

LINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGE II

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LINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGE

The 2nd meeting of LILA: LINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGE CONFERENCE to be held in June 29-30, 2015 in Istanbul.

LILA'15 Conference is aiming at bringing researchers from various subfields to share their current research, ideas, and experience.

IDEOLOGY AND LANGUAGE

TRANSLATING IDEOLOGY VIA MODALITIES IN THE 1959 WRITTEN CONSTITUTION OF STATE OF BRUNEI

BADRIYAH YUSOF

Abstract

Ideology is often viewed as a mode or vehicle to promote or legitimate interests of a particular social group. To portray or strike a 'balance of forces' (to follow Fairclough's term) among the counterparts or authority figures involved, various linguistic and sema-pragmatic elements are exercised in order to manifest reassertion of power control or an attempt to gain dominance over the other. This phenomenon appears to be crucial in translating a parallel text, where two languages are exercised forcefully and in tandem to appear as a sole text, so as to create solidarity rather than dominance. This paper aims to observe how far does the notion of F-E equivalence apply to this historical-political text. Both intertextual (use of modality) and extratextual factors (socio-cultural context of Brunei and the British Government) will be utilized to reflect the problem of equivalence and the choice of the related function words in the target text (TT). In other words, are they merely caused by the renowned problem of finding equivalence in translation, or 'manipulated' in the name of power and ideology.

Keywords: *Equivalence, Ideology, Modalities, Brunei, Historical-Political Discourse*

Introduction

Despite its introduction in 1960s, it was only 30 years later that the pinnacle of Translation and Power truly took place amongst other issues in translation studies; which were mainly related to the various aspects of linguistic, cultural and communication studies. Scholars qua translators, such as Theo Hermans, Susan Bassnett and Andre Lefevere, in the anthology of *The Manipulation of Literature* (1985) had demonstrated that;

Translations, rather than being secondary and derivative, were instead one of the primary literary tools that larger social institutions- educational systems, arts councils, publishing firms, and even governments- had their disposal to manipulate a given society in order to construct the kind of culture desired.

From ideological manipulation in literary and religious texts, this study then exponentially received vigorous attention from translation schools and scholars worldwide. Studies in translation shifts (Lefevere & Bassnett 1990: 12) had called for the political-oriented notion of ideology, democracy, disempowerment, social struggle, social contradiction etc. In a more recent research, anthology such as *The Translation and Power* (Gentzler & Tymoczko 2002) and *Apropos of Ideology*

(Pérez 2003), for instance, had given a fundamental insight on how the study of translation, embedded in political contexts, portrays the dialectical interrelationship between discourse and power. In addition to that, it demonstrates translation as a site where these discourses meet, negotiate and even compete for power. Not only that, translation too, can be exploited as a tool to gain supremacy and power via various language elements.

The act of translating is not solely dependent on the micro-structure of a Source Text (henceforth ST); that is, by observing the linguistic features and rendering their equivalences in the Target Text (henceforth TT). The actual use of a translation product is mainly communicative and it is not sufficient to achieve this purpose without relating it to the participants involved and the situational contexts where it occurs. Hence, a situational context or a context of situation (to borrow Malinowski's term) is needed to elucidate the relation between the text and the environment where it exercises. This would include "the totality of culture surrounding the act of text production and reception," including those related to the societal norms and everyday practices (Hatim & Mason 1990: 37). Contexts of situation (or contexts) may shape a text production in a subtle and intricate manner, as intended by the producer; or in this case, the translator (Hatim 2009: 37). Consequently, the translated text may exhibit or reflect the different elements involved during the translating process.

In *Translation of the Treaty of Waitangi: A Case of Disempowerment* (Fenton and Moon 2002:25-44), for instance, translation was manipulated to exercise the strategic goals of colonization- resulting in the lost of the Maori's self-governance, resources and land. By omitting a handful of fundamental parts of the treaty, in the act of not being able to find its equivalence in the TT (in Maori's language), translation remains as a site to attain and retain power. At the same time, this also highlights the role of translator in the history of colonialism. Schöffner's (2003: 23-41) *Third Ways and New Centres: Ideological Unity or Difference*, on the other hand, used both intra-textual and extra-textual features to achieve the same ideological effect in a different social context. Exploiting Hatim and Mason's (1997) framework in analyzing ideology and translation, Schöffner made use of both critical discourse analysis and functional theories to reflect the effects of the translation shifts in the sample text.

Setting the Scene: From a Political Perspective

Negara Brunei Darussalam or widely known as the Abode of Peace, is a Sultanate of 5 765 square kilometres, located in the north-eastern part of Borneo. Consists of four districts, it has a demography of about 400 000 people, with Malay Muslims as a majority group. Malay (language) is the official language, but English is widely practiced due to the Bilingual Education policy of the country. Islam is widely practised as the main religion and anchors the *Malay Islamic Monarchy* national philosophy, which is regarded as the base not only for the administration purposes but also as an ideology and a Bruneian's way of living. Within this ideology, the Malays that consist of seven ethnics¹ are regarded as a dominant race, Islam as a religion that underlies every norms and decision-makings, and Monarch as a

¹ Brunei Malays consist of the Brunei Malays, the Kedayans, the Muruts, the Bisayahs, the Dusuns, Belait, and Tutong ethnics.

source of *primordial loyalty* to his subjects, for as long as he uphold and practise the accepted norms and beliefs (in this case Islam and its teachings). Although this ideology was only pragmatically mentioned in the 1959 Written Constitution of the State of Brunei, followed by the proclamation of independence in 1984², and later on in 1990³, it naturally stays as a social contract bound between the sultan and his subjects or *rakyat* (Hashim 1999: 43). In terms of governance, dynamism was achieved via various sociopolitical and institutional means with Islam as an underlying basis and the *Adat Istiadat* (Royal Ceremonial Customs) as a centralized framework (Iik 1995: 5). Additionally, the social stratification system of Brunei is also constantly maintained in order to secure the cultural norms that the particular society values most. Not only it defines the differentiation and distribution of social power, but also, at one level, it is exploited to preserve certain social position and sovereignty (Jackson, 1968).

The Drafting of the 1959 Written Constitution of the State of Brunei (WCSB)

Historically, the first official Anglo-Brunei ties was commenced in 1846 (Horton 1986: 355). Despite the British's plan to incorporate the Sultanate within Sarawak—the more promising and viable state in British Borneo in comparison to Brunei and North Borneo, Brunei survived as an independent state but with presence of an appointed British Resident (Horton 1986, Hussainmiya 1995, Jamil 1998). Brunei received Malcolm McArthur, a British official in the Malayan Civil Service as the first British Resident in 1906, under the Supplementary Agreement with the British Government (Horton 1997: 225). This imposition, had marked a revolution in the monarchy's political environment as outlined below;

The Resident will be the agent and Representative of his Britanic Majesty's Government under the High Commissioner for the British Protectorate in Borneo, and his advice must be taken and acted upon on all questions in Brunei, other than those affecting the Mohammedan religion, in order that a similar system may be established to that existing in other Malay States now under protection.

(The 1905/06 Supplementary Agreement)

This agreement had not only stirred the administrative pattern of the country, but it would also would mean to limit the ruler's sovereignty in both external and internal affairs (Hussainmiya 1994: 1). Such metamorphosis would also imply the replacement of the status quo traits with a more centralized, impersonal and bureaucratic western model of governance (Hussainmiya 1994: 6). On the other hand, British's early treatment of Brunei was somewhat different to the other British protectorates, despite the *similarities* that the 1905/06 Agreement established. Hence, phrases such as **his advice must be taken and acted upon**

² A titah of His Majesty this year had referred to the concept of Melayu Islam Beraja (MIB: Malay, Islamic, Monarchy) as a coalescing manifesto that does not only able to unify the diverse groups but also as to act as a legitimate reference or basis that underlies every implementations.

³ In 1990, this concept had been emphasized as the Sultanate's national philosophy.

on all questions would be stipulated as **the Residents Advice must be asked and acted upon** in Malayan Agreements (Hussainmiya 1994: 3). As a result, Residents in Brunei had considerably more power to exercise including freedom to act than the Residents in the other protectorate states. In practice, this legitimacy was expanded to executive, financial and even legal matters.

In 1959, His Majesty Sultan Omar Ali Saifuddien III (SOAS III) and the Secretary State of the Colonies, Alan Lennox-Boyd, proposed a Written Constitution of the State of Brunei (WCSB) to reinstate the sultanate's sovereignty and so as to regain the power to control the internal affairs of the kingdom (Hussainmiya 1995: 181). Among the fundamental features of the WCSB were the legitimization of the executive authority, official language and religion of the Sultanate, as well as the reformation of the organizational structures. It was written, published and distributed among officers and related locals and due to these features, the WCSB served as a reference to matters both at the Sultanate's executive level and the social level. The target audience was mainly the people of Brunei and those who are related to the administrative affairs (both locals and expatriates); thus having it drafted as a parallel text i.e. in both Malay and English where;

In any case of any doubt, conflict or discrepancy between the Malay and English texts of this Constitution, or anything printed or written in accordance with Clause (2), the Malay text shall prevail.

(Constitutional Documents 1959: 141)

With such effort, the Sultan was hoping to override the domain of influence of the British in the internal administration of the State. Amongst the 'heavy' petition in the newly drafted Constitution was to replace the Resident with a British Adviser (Hussainmiya 1995: 17) – an appeal that was frowned upon by the British. In the Constitution, provision was made for the hierarchy of government, with the Sultan as the supreme executive authority of the land, followed by three fundamental Councils. Despite the Secretary of State request to retain as far as possible the present substantive holders of all the key posts in the name of experience and maintaining efficiency, the Sultan insisted that any appointees from both side should be qualified as long as they are proficient in Malay language. This went in parallel with the content of the Constitution where Malay would be the official language of Brunei Darussalam (Brunei Constitution 1959: 141).

In the drafting process of the Constitution, officials led by the Working Committee (WC) and the Peremptory Committee (PC) was involved to check whether the content is in tandem with the political aims of the Constitution. Although the original proposal was drafted in Malay, the committee in charge was not responsible for the quality of language used, leave alone the translation and its related processes. Four students from the Federation of Malaya, whom, by appointment was agreed by both parties (Jamil 1998: 77). It is important to note that their involvement in the translating process was independent from any nationalistic agendas as they were neither tied to Brunei nor the British Government. The criteria for the selection or appointment of the four, was, however, unclear⁴. In this regard, these translators

⁴ It was acknowledged that they were proficient in both Malay and English language as they were, at that time, studying at the University of London. Nevertheless, they were not professional translators.

aimed at making both Source Text and Target Text equifunctional in terms of fulfilling the informative purposes of the Constitution. Additionally, they also have to make the texts explicit and compelling to both government parties and the general public. Despite no translation policies and specific regulations were attached, translation (TT) was made as close as possible to the Malay version (ST) in order to maintain precision and consistency, so that both would appear simultaneously as identical copies.

Translation Equivalence and Its Utilization

According to Nida (1964 in Venuti 2000), there are three factors that can influence the process of translating, namely (1) the nature of the message, (2) the purpose or purposes of the author and, by proxy, of the translator, and (3) the type of audience. In relation to the criteria adhered to the WCSB, his notion of formal equivalence (F-E) would be appropriate to describe the translating process. Being a source-oriented type, an F-E translation is “designed to reveal as much as possible of the form and content of the original message” and these formal elements are diverse, ranging from lexico-grammatical to language use (Nida 1964 in Venuti 2000). It is also aimed at consistency in the TT especially in terms of word usage and terminologies.

