the group members.

Data Analysis

The Likert-type items, which enquired the satisfaction level of students, were processed by using the SPSS for descriptive statistics and Wilcox test for Wiki and Skype comparison. Besides, the open-ended data about the technological problems and benefits of the group projects were extracted from the satisfaction questionnaire. The data were analysed and categorised according to the identified themes, and then calculated as percentages using Excel. The Likert-type data from the Wiki and Skype questionnaires provide descriptive statistics for the tools that were perceived by students to be more useful for collaborative learning.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results show that the students had mixed experiences, both positive and negative, in the use of Wiki and Skype for group projects. They had different degrees of satisfaction in terms of social and academic benefits from interacting on Wiki and Skype. Although the students responded positively regarding the social and academic benefits in online group discussion and the usefulness extent of Wiki and Skype, their remarks on technological problems were critical.

Table 1 presents the mean scores of social and academic benefits from using Wiki and Skype. Items 1 to 5 refer to the social benefits, while Items 6 to 10 concern academic benefits. Tables 2 and 3 demonstrate the mean scores for posting requirements and group composition. In addition, the results for the open-ended questions show the types of technological problems for Wiki and Skype encountered by the students as illustrated in

Figures 1 and 2, and the students' comments on the benefits of the group projects are presented in Figures 3 and 4. Finally, Figure 5 shows the statistics for the usefulness of Wiki and Skype in group work.

Social and Academic Benefits
In Table 1, the results show that in terms of social benefits, the interaction through Skype helped build some relationships and getting to know group members who supported their studies. They also found that the greatest benefit from the Skype interaction was sharing ideas and experiences as well as learning from each other. On the other hand, they could also obtain a considerable amount of useful information from the Wiki interaction, and gained substantive advice from group members equally through Wiki and Skype interactions. Similar findings are also observed in other studies, for example, Shaw and Pieter (2000) and Poore (2012).

With regards to academic benefits from using Wiki and Skype, Table 1 shows that students could understand course readings, lectures and assignments, and their writing skills had improved through writing on Wiki. The students also felt that they could explore new information when discussing ideas not raised in class through Skype as it provided real-time chat, and no delay in getting the answers. This is relevant as some students may be reluctant and often hesitant to share or express their ideas in a traditional face-to-face interaction. Thus, this study is consistent with Biesenbach-Lucas' (2003) findings that some students may be quiet in face-to-face interactions but made lengthy contributions in online interactions.

Table 1: Results on social and academic benefits (n = 25)

Did the online discussion help you…? Very much . ………………… Not at all 5 4 3 2 1	Mean Score	
	Wiki	Skype
1. *Build relationships with group members	3.28	3.84
2. *Learn about your group members	3.12	3.56
3. *Share ideas/experiences with group members	3.92	4.08
4. *Obtain useful information from group members	4.00	3.92
5. *Obtain substantive advice from group members	3.72	3.72
6. **Understand course readings	3.68	3.40
7. **Understand course lectures	3.52	3.40
8. **Understand course assignment	3.92	3.60
9. **Improve your writing skills	4.04	3.52
10. **Discuss ideas not raised in class	3.44	3.60

*Social benefits
**Academic benefits

Posting Requirements and Group Composition
Most students felt that the requirement to respond to previous messages on Wiki was too restrictive (Table 2), and therefore Skype is preferred for its real-time chat as group members received immediate responses. The students were confined in their responses and to build on group members' posting on Wiki as they might be confused with the thread of discussion. For instance, if there was a restriction to always have the discussion related to previous postings, then the students could not post other topics that they wanted to discuss. The similar result was also found in the research of Biesenbach-Lucas (2003).

On the other hand, the students agreed that they were clear about the requirement to provide reflective comments in their group discussion on Wiki and Skype. Even though the students were required to include reflective thoughts in their messages, many of them

did not show critical evaluation of what they read. In this light, the present study is comparable to that of Biesenbach-Lucas (2003) who identified similar outcome from students' online interaction. The students probably became too anxious with linking their postings to previous contributions that they paid attention to surface features rather than giving reflective comments.

Table 2: Results on posting requirements (n = 25)

Do you agree or disagree with the following statements? Strongly Agree …………………….. Strongly Disagree 5 4 3 2 1	Wiki	Skype
The requirements to respond to previous messages was too restrictive	3.24	2.76
The requirements to provide reflective comments in discussion was clear	3.92	4.00

In relation to group composition (Table 3), the students preferred to stay in the same group rather than changing their groups for the different tasks on Wiki and Skype. Most students of this study disagreed to changing group, whereas in Biesenbach-Lucas' study (2003), the non-native students preferred to change from a group of non-native to a group of native speakers. The reason provided was that they wanted to learn native writing style. As the present study comprised all non-native speakers, the preference for changing their collaborative group was not shown. In relation to this question, a respondent replied when asked to provide comments: "I don't want to change group but would have liked to change one group member as this member never say anything…I don't know what is going on even if I asked, she is too quiet". This shows that a group's cohesiveness is cultivated by the degree to which members know and like each other as individuals. In this case, the group dynamics can be affected by factors such as an individual's character and sociability.

Table 3: Results on group composition (n = 25)

Do you agree or disagree with the following statements? Strongly Agree …………………….. Strongly Disagree 5 4 3 2 1	Wiki	Skype
I liked staying in the same group	3.92	4.08
I would have liked to change groups	2.00	2.12

Types of Technological Problems

Figures 1 and 2 show the percentages for different types of technological problems for Wiki and Skype respectively that emerged during the online interaction among the students. It is expected that integrating technology into traditional classrooms cannot be fully reliable in terms of gaining access to the Internet and the related network websites. Moreover, it is understandable that malfunction of technology while working on a project may affect the students' perception towards the usefulness of CMC tools.

The graphs that derived from the open-ended questions illustrate whether the students experienced any technological problems in their online interaction, and to specify the types of problems. The responses of each student were extracted from the open-ended questions and were categorised after evaluating the data according to the emerged themes. Then the percentages were calculated using Excel.

Figure 1 shows that slow Internet is the highest in percentage (48%). It was seen as the main technological problem by the students when they use Wiki in online

interaction. Moreover, incompatible browsers (20%) and difficulty to login (20%) to the Wiki website are the second problems related to Internet facilities. The students also encountered problems in the Wiki website that included spacing and font were difficult to adjust when writing and editing on Wiki. Instability of line (4%) is the least serious technological problem during their online interaction using Wiki.

On the other hand, Figure 2 also shows that Internet connection is the main technological problem among the students when using Skype for online interaction (60%), followed by unstable line (12%), slow Internet (8%) and server (8%).
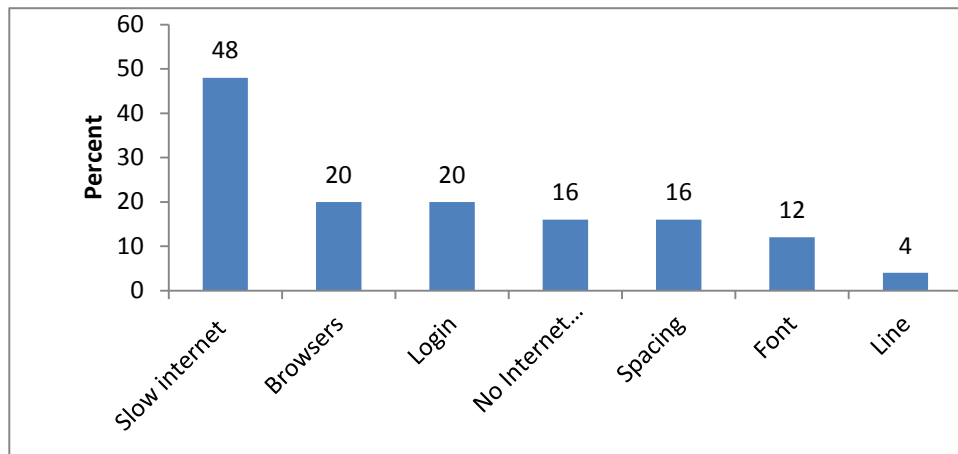
Figure 1: Types of technological problems for Wiki
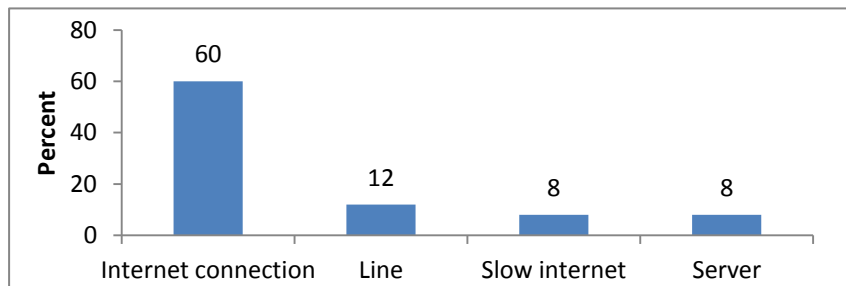
Figure 2: Types of technological problems for Skype

Benefits of Wiki and Skype for Group Projects

Furthermore, Figures 3 and 4 demonstrate the percentages of students' comments on the benefits of using Wiki and Skype respectively for the collaborative group projects. The students commented that the three most important benefits for the group project using Wiki include the integration of technology in their learning (36%), improvement of their writing skills (28%) followed by learning new things (24%). Other benefits include time saving from no face-to-face meeting, and being able to view other's work, while the least important benefit from using Wiki was for sharing information.

For Skype, students mentioned that there was no need to meet face-to-face (16%) and they were able to learn the functions of Skype (16%) quite easily. Other benefits include receiving instant responses from group members, sharing information, getting to know more about group members, easy to communicate and get help for their projects, and the afforded opportunity to find extra information through the online interaction.
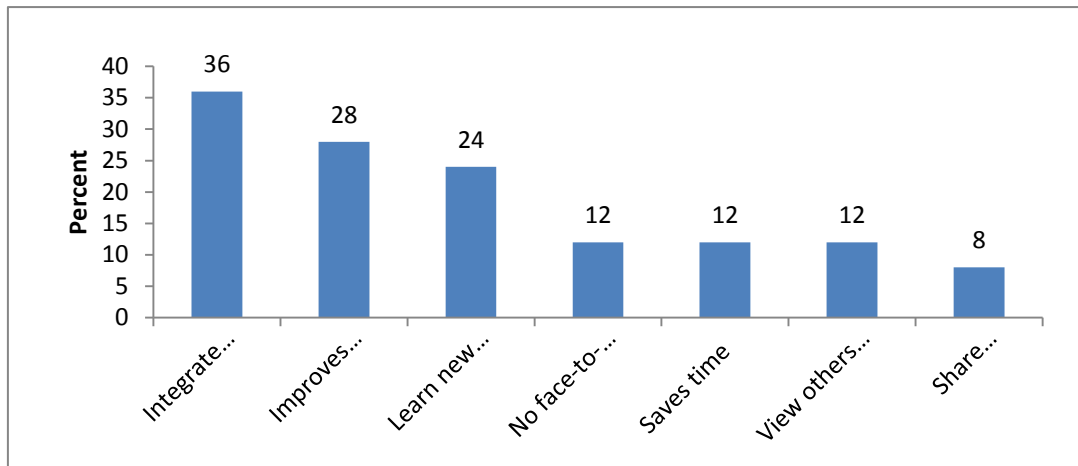
Figure 3: Benefits of using Wiki for the group projects
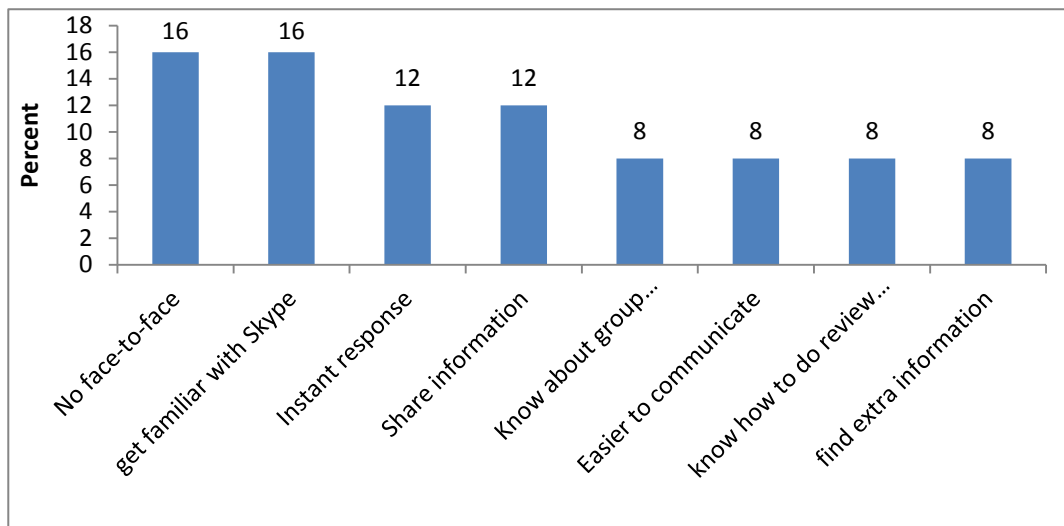
Figure 4: Benefits of using Skype for the group projects

Numerous features of the discussion forum were generally evaluated as satisfactory by all students, both social as well as academic benefits. Other researchers also agree that the asynchronous nature of discussion forum postings allowed the students to take time for purposeful reflection on the messages they were reading as well as posting without the strains of synchronous interaction (e.g. Weasenforth, Biesenbach-Lucas, & Meloni, 2002; Greenlaw & DeLoach, 2003). For instance, online discussions call for students with more reflective learning styles as students could draft and amend their messages before submitting to the group. It also supports students who do not have strong debating skills or sociable personalities, and those who are timid and could not express themselves proficiently in English. The extra preparation as well as the encouragement to focus on content and ideas would give these students the confidence to take risks and suggest ideas related to course materials that were not discussed in class. Besides, classroom discussions normally promote the participation of the more outspoken and outgoing students, but online interactions offer an alternative environment where students could participate and contribute to the ongoing thread of topics. Thus, students felt more comfortable in participating fully in online interactions with a small but

gradually more familiar group of students, and this finding is also identified by Rovai (2002).

Usefulness of Wiki and Skype for Group Projects
In terms of the usefulness of Wiki and Skype for group projects, the results in Figure 5 show that Skype is regarded as more useful than Wiki for academic, social and technological aspects, where the total mean score for Skype stands at 3.83 compared to Wiki at 3.59. This is probably due to the technological problems that students experienced, such as slow access to the Wiki website and incompatible browsers that affected the Wiki accessibility.

	Academic	Social	Technology	Total
Wiki	3.72	3.77	3.29	3.59
Skype	3.84	3.96	3.68	3.83
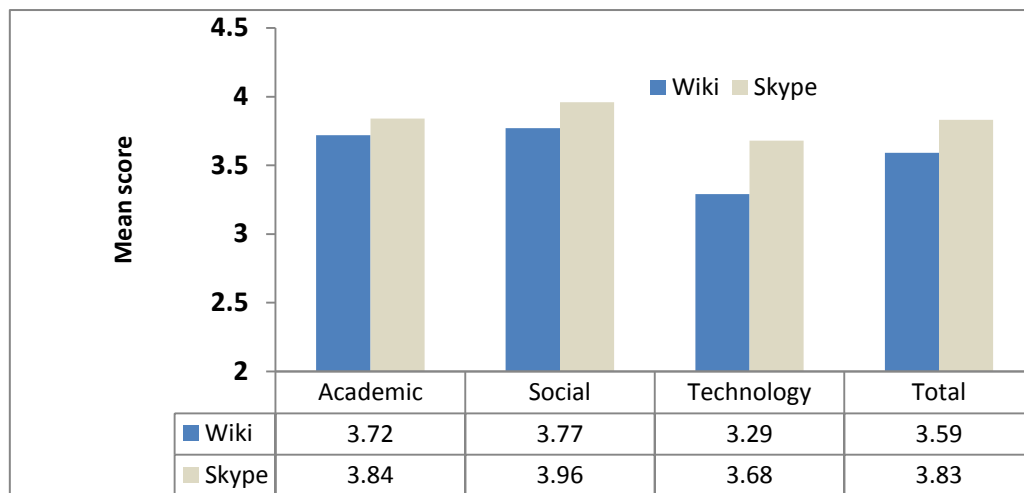
Figure 5: Usefulness of Wiki and Skype for the group projects

In Table 4, the Pearson correlation is used to determine whether a relationship exists among academic, social and technological aspects for Wiki. The results show a positive and significant relationship between academic and technological aspects ($r = 0.473$, $p<0.05$). According to Sheskin (2003), a correlation coefficient (r) between $0.3 – 0.7$ is moderate relationship. In this study, a five percent (0.05) level was determined as the accepted level of significance for statistical analysis. This result suggests that ease of access to technology is an important factor in whether or not students learn from the online collaborative learning environment.

Table 4. Correlations among academic, social and technology
aspects for Wiki (n=25)

		Wiki - Academic	Wiki - Social	Wiki - Technology
Wiki - Academic	Pearson Correlation	1	.572[**]	.473[*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.003	.017
Wiki - Social	Pearson Correlation	.572[**]	1	.582[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003		.002
Wiki - Technology	Pearson Correlation	.473[*]	.582[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.017	.002	

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

On the other hand, the correlations among academic, social and technology aspects for Skype as presented in Table 5 imply a positive and significant relationships between academic and social aspects (r = 0.694, p<0.01), between social and technology aspects (r = 0.681, p<0.01), and between academic and technology aspects (r = 0.640, p<0.01). The results suggest that with easy and accessible technology, students would communicate, collaborate and share more knowledge with their group members; therefore, they will learn more about their course of study.

Table 5. Correlations among academic, social and technology aspects
for Skype (n=25)

		Skype - Academic	Skype - Social	Skype - Technology
Skype - Academic	Pearson Correlation	1	.694[**]	.640[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.001
Skype - Social	Pearson Correlation	.694[**]	1	.681[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
Skype - Technology	Pearson Correlation	.640[**]	.681[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

While the online interactions were generally useful in promoting social and academic benefits, several findings raise concerns about the use of the CMC tools in collaborative learning. The findings in this study show that students regarded Skype as generally more useful than Wiki for project-based tasks in terms of academic, social and technological aspects, as the total mean scores were higher in Skype. The following sections discuss further on these aspects.

Academic and Social aspects

This study shows that the academic aspect plays an important role in the ICT-supported learning environments. Educators generally agree that simply including hardware and software will not result in effective learning. The key factor to learning efficiency is not the accessibility of technology but the pedagogical/course design (Mandell, Sorge, & Russell, 2002; Wang, 2008). Thus, technology such as Wiki and Skype makes pedagogical design practicable. The present study implies that students' discussion in a web-based learning environment can promote more social interaction in a collaborative context. Thus, social interactivity is indeed a fundamental component of a constructivist learning environment. The results also reveal advantages of online discussions such as being able to clarify issues in the topic and more equal opportunities for introvert students to share their views. Furthermore, this study demonstrates that the technological aspect was the primary requirement for the construction of a successful web-based learning environment. One of the differences between a computer-based learning environment and a traditional classroom setting is the amount of technology involvement. In an online learning environment, ICT becomes an essential part of the learning process.

Technological Aspect

Indeed, the technological aspect provides a solid base for the pedagogical/course and social design. The ease of access is vital for an online learning environment as identified in this study, and those who can gain easy access to technology tend to participate more in online learning. Thus, computer technology for collaborative learning needs to be utilised purposefully to support students' learning, not merely because the technology is

accessible. When technology is integrated into classrooms, it is often thought that such technology will capture the interest of students and engage them to effective learning. However, the attraction of new technology for collaborative learning may ultimately fade away, and students may be left with more knowledge about the technology than the subject matter which is the actual focus of the course.

CONCLUSION

In terms of satisfaction level, students stated that they could save time in discussing their tasks and sharing information on Wiki and Skype without the need to meet face-to-face. The students also mentioned that interaction through Wiki and Skype can enhance their writing skills and gain in-depth knowledge about the topic, know more about group members, less work load pressure, and learn about the CMC tools for discussion, and generating new ideas. However, some of the weaknesses in Wiki and Skype are that certain group members could not meet at the same time on Skype, while others experienced domination by their group member during the discussion. Other problems include conflicts in ideas, lack of trust in group members, lack of ICT skills, and poor Internet connection that caused frustration and delay in the communication. Moreover, some members did not read messages or respond to postings on Wiki. The lack of prior knowledge of Wiki has also made it more difficult to discuss their project efficiently.

In terms of usefulness, this study suggests that Wiki and Skype are tools that allow pedagogical design practicable. Students' discussion in a web-based learning environment can promote more social interaction in a collaborative context. Also, learning activities such as obtaining information, reading materials, online discussion and collaborative writing rely greatly on the use of, and supported by, the computer technology.

In general, the study shows that most students prefer synchronous interaction for the project-based tasks as they could get instant feedback in terms of ideas and information and sharing of knowledge from group members. The results from this study suggest that instructors should give more flexibility and less restriction for online interaction such as determining the frequency of discussion. The positive results of the present study also recommend that instructors should include asynchronous and/or synchronous CMC tools for group projects in their instructions.

REFERENCES

Barnes, K., Marateo, R., & Ferris, S. (2007). Teaching and learning with the net generation. Retrieved from http://www.innovateonline.info/index.php?view=article &id=382

Biesenbach-Lucas, S. (2003). Asynchronous discussion groups in teacher training classes: Perceptions of native and non-native students. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Network*, *7*(3), 24-46.

Campos, M., Laferrière, T., & Harasim, L. (2001). The post-secondary networked classroom: Renewal of teaching practices and social interaction. *Journal of asynchronous learning networks*, *5*(2), 36-52.

Garfield, J. (2013). Cooperative learning revisited: From an instructional method to away of life. *Journal of Statistics Education, 21*(2), 1-9.

Garrison, D. R. (2011). *E-learning in the 21st century: A framework for research and practice*. New York: Taylor & Francis.

Greenlaw, S. A., & DeLoach, S. B. (2003). Teaching critical thinking with electronic discussion. *The Journal of Economic Education*, *34*(1), 36-52.

Joy, E. H., & Garcia, F. E. (2000). Measuring learning effectiveness: A new look at no significant-difference findings. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks, 4*(1), *33-39.*

Kahmi-Stein, L. (2000). Looking to the future of TESOL teacher education: Web-based bulletin board discussions in a methods course. *TESOL Quartely, 34*(3): 423-455.

Lewandowski, J., Rosenberg, B. D., Jordan Parks, M., & Siegel, J. T. (2011). The effect of informal social support: Face-to-face versus computer-mediated communication. *Computers in Human Behavior, 27*(5), 1806-1814.

Lipnack, J., & Stamps, J. (2000). *Virtual teams: People working across boundaries with technology*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Mandell, S., Sorge, D. H., & Russell, J. D. (2002). Tips for technology integration. *TechTrends*, *46*(5), 39-43.

Palloff, R. M., & Pratt, K. (2010). *Collaborating online: Learning together in community* (Vol. 32). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Parker, D., & Gemino, A. (2001). Inside online learning: Comparing conceptual and technique learning performance in place-based and ALN formats. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks*, *5*(2), 64-74.

Poore, M. (2012). *Using social media in the classroom: A best practice guide*. California: Sage.

Rovai, A. A. (2002). A preliminary look at the structural differences of higher education classroom communities in traditional and ALN courses. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks, 6*(1), 41-56.

Shaw, G.P. & Pieter, W. (2000). The use of asynchronous learning networks in nutrition education: Student attitude, experiences and performance. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks, 4*(1), 40-51. Retrieved from http://www.sloanc.org/publications /jaln/v4n1/v4n1_ shawpieter.asp

Sheskin, D. J. (2003). *Handbook of parametric and nonparametric statistical procedures*. USA: CRC Press.

So, H. J., & Brush, T. J. (2008). Student perceptions of collaborative learning, social presence and satisfaction in a blended learning environment: Relationships and critical factors. *Computers & Education, 51*(1), 318-336.

Tapscott, D. (1998). *Growing up digital* (Vol. 302). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Tallent-Runnels, M. K., Tomoas, J. A., Lan, W. Y., Cooper, S., Ahern, T. C., Shaw, S. M., & Liu, X. (2006). Teaching courses online: a review of research. *Review of Educational Research, 76*(1)*,* 93-135.

Wang, Q. (2008). A generic model for guiding the integration of ICT into teaching and learning. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, *45*(4), 411-419.

Wang, Q. (2009). Guiding teachers in the process of ICT integration: Analysis of three conceptual models. *Educational Technology, 49*(5), 23-27.

Wilson, G., & Stacey, E. (2003). Online interaction impacts on learning: Teaching the teachers to teach online. In G. Crisp, D. Thiele, I. Scholten, S. Baker, & J. Baron (Eds.), *Interact, integrate, impact. Proceedings of the 20th Annual Conference of the Australasian Society for Computers in Learning in Tertiary Education (ASCILITE)* (pp. 541-551). Adelaide, Australia.

Weasenforth, D., Biesenbach-Lucas, S., & Meloni, C. (2002). Realizing constructivist objectives through collaborative technologies: Threaded discussions. *Language Learning & Technology*, *6*(3), 58-86.

EVALUATING METHODS OF ELICITING LANGUAGE PRODUCTION DATA ININTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATIC RESEARCH

Taw Ly Wen
Centre for the Advancement of Language Competence (CALC)
Universiti Putra Malaysia, Selangor, Malaysia
e-mail: lywen@upm.edu.my

Chan Swee Heng[1], Shameem Rafik-Galea[2]
English Language Department, Faculty of Modern Languages and Communications,
Universiti Putra Malaysia, Selangor, Malaysia
e-mail: shchan@upm.edu.my[1]; shameem@upm.edu.my[2]

ABSTRACT
Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP) research methods are divided into production-based methods and perception-based methods. This paper focuses on production-based methods giving a variety of possibilities for the elicitation of pragmatic language data. Eight methods are reviewed in this paper including the methods which are commonly used in ILP studies such as discourse completion tasks (DCT) and role play. It also reviews the innovative methods like Multimedia Elicitation Task (MET) and Naturalised Role Play (NRP) which are newly developed for pragmatic studies. The design methods range from those that use highly controlled approaches to those that have no deliberate constraints. The advantages and disadvantages of each method are explained and discussed. The paper concludes with a note on the researchers' decision on an appropriate method in ILP research which depends on various factors such as degree of authenticity, ease of administration, sample size, and research goal.

Keywords: design control, interlanguage pragmatics, language production data, research methods in pragmatics.

INTRODUCTION

Pragmatics is defined as the study of communicative actions including speech acts of apologising, complaining, complimenting, requesting, and other types of discourse in its sociocultural context (Hudson, 2001). Thomas classified pragmatics into pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics; the former refers to the use of appropriate language to convey a communicative act and the latter refers to appropriateness of a communicative act (Nelson, Carson, Al-Batal, & El-Bakary, 2002; Thomas, 1983). In Second Language Acquisition (SLA), pragmatics acts as "a constraint on linguistic forms and their acquisition," (Kasper & Rose, 1999, p.81) as well as learners' knowledge of communicative acts with the acquisition of second language (L2) pragmatics. Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP) refers to L2 learners' comprehension and production of L2 pragmatics.

In the early 1980s, there has been a substantial body of research on pragmatics (Kasper & Dahl, 1991). Social scientists grapple with the issue of appropriate data collection methods to answer their research questions, and researchers in pragmatics are no exception (Kasper, 2004). Kasper and Dahl (1991) categorise ILP pragmatics research methods into production-based methods and perception-based methods. The

aforementioned methods are reviewed within the range of two dimensions: modality of language use and degree of control.

In this review, emphasis is placed only on the production-based methods that provide a variety of possibilities for pragmatic language elicitations. There have been numerous reviews (Billmyer& Varghese, 2000; Golato, 2003; Kasper, 2004; Kasper & Dahl, 1991; Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan, 2011; Nurani, 2009; Parvaresh & Tavakoli, 2009; Rasekh & Alijanian, 2012; Sasaki, 1998; Yuan, 2001) on production-based methods in ILP studies which primarily focus on these three methods: discourse completion task, role play, and authentic discourse. However, there has been little attention given to the more recent innovative methods in ILP studies like cartoon or photo-enhanced oral production task as well as naturalised role play. Moreover, there has not been a marked categorisation for different types of closed role play in past reviews. The production-based methods are illustrated in Figure 1 ranging from those that are highly controlled to those with no deliberate constraint. Each of the eight methods is reviewed, and their advantages and disadvantages are explained and discussed along the ILP production based continuum

Figure 1.Continuum of production-based ILP research methods
(adapted from Kasper & Dahl, 1991, p.217)

Written Discourse Completion Task

Since the emergence of the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisations Patterns Project (CCSARP) (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984), Written Discourse Completion Task (WDCT) has been extensively used in numerous pragmatics studies. Generally, there are two types of WDCT: in the form of dialogue completion task and open-ended questionnaires (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993; Kasper & Dahl, 1991). The former is a highly constrained instrument in which the prompt involves a rejoinder that invites discourse production whereas the latter is a refined version of WDCT which involves a prompt that provides a description of a situation followed by a space to respond. Having the rejoinders in WDCT has been subject to criticism as it lacks authenticity, particularly when hearer response is unpredictable (Roever, 2004). The existing WDCT is then modified whereby a content-enriched description of situation is provided in the WDCT which encourages more external modification from the respondents (Billmyer & Varghese, 2000).

The WDCT has been criticised for being too artificial as it does not reflect authentic speech behaviour (Beebe & Cummings, 1985; Rose,1994; Wolfson, Marmor, & Jones, 1989). The use of pen and paper in the WDCT is claimed to resemble a test-like method (Sasaki, 1998). However, Urano's study on compliment responses found that the WDCT raised the participants' metacognitive awareness when responding to compliments even though it did not have a totally authentic context (Urano, 2000). In Golato's study (2003) of German compliment response using two different methods

which are WDCT and authentic discourse, it was found that all participants responded to compliments in WDCT, but some of them ignored compliments in natural conversations. Due to its nature of test-like method, participants would take all the situations given in DCT as the compulsory tasks to complete, unlike in a natural conversation in real life in which they might ignore giving the response. Thus, WDCT can generally be considered as rather rigid and highly controlled as a method for eliciting spoken discourse in pragmatic studies.

Despite the drawbacks of WDCT, it can still reveal learners' pragmalinguistic and metapragmatic knowledge on a specific pragmatic feature (Hudson, 2001; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Yuan, 2001). In addition, WDCT enables a systematic comparison of the semantic formulae and strategies of speech acts among different cultural and linguistic groups (Barron, 2001; Rue & Zhang, 2008). It can be an effective instrument to elicit appropriate speech acts if adequate control of the variables is achieved (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). Other advantages of the method lie in the ease of obtaining a large amount of data within a short time. The control of context can also lend itself to systematic variations. As a result of these advantages, the WDCT is the most common method in pragmatics studies (Blum-Kulka & House, 1989; Cohen & Olshtain, 1994). Blum-Kulka and House (1989) noted that this method makes the research administration stress-free especially when it involves a large number of participants across different cultures. In a multiracial country like Malaysia, this method can be an effective tool to analyse pragmatic production data in a cross-cultural pragmatic studies.

Closed Role Play

The next method, Role Plays can be divided into closed role play and open role play (Gass & Houck, 1999; Kasper & Dahl, 1991). In closed role play, learners have to respond to the description of a situation that involves specific instructions. In contrast to open role play, closed role-play only consists of a single informant turn in response. Oral Discourse Completion Task and Cartoon Oral Production Task are categorised as closed role plays in this review.

Oral Discourse Completion Task

In the early 1980s, Cohen and Olshtain used the Oral Discourse Completion Task (ODCT) instrument to elicit the speech act of apology. The situations in ODCTs are presented orally by the researcher and the respondents listen and respond to each situation orally.Oral DCT has the advantage over the written DCT in that it shares the feature of spoken data (Rose & Ono, 1995). In the comparative studies of ILP, Yuan (2001) found that respondents provide longer responses, more explanation particles, repetitions, inversions, omissions, and turns in their ODCT responses compared to the WDCT.

In a study conducted by Eslami and Mirzaei (2014) which compares WDCT and ODCT in assessing pragmatic production, the results revealed that data derived from ODCT has more elaborate responses compared to WDCT. In light of the distinct difference in the spoken and written form in Persian language, Eslami and Mirzaei (2014) also found that data collected from ODCT resembled authentic data more than WDCT. This was clearly shown from the use of politeness marker (please) in written form, which was used more frequently in WDCT. Thus, ODCT is deemed "representative of natural speech" with a systematic control of variables (Yuan, 2001). Apart from that, ODCT also allows for a large quantity of data to be collected within a short time. However, ODCT does not offer the opportunity to study interaction and negotiation as in real life. It is criticised for being artificial and lacking in context. It is to be noted that respondents have

to say everything in one turn in ODCT which results in longer responses than what is actually produced in natural speech (Beebe & Cummings, 1985).

Cartoon Oral Production Task

Cartoon Oral Production Task (COPT) is considered as a closed role-play and it was initially designed for young L2 learners. COPT was originally developed by Rose (2000) in a cross-sectional study of pragmatic development to elicit speech acts of request, apology, and compliment from three groups of primary school students in Hong Kong. In this task, each cartoon is followed with a descriptive caption in which a main character, named Siu Keung has to face different encounters. For example, Siu Keung has to make an apology based on the stimulus in Figure 2.

Siu Keung bumped into his classmate and he fell down.
Figure 2. Cartoon OPT (Rose, 2000, p.60)

Salgado (2011) adapted Rose's COPT to elicit request and apology among adult EFL learners in Mexico. Another variation is seen in Nickels' modified COPT whereby he used Photo-enhanced Oral Production Task as illustrated in Figure 3 to investigate EFL learners' realisations of requests. To enable the best visualised situations as much as possible, the photographs that were used were taken on-site to reflect the familiar environment of the participants (Nickels, 2006).

It is registration day and you need to pay for classes.
You only have checks. You talk to Janet (the secretary) about it.
Figure 3. Photo-enhanced OPT (Nickels, 2006, p.278)

Studies have shown that pictures assists in building mental models when the texts are presented with appropriate pictures (Glenberg & Langston, 1992). The illustrated

OPT serves the purpose very well as it provides visual context in various scenarios that participants are able to relate to. In addition, this instrument also "represents interactive formats with different stimuli" which can enhance the construct validity of a study (Félix-Brasdefer, 2010). However, there should be attention given to the language used in picture descriptions. In Rose's study (2000), the researcher reads the brief description in Cantonese, which is the participants' first language. This would stimulate the true ability of the participants in conveying the discourse in the target language—English language, as the participants might use the same words they encountered from the descriptions if they were written in English language. Therefore, the procedures of conducting COPT or Photo-enhanced Oral Production Task should be well-designed.

Multimedia Elicitation Task
In todays' fast advancing world of technology, it is not surprising that the use of technology has merged into the ILP production studies. Multimedia Elicitation Task (MET) is a computer-based instrument that shares the similarities of closed role plays with audio visual input. It was developed by Shauer (2004) in her study of ILP development in request speech act among the German learners of English. In MET, participants receive audio and visual contextual information on a series of slides presented by the computers and the learners formulate their requests which are recorded (Schauer, 2004, 2006a). Besides providing audiovisual context information through a computerised presentation format that helps participants to simulate the situation, MET also provides equal opportunities and conditions for every participant to increase the validity of comparability (Ayoun, 2007; Schauer, 2006b, 2010). Studies have shown that computer-based texts are more effective and motivating for language learners (García & Arias, 2000; Ilter, 2009). However, MET suffers from the drawback of delimiting participants' production to no more than one turn (Schauer, 2006a, 2006b). Like the methods aforementioned, MET does not allow interaction between interlocutors and this gives rise to lack of authentic speech behaviour in real life.

Open Role Play
Role play (RP) is defined as a series of activities which are characterised by participants in 'as-if' or 'simulated' actions (Yardley-Matwiejczuk, 1997). It is considered as one aspect of simulation that brings participants to 'life' by conjuring the images of theatre in them (Crookall & Saunders, 1989). Unlike closed role plays, open role-plays may involve more than one turn and discourse phases to maintain interaction between the participants. Kipper categorises RP into spontaneous RP and mimetic-replicating RP according to the type of involvement of participants and interaction length. In spontaneous RP, participants retain their own identities whereas participants play the role of a visually presented model in mimetic-replicating RP (Kipper, 1988).

As RP allows the observation of various discourse features with a control of systematic variables, it has become widely used by many researchers in pragmatics studies. It has the advantage of face-to-face interaction with multiple turns and discourse phases (Félix-Brasdefer, 2007, 2010; Kasper & Rose, 2002). Unlike authentic discourse, Kasper and Dahl (1991) state that role play is replicable within a systematic design of the contexts and roles that are likely to elicit specific discourse features and speech acts. In addition, Kasper and Rose (2002) maintain that the targeted pragmatic features embedded in role play enable the researchers to observe the influence of context factors on pragmatic production. Assigning different roles to the learners enables researchers to observe the effect of the sociopragmatics factor on their pragmatic productions (Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan, 2006).

Notwithstanding the advantages, RP however, also suffers from the drawback of lacking in authenticity of speech production. The roles of participants are usually fictitious and artificial and participants are required to construct a new identity to act out the fictional world to perform the interaction. This could affect their pragmatic production as adopting a fictitious character may inhibit rather than promote natural discourse that mirrors real life use (Golato, 2003; Kasper, 2004; Kasper & Rose, 1999). Cohen and Olshtain (1994) emphasise that participants of RP are obliged to put on an act and this may disadvantage the participants as they may not be good actors. In a study conducted by Ewald (2012) which investigated direction-giving by using authentic discourse and role play, the results revealed that the participants in the role play demonstrated significantly different use of verbal devices that describe landmark and mileage estimates by comparison with authentic discourse. This could be due to the participants' awareness of being research participants during the role play and therefore this awareness affected the participants' linguistic use. Moreover, Kasper and Dahl (1991) state that RP is more time-consuming and difficult to transcribe than in closed RP as it provides wider contexts.

Nonetheless, RP is still considered as more ethnographic in design and is reasonably similar to authentic language (Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan, 2006). When compared to authentic discourse, some speech events elicited through RP have been found to be less complex and therefore more amenable to analysis (Eisenstein & Bodman, 1986).

Naturalised Role Play
Naturalised Role-play (NRP) (also known as naturalistic role play) is an innovative method developed by Tran as a way to obtaining spontaneous data with the control of social variables. As suggested by the term of 'naturalised', the core basis of NRP embodies the notion of eliciting natural data which closely resemble real life in a controlled setting (Tran, 2006a).

In NRP, there are a number of tasks that the participants have to perform with the researcher or role play conductor. These tasks are conducted in a way that participants are not conscious of the target pragmatic production. The conductor is able to distract the participants from the research focus in the eliciting of more spontaneous pragmatic production (Tran, 2006a, 2006b, 2007). In fact, by allowing the NRP conductors to lead the conversations subtly, tasks are able to elicit pragmatic production spontaneously. To obtain maximal results, NRP conductors must be trained to lead the elicitations of targeted pragmatic production in the conversations spontaneously. Thus, NRP allows the researcher to embed the targeted pragmatic feature into communicative tasks that closely represent real life situations in a controlled setting (Tran, 2006a). It is to be noted that NRP has the advantage over RP as NRP ensures that the participants are unaware of the research focus throughout the whole procedure (Cheng, 2011). Tran (2006a) claims that NRP enables the elicitation of more natural data by overcoming the limitations of RP in carrying out the prescribed task. In a study of compliment response by Vietnamese speakers of English, Tran (2006a) compared the innovative method of NRP to other methods including DCT, closed role play and open role play. It was found that data collected using NRP was almost similar to authentic discourse. Tran (2006a) emphasises that the extra tasks in NRP intend to distract the participants from the research focus. These aforementioned extra tasks stimulate more natural data not only because the participants are not aware of the research focus as stated by Tran (2006), but also the longer time frame needed for these extra tasks helps the participants feel at ease as in engaging in natural talk.

NRP is an innovation that attempts to encompass the advantages and overcome the disadvantages of some the ILP methods. It, however, is not perfect as the well-planned procedure is not spontaneous itself in the controlled settings, and the role play conductors may still lack the skill of behaving 'naturally". NRP situations must be designed meticulously to ensure they closely resemble real life situations and the design may involve much more time compared to the other methods.

Elicited Conversation

As presented in Figure 1, Elicited Conversation (EC) comes in between the elicited and observational in the continuum of control. EC derives data from conversations in natural occurrences where informants are asked to carry out a conversation task or participate in an interview without constructing a new identity with other social roles.

EC has the advantage of collecting spontaneous authentic language use by speakers who are speaking as themselves. It can more accurately account for different discourse features, as are more representative of task-specific communicative acts with the embedding of the expression of reference and modality (Kasper, 2004). However, Kasper (2004) states that because there is no manipulation of participant roles; it only permits the capturing of a restricted set of communicative acts. The data from EC is claimed to be insufficient from the standpoint of comparability of language samples which tend to be broad and diverse.

Authentic Discourse

Taking field notes and audio-or video-taking are two other approaches in collecting authentic spoken discourse in the study of pragmatics, and the former is more commonly used. Taking field notes of authentic discourse has the advantage over other methods for providing insights on natural data in authentic setting although it is time-consuming and difficult (Olshtain & Cohen, 1983; Rose, 1994). However, field note data and ethnographic data can be unsystematic whereby the social characteristics of the informants are often left unknown (Beebe & Cummings, 2006; Yuan, 2001). Authentic discourse embraces "micro-designed and coordinated action" which could be extremely complex (Kasper & Roever, 2005); thus careful and proper recording is the mainstay of providing valid and reliable data as Golato (2003) and Yuan (2001) point out. As authentic discourse is motivated and structured by participants' rather than researcher's goals, Kasper (2004) remarks that it has limitation when the research goal is to compare particular pragmatic discourse features obtained from different groups of speakers in a given context. Despite the validity and reliability that authentic discourse can offer, this method somehow raises ethical issues as data collected by taking field notes and audio-or video-taking may be without the research subjects' consent.

CONCLUSION

This paper attempts to review the ILP methods for eliciting speech act performance and highlights their advantages and disadvantages. Beebe and Cummings (1985) assert that all the data collection methods have both positive and negative aspects, thus there is really no one best method. As Bardovi-Harlig (cited in Barron, 2001, p. 79) puts it, "we need to get away from the best-method mentality, and return to the notion of customising the research design to fit the question." Cohen and Olshtain (1994) also point out that combination of instruments is the ideal way to collect data. In addition, practicality and feasibility should be considered when selecting the research method. For instance, if a study requires a large body of data rather than an in-depth discourse analysis of a smaller

data set, open role-play would not be an ideal choice among the ILP methods although it provides rich interactional data under controlled settings (Kasper, 2004). Yuan (2001) states the choice of data collecting method should depend on the research question and the researcher's goal. From this review, it is apparent that a researcher can resort to a number of choices and his decision-making rests on many factors such as degree of authenticity, ease of administration and sample size. Validity issues will come into play and the researcher must be aware of his or her research goals and is able to justify the method chosen based on a rationale that shows the exercise of good sense in the context of practicality, usability and full awareness of the degree of sacrifice as far as speech authenticity is concerned. The various ILP methods are at best an approximate as real life language is complex and difficult to capture for all research intents and purposes.

REFERENCES

Ayoun, D. (2007). *French Applied Linguistics* (Vol. 16). Philadelphia: John Benjamins Pub.Co.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Hartford, B.S. (1993). Refining the DCT: Comparing open questionnaires and dialogue completion tasks. *Pragmatics and Language Learning, 4*, 143-165.

Barron, A. (2001). *Acquisition in interlanguage pragmatics: Learning how to do things with words in a study abroad context*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins Pub. Co.

Beebe, L. M., & Cummings, M. C. (1985). *Speech act performance: A function of the data collection procedure*. Paper presented at the TESOL Convention, New York.

Beebe, L. M., & Cummings, M. C. (2006). Natural speech act versus written questionnaire data: How data collection method affects speech act performance. In Gass, S. M., & Neu, J. (Eds.), *Speech acts across cultures: Challenges to communication in a second language*. New York: Mouton De Gruyter.

Billmyer, K., & Varghese, M. (2000). Investigating instrument-based pragmatic variability: Effects of enhancing discourse completion tests. *Applied Linguistics, 21*(4), 517-552.

Blum-Kulka, S., & House, J. (1989). Cross-cultural and situational variation in requesting behavior. In S. Blum-Kulka, J. House & G. Kaspe (Eds.), *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies* (pp. 123-173). New Jersey: Ablex Pub.Corp.

Blum-Kulka, S., & Olshtain, E. (1984). Requests and apologies: A cross-cultural study of speech act realization patterns (CCSARP). *Applied Linguistics, 3*, 196-212.

Celce-Murcia, M., & Olshtain, E. (2000). *Discourse and context in language teaching*. NY: Cambridge University Press.

Cheng, D. (2011). New insights on compliment responses: A comparison between native English speakers and Chinese L2 speakers. *Journal of Pragmatics 43*(8), 2204-2214.

Cohen, A. D., & Olshtain, E. (1994). Researching the production of second language speech acts. In E. T. Tarone, S. M. Gass, & A. D. Cohen (Eds.), *Research methodology in second language acquisition* (pp. 143-156). New Jersey: L. Erlbaum.

Crookall, D., & Saunders, D. (1989). Towards an integration of communication and simulation. In D. Crookall & D. Saunders (Eds.), *Communication and simulation: From two fields to one theme* (pp.33-52). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Eisenstein, M., & Bodman, J. W. (1986). 'I very appreciate': Expressions of gratitude by native and non-native speakers of American English. *Applied Linguistics, 7*(2), 167-185.

Eslami, Z. R. & Mirzaei, A. (2014). Speech act data collection in a non-western context: Oral and written DCTs in the Persian language. *Iranian Journal of Language Testing*, *4*(1), 137-154.

Ewald, J. D. (2012). "Can you yell me how to get there?": Naturally-occuring versus role play data in direction giving. *Pragmatics,* 22(1), 79-102.

Félix-Brasdefer, J. C. (2007). Natural speech vs. elicited data: A comparison of natural and role play requests in Mexican Spanish. *Spanish in Context, 4 (2)*, 159–185.

Félix-Brasdefer, J. C. (2010). Data collection methods in speech acts performance: DCTs, role plays, and verbal reports. In A. M. Flor, & E. U. Juan (Eds.), *Speech act performance: Theoretical, empirical and methodological issues*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Pub. Company.

García, M. R., & Arias, F. V. (2000). A comparative study in motivation and learning through print-oriented and computer-oriented tests. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 13*(4), 457-465.

Gass, S. M., & Houck, N. (1999). *Interlanguage refusals: a cross-cultural study of Japanese-English*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Glenberg, A. M., & Langston, W. E. (1992). Comprehension of illustrated text: Pictures help to build mental models. *Journal of Memory and Language, 31*(2), 129-151. doi:10.1016/ 0749-596x(92)90008-l

Golato, A. (2003). Studying compliment responses: A comparison of DCTs and recordings of naturally occuring talk. *Applied Linguistics, 24*(1), 90-121.

Hudson, T. (2001). *Indicators for pragmatic instruction*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Ilter, B. G. (2009). Effect of technology on motivation in EFL classrooms *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education (TOJDE), 10*(4), Article 9.

Kasper, G. (2004). Data collection in pragmatics research. In H. Spencer-Oatey (Ed.), *Culturally speaking: Managing rapport through talk across cultures*. NY: Continuum.

Kasper, G., & Dahl, M. (1991). Research methods in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 13*(2), 215-247.

Kasper, G., & Roever, C. (2005). *Pragmatics in second language learning*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. R. (1999). Pragmatics and SLA. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics,19,* 81-104.

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. R. (2002). *Pragmatic development in a second language*. Malden: Wiley-Blackwell.

Kipper, D. A. (1988). Role-playing techniques: Locus of control and the attraction to behavior simulation interventions. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 44*(5), 810-816. doi:10.1002/ 1097-4679(198809)44:5<810::aid-jclp2270440526>3.0.co;2-d

Martínez-Flor, A., & Usó-Juan, E. (2006). Pragmatic development in a second or foreign language: Some classroom technique. *GRETA*, *14*(1&2), 50-56.

Martínez-Flor, A., & Usó-Juan, E. (2011). Research methodologies in pragmatics: Eliciting refusals to requests. *Estudios de lingüística inglesa aplicada (ELIA)*, *11*, 47-87

Nelson, G. L., Carson, J., Al Batal, M., & El Bakary, W. (2002). Cross-Cultural Pragmatics: Strategy Use in Egyptian Arabic and American English Refusals. *Applied Linguistics, 23*(2), 163-189.

Nickels, E. L. (2006). Interlanguage pragmatics and the effects of setting. In K. Bardovi-Harlig, J. C. Felix-Brasdefer & A. S. Omar, (Eds.), *Pragmatics & Language*

Learning (Vol. 11, pp. 253-278).). Honolulu: National Foreign Language Resource Center, University of Hawai'i.

Nurani, L.M. (2009). Methodological issue in pragmatic research: Is discourse completion test a reliable data collection instrument? *Jurnal Sosioteknologi,17*(8) , 667-678.

Olshtain, E., & Cohen, A. D. (1983). Apology: A speech act set. In N. Wolfson & E. Judd, (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and Language Acquisition* (pp. 18-35.). Manchester: Newbury House.

Parvaresh, V., & Tavakoli, M. (2009). Discourse completion tasks as elicitation tools: How convergent are they? *The Social Sciences*, *4*(4), 366-373.

Rasekh, A.E., Alijanian, E. (2012). Eliciting Persian requests: DCT and role play data. *World Journal of Education, 2*(3), 80-86.

Roever, C. (2004). Difficulty and practicality in test of interlanguage pragmatics. In D. Boxer, & A. D. Cohen (Eds.), *Studying speaking to inform second language learning* (pp.252-282). UK: Multilingual Matters.

Rose, K. R. (1994). On the validity of discourse completion tests in non-western contexts. *Applied Linguistics, 15*(1), 1-14.

Rose, K. R. (2000). An exploratory cross-sectional Study of interlanguage pragmatic development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 22*(1), 27-67.

Rose, K. R., & Ono, R. (1995). Eliciting speech act data in Japanese: The effect of questionnaire type. *Language Learning, 45*(2), 191-223.

Rue, Y. J., & Zhang, G. Q. (2008). *Request strategies: A comparative study in Mandarin Chinese and Korean*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Pub. Co.

Salgado, E. F. (2011). *The pragmatics of requests and apologies: Developmental patterns of mexican students*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins Pub.Co.

Sasaki, M. (1998). Investigating EFL students' production of speech acts: A comparison of production questionnaires and role plays. *Journal of Pragmatics 30*(4), 457-484.

Schauer, G. A. (2004). May you speak louder maybe?: Interlanguage pragmatic development in requests. *EUROSLA Yearbook, 4*(1), 253-272. doi:10.1075/ eurosla.4.12sch

Schauer, G. A. (2006a). *The development of ESL learners' pragmatic competence: A longitudinal investigation of awareness and production* (Vol. 11). Honolulu: National Foreign Language Resource Center, University of Hawai'i.

Schauer, G. A. (2006b). Pragmatic awareness in ESL and EFL contexts: Contrast and Development. *Language Learning, 56*(2), 269-318.

Schauer, G. A. (2010). Study abroad and its effect on speech act performance. In Flor, A. M., & Juan, E. U. (Eds.), *Speech act performance: Theoretical, empirical and methodological issues*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins Pub. Company.

Thomas, J. (1983). *Cross-cultural pragmatic failure*. UK: Oxford University Press.

Tran, G. Q. (2006a). The naturalized role-play: An innovative methodology in cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics research. *Reflections on English Language Teaching, 5*(2), 1-24.

Tran, G. Q. (2006b). *The nature and conditions of pragmatic and discourse transfer investigated through naturalized role-play*. Muenchen: LINCOM EUROPA.

Tran, G. Q. (2007). The nature of pragmatic and discourse transfer in compliment responses in cross-cultural interaction. *Linguistics Journal, 3*(3), 167 - 205.

Urano, K. (2000). Negative pragmatic transfer in compliment responses by Japanese learners of English: A research proposal. *Shinshu University Research on Communication and Language Education (SURCLE), 2*, 27-38.

Wolfson, N., Marmor, T., & Jones, S. (1989). Problems in the comparison of speech acts across cultures. In S. Blum-Kulka, J. House, & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies* (pp. 174-196). New Jersey: Ablex.

Yardley-Matwiejczuk, K. M. (1997). *Role play: Theory and practice*. London: SAGE Pub. Ltd.

Yuan, Y. (2001). An inquiry into empirical pragmatics data-gathering methods: Written DCTs, oral DCTs, field notes, and natural conversations. *Journal of Pragmatics 33*(2), 271-292.

SEMANTIC AND PHONETIC ELEMENTS OF CHEMISTRY TERMS IN ENGLISH-CHINESE TRANSLATION

Low Fong Ling[1], Ang Lay Hoon[2]
Department of Foreign Language, Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication
Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia
e-mail: fllow87@hotmail.com[1]; hlang@upm.edu.my[2]

ABSTRACT

Translation covers a variety of disciplines or fields, including politics, philosophy, economics, art, science and religion to name a few. When one comes across different languages with two distinct cultures, translation appears to be the most frequently practiced method to introduce a common novel term. This paper examines the translation from English into Chinese. The data for this study are the Chinese translation of 112 chemical elements from a periodic table. This study uses a qualitative descriptive approach to examine the grammatical features of Chinese translation of chemical elements from the semantic and phonological perspectives. The analysis of data revealed that the unique property of Chinese radicals has been fully utilised in the Chinese translation. Consequently, the semantic aspects of the chemical elements are well informed in the translation. On the other hand, the phonological elements in Chinese translation have been simplified and reduced to only one sound which is represented by only one character. The translation of chemical elements is considered unique, both semantically and phonologically, in achieving the equivalence in the Chinese language.

Keywords: chemical elements, Chinese translation, periodic table, phonetic loan, semantic loan

INTRODUCTION

Globalisation takes place in the form of intercultural communication regardless of borders and nations. Subsequently, language contact occurs as language is a significant tool in human communication and civilization. As defined by Sapir (2014), "the necessities of intercourse bring the speakers of one language into direct or indirect contact with those of neighboring or culturally dominant languages" (p. 205). The evidence of language contact is in accordance with Sapir's (1921, as cited in Zhu, 2011) earlier statement, that is, "the simplest kind of influence that one language may exert on another is the borrowing of words" (p.100).

Yan and Deng (2009) also highlighted that "borrowing" of words is considered the most natural form of impact that one language may exert on another, whether spontaneous or induced. In other words, language borrowing is the natural outcome of language contact and a significant part of language promotion. Although the direction and scale are different from time to time, language borrowing is prevalent around the world.

The concept of "borrowing" is explained differently in various studies. In translation studies, "borrowing" is precisely referred to the translation technique of using a source language item in the target language (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995). This definition suggests intentional use of borrowings in translation. On the other hand, in language contact research, "borrowing" means importing linguistics terms from one linguistic system into another. In this case, borrowing stands its non-strategic occurrence at which

languages influence one another anytime over a period of time. For example, Chinese vocabularies are borrowed by Korean and Japanese language while English borrowed an immense number of words from French language. In this paper, translation will be discussed related to both language contact and borrowing.

While discussing "borrowing", the discussion on "loanwords" will not be neglected as these two terms are closely related. According to the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, "borrowing is a word or phrase which has been taken from one language and used in another language. When a single word is borrowed, it is called a loan word" (Richards, 2000, cited in Yan & Deng, 2009, p.34). The definitions of "loanwords" are varied according to different dictionaries. The Webster's New World Dictionary stated that a loanword is "a word of one language taken into and used in another" (Agnes, 2003, p.379). Arguments on the definition of loanwords also cover the views of whether it should refer only to phonetic loan or both phonetic and semantic loan.

Phonetic loan and semantic loan are closely related to the borrowing method in importing the foreign words into Mandarin Chinese. The phonological adaptation, also known as transliteration, describes the way by which Chinese characters with pronunciations that most possibly resemble the syllables of the English donor word are coined together to produce a word that sounds like English, but has an unrelated meaning as conveyed by the characters themselves (Nelson, 2013). As a result, phonemic loans sound similar to the original English input but the characters used to represent them appear to Chinese readers as a "semantically…jumbled mismatch of Chinese characters that [make] no sense" (Sun & Jiang, 2000, as cited in Nelson, 2013, p.499) which easily cause confusion for those who usually perceive the word meanings through their visual perception rather than phonemic components. Without using the sounds of the English word, semantic translation, on the other hand, focuses on the combination of Chinese characters that express the meaning conceived in the donor language.

Generally, the favourable borrowing outputs tend to be those that are in common with native Chinese word. Therefore a prediction was made that Chinese speakers would rather prefer native words more than loan words, and semantic translation over phonological translation based on the research of Tian and Backus (2013). However, Nelson (2013) demonstrated a totally surprising result where most of the participants in her study showed a preference for borrowed words as well as phonological adaptations. This implies that phonemic loans and semantic loans are both acceptable depending on the contexts.

Language borrowing is unavoidable in language development and it has become a linguistic phenomenon that happens everywhere all the time. More and more loan words get established in the native languages and some even take the place of the indigenous language. The scope of discussion of this paper is about phonetic loan and semantic loan that are found in English to Chinese language translation of chemical elements found in the periodic chemistry table.

Periodic Table

A total of 118 chemical elements of atomic from number 1 (hydrogen) to 118 (ununoctium) were identified and are displayed in a tabular form, known as a chemistry periodic table. There are several types of periodic table such as the Mendeleev's periodic table, wide periodic table, and extended periodic table. However, the standard form of a periodic table, on accounts of its popularity, is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Standard form of the periodic table. (Adapted from *Wikipedia* http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Periodic_table)

The periodic table was first established by Dmitri Mendeleev, a Russian chemist, in 1869. It was then further refined by other researchers as new elements were discovered. The 18-column periodic table is regarded as the most common and standard form on accounts of its popularity. The elements are presented in increasing atomic number and arranged into vertical columns (groups) and horizontal rows (periods) to display their similarities between physical and chemical properties. The main body of the table is a 7 × 18 grid while f-block is demonstrated below. F-block is excluded from the main grid as it would cause the table impractically extensive. F-block consists of the elements whose atoms or ions have valence electrons in f-orbital, which referred to elements with atomic number 57-71 and 89-103 (Porterfield, 2013).

The elemental ideas were originated by some scholars since ancient times. Among them, the Greek philosopher, Aristotle proposed that everything is made up of four "roots" (initially put forth by Empedocles, the Sicilian philosopher) but later another philosopher Plato renamed them as "elements" (Plato, 1925 as cited in Donald, 2000). The four elements were earth, water, air and fire (Hall, 2010). Although the concept of "elements" was introduced yet no further study has been done to advance the comprehension of the nature of matter. This paper explores the reemergence of the concept of elements in the Chinese translation. In other words, the Chinese translation of chemical elements in the periodic table is known to make use of the concept of "elements" and embodies the semantic elements by coining Chinese characters.

In this study, the data for the Chinese translation of chemical elements was collected through the online Dictionary of Chinese Character Variants (2000). However, Chinese translation is only available for the first 112 chemical elements in the periodic table while for the others the atomic numbers 113 to 118 are not included in the discussion. This is because elements 113 to 118 do not have official names as their synthesis has not been confirmed. A systematic element name will be assigned to newly synthesized or not yet synthesized chemical elements. For example, element 113, is temporarily called Ununtrium (Uut) and has yet to be given a permanent name. Therefore the Chinese translation is available only up to element 112 in the periodic table. Element

112, formerly known as Ununbium (Uub), was officially named Copernicium (Cp) on 19 February 2010 to commemorate the astronomer, Nicolaus Copernicus who died on the same day 540 years ago (Tatsumi & Corish, 2010). The Chinese translation for Copernicium was proposed and approved by China National Committee for Terms in Sciences and Technologies later in 2012 (Zhao, 2011).

The data source is chosen based on the reliability that it was established under the Ministry of Education, Republic of China. The version of font used in China is simplified characters. This study explores the features of chemical terms in Chinese language and discusses how semantic loan and phonetic loan are made possible in Chinese translation in the same aspect.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The English-Chinese translation of chemical elements in the periodic table supports Nelson's (2013) findings that phonemic loans and semantic loans can be both well accepted by users. In fact, the linguistics features, obviously semantic and phonetic, are so well blended in English-Chinese translation that the chemical elements are not alienated as may happen in most transliteration but appeared natural as new names to the chemical elements in the Chinese language. The translation approach is very unique that it is not purely transliteration but a mixture of semantic and phonetic loan. Interestingly the same approach is used for every chemical element in a systematic and consistent way regardless of the dot in timeline.

The Chinese translation, the atomic number and scientific name of 112 chemical elements in the periodic table and their matter state and properties at room temperature is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Chinese translation of chemical elements in periodic table

Symbol	Element	Chinese translation	Symbol	Element	Chinese translation
H	Hydrogen	氢 *qīng*	La	Lanthanum	镧 *lán*
He	Helium	氦 *hài*	Ce	Cerium	铈 *shì*
Li	Lithium	锂 *lǐ*	Pr	Praseodymium	镨 *pǔ*
Be	Beryllium	铍 *pí*	Nd	Neodymium	钕 *nǚ*
B	Boron	硼 *péng*	Pm	Promethium	钷 *pǒ*
C	Carbon	碳 *tàn*	Sm	Samarium	钐 *shàn*
N	Nitrogen	氮 *dàn*	Eu	Europium	铕 *yǒu*
O	Oxygen	氧 *yǎng*	Gd	Gadolinium	钆 *gá*
F	Fluorine	氟 *fú*	Tb	Terbium	铽 *tè*
Ne	Neon	氖 *nǎi*	Dy	Dysprosium	镝 *dí*
Na	Sodium	钠 *nà*	Ho	Holmium	钬 *huǒ*
Mg	Magnesium	镁 *měi*	Er	Erbium	铒 *ěr*
Al	Aluminium	铝 *lǚ*	Tm	Thulium	铥 *diū*
Si	Silicon	硅 *guī*	Yb	Ytterbium	镱 *yì*
P	Phosphorus	磷 *lín*	Lu	Lutetium	镥 *lǔ*
S	Sulphur	硫 *liú*	Hf	Hafnium	铪 *hā*
Cl	Chlorine	氯 *lǜ*	Ta	Tantalum	钽 *tǎn*
Ar	Argon	氩 *yà*	W	Tungsten	钨 *wū*
K	Potassium	钾 *jiǎ*	Re	Rhenium	铼 *lái*
Ca	Calcium	钙 *gài*	Os	Osmium	锇 *é*
Sc	Scandium	钪 *kàng*	Ir	Iridium	铱 *yī*
Ti	Titanium	钛 *tài*	Pt	Platinum	铂 *bó*

V	Vanadium	钒 *fán*	Au	Gold	金 *jīn*
Cr	Chromium	铬 *gè*	Hg	Mercury	汞 *gǒng*
Mn	Manganese	锰 *měng*	Tl	Thallium	铊 *tā*
Fe	Iron	铁 *tiě*	Pb	Lead	铅 *qiān*
Co	Cobalt	钴 *gǔ*	Bi	Bismuth	铋 *bì*
Ni	Nickel	镍 *niè*	Po	Polonium	钋 *pō*
Cu	Copper	铜 *tóng*	At	Astatine	砹 *ài*
Zn	Zinc	锌 *xīn*	Rn	Radon	氡 *dōng*
Ga	Gallium	镓 *jiā*	Fr	Francium	钫 *fāng*
Ge	Germanium	锗 *zhě*	Ra	Radium	镭 *léi*
As	Arsenic	砷 *shēn*	Ac	Actinium	锕 *ā*
Se	Selenium	硒 *xī*	Th	Thorium	钍 *tǔ*
Br	Bromine	溴 *xiù*	Pa	Protactinium	镤 *pú*
Kr	Krypton	氪 *kè*	U	Uranium	铀 *yóu*
Rb	Rubidium	铷 *rú*	Np	Neptunium	镎 *ná*
Sr	Strontium	锶 *sī*	Pu	Plutonium	钚 *bù*
Y	Yttrium	钇 *yǐ*	Am	Americium	镅 *méi*
Zr	Zirconium	锆 *gào*	Cm	Curium	锔 *jù*
Nb	Niobium	铌 *ní*	Bk	Berkelium	锫 *péi*
Mo	Molybdenum	钼 *mù*	Cf	Californium	锎 *kāi*
Tc	Technetium	锝 *dé*	Es	Einsteinium	锿 *āi*
Ru	Ruthenium	钌 *liǎo*	Fm	Fermium	镄 *fèi*
Rh	Rhodium	铑 *láo*	Md	Mendelevium	钔 *mén*
Pd	Palladium	钯 *bā*	No	Nobelium	锘 *nuò*
Ag	Silver	银 *yín*	Lr	Lawrendum	铹 *láo*
Cd	Cadmium	镉 *gé*	Rf	Rutherfordium	𬬻 卢 *lú*
In	Indium	铟 *yīn*	Db	Dubnium	𬭊 杜 *dù*
Sn	Tin	锡 *xī*	Sg	Seaborgium	𬭶 喜 *xǐ*
Sb	Antimony	锑 *tī*	Bh	Bohrium	𬭳 波 *bō*
Te	Tellurium	碲 *dì*	Hs	Hassium	𬭲 黑 *hēi*
I	Iodine	碘 *diǎn*	Mt	Meitnerium	䥑 麦 *mài*
Xe	Xenon	氙 *xiān*	Ds	Darmstadtium	𫟼 达 *dá*
Cs	Cesium	铯 *sè*	Rg	Roentgenium	𬬭 仑 *lún*
Ba	Barium	钡 *bèi*	Cn	Copernicium	鿔 *gē*

Radical-based Semantic Features

The semantic loan is made possible by using radicals. It is observable that radicals played a significant role in the Chinese translation of the chemical elements. Radical means 'root', a component of a Chinese character. Radical is very important as it performs as dictionary section headers to classify the Chinese characters since 说文解字 *Suō Wén Jiě Zì* (literally "Explaining and Analyzing Characters"), an ancient Chinese dictionary from the Han dynasty (Zhou, 1988). Radical is often semantic. The meaning of a character is hinted or changed according to the radical it is attached to.

There are many Chinese radicals. For example, a total of 200 radicals are found in the *Hanyu Da Zidian* (literally "Comprehensive Chinese Character Dictionary") (2010).They are classified according to the number of strokes. The more complex the radical, the more number of strokes it has. In other words, the simplest radical has only one stroke. In the Chinese translation of chemical elements in the periodic table, simple radicals of not more than ten strokes are adopted. Four categories of radical, namely *metal, gas, stone* and *water*, are used to highlight the physical properties of the elements whether they are metallic, non-metallic, gas, solid, or liquid. It is obvious that radicals are

indeed very helpful to figure out the type of chemical element as well as to emphasize the uniqueness of Chinese characters.

From the data, it is found that the chemical elements in the periodic table are categorized according to their physical properties. The physical properties refer to either metallic elements or non-metallic elements. Chinese translation for all metallic elements is indicated with *metal* radicals, except for mercury. From a total of 90 metallic elements, the Chinese translation for 89 elements adopted 钅 *metal* radical or 金*metal* radical. The only exceptional case is 'mercury' which uses 水*water* radical. This finding can be explained as, among the metallic elements, only mercury is in liquid form compared to others which are solid under room temperature. Therefore 水*water* radical differentiates mercury from the other metallic elements in terms of its matter state at room temperature. The use of Chinese radicals in translating the metallic elements in the periodic table are displayed in Table 2 as follows.