Despite the environment where the WCSB occurred and the dominant type of translating process involved- consecutively legal and F-E translation, it is also crucial to note that it is not solely the nature of the text and purpose of the translator that underlie the production of the WCSB or the TT. Although both ST and TT are legal in nature, in comparison, each text has a different orientation. The ST was drawn based on the *Hukum Kanun Brunei* (The Law of Brunei) which was dated back to the 13th century, whereas the production of the TT was guided by the English Common Law framework. This poses a challenge for the translators to mediate the two texts especially with regards to the cultural and ideological basis (Hatim & Mason 1990: 223).

Use of Modalities

Despite the various interpretations and ways of ‘cataloguing’ modalities, it is also fundamental to note that they are a part of the language universal phenomena. This is due to the fact that each modality has the attribute of being semantical in nature. In other words, modalities belong to the semantic category, and a semantic category is considered to be universal (Bloomfield 1933)- it has its own lexical element that can be used, not only to portray the speaker’s attitude in relation to their utterance(s), but also as to generate or provoke the addressee(s) attention in the matters mentioned. In addition to that, the whole process (to a greater extent) is able to depict the various orientations or discourses, in relation to the matter(s) of discussion and the types of participants involved. Due to this universality, it is also inevitable that there will be various renderings of modalities in other languages- each are suited and customized according to the related language system. These various renderings may have similarities in terms of forms and functions; albeit the fine differences that each language system allows for. Hence, usage of epistemic modals might overlap with those of deontic or dynamic modals on one language, but is clearly distinguished in the others.

Analysis & Findings

Throughout the discussion of the Constitution, the ST makes use of three types of deontic modalities in their framework, i.e. *akan*, *hendaklah* and *ialah*, - all were known to have their own equivalences in the TT. However, these modalities were only rendered as *shall*, a typical modality used in English legal texts. Having different meanings and degree of assertion in each texts, these modalities carried different implications to the matters drafted in the WCSB, thus posing different effects to the audiences. For the purpose of this paper, however, only two modals will be discussed.

The Special Case of *Adalah*

One of the modals used in ST is *adalah*, as exemplified in (1). *Adalah* is one of the two special function words that is believed to have a copulative function (Uzawa 2009: 315). Conventionally considered to be a copula or a helping verb, it connects a subject with a predicate in the sense that the predicate describes or qualifies (sic) the subjects" (Nik Safiah et.al 1995: 210-215; 2010: 263). The semantic relationship between the subject and predicate, linked by the copula *adalah*, is of equivalent type. In other words, whatever notion represented by the subject will be identical with that shown by the predicate (Uzawa 2009: 320).

It resembles the English copula *is* in the sense that it is lack of semantic content, but functions to compliment other grammatical elements (Pustet 2003: 6). However, it may be sensitive to certain functions operating at other levels of language description such as in pragmatics, specifically for stylistic purposes.

(1) Kuasa memerintah yang tertinggi bagi Negara Brunei Darussalam *adalah* terletak dalam tangan Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Paduka Seri Baginda Sultan dan Yang Di-Pertuan. (Appendix B: line 4)

(1a) The supreme executive authority of Brunei Darussalam is vested in His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan. (BT/FT)

In respect of the semantic relations between the subject (the supreme executive authority) and the predicate (vested in His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan), the modal/copula *adalah* is exploited to manifest the equivalence of power that the subject and the predicate shares. Where the monolithic power of the Sultan is acknowledged as part of the nation's ideology and on a par with the sovereignty of the institution (the Sultanate), the notion of power and control is equally represented by the subject and the predicate. To reiterate Milner (1962: 113), "The raja is not only the 'key institution' but the only institution, and the role he plays in the lives of his subjects is as much moral and religious as political." This is true as the relationship (between the subject and predicate) implicates the solidity and absoluteness of the Sultan's power, as agreed and accepted by his subjects; and is linguistically reflected in the Constitution, as portrayed in (1).

In the TT, the modal/copula *adalah* is translated as *shall*, as shown in (1b). On the surface, it can be observed that it serves the purpose of commissive- there is a great assurance that the action will occur (as mentioned in 4.2.1). On that basis, *shall* here is used to express the deontic meaning (i) intention, and (iv) obligation. In terms of manifesting the first meaning, although not too visible, it is the intention

of the draft (on behalf of the Government of Brunei) to state precisely the role of every ruling Sultan and his domain of power over the Sultanate. Having this in mind, it is, thus, acceptable to say that a certain degree of F-E translation was employed in the translating process. By a certain degree, it means that the meaning captured in the ST is not fully manifested in the TT; that is, the reciprocal meaning of the Sultan and the ruling institution.

(1b) The supreme executive authority of Brunei Darussalam shall be vested in His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan. (Appendix C: line 4)

Although they are being categorized as modalities, they are relatively different in their semantical nature. Deontic modality *shall*, is referred to as an ‘event modality’ to describe the events that are not actualized, i.e. have not taken place but are merely potential (Palmer 2001: 70). The connection between this type of modality and events was clearly defined by Palmer (1979: 69) that stated that deontic modals are often used for rules and regulations. They can be used to characterize the performative acts by people in authority (Palmer 1979: 70). Furthermore, most modals reflect that the speaker is taking the responsibility for the judgment without actually being involved in the performative action(s). In fact this type of modals is among the salient features found in legal texts, as observed in the WCSB (in both ST and TT). Although usage of these modalities are predefined in accordance to the language and cultural framework where they occur, the general purpose of deontic modals in legal orientation is agreed to be a universal one; that is, to assert something and make it legitimate.

Translating *akan* as a Modal of Volition and Prediction

In the context of Malay language, the modal *akan* is commonly used as an indicator for something that should happen in the future. In Van Dijk’s (1909, 1985) *Spraakleer Der Maleische Taal* (The Malay Grammar) *akan* was considered as a verb (a forefront verb, to borrow Van Dijk’s term). It was semantically (and metaphorically) considered as an extension of *ke* (the preposition *to*), and broadly synonymous to *about*, *related to* or *from*; in the sense that there is a target/destination that needs to be reached or achieved (Van Dijk 1985: 192-194). Hence, *akan* is often used to explain the futurum and where it is used with adverbial, for instance, it is used as an emphasis marker (Van Dijk 1985; Winstedt 1927; Pearce 1944; Mees 1969).

Based on the meaning and function of *akan*, it can be established here that it is equivalent to modal *will* in English. Following Coates (1983:170), *will* can be defined in terms of four root meanings; (i) willingness, (ii) intention, (iii) predictability, and (iv) prediction. The first two can be included in the term volition- in the sense that they both “involve a modal predication describing a state (either the subject’s willingness, or his intention), whereas predictability *will* and prediction *will* carry epistemic meanings in the sense that each expresses the speaker’s confidence in the truth of the proposition (Coates 1983: 173).

In the ST, it can be deduced here that the use of *akan* as in example (2) below carries (a combination of) root meaning willingness, intention and predictability. It indicates the complete willingness of the appointed local officers to serve whole-

heartedly to His Majesty the Sultan, in terms of giving assistance and advice especially those which are related to administrative matters. Additionally, such usage also justifies the confidence of the WCSB in their appointees based on the long history of people of Brunei and their undivided loyalty to their monarch. In other words, this knowledge (and experience) justifies for the claim made in the present i.e. in terms of providing assistance and advice; and to what it is reasonable to expect of them (Palmer 1979: 57). The exploitation of *will* is also said to provide a form of imperative- it is used in social situations where different people with different level of authorities interact (Coates 1983: 172).

(2) ... bagi menjalankan kuasa memerintah dan yang *akan* membantu dan menasihatkan Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia... (Appendix B: line 8)

(2a) ... to exercise the executive authority and who will assist and advise His Majesty the Sultan... (BT/FT)

In the TT, however, *shall* is used as the equivalence of *akan* (or *will*), as in (2b). In English, where the TT operates, *shall* indicates that the event is guaranteed to take place (Palmer 1979: 74). In Searle's (1983: 166) Speech Act Theory, this type of modality is often associated with a commissive act; i.e. "where we commit ourselves to do things;" especially when it is used with either 2nd or 3rd person subjects (Palmer 2001: 73). According to Palmer (1979: 74), with *shall*, "it does not merely lay an obligation, but actually guarantees that the action will occur." In terms of its deontic or root meaning, *shall* can be expressed via (i) intention, (ii) addressee's volition, (iii) prediction, and (iv) obligation (Coates 1983: 185).

(2b) ... for the exercise of executive authority and who shall assist and advise His Majesty the Sultan... (Appendix C: line 8)

With regards to the correspondence in TT, it can be agreed here that *shall* in (10b) mainly manifests intention and obligation. It portrays the (required) intention of the appointed local officers to assist and advise His Majesty the Sultan in most national matters. In this sense, this matches the meaning of *akan* in the ST, hence, satisfies the F-E translation where both form and content of the original message is revealed (Nida 1964: 165). However, it is lacking the other fundamental trait of *akan*-- the meaning of predictability, where claim on the appointees' loyalty towards the Sultan is pragmatically mentioned. The meaning of willingness, as portrayed by *akan* in the ST is also not fully captured in the TT due to the difference of modal used; i.e. *shall*. Hence, there is no clear indication that shows the willingness of the appointees to serve for the post mentioned in the Constitution. As a result, it is fundamental to note that part of the original message in the ST is not fully corresponded or translated in the TT.

Use of shall in the TT: The Linguistic Rationale

In English, where the TT occurs, *shall* is used as a standard modal utilized in formal legal texts. This is evident from the tests run in corpus studies on modality in English (Coates 1983; Gotti 2003). It confirms that the use of *shall* as an essential element in Legal English- a feature preserved from the late Middle English texts

mainly in religious (Bible and Treatises) and legal context (Gotti 2003: 271). Over the centuries, its use both expresses obligation and futurity- a feature that is marked implicitly in regulative acts. It is regarded as being a stronger form of modal than must, and carries an 'authoritarian' connotation to it (Palmer 1990: 74). In fact, appearance of shall in the beginning of a sentence or an expression "can be taken pragmatically as a covert command" (Gotti 2003: 276). This conventional use of shall as an obligation modal has influenced the translating process in the WCSB. Adhering to the framework of an English legal text, the translator has to confine the translation piece in accordance to the TL system.

Conclusion

As a conclusion, it can be deduced that despite the attempt to produce a pseudo-parallel text, there are limitations as to which extent formal equivalence is permissible. By nature, the sample text should confine to the orientation of formal-equivalence. Nevertheless, this is not the case as there are other extratextual and intertextual that interact within the course. Elements such as context of situation, purpose of the text and forces or institutions that govern the translating process; as well as the type of audiences, are among the main factors that underpin the production of text. Additionally, intratextuality that was exercised via different lexico-grammatical and sema-pragmatic elements may reflect the complex interaction embedded in the text, which may include a mixture of cultural, historical, or ideological.

Consecutively, the societal norms that underlie the language use can be ideologically-driven; and the practice of translating is unexceptional. It is inevitably exploited as a site where power relationships and structures are explored and reflected within the cultural context. Where hidden agendas are concerned, the translator can be the authority who manipulate the various elements in the SL and translate it accordingly in the TL (Alvarez & Vidal 1996: 1). In the discussion of the WCSB, the translation of different types of modality in the ST is exploited to observe how applicable can the notion of equivalence be in a contested situation. Consecutively, it is not surprising to note that the act of translating involved was exercised as a site for social contradiction between the struggling parties; that is, the Government of Brunei and the British Government.

Finally in the domain of translation, it is proven that use of Formal Equivalence as a convention for legal texts has proven to be not always permissible. To a certain degree, the effect that the texts impose towards the audience(s) need to be considered and it is the role of the translator to mediate the discrepancy between the ST and TT. In this regard, it is undoubted that translators are expected to be equipped not only with language skills but also the schema that surrounds the texts and its production. On the other hand, it is not impossible that certain norms and practice to be tampered and violated, in fact, different language systems, as well as foreign norms and practice are often manipulated and regarded as an instrument to maintain an ideology perceived legitimately by a particular group of society.