Table 2. Use of Chinese radicals钅 *jīn (metal)*, 氵 *shuǐ (water)*
in the translation of metallic elements

Element	Chinese translation	Radical+ component	Element	Chinese translation	Radical+ component
Lithium	锂 *lǐ*	钅 *jīn* + 里*lǐ*	Dysprosium	镝 *dí*	钅 *jīn* + 商 *dí*
Beryllium	铍 *pí*	钅 *jīn* + 皮*pí*	Holmium	钬 *huǒ*	钅 *jīn* + 火 *huǒ*
Sodium	钠 *nà*	钅 *jīn* + 内*nèi/nà*	Erbium	铒 *ěr*	钅 *jīn* + 耳 *ěr*
Magnesium	镁 *měi*	钅 *jīn* + 美*měi*	Thulium	铥 *diū*	钅 *jīn* + 丢 *diū*
Aluminium	铝 *lǔ*	钅 *jīn* + 吕*lǔ*	Ytterbium	镱 *yì*	钅 *jīn* + 意 *yì*
Potassium	钾 *jiǎ*	钅 *jīn* + 甲*jiǎ*	Lutetium	镥 *lǔ*	钅 *jīn* + 鲁 *lǔ*
Calcium	钙 *gài*	钅 *jīn* + 丐*gài*	Hafnium	铪 *hā*	钅 *jīn* + 合 *hé*
Scandium	钪 *kàng*	钅 *jīn* + 亢*kàng*	Tantalum	钽 *tǎn*	钅 *jīn* + 且 *dàn*
Titanium	钛 *tài*	钅 *jīn* + 太*tài*	Tungsten	钨 *wū*	钅 *jīn* + 乌 *wū*
Vanadium	钒 *fán*	钅 *jīn* + 凡*fán*	Rhenium	铼 *lái*	钅 *jīn* + 来 *lái*
Chromium	铬 *gè*	钅 *jīn* + 各*gè*	Osmium	锇 *é*	钅 *jīn* + 我 *wǒ*
Manganese	锰*měng*	钅 *jīn* + 孟*měng*	Iridium	铱 *yī*	钅 *jīn* + 衣 *yī*
Iron	铁 *tiě*	钅 *jīn* + 失*shī*	Platinum	铂 *bó*	钅 *jīn* + 白 *bái*
Cobalt	钴 *gǔ*	钅 *jīn* + 古*gǔ*	Gold	金 *jīn*	钅 *jīn* + (-)
Nickel	镍 *niè*	钅 *jīn* + 臬*niè*	Mercury	汞 *gǒng*	水*shuǐ* + 工*gōng*
Copper	铜 *tóng*	钅 *jīn* + 同*tóng*	Thallium	铊 *tā*	钅 *jīn* + 它 *tā*
Zinc	锌 *xīn*	钅 *jīn* +	Lead	铅 *qiān*	钅 *jīn* +

Gallium	镓 *jiā*	辛*xīn* 钅*jīn* + 家*jiā*	Bismuth	铋 *bì*	(-) 钅*jīn* + 必*bì*
Germanium	锗 *zhě*	钅*jīn* + 者*zhě*	Polonium	钋 *pō*	钅*jīn* + 卜*bo*
Rubidium	铷 *rú*	钅*jīn* + 如*rú*	Francium	钫 *fāng*	钅*jīn* + 方*fāng*
Strontium	锶 *sī*	钅*jīn* + 思*sī*	Radium	镭 *léi*	钅*jīn* + 雷*léi*
Yttrium	钇 *yǐ*	钅*jīn* + 乙*yǐ*	Actinium	锕 *ā*	钅*jīn* + 阿*ā*
Zirconium	锆 *gào*	钅*jīn* + 告*gào*	Thorium	钍 *tǔ*	钅*jīn* + 土*tǔ*
Niobium	铌 *ní*	钅*jīn* + 尼*ní*	Protactinium	镤 *pú*	钅*jīn* + 美*pú*
Molybdenum	钼 *mù*	钅*jīn* + 目*mù*	Uranium	铀 *yóu*	钅*jīn* + 由*yóu*
Technetium	锝 *dé*	钅*jīn* + 导*dé*	Neptunium	镎 *ná*	钅*jīn* + 拿*ná*
Ruthenium	钌 *liǎo*	钅*jīn* + 了*liǎo*	Plutonium	钚 *bù*	钅*jīn* + 不*bù*
Rhodium	铑 *láo*	钅*jīn* + 老*lǎo*	Americium	镅 *méi*	钅*jīn* + 眉*méi*
Palladium	钯 *bā*	钅*jīn* + 巴*bā*	Curium	锔 *jù*	钅*jīn* + 局*jú*
Silver	银 *yín*	钅*jīn* + 艮*gèn/gěn*	Berkelium	锫 *péi*	钅*jīn* + 咅*pǒu*
Cadmium	镉 *gé*	钅*jīn* + 鬲*gé*	Californium	锎 *kāi*	钅*jīn* + (-)
Indium	铟 *yīn*	钅*jīn* + 因*yīn*	Einsteinium	锿 *āi*	钅*jīn* + 哀*āi*
Tin	锡 *xī*	钅*jīn* + 易*yì*	Fermium	镄 *fèi*	钅*jīn* + 费*fèi*
Antimony	锑 *tī*	钅*jīn* + 弟*dì*	Mendelevium	钔 *mén*	钅*jīn* + 门*mén*
Cesium	铯 *sè*	钅*jīn* + 色*sè*	Nobelium	锘 *nuò*	钅*jīn* + 若*ruò*
Barium	钡 *bèi*	钅*jīn* + 贝*bèi*	Lawrendum	铹 *láo*	钅*jīn* + 劳*láo*
Lanthanum	镧 *lán*	钅*jīn* + 阑*lán*	Rutherfordium	钅 卢 *lú*	钅*jīn* + 卢*lú*
Cerium	铈 *shì*	钅*jīn* + 市*shì*	Dubnium	钅 杜 *dù*	钅*jīn* + 杜*dù*
Praseodymium	镨 *pǔ*	钅*jīn* + 普*pǔ*	Seaborgium	钅 喜 *xǐ*	钅*jīn* + 喜*xǐ*
Neodymium	钕 *nǚ*	钅*jīn* + 女*nǚ*	Bohrium	钅 波 *bō*	钅*jīn* + 波*bō*
Promethium	钷 *pǒ*	钅*jīn* + 叵*pǒ*	Hassium	钅 黑 *hēi*	钅*jīn* + 黑*hēi*
Samarium	钐 *shàn*	钅*jīn* + 彡*shān*	Meitnerium	钅 麦 *mài*	钅*jīn* + 麦*mài*
Europium	铕 *yǒu*	钅*jīn* + 有*yǒu*	Darmstadtium	钅 达 *dá*	钅*jīn* + 达*dá*

| Gadolinium | 钆 *gá* | 钅 *jīn* + 乙 *yǐ* | Roentgenium | 钅 仑 *lún* | 钅 *jīn* + 仑 *lún* |
| Terbium | 铽 *tè* | 钅 *jīn* + 忒 *tè* | Copernicium | 鎶 *gē* | 金 *jīn* + 哥 *gē* |

Other than the above mentioned 90 metallic chemical elements, there are also 22 non-metallic elements. These non-metallic chemical elements may differ in nature, either gaseous, solid or liquid. Their nature is made explicit in the Chinese translation as indicated by radical in the Chinese characters. Out of a total of 22 non-metallic elements, 气 *gas* radical is used for 11 gaseous elements, 石 *stone* radical for 10 solid elements, and 氵 *water* radical for only one liquid element. The use of Chinese radicals in translating the non-metallic elements from the periodic table is shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Use of Chinese radicals 气 *qì(gas),* 石 *shí (stone),* 氵 *shuǐ(water)* in the translation of non-metallic elements

Element	Chinese translation	Radical+ component	Element	Chinese translation	Radical+ component
Hydrogen	氢 *qīng*	气 *qì* + (-)	Chlorine	氯 *lǜ*	气 *qì* + 录 *lù*
Helium	氦 *hài*	气 *qì* + 亥 *hài*	Argon	氩 *yà*	气 *qì* + 亚 *yà*
Boron	硼 *péng*	石 *shí* + 朋 *péng*	Arsenic	砷 *shēn*	石 *shí* + 申 *shēn*
Carbon	碳 *tàn*	石 *shí* + 炭 *tàn*	Selenium	硒 *xī*	石 *shí* + 西 *xī*
Nitrogen	氮 *dàn*	气 *qì* + 炎 *yán*	Bromine	溴 *xiù*	氵 *shuǐ* + 臭 *xiù*
Oxygen	氧 *yǎng*	气 *qì* + 羊 *yáng*	Krypton	氪 *kè*	气 *qì* + 克 *kè*
Fluorine	氟 *fú*	气 *qì* + 弗 *fú*	Tellurium	碲 *dì*	石 *shí* + 帝 *dì*
Neon	氖 *nǎi*	气 *qì* + 乃 *nǎi*	Iodine	碘 *diǎn*	石 *shí* + 典 *diǎn*
Silicon	硅 *guī*	石 *shí* + 圭 *guī*	Xenon	氙 *xiān*	气 *qì* + 山 *shān*
Phosphorus	磷 *lín*	石 *shí* + 粦 *lín*	Astatine	砹 *ài*	石 *shí* + 艾 *ài*
Sulphur	硫 *liú*	石 *shí* + (-)	Radon	氡 *dōng*	气 *qì* + 冬 *dōng*

Due to the few versions of character used in different Chinese speaking circles, some Chinese translations may appear to be written in a different way. For example, the Chinese translation of non-metallic elements which make use of 气 *gas* radical such as hydrogen and argon, do not look exactly the same. The Chinese translation of hydrogen is 氢 *qīng* in Mainland China and 氫 *qīng* in Taiwan. While for argon, it is translated as 氩 *yà* in Mainland China and 氬 *yà* in Taiwan. In both cases, the difference is obvious that different writing systems are practised in distinct Chinese speaking areas, which are simplified Chinese characters and traditional Chinese characters. Other non-metallic elements such as helium 氦 *hài*, fluorine 氟 *fú*, neon 氖 *nǎi*, are found using the same Chinese characters in both Mainland China and Hong Kong. On the other hand, Chinese

translated chemical elements that adopted 石 *stone* radical such as carbon 碳 *tàn*, boron 硼 *péng*, phosphorus 磷 *lín*, and sulphur 硫 *liú*, are identical in writing in Mainland China and Taiwan. Some Chinese translation may not be the same but share the same radical. For instance, silicon is translated as 硅 *guī* in Mainland China but as 矽 *xī* in Taiwan; astatine is 砹 *ài* in Mainland China but 砈 *è* in Taiwan. Nevertheless, all these translations adopted the same radical, which is 石 *stone* radical in this case. It is also noted that bromine 溴 *xiù* is the only non-metallic element uses 氵 *water* radical.

  From the data in Table 2 and Table 3, the general features of Chinese translation is found to be rather obvious in the consistency of the use of different but fixed radicals in categorizing the metallic elements and non-metallic elements in terms of their matter state.

  Compared to metallic and non-metallic chemical elements, solid elements are also significant in numbers. Among 112 chemical elements in the periodic table, 99 elements are in solid state during room temperature. It is interesting to note that Chinese radicals used in translating the solid elements are varied according to their physical properties, whether they are metallic or non-metallic, i.e. *metal* radicals for 89 metallic elements and *stone* radicals for 10 non-metallic elements. The examples of metallic elements are sodium 钠 *nà* or 鈉 *nà*, zinc 锌 *xīn* or 鋅 *xīn*, cadmium 镉 *gé* or 鎘 *gé*, bismuth 铋 *bì* or 鉍 *bì*, and uranium 铀 *yóu* or 鈾 *yóu*. While non-metallic elements are tellurium 碲 *dì*, iodine 碘 *diǎn*, arsenic 砷 *shēn*, and selenium 硒 *xī*. Table 4 shows the use of Chinese radicals in the translation of solid elements.

Table 4. Use of Chinese radicals 钅 *jīn (metal),* 石 *shí (stone),*
in the translation of solid elements

Element	Chinese translation	Radical+ component	Element	Chinese translation	Radical+ component
Lithium	锂 *lǐ*	钅 *jīn* + 里 *lǐ*	Samarium	钐 *shàn*	钅 *jīn* + 彡 *shān*
Beryllium	铍 *pí*	钅 *jīn* + 皮 *pí*	Europium	铕 *yǒu*	钅 *jīn* + 有 *yǒu*
Boron	硼 *péng*	石 *shí* + 朋 *péng*	Gadolinium	钆 *gá*	钅 *jīn* + 乙 *yǐ*
Carbon	碳 *tàn*	石 *shí* + 炭 *tàn*	Terbium	铽 *tè*	钅 *jīn* + 忒 *tè*
Sodium	钠 *nà*	钅 *jīn* + 内 *nèi/nà*	Dysprosium	镝 *dí*	钅 *jīn* + 商 *dí*
Magnesium	镁 *měi*	钅 *jīn* + 美 *měi*	Holmium	钬 *huǒ*	钅 *jīn* + 火 *huǒ*
Aluminium	铝 *lǔ*	钅 *jīnl* + 吕 *lǔ*	Erbium	铒 *ěr*	钅 *jīn* + 耳 *ěr*
Silicon	硅 *guī*	石 *shí* + 圭 *guī*	Thulium	铥 *diū*	钅 *jīn* + 丢 *diū*
Phosphorus	磷 *lín*	石 *shí* + 粦 *lín*	Ytterbium	镱 *yì*	钅 *jīn* + 意 *yì*
Sulphur	硫 *liú*	石 *shí* + (-)	Lutetium	镥 *lǔ*	钅 *jīn* + 鲁 *lǔ*
Potassium	钾 *jiǎ*	钅 *jīn* + 甲 *jiǎ*	Hafnium	铪 *hā*	钅 *jīn* + 合 *hé*
Calcium	钙 *gài*	钅 *jīn* + 丐 *gài*	Tantalum	钽 *tǎn*	钅 *jīn* + 旦 *dàn*

Scandium	钪 *kàng*	钅 *jīn* + 亢*kàng*	Tungsten	钨 *wū*	钅 *jīn* + 乌*wū*
Titanium	钛 *tài*	钅 *jīn* + 太*tài*	Rhenium	铼 *lái*	钅 *jīn* + 来*lái*
Vanadium	钒 *fán*	钅 *jīn* + 凡*fán*	Osmium	锇 *é*	钅 *jīn* + 我*wǒ*
Chromium	铬 *gè*	钅 *jīn* + 各*gè*	Iridium	铱 *yī*	钅 *jīn* + 衣*yī*
Manganese	锰 *měng*	钅 *jīn* + 孟*měng*	Platinum	铂 *bó*	钅 *jīn* + 白*bái*
Iron	铁 *tiě*	钅 *jīn* + 失*shī*	Gold	金 *jīn*	钅 *jīn* + (-)
Cobalt	钴 *gǔ*	钅 *jīn* + 古*gǔ*	Thallium	铊 *tā*	钅 *jīn* + 它*tā*
Nickel	镍 *niè*	钅 *jīn* + 臬*niè*	Lead	铅 *qiān*	钅 *jīn* + (-)
Copper	铜 *tóng*	钅 *jīn* + 同*tóng*	Bismuth	铋 *bì*	钅 *jīn* + 必*bì*
Zinc	锌 *xīn*	钅 *jīn* + 辛*xīn*	Polonium	钋 *pō*	钅 *jīn* + 卜*bo*
Gallium	镓 *jiā*	钅 *jīn* + 家*jiā*	Astatine	砹 *ài*	石 *shí* + 艾*ài*
Germanium	锗 *zhě*	钅 *jīn* + 者*zhě*	Francium	钫 *fāng*	钅 *jīn* + 方*fāng*
Arsenic	砷*shēn*	石 *shí* + 申*shēn*	Radium	镭 *léi*	钅 *jīn* + 雷*léi*
Selenium	硒*xī*	石 *shí* + 西*xī*	Actinium	锕 *ā*	钅 *jīn* + 阿*ā*
Rubidium	铷 *rú*	钅 *jīn* + 如*rú*	Thorium	钍 *tǔ*	钅 *jīn* + 土*tǔ*
Strontium	锶 *sī*	钅 *jīn* + 思*sī*	Protactinium	镤 *pú*	钅 *jīn* + 羡*pú*
Yttrium	钇 *yǐ*	钅 *jīn* + 乙*yǐ*	Uranium	铀 *yóu*	钅 *jīn* + 由*yóu*
Zirconium	锆 *gào*	钅 *jīn* + 告*gào*	Neptunium	镎 *ná*	钅 *jīn* + 拿*ná*
Niobium	铌 *ní*	钅 *jīn*+ 尼*ní*	Plutonium	钚 *bù*	钅 *jīn* + 不*bù*
Molybdenum	钼 *mù*	钅 *jīn* + 目*mù*	Americium	镅 *méi*	钅 *jīn* + 眉*méi*
Technetium	锝 *dé*	钅 *jīn* + 導*dé*	Curium	锔 *jù*	钅 *jīn* + 局*jú*
Ruthenium	钌 *liǎo*	钅 *jīn* + 了*liǎo*	Berkelium	锫 *péi*	钅 *jīn* + 咅*pǒu*
Rhodium	铑 *láo*	钅 *jīn* + 老*lǎo*	Californium	锎 *kāi*	钅 *jīn* + (-)
Palladium	钯 *bā*	钅 *jīn* + 巴*bā*	Einsteinium	锿 *āi*	钅 *jīn* + 哀*āi*
Silver	银 *yín*	钅 *jīn* + 艮 *gèn/gěn*	Fermium	镄 *fèi*	钅 *jīn* + 费*fèi*
Cadmium	镉 *gé*	钅 *jīn* + 鬲*gé*	Mendelevium	钔 *mén*	钅 *jīn* + 门*mén*
Indium	铟 *yīn*	钅 *jīn* +	Nobelium	锘 *nuò*	钅 *jīn* +

Tin	锡 *xī*	因*yīn* 钅 *jīn* + 易 *yì*	Lawrendum	锊 *láo*	若*ruò* 钅 *jīn* + 劳*láo*
Antimony	锑 *tī*	钅 *jīn* + 弟*dì*	Rutherfordium	钅 卢 *lú*	钅 *jīn* + 卢*lú*
Tellurium	碲*dì*	石*shí* + 帝*dì*	Dubnium	钅 杜 *dù*	钅 *jīn* + 杜*dù*
Iodine	碘*diǎn*	石*shí* + 典*diǎn*	Seaborgium	钅 喜 *xǐ*	钅 *jīn* + 喜*xǐ*
Cesium	铯 *sè*	钅 *jīn* + 色*sè*	Bohrium	钅 波 *bō*	钅 *jīn* + 波*bō*
Barium	钡 *bèi*	钅 *jīn* + 贝*bèi*	Hassium	钅 黑 *hēi*	钅 *jīn* + 黑*hēi*
Lanthanum	镧 *lán*	钅 *jīn* + 阑*lán*	Meitnerium	钅 麦 *mài*	钅 *jīn* + 麦*mài*
Cerium	铈 *shì*	钅 *jīn* + 市*shì*	Darmstadtium	钅 达*dá*	钅 *jīn* + 达*dá*
Praseodymium	镨 *pǔ*	钅 *jīn* + 普*pǔ*	Roentgenium	钅 仑 *lún*	钅 *jīn* + 仑*lún*
Neodymium	钕 *nǔ*	钅 *jīn* + 女*nǔ*	Copernicium	镉*gē*	金*jīn* + 哥*gē*
Promethium	钷 *pǒ*	钅 *jīn* + 叵*pǒ*			

Compared to metallic, non-metallic, gaseous, and solid chemical elements, the number of liquid elements is relatively insignificant. There are only two liquid elements in the periodic table, namely bromine 溴*xiù* and mercury 汞*gǒng*. Table 5 shows the use of Chinese radicals in translating the liquid elements. It is found that the *water* radical is used in translating the liquid elements, regardless of their physical properties, whether metallic or non-metallic. *Water* radicals used, 氵 or 水, both referring to the same concept, but differ in terms of the writing. The 氵 *water* radical is literally called "three drops of water" because of the ideograph that resembles the water droplets. The *water* radical 水, is directly pronounced as *shuǐ*.

Table 5. Use of radicals 氵 *shuǐ (water)* in the translation of liquid elements

Element	Properties	Chinese translation	Radical+component
Bromine	non-metal	溴*xiù*	氵 *shuǐ* + 臭*xiù*
Mercury	metal	汞*gǒng*	水*shuǐ* + 工*gōng*

Other than the above mentioned chemical elements, there are 11 gaseous elements in the periodic table and they are all non-metals. It is interesting to note that 气*gas* radical is used in translating the gaseous elements, for example, chorine 氯*lǜ*, krypton 氪*kè*, xenon 氙*xiān*, and radon 氡*dōng*. The use of Chinese radicals in translating the gaseous elements is shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Use of Chinese radicals 气 *qì (gas)* in the translation of gaseous elements

Element	Chinese translation	Radical+component
Hydrogen	氢 *qīng*	气 *qì* +（-）
Helium	氦 *hài*	气 *qì* + 亥 *hài*
Nitrogen	氮 *dàn*	气 *qì* + 炎 *yán*
Oxygen	氧 *yǎng*	气 *qì* + 羊 *yáng*
Fluorine	氟 *fú*	气 *qì* + 弗 *fú*
Neon	氖 *nǎi*	气 *qì* + 乃 *nǎi*
Chlorine	氯 *lù*	气 *qì* + 录 *lù*
Argon	氩 *yà*	气 *qì* + 亚 *yà*
Krypton	氪 *kè*	气 *qì* + 克 *kè*
Xenon	氙 *xiān*	气 *qì* + 山 *shān*
Radon	氡 *dōng*	气 *qì* + 冬 *dōng*

As discussed earlier, radicals provide useful categorical information, e.g. carbon 碳 *tàn* is associated with the 石 *stone* radical implying that carbon is a non-metal and it is a solid. Most importantly, Chinese characters are often defined under the radical index or pronunciation (*Hanyu Pinyin*) in dictionaries. Based on the radical of a character even without knowing its pronunciation, it is not difficult to trace the word. Chinese characters are formed in several ways: single structured, left and right structured, left, middle and right structured, top and base structured, top, middle and base structured, half enclosure structured, and enclosure structured.

The single structured character, or known as "indecomposable Chinese character", has 256 contemporary indecomposable Chinese characters compiled by China's National Linguistics Work Committee in 2009 to specify the use of the indecomposable characters used in modern Chinese. Indecomposable Chinese characters are derived directly from the number of strokes. They cannot be further decomposed or separated but can form compound words with other characters (China's National Linguistics Work Committee, 2009). The examples of indecomposable Chinese characters listed include 气 *qì*, 水 *shuǐ* and 石 *shí* which are the simplest forms of character but at the same time perform as different radicals.

A character can be identified by its radical. However, the left radical is the most widely used among the right radical, top radical, middle radical, base radical, and outside radical. In this case, most of the Chinese translated elements from the periodic table are formed using the left and right structured characters. For example, indium 铟 *yīn* is formed by 钅 *metal* left radical and right component 因 *yīn*. Exceptions occurs with the gaseous elements and two metallic elements, that are gold 金 *jīn* (solid) and mercury 汞 *gǒng* (liquid) which formed top and base structured characters.

It is noted that all gaseous elements employ top radical, i.e. 气 *gas* radical for each base component to indicate their physical properties. Besides single structured characters, 气 *gas* radical is normally applied as the top radical in categorizing a character, not only for gaseous elements but anything related to gas or atmosphere.

Although a top and base structured character is formed, 金 *jīn* is the radical of its own. Other than being used as a stand-alone word, it can be used as the left radical for other chemical elements written in traditional Chinese, such ascerium 鈰 *shì* (金 *metal* + 市 *shì)*. On the other hand, mercury adopts 水 *water* as the base radical in its top and base structure, different than 氵 left *water* radical.

Monosyllabic Phonological Features

A common feature in the Chinese translation of chemical elements in the periodic table is the very short and simple linguistic structure. The similarity is clearly noticed in the number of character. As shown in Table 1, all the 112 Chinese translated chemical elements in the data are found to consist of only one character respectively. Since each Chinese character carries only one phoneme, the Chinese translation of these chemical elements is represented by one sound or one syllable.

The method of using one character to transliterate an element name is very useful. The meaning of the character is made even clearer by the practice of adding a radical to denote a rough classification of the element. Its practicality is found especially by comparing it with equivalent English terms of the chemical elements in the periodic table. English words are usually polysyllabic where one word can be made up of one or more syllables. A syllable is a phonological unit composed of one or more phonemes, thus polysyllabic words are more phonetically complex. For example, 'hydrogen' is made up of three syllables, and is pronounced as "hy+dro+gen". Unlike English words, Chinese words are monosyllabic and made up of pictographic characters. According to Radford, Atkinson, Britain, Clahsen and Spencer (2009), "different languages permit different kinds of syllables, and native speakers of languages bring their knowledge of syllables and syllable structure to their attempts to produce words from other languages (p.79)." Therefore, Feng (2004) pointed out that out of the two types of loanwords, namely phonemic loanwords and semantic loanwords, most of the phonemic loanwords in Chinese are monosyllabic.

As claimed by Fryer and Xu (1871, as cited in Wang, 2001), "in the West, the names of substances often have many 'characters' and are difficult to pronounce. If one translates them into Chinese, it is impossible that they fully correspond [to the original]" (p.274). The phonological constraints mentioned above impose many restrictions on translating English words into Mandarin Chinese. Besides, each Chinese character represents one morpheme and contains intrinsic meaning (Miao, 2006). In this case, transliteration may cause too many obstacles to form an efficient medium of word borrowing, whereas semantic translation enables the core significance of a word to be borrowed in a way that better corresponds to the morphological patterns of Mandarin Chinese (Jia & Jia, 2005).

The majority of these monosyllabic translated terms are newly created characters. Nevertheless, some names already exist and are not newly formed. Some of the chemical elements were known since ancient China, and the Chinese name for them are still used till today. Examples of these are 'gold' (*jīn*金), 'silver' (*yín* 银), 'iron' (*tiě*铁), 'copper' (*tóng*铜), 'lead' (*qiān* 铅), 'carbon' (*tàn*炭), 'tin' (*xī* 锡), 'mercury' (*gǒng* 汞), 'phosphorus' (*lín* 燐), and 'sulphur' (*liú* 硫).

The characters of some Chinese translations of the chemical elements are newly created due to the constraint that the terms are hardly found in common dictionaries. According to Wright (2000), those 'new characters' were in fact obsolete graphs found in the great *Kangxi* dictionary (*Kāng xī zì diǎn*). This means that the 'new terms' are actually retrieved from the archaic terms, for instance, the character 鑭*lán* was found in *Kangxi* dictionary, page 1326.

Besides the known Chinese names, some translated names were retained, such as (*yang qì* 养气) 'oxygen', (*dàn qì*淡气) 'nitrogen' and (*qīng qì*轻气) 'hydrogen'. These translations are found appropriate and meaningful. For example, oxygen is translated as *yǎng qì*养气"support gas" as it is very much needed to support chemical process, such as combustion (burning) to occur. Other than this, oxygen is vital for either humans or plants

to live, needed in exhalation, inhalation, photosynthesis, transpiration and so on. On the other hand, nitrogen is a kind of noble gas, or so called 'inert gas'. It is inactive and does not react with any substances. The Chinese translation for nitrogen, *dàn qì* 淡气"weak gas", maybe is due to its inert properties that it is non-reactive to cause any changes in the chemical process for observance. Hydrogen is colorless, odorless but highly flammable. Hydrogen has been used in the rising of hot air balloon because it is the lightest gas of all and the most abundant element in the universe. Thus hydrogen is translated as *qīng qì* 轻气 "light gas" according to the most obvious characteristics it owns.

Translation using one-character has its advantages. It is simple and aesthetic. Furthermore, it avoids complexity in morphology as well as in phonetics if more than one character is used. Monosyllable is very common in Chinese language since many characters are carrying meaning on its own. However, not all languages perform this function because different languages have different linguistics features.

In order to have only one character in Chinese translation, two characters were then coined into a single character. In this case, radical was introduced to reduce multiple characters yet highlighted the characteristic of the chemical elements. For example, hydrogen, the Chinese characters 轻气 *qīng qì* were coined and became a new character 氢 *qīng* with the radical of 气 *qì* (gas) which indicates it as a gaseous element. Other examples are nitrogen, 淡气 *dàn qì* and oxygen, 养气 *yǎng qì*. The former is coined with 气 *qì* (gas) to become 氮 *dàn* and the latter is merged in the same way to become 氧 *yǎng*.

CONCLUSION

The Chinese translation of chemistry terms in the periodic table demonstrated an interesting model of synthesizing semantic loan and phonemic loan in name translation. New characters are coined in order to achieve this purpose. The semantic and phonemic word coining model is nothing new in Chinese linguistics. However, this method is innovative in translation studies. The special linguistic feature of radical enables the semantic element of chemical to be reflected in the character. Besides, the phonetic element based on one of the phonemes in English term is added to the Chinese radical to create the translation. The Chinese translation of chemical elements is simple in appearance by maintaining only one sound and one character for each chemical element. However, this method is somehow controversial basically about the imperfection in transliteration which is caused by the deliberate omission of other phonemes in the word during translation from multisyllabic terms in English to monosyllabic terms in Chinese. Despite the difference in appearance by the number of syllables, the objective of translation is somehow achieved.

REFERENCES

Agnes, M. (Ed.). (2003). *Webster's new world dictionary* (4th ed.). New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc.

China's National Linguistics Work Committee. (2009). 《现代常用独体字规范》 *Specification of the indecompasable characters commonly used in the modern Chinese.* 2-4.

Dictionary of Chinese Character Variants. (2000). Ministry of Education, R.O.C. Retrieved from http://dict.variants.moe.edu.tw/fulu/fu9/index.htm.

Feng, Z. W. (2004). Semantic loanwords and phonemic loanwords in Chinese language. In *Proceedings of 11ᵗʰ International Symposium of NIJLA* (pp. 200-229). Tokyo: Japan.

Hall, B. K. (2010). *Evolution: Principles and processes*. USA: Jones and Bartlett Publishers.

Jia, Y. X., & Jia, X. R. (2005). Chinese characters, Chinese culture and Chinese mind. *Intercultural Communication Studies, 14*(1), 151-157.

Miao, R. Q. (2006). *Loanword adaptation in Mandarin Chinese: Perceptual, phonological and sociolinguistic factors*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Stony Brook University. Retrieved from https://linguistics.stonybrook.edu/sites/default/files/uploads/Miao_2005.pdf

Nelson, L. (2013). English loan words in Mandarin Chinese: Phonology vs. semantics. *Proceedings of the National Conference on Undergraduate Research (NCUR) 2013* (pp.497-505). USA: Wisconsin La Crosse University.

Periodic table. (n.d). *Wikipedia.* Retrieved from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Periodic_table

Plato. (1925). *Timaeus*: *Volume 9 of Plato in twelve volumes.* In J. Z. Donald, (Trans.). (2000). Cambridge: Hackett Publishing.

Porterfield, W. W. (2013). *Inorganic chemistry: A unified approach* (2nd ed.). USA: Academic Press.

Radford, A., Atkinson, M., Britain, D., Clahsen, H., & Spencer, A. (2009). *Linguistics: An introduction.* (2nd ed.). UK: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, C. J. (2000). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics.* New York: Routledge.

Sager, J. C., & Hamel, M. J. (Trans.). In L. Venuti (Ed.), *The translation studies reader.* London and New York: Routledge.

Sapir, E. (1921). *Language: An introduction to the study of speech.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company.

Sapir, E. (2014). *Language: An introduction to the study of speech* (Reprint ed.) UK: Cambridge University Press.

Sun, H. C., & Jiang, K. L. (2000). A study of recent borrowings in Mandarin. *American Speech, 75*(1), 98-106.

Tatsumi, K., & Corish, J. (2010). Name and symbol of the element with atomic number 112 (IUPAC recommendations 2010). *Pure and Applied Chemistry, 82*(3), 753-755.

The Editorial Committee of Hanyu Da Zidian. (2010). *Hanyu Da Zidian.* Wu Han：Hu Bei Chang Jiang Publishing.

Tian, A., & Backus, A. (2013). *Transliteration or loan translation: Constraints on English loanwords' integration into Mandarin Chinese.* Retrieved from https://www.tilburguniversity.edu/upload/7c9356c7-e921-42a2-91fa751f6084e346_TPCS_44Tian-Backus.pdf

Vinay, J. P., & Darbelnet, J. (1995). *A methodology for translation.* Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamin Publishing Company.

Wang, Y. Z. (2001). A new inquiry into the translation of chemical terms. In M. Lackner, I. Amelung, & J. Kurtz. (Eds.). I. Amelung (Trans.). *New terms for new ideas: Western knowledge and lexical change in late imperial China* (pp. 271-283). Leiden: Brill.

Wright, D. (2000). *Translating science: The transmission of western chemistry into late imperial China, 1840-1900.* Leiden; Boston; *Köln*: Brill.

Xu, S., & Fryer, J. (1871). *Huaxue jianyuan.* In Y.Z Wang, A New inquiry into the translation of chemical terms. In M. Lackner, I. Amelung, & J. Kurtz. (Eds.). I. Amelung (Trans.). *New terms for new ideas: Western knowledge and lexical change in late imperial China* (pp. 271-283). Leiden: Brill.

Yan, Y., & Deng, T. B. (2009). On Chinese loan words from English language. *English Language Teaching, 2*(4), 33-37.

Zhao, W. (2011). Announcement of Chinese 112 elements Chinese terms by China national committee for terms in sciences and technologies. *Chinese Science and Technology Terms Journal, 13*(5), 62.

Zhou, Z. M. (1988). *ShuoWen JieZi. ZhongGuo Da BaiKe QuanShu*, *YuYan WenZi*. Beijing/Shanghai: Encyclopedia of China Publishing House.

Zhu, K. (2011). On Chinese-English language contact through loanwords. *English Language and Literature Studies*, *1*(2), 100-105.

SOURCE TEXT AND TARGET TEXT LINGUISTICS

Mohammad Majed Mousli
Edith Cowan University
Mount Lawley Campus, 2 Bradford Street
Mount Lawley, West Australia 6050, Australia
e-mail: mmmousli@hotmail.com

ABSTRACT

Issues and topics of *source text linguistics* (STL) and *target text linguistics* (TTL) fall in the heart of studying and researching *translation linguistics* in its general orientation and *translation dual-linguistics* in its narrower focus on the language pair involved in any translating activity. Translation study literature reveals that issues of *translation proper* and *translation linguistics* are not in the focus of those studies and research. Instead, the focus so far is on the issues of *text linguistics*, *discourse studies in translation* and/or other issues. This claim, by all means, is expected to overtly pave the way to bring to the fore studying and researching translation labels that may result in more comprehensive understanding of the nature of the interdisciplinary relationships between translation, its theory and research on the one hand and linguistics on the other.

Keywords: discourse studies, dual-linguistics, source text linguistics, target text linguistics, translation

INTRODUCTION

Translating denotes the activity of rendering a text written in Language 1 (System 1 and its culture) into another text to be written in another language (System 2 and its culture). As a result of carrying out the task of translating/transferring/transliterating and/or by employing other means (such as the process or processes of transmitting meaning/message/content of Language 1 material), the medium (a translator) producesrendition (target text; TT thereafter) in Language 2 (the translation product to be delivered) (Mousli, 2011). Besides the already mentioned activities, the translating process(es) may also encompass assessing parallel renditions/versions that potentially can be produced for the same source text. One of the core issues related to translation linguistics is that of the language potent to generate more than one rendition/version of TTs. This is to be dealt with in the discussion to follow.

DISCUSSION

Mapping and Outlining the Theoretical Framework

In the context of studying *translation linguistics* in its' general framework and *translation dual-linguistics* in its narrower focus, this is about relating to the languages involved in the translating process as its departure point (Mousli, 2011). Translation labels, topics and issues that are primarily and directly relevant to translation in focus are the departing points in relation to the production of a TT as the result of employing a translating process, and this assumes the status of a corresponding text (the TT) that should function as the counterpart text to the source text. The translating process may also encompass assessing parallel renditions/versions that potentially can be produced for the same source

text (ST). Translation dual-linguistics also analyses the selected rendition (the TT) by the translator in the light of other potentially parallel translation products (TT/s) to be generated (Mousli, 2011).

Problems of Multi-Renditions for the Same Source Text

Producing more than one rendition for the same ST is an aspect of the translating process whose description is to follow. This can be looked at from the perspective of the translator him/herself in the light of which version out of many is to select, and for the translation examiner/critique (in the context of translation training); as to what, specifically, selection criteria may apply to the selected version. To illustrate those problems further, one ST (selected from the Arabic language) is to be translated into seven versions (to follow); these happen as the result of employing one or more approaches and/or translating methods.

Translation approaches were suggested in translation studies and theories to accommodate the objectives set to interpret translation phenomena and to study and analyze produced translations. However, those do not directly concord with departing from translation linguistics neither in its wider theoretical framework nor in the context of dual-linguistics of the language pair one at a time. Translation linguistics and translation dual-linguistics offer new and fresh thinking, where topics and issues of translation are directly addressed and discussed as part of one integral inter-lingual activity in all its relevant linguistic and non-linguistic aspects. To satisfy systemic researching principles, therefore, it is advisable that by departing from an approach to research and holistically study, a complex of processes has to happen through adopting translation labels in the first place. This also should have the aim at broadening the spectrum of research, shedding light on our understanding of what is going on in the world of:

1. The translating process.
2. Translation as a product.
3. Translation assessment and critique.

Source Text Linguistics

A source text (ST) in translation context constitutes the departing text as part of the translation assignment, and the TT constitutes the other part. A source text becomes the subject text to be translated in the course of translational action called the translating process phase. By departing from the same context, it can be suggested that source text linguistics is the studying and analysing of the linguistic aspects of the text that is to be translated in conjunction with the process of producing a TT (objective/goal) to be worked towards or achieved. Such conjunction embodies the concept of the process that leads to the production of a TT in the context of dual-linguistics in action. The linguistic perspectives of written material (the ST) are the composed total embodiment of language units as an independent stretch of language units.

A source text is material that has been written as an original text in a language (e.g. Language 1) and has its own script (or it is written by using the script system of another language). Generally speaking, texts can be classified under a variety of text-types; i.e. the argumentative-type of texts, narratives etc. Linguistics informs that a text is defined as a unit larger than a sentence, and researching it is subject to discovering and classifying its structure as one of myriad text-types. Usually, a text is written with the aim of providing information presumed to be not possessed by the reader. Thus, in other instances, the reader of a text is presumed a layman who is going to react to the offered material contained in text. Texts (STs) are interpreted in different ways for their specific conception properties, and such interpretations by all means are culturally dependent, and

dependency can be related to language-use. The linguistic analysis of source text is to be discussed in relevance to translating it into another language, as this is about the analysis concerned with translation linguistics/dual-linguistics of the languages involved in the translating process.

The Translating Process Phase

The translating process phase starts at the preparing stages that include reading the source text in focus of being proposed for translation into the target language, interpreting its content and understanding it from the perspectives of language conversion in all general, specialized or translator's state of comprehension of the text's linguistic and non-linguistic structure. Following reading the source text one or more times to determine what structural units are composed of, the transposition of those (through applying the translating process) takes place on the mind of translator for corresponding/matching purposes. This process is about the deconstruction of the source text structural units, which aims at searching for corresponding counterpart structural units in the target language. This process is called the translating process or phase, which is separate from having a TT ready to be written, read, assessed, criticized and/or published, i.e., this phase covers all activities relevant to preparing TT versions to be written versus the source text that already exists in writing. Meant under such activities, in the same context, are the stages encompassing preparing the conversion of a source text into the target language, which precedes writing a version of TT to be produced. In translation studies literature, the translating process results in producing corresponding counterpart items (so far referred to as *equivalent*) in the target language. The translating process phase (for example when translating English source text) involves not only the analysis of formal correspondences (micro-text features), but also macro-text features relating *to discourse aspects*, *text-type* (semantic relationships amongst components beyond one word – semantic unit) and *context of situation-* elements as well.

The following example sets de-structured source text units, which demonstrate how source text linguistics works, if the text in focus is to be translated into target text.

Arabic De-structured Source Text in the Dual-Linguistic Translation of Arabic/English

The following source text is Arabic *jumlah* (sign text: Arabic meaningful sentence):

   6   5 4   3   2   1

يحظر إيقاف السيارات في هذا المكان .

Literally translated into English as:

      1   2   3 4 5   6

To be prohibited parking the cars in this place.

This literal translation into English corresponds to the *jumlah* (Arabic source text). For translation matching purposes of dual-linguistics of Arabic and English, the offered translation can be in English a sentence or text vs. Arabic verbal sentence. Based on the outcome of applying dual-linguistic matching, this can be a counterpart/non-counterpart case, which presents the aspect of an undetermined inter-lingual rendering that has resulted from the translating process, and to be considered the counterpart for the written source text. This confuses what definition of English linguistic compositional unit would be by matching it with Arabic *jumlah* as its corresponding counterpart. For example:

The Source Text:

   6 5 4   3   2   1

يحظر إيقاف السيارات في هذا المكان .

Is rendered as:

   1   2   3   4 5   6

To be prohibited parking the cars at this place.

The aforementioned *jumlah* (the source text) is a verbal sentence (a syntactic unit in Arabic grammar terms). Syntactically it constitutes a *structured unit*, which exhibits semantic and syntactic properties of *ibaara* عبارة (that literally means "expression"); a term that also refers (in English linguistic terms) to a clause (*murak-kab,* literally means "compound"). In the view of Modern Standard Arabic linguistics, this by all means does not constitute a text, a controversial notion, which may speak of a *jumlah* as a text vs. a sentence in English terms. An adverse argument may say a sentence (in English linguistic terms) also refers to a text, and by reducing texts to their constituent-units (word, phrase and/or clause) *kalimah* (word) is to be translated into its target language corresponding unit if it meets certain communicative functions.

The grammatical and syntactic analysis of the aforementioned *jumlah* (source text) can be determined by applying desinential inflection الإعراب و البناء of each *kalimah* (word) (morph-phonological aspect/desinential inflections) and the placement order of each of its' constituents. Accordingly, the analysis may say:

The *jumlah* constituents:
1   **فعل مضارع مبني للمجهول** is: **يحظر** (passive verb in present tense).
2   **إيقاف** is: نائب الفاعل لفعل مبني للمجهول subject to the passive verb).
3   **السيارات** is **مفعول به** (object).
       3 and **إيقاف السيارات** are: *mudhaf wa mudhaf? ilayh* (construct).
4   **في** is:**حرف جر** (preposition).
5   **هذا** is: إسم مجرور و مضاف (noun in prepositional case: construct part of the construct: phrase 'at this').

4 and 5 **هذافي** are: phrasal construct which is referred to by *jar wa majrwr* (aprepositional phrase) the *mudhaf* (construct phrase − functioning: the defining noun to the following noun)

6   **المكان** is: **مضاف إليه** (the *mudhaf?ilayh*: the defined noun: second constituent part of the construct).

Translating the Arabic *jumlah* (source text) into English

   6 5 4   3   2   1

يحظر إيقاف السيارات في هذا المكان .

Suggested TTs are renditions I and II.

Rendition I

     2   3   1   4 5   6

(I) Parking [of] cars <u>is prohibited</u> at this place.

Structural unit analysis:
The word Parking in (Rendition I): TT/1 happens as subject: noun: it is the constituent of the noun phrase: <u>Parking of cars,</u> which is the counterpart to Constituent 2 of the source

text; the preposition [of] happens in the target language as a slot filling to substitute for a preposition, whose function in the sentence word order is elicited from the source text meaning.

Cars: (Rendition I) **2** in the target language is a noun in prepositional case. Is prohibited (**3** in the TT) happens as a verb-phrase, that is the counterpart to Constituent 1 of the source text; *this* is **5** in the TT: (Constituent **5** of the source text), this happens as TT counterpart determiner, which is constituent of an adjunct case.

Place: **6** (Rendition I) of the TT: (it is Constituent **6** of the source text) happens as a spatial adverb; it is the constituent of an adjunct <u>*at this place*</u>, which also function 2nd rhyme of an adjunct.

<u>Rendition II</u>
    3   1 and 2   4, 5 and 6
(II) Cars <u>should</u> <u>not</u> <u>be</u> <u>parked</u> <u>here.</u>

Structural unit analysis:
1. The word **Cars** is: Constituent **3** of the source text that is the counterpart to constituent **1** of the TT (Rendition II). It happens as the subject of the sentence; at the same time it functions as the theme in the sentence.

2. <u>Should not be parking</u> are the Constituents **2** and **3** of the TT (Rendition II), those function as verb-phrase; they also happen as 1st rheme, which are the counterpart to Constituents **1** and **2** of the source text.

3. The word **here** happens here spatial adverb: it also functions 2nd rheme (TT (Rendition II) that is counterpart to the source text elicited meaning of 'at this place'); **4**, **5** and **6** of the TT (Rendition II) are the counterpart to constituents **4**, **5** and **6** of the source text.

The target texts (English Renditions I and II) could function as a sign text; nevertheless, this does not constitute a unit of language in use. Thus, both exhibit grammatical and lexical devices that create texture (in English linguistics terms), and are composed of a jumble of words in their cohesiveness and coherence representational dimensions. Both renditions, however, relay the ST intended message. They fail to meet corresponding elements of the ST grammatical and syntactic structural units for the purpose of producing TL counterparts.

Target Text Linguistics
TT linguistics concerns the analyses and studying of the process of converting restructured target language structural units in focus for translation purposes. By producing matching counterparts to correspond in the target language with those of the source text, TT linguistics analyses comes to the fore to determine and study the restructured and reformulated structural units in the target language. The process, therefore, is open to the restructuring of potentially possible production or generation of more than one rendition if the concerned languages allow its happening. This depends on what translation method is to be used.

The restructuring process of target language structural units for the purpose of producing TT varies considerably, as applicability is confined to one rendition at any point in time. Analysing and studying the target text, based on comparing it with the

source text, determine for the assessor, within dual-linguistics context, how the translator has arrived at selecting the proposed rendition. Analysing and studying target text linguistics, therefore, determine for the translator, in the context of dual-linguistics (TT/Source Language linguistics interplay), how to compare and assess the result of the 'translating process phase'. In the context of this phase, the approach departs from the perspectives of assessing TT linguistic facets, aspects and elements that presumed counterpart to those of the ST structural unit/s in focus. Such units are TL specific in terms of their correspondence to the source text linguistic structure and semantic components. From TT linguistics' perspectives the structural units constitute in their compositional order a complex of combined intra- and inter-relationships of textual features.

Translation as a product
The TT (also called the translated text/the translation) is the end product of the process of translating a written text into the target language; i.e., it is the product of a finished and completed translating process. Such text (written in Language 2) is a text in its own right, which has been written/formulated/composed as a result of applying translating process to a source text (written in Language 1). The TT has been written in the target language that has its own script (or which uses the script system of another language), phonemic, phonetic and orthographic systems. The linguistic analyses of the TT are to become the focus of discussion, merely, because they are relevant to a text, which already has been translated. A TT is a written text that has been produced in the process of using the language medium of writing (produced for the objective/s to be considered the counterpart to the source text) that emphasises contextual features such as *situation*, *purpose* and so forth. A TT has been written/produced to perform function/s (communicative or others) and/or for achieving goals as it has been planned/set up for the source text. Texts (TT/s) are interpreted in different ways for their specific concept properties, and such interpretation by all means is linguistically tested against the writing-convention and culturally dependent aspects of the target language.

The translating process product is the final written and accredited rendition the translator has selected (one or other potential parallel renditions) proposed to be the counterpart for the ST. The product of the translating process is the achieved target text, which has the quality of source text matrix aspects. Those are three: (I) The target text as the final selected version of rendition (proposed) to conclude the translating process, (II) the translation (TT) as a text constitutes the counterpart to the source text for assessment purposes, comparison, critique and evaluating the translating process/s, and (III) the TT is to become established or unestablished text in the host language (target language) repertoire (economy).

(I) The final rendition (the proposed version by the translator)
Translators usually are in a position of producing more than one rendition (TTs) for the same source text. This may/may not apply to more the one human language. Neubert and Shreve (1992) spoke of parallel texts (p.134) in the target language as counterparts to the same source text. The renditions, however, have been dropped during the translating phase, when translator decides, which is to be selected based on linguistic, pragmatic, semantic and semiotic parameters of the language concerned. Potential multi TT versions (renditions) that can be generated are the result of reflection on the multi-linguistic aspects the target language may possess. Producing one or more renditions, however, is possible at the various linguistic ranks of word, sentence/clause and text. Reading one version takes the reader to the linguistics of that version with all its affiliated and relevant

aspects of pragmatics, semiotics and perhaps discourse as well. The translating process phase ends at the production of the translation/rendition. Neubert and Shreve (1992) call the translated text a "… third text." (p.14).

(II) One rendition to be selected for comparison purposes
The translation (the TT) is the final version that has been suggested or delivered for the completed translating process phase. This means proposing it as the counterpart rendition which represents the final text for translating the source text in focus; virtually it manifests the conclusion of the process the translator has gone through. The TT (the one selected rendition from other potential parallel renditions to be produced) and the source text are to be seen as the two texts which are to be compared with each other for the purpose of translation analysis, assessment, critique and evaluation.

(III) Established/unestablished text in the target language
Written text usually has the function to serve the purpose of providing new (or else) information to its reader. This applies to a text, which is written as an original piece of writing (in the case of a source text), and to the TT that originates from carrying out translating process. A translation gains the status of becoming an established text of the target language repertoire (economy) if it passes parameter-assessment of a text that is written by a native or near-native skilled writer (a translator).

When source language and target language are matched for exhibiting feature purposes that are similar in terms of communicative, pragmatic and semiotic aspects, a balance can be reached in terms of researching the two texts (the source text and the TT) for determining what properties of establishing/contributing elements of the target language are to be represented as counter-parting those of the source language. In the event that the TT is rejected for violating language relevant textual-writing-conventions, it may become necessary to re-translate it. Even though, if the TT offers new information, terms, words etc., this product of the translating process (also called a translated text or *translatum*) is to be evaluated in relation to target language writing conventions, and demonstrates the quality of a native writer or near native-writer proficiency. Neubert and Shreve (1992) spoke of the "models of translation" by which textual reference has been made to "source-centered, translation-centered and target-centered" orientations (p.12).

Translation Assessment and Critique
Parallel Renditions into English and Assessment
The following is about discussing the issue of potentially producing in the target language (in this case English) more than one rendition for the same source text (the Arabic *jumlah*). This is to be related to translation dual-linguistics (from Arabic into English), and the emphasis will be on the target text linguistics. The arguments that apply in this context are based on adopting/employing various translation methods.

The Arabic *jumlah* is
  6   5   4   3   2 1
يحظر إيقاف السيارات في هذا المكان.
      1   2   3   4   5   6
YuHazh-zhar ykaaf al-say-yaarat fy haaza al-makaan.
This *jumlah* is a syntactic unit in Arabic grammar and syntactic terms. Its semantic constituents are structured in linear word order in accordance with Modern Standard Arabic conventional practices, in particular, through emphasizing language in use. Dual-linguistics' translation claims are to be related to matching the *jumlah* structural

units with corresponding structural units of the target language (English). The following TT analyses and assessment include:

A. Linguistic and semantic related arguments, and

B. Translation method use related arguments.

Rendition 1 produced by employing the *communicative translation method:*

The Source Text
  6   5   4   3   2   1
يحظر إيقاف السيارات في هذا المكان.
The TT
   3   2   4   5   6   1
Cars parking at this bay [is strictly] prohibited.

Linguistic and semantic related arguments
This translation relays the message intended by the ST (sign text), which reflects on the target language word order in relation to placing ('Cars parking at this bay') (theme) first and ('is strictly prohibited') rhyme second. The target language structural unit's produced counterparts to those of Arabic source text necessitate, however the adoption of new ordering adjustment. This is, for example, about the trans-positioning of the passive verb 'is strictly prohibited' that should happen as rhyme, and 'Cars parking at this bay' as theme.

Arguments related to the use of the communicative translation method
The use of the communicative translation method has resulted in rendering the exact contextual meaning (content and language) of the ST; this comes in accordance with the target language re-structuring aspect that allows its happening. The rendition reflects on transferring the message and the main semantic force of the ST (expressing/emphasizing *strict enforcement of prohibiting cars from parking*). Both the source text content and target language use make such transfer acceptable and comprehensible to sign lookers/users. The application of the communicative translation method to transfer the Arabic *jumlah* meaning/message led (in spite of having the ST semantic componential constituents retrieved in the TT) to producing an English sentence (sign text) whose discourse features for matching purposes are not represented in the source text. Dual-linguistics translation analysis results in the following findings:

The communicative translation method applied to the source text has resulted in producing target text with different discourse features of the target language (compared with those of the source text) and the failing of the process of producing corresponding counterpart rendition in its communicative function. In other words, the translating process results in producing an *informative* TT vs. *communicative* source text. This failure appears to be caused by producing TT that matches the source text only in terms of adherence to correspond to rendering a passive verb that may say: "Cars are prohibited by [whoever the authority would be] from parking at this bay" vs. produced TT that says "Parking cars at this bay [is strictly] prohibited" (aspect of the no-designation). The employment of this method also led to produce a present progressive verb (English TT) as the counterpart to the passive verb of the Arabic source text.

The above discussion shows that no comprehensive matching has been achieved between the two language systems in relation to the use of the communicative method.

Rendition 2 produced by employing the literal translation method:

The Source Text:
  6   5   4   3   2   1
يحظر إيقاف السيارات في هذا المكان.

The TT:
          1   2   3   4   5   6
'To be prohibited [by?] parking cars at this place'

1. This rendition exhibits two features; the first is syntagmatic, which relates to the adherence to the source text's structural unit linear order in their grammatical slot functional unit representation. It also reflects on the matching aspect for the purpose of corresponding to the *jumlah* as its counterpart. The second is semantic that is represented in ensuring matching semantic properties of the source text's structural units happens through rendering the same semantic lexical field. Nevertheless, it can be stated that the TT meets the retrieval of semantic properties relevant to the ST's structural units in their grammatical functions of the slots.

2. The literal rendition into English exhibits transferred meaning of the structural units (semantic constituents), but not necessarily the source text message of those units combined in their composition, which refers to the context of situation. The word-for-word meaning transfer is manifested in the TT words 1- 6 vs. the source text units (words 1 – 6 in their linear order), and this exhibits the feature of faithfully adhering to the source text as far words' content retrieval is concerned. In other words, this happens in terms of saying the same but not by abiding by Standard English sentence structure. The TT, as a result of employing the aforementioned method, fails to meet or /correspond to standard structured Arabic *jumlah* counterpart. Contrasting Arabic and English linguistics, for translation purposes, determines in the context of this rendition the transfer of linguistic items from standard (source text) to non-standard language and register (TT).

Rendition 3 produced by employing the purpose (Skopos) translation method:

The Source Text:
  6   5   4   3   2   1
يحظر إيقاف السيارات في هذا المكان.

The TT:
  3   2   1   4   5   6
Cars parking <u>is prohibited</u> at these bays

1. The rendition exhibits some concessions in relation to relaying the same source text morphological structural unit's counterparts. For instance, it does not adhere to the retrieval of the singular case as in: at this bay; instead it says at these bays. The changes are required in order to meet target language standard sign-text language in use. Adopting the purpose method (approach) to produce TT that similes the source text in function is in adverse to linguistic constraint factors represented in the surface structure in their correlations to the deep structure.

2. The method use is based on the notion of adopting functional approach to produce counterpart translation in terms of the text purpose (also called Skopos). Such translation has to reflect on adapting to the source text's purpose (function) by imitating its sign-function properties. In the case of this translation transferring Arabic *jumlah* word meaning into target language word meaning has been based on the purpose elicited from the source text. Therewith, the translator succeeded, by using the purpose translation method to produce rendition 3 (TT3), to relay to the English reader (reader/user of the sign text) what has been intended for Arabic source text to be relayed to.

Rendition 4 produced by employing the faithful translation method:

The Source Text:

6 5 4 3   2   1
يحظر إيقاف السيارات في هذا المكان.

The TT:

2   3   1   4 5   6
Parking[of] cars is prohibited at this place

1. The rendition reflects on Arabic/English translation dual-linguistics in terms of converting Arabic structural units composing *jumlah* into English structural units composing larger syntactic unit called *sentence*. This faithful translation reflects on the aspect of shaping its most salient feature in terms of TT retrieving the purpose of what the source text lexical wording-structural units are formulated for rendering their meanings.

2. In contrast to the use of the purpose translation method, a faithful rendition exhibits relayed source text structural units (lexical) without compromising their contents. It is the meaning aspect that influences target language lexical counterparts' selection with the aim of producing faithful target language counterparts that are not 'compromising' on the semantic properties of the source text's structural units. Thus, this translation is dogmatic in terms of reflecting on the source text's word order as in *at this place* (a feature, which has not been considered when producing the translation by employing the purpose method).

Renditions 5 produced by employing the *semantic translation method:*

The Source Text/5a:

6 5 4 3   2   1
يحظر إيقاف السيارات في هذا المكان.

[Transcribed in Roman letters] as:

1   2   3   4   5   6
YuHazh-zhar ?ykaaf   al-say-yaarat fy haaza al-makaan.
TT/5a:

1   2   3   4 5   6
Cars are prohibited to park at this place

1. This rendition does not compromise meaning, as it reflects on the semantic properties of the source text's structural units (words), and the TT composition follows the linear order of placing theme and rheme in accordance with target language discourse functions. Thereby it does not reflect on the ST word order featuring Arabic verbal sentence. The theme of the source text (Constituent 1 'to be prohibited') has been trans-positioned in the TT/1 as rheme (TT Constituents: 2, 3 to 6: 'are prohibited to park at this place') where 'Cars' of TT/1 has been placed as theme. Thereby, the TT structural unit order contrasts in its writing that of the ST in its placement of the verb phrase 'to be prohibited' (source text /1) first as theme.

For translation purposes, the same *jumlah* (the ST) can be restructured by applying trans-positioning of its structural units as in:

ST/5b

6   5   4   3   2   1
إيقاف السيارات محظور في هذا المكان.

[Transcribed in Roman letters] as
   1   2   3   4   5   6
ykaaf al-say-yaraat maHzhur fy haaza al-makaan.

The source text/5b structural unit's transposition (the reformulated *jumlah* in its changed linear order) necessitates changing its syntactic status to a nominal 'sentence' in Arabic grammar and syntax terms. The subject "al-mubtada" occupies the first slot and its predicate خبرها□ (*al-xabar*) happens in the form of a verbal sentence that is 'to be prohibited'.

TT 5b (semantic translation into English):
   1   2   3   4 5   6
Parking cars is prohibited at this place

Rendition 5b reflects on the linear structural order of source text/5b, which is manifested in placing source text 5b/1(Structural unit 1) in the theme position of TT5b.

2. Renditions 5a and 5b feature no compromise on 'meaning' (semantic aspect in consideration) and idiomatic form of language usage. This exhibits the retrieval of the source text's structural lexical and grammatical unit meaning.

Rendition 6 produced by employing the *pragmatic translation method* as follows.

The Source Text:
   6   5 4   3   2   1
يحظر إيقاف السيارات في هذا المكان.

The TT:
        1
[No] Parking

1. This pragmatic rendition retrieves the meaning of one source text structural unit that is *Parking*. Due to the omission of the source text structural units: 1, 3, 4, 5 and 6 in Rendition 6, it fails to match the source text exactly. The rendition, nevertheless, has the added word [*No*], which retrieves the endophoric reference to the case of negating: inference from the source text structural unit 'to be prohibited' (Constituent 1). By adding [*No*] to *Parking*, it assumes the message intended by the source text to be conveyed to the sign looker/user in the target language.

2. The rendition has been produced on the basis of text-type language-in-use, where the translator's linguistic knowledge plays a significant role in determining the shaping of TT linguistic form and meaning. This focuses on the text's function in its relation to text-type and communicative dimension, which happens by disregarding the semantic properties and content of the ST structural units (words) in favor of the context of situation elements. Elicited source text's function/message shapes the TT salient feature.

Rendition 7 is produced by employing the free translation method as follows:

The Source Text:
  6   5   4   3   2   1
يحظر إيقاف السيارات في هذا المكان.

The TT:
    2   1
Parking <u>is prohibited</u>

1. This rendition retrieves source text Constituents 1 and 2 only, omits 3 − 6, and relays the source text message free of adherence to the retrieval of all source text composing constituents (words). The text's linguistic and semantic features thereby is about compromising the semantic properties through omitting the mentioned source text constituents mentioned, and as a result of this omission, Constituents 3 - 6 no longer show source text correspondence to the sentence structural units' retrieval in the TT. The TT thereby compromises translation rules, and consequently the rendition is fully context of situation dependent. Nevertheless, the intended message to be conveyed to the sign looker/user in the target language has been relayed.

2. The used method produced a rendition, which is similar to that of the *covert translation*, where function (independently from faithfully adhering to retrieve all semantic properties of the source text constituents) determines target language *form* and *meaning*. Dropping semantic properties and content of some source text structural units (words) in favour of achieving exhibiting context of situation elements, the translation focuses on the text's function and purpose in direct relation to text-type through re-shaping its content and message.

CONCLUSION

The use of various translation methods has resulted in rendering different translations from Arabic into English. In the case of the communicative method, the rendition features the exact contextual meaning (content and language) of the source text. Nevertheless, the different discourse features of the target language compared with those of the source text constitute a case, which means matching the TT with the source text would fail the process of producing corresponding counterpart rendition in its communicative function. The literal translation method resulted in producing a rendition that exhibits two features, of which the first is syntagmatic. This relates to the adherence to the source text's structural units linear order in their grammatical slot's functional unit, while the second relates to the transferring of structural units' meaning (semantic constituents) that features context of situation elements. On the other hand, the purpose translation method has resulted in a rendition, which achieved for its reader (user) what has been intended for the source text receiver to be relayed to. The rendition of the faithful translation reflects on Arabic/English translation dual-linguistics in terms of converting Arabic structural units composing jumlah into English structural units composing larger syntactic unit called sentence. The semantic method achieved a rendition that does not compromise meaning, as it reflects on the semantic properties of the source text's structural units (words). Their TT counterpart composition follows the linear order of placing theme and rheme in accordance with target language discourse functions. The pragmatic and the free translation methods have resulted in controversial renditions. In the pragmatic case, the rendition has been produced on the basis of text-type language in use, where the translator's linguistic knowledge plays a significant role in determining the shaping of the TT linguistic form and meaning. The free method produced a rendition similar to that of the covert translation, where function (independently from faithfully adhering to retrieve all semantic properties of the source text constituents) determines target language form and meaning.

In the context of text linguistics (mainly referring to English), cohesion is a property of the linguistic surface of the text, which makes coherence linguistically evident. In the context of preserving the source text structural system, it is to be suggested that translators have to bear in mind how the source text has developed in order to be enlightened in the process of producing the intended TT.

The broad areas of text linguistics represent aspects outlining the study and analyses of departing points, which equally consider focussed research on source text linguistics and target text linguistics. In the course of studying and analysing translation, the major informing source of the field i.e. pragmatic and empiric-accumulated data show the concerns of translation studies. However, by prioritising merely the source text or the target text instead, it is therefore considered in this context an unworkable approach, as this is not going to serve the purpose of achieving a comprehensive study relevant to translating issues and topics. Translation, in the end, is a product that is not more than the target text in Language 2 counter-parting source text that is written in Language 1.

REFERENCES

Mousli, M.M. (2011). Introducing Translation Dual-Linguistics. *Translation Studies in the New Millennium*, *9*, 99-110.

Neubert, A., & Shreve, G. 1992. *Translation as text*. USA: Kent State University Press.

RE-EXAMINING PARENTAL MEDIATION MODEL FOR CHILDREN INTERNET SAFETY

Misha Teimori[1], Md Salleh Hassan[2], Jusang Bolong[3], Ezhar Tamam[4], Nor Azura Adzaruddin[5], Azlina Daud[6]
Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia
e-mail: misha.teimoury@gmail.com[1]; mdsalleh@upm.edu.my[2];
jusang@upm.edu.my[3]; ezhar@upm.edu.my[4],
azura318@gmail.com[5]; daudazlina@yahoo.com[6]

ABSTRACT
In Malaysia, children spend a lot of time online and are thus often exposed to undesirable experiences. However, little is known about how parents monitor children's online activities to avert negative exposure. Using the Malaysian context, this study tests the Parental Mediation Model (PMM) developed by the European Kids Online project (a multi-national research network on new media and children). The objective of the study is to test the reliability and validity of measurements of parental mediation of children's Internet use. A cross-sectional survey was conducted among 420 school children and their parents/guardians. Self-administered questionnaires were employed and exploratory factor analyses and structural equation modelling used to test the model. The results show that the five-factor PMM (technical, monitoring, restrictive, active mediation of Internet safety and active mediation of Internet use) is not applicable to the Malaysian context. Instead, a three-factor model (technical, restrictive monitoring, and active mediation) emerged from the data. Thus, the five-factor PMM of online risks is not a generic construct of dimensions, though the re-constructed three-factor model seems to fit.

Keywords: Parental active mediation, parental monitoring mediation, parental restrictive mediation, parental technical mediation

INTRODUCTION

By applying the Parental Mediation Model (PMM), parents attempt to regulate and control their children's Internet usage to maximize the benefits and minimize negative implications. Since children are now accessing the Internet at early age, scholars have applied the PMM to explore which mediation strategies are effective for parents in order to reduce children's online risks (Lee, 2012; Shin, Huh, & Faber, 2012; Clark, 2011). There is more than 11 million Internet users aged 15 and elder in Malaysia at the time of August 2011 (Star Online, October 17, 2011). However, high levels of Internet usage may lead to higher risks. Malaysia is the sixth most vulnerable country in the world to cybercrime arising from computer or smartphone use (Star Online, 13 August 2013). Although children spend an average of 11 to 19 hours per week online, only four out of 10 parents know what their children are doing, and what material they are accessing, when they go online (Ismail, 2011). Research into parental mediation of children's online activities has demonstrated that parents use a number of strategies to monitor and control their children's Internet usage, and that such efforts influence the way children are affected by the Internet (Shin & Ismail, 2014; Clark, 2011; Lee, 2012; Shin, Huh, & Faber, 2012). However, less attention has been paid to the effects of PMM on children's online risks in Malaysia. It is important for parents to be informed about the extent to

which their monitoring strategies are effective in mitigating harmful online risks to their children.

Parental Mediation Model

Conceptualizations of parental mediation can be traced back to earlier studies about parental rules on children's television use (Valkenburg, Krcmar, Peeters, & Marseille, 1999). Clark (2011) points out that although research on media effects started in the 1930s in relation to radio and cinema, it was not until the 1970s that media-effect studies came to focus on the impact of such media on family life. What today is identified as the PMM is a reframing of media literacy notion affected by new communication technologies (Baran & Davis, 2014). The PMM relates to interpersonal communication between parents and their children, and is rooted in social/psychological media effects and information-processing theories (Clark, 2011). The original perspective recognized that parents manage and regulate their children's experiences related to television, in line with Maccoby's (1954) recommendations that parents limit their children's television use.

Drawing on some early studies, Nathanson (1999) proposed three strategies of parental mediation related to television viewing: active, restrictive, and co-viewing. Researchers continued to focus on the parental role in children's television use until Nathanson (1999) conducted a study about children's video-game use. Studies focusing on parental mediation strategies and children's video games then increased as more and more children became interested in video games. Shin and Huh (2011) introduced three types of parental mediation for video games: co-playing, game-rating checking, and stopping game playing. However, parents were commonly found to apply active meditation to guide their children' gaming behaviour.

Contrary to conventional media, new media use has turned into a private activity for all members of the family. Young people have increasing access to the Internet in their bedrooms or other private spaces, and the "bedroom culture" (wherein children's bedrooms are provided with a variety of media including televisions, TV-linked games consoles, PCs, laptops, iPads, iPhones, etc. (Bovill & Livingstone, 2001) is increasing. To many children, the "bedroom culture" leads to a life build separate from family members. This individualization in turn makes parental mediation strategies challenging as it is sometimes impossible to practice active and co-use mediation (Nikken & Jansz, 2006). Internet-enabled devices are the last thing youths tend to touch before going to bed, and the first thing they touch upon waking.

Thus, compared to conventional media, parental mediation of new media usage is more challenging, since children are able to use this new media anywhere. Consequently, researchers have suggested that, in addition to conventional strategies, future research needs to investigate new strategies of digital media usage monitoring, specifically for children's Internet use (Lee, 2012; Lee & Chae, 2007; Livingstone, Haddon, & Görzig, 2011a; Livingstone, Kirwil, & Ponte, 2013; Livingstone & Helsper, 2008; Shin, Huh, & Faber, 2012). Parental mediation strategies related to television viewing was an important issue, however this has refocused on the Internet since children's time online has increased. Furthermore, since children prefer to use the Internet alone, online activities are become increasingly difficult to regulate and monitor using conventional strategies. Therefore, new strategies need to be explored.

The Parental Mediation Model and the Internet

Several attempts have been made to clearly classify the various styles of parental mediation of children's Internet usage. Active mediation and restrictive mediation are two dimensions of parental mediation (Kirkpatrick & Shaver, 1990; Shin, Huh, & Faber,

2012): active mediation involves parents explaining and discussing media effects, while restrictive mediation is about parents setting rules to restrict and limit their children's media usage in terms of appropriate media content (content restriction) and media exposure time (time restriction). In addition to these two styles (active and restrictive) another strategy of parental mediation is "co-viewing", which involves parents sharing online experiences with children without critical discussion (Nathanson, 1999; Nathanson, 2009, 2010; Shin & Huh, 2011; Warren, 2010).

Past studies have suggested that active mediation reduces undesirable media effects on children which confirmed to be is more effective than other mediation approaches (Buijzen, Rozendaal, Moorman, & Tanis, 2008; Buijzen & Valkenburg, 2005). Fujioka and Weintraub (2003) stated that active mediation is the most effective strategy since it is based on conversations and critical discussions between parents and children, which leads them to develop critical-thinking skills. Lee and Chae (2007) argued that active mediation improve several positive socialization outcomes in new media usage. Even though restrictive mediation on children's media usage has been found to be less effective than active mediation (Buijzen & Valkenburg, 2005), some scholars have found that restrictive mediation is more effective in reducing negative Internet consequences on children, such as inappropriate content involving (Livingstone & Helsper, 2008), cyberbullying (Mesch, 2009), privacy invasion (Lwin, Stanaland, & Miyazaki, 2008), and "tween"[1] information disclosure on the Web (Shin, Huh, & Faber, 2012). Restrictive mediation has been found to be applied significantly more often than non-mediation in reducing negative impacts of the Internet on children (Nikken & Jansz, 2006). Shin, Huh, and Faber (2012) argued that restrictive strategies can be effective on children's online behaviours if children comply with their parents' rules related to decreasing online risks. If parents strictly limit children's time spent online, for instance, the children may be less likely to encounter online risks, such as sharing personal information requested by marketers online. However, the restrictive strategy of limiting children's Internet usage in general reduces opportunities, as well as risks. Furthermore, not all parents prefer to take restrictive role, and would thus welcome an alternative method of mediation, such as active co-use and monitoring (Duerager & Livingstone, 2012).

Following Livingstone and Helsper (2008), researchers have emphasized that parents should guide their children's Internet use, as studies have found an association between mediation and various positive socialization consequences, in both conventional and new media. Liau, Khoo, and Ang (2008) outlined different terms for parental mediation of adolescents' Internet usage as follows: parental supervision involves sitting with adolescents while online; parental communication entails talking with them about what they do on the Internet; and parental tracking equates to checking to see which websites adolescents have visited. Researchers from EU Kids Online conducted a survey to identify the Internet use of 25,142 children aged between 9 and 16 years in 25 European countries, and developed four factors of parental mediation: active co-use, interaction restrictions, technical restrictions, and monitoring (Livingstone & Helsper, 2008). Later, Livingstone, Haddon, and Görzig (2011b) reconstructed this into the five-factor PMM (technical, monitoring, restrictive, active mediation of Internet safety, and active mediation of Internet use). The present study aims to test this five-factor model of PMM in the Malaysian context.

---

[1] "Tweens" refers to children who are in-between childhood and adolescence (Shin, Huh, & Faber, 2012).

METHODOLOGY

Respondents
The sample used in this study consisted of two sets of respondents. The first set comprised 420 primary and secondary school students aged 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, and 16 from the state of Selangor, Malaysia (population: 6,671). Students aged 12, 15 and 17 were not included in this sample because they were preparing for national examinations. The second set of respondents comprised the respective students' parents/guardians. However, this paper only used the responses obtained from parents/guardians.