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Appendix B

1. BAHAGIAN III

2. KUASA MEMERINTAH

3. Kuasa memerintah dan pegawai-pegawai utama.

4. (1) Kuasa memerintah yang tertinggi bagi Negara Brunei Darussalam adalah terletak dalam tangan Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Paduka Seri Baginda Sultan dan Yang Di-Pertuan.

5. (1A) Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Paduka Seri Baginda Sultan dan Yang Di-Pertuan adalah Perdana Menteri.

6. (1B) Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Paduka Seri Baginda Sultan dan Yang Di-Pertuan adalah Pemerintah Tertinggi Angkatan Bersenjata Diraja Brunei.

7. (2) Kuasa memerintah hendaklah dijalankan oleh Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Paduka Seri Baginda Sultan dan Yang Di-Pertuan.

8. (3) Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Paduka Seri Baginda Sultan dan Yang Di-Pertuan boleh melantik sebilangan orang Menteri dan Timbalan Menteri dari kalangan warganegara Negara Brunei Darussalam yang akan bertanggungjawab hanya kepada Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Paduka Seri Baginda Sultan dan Yang Di-Pertuan sahaja bagi menjalankan kuasa memerintah dan yang akan membantu dan menasihatkan Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Paduka Seri Baginda Sultan dan Yang Di-Pertuan dalam menunaikan kuasa memerintah Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Paduka Seri Baginda Sultan dan Yang Di-Pertuan.

9. (4) Dimansuhkan.

10. (5) Lantikan Menteri dan Timbalan Menteri hendaklah dibuat dari kalangan bangsa Melayu yang beragama Islam,

11. melainkan jika Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Paduka Seri Baginda Sultan dan Yang Di-Pertuan memutuskan sebaliknya.

12. (6) Menteri-Menteri dan Timbalan-Timbalan Menteri hendaklah dilantik oleh Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Paduka Seri Baginda Sultan dan Yang Di-Pertuan dengan Surat Perintah yang ditandatangani oleh Baginda dan dicap dengan Mohor Kerajaan dan hendaklah memegang jawatan bagi tempoh selama 5 tahun atau tempoh lain,

13. dan atas syarat-syarat sebagaimana yang mungkin ditentukan oleh Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Paduka Seri Baginda Sultan dan Yang Di-Pertuan,

14. dan orang-orang yang sama boleh dilantik semula,

15. apabila lantikannya itu ramat tempohnya,

16. bagi tempoh selanjutnya sebagaimana yang ditentukan dalam Surat Perintah yang membuat lantikannya:

17. Dengan syarat bahawa Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Paduka Seri Baginda Sultan dan Yang Di-Pertuan boleh membatalkan lantikan mana-mana Menteri atau Timbalan Menteri pada bila-bila masa tanpa menunjukkan sebab.

18. (7) Dimansuhkan.

19. (8) Dimansuhkan.

20. (9) Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Paduka Seri Baginda Sultan dan Yang Di-Pertuan boleh dengan Perintah yang disiarkan dalam Warta Kerajaan menentukan tugas-tugas,

21. kuasa-kuasa dan kewajipan-kewajipan Menteri-Menteri dan Timbalan-Timbalan Menteri,

22. dan Menteri-menteri dan Timbalan-Timbalan Menteri tersebut hendaklah menunaikan tugas-tugas,

23. kuasa-kuasa dan kewajiban-kewajiban mereka menurut Perintah-Perintah tersebut:

24. Dengan syarat bahawa Kebawah Duli Yang Maha Mulia Paduka Seri Baginda Sultan dan Yang Di-Pertuan boleh memindahkan sebarang tugas,

25. kuasa dan kewajiban yang diberikan kepada mana-mana orang oleh Surat-Surat Perintah yang ada kepada orang atau pihak berkuasa lain sebagaimana yang mungkin ditentukan oleh Perintah tersebut pada bila-bila masa tanpa menunjukkan sebab.

Appendix C

1. PART III

2. EXECUTIVE AUTHORITY

3. Executive authority and principal officers.

4. (1) The supreme executive authority of Brunei Darussalam shall be vested in His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan.

5. (1A) His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan shall be the Prime Minister.

6. (1B) His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan shall be the Supreme Commander of the Royal Brunei Armed Forces.

7. (2) The Executive authority shall be exercised by His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan.

8. (3) His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan may appoint from among citizens of Brunei Darussalam any number of Ministers and Deputy Ministers who shall be responsible solely to His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan for the exercise of the executive authority and who shall assist and advise His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan in the discharge of His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan's executive authority.

9. (4) Repealed.

10. (5) The appointment of Ministers and Deputy Ministers shall be made from among the Malay race professing the Islamic Religion,

11. save where His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan otherwise decides.

12. (6) The Ministers and Deputy Ministers shall be appointed by His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan by Instrument under His Sign Manual and the State Seal and shall hold office for a period of 5 years or such other period,

13. and on such terms as His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan may determine,

14. and the same persons may be re-appointed,

15. when such appointment expires,

16. for a further period as specified in the Instrument appointing him:

17. Provided that His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan may revoke the appointment of any Minister or Deputy Minister at any time without showing cause.

18. (7) Repealed.

19. (8) Repealed.

20. (9) His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan may by Order published in the Gazette specify the functions, powers and duties of the Ministers and Deputy Ministers,

21. and such Ministers and Deputy Ministers shall discharge their functions,
22. powers and duties in accordance with such Orders:
23. Provided that His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan may transfer any functions,
24. powers and duties conferred on any person by the existing Instruments to such other person or authority as may be specified by such Order at any time without showing cause.

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LINGUISTICALLY-RELEVANT STUDY OF VALUES IN BRITISH ADVERTISING DISCOURSE OF THE EIGHTEENTH AND NINETEENTH CENTURIES

LARISA KOCHETOVA

Abstract

The received view has it that advertising discourse and values that underlie advertising appeals are linked in many ways to contribute to the pragmatic purpose of advertising. However, linguistic research into values as they are embedded in advertising discourse still remains rather limited, both synchronically and diachronically. The value analysis proposed in the paper follows a text-based procedure and includes analysis of linguistic units to map out a set of dominant values employed in British advertising discourse throughout late eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Drawing on evidence retrieved from advertisements published in the British newspapers in the period between 1788 and 1900 the study seeks to explore values in diachronic perspective. Through close study of lexical units relevant to representations of values on the textual level a set of values used for persuasion in British advertising discourse in the period under investigation is identified and their distribution in the collection of advertisements is revealed. For the purposes of our study we selected advertisements from random issues of British newspapers with a lapse of between thirty-five and forty years. The number of ads found for every chosen year is seventy five. The study reveals that advertisers relied on a limited set of values to persuade the recipient to buy products. This fact can be accounted for by peculiarities of consumption of that period that was producer/seller oriented and potential buyers relied on the producer/seller for quality of goods, choice and prices quoted. In early twentieth century when consumption became product-oriented advertisers started to use appeals to values related to the product features and benefits. The analysis of the value content in diachronic perspective proves to deepen our understanding of persuasion in advertising.

“COLLOQUIAL METAPHOR AND IDIOM: A CASE FOR CONVERGENCE IN FINANCIAL NEWS MEDIA DISCOURSE?”

MICHAEL O'MARA SHIMEK

Abstract

From a cognitive linguistics perspective this paper presents a structural analysis and justification for “colloquial idiom and metaphor” derived from the concepts of colloquial metaphor, idiom, linguistic metaphor, fixed expressions, and non-compositional language based on the underlying hypothesis that such concepts are influenced by subjacent conceptual frameworks that determine meaning and may influence use. Applied in the context of stock market news media discourse, and to assist both students and practitioners of financial journalism in their study of the role of semantic frames in language use, it is argued that such an alternative label for idiomatic expressions about the stock market in English financial news media may 1) more appropriately reflect the influence of conceptual metaphor in determining and predicting meaning in idiomatic expressions and 2) provide consistent criteria for recognising idioms themselves as metaphors, regardless of the degree of meaning derivation and predictability described in 1 towards attaining higher degrees of ethical quality in financial news media sources.

Introduction

Metaphor provides insight into how we think and understand abstract concepts in Economics like the stock market while at the same time suggesting ways of understanding some of their basic governing features and principles. In financial news media, metaphors also assist news reporters to quickly and succinctly provide lecturers with insight on specific events at Wall Street, and in passing, promote specific views and takes on how and under what conditions the stock market operates optimally. In the cognitive linguistics tradition, metaphors about the stock market provide images of the stock market; they act as rhetorical communicative tools that work on different levels of interpretation when processed by readers. The vast array of metaphors used to communicate stock market events, and the nature itself of a stock market, range from metaphors that describe the market as a living entity, to those that understand it in terms of a machine or even a weather event. They help to illustrate the fact that the economy and the stock market, as it is reflected in the media, is a diversified phenomenon whose linguistic and semantic analysis must necessarily involve an array of methodologies and epistemological traditions that examine at many levels. Diversified approaches have attempted to do this ranging from descriptive cognitive methodologies and more specific surface level textual linguistic analysis can be found throughout Discourse Analysis and its sub-disciplines. Such analysis of use and meaning are useful in exploring how stock market language in the media embeds not only potentially politically oriented views about how to regulate or not the stock market and the economy as a whole, but it also demonstrates how ideology, as Lakoff and Johnson (1980) defend in Conceptual Metaphor Theory, is inseparable from metaphor. It is transmitted

through journalism prose where issues such the ethics of centralized planning or market economies compete against one another on the semantics and pragmatics language battlefield.

For students learning about metaphor, and some of its more colloquial manifestations in the media about economics, much has yet to be explored. It is a worthy endeavor for political science students who are interested in the effects of mass media on public opinion; it affords many possibilities for exploring the central role of language use in the media in developing individual interpretations of events through the fabrication of “common sense” conceptual frameworks. Studying metaphors, and some of the other linguistic elements that can be associated with it at the textual level, particularly at the colloquial level, as will be discussed in this paper, afford students the possibility to learn how to adapt their communicative patterns to make economic topics more understandable to a wide variety of readers. Learning about the rhetorical possibilities of metaphor and how they are reflected by a range of linguistic devices engages students in inquiry and dialogue on specific themes surrounding how economic events can be most efficiently communicated while at the same time opening dialogue surrounding the questions updating linguistic taxonomies and they ways that they can be related to one another. Such dialogue permits students to engage “in continuous conversation, testing one another, discovering ...hidden presuppositions, changing our minds because we have listened to the voices of our fellows” (Amelie Oksenberg Rorty in McCluskey 1998, p.163), towards the ultimate purpose of contributing to the common good by more trustworthy and balanced financial news reporting.

Presently, a variety of terms exist for those interested in studying metaphor in more localized textual contexts. Such areas are familiar and include “Colloquial metaphor” (Nosek, 1969), “colloquial idiom (Ball, 1972)”, “Fixed Expressions and Idioms (FEI’s) (Moon, 1998)”, “idioms” (Davies, 1982) “Figures of speech” to name just a few. However, if considered from a Cognitive Linguistics perspective, there is something which unites them all – the central role of conceptual metaphor in how they are processed and understood within the constraints of individual language use, or idiolect, within specific cultural-linguistic frameworks. Such ideas have been advanced by Gibbs and O’Brien (1990), to be followed by Nayak and Gibbs (1991); Pfaff, Gibbs, and Johnson 1997; Cacciari and Levorato (1998), and, Guo (2007) in FLT applications. O’Mara-Shimek (2007) proposed the term “colloquial idioms/metaphors” when analyzing various structures with different levels of non-compositionality from a translation perspective.

Part of the rationale behind this research was something Raymond Gibbs once reflected on concerning some of the pitfalls around studying metaphor: “I often encounter scholars, including those who study metaphor and those fearful to do so, voicing concern that there are actually too many different theories of metaphor (p. 29). A metaphorical understanding of the inspiration behind idioms would, perhaps, make the study of language use in financial journalism more accessible for those who do not have a background in linguistics yet could benefit from rudimentary understandings of the role of semantics in set-phrases and other fixed expressions, for example, have on projecting specific visions upon readers. It would give them the opportunity to go beyond an understanding of these expressions as mere “typified” or “institutionalized language” for financial journalism.