The state of Selangor was selected as the main location of the study because the state has had the highest Internet usage rate for the past five years based on annual household use of the Internet (MCMC). Two districts in Selangor, Gombak and Sepang, were randomly selected, and schools from the districts clustered into urban and rural. For each cluster, one primary and one secondary school was selected, yielding four schools for each district (two primary and two secondary). The parents' questionnaire was submitted to the schools and children were asked to take it home and ask their parents to complete and return it.

Instrument
Parental mediation was measured using the instrument developed by the EU Kids Online survey (Livingstone, Haddon, & Görzig, 2011b) and later adopted by other scholar (Kalmus, Blinka, & Ólafsson, 2013). The instrument consisted of five subscales that measured the respective dimensions of the PMM constructs. The instrument contained 27 items based on five-point Likert scales ranging from never (1) to very often (5).

Technical mediation was measured using an eight-item scale. Parents were asked whether they use any service or software to prevent risky consequences of Internet (e.g. spam/ junk mail/viruses); limits children online time; limits children visiting particular websites. Monitoring mediation was measured using a four-item scale. Parents were asked whether they ever check their children's online activities such as cyber-friendship or website they visited. Restrictive mediation was measured using a four-item scale. Parents were asked whether they restrict their children's online activities such as: uploading photos/videos/music; sharing personal information in cyberspace; or social networking. Active mediation of Internet safety was measured using a six-item scale. Parents were asked about their active mediation in terms of whether they: talk/sit/participate with their children in online time and help their children when something bothers them. Active mediation of Internet use was measured using a five-item scale. Parents were asked whether they ever stay nearby their children or shared activities together with their children on the Internet (Kalmus, Blinka, & Ólafsson, 2013; Livingstone, Haddon, & Görzig, 2011b).

RESULTS
The majority of parents/guardians were female (56%), Malay (73%) and Muslim (74%), with average ages between 31–50 (77.4%). Three statistical techniques were used in order to (1) test the validity and reliability of the PMM; (2) test the PMM on online risks among Malaysian children; and (3) confirm the model presented in this study.

Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis
Exploratory factor analysis was used with maximum likelihood and varimax rotation to extract a 27-item parental mediation measurement. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was .93, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1974), while Bartlett's Test of

Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) met the criteria of statistical significance – the factor analysis was therefore supported. In order to make a decision regarding how many factors should be extracted, a screen plot was created (Figure 1). The scree plot shows a clear break after the third factor with an eigen value of more than 1. Therefore, three factors were extracted to measure the PMM.
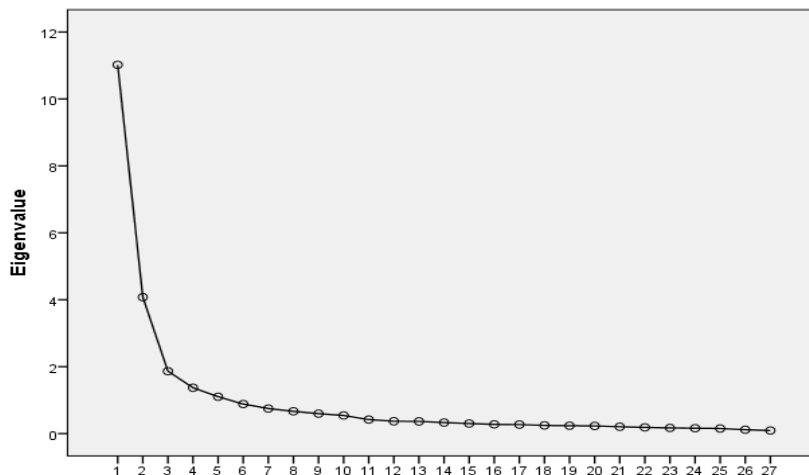
Figure 1. Screen plot of Parental Mediation Factor Analyses

As shown in Table 1, the first factor has an eigenvalue of 11.02 with 41% of total variance explained, the second factor has an eigenvalue of 4.8 (15% variance), and the third factor has an eigenvalue of 2 (7% of the variance). All factor loadings were greater than .3, and thus considered substantial (Kim & Mueller, 1978).

Table 1. Factor loading, mean, SD, and reliability of PMM

Constructs	Factor		
Active Mediation	1	2	3
Suggested ways to use the Internet safely	.777		
Do shared activities together with your child on the Internet	.776		
Explained why some websites are good or bad	.743		
Helped the child when it found something difficult to do or find on the Internet	.742		
Suggested ways to behave towards other people on the Internet	.723		
Helped the child when something had bothered him/her on the Internet	.694		
Talked to the child about what to do if something on the Internet bothered him/her	.680		
Talk to him/her about what he/she does on the Internet	.675		
Stay nearby when he/she uses the Internet	.655		
Sit with him/her while he/she uses the Internet	.636		
Encourage your child to explore and learn things on the Internet on their own	.517		
Reliability	*.93*		
Technical Mediation			
Install filtering/monitoring software for IM		.920	
Install filtering/monitoring software for chat room		.897	
Install filtering/monitoring software for email		.879	
Install monitoring software		.798	
Install filtering/monitoring software for adverts		.717	

Install filtering/monitoring software for junk mail		.709	
Install filtering/monitoring software for porn sites		.637	
Install filtering software		.524	
Reliability	*.93*		
Restrictive Monitoring Mediation			
check their profile on a social networking			.809
Check Email or instant messages			.775
Check which Friends or contacts they add to social networking profile or instant massage			.774
Check websites they visit			.735
They allowed to give out personal information			.436
They allowed to Upload photos, video or music			.381
Reliability	*.9*		
Eigenvalue	11.02	4.08	1.86
% of Variance	40.82	15.1	6.91
Cumulative % of Variance	40.82	55.92	62.83
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.933		
Sig	.000		

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

In order to test the overall fit and acceptability of the PMM in the Malaysian context, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed. A standardized maximum likelihood estimation was used in the study, as this is the most widely used in structural equation modelling (Schermelleh-engel, Moosbrugger, & Müller, 2003). The results of the confirmatory factor analyses are presented in Figure 2.
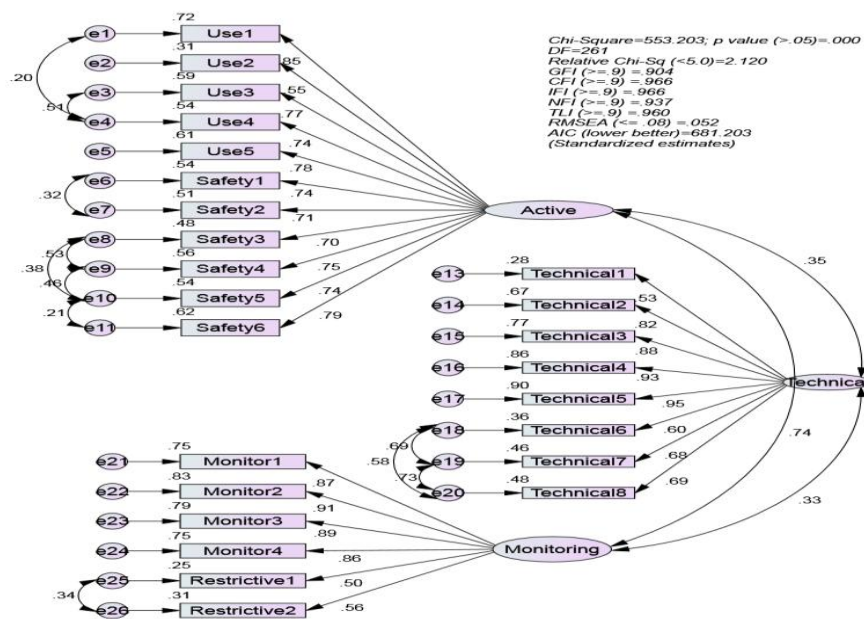
Figure 2: Confirmatory Factor Analyses for measurement model of Parental Mediation

In evaluating the overall goodness of fit for the model, the chi-square/df (ratio) value will be discussed. Hooper, Coughlan, and Mullen (2008) pointed out that chi-square (X^2) is a traditional measure for evaluating overall model fit. X^2 is a type of fit index that tests whether the covariance matrix of the original variable differs from the proposed matrix. A good model fit will provide an insignificant X^2 result (p>.05). An insignificant

p-value means that there is no statistically significant difference between the observed data and the hypothesized model and the X²/df (ratio). The recommended ratio ranges from as high as 5.0 to as low as 2.0 (Hooper et al., 2008). The ratio obtained in the study is below 3, and thus significant (553.203/261=2.12). This result shows that the model has a high fit to the data.

In general, multiple goodness-of-fit tests should be used to evaluate the fit between the hypothesized model (Figure 2), and determine whether the study model should be accepted or rejected (Abedalaziz, Jamaluddin, & Leng, 2013). In order to further assess the model fit, therefore, fit indexes were assessed, as presented in Table 2. Fit indexes show that the model meets the cut-off criteria and is considered a good fit. The root mean square of error approximation in this study is .05, which shows a perfect fit (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). The goodness of fit index, comparative fit index, incremental fit index, normed fit index, and Tucker-Lewis index are all more than .9, and are thus acceptable (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 2: Fit indexes as a result of parental mediation Test confirmatory factor

Fit Indexes	Values
Chi-Square (X2)	553.203 (p=.00)
Degree of freedom (df)	261
chi-squared/df (ratio)	553.203 /261=2.12
Root mean square of error approximation (RMSEA)	.05
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	.90
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	.97
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	.97
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	.94
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	.96

Reliability and Validity of the PMM

The measurement reliability and validity of the three-factor (active, technical, and monitoring mediation) PMM were also tested. The measurement reliability of the three factors of PMM was calculated using Stat Tool Package (Gaskin, 2012). The value for internal consistency related to active mediation, technical mediation and monitoring mediation was .93, which is considered high (Hair et al., 2010). In order to assess the measurement model's validity, convergent and discriminant validity were evaluated. Convergent validity is attained when items measuring a factor converge in terms of the amount of variance. Several methods are available to assess convergent validity. Hair et al. (2010) state that in the case of high convergent validity, items measuring latent variables should load at more than .5 (preferably more than .7), and should be statistically significant. In this study, the standard loading estimates for the factors are higher than .5 and significant, showing that the model meets the criteria of convergent validity.

In order to evaluate discriminant validity, the average variance extracted and inter-item correlations were assessed (Hair et al., 2010). Each indicator's factor loadings were found to be higher for the indicators' own factors than for other constructs, and the average variance shared between the constructs and their indicators is greater than the variance shared between the constructs themselves (Rhee, Kim, & Ryu, 2009) Thus, the requirements for discriminant validity are met The items measuring the three factors of parental mediation correlate to each other within their factors, while the latent factors are not highly correlated to each other, meaning they measured different things (Rhee, Kim, & Ryu, 2009).

Table 3: Standardized Regression Weights and significant value,
Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Factor Reliability of PMM

Constructs	EST.	P
Do shared activities together with your child on the Internet	0.85	.00
Encourage your child to explore and learn things on the Internet on their own	0.55	.00
Stay nearby when he/she uses the Internet	0.77	.00
Sit with him/her while he/she uses the Internet	0.74	.00
Talk to him/her about what he/she does on the Internet	0.78	.00
Talked to the child about what to do if something on the Internet bothered him/her	0.74	.00
Helped the child when something has bothered him/her on the Internet	0.71	.00
Suggested ways to behave towards other people on the Internet	0.70	.00
Suggested ways to use the Internet safely	0.75	.00
Explained why some websites are good or bad	0.74	.00
Helped the child when it found something difficult to do or find on the Internet	0.79	.00
No of Items	11	
AVE	.57	
CR	.93	
Technical Mediation		
Install filtering software	0.53	.00
Install monitoring software	0.82	.00
Install filtering/monitoring software for email	0.88	.00
Install filtering/monitoring software for chat room	0.93	.00
Install filtering/monitoring software for IM	0.95	.00
Install filtering/monitoring software for porn sites	0.60	.00
Install filtering/monitoring software for junk mail	0.68	.00
Install filtering/monitoring software for adverts	0.69	.00
No of Items	8	
AVE	.69	
CR	.93	
Monitoring/restrictive Mediation		
Check which Friends or contacts they add to social networking profile or instant massage	0.87	.00
check their profile on a social networking	0.91	.00
Check Email or instant messages	0.89	.00
Check websites they visit	0.87	.00
Restrict to Upload photos, video or music	0.50	.00
Restrict to give out personal information	0.56	.00
No of Items	6	
AVE	.78	
CR	.93	

*Note: EST=estimate

DISCUSSION

This study presents a three-factor PMM of child Internet safety. The results show that the five-factor PMM of children Internet safety developed as part of the EU Kids Online project (technical mediation, monitoring mediation, restrictive mediation, active mediation of Internet safety, and active mediation of Internet use) could not be reproduced in the Malaysian context; instead, the measurement validity and reliability test for the PMM indicates that the model in this context consists of three factors (technical, restrictive monitoring, and active mediation). From the five-factor PMM, only one factor, "technical mediation", remained separate, while "active mediation of Internet safety" and

"active mediation of Internet use" were combined in one factor as well as "restrictive mediation" and "monitoring mediation".

One of the factors of PMM, technical mediation, has eight items that were found to be valid and reliable. The factor relates to parents' installation of filtering and monitoring software for the devices their children use, in order to protect them from online risks. Similar to European parents, Malaysian parents also need to be more concerned with taking action related to technical monitoring of their children's online activities (Livingstone, Haddon, & Görzig, 2011b).

From the five-factor PMM tested in this study, the two factors "monitoring" and "restrictive" mediation were combined into "restrictive monitoring". However, within restrictive mediation, which initially had four items, two items – "restricting children from watching movies online" and "restricting children from having their own social networking profiles" –were deleted since they had a weak contribution to the constructs. The study shows that parents in Malaysia need to limit their children from sharing their personal information through the Internet. They also need to check their children's online activities on social networking sites.

Finally, within the PMM items of "active mediation of Internet safety" and "active mediation of Internet use", only one factor was extracted – "active mediation" – with 11 items. This suggests that parents need to practice active mediation for their children's online activities, such as sitting with their children during online activities and explaining the advantages and disadvantages of the Internet, as well as assisting them when they find something difficult to do/understand online.

In summary, while the PMM developed from the EU Kids Online project is not a generic construct of dimensions, the re-constructed model seems to fit the Malaysian context.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The literature review showed that the PMM has been developed with reference to three contexts: first in relation to controlling children's television viewing, then to mediating children's video gaming, and finally to mediating children's Internet use and safety. This paper highlighted the importance of developing the PMM for Internet safety from time to time in different contexts.

Considering the results of this study, the five-factor PMM of Internet safety developed within the EU Kids Online project in Europe is not applicable to Malaysia. That is to say that parental mediation strategies for Internet usage that are used in Western countries are not generic in the Malaysian context.

For academics, these research findings contribute to the application of a revised version of the PMM for children's new media usage. For parents and practitioners, this finding recommends which strategies can be used for children's online safety. The results of this study support the idea that "active mediation" is more important than other parental mediation strategies for children's Internet safety. Active mediation builds upon conversations and critical discussions between parents and their children.

Parents could easily monitor and control children's conventional media usage, such as television, since children traditionally used this media in the living room with other family members. As new technology, such as iPods, iPhones, laptops, desktops, digital games and so on, has become bedroom accessible, parents face new challenges to monitor and control their children's Internet usage. Additionally, children were using conventional media for limited periods of time; however, in the digital world they have a variety of media that they can use anywhere, anytime and for various purposes.

Considering these changes, the PMM that was initially formed to regulate children's television usage is not applicable to children's usage of digital media like the Internet.

Nowadays, younger Internet users can easily share their personal information, start friendships via social networks, shop online without being concerned about financial information safety, and visit inappropriate websites without being concerned about safety and security. Meanwhile, parents have different reactions to their children's online activities: only four out of 10 parents know what their children are doing and accessing online in Malaysia (Ismail, 2011). Thus, parents need to be more involved in their children's online activities. They need to monitor the amount of time children spend online, the content of the websites they are visiting, and the way they communicate through the Internet. Parents should also be aware of the diverse range of pros and cons of Internet usage.

The purpose of this study was to test the 27-item PMM developed from a survey of 25 European countries in the Malaysian context. The modified model offered by this study, which includes 25 items, provides evidence that this model is reliable and valid in the Malaysian context. Likewise, it will be important in future work to establish the effects of PMM for reducing children's online risks. This study represents an important step towards further understanding the effect parents can have on children's Internet safety, and will provide a basis for future work in this area.

REFERENCES

Abedalaziz, N., Jamaluddin, S., & Leng, C. H. (2013). Measuring attitudes toward computer and Internet usage among postgraduate students in Malaysia. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, *12*(2), 200–216.

Baran, S. J., & Davis, D. K. (2014). *Mass Communication Theory: Foundations, Ferment, and Future* (7th ed.). USA: Cengage Learning.

Bartlett, M.S. (1954). A note on multiplying factors for various chi square approximations. *Journal of Royal Statistical Society, 16*(Series B), 296-298.

Bovill, M., & Livingstone, S. (2001). Bedroom culture and the privatization of media use. In Sonia Livingstone, *Moira Bovill Children and their changing media environment: A European comparative study*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Buijzen, M., Rozendaal, E., Moorman, M., & Tanis, M. (2008). Parent versus child reports of parental advertising mediation: Exploring the meaning of agreement. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, *52*(4), 509–525.

Buijzen, M., & Valkenburg, P. M. (2005). Parental mediation of undesired advertising effects. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, *49*(2), 153–165.

Clark, L. S. (2011). Parental mediation theory for the digital age. *Communication Theory*, *21*(4), 323–343. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2885.2011.01391.x

Duerager, A., & Livingstone, S. (2012). *How can parents support children's Internet safety?* London: EU Kids Online. Retrieved from http://www.lse.ac.uk/ media@lse/research/EUKidsOnline/EUKidsIII/Reports/ParentalMediation.pdfFuj

Ioka, Y., & Weintraub Austin, E. (2003). The implications of vantage point in parental mediation of television and child's attitudes toward drinking alcohol. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, *47*(3), 418–434.

Gaskin, J., (2012), "Validity Master", Stats Tools Package. http://statwiki. kolobkreations.com

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Hooper, D., Coughlan, J., & Mullen, M. R. (2008). Structural equation modelling: Guidelines for determining model fit. *Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, *6*(1), 53–60.

Ismail, K. (2011, October 11). Cyber-duped parents. *Malay Mail*. Kuala Lampur. Retrieved from http://www.cybersecurity.my/en/knowledge_bank/news/2011/main/detail/2089/index.html

Kaiser, H. F. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika*, *39*(1), 31–36.

Kalmus, V., Blinka, L., & Ólafsson, K. (2013). Does it matter what mama says: Evaluating the role of parental mediation in European adolescents' excessive Internet use. *Children & Society.* doi:10.1111/chso.12020

Kim, J.-O., & Mueller, C. W. (1978). *Factor analysis: Statistical methods and practical issues*. California: Sage Publications.

Kirkpatrick, L. A., & Shaver, P. R. (1990). Attachment theory and religion: Childhood attachments, religious beliefs, and conversion. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion*, *29*(3), 315–334.

Lee, S.-J. (2012). Parental restrictive mediation of children's Internet use: Effective for what and for whom? *New Media & Society*, *15*(4), 466–481. doi:10.1177/1461444812452412

Lee, S.-J., & Chae, Y.-G. (2007). Children's Internet use in a family context: Influence on family relationships and parental mediation. *CyberPsychology & Behavior*, *10*(5), 640–644.

Liau, A. K., Khoo, A., & Ang, P. H. (2008). Parental awareness and monitoring of adolescent Internet use. *Current Psychology*, *27*(4), 217–233. doi:10.1007/s12144008-9038-6

Livingstone, S., Kirwil, L., & Ponte, C. (2013). *In their own words: What bothers children online*? London: EU Kids Online. Retrieved from http://www.lse.ac.uk/media@lse/research/EUKidsOnline/EU%20Kids%20III/Reports/Inteirownwords020213.pdf

Livingstone, S., Haddon, L., Görzig, A. and Ólafsson, K. (2011a). Technical report and user guide: *The 2010 EU Kids Online Survey*. London: EU Kids Online.

Livingstone, S., Haddon, L., & Görzig, A. (2011b). *Technical report and user guide: The 2010 EU Kids Online Survey their parents in 25 countries kids online network*. London: EU Kids Online.

Livingstone, S., & Helsper, E. J. (2008). Parental mediation of children's Internet use. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, *52*(4), 581–599. doi:10.1080/08838150802437396

Lwin, M. O., Stanaland, A. J. S., & Miyazaki, A. D. (2008). Protecting children's privacy online: How parental mediation strategies affect website safeguard effectiveness. *Journal of Retailing*, *84*(2), 205–217.

Maccoby, E. E. (1954). Why do children watch television? *Public Opinion Quarterly*, *18*(3), 239–244.

Malaysia sixth most vulnerable to cyber crime. (2013, August 13). *The Star Online*. Retrieved from http://www.thestar.com.my/News/Nation/2014/09/23/cybercrimemalaysians-sixth-most-vulnerable/

Malaysians watching more online videos. (2011, October 17). *The star online.* Retrieved from http://www.thestar.com.my/News/Nation/2014/09/23/cyber crime-malaysianssixth-most-vulnerable/

Mesch, G. (2009). Parental mediation, online activities, and cyberbullying. *CyberPsychology & Behavior*, *12*(4), 387–393.

Nathanson, Amy. I. (2010). Using television mediation to stimulate nontraditional gender roles among Caucasian and African American children in the US. *Journal of Children and Media*, *4*(2), 174–190. doi:10.1080/17482791003629644

Nathanson, Amy. I. (2009). The unintended effects of parental mediation of television on adolescents, 4(3), 37–41. doi:10.1207/S1532785XMEP0403

Nathanson, Amy. I. (1999). Identifying and explaining the relationship between parental mediation and children's aggression. *Communication Research*, *26*(2), 124–143. doi:10.1177/009365099026002002

Nikken, P., & Jansz, J. (2006). Parental mediation of children's videogame playing: A comparison of the reports by parents and children. *Learning, Media and Technology*, *31*(2), 181–202. doi:10.1080/17439880600756803

Rhee, H.-S., Kim, C., & Ryu, Y. U. (2009). Self-efficacy in information security: Its influence on end users' information security practice behavior. *Computers & Security*, *28*(8), 816–826.

Schermelleh-engel, K., Moosbrugger, H., & Müller, H. (2003). Evaluating the fit of structural equation models : Tests of significance and descriptive goodness-of fit measures, *8*(2), 23–74.

Shin, W., & Huh, J. (2011). Parental mediation of teenagers' video game playing: Antecedents and consequences. *New Media and Society*, *13*(6), 945–962. doi:10.1177/1461444810388025

Shin, W., Huh, J., & Faber, R. (2012). tweens' online privacy risks and the role of parental mediation. *Journal of Broadcasting and Electronic Media*, *56*(4), 37–41. Retrieved from http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/08838151.2012.73 2135

Shin, W., & Ismail, N. (2014). Exploring the role of parents and peers in young adolescents' risk taking on social networking sites. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking, 17*(9), 578-583. doi:10.1089/cyber.2014. 0095.

Valkenburg, P. M., Krcmar, M., Peeters, A. L., & Marseille, N. M. (1999). Developing a scale to assess three styles of television mediation: "Instructive mediation," "restrictive mediation," and "social coviewing." *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, *43*(1), 52–66. doi:10.1080/08838159909364474

Warren, R. (2010). Parental mediation of preschool children's television viewingparental mediation of preschool children's television viewing. *Journal of Broadcasting and Electronic Media 47*(3), 37-41. doi: 10.1207/s15506878jobem4703.

IMPACT OF ARAB PARENTS' EDUCATIONAL LEVEL ON THEIR CHILDREN'S LEARNING OF ENGLISH

Yuen Chee Keong[1], Nisreen Fadhil Washah[2]
Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia
e-mail: yuenck@ukm.edu.my[1], nisrinefadhel@yahoo.com[2]

ABSTRACT
This exploratory study aims to find out how the educational level of Arab parents plays a role in their children English language learning in Malaysia and whether the difference in the parents' level of education affects their children's English language learning. The sample of the study composed of 10 parents who answered a questionnaire and three out of the 10 were interviewed for the purpose of triangulation. The results from the first part of the questionnaire indicate that most Iraqi parents used English and promoted it to their children for functional purposes such as getting a job in future, making new friends and facilitating the use of some instruments as computers and smart phones. Results from the second part of the questionnaire show Iraqi parents focused on teaching their children listening and speaking skills rather than reading and writing.

Keywords: Arab parents, educational level, Iraqi, learning of English

INTRODUCTION

Arab students form a significant number of Malaysia's international student population of more than 90,000 who hail from 168 countries (MOHE, 2012). These students who come with their families to do their postgraduate degrees are forced in one way or another to use English in their daily interactions with Malaysians and non-Malaysians alike. Unfortunately, many of them still encounter communication problems because Arab families vary in their English language competence; while you find few families possess a good command of English, a majority of them have low command of English (Ogbu, 1983). The varying competency arises because English is taught as a foreign language in their home country where students learn the language for 4 to 6 hours a week in school. The lack of English proficiency has become a great concern amongst these Arabic postgraduate parents who feel that their children would be disadvantaged socially and academically if they have a poor command of English in Malaysia where it is still widely used.

Although research has shown that schools play the most significant role in assisting children learn English, few studies have been conducted on the effect of the home environment on Arab children learning the English language (Parcel & Dufur, 2001). Furthermore, for the studies that do, they have not explored in depth how different home variables interact to influence children's English-language learning, and in what ways these variables differentiate the environments of those children who are more successful in foreign language learning from those who are less.

While there are studies on the effect of parental educational level on children overall academic performance (Khodadady, Pishghadam & Alaee 2012), there are also studies on the effect of mothers' educational level on their children educational

performance rather than the effect of both parents (Huang, 2009). Unfortunately, most of these studies have been conducted on families of native speakers of English rather than on the families of foreign language speakers of English such as Arab families who are living in countries where English is a second language like Malaysia. More specifically, there is a need to investigate Arab parents' education and its effect on their children learning English (Parcel & Dufur, 2001; Ogbu, 1983) in a foreign country.

Therefore, this study aims to investigate whether the educational level of Arab parents affects their children learning the English language in Malaysia and to determine if the difference in the parents' level of education affect their children's learning of the language. The findings of this investigation can help prospective Middle Eastern especially Iraqi postgraduate students who plan to further their studies in a country where English is the first or second language so that their children will not have language difficulties adapting to the new environment. More importantly, they will reveal the importance and commitment Iraqi parents placed on the learning of English as a foreign language in their country to English as a second language in the country where they are studying for a postgraduate degree.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Previous research about attitudes and motivations regarding second or foreign language learning has been conducted either from the view point of social phenomena (Dörnyei, 2003) or the relationship between language learning and individual proficiency (Dörnyei, 2003). More recently, the focus of the concern has shifted to language learning in terms of both individual and social phenomena (Dörnyei, 2003; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003).

Ismail (2004) studied 75 Malaysian parents who lived in North America to find out if parental beliefs affected their children's school success. Looking at four aspects of parental beliefs: children competence, parental educational background, parent behavior and teachers and schools; the findings revealed that the parental level of education has an effect on their children's school success with fathers believing in it more than mothers and it is more apparent in parents of younger children than parents of older ones. However, in another study, Kuo, Franke, Regalado and Halfon (2004) found that mother's education level highly influences their participation in home literacy activities. Similarly, Hyde, Else-Quest, Alibali, Knuth and Romberg (2006) discovered that a mother's knowledge of mathematics caused inequalities in parental resources available to their children for learning mathematics. Other research indicated that mothers' education can be a good predictor for children's academic achievement in young and lowly-educated mothers, but not older and highly-educated mothers (Magnuson, 2007).

With regards the relationship between parents' level of education as an indicator of social capital and achievement in English as a foreign language, Khodadady et al. (2012) found that students of parents having secondary and higher education scored significantly higher than those whose parents had only primary education.

In the above studies, the focus appears to be on only one parent's educational level; the mother, more than the father and the issue under investigation is either children overall academic performance or in the subject, mathematics. Hence, there is a need to conduct studies on the learning of the English language as a school subject and its correlation to the learners' parental education level.

METHODOLOGY

This study focuses on the human domain in the three-domain social theory of Coleman (1991, 1990 & 1998) as it is considered the most important because it includes the level of education as a factor and how it affects learning. Thus, the framework of this study can be conceptualised as in Figure 1.

English language learning

Human
domain

Child   Parental level of education
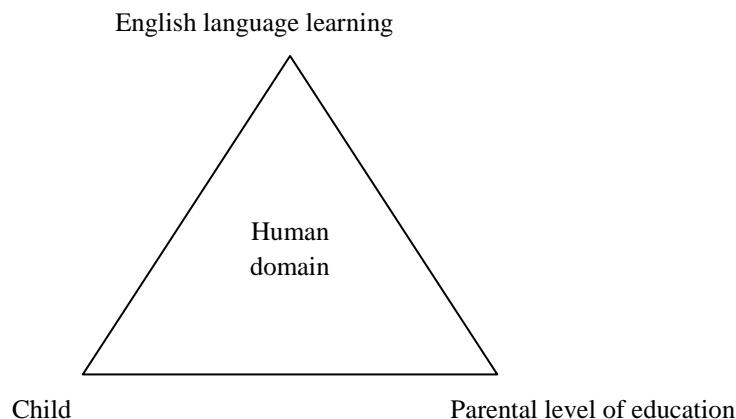
Figure 1 Conceptual Framework

The adopted framework assumes that the learning process will occur in homes, so the parents are considered to be teachers, their children are; the students, and the outcome is the English language learning. In addition, it sees learning taking place in an informal context (the home) rather than a formal one (the school). Although many factors in the home domain may affect the children learning the English language, the main factor that can assist in achieving the aims of the study will be limited to parents' educational level.

The sample of the study consisted of 10 Iraqi parents; one from a single mother, seven from couples and two from an extended family of parents and grandparents. Out of the 10, three parents were interviewed. All three groups had a child or children staying with them in Malaysia. To ensure homogeneity of the sample, the participants were selected randomly based on the following four criteria:

1. Most Iraqi parents, who are in Malaysia, come with the purpose of completing their education.
2. The monthly income for these families is generally fixed as the parents do not work, and get their monthly expenses from government scholarships which do not exceed 5000 Ringgit.
3. The age of the Iraqi parents who are studying in Malaysia, range from 26 to 45 years old which is considered as one generation; Hence, they share to an extent the same views and expectations.
4. All the parents come directly from Iraq to Malaysia and they do not have any previous experience of English in western countries.

Two instruments were used, a questionnaire and an interview. Both instruments had been adopted from previous studies (Tavil, 2009; Baig, 2011) as they were related to the same issue as the present study, and then they were adapted to suit the objectives and purpose of the study. The questions in the questionnaire were identified from previous studies and given to two testing experts to ensure that they were compatible with the objectives of the present study. After the experts commented on the questions,

modifications were made. Then they were rewritten and returned to the experts for their approval.

The questionnaire (see Appendix A) is composed of three sections. Section One enquires the reasons why parents encourages the learning of English in their children (Questions 1-10). Section Two questions the ways of learning English language skills at home (Questions 11-17) and Section Three (Questions 18-25) investigates the degree of parental satisfaction with their own and their children level of English language.

Meanwhile, interviews (see Appendix A) are conducted after consents to have them recorded were obtained from the families. Each parent was interviewed once with semi-structured interview questions. The recorded interviews were then transcribed.

DATA ANALYSIS

Statistical Package for Social Science Version 21 was used to analyze the collected data. The parents'responses were coded and analyzed to find the means, standard deviation, variances, correlations and reliability. The interviews were transcribed and coded as each respondent was given a code from 1-3. Content analysis was used to elicit the most common responses from the respondents.

The demographics of the participants can be found in Tables 1, 2 and 3. Table 1 shows the participants' level of education. 50% of the participants had a bachelor degree, 20% held a Master degree and 30% were enrolled in a PhD program.

Table 1: Participants' level of education

	Frequency	Percent
Bachelor	5	50.0
Master	2	20.0
PhD	3	30.0

Table 2: Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	under 25	1	10.0	10.0	10.0
	26-36	5	50.0	50.0	60.0
	37-47	4	40.0	40.0	100.0
	Total	10	100.0	100.0	

Regarding the age factor, 10% of the participants were aged below 25 years, 50% were aged between 26-36 years and 40% were aged between 37-47 years old as shown in Table 2.

Table 3: Family structure

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Mother	1	10.0	10.0	10.0
	Father &mother	7	70.0	70.0	80.0
	All	2	20.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	10	100.0	100.0	

In Table 3, 70% of the parents came from families that had both a father and a mother with children, 10% were made up of a mother with her child and 20% were of an extended family of parents and grandparents.

Based on Section One of the questionnaire, the participants provided various reasons for encouraging their children to learn English. All the respondents (100%) identified learning English for functional use such as getting a job, making friends or using certain devices, for example, smart phones, computers and tablets, that require sufficient English skills. 60% of the respondents said that their children should learn English for cultural purposes.

In regard to Section Two, the data analysis revealed that again all the participants (100%), who selected items 11, 12, 13, 16 and 17, wanted their children to acquire the skills of reading, speaking and listening more so than writing with only 60%.

When it comes to the degree of parental satisfaction regarding the level of English language of themselves and for their children in Section Three, most parents believed that they were competent in all four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. For their children, 80% of parents thought their children were at the beginner's level of listening, speaking and reading while 20% of parents thought their children were at the low intermediate level. In the case of writing, 90% of the parents felt that their children were still beginners with the rest believing that they were at the low intermediate level.

Table 4: Descriptive statistics of respondents with a Master or/and PhD degree

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Factor1	5	1.30	2.50	2.0600	.46152
Factor2	5	1.00	2.14	1.5714	.41650
Factor3	5	1.00	2.75	2.1500	.69821
Valid N (list wise)	5				

Table 5: Descriptive statistics of respondents with an undergraduate degree

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Factor1	5	1.50	2.70	2.1800	.54037
Factor2	5	1.43	2.86	1.8857	.59247
Factor3	5	1.38	2.50	2.2250	.48734
Valid N (list wise)	5				

Regarding the relation between parental level of education and its effect on their children learning of the English language, the findings of the data collected are represented in Tables 4 and 5. Table 4 shows the means of participants with a Master or/ and PhD degree while Table 5 shows the means of participants with an undergraduate degree.

The data analysis revealed that the means of the participants with a Master or/ and PhD degree on each factor was less than the participants with an undergraduate degree which means that their responses concentrated between strongly agree and agree. In other words, participants with a Master or/ and PhD degree had a greater impact on their children learning English than participants with an undergraduate degree as illustrated in Table 6.

This indicated that parents, generally, like to vary the ways in which they enable their children in the learning the English language at home. This was verified by the participants in the interviews. The parents resorted to, according to availability, stationery, puzzle games, alphabet tables, educational CDs and DVDs and many other items that promote the learning of the English language at home.

Table 6: Comparing the means of undergraduate
and postgraduate degree holders

Factors	Questions	Undergraduate Degree Means	Postgraduate Degree Means
Reasons why parents promotes English in their children	1-10	2.1800	2.0600
Ways of learning English language at home	11-17	1.8857	1.5714
Language level	18-25	2.2250	2.1500

DISCUSSION

The study presents two major findings regarding the impact of the educational level of Iraqi parents on their children's learning of English in Malaysia, and whether the children's English language learning is affected by the difference in the parents' level of education. Iraqi parents used English and promoted it among their children for functional purposes; They focused on teaching their children listening and speaking skills rather than on the skills of reading and writing. These findings could have been affected by the age of the Iraqi parents since 60% were below the age of 36 (see Table 2). The young parents felt that their children's level of English proficiency was still low and would need more assistance in learning the language.

Specifically, Iraqi parents believed that what was more important for their children was communication; they wanted their children to speak English in order to communicate with others and have more friends because they felt that their children would face difficulties in communicating as they lacked the ability to speak in English. Hence, the parents would communicate with their children in English at home if possible. This is consistent with the view of Masgoret and Gardner (2003) who found that more parental communication with children enhanced their language.

In addition to the above, the high percentage of parents (80%) who categorized their children as beginners of their level of English language could be due to the rigid and archaic way of teaching English in Iraqi schools and universities. Students had to spend 22 years using textbooks mostly for the teaching of the reading skill more that the other three skills. Iraqi parents wanted their children to use English effectively in different contexts and for various purposes because in the Arab world, English is taught as a foreign language in schools and it is used in very few contexts outside the school (Dörnyei, 2003). The findings also showed that all the parents agreed on varying the ways of encouraging their children to learn English at home. Even though their children learn English at the schools in Malaysia, mostly in Arabic-international schools, the level of English taught was unsatisfactory to the parents. So, they compensated this shortcoming at school by encouraging the learning of the language at home (Kuo et al., 2004).

More interestingly, the findings demonstrated the existence of a strong correlation between parental level of education and their children learning of English similar to the ones found by Khodadady et al. (2012) and Huang (2009) where a positive relationship appeared between parental level of education and their children learning of English. The effect seemed to be stronger for parents with postgraduate degrees. As revealed in the interviews, parents who had Masters and/or a PhD were more aware of the importance of the English language for their children since they had a better proficiency in the language than parents with undergraduate degrees. In other words, when the parents' level of

education is higher, so would the parents' interest in their children learning English (McBride, Schoppe, & Ho, 2005).

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study indicated that there is a strong correlation between parental level of education and their children learning the English language, and postgraduate parents but not undergraduate parents showed a stronger attitude towards their children's language learning.

It is important to note that the learning of English by children can be affected by many factors, but the home plays a significant role especially when parents live abroad like the Iraqi parents in this study. Thus, the human factor in such cases comes first in importance for children whose parents are very interested in their learning of a language. Furthermore, this study has shown that the adoption of the human domain of Coleman's social theory in unravelling the two objectives has been appropriate since the human factor is related to the level of parental education and how it affects other structures such as children.

Based on the findings, it is recommended that Arab parents in general and Iraqi parents in particular, should vary their ways of teaching their children the four skills of the English language and spend more time in encouraging their children in acquiring the language at home.

Additionally, further research is recommended to ethnographically explore how parents guide and teach their children the English language at home. Finally, it is apparent that there is a need for conducting studies to determine the impact of parental educational level on their children's language learning of Arab families who for educational purposes stay in an English speaking nation (Khodadady et al, 2012) such as Malaysia.

REFERENCES

Baig, F. (2011). *Investigating the motivations of parents choosing language immersion education for their child*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from http://ir.uiowa.edu/etd/921.

Coleman, J. S. (1991). *Policy perspectives: Parental involvement in education*. Washington: US Department of Education.

Coleman, J. S. (1990). *Foundations of social theory*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Coleman, J. S. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American Journal of Sociology, 94,* S95-S120.

Dörnyei, Z. (2003). Introduction. *Language learning*, *53*(S1), 1-2.

Fergusson, D.M., Horwood, L.J., & Boden, J.M. (2008). The transmission of social inequality: Examination of the linkages between family socioeconomic status in childhood and educational achievement in young adulthood. *Research in Social Stratification and Mobility*, *26*(3), 277-295.

Huang, L. (2009). Social capital and student achievement in Norwegian secondary schools. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *19*(2), 320-325.

Hyde, J. S., Else-Quest, N. M., Alibali, M. W., Knuth, E., & Romberg, T.H. (2006). Mathematics in the home: Homework practices and mother–child interactions doing mathematics. *The Journal of Mathematical Behaviors*, *25*(2), 136-152.

Ismail, S. A. M. M. (2004). *An analysis of beliefs among Malaysian parents in North America about children's school success*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Wisconsin Madison.

Khodadady, E., Pishghadam, R., & Alaee, F.F. (2012). Exploring the relationship between social capitals and English language achievement within a specific grade and context. *English Language Teaching*, *5*(5), 45-55.

Kuo, A. A., Franke, T. M., Regalado, M., & Halfon, N. (2004). Parent report of reading to young children. *Pediatrics*, *113*(S5), 1944-1951.

Magnuson, K. (2007). Maternal education and children's academic achievement during middle childhood. *Developmental Psychology*, *43*(6), 1497-1512.

Masgoret, A. M., & Gardner, R. C. (2003). Attitudes, motivation, and second language learning: Ameta–analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and associates. *Language Learning*, *53*(1), 123-163.

McBride, B. A., Schoppe-Sullivan, S. J., & Ho, M. H. (2005). The mediating role of fathers' school involvement on student achievement. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, *26*(2), 201-216.

Ministry of Higher Education in Malaysia (MOHE). (2012). http://www.mohe.gov.my /educationmsia/education.php?article=malaysia.

Ogbu, J. U. (1983). Minority status and schooling in plural societies. *Comparative Education Review*, *27*(2), 168-190.

Parcel, T. L., & Dufur, M. J. (2001). Capital at home and at school: Effects on student achievement. *Social Forces, 79*(3), 881-912.

Tavil, Z. M. (2009). Parental attitudes toward English education for kindergarten students in Turkey. *Kastamonu Education Journal, 17*(1), 331-340.

APPENDIX A

Items related to reasons why parents promotes English in their children	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1-In general, my children experiences in learning English were agreeable.	50%	10%	0%	40%	0%
2-In general, speaking English at home help my children in learning English.	60%	40%	0%	0%	0%
3-I usually feel comfortable speaking English in my home.	30%	20%	40%	10%	0%
4-I want my children to be able to speak English because it will help them to get a good job.	70%	30%	0%	0%	0%
5-Having good English skills will allow my children to have more friends.	30%	70%	0%	0%	0%
6-English will help my children to be respected in Iraqi society;	20%	20%	40%	10%	10%
7-I want my children to speak English at home.	30%	30%	20%	10%	10%
8-I feel my Iraqi culture and traditions will be affected by English.	20%	40%	10%	30%	0%
9-I feel anxious when I have to speak English.	10%	30%	20%	20%	20%
10-I believe having good English skills will help my children to use the Internet.	50%	50%	0%	0%	0%
Items related ways of learning English language at home	**Strongly agree**	**agree**	**Neutral**	**disagree**	**Strongly disagree**
11-I think share reading with my children will promote his/her English Language;	50%	50%	0%	0%	0%
12-I think watching children programs spoken in English will promote his/her English Language;	60%	40%	0%	0%	0%
13-I think the availability of children stories in English will promote his/her English Language;	505	50%	0%	0%	0%
14-I think the availability of papers and pencils (stationary) will promote his/her English Language.	30%	30%	0%	40%	0%
15-I think writing "letters, notes" to my children in English will promote his/her English Language.	20%	60%	10%	10%	0%
16-I think speaking to my child in English will promote his/her English Language.	50%	40%	10%	0%	0%
17-I think when my child listening to English songs/T.V programs/me speaking in English will promote his/her English Language.	60%	40%	0%	0%	0%
Items related to language level	**Beginner**	**Low intermediate**	**High intermediate**	**Advanced**	**Near native**
18-I feel I learned English up to the level in listening.	60%	40%	0%	0%	0%
19-I feel I learned English up to the level in speaking.	60%	40%	0%	0%	0%
20-I feel I learned English up to the level in reading.	60%	40%	0%	0%	0%
21-I feel I learned English up to the level in	80%	20%	0%	10%	0%

writing.					
22-I feel my children learned English up to the level in listening.	80%	20%	0%	0%	0%
23-I feel my children learned English up to the level in speaking.	80%	20%	0%	0%	0%
24-I feel my children learned English up to the level in reading.	80%	20%	0%	0%	0%
25-I feel my children learned English up to the level in writing.	90%	10%	0%	0%	0%

APPENDIX B

Demographical data:

1. Gender: Male ☐   Female ☐

2. Level of education: Secondary school ☐   Diploma ☐

   Bachelor ☐   Master ☐   PhD ☐

3. Age : Under 25 ☐   from 26-36 ☐   from 37-47 ☐   48 and above ☐

4. Who lives in your household?

   Mother ☐

   Father ☐

   Parents /Grandparents ☐

   Other ☐

Part I: General information

1. How high is your total monthly household income?

   ⎯⎯ under RM 5,000 ☐

   ⎯⎯RM5,000-RM10,000 ☐

   ⎯⎯RM11,000-RM15,000 ☐

   ____ RM16,000 and above ☐

2. Is English generally spoken at home by the family?

   Yes ☐   No ☐

If yes, how frequent dose English spoken daily?

Always ☐ Often ☐ Sometimes ☐ Rarely ☐

3. What is the level of your English language competence?

Mother: Beginner ☐ Low intermediate ☐ High intermediate ☐

Advanced ☐ Near native ☐

Father: Beginner ☐ Low intermediate ☐ High intermediate ☐

Advanced ☐ Near native ☐

4. Do your children speak English at home?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, indicate fluency:
1: sex--------- age---------------

Beginner ☐ Low interim ☐ High interim ☐

Advanced ☐ Near native ☐

2: sex--------- age---------------

Beginner ☐ Low interim ☐ High interim ☐

Advanced ☐ Near native ☐

3: sex--------- age---------------

Beginner ☐ Low interim ☐ High interim ☐

Advanced ☐ Near native ☐

Part II: Reasons why parents promote English to their children
Choose the word that best describes your feelings about your language learning experiences in the following statements:
l=Strongly agree;
2=Agree;
3=Neutral;
4=Disagree;
5=Strongly disagree;

No.	Sentences	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1.	In general, my children experiences in learning English were agreeable.					

2.	In general, speaking English at home help my children in learning English.					
3.	I usually feel comfortable speaking English in my home.					
4.	I want my children to be able to speak English because it will help them to get a good job.					
5.	Having good English skills will allow my children to have more friends.					
6.	English will help my children to be respected in Iraqi society					
7.	I want my children to speak English at home.					
8.	I feel my Iraqi culture and traditions will be affected by English.					
9.	I feel anxious when I have to speak English.					
10.	I believe having good English skills will help my children to use the Internet.					

Part III: Ways of learning English language at home

Choose the word that best describes your ways of learning English language at home:
Statements:
l=Strongly agree;
2=Agree;
3=Neutral;
4=Disagree;
5=Strongly disagree;

No.	Sentences	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1.	I think share reading with my children will promote his/her English Language.					
2.	I think watching children programs spoken in English will promote his/her English Language.					
3.	I think the availability of children stories in English will promote his/her English Language.					
4.	I think the availability of papers and pencils (stationery) will promote his/her English Language.					
5.	I think writing "letters, notes" to my children in English will promote his/her English Language.					
6.	I think speaking to my child in English will promote his/her English Language.					
7.	I think when my child listening to English songs/T.V programs /me speaking in English will promote his/her English Language.					

Part IIII: Language Levels

Choose the word that best describes your language skills:

l =Beginner;
2=Low intermediate;
3=High intermediate;
4=Advanced;
5=Near native;

No.	Sentences	Beginner	Low interme-diate	High intermed-iate	Advanced	Near native
1.	I feel I learned English up to the level in listening.					
2.	I feel I learned English up to the level in speaking.					
3.	I feel I learned English up to the level in reading.					
4.	I feel I learned English up to the level in writing.					
5.	I feel my children learned English up to the level in listening.					
6.	I feel my children learned English up to the level in speaking.					
7.	I feel my children learned English up to the level in reading.					
8.	I feel my children learned English up to the level in writing.					

APPENDIX C

Family involvement initial interview;

Demographical data

1) Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

2) Level of education: Secondary school ☐ Diploma ☐

 Bachelor ☐ Master ☐ PhD ☐

3) Age: under 25 ☐ from 26-36 ☐ from 37-47 ☐ 48 and above ☐

I) Personal information

4) How high is your total monthly household income?

 —— under RM 5,000 ☐

 —— RM5,000-RM10,000 ☐

 —— RM11,000-RM15,000 ☐

 —— RM16,000 and above ☐

5) Who lives in your household?

Mother ☐

Father ☐

Parents or Grandparents ☐

Other ☐

6) Have you studied or do you speak a foreign language?
7) Have you had children in a foreign country preschool of English language before? If yes, when?
8) What is your dream for your child when he/she grows up?

II) Family information

9) Why did you choose a preschool that teaches English instead of another language?
10) Do you believe it is the preschool responsibility in educating your child English language?
11) What language is most often used at your home?
12) How much television (English animation movies) or computer do you allow your child to watch each day?
13) How many English books do your child have?
14) Do you read with your child at home?
15) Do you believe, it is your responsibility in educating your child English language at home?

How happy are you with your experience of Malaysia pre-school's English language so far?

CULTURAL LEVERAGE ON COMMUNICATION BETWEEN MILITARY AND COMMUNITY

Najjah Salwa Abd Razak[1], Zulkarnain Mohamed[2], Ezad Azraai Jamsari[3], Maheram Ahmad[4]
Department of Arabic Studies and Islamic Civilisation, Faculty of Islamic Studies, National University of Malaysia (UKM), 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia,
e-mail: najjahsalwa@gmail.com[1]; nain@ukm.my[2];
ezad@ukm.my[3]; mhm@ukm.my[4]

ABSTRACT

Previous studies have shown that culture is an important aspect in the implementation of peacekeeping operations, particularly operations involving military with the local community. This study focuses on Malaysian Armed Forces (MAF) personnel serving in the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL) peacekeeping operation. It first attempts to identify the military's efforts towards improving cross-cultural knowledge while serving in the UNIFIL operation. Second, it specifies on how cultural knowledge can be leveraged through communication in Arabic from the military's perspective. This case study employed the semi-structured in-depth interviews and data triangulation. Data were processed using the NVivo 9 software and analysed thematically. The military has contributed efforts in enhancing cultural knowledge. Their openness to understand and enhance cultural knowledge has led to an effective operation as well as managing to avoid tense situations. Consequently, the Lebanese community became friendly, respectful and shared much information with the military. The study suggests that MAF personnel must be prepared with adequate cross-cultural education, especially in Arabic language. This study implies to the MAF's organisation in executing the Arabic language education, and in developing the Arabic syllabus for specific purposes.

Keywords: communication, culture, language, peacekeeping operations, Malaysian Armed Forces (MAF)

INTRODUCTION

Malaysia is among the countries involved in peacekeeping operations abroad. The Malaysian Armed Forces (MAF) has participated in numerous peacekeeping operations in countries such as Namibia, Somalia, Cambodia, Bosnia, and Lebanon (Kor Agama Angkatan Tentera, 2010). Malaysia is committed as a member of the world community and it carries out the responsibilities along with other countries to maintain global peace and security (Kementerian Pertahanan Malaysia, n.d.). The structure of military personnel was designed to meet the needs of peacekeeping operations participated by the MAF. Mohd Shahrom (1997) argued that the ability to communicate in local languages by the participating countries is a key factor that assists the success of an operation besides tactical skills and self-confidence. Furthermore, the ability to communicate using local languages is paramount in enhancing military personnel's self-confidence. Hence, emphasis has been placed on improving communication skills in local languages (Mohd Shahrom, 1997) in addition to understanding the historical and cultural aspects (Md Hashim Hussein, 1996).

Communication among Speakers of Different Languages and Cultures

Culture is membership in a discourse community that shares a common social space and history and common imaginings (Kramsch, 1998). It is undeniable that the social life of individuals and society are based on language and culture, as there is an affinity between both (Genc & Bada, 2005; Li, 2012; Schulz, 2007). In fact, Brown (2007) claimed that most linguists have found that in reality, language and culture interact with one another. When a language is used in the context of communication, that language is tied to the culture in various and complex forms (Kramsch, 1998). Efforts made to understand the culture of a society can prevent dissatisfaction with one another. At the same time, success in understanding a culture results in bilateral communication.

Communication ethnographers have proven in many instances that language has its own cultural structures, such as services involving government agencies, shops and telephone interactions, including speech acts in the form of apologies and appraisal (Schulz, 2007). For example, the linguistic realisations of apologising in different situations show that, due to cultural differences, native speakers of English and Arabic speakers assign different degrees of severity in the same situation (Al-Zumor, 2011). The study conducted by Al-Zumor (2011) also found that admitting one's deficiency in order to set a matter right in the Arab culture is not as embarrassing and discrediting as in the Anglo-Saxon culture. In fact, speakers of the same language still portrait some cultural differences (Kramsch, 1998).

Army Interaction with the General Public in the Context of Military Deployments Abroad

Peacekeeping troops being deployed abroad usually have to interact with the local community. Hence, language has become the medium of interaction. Md Hashim (1996), Mohd Rashidi (2011) and Mohd Shahrom (1997) stressed on the significant role of foreign languages in military tasks, specifically in overseas deployments. Consideration to prepare military personnel with foreign language skills with culture, including Arabic must be put forward for the MAF. The consideration is anchored on the fact that, MAF personnel are still involved in the deployment of peacekeeping operations in Arabic speaking countries, such as Lebanon. Therefore, communicative interactions using Arabic need to be used by the military personnel involved in activities that include the local community. Currently, Arabic language education for peacekeeping purposes in the MAF's organisation is limited to a simple preparation comprising of an Arabic slot as part of the informal military training without early and well-prepared planning in terms of the selection of language instructors or syllabus descriptions itself.

There have been several studies that investigated on communication for military deployment abroad. For instance, Constantine (2011) studied the differences in military communication methods during the First World War in communicating with the enemy. It was found that language is the central point of communication, in that the military's abilities and efforts made to understand local languages can save the lives of individuals. Dijk et al. (2010) examined the cooperation between the Dutch armed forces and local interpreters in the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) operation in Afghanistan. The results of the study showed that the military's experience with the local interpreters was influenced by cross-cultural competency. Meanwhile, cooperation between both the military and local interpreters was nurtured because of the military's openness in their deployment with the local interpreters. For example, MAF personnel are also involved in social community activities that include providing medical assistance and developing an area under their responsibility (Malaysian Joint Force Headquarters, 2010; Mohd Sahmsuni Said et al., 2010). Therefore, the armed forces need to deal not only with

military communities but also with local communities (Van Dijk et al., 2010), who by large have different dimensions of thoughts on the implementation of tasks and the sensitivity of trust between two parties of different languages and cultures with different doctrines (Van Dijk et al., 2010; Haddad, 2010; Ruffa, 2013).

Cultural Crises between MAF Personnel and the General Public during Deployment in Lebanon

Culture is relevant in the twenty-first century peacekeeping operations (Woodhouse, 2010), particularly in building good relations between the military and other foreign militaries and the military and general public (Van Dijk et al., 2010; Hajjar, 2009). Culture can be a barrier (Woodhouse, 2010) for instance, Noor Azhar (2011) reported that meetings to resolve disputes between the two parties were among the scenarios faced by MAF personnel during UN duties in Lebanon. Safeek (2013) claimed that the cultural gap was considered an inherent factor in achieving an understanding between MAF personnel and the civilians in Lebanon. Furthermore, the negative perception that exists among the Lebanese towards foreigners had contributed to unsuccessful communication, and led to unsafe situations as the Lebanese seemed to associate foreigners with Israelis agents. In another incident, the MALBATT 5 personnel were pointed with guns in the local community while they were patrolling an area. Hajjar (2009) stressed that self-awareness, open-mindedness and skill sets may bridge the gap between two cultures: the military and the diverse people outside of the military. In addition, a cross-cultural approach seeks ways to understand the other side of the border by learning his/her national language (Kramsch, 1998, p.81).

The importance of communication can be seen through the UN's efforts in providing interpreting services among the local speakers to peacekeepers stationed in Lebanon. However, despite these efforts, cultural differences can be a deterrent in the effective communication between MAF personnel and the civilians in Lebanon if left unaddressed. For example, Noor Azhar (2011) claimed that interpreters selected from the Lebanese civilians do not provide accurate information or translate information in accordance to the provision of the MAF on the basis of differences between the two parties in terms of culture and society. Consequently, crises arise in terms of satisfaction on the information received from the interpreter. This scenario involves communication between MAF personnel and the interpreters, who are among the Lebanese civilians. In fact, at the same time, constant communication does occur between the military, in particular the MAF and civilians in Lebanon without the involvement of interpreters on the basis of time, the number of interpreters and needs.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

The term *cross-cultural* or *intercultural* usually refers to the meeting of two cultures or two languages across the political boundaries of a nation-state (Kramsch, 1998). Kramsch (1998) stated that the term may also refer to communication between people from diverse backgrounds yet within the boundaries of the same national language. Li (2012) explained that the ability of individuals in cross-cultural communication can be improved by distinguishing cultural differences and emphasising on awareness of cultural sensitivity and being tolerant and flexible towards other speakers. Socialising with native speakers is an important part of understanding their cultures (Li , 2013; Li , 2012). Rings (2006) opined that, interview is an effective way to understand how language meanings differ from one language to another as well as identify the cross-culture communication

problem. Schulz (2007, p.17) proposed a comprehensive set of guidelines towards enhancing cultural knowledge as described below:

1) An awareness of geographic, historical, economic, social/religious and political factors can have an impact on cultural perspectives, products and practices, including language use and style of communication.

2) An awareness of situational variables (e.g., context and role expectations, including power differentials and social variables such as age, gender, social class, religion, ethnicity and place of residence) shape communicative interaction (verbal, nonverbal and paralinguistic) and behaviour in important way.

3) Recognize stereotypes or generalizations about the home and target cultures and evaluate them in terms of the amount of substantiating evidence.

4) An awareness of each language and culture; culture-conditioned images and culture-specific connotations of some words, phrases, proverbs, idiomatic formulations, gestures.

5) An awareness of some types of causes (linguistic and non-linguistic) for cultural misunderstanding between members of different cultures.

In other words, cross-cultural communication issues generally concentrate on the barriers that exist between the two different cultures (Li , 2012; Abdul Aziz Fageeh, 2011; Juvan & Vuga, 2011; Gass & Selinker, 2010; Hajjar, 2009; Rings, 2006)

The plethora of discussions on culture and cross-culture issues indicates that these issues are very crucial and relevant, specifically in developing effective communication. Similarly, culture is an important factor to ensure the smooth implementation of military operations (Rubinstein et al., 2008). There are many studies that highlight the cultural aspect as a critical issue in the implementation of peacekeeping operations. For instance, Haddad (2010) identified the gap between French peacekeepers and Lebanese Armed Forces (LAF) soldiers since their relationship is distant and ambiguous. Meanwhile, Hajjar (2009) discussed on cross-cultural competency in military operations and the concept of cross-cultural competence and highlighted the significant gap between the debates on general public with military organisations. Furthermore, his study found that cross-cultural competency is important for military operations, as well as recommending that the military education programmes must be strengthened in order to enhance the competency.

Tomforde (2010) highlights the distinctive role of culture in the context of peacekeeping operations. He stressed that cultural understanding is a part of the strategies that should be included in the theoretical and practical aspects of peacekeeping missions. Rubinstein et al. (2008) indicated that, culture becomes a challenge or an opportunity in military operations as the military has diverse backgrounds and interact with unfamiliar local communities. Rubinstein et al. (2008) found that, peacekeeping missions generally fail to deliver a symbol of respect and partnership in operations albeit the intention to implement it within the local community. Respect and partnership is the key symbol of the 'operational capacity' (interoperability), which consists of principles that assist military to get better understanding by using culture to improve on the success of peacekeeping operations. The principles are:

1. Be Aware of Meaning
2. Pay attention to symbols
3. Avoid attributing Motive
4. Conflict management and culture
5. Ensure Cultural Expectations Are Explicit
6. Avoid Creating In-Group/Out-Group Formations

7.   Stay Apprised of Power Differences

The guidelines in enhancing military knowledge on culture proposed by Rubinstein et al. (2008) are focused on improving the understanding of culture for peacekeeping missions, to be more relevant among the military as compared to the local community. However, they did not specify on the consequences of understanding or having knowledge on culture in a precise form hence, this forms the purpose of the present study. Based on the above discussion, it is obvious that culture plays a critical role in military operations. Therefore, issues on culture in terms of military operations must be studied in various aspects, depending on military needs. In the same vein, previous researches have already focused on the relationship between the military and local community but not in terms of a target community, such as the Lebanese. To this end, this study attempts to identify the MAF's efforts towards enhancing cross-culture knowledge in the UNIFIL operation by referring to the cultural guidelines stated by scholars and analysing the consequences of cultural knowledge from military perception.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In other words, this study intends to contribute to the existing debate on the importance of culture in conducting military operations. The study is specifically focused on the MAF perspectives, which includes the following questions:
1. RQ1: What are the military's efforts towards improving cross-culture knowledge while serving in the UN operation in Lebanon?
2. RQ2: How can cultural knowledge be leveraged through communication in Arabic from the military perspective while serving in the UN operation in Lebanon?

METHODOLOGY

This study employed the semi-structured interviews. Fifteen participants from the MAF personnel joined in a series of interviews which were conducted. There were nine officers and six ranks (ORs) personnel with different backgrounds in terms of deployments. The number of participants for the interviews were determined based on data saturation (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003). All the participants who had served in the UN operation in Lebanon were selected purposively. The selection aspect was among the members of KAGAT who had been involved in the UN operation in Arabic-speaking countries, with the focus being on Lebanon. KAGAT members were selected instead of personnel from the other corps in the MAF as KAGAT members have been identified as Arabic speakers with basic communication level and are potential in using Arabic in management and deployment of the UN operation in Lebanon. The participants' backgrounds were identified based on their ranks, years of deployment, previous Arabic language experience and troops. Of the nine officers interviewed, P1 and P5 served in 2007-2008, P5 in 2008-2009, P7, P9 and P14 in 2009-2010, P2 and P15 in 2011. All the officers had Arabic language experience as Arabic language was a subject incorporated in their higher education curriculum; specifically P7 holds a diploma while the others hold bachelor degrees. P1 and P6 served in Malaysian Contingent 2 (MALCON 2), P5 in MALCON 3, P9 and P7 in MALCON 4, P2 in MALCON 5, P14 in Malaysian Battalion 1 (MALBATT 1), P15 in MALBATT 2, and P8 in MALBATT 3. The six other participants in this study were from ORs. P4 was deployed in 2010 -2011, P13 in 2011 meanwhile, P3, P10, P11 and P12 in 2011-2012. All the participants from ORs learnt Arabic officially in their primary and secondary

educations. P10 and P11 served in Malaysian Company 6 (MALCOY 6), P3 and P14 in MALBATT 4, P4 in MALCON 6 and P13 in MALBATT 3.

The interview protocol was reviewed by three experts in the field of languages, research methodology and the military. A series of interviews were recorded using a MP3 recorder, with each session lasting between 35 to 50 minutes. Each interview session was transcribed verbatim and analysed using the NVivo9 software in order to establish pertinent themes. The themes which were rated by three raters, showing high Cohen Kappa agreements of 0.91, 0.97 and 0.9 by the first, second and third raters respectively, which are good value scales with high reliability (Zamri Mahamod & Noriah Mohd Ishak, n.d.). Documents such as travelling memos that were documented in books published by the Joint Forces Headquarters were used as references. In addition to these documents, newspapers and photo collection from research participants were used to triangulate the data. The data triangulation and members' checking were procedures to validate the data (Merriam, 2009).

RESULTS

RQ1: What are the military's efforts towards improving cross-culture knowledge while serving in the UN operation in Lebanon?

The military attempted to improve their knowledge on Lebanese culture by being aware of several aspects as stated below:

Socialisation

P10 said, "If he (Lebanese) was close to us, he will slap against our shoulder; sometimes we would feel uncomfortable and shocked." In addition, P11 stated that, "The Arabs' behaviour is quite rough. In comparison, we have an oriental culture (soft)."

Sociology/sociography

P1 said, *"When we conduct missions, we have to look at their sociography."*

Sensitivity

P5 said, "If we go to their house, don't ever greet their virgins. The Arab's are sensitive about this."

P10 explained on the same issue, "Their women are not talkative to outsiders; not very open, whether they are Muslims or Christians."

Local customs and culture, such as visiting manners

P15 mentioned, "Drinks. We usually prepare coffee or tea when visitors come to our house. However, when the Lebanese serve their coffee, Lebanese coffee, the cup is very small, but they use a pack of coffee for one kettle of coffee. They put almost the whole pack, so it means that the coffee is extremely bitter. The bitter taste is sticky, cannot be explained (smiling), but we must accept it. If we do not accept it, they will feel insulted, but when we drink it (and try to finish it), they add more. Oh, that can make me faint (smiling). We have to learn that thing and try to accept it, until I no longer feel stomach ache."

<u>Religious differences</u>

P7 said, "We must know their religions. For example, drinks, greetings that can be shared between two religions (Islam and non-Islamic). In terms of akidah (faith), we explained to our military that liquor is forbidden…"

<u>Lebanese relationships with other parties</u>

P9 said, "There are many Islamic organisations, such as the tithe office and mufti office. We went there with our commander, breaking fast with the organisations' committees. We attended their religious programmes, so that we know their culture, such a show is their relationship with Ortodox Christians and so on."

<u>Body gestures</u>

P8 illustrated an example depicting that there is an importance in comparing different cultures. What might be common for one party might be somewhat embarrassing for the other party in respect of the same matter. He stated:

> "The Arab culture is important for us to know, because sometimes what might be a normal thing to the Malaysian society, but when it comes to the Arabs, it might turn out to be something shameful. For example, hand signals, where sometimes a gesture means something to them whereas the same gesture means something else to us".

<u>Try to attract their attention</u>

P9 said, "What is their culture? For example I chat with them on what they prefer, if they prefer chocolate, I give them chocolate."

<u>Lebanese's acceptance of something</u>

P12 said, "He (Arab) will not easily accept other people's culture."

<u>Context of meaning</u>

P4 stated, "If we make a deal with them, for example, they said they promise to settle it for two days, they will not fulfil it within two days, it might be seven days."

<u>Converse in Arabic</u>

P9 said, "The easiest way to know their culture is by initially understanding their language."

<u>Listen to their conversation</u>

P15 said, "We cannot do anything against their taboo because every nation has it taboos. Malays, Chinese and Indians have their taboos, likewise the Arabs. Hence, we listen to their conversations about what we can do and what we can't do."

<u>Be friendly</u>

P3 said, "Malaysians are very friendly and talkative, so they welcomed us. We can drink together in a restaurant, but they didn't do the same with other countries, such as Germany and Italy."

Avoid negative judgment-misunderstanding

> P13 said, "If we know their culture, we can differentiate and make consideration. For example, we cannot say that Arabs are ferocious. There are outsiders who say that Malaysians are ferocious but we are not."

RQ2: How can cultural knowledge be leveraged through communication in Arabic from the military's perspective while serving in the UN operation in Lebanon?

Detailed knowledge of the local culture is very important for soldiers who serve in operations in Lebanon. Specifically, the importance is categorised into two aspects: a) Culture as an explanatory element in communications that smoothens military assignments in overcoming communications crises; (b) Fostering close relations between the military and Lebanese community is stemmed on cultural understanding.

2.1   Culture as an explanatory element in communication

Culture is an important element in the military operation that smoothens military assignments in overcoming communication crises in Lebanon. This is recognised by P5 who mentioned:

> "In the context of the UN, we have to understand the custom, culture in order to be able to perform our tasks well."

In addition, he viewed that the local culture became an explanatory element in communication between the military and Lebanese community, so understanding the culture helped the military overcome communication crises:

> "We understand their custom, we understand their culture, that crisis is settled. When we hear their conversations, we know that this either can or cannot be done, what to do or not to do, what we can do anything about and what we cannot do anything about."

In other words, understanding of the local culture made it easier for the military to facilitate communication, especially as a peacemaker between disputing parties. As mentioned by P1:

> "Even though it is a Muslim country, Arab country and so on, as soldiers, we have to understand the environment because we go there on a mission to bring peace, leading a mission to defuse the warring parties, so we need to understand their culture so that it will be easier for us to interact."

2.2   Cultural understanding fosters close relation

From another perspective, when communication between the military and the community is successful, close relations can be fostered. In other words, understanding the local culture became the catalyst for the warmth and respect in the Lebanese community towards the troops stationed there. The view of P5 showed that respect for the military stemmed from cultural knowledge. He said:

> *"So far the culture is really influential. If we know their culture, they are respectful of us."*

In addition, understanding of the local culture may form unique relationships in which, efforts made by military to assimilate themselves with the local culture can be an effective way to bond relationship in order to overcome conflicts between the two cultures . P6 said:

> "In terms of our visit to their house, we must know and understand their culture. It is important to know the culture, in terms of observing their feelings when we enter their house and we eat what is served. We have to eat even though he tossed the bread onto the carpet just like that; village folks, right? He even reared cows and buffaloes in the house."

Moreover, military made efforts to understand the feelings of the Lebanese community in order to avoid tensions between the two parties. For example, P12 voiced the following:

> "We need to know what is important in the Arab culture because it can prevent something bad than when we enter a certain village. We can comprehend what they feel, what they went through the whole day, including their culture and conversation, as well as mixing around with them, the way they eat, and if we can do this, tensions can be avoided."

A situation involving culture crisis was disclosed by P5:

> "For example, a shop. That shop is an eatery, and the shop owner is nice to our camp, He is not just nice, he also gave contributions. So when he gave contributions, one day he invited us to eat at his shop. Our boss is a Malaysian, he understands that we cannot eat at his shop, he is not a Muslim, he is a Christian, but he invited us. If we do not go we will severe a relationship, which is not harmonious. We have to go, and that is when we need to act wisely. We have to show leadership, discuss on our customs and understandings. He described the Lebanese people's understanding, and if we have a bit of a problem here, we neutralise whatever that can be neutralised. For example, 'How have you been cooking before this?' He said, 'When cooking it does not matter'. He said it is ok to cook any kind of meat. 'We want to eat, can you please bring in another pan. Can you bring that in and clear away these ones?' We tell the owner until he understands that there is a part full of liquor. 'Can you please keep the curtains closed over all these so that we cannot see it, because we are sensitive about things like this.' So we have to harmonize the situation, because if that matter is not addressed, it will be a problem. He will prepare the food, he will cook profusely, and if we do not eat, he will be angry."