This paper will advance the concept of “colloquial metaphor and idiom” as way of recognizing the common and necessary metaphorical rooting that exists along the spectrum of many different kinds of figurative expressions with varying degrees of non-compositionality in financial news media texts. “Colloquial metaphor and idiom” is intended to respect the research tradition concerning idiom, while reflecting the central role of metaphor in idiom while offering insight on questions concerning figurative meaning in idioms and other lexicalized structures. “Colloquial metaphor and idioms” is essentially a Cognitive Linguistics-inspired tool to offer insight into the unified nature of a number of ways to understand an array of non-compositional expressions in English to describe the stock market at the colloquial level. It suggests in the end that such a categorization, apart from being a useful tool for researchers to employ to increase textual search effectiveness, It will provide evidence why idioms and other collocational constructions can be appropriately understood as metaphors, though not always the other way around. Finally, this research uses Gibb’s (1999) own “six guidelines for research” to demonstrate the value of a convergence of idiomatic specific metaphor terminology, showing, how Gibb’s first prerequisite, “distinguish[ing] different kinds of metaphor in language” actually reinforces the validity of this model and is capable of respectfully integrating all the essential aspects of their components along with their research traditions.

Theoretical Framework

“Colloquial metaphor and idiom” is based on upon the assumption that idiomatic expressions, or lexicalized structures displaying varying degrees of non-compositionality and/or isomorphic semantic transfer, emphasizes the predicable role that is played by conceptual metaphor in the images that are processed in speakers. What unifies them is that they display similar traits, and arrays of some intrinsic metaphorical qualities that make them function at the figurative level along a spectrum of linguistic metaphor themselves, regardless of the degree that they are influenced by conceptual metaphor.

The aim of this paper was inspired by Lakoff’s (1990) “cognitive” or “generalization commitment” for research involving: “(a) a commitment to seek general principles governing all aspects of human language (the generalization commitment, and (b) a commitment to make their accounts of human language consistent with what is generally known about human cognition (the cognitive commitment)”. As a coherent theory from a semantics perspective, justification can also be found in Lyons:

Ideally, any good theory of semantics should fit in with every day, non-technical accounts of descriptive meaning; it should not be in conflict with common sense accounts of the kind which non-philosophers and non-linguists give; and it should be empirically plausible and should-to use a traditional expression-save the appearances. (Lyons, 1995, p. 92)

Gibbs and O’Brien (1990) demonstrated that understanding of figurative expressions among participants was notably similarly, even with slight changes to the surface structure of the expression, which provides evidence that understanding of these expressions was primarily centered upon underlying metaphors. Along similar

lines, understanding of idiomatic expressions through metaphoricity with attention to phonological reduction and word length (Jurafsky et al. 2001; Berkenfield, 2000).

Idiolect

Idiolect refers to patterns of everyday language use. It refers to the ways that language and the metaphorical frameworks that it makes manifest, characterizes specific communicative identities within broad cultural contexts and may also include how language is spoken, pronunciation and intonation. Idiolect can be considered as akin to the personal “fingerprint” all individuals have and use when they engage in communicative practices.

Non-compositional language

The principle of non-compositionality is based on the premise that understanding of the total cannot be achieved via and understanding of the individual component parts of a linguistic expression. This is a central aspect of idiomatic expressions, as an understanding of the component elements in the expression “bull market” cannot lead one, without prior cultural knowledge, to know that it refers to positive market scenarios. See *Colloquial metaphor* (below)

Fixed Expressions

Fixed Expressions, or Fixed Expressions and Idioms (FEI’s) can be explored through research carried out by Rosamund Moon in what she calls “Fixed Expressions and idioms (FEI’s)” which she uses more or less as a general term to include “frozen collocations”, “grammatically ill-formed collocations”, “proverbs”, “routine formulae”, “sayings” and “similes”. She refers to expressions in a general sense as “strings” , According to Moon (1998: 22) and distinguishes between metaphors, “pure idioms” and other “strings”: “strings classified as metaphors are non-compositional because of their semantics: they include pure idioms.” She postulates a sub-classification of metaphors based on meaning transparency “where such classification is subjective and represents a continuum rather than discreet categories”. Her classification (transparent: “alarm bells ring”, “behind someone’s back”, etc. semi-transparent: “grasp the nettle”, “on an even keel”, etc. opaque: “bite the bullet”, “kick the bucket”, etc.).

Following such logic, fixed expressions exist along a spectrum of semantic opaqueness. So, in a sense, one could say that some are more “metaphorical” in the figurative sense than others: in a sense of transparency, where meaning can be more readily derived with the help of the literal signification of component words. The three general groups that Moon proposes for metaphor is that which this study contemplates for defining and limiting the theoretical corpus of “colloquial metaphor and idiom” using her three-tier model of transparent, semi-transparent, opaque as evidenced in figure 1.

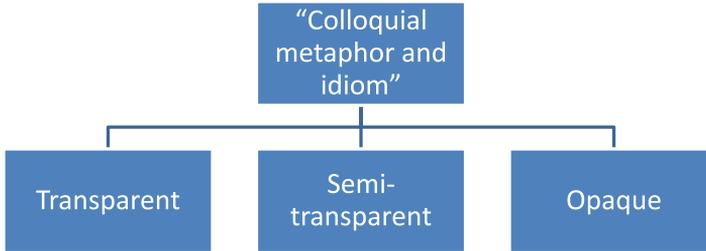


Figure 1. Moon's classification of metaphor

The first group of idiomatic metaphors let their general ideas be grasped without any specialized knowledge, such as when stocks “skate on thin ice”, or when investors “play the market” meaning to engage in trading. This grasping of the general idea comes from the real world knowledge that receivers have from experience: because some have either literally skated on thin ice and subsequently fallen through into the dangerous freezing water, or might have heard about it in some way, and therefore, “know” it to be considered a negative behavioral practice with potentially dire consequences. With the second example, it is not difficult to recognize the playing aspect of stock market trading because of the activity and possibility of gains and losses which for some comprises a form of entertainment.

In “skate on thin ice” example, one can infer to some degree that the nature of the expression is negative; one can also infer from the image that the protagonist is very close to experiencing negative circumstances: little would it take for him or her to “fall through the ice” (a plunge in stocks) assuming that it is in winter time when water surface areas are frozen on the top; exposure to waters of such low temperature have been known to cause hypothermia and other disturbances leading to “death”. This knowledge is applied to the expression and is processed by the reader but is depended upon localized cultural context: if winter never existed in the world, or cold for that matter, one wouldn't understand what it means without this specialized knowledge, or, knowledge that does not come from direct experience.

The second group is formed by idioms that cannot be completely or correctly understood without necessary complementary specialized knowledge. Consider when stocks are “on an even keel”, or when investors “throw in the towel”, etc. Idioms in this group may be easily misunderstood without being familiar with aspects of its context; divergent interpretations may be easily produced. This extra-contextual knowledge is also important to eliminate any possible connotations that might be readily conjured by users not familiar with its domain. The last group of idioms is composed of metaphors that depend completely on such contextual information as they are completely non-compositional.

Metaphor and linguistic metaphor

Used frequently in a general sense and stemming from the Classical Rhetorical tradition (Aristotle, *On Rhetoric*), the classical sense of metaphor is that it is a member of a larger group of figures of speech that involve many types of modifications from literal or non-figurative language. They can be divided into two

groups, namely, *schemes* and *tropes*, where, *scheme*, comes from the Greek *schēma* which means form or shape; and *tropein* which supposes a change in the customary and principle meaning of a word. The classical approach is similar to literary and poetic approaches to language-based metaphor where it provides a linguistic base for metaphorical reasoning, for example “teeth” and “pearls”.

However, Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980) provides a cognitive focus for language: Abstract concepts, or domains, are understood in terms of more concrete and specific ideas. The Source Domain is the conceptual domain from which metaphorical expressions are created (more tangible). The Target Domain is the conceptual domain that is trying to be understood (more abstract).

Kövecses (2002: 4) offers another useful explanation: “...metaphor is defined as understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain... CONCEPTUAL DOMAIN (A) IS CONCEPTUAL DOMAIN (B)...”, where a Conceptual domain is “any coherent organization of experience”; where conceptual metaphor “consists of two conceptual domains, in which one domain is understood in terms of another...”; and where metaphorical linguistic expressions “are words or other linguistic expressions that come from the language or terminology of the more concrete conceptual domain (i.e., domain(B)). Thus, all the expressions...that have to do with life and that come from the domain of JOURNEY are linguistic metaphorical expressions - the corresponding conceptual metaphor that they made manifest is LIFE IS A JOURNEY”. Source domains can be considered in the following terms: “The conceptual domain from which we draw metaphorical expressions to understand another conceptual domain”; this study accepts target domain to be “the domain that we try to understand through the use of the source domain...thus, life, arguments, love, theory, ideas, social organizations, and others are target domains, while journeys, war buildings, food, plants, and others are source domains.” Therefore, Colloquial metaphors are metaphors that are used in and typically found in informal dialogue and other communication discourse contexts.

When metaphors are used to describe economics imperfect relationships of meaning are constructed: Some aspects of the concept are included while others are excluded. This is what Lakoff and Johnson called “hiding” and “highlighting” (1980). From such a perspective, style and contents cannot be separated. Metaphors are also emotionally charged and subtle which impact readers from a classical rhetorical perspective based on *pathos*:

According to McCloskey (1983: 507) “Metaphors, further, evoke attitudes that are better kept in the open and under the control of reasoning. This is plain in the ideological metaphors popular with parties: the invisible hand is so very discrete, so soothing, that we might be in-clined to accept its touch without protest”.

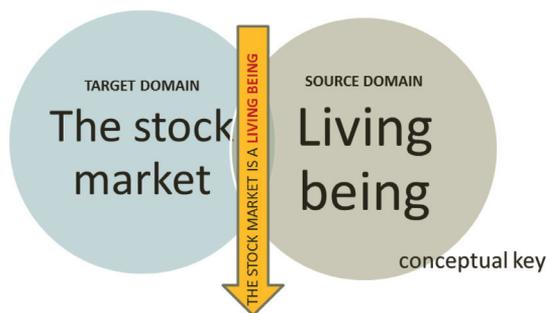


Figure 2. Target and source domains and the stock market

Figure 2 displays the genesis of metaphors for the stock market. In this figure, the target domain of the stock market is paired with that of a living being. There has taken place an ontological event in deciding that the essence, or nature, of the stock market has been manifested in terms of a living creature. This joining of concepts produces the conceptual key THE STOCK MARKET IS A LIVING BEING. This underlying understanding of what the stock market is in its most basic form engenders conceptual metaphors such as TRADE IS PHYSICAL CONFLICT. At the textual-linguistic level, this relationship is reflected in **linguistic metaphors** (in bold) such as “The dollar retreated for the fourth consecutive day on Wall Street”, or “The Dow suffered another blow on Wednesday, reeling from last week”.

The conceptual ontology of conceptual keys may represent competing epistemological visions of the essence of the stock market. This is exemplified in the opposing conceptual key THE STOCK MARKET IS A MACHINE as evidenced in linguistic metaphors such as “gears”, “wheels”, and “brakes”, as opposed to the linguistic metaphors that are inspired by the conceptual metaphor THE STOCK MARKET IS A LIVING BEING (see figure 3). Another non-living conceptual key for the stock market is THE STOCK MARKET IS WEATHER reflected in linguistic metaphors such as “storm”, or “cyclone”.