DISCUSSION

The findings indicate that the military contributed various efforts in improving their cross-cultural knowledge despite of their different ranks, years of deployment and troops. The efforts were influenced by military's previous Arabic language experience, as well as the intention to complete the operational tasks in an effective way by analysing cultural differences through conversations, observations and interactions. The military, in this study, adopted aspects of awareness as mentioned by scholars and researchers. For

example, the military was aware of the cultural aspects, as suggested by Li (2012) and Li (2013) in terms of socialisation and sensitivity. In addition, the military was aware of aspects that were already highlighted by Schulz (2007), such as sociology, religious differences, body gestures and misunderstandings.

The military tried to converse in Arabic, the local language. Kramsch (1998) indicated that the best way to learn a culture is through the local language. Nonetheless, there were several aspects employed by the military on the cultural aspect that was not given attention by researchers, namely awareness of local customs and cultures, such as visiting manners, Lebanese relationships with other parties, trying to attract their attention, Lebanese's acceptance of something, listening to their conversations and being friendly. However, this finding strengthens Rubinstein's (2003) guidelines, especially on the idea that the military must be aware of the local culture. Schulz (2007) too stressed on this aspect.

In addition, cultural crises between MAF personnel and Lebanese civilians happened and were resolved when Arabic became the medium in solving the problems. This study also found that the military's ability to communicate in Arabic could assist towards building a cultural understanding of the Lebanese community. This understanding could only be achieved when the culture is understood through the language (Li, 2012). This means that culture and language mutually work towards a harmonious bilateral relation.

In short, cross-cultural understanding is helpful in bilateral communication as it is a severe form of communication that involves bilateral discussions, particularly in the military service. Referring to the second research question, the study found that knowledge of the local culture is very important for soldiers serving in operations in Lebanon, which can be categorised into two aspects. First, culture as an explanatory element in communication that smoothens military assignments in overcoming communication crises. There are many examples of studies linking cultural aspects of the different statements of speeches in the same situation. For example, the research by Al-Zumor (2011) found that cultural differences between Arabic and English speakers depict different degrees of severity in the same situation. His research data showed that acknowledging individual weaknesses with the aim of correcting the situation is not an embarrassing situation among the Arabians. Instead, the Anglo-Saxon culture regarded it as shameful and unappreciative. An individual's personal immunity in the Arabic community is much less a part of the Arab culture and hence, people are more publicly available to each other.

The present study found that building close relations between the military and Lebanese community is based on cultural understanding. The military sought to understand the culture of the Lebanese community with the aim of reaching out to the community and at the same time, seeking acceptance of their presence in the community. This is consistent with the findings by Dijk et al., (2010), which proved that the military's experience with the local community, focusing on the local interpreters which is influenced by culture, or to be more specific, cross-culture. The military's open mindset in their troop's deployment involving local interpreters resulted in cooperation that existed with good ties. This means that both studies showed that the military should have an open-minded attitude and make efforts by trying their best in building bilateral relations. This approach towards garnering good relations is not spared from the aspect of cultural understanding.

It was found that cultural crises can be resolved by the military because they make full use of the ability to communicate in Arabic when interacting with the Lebanese community. Communicating in Arabic helps soldiers to immerse into the Lebanese

community's local culture, thus reducing cultural crises between the two parties. Indirectly, the elements of language and culture cannot be separated in any communicative interaction. Hence, separation between language and culture causes limited communication messages as language reflects culture, and at the same time, culture can be understood through language. When MAF personnel interact using Arabic with the local community, the message communicated is very effective. Arising from the communication, the local Arab culture can be understood. On the other hand, when MAF personnel take advantage of using Arabic to communicate, problems could arise in terms of getting a good and harmonious response from the Lebanese community either due to cultural crises or unintentional misuse language itself. Interestingly, these findings differ from what has been claimed by Rubinstein et al. (2008), that the symbol of respect and partnership is not successfully delivered by the military in operations. The MAF tends to be more accepted by the community because they tried to approach the community in a good manner, through various respectful ways. Consequently, the relationship between two parties is based on respect and partnership.

For the purposes of obtaining cultural understanding of a certain language, first, a special class for cultural learning is necessary to understand certain culture. In this class, the focus is required on language skills and increasing cultural conscience with the aim to change individual's attitude towards native speakers of the targeted community due to cultural differences as it creates differences in terms of opinion on issues (Genc & Bada, 2005) Cross-cultural competence is among the important aspects in line with the importance of language, in particular in the context of military language and culture training (Hajjar, 2009; Tomforde, 2010). Second, complementation of the cultural understanding should later be obtained through assimilation or socialisation in the targeted language community, as communication skills are gained through socialising with the native speakers (Li , 2013).

In addition, MAF personnel are capable of providing in-depth perspective on the extent to which Arabic language and culture provide the opportunity for them to interact with the local community, either formally or informally while performing their duties there. The interaction that takes place is active, and the use of Arabic is two-way. This highly related to the background of the MAF personnel who have at least the basics in Arabic language skills.

The findings also suggest that MAF personnel need to be prepped with Arabic communication skills as well as being well-versed with the local culture while serving these countries, including Lebanon. At the same time, the experience of MAF personnel who have served in a particular country should be shared with those who will be going on duty to that particular country. Cultural learning must be implemented in the curriculum context of military training before deployment to the Arab countries. Studies regarding language and communication in the field of military operations should be given appropriate attention by researchers from related areas because the armed forces are an important agent of any country. The armed forces do not only ensure the welfare of their own country but they also cross the borders of other countries that require assistance and are not limited to security and surveillance activities alone. For example, MAF personnel are also involved in social community activities that include providing medical assistance and development of an area under their responsibility. Therefore, the armed forces need to deal not only with military communities but also local communities, who by and large have different dimensions of thoughts on the implementation of tasks, and also on the sensitivity of trust between the two parties of different languages and cultures including differing doctrines.

CONCLUSION

This study revealed that the participants' perspectives on practising Arabic language were quite similar regardless of their different backgrounds. On the whole, the perspective of the military towards the benefits of communication in Arabic can be seen through building good community relations between the military and Lebanese community, fostering peaceful and cordial relations between the military and Lebanese community, and creating cultural understanding. Apart from that, knowledge of the culture is very important for soldiers who served in operations in Lebanon, which is elaborated in two aspects. First, culture as an explanatory element in communications that smoothens military assignments in overcoming communication crises. Second, building close ties between the military and Lebanese community is based on cultural understanding.

In conclusion, this study has shown that Arabic has become the medium of communication in reducing or overcoming cultural crises between MAF personnel and the public community in Lebanon. At the same time, the study also found that the military requires Arabic language communication skills and understanding of the Arab culture throughout the duration of their deployment in Lebanon, as both language and culture hold a symbiotic relationship in a communication. Therefore, this study suggests that MAF personnel must be prepped with Arabic language communication skills as well as knowledge of Arab culture before serving in Lebanon or any Arab country. The experience of the MAF personnel who have served in Lebanon and have returned to Malaysia should be benefited through experience sharing sessions with those who will be going on duty in that country. At the same time, each and every military personnel who will be deployed needs to have the initiative to learn and improve their Arabic language communication skills, particularly spoken Arabic, either through collaborative information sharing with other military personnel or through information gathered from relevant websites. The MAF also needs to consider that Arabic plays an important role in the deployment of MAF personnel in Lebanon and hence, must provide intensive classes as well as giving additional incentives to individuals who had done a good job in the context of the military serving as mini-ambassadors to their country by communicating in Arabic. The efforts contributed by the military can be viewed as cultural guidelines, not only to the military organisation but also to the field of foreign language teaching and learning. The findings of this study have important implications to the importance of language and cultural training for military purposes, including the pedagogical direction of the Arabic language in military institutions as well as language planners and instructors in terms of development of Arabic culture syllabus for specific purposes.

REFERENCES

Abdul Aziz Fageeh. (2011). At crossroads of EFL learning and culture: How to enhance cross-cultural awareness in EFL college students. *Cross-Cultural Communication*, *7*(1), 62–72.

Al-Zumor, A. W. Q. G. (2011). Apologies in Arabic and English: An inter-language and cross-cultural study. *Journal of King Saud University - Languages and Translation*, *23*(1), 19 - 28. doi:10.1016/j.jksult.2010.02.001

Bosman, F., Soeters, J., & Ait Bari, F. (2008). Dutch Muslim soldiers during peace operations in Muslim societies. *International Peacekeeping*, *15*(5), 695–705. doi:10.1080/13533310802396376

Brown,H. D., (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (5th ed.). United States of America: Pearson Education.

Buunk, A. P., Carmona, C., Peiró, J. M., Dijkstra, A., & Dijkstra, P. (2011). Social comparison at work: The role of culture, type of organization and gender. *Cross-Cultural Communication*, *7*(2), 22–34. doi:10.3968/j.ccc.1923670020110702.003

Constantine, S. (2011). War of Words: Bridging the Language Divide in the Great War. *War in History*, *18*(4), 515–529. doi:10.1177/0968344511417502

Van Dijk, A., Soeters, J., & De Ridder, R. (2010). Smooth translation? A research note on the cooperation between Dutch service personnel and local interpreters in Afghanistan. *Armed Forces and Society*, *36*(5), 917–925. doi:10.1177/0095327 X10379732

Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. (2003). *Educational research: An introduction* (7th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2010). Second language acquisition. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *25*(3), 46–73. Retrieved from http://usir.salford.ac.uk/3345/

Genc, B., & Bada, E. (2005). Culture in language learning and teaching. *The Reading Matrix*, *5*(1), 73–84.

Haddad, S. (2010). Teaching diversity and multicultural competence to French peacekeepers. *International Peacekeeping*, *17*(4), 566–577. doi:10.1080/13533312. 2010.516671

Hajjar, R. M. (2009). A new angle on the U.S. Military's emphasis on developing cross-cultural competence: Connecting In-Ranks' Cultural Diversity to Cross-Cultural Competence. *Armed Forces and Society*, *36*(2), 247–263. doi:10.1177/0095327 X09339898

Juvan, J., & Vuga, J. (2011). What motivates Slovenian "Peacekeepers"? *International Peacekeeping*, *18*(1), 96–109. doi:10.1080/13533312.2011.527522

Kementerian Pertahanan Malaysia. (n.d.). *Malaysia ke arah pertahanan berdikari*. Kuala Lumpur: Kementerian Pertahanan Malaysia.

Kor Agama Angkatan Tentera. (2010). *Meniti kecemerlangan*. Kuala Lumpur: Penerbit Markas Angkatan Tentera Malaysia.

Kramsch, C. (1998). *Language and culture*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Li S. (2013). Culture teaching in foreign language teaching. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *3*(2), 371–375. doi:10.4304/tpls.3.2.371-375

Li D. (2012). Culture Shock and Its Implications for Cross-Cultural Training and Culture Teaching. *Cross-Cultural Communication*, *8*(4), 70–74. doi:10.3968/j.ccc.192367 0020120804.1433

Malaysian Joint Force Headquarters. (2010). *(Julai 2009-April 2010)*. Kuala Lumpur: Malaysian Joint Force Headquarters.

Md Hashim Hussein (Mej Jen Dato). (1996). Peace support operations-command, control and training- A Malaysian perspective. *Sorotan Darat*, *1*(29), 27–37.

Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Ming-chung Yu. (2005). Sociolinguistic competence in the complimenting act of native Chinese and American English speakers: A mirror of cultural value. *Language and*

Speech, *48*(1), 91–119. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com.www.ezplib .ukm.my/docview/213730157/fulltextPDF/6502D917CA4A42FDPQ/1?accountid=4 1453

Mohd Rashidi Bujai. Bahasa Arab dan Penerapannya di Jabatan Arah KAGAT (Kementerian Pertahanan Malaysia) (2011).

Mohd Sahmsuni Said et. al (Ed.). (2010). *Nostalgia MALCON East 6*. Kuala Lumpur: Malaysian Joint Force Headquarters.

Mohd Shahrom Dato' Hj Nordin (Mej Gen). (1997). The challenges to United Nation peacekeeping operations- A Malaysian perspective. *Sorotan Darat*, *1*(31), 60–67.

Noor Azhar Zainuddin. Misi Pertubuhan Bangsa-Bangsa Bersatu. Temu bual, 3 Julai. (2011).

Rennick, J. B. (2012). Canadian values and military operations in the Twenty-First Century. *Armed Forces and Society*, *39*(3), 511–530. doi:10.1177/0095327 X12441326

Rings, L. (2006). The oral interview and cross-cultural understanding in the foreign language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals*, *39*(1), 43–53.

Rubinstein, R. A. (2003, January). In practice in complex peace operations. *Negotiation Journal*, 29–49. Retrieved from https://faculty.maxwell.syr.edu/rar/Papers/cross-cultural considerations in complex peace operations.pdf

Rubinstein, R. a., Keller, D. M., & Scherger, M. E. (2008). Culture and interoperability in integrated missions. *International Peacekeeping*, *15*(4), 540–555. doi:10.1080/ 13533310802239857

Ruffa, C. (2013). What peacekeepers think and do: An exploratory study of French, Ghanaian, Italian, and South Korean Armies in the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon. *Armed Forces and Society*, *40*(2), 199–225. doi:10.1177/0095327X 12468856

Safeek Affendy. (2013). MALBATT 5 elak provokasi. *Berita Harian*.

Savignon, S. J., & Sysoyev., P. V. (2005). Cultures and comparisons: Strategies for learners. *Foreign Language Annals*, *38*(3), 357–365.

Schulz, R. A. (2007). The challenge of assessing cultural understanding in the context of foreign language ins truction. *Foreign Language Annals*, *40*(1), 9–26.

Tomforde, M. (2010). Introduction: The distinctive role of culture in peacekeeping. *International Peacekeeping*, *17*(4), 450–456. doi:10.1080/13533312.2010.516650

Woodhouse, T. (2010). Peacekeeping, peace culture and conflict resolution. *International Peacekeeping*, *17*(4), 486–498. doi:10.1080/13533312.2010.516657

Zamri Mahamod, & Noriah Mohd Ishak. (n.d.). Analisis Cohen Kappa dalam penyelidikan bahasa – satu pengalaman. In *Seminar Penyelidikan Guru Peringkat Kebangsaan. Kuching: Bahagian Pendidikan Guru, KPM* (pp. 1–7). Paper presented at Seminar Penyelidikan Guru Peringkat Kebangsaan. Kuching: Bahagian Pendidikan Guru, KPM 19 – 20 Ogos.

FEMININE MYSTIQUE AND THE PATRIARCHAL WORLD IN TILLIE OLSEN'S *I STAND HERE IRONING*

Nur Fatin Syuhada Ahmad Jafni[1], Ida Baizura Bahar[2]
Department of English,
Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication
Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 Serdang
e-mail: fatinjafni@gmail.com[1]; idabb@upm.edu.my[2]

ABSTRACT
This paper examines the relationship between women and men and how the women had to live, behave and react in 1960s America in the short story "I Stand Here Ironing" (1961) by the twentieth-century American author, Tillie Olsen (1912-2007). The story revolves around the protagonist, 'mother', and her daughter, Emily, where the women are depicted as confined within constrained identities, having to live in a world where they have to be obedient and having to live up to men's expectation. With the pressure enforced by the expectations of the patriarchal society and the idea of 'feminine mystique', the women seem to be devoid of any romantic feelings. Based on a textual analysis as our methodology, our study focuses on women's position in the second wave feminism period by using the feminist concept of the feminine mystique, as the conceptual framework, as outlined by Betty Friedan in her book, *The Feminine Mystique* (1963). Our findings demonstrate that the reasons behind the female protagonist's barren emotions for men are because of her sense of obligations on completing the domestic demands, the expectations set by the patriarchal society and because of the judgemental eyes of the men in the patriarchal society in general.

Keywords: feminism, feminine mystique, *I Stand Here Ironing*, patriarchy, second wave feminism, Tillie Olsen

INTRODUCTION

I Stand Here Ironing (1961) by Tillie Olsen (1912-2007) narrates the story of a mother who reminisces about her daughter when a counsellor comes to her house and reports that she is in trouble. The narrator is the mother alone; however, other characters are given voices only when the mother is engaged in conversations with them. Although the story was published in 1961, the plot covers an era from the 1930s (the Great Depression), 1940s (Second World War) and straight through 1960. The 'mother' in the story can be seen as representative of a mother from a common working-class home in 1960s America. In this paper, the analysis focuses on the character's 'mother' and her daughter, Emily, as representatives of women who lived in the second wave feminism era in America. Under the lens of feminism, we analyse the text using the conceptual framework of the feminine mystique as outlined in *The Feminine Mystique* (1963) by Betty Friedan. Supporting concepts from feminist theorists, such as bell hooks among others, are also brought in where appropriate in order to assist our analysis. This paper thus examines the relationship between women and men in the text, specifically on how the women had to live, behave and react to the world where they had to be obedient and live up to men's expectation. We also explore embedded concepts of the feminine mystique and the patriarchal world as portrayed by Olsen.

DISCUSSION

Tillie Olsen's *I Stand Here Ironing* and Betty Friedan's *The Feminine Mystique*

The book *Tell Me a Riddle* (1961) comprises short stories written by Olsen, where *I Stand Here Ironing* is one of her most anthologized short stories. Olsen's writings are known for its close observation on the pain she herself went through and her detailed scrutiny on the social and political turmoil surrounding her since 1930s when she was just a teenager and thereafter. In *I Stand Here Ironing*, mother is only nineteen-years-old when Emily was born and, as her first husband then leaves her, she becomes burdened with emotional and financial issues. Parallel to this, Coontz highlights the unfavourable condition 1950s were in terms of American family life and "how the prosperity of the post-war economic recovery, the erasure of women's experiences in the war effort, and the sustained rise in the birth rate post-war were contingent structural formations" (Roth, 2013, p. 111).

Caught in a sticky situation, mother has to reason with her situation before deciding on what to do with Emily. The "major moral dilemma" faced by her is due to none other than the judging eyes of the society (Miles, 2008). Here, the protagonist 'mother' is also believed to be an epitome of a helpless mother. Colston (2011) suggests that mother depicts the position of a single mother who is forced to make a decision against her own will and this draws the image of a powerless woman. Through suggestions by Miles (2008) and Colston (2011), among others, we propose that Olsen's *I Stand Here Ironing* can be described as a feminist text. With that in mind, the female protagonist can be seen as the representative voice reflecting the concerns of any other mother and housewife from the same period. At the time of writing the short story, many feminist writers during this time came out to preach to women not to keep on feeding on the false ideas set by the patriarchal society.

On that note, with the release of Betty Friedan's *The Feminine Mystique* in 1963, the book has since become one of the many focal points in feminist study. Today, *The Feminine Mystique* can be considered as more than just a book dissecting the incarcerated position of women in America in the 1960s; as Stephanie Coontz (as cited in Roth, 2013, p.111) calls it, a basic feminist insight,

> Friedan gave many of her readers their first exposure to what is now a self-help cliché: that individuals can achieve their full potential when they reject the stereotypes that have been laid on them and realize they have the power to change.

Indeed, *The Feminine Mystique* has turned into something more than just words to women. It is a book that has made women realise and prompt them into action; that they are not alone trapped in the mystique but that there are a group of people who have been able to sympathise and more importantly empathise with their dire predicaments as well. Whittier calls it a "readable" book (2013), "[a]nd depicts women's lives prior to the women's movement with such clarity, it will be excellent for course use" (p.115).

Through our reading on feminism, we have discovered a gap between the first and second wave feminism. The first wave feminists fought their way to obtain social justice and gender equality with men, and they managed to steal the limelight. However, after the heat toned down, some women reverted to the old convention of being the professional housewives. During the second wave feminism period, the fight became ever fiercer compared to the former one. Women at that period in time were fed with the false ideology of them being perfectly happy housewives. In reality, they graduated from colleges and went to find jobs but none was more satisfactory than having viewed as 'housewife' as their primary job. This scenario is best explained by Frye (2003, p. 27) in

her article "Making a Living, Making a Life" which illustrates the anxiety of a housewife and a mother, "How can a child overcome the hazards of her own era-or a mother determine how best to live her own life, with and apart from her children". Indeed, the anxiety and uncertainty of fulfilling the roles of a 'real' woman (as a mother) is portrayed through the protagonist 'mother' about her daughter, Emily.

The Second Wave Feminist Movement in America

For the purpose of examining the relationship between women and men in Olsen's *I Stand Here Ironing,* this paper utilises the feminist approach; more specifically, the concept under the second wave feminism movement in America. To explicate the ideology and women's position in the second wave feminism period, we have used as our conceptual framework the 'feminine mystique' as conceptualised by Betty Friedan in her book, *The Feminine Mystique,* as the main reference for analysis.

With this in view, it is then imperative that we begin our discussion with an overview of the feminist movements. The legacy of the feminist movement first took off when Mary Wollstonecraft in her book, *Vindication of the Rights of Women* (1792), claims that women should be granted the pleasure of social, legal and intellectual aspects with an equal level to those of men's which is explained here as drawing, "for support from the work of progressive social philosophers" (as cited in Castle, 2007, p. 94). Another activist, John Stuart Mill, in his essay *The Subjection of Women* (1869) in his political bill, emphasises that "women ought to enjoy equality in the social sphere, especially in marriage, and condemned "forced repression" and "unnatural simulation"" (as cited in Castle, 2007, p. 94).

The earlier movement – the first wave of feminism – witnessed the women's movement to obtain their rights on legal hurdles in order to achieve gender equality with men in areas such as education and voting rights. At this point in time, the movement was intrigued and driven by several motives. In particular, the "Declaration of Sentiments" for the Seneca Falls women's rights convention in 1848 was the foreground of the US feminist movement (as cited in Castle, 2007, p.94). The Declaration affirms that both men and women are born equal, and accuses a patriarchal culture as repressing the rights of women, "The history of mankind is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations on the part of man toward woman, having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over her" (Castle, 2007, p. 94)

As the feminist movement expanded, feminism also started to play its role in literature. In particular, Literary Modernism has its own prominent fore-writers, such as Virginia Woolf (1882-1941), Hilda Doolittle (1886-1961), and Djuna Barnes (1892-1982). For example, in her novel entitled *Room of One's Own* (1929), Woolf insists that women should be given rights to economic and social freedoms (as cited in Castle, 2007) "to follow their aspirations and to forego the traditional role of serving as an enlarging mirror for male identity" (p. 95)

Extending its horizon, the second wave of feminism pursued to overcome the restrictions and claim their accesses on the civil rights. It ascended in 1960 with the publication of Simone de Beauvoir's *The Second Sex* (as cited in Castle, 2007). In this second wave of feminist movement, the fight focussed more on broader issues, where the women demanded rights and equality on issues such as sexuality, reproductive rights, family, workplace, de facto inequalities and official legal inequalities among others.

Although de Beauvoir's *The Second Sex* is about the feminist movement in France, her writing acted as a triggering factor for women in other places to come forth and fight for their rights. Reciprocal to the movement of feminism, American feminists also sought to see changes made in the custody and divorcing laws. They renounced the

notion of women as a keeper and nanny as well as only performing housekeeping all day long.

The second feminist movement took place actively between the 1960s and 1970s. Prior to the second movement, women in America were expected to be the keeper and nanny, and to be excellent in housekeeping. Despite earlier feminists advocating women's rights, at some point, the women in America were once again confined by the unseen cage set by the men around them in society. It is stated by the Independence Hall Association in Philadelphia (2008) in their academic blog entry that, before the 1960s, it was common practice in American society to encourage younger women to seek for happiness and satisfaction through the bond of marriage and the practice of housekeeping.

It is also stated by the E-Collaborative for Civic Education (2014) in their website entry that the normal cycle of 1960s American women is as follows: getting married in early 20s, starting a family immediately after marriage and dedicating their lives to homemaking. While it might not sound as bad on paper, this cycle is the opposite in reality. It actually reflects the "head and master laws" where the husbands are the heads and masters in every household and their words are the laws bestowed on their wives. On top of that, women had no right to their husbands' earnings and properties. The false concepts the women had been fed at that period in time is, in actuality, a form of repression and irrational expectation by the patriarchal society. While feeding on the wrong conception, the women also had to go through silent suffering and this, in turn, affected the way the women carried themselves in society.

The Feminine Mystique

As aforementioned, women in America during the second wave feminist movement were endowed by the patriarchal society with personal identities as housewives and mothers. Within the constrained identities, women could not find ultimate satisfaction and meaningful lives. With the false ideas fed and fake contentment displayed by the women, negative effects were evident with the way women carried themselves in society. Due to the expectations and responsibilities to oblige in mind, some women in their forties and fifties gave up their dreams, which was worse than that of women of a younger generation. When the fore-generation gave up their dreams and ambitions, the younger ones did not even have any dream to pursue in the first place (Friedan, 1963, p. 15),

> Over and over women heard in voices of tradition and of Freudian sophistication that they could desire no greater destiny than to glory in their own femininity. Experts told them how to catch a man and keep him, how to breastfeed children and handle their toilet training, how to cope with sibling rivalry and adolescent rebellion; how to buy a dishwasher, bake bread, cook gourmet, snails, and build a swimming pool with their own hands; how to dress, look, and act more feminine and make marriage more exciting; how to keep their husbands from dying young and their sons from growing into delinquents…….They learned that truly feminine women do not want career, higher educations, politic rights – the independence and the opportunities that the old-fashioned feminists fought for.

The quotation above summarises how women in society at that time should dream and live up to. They were forced to believe in the ideology set by none other than men. At the height of the period spanning over fifteen years, there was a widespread campaign in

all types of media advertising on how experts promote and encourage these young women to seek nothing but a true 'femininity fulfilment' (Friedan, 1963, p. 15). Talking about ambitions and dream careers are seen as odd topics as choice of conversations. When asked, the response was, "it is like remembering a long-forgotten dream, to recapture the memory of what a career meant to women before "career women" became a dirty word in America" (Friedan, 1963, p. 39). This expectation then led to the problem or more to the discovery of a phenomenon among women known as what Betty Friedan coins, 'the feminine mystique',

> …so the feminine mystique began to spread through the land, grafted onto old prejudices and comfortable conventions which so easily give the past a stranglehold on the future. Behind the new mystique were the concepts and theories deceptive in their sophistication and their assumption of accepted truth…The feminine mystique says that the highest value and the only commitment for women is their fulfilment of their own femininity….But the new image this mystique gives to American women is the old image: "Occupation: housewife". As swiftly as in a dream, the image of the American women as a changing, growing individual in a changing world was shattered (Friedan, 1963, p. 41–42).

The expectation of the need to fulfil femininity needs, however, had caused American women to discover a hole and void in their everyday lives. The feminine mystique, however ideal it might be, had triggered a sense of dissatisfaction among them. Although when asked, these women could not articulate the problems they faced in such way understandable by their physicians or psychiatrists. They had problems phrasing and describing the slump they were experiencing. Instead of describing the pain or depression, they merely recounted the daily lives they led (Friedan, 1963).

Perhaps, on a surface level, women were no longer seen as sexual objects only but, at the end of the day, when they busied themselves with being good wives focussing on being excellent housewives and nursing the children, what is more there in the life of a woman? In a case study, a man told her wife "You're a mother. That's your job." (Friedan, 1963, p.43). This statement is simple yet it reflects the whole existence of women in society. This was a world where the men's words were the laws and women felt obligated to heed their words unquestioningly. Even though the women might have a word or two against the system, their voices were often unheard and dismissed by the men. Indeed, we suggest that the unseen domination of the patriarchal system and the void in women's emotions are most apparent in Olsen's *I Stand Here Ironing*.

The Relationship between Women and Men in *I Stand Here Ironing*

Through the story, readers are made aware that the narrator is recounting the story of her first-born daughter Emily. Although the story could have only been about a story of a mother reminiscing her daughter's younger days, the underlying themes however open up a bigger picture, so much so that it actually reflects the bigger feminist issue faced by women in 1960s America.

Directing the focus to the feminist perspective, this paper seeks to examine the relationship between women and men in Olsen's *I Stand Here Ironing*. Focussing on the narrator (henceforth, mother), we begin our analysis with a discussion on Olsen's portrayal of her encounters with men. To hypothesise, we would like to suggest here that

mother is devoid of emotions when it comes to her relationship with the men in her life. Of the why and the how, we will explain in the following section. Consequently, we will analyse the effect of emotional and mental imprisonment on another woman living in the same period, namely Emily, who is the narrator's daughter.

I Stand Here Ironing can be described as a feminist text about female characters by a female author. There are no ostensible and important male characters worth analysed in the story. However, the story narrates the relationship between women as represented by mother with men. It explores the issues of identity, responsibility and societal pressures (Tsutsumi, 2001, p. 7). The title of the story symbolises the constant, unchanging and boring live of a woman who has no other important task at hand other than ironing, which we read as a chore part of housekeeping.

As hypothesised earlier, we propose in this paper that mother is devoid from emotions and Emily is affected by the way society works. The biggest reason behind such attitudes by the women in the story is because of the pressure forced by the expectations of the patriarchal society. We suggest here therefore three supporting points; firstly, the unsettling and never-ending domestic demands set by the patriarchal society on the women; secondly, the obligations and responsibilities living as a woman in the society and; thirdly, the effects on the women who have to live under the scrutinising eyes of the society that uphold patriarchal values. These three de facto pressures are suggested as the contributing signs on the reasons why mother is devoid of any emotions towards men.

Domestic Demands and Detachment from Men

Going back to the issues during the second wave of feminism, the feminists during that time attempted to challenge male dominations in the American state-organised capitalist society of the post-war era (Fraser, 2012, p. 4). The social and economic systems in the country were controlled firmly by the patriarchal authorities as the country was starting anew after the devastating and massive war that took place before. In the story, when Emily was born, mother was only nineteen. It was immediately after the war ended, "the pre-relief, pre-WPA world of depression" (Olsen, 1961, p. 2).

The feminists, at this point, "sought less to dismantle the welfare state than to transform it into a force that could help to overcome male domination" (Fraser, 2012, p. 5). The women in the society at that point in time were already independent and went out to earn money on their own. Supposedly, in the ideal world, where the husband should be a full supportive pillar to a wife, the mother most certainly than not suffered a lot. In the story, it was only eight months after mother gave birth to Emily when she had to leave the baby to find jobs and money,

> She was a miracle to me, but when she was eight months old I had
> to leave her daytimes with the woman downstairs to whom she
> was no miracle at all, for I worked or looked for work and for
> Emily's father who "could no longer endure" (he wrote in his
> good-by note) sharing with us" (Olsen, 1961, p. 2).

Perhaps, Emily's father was not the first man in her life but, being a wife to him, mother would have expected a lot from him. However, the selfishness of her first husband is evident in two ways. First, he expected the wife to go out and find jobs when she has just had a baby to tend to and, second, despite not helping her wife by at least taking care of the baby, he left the household in the end.

Her effort of finding jobs to support the family is acceptable but the fact that Emily's father neglected his responsibilities is incomprehensible. Clearly, he had taken it

for granted for having the upper hand in the household as the other common patriarchal family practice. From our point of view, this scenario perfectly accentuates how big the influence of the patriarchal ideology in the society is. Let us draw an example – imagine that mother refuses to go out and work, and insists that it is a father's job to support the family; Olsen's work would definitely be considered as offensive and unthinkable. Mother would be seen as an irresponsible mother, whereas the father (although clearly depicted as negligent of the family's wellbeing) is left uncriticised.At the end of the day, it is beyond any doubt that, "males benefit the most from patriarchy, from the assumption that they are superior to females" (Hooks, 2000, p. ix) and should rule over them.

In the story, after her first husband left, there was a time when mother had to send Emily to "his family and leave her" (Olsen, 1961, p. 2). Over a period of time, after earning enough money, mother finally manages to go and take her daughter back after leaving her with various caretakers. However, in one of the events, to her disappointment, Emily is no longer her beautiful baby. She hardly recognises Emily and describes her daughter as, "…nervous like her father, looking like her father, thin, and dressed in a shoddy red that yellowed her skin and glared at the pock marks." (Olsen, 1961, p. 2). Here, there is a tone of resentment towards Emily's father as mother describes Emily as resembling her father. Mother loathes the fact that he did not try to treat Emily at least with good care. Nonetheless, mother's resentment towards Emily's father remains unspoken. Perhaps, criticising a man is never an option to a woman who lives in a world where patriarchal ideology is the law. The oppression, subtle and obvious as it could be, shows the ubiquity of patriarchal ideology and its unlimited power in the society.

Of Obligatory Routines

In the earlier section, we have analysed how her first encounter with men has been depicted by Olsen. We can see at this point that her relationship with Emily's father has left her with untold bitterness. However, it does not stop her from venturing into a new relationship. She is already independent of men in her first relationship and manages to get out of it. Nevertheless, she eventually marries a new husband. She might have not ventured into the relationship out of romantic love but we view this more of an obligation. There is a void which needs to be filled and she describes that Emily, "had a new father now to learn to love, and I think perhaps it was a better time." (Olsen, 1961, p. 3). Certainly, this sense of obligation is similar to what Hooks (2000) states in her book, *Feminism for All*, "In actuality, women who head households in a patriarchal society often feel guilty about the absence of a male figure…" (p. 72). Therefore, proving that instead of getting married for her own needs, the marriage happens out of a sense of obligation and the need to adhere to the common practice in a patriarchal society.

However, the 'new love' she hopes for Emily to experience seems to burn into ashes as the new husband, too, is portrayed as a typical patriarchal man. Because Emily is not his blood daughter, he does not mind asking mother to leave her at the house unattended at night, "…and I think perhaps it was a better time. Except when we left her alone nights, telling ourselves she was old enough." (Olsen, 1961, p. 3). Mother could have been firm or brought Emily along with them but, living as a wife in a patriarchal world, she is obliged to follow her husband's bidding. It was a common practice then for them to, "…attend a social engagement with their husbands." (Friedan, 1963, p. 17). As illustrated in the two paragraphs, mother's actions are purely driven by the unspoken words of men. As a reader from this postmodern age, we find the blind obligatory nature of the mother is frustrating and disagreeable. The 'emancipation of woman' from the claw of the patriarchal world could be reached if only the mother is firm and courageous enough to brave against the current set by the patriarchal law.

After a while, mother, following suit the feminine mystique practice, tells us that, "I wasn't working. We had a new baby, I was home anyhow." (Olsen, 1961, p. 4).Henceforth begins her life as the 'perfect housewife'. As the title of the story suggests, mother is bound to housekeeping, nursing and homemaking on a daily and repetitive basis. She would either nurse the needy younger children or, "I would be ironing, or preparing food for the next day, or writing V-mail to Bill, or tending the baby." (Olsen, 1961, p. 6). And so, she becomes the typical housewife as Friedan (1963) states, "the new image this mystique gives to America is the old image: 'Occupation: housewife'" (p. 41).

At one point in the story, mother mentions her job being a nanny to her children and how she does it with the hope of doing it perfectly. She describes it as, "I nursed her. They feel that's important nowadays. I nursed all the children, but with her, with all the fierce rigidity of first motherhood, I did like the *books* [our emphasis] said." (Olsen, 1961, p. 1). As much as her enthusiasm in fulfilling the men's world's demands is admirable, we find it stifling to the point of irritating. The effort shown by mother who,on surface level, can be seen as trying to provide a better living quality for Emily, we argue, however that, disagreeably, under that pretence,mother is undoubtedly following the infamous trend. Friedan points out that the importance of perfect housekeeping and nursing were highly stressed and the coverage in the media was widespread. It was to the extent where, "A woman writer proposed in Harper's that women be drafted for compulsory service as nurses' aides and baby-sitters" (Friedan, 1963, p. 23). Although this idea was initially mooted by a woman, the media was heavily controlled by men thus asserting their patriarchal values through them (Friedan, 1963, p. 36).