Metaphorical Ontology	Conceptual metaphor	lexicographical / linguistic metaphor
Animate-biological	THE STOCK MARKET IS A LIVING CREATURE	“Nerves”, “fight”, “assault” ...
Inanimate-mechanistic	THE STOCK MARKET IS A MACHINE	“Gears”, “wheels”, “brakes”...

Figure 3. Linguistic metaphor genesis

Of interest in these conceptual keys is the competing epistemological framework that is represented behind these metaphors that suggest ideologically consistent solutions to, for example, a stock market crash scenario: In stock market crash situations decisions must be made: i.e., intervention or non-intervention. How the stock market is understood and how stock market “problems” are understood will make some “solutions” seem more “appropriate”, “logical” or “common sense” (O’Mara-Shimek, et al, 2015).

The essence of metaphor from a cognitive semantics point of view is that they are central to thought. Deignan (2005: 13) summarizes these as “Metaphors structure thinking; Metaphors structure knowledge; Metaphor is central to abstract knowledge; Metaphor is grounded in physical experience; Metaphor is ideological”. From such a point of view, metaphor can also be understood as akin to frames whose similarities are readily apparent in the following quote from Geore Lakoff’s *Don’t Think of an Elephant* (2001: xv):

Frames are mental structures that shape the way we see the world. As a result, they shape the goals we seek, the plans we make, the way we act, and what counts as a good or bad outcome of our actions. In politics, our frames shape our social policies and the institutions we form to carry out policies. To change our frames is to change all of this. Reframing is social change. ...You can’t see or hear frames. They are part of what cognitive scientists call the “cognitive unconscious”-structures in our brains that we cannot consciously access, but know by their consequences: the way we reason and what counts as common sense. We also know frames through language. All words are defined relative to conceptual frames. When you hear a word, its frame (or collection of frames) is activated in your brain...Because language activates frames, new language is required for new frames. Thinking differently requires speaking differently.

All of this comes to say that conceptual metaphor and how it is expressed via ontology transmits values. In other words, Ideology is manifested in metaphor through ontology, or the form, or essence that metaphors are given which allow them to be understood and categorized according to their natures. For example in the conceptual key, THE STOCK MARKET IS A LIVING BEING. Specifically, ideology is made manifest in metaphor through entailments, or associated secondary concepts that accompany metaphors. “When Wall Street sneezes, the world gets the flu”. Understanding the stock market in terms of a living creature entails that some of the characteristics of a living creature are carried over and applied to the stock market. For example, “intervention” to “save life”. These entailments contrast with those produced by the metaphor of the stock market as a machine or natural weather phenomenon. For example, non-intervention (internal regulation).

While a number of authors have offered interesting nuances, such as Kövecses and Szabó (1996:331) talk about how access to meaning is achieved through the bridging of gaps between different domains, providing motivation for understanding, and complementarily, Gibbs (1994: 290) who argues that Conceptual Metaphors reflect psychological understanding of reality, such as those related to body experiences: “people create embodied, metaphorical representations from them phenomenological experiences of the body and their sensory-motor interactions with the physical world” (metaphor and culture, in *Metaphor in Cognitive Linguistics*, p. 152.) promoting a slightly different perspective on understanding “conceptual” and “to recognize that cognition arises, and is continually re-experienced, when body interacts with the cultural world” (162). In other words cultural contexts provide external variables that may alter qualify and interpret cognition which is culturally dependant, or culturally expressed.

Colloquial metaphor

The term “colloquial metaphor” has been used before, especially in popular online sources such as Answers.com, etc. It was found to be used in some non-linguistic academic contexts (legal) such as Tara Smith’s article “Why originalism won’t die – Common mistakes in competing theories of judicial interpretation”. However, generally speaking, “Colloquial metaphor” was not accepted into use in the literature, perhaps for its lack of consideration of “idiom” and the large body of literature that uses this last term. In this sense, the advantage of “colloquial metaphor and idiom” is that it respectfully integrates all research into idiom while highlighting its fundamental relationship to metaphor. Secondly, the addition of “colloquial” does much to remind one that these elements pertain to informal registers, and are frequently found in the day to day speech patterns and conversations of people as they seek negotiate sense, a feature found frequently in financial news reporting. Consider the following headlines: “Stocks Change their Fuel” (Cheng, 2013); ANIMALS, “Is stocks’ recent run start of second leg of bull?” (Shell, 2013), “Bull runs free in African stock markets” (*USAToday*, 2013) and “stocks claw back from steep losses” (Rooney, 2013). West Chester University’s ESL program (<http://esladulteducation.webs.com/idiomlesson.htm>) provides the following explanation regarding the non-compositional nature of idioms colloquial metaphors:

An idiom is generally a colloquial metaphor — a term which requires some foundational knowledge, information, or experience, to use only within a culture where parties must have common reference. Idioms are therefore not considered a part of the language, but rather a part of the culture. As cultures are typically localized, idioms are often not useful outside of that local context. However some idioms can be more universally used than others, and they can be easily translated, metaphorical meaning can be more easily deduced...While many idioms are clearly based in conceptual metaphors such as “time as a substance”, “time as a path”, “love as war” or “up is more”, the idioms themselves are often not particularly essential, even when the metaphors themselves are. For example, “spend time”, “battle of the sexes”, and “back in the day” are idiomatic and based in essential metaphors.

Idiom

Concerning idioms, non-compositional word combinations with varying degrees of semantic opaqueness (synonymous with non-compositionality), this study takes the position that all idioms are metaphors, being the product of Conceptual Metaphors, but not all metaphors are idioms, perhaps, through lack of institutionalization through use. Although some exceptions exist, idioms generally cannot be transformed nor have their elements substituted without loss of idiomatic/ figurative/ metaphorical meaning. In other words, generally when idioms are explored, it can be determined that they have metaphorical derivation in their meaning to some extent through the presence of deeper semantic structures such as conceptual metaphor. A useful base definition would be the following (<http://esladulteducation.webs.com/idiomlesson.htm>):

An idiom is a group of words in which the meaning of this group is different than what would be expected. If the actual words of an idiom were understood as they appear, the entire meaning would be changed and the group of words would make no sense in its context as if it was understood as to be an idiom. When a person uses an idiom, the listener might take the actual meaning wrong if he or she has not heard this figure of speech before.

O'Mara Shimek (2007) agglomerates three general characteristics of idioms to assist in recognizing them in text along with their distinguishing properties:

1. Their meaning cannot be deduced from their components or any arrangement thereof, and must be learned as a whole. If one were to interpret 'to break a leg' solely on the basis of its components it might be very difficult to realize that the actual meaning is positive, meaning to have a good time, not incur injury, especially when used in the imperative. Likewise, nowhere in the expression 'to pull someone's leg' there appears any element that would suggest joking, or specifically, having someone believe things that are not true.
2. None of their constituents may be substituted with words of similar meaning. For example, if one were to substitute the word 'fracture' for 'break' in to 'break a leg', the meaning would be lost. Likewise, upon being the object of joking one could not say that he or she had had his or her leg 'stretched'.
3. Finally, idioms cannot be syntactically modified. One would probably not be understood if one were to say 'I had my leg broken' meaning 'I had a good time'; it would be similarly confusing to say 'I had my leg pulled yesterday' if one were to communicate that they were joked with yesterday.

Similar are frozen metaphors whose meaning is discernable as they are understood as products of base conceptual metaphors as organizers of knowledge: frozen metaphors are idioms that comply with all the above discussed restrictions that make it an idiom, but also allow for certain elements to be substituted without losing the sense of the idiom. For example, you can say that someone has "one foot in the grave" just as easily as having "both feet in the tomb" and be "understood", not taking into account pragmatic and possible aesthetic considerations.

Our theoretical corpus of "colloquial metaphor and idiom" would further be limited by the suggestion of the following requirements (Paraphrase of Rosamund Moon. Fixed expressions and idioms in English. p. 7)

1. Institutionalization. (Schweigert, 1986, 1991) This seeks to determine when a string (series of words) has found its way into accepted use and is recognized. Institutionalization may not refer always to specific existing institutions, rather it may also refer to common and informal use. This category is largely determined by frequency and is re-enforced by corpus linguistics studies.
2. Lexicogrammatical fixedness. Here Moon describes what she calls "patterns, preferences, or voice". Although she states that variation

is common, when strings fulfill this category it is because they have undergone certain property changes, specific limitations in the way that they can be formulated and used that effect primarily aspect, mood, and/or voice.

3. Non-compositionality. Most applicable to our own study of *The Catcher in the Rye*, this category describes instances and degrees of non-literal and/or non structural understanding of strings. Put another way, strings that fulfill this question are understood in non-literal, or figurative ways in holistic terms.

Cruse (2000:73) makes an interesting point concerning lack of sense in idioms: idioms, in many cases, do not mean anything at all, achieving meaning through interaction with other elements of the sentence: "Although it is not true of all idioms, it seems fruitless to ask what *pull* and *leg* mean in *to pull someone's leg* : they do not mean anything, just as the *m-* of *mat* does not mean anything - all the meaning of the phrasal unit attaches to the phrase, and none to its constituents."

All metaphors are generally capable of engendering in their expression idioms that are thereby comprehensible by users based on the presence of these conceptual metaphors. Idiomatic expressions express this understanding, and, as Gibbs (1999: 149) states, "preserve the cognitive topology of these embodied, image-schematic source domains." (Gibbs, metaphor and culture, in metaphor in cognitive linguistics, p. 149). This structuring of metaphor is comprehensible, compatible and fruitful with Fauconnier and Turner's idea of Blending (1997; 1998) to get at the interactional nature of these conceptual metaphors and how they affect understanding, and use of idioms in discourse. In other words, when considered from a Blending perspective, the human brain is equipped with processing devices that allow for the contextual interpretation of non-compositional units. Even more, such processing would allow for educated guesses as to the sense of new or unusual idiomatic expressions. (p. 162)

Idiom and metaphor

Recognizing the Conceptual metaphor base as motivating and predicting idiom assists in the challenging task of categorizing along the non-compositional spectrum. In posterior work (2006: 19) Knowles and Moon affirm the close relationship of idiom to metaphor:

Idioms are conventionalized phrases such as *spill the beans* or *jump the gun*, where the meaning of the whole phrase is different from the meaning which might be produced by interpreting the individual words in the phrase. These examples are metaphorical, and we will restrict our use of the term idiom to figurative phrases of this kind (idiom is sometimes used more generally to refer to any fixed phrase).

In addition, the authors affirm a relationship between metaphor and the prediction of mental imagery used in idiom: "however, when we consider idioms

from a metaphorical point of view, it is often possible to make sense of their idiomatic meanings, to appreciate how these meanings developed, and even to have mental images based on their metaphors" (2006:19).

Process

For "colloquial metaphor and idiom" the same restrictions as the previous authors are maintained yet it will be suggested to distinguish without separating that which forms an integral part of most non-compositional constructions along the idiomatic spectrum. In other words, fixed phrases, in all their variants are not included, and can be studied adequately as such; which does not say that certain metaphorical isomorphic processes do not come into play in their use and understanding on the part of communicators, especially in informal communicative contexts.

Certain types of fixed expressions will not be contemplated, at least initially: A challenging aspect of establishing, in this case, a theoretical corpus of "colloquial metaphor and idiom" would mean distinguishing it from fixed expressions that include many types of lexical-grammatical constructions. Fixed expressions constitute a very large group of word combinations that form the bridge (or border, or porous membrane) between "colloquial metaphor and idiom" and other aspects of non-compositional language. What makes these elements fixed expressions is the primacy of their lexical-grammatical fixedness. In any case, for many researchers, there is and always seems to have been many "grey areas", the borders between fixed expressions and non-compositional language. Examples include collocations and restricted collocations, words that frequently occur together, such as "high" and "speed" more than "great" and "speed" for the way stocks are selling in terms of frequency and "volume", itself a metaphor; this comes even though "great" and "high" have similar semantic value but are simply not found together on a regular basis, at least in stock market reporting. Also proverbs, similes, etc. and what Moon (1998) calls simple formulae such as "you know", "and all", that in addition serve pragmatic navigational tools in discourse. Also set phrases with differing degrees of statistical co-occurrence between their components resulting from tradition, and include terms, proverbs, and collocations found at the syntactic, semantic and lexico-semantic levels.