Tailing the argued point above, we would like to assert againthat mother's action can only be explained by her indifference towards men. If previously there was a tone of resentment towards men, as represented by the first husband; with the second one, we almost forget about the existence of a new man, namely the second husband. Olsen has now shifted her narrative to focus more on mother's own preoccupations with fulfilling her responsibilities as a 'perfect mother' as expected by the patriarchal society. This thus shows that mother has not established any form of emotional ties with the men at all. We do not detect any form of resentment or anger or disappointment. She is simply devoid of any emotions towards man. As suggested earlier, the need for the existence of a man in the family is simply as a means to conform to the expectations of having a male authority figure in the family as dictated by the patriarchal society.

Judgemental Patriarchal Society

Finally, the dry and vacant attachment of the mother towards men is perhaps, we argue, due to the demanding and judgemental nature of the patriarchal society. Both mother and Emily suffer from the scrutinising eyes of the patriarchal society.

Over time, mother's obligation towards housekeeping has taken its toll on Emily. Intentionally or not, mother has given Emily the impression of the static world of a woman in a patriarchal society. Even mother – consciously or not – bestows patriarchal expectations on her daughter. She expects Emily to, "help be a mother, and housekeeper, and shopper….Mornings of crisis and near hysteria trying to get lunches packed, hair combed, coats and shoes found..." (Olsen, 1961, p. 5).

As a mother, she exemplifies the feminine mystique American women have been experiencing and somehow passed the legacy of mentality to her children, "They must keep on having babies, because the feminine mystique says there is no other way for a woman to be a heroine." (Friedan, 1963, p. 42). At one point during one of Emily's 'communicative night', she voices her exasperation, "Aren't you ever going to finish ironing, Mother? Whistler painted his mother in a rocker. I'd have to paint mine standing

over an ironing board." (Olsen, 1961, p.6). Although she is a working mom, her one and only main concern is to keep the house and the chores intact as "work does not liberate women from male domination" (Hooks, 2000, p. 49).

Throughout the story, we could detect that there is a fissure and crease in the relationship between mother and Emily. As mother is busy answering the call of the feminine mystique, she in turn drifts away from Emily almost naturally. After all, "female bonding was not possible within patriarchy; it was an act of treason" (Hooks, 2000, p. 14). Even mother admits to the counsellor that, although she is the mother, she could not possibly have the key to help Emily for Emily, "has lived for nineteen years. There is all that life that has happened outside of me, beyond me" (Olsen, 1961, p. 1). On one occasion in the story, the old man living next door questions mother on her attitude towards Emily, "You should smile at Emily more when you looked at her." (Olsen, 1961, p. 2). Under such pressure and disbelief, mother narrates defensively, "What was in my face when I looked at her? I loved her. There were all the acts of love." (Olsen, 1961, p. 2). Proving that, with one example of a hateful comment from a man, mother chooses to retreat from showing any emotions or her thoughts towards the men around her.

Although she does somehow apply the feminine mystique on Emily, mother also does articulate her concern for Emily's future in the patriarchal world. Despite the unnecessary competitiveness among younger people, seeking for men's attention, mother silently hopes to, "Let her be. So all that is in her will not bloom – but in how many does it? … there is still enough to live by. Only help her to believe – help make it so there is cause for her to believe that she is more than this dress on the ironing board, helpless before the iron." (Olsen, 1961, p.7). Here, mother actually summarises her own regret and wonderment. In a world of patriarchy and the feminine mystique as the 'ideal' way of life, mother herself is one of the women who have failed to bloom.

Making Sense of *The Feminine Mystique* Today

Half a century has passed since *The Feminine Mystique* has become a critical reference in the field of feminist study.In particular, fifty-one years have passed since Betty Friedan's book was first published and yet we argue that *The Feminine Mystique*, from certain views, is still relevant today.

In this sense, we would like to draw an example by directing the focus towards contemporary Malaysian literature. In the Malay culture, for example, the system is such that it follows closely the patriarchal law. The power the patriarchyhas over the women remains strong even in today's contemporary society. A prime example is a short story by Che Husna Azhari, "Mariah", where the female characters are portrayed as possessinglittle voice and action women have today. Mariah, the Muslim Malay character of the short story title, is depicted as a widower who, despite being emotionally and financially independent of men for several years, she eventually could not refuse a marriage proposal from the *Imam* – the Islamic head of the Muslim Malay community - as his second wife. This is despite the fact that the *Imam* has a wife, Che Yam, who is unfortunately barren. Andrew Ng observes that, on a domestic level, Mariah "perhaps reflects the plight of Kelantanese women in a state increasingly controlled by a patriarchal system that manipulates religious teachings to bolster its workings" (as cited in Ng, 2009, p. 133). Mariah has few choices but,

> [t]o merge with the image of Cik Yam – that is to be a wife and domestic who carefully guards her dressing, conduct and behaviour both in private and, especially, in public". As such, "Mariah" reveals the increasingly delimited spaces and roles

accorded to Malay women in society, as patriarchy, reinforced by village customs and religion, continues to assert socializing pressures that infiltrate every facet of life"(Ng, 2009, p. 134).

The need to conform to society's expectation as set forth by the patriarchal world is a trait elucidated in *The Feminine Mystique* as proposed by Betty Friedan.

In a larger picture, Coontz, as a panel in the 50th Anniversary of Betty Friedan's *The Feminine Mystique* panel discussion, expresses her worry over America's progress on gender equality since the release of the book in 1963. Despite its success, she believes that "This country [America] is still collectively engaged in a very gendered conversation among and about women and about home and work," (as cited in Roth, p. 111, 2013). Adding to that, another panellist, Dubler also states that "[Work-family balance] is still a conversation that assumes that work and family is fraught terrain for women and just a way of life for men,"(quoted in Konduri, 2013). On a final note, we would like to assert that perhaps gender discrimination is no longer given the attention it should as in the past, the need for women to conform to the patriarchal world as highlighted in *The Feminine Mystique* remains relevant until this day. The mystique vestiges have become stigmatised in women's perception across the globe in general.To a certain extent, it provides a ground for the claim that feminist issue - however long it has been pointed out in literature and reality - is still a source of understanding for women's voices and plights until today and the struggle is by far an ongoing process at large.

CONCLUSION

In retrospect, *I Stand Here Ironing* narrates the story of a repressed woman in the patriarchal world of false ideology and demands known as the feminine mystique. She seeks for nothing but to live as a perfectly happy woman whose sole occupation in life is to be the perfect housewife. She aspires to live as an excellent wife and mother who excel in housekeeping, baby-sitting, and homemaking and, on top of that, to appear physically and sexually attractive.

Redirecting the focus back to the objectives at hand, we would then conclude that mother's relationship with men is devoid of any emotions. She does not establish any emotional ties with the men in her life, especially her current husband. With the patriarchal and feminine mystique ideas suffocating her, she is obliged to carry out her household chores and responsibilities purely on a necessity and formality basis, removed from any romantic feelings. The reasons behind her barren emotions for men are due to her sense of obligations on completing the domestic demands, the expectations set by the society and the judgemental eyes of the men in the patriarchal society. The full image which best encapsulates mother's relationship with men is portrayed by Tillie at the end of the story; "…she is more than this dress on the ironing board, helpless before the iron." (p. 7). Undeniably, this analogy represents the position of women in a patriarchal world. Indeed, the dress symbolises the helpless women and the ironing board represents the claw of the patriarchal world.

REFERENCES

Castle, G. (2007). *The Blackwell Guide to Literary Theory*. UK: Blackwell Publishing.

Colston, H. (2011, September 19). *The Helplessness of a Mother in I Stand Here Ironing*. Retrieved from http://www.lssc.edu/faculty/holly_larson/Shared%20 Documents /I%20Stand%20Here%20Ironing%20Draft%201.pdf

E-Collaborative for Civic Education. (2014). *The 1960s-70s American feminist movement: Breaking down barriers for women*. Retrieved from https://tavaan a.org/sites/default/files/American%20Feminist%20Movement%20PDF.pdf

Fraser, N. (2012). Feminism, capitalism, and the cunning of history: An introduction. FMSH-WP-2012-17

Friedan, B. (1963). *The Feminine Mystique.* New York: W&W Norton & Company.

Frye, J. S. (2003). Making a Living, Making a Life. *Journal of the Association of Research on Mothering*, *5*(2), 21-28.

Hooks, b. (2000). *Feminism is for Everybody: Passionate Politics.* Cambridge.

Independence Hall Association in Philadelphia. (2008). *U.S. History From Pre-Columbian to New Millenium*. Retrieved from http://www.ushistory.org/us/

Konduri, V. S. (2013, November 20). The Harvard Crimson. *Panel Hails 50th Anniversary of Friedan's 'Feminine Mystique'.* Retrieved from http://www. thecrimson.com/article/2013/11/20/professors-talk-gender-roles/

Miles, C. (2008, February 19). *A Mother's Pain.* Retrieved from http://lssc.edu/ faculty/holly_larson/Shared%20Documents/a%20mother's%20pain%20(model%2 0paper).pdf

Ng, A. H. S. (2009). Islam and modernity in the works of two contemporary Malay anglophone writers: Che Husna Azhari's "Mariah" and Karim Raslan's "Neighbors". *The Journal of Commonwealth Literature*, *44*(3), 127-141.

Roth, B. (2013). Real Housewives with Real Problems? *Gender & Society*, *27*(1), 110-112.

Olsen, T. (1961). *Tell me a riddle*. New York: Dell.

Tsutsumi, C. (2001). *Tillie Olsen's "I Stand Here Ironing" and James Baldwin's "Sonny's Blues" - The Same Story...Yet So Compelling*. Retrieved from http://www. cindytsutsumi.com/wp-content/downloads/words/Fict_Engl_Baldwin Olsen.pdf

Whitier, N. (2013). Everyday Readers and Social Movements: Considering the Impact of The Feminine Mystique. *Gender & Society* , *27*(1), 112-115.

GROTESQUE ELEMENTS IN TWO SELECTED SHORT STORIES

Hana Haghighi[1], Rosli Talif[2]
English Language Department, Faculty of Modern Languages and Communications,
Universiti Putra Malaysia, Selangor, Malaysia
e-mail: hanahaghighi@ymail.com[1]; rt_6272@yahoo.com[2]

ABSTRACT

This study aims to identify and analyse grotesque elements in two selected short stories: *The Judge's House* by Bram Stoker (1847–1912), an Irish writer, and *The Cursed Citadel* by an Iranian writer, Sadegh Hedayat (1903-1951). Pertaining to two different cultures with different backgrounds, the selected stories include several grotesque elements in both their structures and subject matters. The grotesque elements in the selected short stories are manifested through literary devices including characters, plots, atmosphere, and style. The characters of both stories are depicted as irregular as well as extravagant creatures and the plots are teemed with strangeness and abnormalcy representing distorted reflection of known familiar places and parodies of human qualities. These elements disable the characters and provide a fragmented and alienated perception of the world. Retaining the features of the grotesque genre along with attempting to symbolize the ugly reality through illustrating atrocity and cruelty in the world, both authors take familiar ordinary things and deform them in both content and form. As a result, there is an element of truth in images, situations, characters, and events despite their entirely exaggerated representation.

Keywords: alienation, Bram Stoker, grotesque, Sadegh Hedayat, *The Cursed Citadel*, *The Judge's House*

INTRODUCTION

Fear from unknown and the mysterious entities has always been an indispensable part of human's existence and has generated numerous discourses in the realms of spirituality, sociology, psychology, literature, etc. This fear can be invoked through the representation of the unfamiliar, distorted and unpleasant world in literary works and induce shock, confusion and alienation in readers. As a literary genre, the grotesque portrays the unknown world and exposes man to "the dark forces which lurk in and behind our world" which can estrange him from the very world he lives in (Kayser, 1963, p.188). As a distinguished genre in Victorian literature, the grotesque manifests a tendency toward supernatural, mysterious, and strange entities and intends to produce emotional and intellectual impacts simultaneously aiming at transforming the familiar world into a strange, mysterious and unpleasant place. In *The Grotesque in Art and Literature* (1957), Wolfgang Kayser (1963) asserts that the grotesque causes a secret liberation of the feelings of horror and despair in order to invoke and subdue the demonic aspects of the world.

DISCUSSION

The term grotesque has experienced a process of evolution due to a series of semantic developments (Barasch, 1971). Arriving at a unique all-encompassing unanimous

definition of this term seems out of question as a result of the variety and extensive range of its meaning. It is broadly accepted that this evolved term was first employed in order to designate the ornamental style on the murals excavated in the 15th century Italy (Barasch, 1971, p.24). These murals provided magnificent frescoes embellishing the walls. It is believed that this term is derived from the name *grottesche* which means pertaining to underground caves. These paintings represented the interweaving of plant, animal, human and architectural forms so that a stone pedestal would become the torso of a human figure with curling plants for arms and an animal's head" (Thomson, 1972, p. 35). The word grotesque entered the sphere of literature at the dawn of the 17th century in France. Yet, English literature welcomed it in the 18th century. John Milton (1608–1674) used this word in the fourth book of *Paradise Lost* (1677) in order to describe the incongruous nature of the natural world which is populated with horrifying grots and cavities.

Along with the growth of literary criticism in the 18th century, the word grotesque was borrowed from the realm of art and employed in order to signify irregularity and disorder. During the age of reason and Neoclassicism this term took a new-fangled meaning, and according to Arthur Claybrough (1965, p. 6):

> The word grotesque thus comes to be applied in a more general fashion in English … when the characteristics of the grotesque style of art-extravagance, fantasy, individual taste, and the rejection of the natural condition of organization- are the object of ridicule and disapproval. The more general sense … which it has developed by the early eighteenth century is therefore that of ridiculous, distorted, unnatural (adj.); an absurdity, distortion of nature' (noun).

Christopher Martin (b.1969), a writer on caricature, viewed grotesque not only as "imitation but products of a wild imagination" (Kayser 1963, p. 31). He considers it, "supernatural and absurd" (Kayser 1963, p. 31). He pinpointed that grotesque provokes different feelings such as fear, surprise and horror. Kaysar (1963) also states that we "smile at the demorations but are appalled by the horrible and monstrous elements" (p.31). The grotesque genre owes its prosperity to a group of German writers who began their writing career in 1910 and called themselves narrators of the grotesque. They asserted that "humor and terror are twin children of their mother imagination, since both are suspicious of mere facts and distrust any rationalistic explanation of the world" (Kaysar, 1963, p. 139). Kayser believes that the "grotesque is not concerned with individual actions or the destruction of the moral order" (p.185). He holds the view that this literary genre is an attempt to externalize man's hidden fears by portraying it. He scrutinizes that the liberation of the feeling of horror and despair is provoked through an authentic artistic depiction, "the darkness has been sighted, the ominous powers discovered, the incomprehensible forces challenged" through the grotesque. (p.188)

In Philip Thomson's (1972) viewpoint the eminent characterization of the grotesque is "the fundamental element of disharmony, whether this is referred to as conflict, clash, mixture of the heterogeneous or conflation of disparate" (p.20). This disharmony exists in the literary works in the reaction of the reader and in the author's psychological framework.

Exaggeration, as another characteristic of the grotesque, functions in line with the effect of strangeness. However, this mode stands against the setting of the real world and can create horror and disorientation. The grotesque is also an expression of absurdity of existence. For instance, it is absurd for a mother to render her daughter to a murderer, or for a father to abandon his family in search of black magic, or for a judge to pass so cruel judgments and sentence the convicted of any felony to capital punishment. In the

introduction of *The Grotesque* (2009), Harold Bloom (2009) defines the grotesque as "the vulnerable, pathetic fantasy we distort in our simultaneous search for love and property. Grotesque is the mystery we eliminate to create the revolt of simple things, goods, that desire mystery" (p.11).

A literary work can embrace a variety of the grotesque elements including characterization, setting, events, and even narrative techniques. Either mental or physical abnormality can conceive grotesque characters; even a character's eccentric ideas and behaviors make him grotesque. These characters induce ambivalent responses in the reader; sympathetic and at the same time apathetic. Apart from its structural elements, "the grotesque encourages the creation of meaning and the discovery of new connections through its effect of shock, confusion, disorder or contradiction" (Corey, 1997, p. 229). As a result, in a grotesque work, meaning is created through an interaction between the work and the reader.

The present paper tends to study two selected short stories "The Judge's House" by the Irish writer Bram Stoker (1847–1912), and "The Cursed Citadel" by the Iranian writer Sadegh Hedayat (1903-1951), in the light of the literary mode of the grotesque aiming at discovering their grotesque elements in order to specify the authors' purpose in using these factors. Pertaining to two different cultures with different backgrounds, the selected stories include several grotesque elements in both their structures and subject matters. However, they benefit from this literary genre in different ways and for quite different purposes. This paper intends to clarify these similarities and differences through a close reading.

Bram Stoker, who is mostly known due to his famous novel *Dracula* (Archibald Constable and Company, 1897), has several short stories which are not less terrifying and literarily valuable than his masterpiece. Most of Stoker's short stories have been remained unknown and unappreciated due to the strong dominancy of *Dracula*, his eminent novel. The first selected story, *The Judge's House* appeared in Stoker's collection of short stories entitled *The Dracula Guest and Other Weird Stories* that was published posthumously in 1922. *The Judge's House* tells the story of a young mathematician, Malcolm, who rents a remote deserted Jacobean place in order to study for an upcoming exam. The house belonged to a deceased cruel judge who had executed his victims mercilessly. Malcolm who is used to studying at night is disrupted by recurrent appearance of a huge rat with evil eyes which behaves like a human. Neglecting the warning of the people of the village, Malcolm insists on staying in the judge's house. At the last night, while he is trying to catch the large rat, Malcolm is shocked by observing that the portrait of the judge has come to life. The revived judge entangles and hangs Malcolm who is paralyzed and helpless.

Preoccupied with ethical and social concerns, Sadegh Hedayat, the Iranian forerunner modern writer, wrote several collections of short stories, each focusing on a central theme. He sometimes used terrifying atmosphere in order to attract the reader's attention to observe and feel the dangerous unpleasant outcome of immorality and ignoring ethical elements in life. *The Cursed Citadel* which has been selected from his collection of short stories *Three Drops of Blood* (1932) narrates the story of Khashtoun, a mysterious man who lives in the tower of a haunted palace far from the people of the village. He is an alchemist seeking the elixir of eternal life and wealth through black magic. In order to make his elixir, Khashtoun is in need for the last three drops of three virgins' blood. However, he does not know that the third victim in his own daughter. Recognizing this bitter fact causes his death and the destruction of the palace.

The both aforementioned stories share several elements of the grotesque not only in their structures, but also in their themes. Nevertheless, they are distinguished in certain

elements and themes due to their authors' different backgrounds, line of thoughts and perspectives. The authors have employed the grotesque for certain purposes including the representation of alienation in the world besides the depiction of hidden and vivid atrocity among the people. In an attempt to symbolize the ugly reality, both authors take familiar ordinary things and deform them in either content or form. As a result, there is an element of truth in images, situations, characters, and events despite their entirely exaggerated representation (McElory, 1987, p.5). Kayser (1963) states, the ways in which we are "affected by it [the grotesque] results from our awareness that the familiar and apparently harmonious world is alienated under the impact of abysmal force, which break it up and shatters its coherence" (p.37). Both stories depict the forces that do or have the ability to destroy the apparently harmonious, perfect world. They alert the reader to be aware of these forces and prepare themselves to react.

ANALYSIS OF THE GROTESQUE ELEMENTS

Grotesque features in the two selected novels are manifested through literary devices including characters, plot (event), atmosphere and style. As a result, the two stories will be studies pertaining to the aforementioned features in a comparative way. The characters of a grotesque work are irregular, extravagant, or fantastic in form. This mode of characterization results in the representation of a distorted reflection of a known familiar place or a parody of human qualities.

Both stories represent the characters that can be categorized as abnormal. The enormous rat with the very evil eyes resembling those of the judge's which recurrently appears at night seems to be the reincarnation of the judge. The depiction of animal side of human being which manifests the animalism within human is prevalent in the works of grotesque. This animalism pinpoints "the undignified, perilous, even gross physicality of existence" through "exaggeration, distortion, or unexpected combination" (McElroy, 1987, p.11). The description of the judge's portrait dehumanizes him and provides the reader with the image of an enormous rat disguised as a judge, "His face was strong and merciless, evil, crafty, and vindictive, with a sensual mouth, hooked nose of ruddy colour, and shaped like the beak of a bird of prey" (p.38). As he looks at his eyes, Malcolm grows cold, "for he saw there the very counterpart of the eyes of the great rat" (p.39). The enormous rat, as a main character in the first story, thinks and behaves like a human. Similarly, the small rats who are supposed to be the judge's victims have the same characteristics. The small size of these rats in compare to the enormous one suggests the lower level of wickedness and sin in their nature. It may also suggest that they were not guilty enough to be sentenced to death by the judge. As an animal, a rat is expected to behave according to its instinct, while this evil creature understands, reasons, plays tricks and threatens. Its wickedness, cruelty, and domineering behavior are associated with the cruel judge rather than an animal.

This attribution of human to animal is also vivid in the second story *The Cursed Citadel* where an old man who is involved in black magic and alchemy is intentionally described as an owl. The old man lives alone in a ruined palace and leaves it only after the sunset. He interacts with jins and ghosts and casts spell on whoever he looks at through his hypnotizing evil eyes. Along with the description of his terrifying face and his bizarre habits, the portrayal of his way of dressing represents an old lonely owl in the ruins of an ancient residence.

In the first story the rat is the representation of the animal side of the malignant judge, and in the second story the owl stands for the animal side of Khashtoun. Taking for granted that animal side of a human stands for his dark, hidden and instinctively

unpleasant side, the rat and the owl, as ominous creatures, are identified with malignancy, corruption, destruction, emptiness and death.

The judge-rat and as a main character in the first story behaves so strangely that induces fear and unbelievability. In *The Judge's House* (1922), the young mathematician does not recognize the dangerous situation he deals with and neglects the warning of the villagers. When the landlady of the inn tries to prevent him from staying in the haunted house, Malcolm tells her: "My dear Mrs. Witham, indeed you need not be concerned about me! A man who is reading for the Mathematical Tripos has too much to think of to be disturbed any of these mysterious 'somethings,' and his work is of too exact and prosaic a kind to allow of his having any corner in his mind for mysteries of any kind" (p.22). As an educated knowledgeable man, Malcolm is expected to understand the critical situation and try to avoid evil wisely. However, he continues his stay in the haunted Jacobean dwelling regardless of weird happenings.

In the second story *The Cursed Citadel* (1932), Khorshid, Roshanak's mother, shocks the reader by showing ultimate cruelty and indifference in rendering her only daughter to a black magician to be slaughtered. She does not show any motherly affection and kindness to her daughter and sacrifices her to the dark world, "Khorshid enters with something wrapped in white in her arms" (p.162). She brings Roshanak to Khashtoun despite knowing that he will extract her blood to make his elixir. Khorshid even does not ask to see her daughter for the last time. After Khashtoun's permission to leave, "Khorshid's head was down on her chest, she was sweating …she left the room slowly" (p.162).

The identity of both villains fluctuates and is blurred. This loss of identity is achieved through placing the grotesque in a world "in which identity may be wholly or partially lost through transformation of the individual into something subhuman" (p.16). The judge shifts from a portrait to a rat and later to an animated murderer. Khashtoun's identity is undetermined until the end of the story. People believed that this man is not Khashtoun but he is the Jewish Mullah Shamounwho entered this ruined palace years ago with his companion who disappeared after a short time. "Some believe that he has killed his companion and uses his books of spell to do black magic. Some believe that he is a mystic who just survives by eating one almond a day" (p.148). Even the name "Khashtoun" is given to him by the people of the village. This obscurity and indetermination of identity increases tense and confusion in the reader.

The plot of a grotesque literary work teems with strangeness and abnormalcy. The representation of the blurred uncertain borderline between fact and fiction, natural and supernatural in the plot of the grotesque baffles the reader and alienates him from the ordinary familiar life.

In her article *The Religious Dimensions of the Grotesque: Toni Morrison's Beloved* (1997), Susan Corey states, "the Grotesque breaks the boundaries of normalcy in some way and always points towards the mysterious and inexplicable. Grotesque with the abnormal in the midst of the normal, the reader is stimulated to find new meaning" (p.229). What is more abnormal than the coming to life of a dead man's portrait in order to murder another victim? Malcolm sees "There, on the great high-backed carved oak chair sat the judge in his robes of scarlet and ermine, with his baleful eyes vindictively" (p.41). Similarly, can an event be more inexplicable than Khashtoun's interaction with jins and ghosts along with stealing corpses from the cemetery? Breaking the boundaries between death and life, the judge leaves his portrait and enters the realm of the livings, while Khashtoun breaks the boundaries between life and death and enters the realm of the dead in order to benefit from the knowledge of deceased ancient magicians and alchemists. Malignant and dark reasons reside behind their transgression; however, they

posses different intentions. The judge intends to satisfy his increasing demand for hanging victims probably due to his preoccupation with his duty. Nonetheless, Khashtoun intends to discover the elixir, the portion of ultimate wealth, prosperity, and eternal life.

The best place for a grotesque work is an old remote haunted place with terrifying mysterious descriptions and a bad reputation. This haunted place is provided in the first story through the judge's house, a Jacobean indwelled residence, believed to be a place of evil due to its belonging to a wicked judge. Although the people circulate the rumors and consider the residence as a haunted place, no one can provide any evidences to prove it. Similarly, the tower of the ruined place dwelled by Khashtoun is supposed to be a haunted place. The people of the village call it "the cursed citadel" and believe that ghosts and jins appear and stay there. It is the most favored place by Khashtoun who needs to summon the ghosts of dead ancient magicians and even to call jins in order to help him with black magic and provide him with supernatural dark powers.

The end of both stories depicts violent and heart-rending scenes. In the first story, the judge's animated portrait approaches Malcolm and tries to entangle him. The scene of judge's attempting to catch Malcolm and his escaping is the climax of the story, "… the judge raised the noose and tried to ensnare him, ever keeping his baleful eyes fixed on him, and each time by a mighty effort the student just managed to evade it" (p.43). The judge entangles and hangs Malcolm who is paralyzed with fear, and goes back to the portrait. The scene of Malcolm's hanging is so violent and cruel that even paralyses and hypnotizes the reader as well

In the second story, Khashtoun who needs the last three drops of the blood of the third virgin in order to complete the process of his elixir making, cuts Roshanak's throat heartlessly and begins to collect her blood in different containers to extract the very last drops, "He tied Roshanak's arms and legs to the bed tightly, took the sword and thrust to the girl's throat" (p.163). This process is so violent and unexpected that evokes terror and confusion in the reader.

In the work of grotesque a past event or a curse causes or aggravates the situation. In both stories the evil past has a direct contribution to the devastated present situation. In *The Judge's House* the evil deeds of the judge and his cruelty to the victims has made his house a haunted frightening remote place, "a judge who was held in great terror on account of his harsh sentences and hostility to prisoners at Assizes" (p.21). He cannot stop hanging victims and his preoccupation with capital punishment propels him to commit murder even after his death. In the second story, Khashtoun is represented as a man with a dark past. He has abandoned his family, killed his companion along with two virgins from the village. His dark past provides him with a doomed destiny. He kills his own daughter and is burnt in a haunted place he used to praise.

Foreboding and anticipation in both stories are employed to create more suspense. In the first story the people of the village try to change Malcom's mind and advise him not to stay in the haunted place. The landlady, disappointedly, tries to change his mind: "It is too bad of me, sir, and you - and a young gentleman, too - if you will pardon me saying it, going to live there all alone. If you were my boy - and you'll excuse me for saying it - you wouldn't sleep there a night, not if I had to go there myself and pull the big alarm bell that's on that roof!" (p.22). The repetition of minor events including the constant squeaking of the rats, their pause along with the appearance of the enormous rat, the rat's disappearance at certain spots, and its reaction to the holy Bible foreshadow that something terrible is about to happen.

In the second story, the author's emphasis on the rumors circulating in the village about Khashtoun, calling the place "the cursed citadel", and the disappearance of two

young girls in the village suggest that an ominous event is happening. In both stories, the sequence of events and their interrelations are the premonitions of a tragedy.

A work of grotesque owes much of its power to the sinister and mysterious atmosphere. This mode stirs the reader's feeling and draws him to the realm of fiction. Obscurity and darkness provide an appropriate background for a work of grotesque, suggesting something sinister or ominous beneath a clear and logically organized world. As a result, evil events happen at night when darkness and the mystery behind it evoke more terror. Night nourishes wickedness, hides malignancy and covers sins and cruelty.

The atmosphere of the first story is ominous enough not only to stir the reader's emotion, but to paralyze and confuse him. The mysterious silence of the judge's house which is interrupted by the constant squeaking of the rats and their pause at the appearance of the enormous rat, all happen at night. As an archetype of mysterious and evil, night stands for death, bad omen, tyranny and destruction. Unexplainable malignant events happen at night due to their illogical, mysterious, frightening and lethal nature.

In *The Cursed Citadel*, along with the description of the haunted place which increases the ominous atmosphere, all evil events happen at night. Khashtoun leaves the tower only after the sunset. He goes to the cemetery to steal corpses and stays awake studying and doing experiments at night. Even Khorshid brings the virgin victims to Khashtoun in darkness. These malevolent deeds increase the malice of night and its association with death and corruption shocks the reader.

In both stories, alienation is represented in two aspects. One is the alienation of the character from the society, and the second one the alienation of the reader from the known world which is an effectual element of the grotesque. In *The Judge's House*, Malcolm, the young educated mathematician chooses intentional isolation from the people of his own city, stays far from the village, and prefers isolation to communication with the villagers. He spends all his time studying and solving problems, and is so drowned in his academic career that neglects the danger and the imminent disaster. He, who is able to solve complicated mathematical problems and proceeds well in this branch of science, remains unable to understand the threat due to his feeling of superiority over the ordinary people whom he considers simple, vulgar and superstitious.

In *The Cursed Citadel*, Khashtoun loses the primary relationships such as familial ties in favor of secondary one, that is, money and prosperity. As a scientist and alchemist who has spent whole his life studying and doing experiments in search of elixir, Khashtoun downgrades the others and one of his main purposes to discover the elixir is subduing these vulgar, naïve and ignorant people. He prefers interaction with ghosts and jins to communication with the people of the village who seriously avoid even looking at the eyes of this owl-like black magician who is bizarre not only in his appearance, but also in his behavior.

Besides the first mode of alienation in which an intellectual's feeling of superiority results in his alienation, helplessness, and destruction, the reader who observes and experiences the peculiarity of the distorted world presented in the grotesque work is frightened, shocked, confused and finally alienated. He is baffled and estranged from the ordinary world by being exposed to the dark ignored side of living. Being unable to digest this contradiction, the reader begins questioning and doubting the known world. Accordingly, the grotesque work successfully creates meaning through alienating the reader.

In addition to the illustration of alienation in the world, both stories attempt to depict the hidden or vivid atrocity and cruelty of mankind. In the first story, Stoker employs the grotesque in order to show the cruelty of juridical system as an oppressive institution of power. Instead of a system whose goal is to practice justice, the juridical

system which is symbolized by the judge victimizes innocent civilians in order to spread terror through which they become obedient subjects. The judge who continuous his brutal acts even after death represents the constant process of victimization of innocent people and his evil smile while he is back to the portrait suggest the continuation of this atrocious act. The truth is that the juridical system must practice justice, and a judge must be fair. However, the reader is chocked and terrified in confrontation with this contradiction that a judge can be so cruel that even after his death comes to life in order to take more victims. The reader is also shocked when observes the domination of the juridical system over the lives of the civilians through harsh practices.

The people of the village who are aware of the danger of the haunted house are ignorant of the real happening and will probably consider Malcolm's death as a suicide due to the pressure of studying, hallucination caused by over drinking, loneliness, and fear. They can never understand Malcolm's pain and bitter experience unless they go through the same process. These people are involved in a particular discourse so different from the one Malcolm pertains to. Thus, their perception of world is far from Malcolm's.

The second story *The Cursed Citadel*, represents cruelty in a different context. Hedayat uses the grotesque in order to demonstrate the destruction power of greed. As a knowledgeable alchemist, Khashtoun is not satisfied with what he already has. He adopts a Faustian way of life and sacrifices everything including his freedom, honor, reputation, and family for the sake of gaining dark knowledge and black magic. His greed transforms him to a cruel and heartless creature who commits several murders heartlessly in order to fulfill his satanic duty. Khashtoun who has denied his parental role and abandoned his family with no support and help, completes his cruelty by murdering his own innocent daughter. This tragic happening manifests that in a cruel world with cruel people one cannot expect love, merci and kindness even from close family members.

CONCLUSION

Both *The Judge's House* and *The Cursed Citadel* are categorized as grotesque literary works since they contain plenty of structural and effectual elements of this literary mode. Both stories employ grotesque elements including strange characters, transformation and loss of identity, abnormalcy, and violent scenes in order to confuse and blur the borderline between natural and supernatural exposing the reader to the dark mysterious side of the world. These elements induce fear, confusion and consequently alienate him from the known world.

In The Judge's House, claiming to know the sensual world and despising the realm of supernatural, Malcolm, as a logical mathematician, is victimized by evil forces he never believed in. Besides, the judge's portrait's coming to life that represents the transgression of an unanimated object to the livings' world evokes shock and confusion resulting in the reader's alienation.

Living in the cocoon of loneliness, along with having killed his companion who stood in the way of his refulgent success, Khashton is depicted as a grotesque. His interaction with supernatural elements and his commitment to evil forces provide the reader with shock and fear, and consequently alienate him.

In both stories, evil power enables the villains to transgress normalcy and take control over minds. However, judge's triumph and Khashtoun's destruction suggest that if a living man intends to enter the realm of supernatural and go beyond its forbidden borderlines, he is doomed to death. On the contrary, a supernatural entity can interfere in the sphere of the livings and even cause their misery and death. This fact aggravates the reader's state of confusion and horror and accelerates his process of alienation.

REFERENCES

Barasch, F. K. (1971). *Grotesque in art*. Hawthorne: Mouton.

Bloom, H., & Hobby, B. (2009). *The grotesque*. New York: Infobase Publishing.

Claybrough, A. (1965). *The grotesque in English literature*. London: Clarendon Press.

Corey, Susan. (1997). The grotesque in Tonni Morrison's beloves. In J.L. Adams, W. Yates & R. P. Warren (Eds.), *The Grotesque in art and literature: Theological reflections.* Grand Rapids: Wm. B. Eerdmans Publishing.

Hedayat, S. (1959). *Trois gout de sang et six autres nouvelles*. Tehran: Keyhan Publication.

Kayser, W. J. (1963). *The grotesque in art and literature*. New York: Columbia University Press.

McElroy, B. (1987). *Fiction of the modern grotesque.* New York: Macmillan.

Thomson, P. (1972). *The grotesque: The critical idiom*. London: Methuen.

Stoker, B. (2006). *The dracula guest and other weird stories*. London: Penguin Books Limited.