A key component of metaphor is compositionality where, according to Cruse (2000:67): "the meaning of a grammatically complex form is a compositional function of the meanings of its grammatical constituents...This incorporates three separate claims: 1. the meaning of a complex expression is completely **determined** by the meanings of its constituents; 2. The meaning of a complex expression is completely **predictable** by general rules from the meanings of its constituents; 3. Every grammatical constituent has a meaning which contributes to the meaning of the whole...(claim 2 incorporates claim 1, but claim 1 could be true without claim 2 being true. Claim 3 is presupposed by the other two, as they are formulated above.)... What is the rationale behind this principle? It derives mainly from two deeper presuppositions. The first is that language has an infinite number of grammatical sentences. This supposition can be traced to the work of Noam Chomsky and his idea of Transformational Grammar, in which limited grammatical resource systems are capable of producing limitless expressive combinations, thus descriptively

“adequate” (see *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*, P. 8); the second is that language has unlimited expressive power, that is, anything which can be conceived of can be expressed in language.” (Cruse, 2000, p. 67). Therefore, non-compositional expressions are expressions whose meaning are not derived from their individual semantic constituents. There are many degrees of non-compositionality in such expressions.

This research would suggest that a wide spectrum of semantic compositionality exists where word combinations have varying degrees of semantic transparency. For example, when stocks “skate on thin ice” is more transparent than when a particular stock or investment fund, for example, has “kicked the bucket”, both understood in the general sense as being figures of speech following Corbett and Connors’ understanding as any kind of parting from what they call “normal” language use; such “normal” use understood as “the ordinary mode of speaking or writing.” (See Corbett and Connors, p. 379). This research takes “ordinary” to be synonymous to “normal” in a statistical sense of occurrence, and understands both to literal, and/or compositional language. In their applied Classical Rhetorical research context, this group is further divided into two groups: *schēma*, meaning “form” or “shape” involving changing the “ordinary pattern or arrangement of words” and *tropēin*, meaning “to turn”, referring to changing the “ordinary and principal signification of a word”. Corbett and Connors like to refer to these modifications as transferences, in both meaning and order, the changes in meaning being the result of their being presented differently, which serves this investigation for its clarity.

Users share common references within a given culture, and at least historically, a given physical space, or localization; their use also contributes to a sense of pertinence within cultural systems, this knowledge being based on shared experience, information and references. For this reason, the idioms in question found in the book could be referred to as colloquial metaphors as some authors prefer: “metaphors” for the aforementioned semantic arguments and “colloquial” because they are metaphors that are found in more informal registers, quite possibly in this case, elements of slang. The term “colloquial idiom” seems to be preferable in some research contexts. In books that have been published on the subject the term “Colloquial idioms” seems preferable, although the sources are somewhat dated, such as in *A Practical Guide to Colloquial Idiom*, by W. J. Ball (1972), and *English Colloquial Idioms*, by Fredrick T. Wood (1976).

Distinguish different kinds of metaphor in language

In spite of Gibbs own questioning of the necessity for such complexity and diversity in the theories surrounding metaphor, his first guideline for studying them is to not generalize and fail to recognize the multifaceted nature in different use contexts. He offers the following advice: “my recommendation is that scholars must be careful to acknowledge the limits of their theories and to recognize that their accounts of metaphor most often are limited to particular kinds of metaphor” (1999 p. 36).

What that means for this study a differentiation between the forms that he lists, forms that are metaphoric or have metaphor meaning processing such as proverbial expressions, and Turner’s (1991) “xyz metaphors” such as “wit is the salt of conversation” and “bread is the staff of life” where different conceptual

domains intersect and colloquial metaphor - idiomatic expressions or lexicalized structures displaying varying degrees of non-compositionality that have been institutionalized. In other words, this does not go so far as to say that collocation, routine formula and other fixed expressions or even polysemy, as Gibbs mention that uses image selection for different uses of words based on experiences in the body citing different senses of the word “stand” depending on the context, do not demonstrate meaning derivation that not metaphoric, or should not be considered metaphors in themselves – it is merely making a distinction between forms.

This is where the utility of maintaining the term idiom can be particularly useful. There has been much research into the nature of idiom that establishes such differences with the aforementioned elements. Of particular usefulness is Moon (1999)'s use of a three tier system for determining and differentiating idiom from other such elements (see previous entry).

Separate and distinct class of metaphors that present differentiating characteristics can be appreciated: register-colloquial metaphor and idiom a elements that pertain to informal registers, and typify informal communicational contexts. While this does not go so far as to say that they cannot be used in more formal settings, such uses are usually accompanied by such labels as “so to speak” or “as they say” to explain possible divergences. While such a convergence represents a coming together, which might seem exactly the opposite of what Gibbs asserts, in reality, such a convergence is really an agroupment of terms that could be understood in much the same way, creating a distinct and separate category, from say, routine formulae, or instances of metonymy.

The metaphor and metonymy continuum in financial discourse

In the literature a distinction has not always been made. According to Ruhl (1978, 1980) argued that common idioms such as hit the sack, break the ice, are actually not idioms, but metonymic expressions of the underlying common senses of hit, break, and ice. (in Makki, 1993). In the case of hit the sack, he argued that the verb hit was synonymous with “make sudden contact with” whereas sack is an informal means of expressing “bed”. He does the same (1980) with the verb “break” from break the ice, where break means “suddenly to disjoin, to dissociate” , “suddenly to release”. Makkai furthers the argument of metonymic sense extension: “the word ice can be shown to enjoy widespread use referring to isolation, frozenness, sadness, and so on. To break the ice, then, Rhul concluded, is not an idiom but a metonymic sense extension, which understandably says “make the frozen silence/sadness go away” (315). Ruhl’s point is, according to Makkai, is “that literal senses can be found in such expressions by educated native speakers who also have a broad range of literary and cultural associations”. Lamb (1990) furthers the issue making it a question of cognitive capacity whether expressions such as “hit the sack”, and “break the ice” are “perceived as idioms or as metonymic extensions of literal phrases” (Makkai, 316).

Taken from this position, the following stock market related colloquial metaphors and idioms are particularly relevant. Consider a “bear hug”. It is “When a company offers to buy another company at a significant premium. The intent of a high offer price is to entice shareholders of the target company to vote in favor of a merger, and against its management. Usually considered a hostile takeover

offer” (See <http://www.celebrateboston.com/investment/wall-street-slang.htm>). In this case, English language speakers who are familiar with the expression “bear hug” know that it has a number of positive connotations, namely those involving friendly expressions of affection. There is also the expression “all the boats rise”, which means, “When the tide comes in, all the boats rise. When the stock market is quickly rising, there is a tendency for most stocks to increase in value due to over-optimism. The opposite is when the tide goes out, all the boats sink, which is due to over-pessimism” (*ibid*). Or even “bottom fishing” which means “After a large sell-off or drop in the market, a slang term for picking oversold stocks” (*ibid*). In this last case, one of the most evident cognitive clues is the spatial reference relating to negative connotations consistent with the conceptual metaphor GOOD IS UP; BAD IS DOWN.

But the question remains to what degree users make such associations, and to what degree they are involved in the meaning determination process when they are communicated in the financial press. While this question it not going to be addressed in this research, it would be suggested that some of the same dynamics in perception of market events are incorporated into the creation of divergent semantic fields that are inspired by conceptual metaphor used differently in different contexts. And the fact also remains that speakers process them “online” more or less as complete entities.

Here it would be appropriate to remember Gibbs (99 p. 37) would be applicable: “I urge metaphor researchers to be careful not to overextend the identification of metaphor to metonymy (while also noting that many clichéd, seemingly literal forms have metaphoric bases). Of course, the fact that a linguistic expression is not metaphorical does not imply that it is literal (Gibbs, *et al.*, 1993; Lakoff, 1986; in Gibbs 1999).

For the sake of this study, recognizing a metaphor-metonymy continuum is of significant interest due to the fact that many of the most recognizable metaphors for the stock market are metonymies themselves such as “Wall Street”. Both metaphor and metonymy expression relationships between concepts, or “mappings”, as Gibbs calls them (36). Here it is worthwhile to distinguish the concepts without separating them: where metaphor is concerning the relating two different domains, metonymy works within the same domain (Croft, 1993 and Gibbs, 1994 in Gibbs 1999). Gibbs provides a user-friendly test for determining the difference:

a convenient way of distinguishing the two kinds of figurative trope is to apply the ‘*is like*’ test. Figurative statements of the *X is like Y* form are most meaningful when X and Y represent terms from different conceptual domains. If a non-literal comparison between two things is meaningful when seen in a *X is like Y* statement, then it is metaphorical; otherwise it is metonymic. For example, it makes better sense to say that The boxer is like a creampuff (metaphor) than to say The third baseman is like a glove (metonymy). (Gibbs, 1999, 36)

Another common example of metonymy would be to say “the White House gave its final approval of the spending bill” instead of saying “President Obama gave his final approval of the spending bill” whereas the White House can be understood as

an extension, or contiguity to President Obama. That is to say, they both are within the same domain. But if one were to say “the spending bill is a pearl” it would be most aptly understood as a figurative comparison in which two different conceptual domains are compared – X is like Y, in this case an act and “a dense variously colored and usually lustrous concretion formed of concentric layers of nacre as an abnormal growth within the shell of some mollusks...”, according to Merriam Webster.

This does not say that there are no examples of metonymy that do not display certain metaphor-like properties. There are a number of examples of metonymy that would seem to display all three characteristics necessary for inclusion in idiom. For example in our last example of using “the White House” instead of the President, institutionalization of the phrase has occurred. In other words, it has found its way into common usage, and can be heard used by the media: news, political commentaries, etc.; it displays lexical-grammatical fixedness in that one cannot say “the House that is White” and be understood as readily; and finally, non-compositionality is present: there is a non-literal relationship of meaning between the words and the concept that is communicated. In other words, there is a semantic “leap”, so to speak, however non-metaphorical, between the concept of where the President works and resides to the institution itself. However, what Gibbs here describes what he calls an “interaction” between metonymy and metaphor that “motivates” why such expressions such as to “shoot one’s mouth off” stands for to “say something rash” exist where in target domains there exist what he calls “different levels of interpretation”, where:

mouth is integrated into a scene relating to the use of firearms, it must be reinterpreted as having the properties of the gun alluded to in the phrase shoot your mouth off. In the target domain, however there is a first level of interpretation which amounts to something like ‘to use your mouth foolishly’ in which mouth metonymically stands for the speech faculty. This interaction of metonymy with metaphor motivates why don’t shoot your mouth off means ‘don’t say anything rash’. Analyses like these, of the interaction of metaphor and metonymy in expressions for linguistic action, illustrate how tropes are frequently combined to give rise to ordinary linguistic expressions (Gibbs in Cameron & Low, p. 37)

Such distinctions are inevitably of a subjective nature, which would mean a limitation for the model proposed in this study. When such expressions can be aptly considered colloquial metaphor and idiom, it would seem to depend on the fulfillment of the first two categories, and to what degree it is accepted into standard use in financial news media journalism. In other words, this gray area, it would seem, that exists between metaphor and metonymy can be overcome to a large extent by applying Gibbs’s aforementioned test for metaphor. If in doubt, one such ask oneself if the expression such as to shoot one’s mouth off is just another way of saying to speak rashly, or if there is a relationship is less similar where two different domains are joined semantically.

Discussion and conclusion

To integrate the concept of “colloquial metaphor and idiom” within the context for financial news reporting, basic considerations for idiom needed to be properly

established and contextualized. This discussion has centered on the central governing role of metaphor in the way that idioms and a number of other non-compositional, lexicalized structures are negotiated in meaning with the inspiration of guiding base conceptual metaphors. The proposal of terminology that may more adequately reflect the central role of metaphor in meaning prediction in colloquial idiom via user imagery may contribute to helping students and practitioners in financial journalism to appreciate the impact that their language has over the conceptual frameworks in news consumers. To some extent, therefore, what is proposed is contrary to Sanford (2008) in his distinction of idioms with figurative and non-figurative meaning. Based on this understanding, of idiom can be understood as lexicalized structures displaying with varying degrees of non-compositionality and/or isomorphic semantic transfer; metaphors in the sense that they are already metaphors themselves, displaying figurative meaning, however influenced or influential they are by subjacent conceptual metaphor frameworks.

The Euler diagram format (Figure 4) was chosen to represent the relationship that exists between the language components defined above when its components are understood to be inspired at the conceptual level. It effectively represents the most thought provoking aspect of this study's methodology—the qualified union of metaphor and idiom, and therefore colloquial metaphor and colloquial idiom into “colloquial metaphor and idiom”. It is a qualified union based on the following reasoning reiterated once again: while idioms are expressed linguistically as linguistic metaphors, not all linguistic metaphors are idioms.

Based on our largely cognitive understanding of metaphor whereas one conceptual domain is described in terms of another, it is clear that such relationships need not express themselves predictably, and in no way as verbalized expressions; though it does not say that existent idioms were not simple metaphors that somebody, or a group of persons decided to start using: at some point, they started being used, and were eventually accepted institutionally, demonstrating the other two characteristics—non-compositionality and elevated lexical-grammatical fixedness that characterize the idiom identification model that defended in this research.

Working from the center outwards, from specific to general, colloquial metaphor and idiom is at the same time members of the larger sets of idioms, linguistic metaphors, fixed expressions, non-compositional expressions and idiolect (personal speech patterns). The inclusion of idiolect is based on the reasoning that use gives the fundamental reason for exploration and study. However, the same relationship cannot be said of idioms: while idioms are members of the greater sets of metaphors, fixed expressions, non-compositional expressions and idiolect, they are not members of the subset of colloquial metaphor and idiom because of the nature of the register in which they are found. Colloquial metaphor and idiom are displayed by such stock market related expressions such as “perma-bull”, an investor who has an extended positive perception of the market, and “perma-bear”, or an investor whose negative perception of market conditions is also long-term.

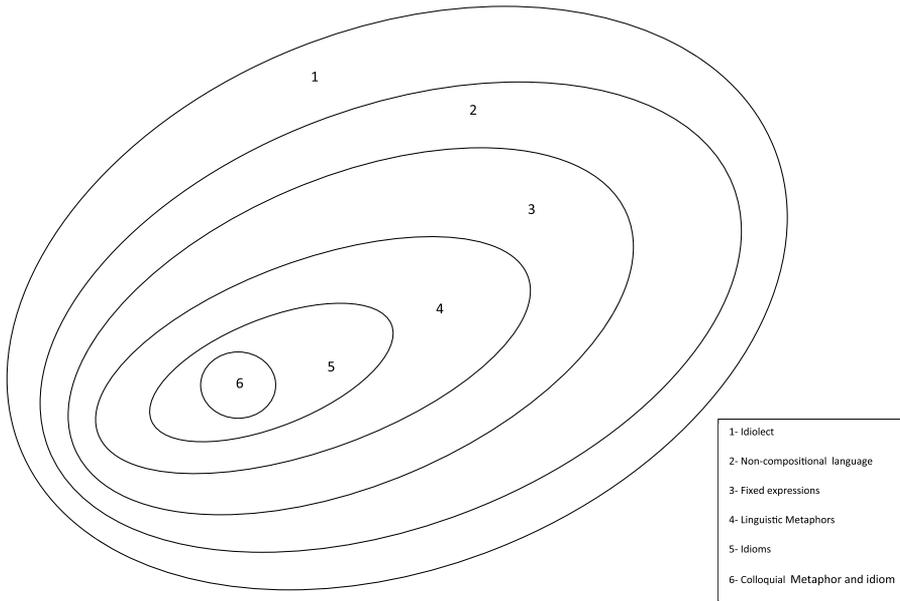


Figure 4. Relation of terms to “Colloquial metaphor and idiom”

By the same logic, while linguistic metaphors such as “up” or “down” to talk about market performance, are members of the greater set of fixed expressions, non-compositional expressions and idiolect, linguistic metaphors cannot be members of the subset of idioms, nor colloquial metaphor and idiom by the same reasoning that excluded the inclusion of idioms within the subset of colloquial metaphor and idiom. To continue, fixed expressions are at the same time members of the larger set of non-compositional expressions and idiolect, but they are not members of the subset of linguistic metaphors, idioms, and colloquial metaphor and idiom. Non-compositional expressions are members of the larger set of idiolect but excluded from the set of fixed expressions, linguistic metaphors, idioms and colloquial metaphor and idiom. Finally, idiolect cannot form a part of any of the subsets, as the set of idiolect component could reasonably be any linguistic form that can be used to characterize personal language patterns.

Where metaphors are employed, a more active process of engagement is had in discourse that contemplates two realities: the idiosyncratic meaning that the interlocutors could be using in metaphor when they both communicate and negotiate understanding stock market events through conceptual frameworks in language, and the “picture” that is being “painted” by the metaphor concerning the culture that contributed to the development of the users of such. The symbolic nature of metaphors must also be wrestled with, it seems, to negotiate meaning. It could be of value to consider what Carl Jung said about symbols that demonstrate similar applicable referential qualities: “What we call a symbol is a term, a name, or even a picture that may be familiar in daily life, yet that possesses specific connotations in addition to its conventional and obvious meaning. It implies something vague, unknown or hidden from us” (1964:3).

Let us consider an interesting extension of this idea from a semantics perspective: since the nature of “colloquial metaphor and idiom” seems to involve the presence in a given chain or string of at least one element which “does not mean anything” according to Alan Cruse (p. 73), that is to say, their grammatical constituents are not all semantic constituents, an interesting point concerning lack of (literal) sense in colloquial metaphor and idiom is made: which in many cases, do not mean anything at all, achieving meaning through interaction with other elements of the sentence: “Although it is not true of all idioms, it seems fruitless to ask what *pull* and *leg* mean in *to pull someone’s leg* : they do not mean anything, just as the *m-* of *mat* does not mean anything - all the meaning of the phrasal unit attaches to the phrase, and none to its constituents” (Cruse, p.73). Such an understanding of “colloquial metaphor and idiom” introduces the possibility of multiple understandings: idioms don’t change languages to manifest themselves; listeners or readers usually have no problem understanding information interpreted literally.

While the ideas expressed in this research are only in the initial stages of development, this paper has attempted a structural analysis and justification for “colloquial idiom and metaphor” for use and exploration in financial stock market discourse based on an exploration of colloquial metaphor, idiom, linguistic metaphor, fixed expressions, and non-compositional language. This analysis was inspired by a conceptual metaphor perspective that the wide spectrum of non-compositional language forms found in financial news media discourse are influenced by conceptual frameworks that are related to how their meaning is negotiated in discourse. Such a distinction may prove worthwhile for students of journalism and financial journalism as they explore how some of the uses of language in their professional may be related to more implicit ideologically oriented ideas concerning the nature of financial systems. In the end, providing students and practitioners with practical tools for exploring the language they use is the first step towards finding ways of improving its transparency towards higher levels of ethical quality in financial news media journalism.

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LANGUAGE STRATEGIES OF 'CONTROLLED FEMINISM' IN POLISH PRESS IN THE YEARS 1949-1956

MAGDALENA BAŃKA-KOWALCZYK

Abstract

My paper's aim is to describe the phenomenon of 'controlled feminism' in Polish press during the short period after The Second World War. This study is supposed to lead to the identification and characterization of ritual language used by the authorities and the media.

Western female researchers think that in the socialist period Polish women achieved the social status equal to that of men. True, women were more and more active in many areas, combining a number of typically male and typically female responsibilities: maintaining the family and bringing up children, working at the parliament, restoring the homeland and hard work to earn money. The communist authorities encouraged them to do so, indicating precisely how socialist women should behave, think and even feel. Their attitude was controlled with the use of the press.

The article will be based on texts of press, from the weekly *Przyjaciółka* and the daily *Trybuna Ludu*. Texts written for these magazines were edited in newspeak prevailing among the contemporary authorities – an evaluative, pragmatic, ritualistic, magical and arbitrary language whose purpose was to persuade the receiver to think, feel and behave in a specific way. The goal was not to try and convince the listener to accept a certain attitude. The attitude, views and system of values were forced on them as the only correct ones.

Texts in *Przyjaciółka* and *Trybuna Ludu* were written in order to encourage women to work and to participate fully in political life. The discussed articles were well thought out and prepared with the use of appropriate operations on language that could refer both to individual words and to whole texts. Listed operations were used in following language strategies:

1. Evoking approval – identification through language community
 - 1.1 Strategies of creating the sense of community (e.g. the use of 1st person plural and pronouns such as 'we', 'our', 'us'; dealing with matters important for women);
 - 1.2 Strategies of explicit axiologization (e.g. removing certain words so as to erase them from users' awareness, or replacing them with other lexemes; concentration of adjectives);
2. Activation – motivating and evoking social activity (e.g. propaganda of success; direct expression);
3. Evoking approval – manifesting power – by fulfilling a ritual (e.g. direct catchphrases; military metaphors);
4. Evoking approval – identification through negative content (an opposition 'we' and 'they');
5. Evoking approval – manifesting competence and scientification of statements.

In my article I would like to describe a phenomenon of “controlled feminism”, which occurred in the socialist Poland and may be defined as a top-down initiative of the communist authorities influencing women through mass media, aimed at the creation and implementation of the model of a socialist working woman, fulfilling the ideological assumptions of the policy of the period. A woman could fully achieve equality with men only if she followed that model and only through work. My main aim is to indicate and characterize linguistic rituals used by the authorities and mass media to create an ideal socialist working woman.

There are good premises to study and name this phenomenon. The constitution of 1952 guaranteed women full political, economic and social rights. According to Western female researchers, in socialism women achieved a social status which was formally equal to that of men (regarding the availability of jobs, education or the participation in social and political life). Indeed, more and more women took up jobs, were Members of Parliament and became family heads. However, they usually had to work for economic reasons – the necessity to maintain the families resulting from the fact that men wounded during the war were unable to work or they had not returned home at all. Each person capable of providing work was valuable. Women often had the lowest, underpaid positions.

From the outside, it seemed that everything was functioning properly, but actually the communists had created a perfect myth whose aim was to cover up inequalities. It is important that governments in Poland country assumed Communism. They were subordinated to the Soviet Union, obliged to cooperate with and befriend them. The governments introduced central control – everything they did was planned. They intended what and how much to produce, without thinking if they can sell it all. They planted sets of crops, without looking at how much they could eat or sell. They planned, how the country will look in six years' time (after the Second World War, Poland was mostly destroyed, almost ruined in fact). Also, the socialist authority consistently realized its assumptions to create a model of a new, impressionable human, who would owe everything to the new system and follow the instructions of the new rule (cf. Mazur, 2009).

The article is based on texts of press, from the weekly *Przyjaciółka* and the daily *Trybuna Ludu*. Those journals were very popular and widely available in the given period. Articles are from the 1949-1956 period (dated from 1st February to 15th March) and refer to the situation of women. That period was selected because of two factors. Firstly, it was the time of forming the language of the authorities and crystallizing its main principles. Secondly, women's situation changed: thanks to the social advance and professional and educational opportunities, as well as thanks to greater and greater independence from men and the increasing readership among them, the language used in mass media could really influence the female readers. That is why it seems legitimate to think that the politically involved message senders of the time had the opportunity to transform Polish people's mentality.

Przyjaciółka (in translation: Friend) was created in 1948 as a weekly for uneducated women from the villages and workers who did not read newspaper previously. It was easy to convince them that the new political ideology is really good for them. The daily was based on letters from readers, who wanted to get advices on how to plan their future and which school or job to choose. That guidance, was the source of *Przyjaciółka's* success (Sokół, 1998).

Trybuna Ludu (in translation: Tribune of the People) was first published in 1948 and was the main tool of the communist propaganda (Borkowski, 2003, p. 58). Articles in *Trybuna Ludu* regard the life of the government, report visits by representatives of friendly countries and point to the threat to peace on the part of the imperialist countries. Moreover, journalists explained the communist doctrine and described the lives of the workers, as well as organizations – including women organizations.

Texts written for *Przyjaciółka* or *Trybuna Ludu* were edited in newspeak prevailing among the contemporary authorities – an evaluative, pragmatic, ritualistic, magical and arbitrary language whose purpose was to persuade the receiver to think, feel and behave in a specific way. The goal was not to try and convince the listener to accept a certain attitude. The attitude, views and system of values were forced on them as the only correct ones.

Texts in *Przyjaciółka* and *Trybuna Ludu* were written in order to encourage women to work and to participate fully in political life. The discussed articles were well thought out and prepared with the use of appropriate operations on language that could refer both to individual words and to whole texts. Actions concerning words are twofold: they involve manipulating with the lexis (e.g. removing certain words so as to erase them from users' awareness, or replacing them with other lexemes) and manipulating with the meaning of words (e.g. reducing attribution of meaning). Operations concerning texts usually involve: the excess of slogans which do not add anything to the message, or the use of military metaphors. Listed operations were used in following language strategies:

1. Evoking approval – identification through language community.

A wide range of strategies was used to make the impression that authorities, journalists and the people spoke with one voice. It involved both journalists trying to use language understandable for people and writing about things important for them, and introducing new expressions or modifying the existing ones so as to give them new meanings, shared and understood by everybody. Therefore, I will divide the strategies into two groups: strategies of creating the sense of community, and strategies of explicit axiologization.

1.1 Strategies of creating the sense of community

Example 1: the use of 1st person plural and pronouns such as 'we', 'our', 'us'

(1) *"In the name of maternal love, which is common for us, we turn to all the mothers in the world. We know the great joy of having children, but we are also familiar with the fear of losing them. Our most important task is to protect our children from all dangers: hunger, cold, poverty, illness, and war which entails all the calamities"* (*Przyjaciółka*, No. 9/1955, p. 3).

Przyjaciółka magazine included many articles on issues of interest for most women. One topic common for many women is maternal love, which makes them strive to protect children from atrocities of war, and after all they have personally experienced those atrocities and know the pain. So the senders use the forms of 1st person plural and pronouns 'we', 'our', 'us'. In this situation, fraternization and claiming that *"the matter is common for all of us mothers"* seems legitimate.

Examples 2 and 3: direct address

(2) *“Dear Readers, the Women’s Day is coming. On that day, you should set your husbands, brothers and sons to do some housework. Let them help you at least once a year!”* (*Przyjaciółka*, No 10/1949, p. 10).

(3) *“Dear ‘Przyjaciółka’! I’ve been a regular reader of your magazine for two years. Every week I look forward to getting the next issue of ‘Przyjaciółka’, because as a mother of 5, I use your advice very much and it is very valuable for me. I am a simple woman, maybe I can’t find the words that educated people do, but what I’m writing comes deep from the heart”* (*Przyjaciółka*, No 7/1951, p. 4).

Addressing the readers and even the magazine directly is an example of the phatic function and shows great familiarity, close relationships and intimacy. Example 2 begins with words *“dear Readers”* – after establishing the intimate relationship with them, the sender took the liberty of modifying the idiomatic expression and advised them women to *“set”* men to work. The knowledge about women’s situation is also clear in this context: it was women who had to do the housework normally, men only did it once in a blue moon.

When reading example 3, we may have the impression that it is an intimate, familiar conversation. The reader addressed the editors of the weekly like a real friend, telling them they were *“dear”* and helpful. It is important that a simple woman was allowed to express herself. She admitted that she was uneducated but that her words came from the heart, which made the statement look sincere and credible. Thus it enhanced the value of the magazine as a territory shared by all women, uniting them in the problems and joys common for them.

Example 4: dealing with matters important for women

(4) *“What should be manufactured at crafts cooperatives?”*

There are more and more letters to our editors in which you, Dear Readers, write what crafts cooperatives should focus on in their work.

Helena Wielgus from Maleszów near Piotrowice writes:

Me and the women from our village dream about metalwork cooperatives manufacturing more meat and potato grinders.

We don’t get these devices at all, and even if they are available nearby towns, such as Kielce or Chmielnik, they are sold out within 10 minutes ...” (*Przyjaciółka*, No 11/1954, p. 12).

The success and high circulation of *Przyjaciółka* also resulted from the fact it dealt with matters important for women. Example 4 shows that women were given more pages to write about their real needs. In those difficult times, the magazine was close to everyday problems of its readers and showed not only successes but also shortages. If there were not enough meat grinders somewhere, it could write about the problem and call for supplying them. This created trust and faith in common activity.

1.2 Strategies of explicit axiologization**Example 5: concentration of adjectives**

(5) *“Let us care about the upbringing of our sons and daughters, let us cooperate with the **new, popular** school, let us raise our young ones in the spirit of **sincere** love for our native country and its **progressive** traditions. Let us teach them to*

take legitimate pride in the achievements of working masses of contemporary Poland and zealously prepare to join the ranks of builders of its splendid future” (Przyjaciółka, No. 10/1951, p. 5).

What is characteristic of the discussed texts is the concentration of adjectives that enhanced the message and served as indicators of value, introducing explicit evaluation, so-called “univalence” (cf. Głowiński, 2009, p. 17). Their aim is to show the right attitude. The task of the women’s press was to point out what was good and what was wrong. And the good, obviously, was the new socialist world. Properly used adjectives showed mothers what to do to raise their children well. They were told to cooperate with the “new, popular school”. The adjective “new” is very often used in persuasive discourse. It means ‘one that has replaced the previous one, following, different than before’, but also ‘only existing for a short time, recently introduced, unknown before, modern, contemporary’. Used together with the other adjectives in the fragment, it evokes positive connotations and is an example of the magical function (cf. Pisarek, 1976, p. 45). What is new, therefore, is better, it means a change for better, leaving behind whatever was wrong and accepting positive changes. The word “popular” confirms the propaganda catchphrases that the masses rule the country, so they also have an access to school, equal and available for everyone. It is only the upbringing in equality that enables one to truly and wholeheartedly express one’s “sincere” love for the fatherland and its “progressive traditions”. It is a very interesting collocation: the journalists used together two words with contradictory meanings so as to give them a new meaning and explicit evaluation. Tradition is ‘the rules of behaviour, morals, views and messages handed down from generation to generation, existing for a certain time and then consolidated as customs’ (MSJP). Tradition is associated with long duration, invariability, and it had always been important for Polish women, which political senders knew very well. Progressive, in turn, is ‘referring to progress’ understood as ‘gradual movement, development, improvement, enhancement’ (MSJP). Communists wanted to win women’s favour by lavishly using progressive equality catchwords and at the same time emphasizing that tradition was important for them. “Contemporary” Poland is one that is new, and thus better, and the readers are promised that doing what they are told will make the country even better, “splendid”: ‘evoking awe, impressive due to its greatness, beauty and grandeur etc., or excellent, unparalleled’ (MSJP) So there are no randomly used adjectives here. All of them were carefully selected to gradually enhance and build the image of wonderful future awaiting women and their offspring.

Example 6: replacing words with others

(6) *“The already famous peace proposal of the Soviet Union’s delegation presented at the UNO assembly last year concerning weapons limitation has has its deep reflection in women’s masses”* (Trybuna Ludu, No. 63/1949, p. 3).

Example 6 illustrates the operation of replacing certain words with others. The contemporary authorities wanted some words, or rather their referents, not to function in people’s awareness (cf. Głowiński 2009, Markowski 1986: 189). This was not the natural phenomenon of disappearance of words, it was a top-down directive which word was to be used no more and which one was to replace it in

order to achieve the goal: *“One of the basic rules of persuasion is that if we want to change the society’s attitude to a certain item, we need to give this item another name”* (Pisarek, 1976, p. 36).

The newspeak lexicon did not include the word *society* (‘all the people interrelated thanks to similar living conditions, division of labour, norms of behaviour etc., e.g. all the citizens of a certain country, region, city etc.’ MSJP). It left too much freedom and did not impose univalence. So it was replaced with the lexeme *“mass”*, which has some connotations with the equality of mass elements, the tendency to unlimited growth and going in the determined direction (Canetti, 1996, p. 33).

Examples 7 and 8: concentration of words from the semantic field ‘work’

(7) *“We are happy to see the growing number of women in new professions – bricklayers from Warsaw and Nowa Huta, **miners and mill workers** from Silesia, **railroad women and conductors, tractor drivers and turners** – all these women who are a living example to prove false the bourgeois superstitions of women’s lower professional position and who pave the way to highly qualified professions for another thousands of women”* (Przyjaciółka, No. 11/1951, p. 3).

(8) *“Reports of undertaking **production commitments by working women** to celebrate International Women’s Day are coming in from different parts of Poland [...]. Responding to the call, the **ironworkers** also decided to welcome their great feast with **additional production**. The feminine production brigade, named ‘Zoi Kosmodeńskiej Brigade’, was appointed and undertook valuable obligations”* (Przyjaciółka, No. 7/1953, p. 12).

A characteristic feature of the discussed articles is the concentration of words connected with various aspects of work. There are many names of professions – interestingly, the senders freely used the feminine forms of these words not thinking that it lowered their importance. On the contrary, they emphasised the presence of women on the labour market previously dominated by men (Karwatowska, Szpyra-Kozłowska, 2005: 17-18). Such words are often excessively concentrated, which is especially visible in example 8. There are many word lists (particularly the names of professions mentioned before) and characteristic collocations. If the lexeme *“woman”* appeared in the article, it was very often accompanied by the word *“working”*. A very characteristic and frequent collocation is *“production commitment”*, usually taken by female workers to celebrate special events such as the Women’s Day. It is presupposed, however, that women take on new commitments willingly and voluntarily, because they are members of the working masses that have already taken similar commitments before. Commitments are also *“valuable”*: thanks to the use of a proper adjective, there are no doubts about it. The expression *“a storm female production team”* is interesting: it stresses the women’s presence in work competition, and signals another strategy (so-called military and battlefield language discussed further in the work). The above mentioned examples illustrate the dominant tendency noticeable in the analysed discourse. A lot was being written about labour, and labour was given explicit evaluation. The very fact that this topic often appeared in the press indicated it was significant and always ranked high.

Example 9: reducing attribution of meaning

(9) *“Sister **friendship** links Polish women with brave women of great People’s China, with the women of the Democratic Republic of Germany [...] with women of popular **democracies**”* (Przyjaciółka, No. 11/1952, p. 3).

Example 9 illustrates strategy, with which *“we have to do when the word begins to relate to fewer than previously designates”* (Markowski, 1986, p. 192). For the communist such words had different, selective meaning, e.g. they called ‘democratic’ political system in only these countries, that have assumed socialist system; ‘friendship’ united our nation only with those countries that agreed with the Stalinist doctrine.

2. Activation – motivating and evoking social activity**Example 10: propaganda of success**

(10) *“The share of women fighting for the meeting of production targets **has increased**, which is clearly proved by the number of female participants of labour competition, **growing** from 200 thousand to 350 thousand over the year 1950”* (Przyjaciółka, No. 9/1951, p. 4).

Women were encouraged to take action, bombarded with words such as ‘increase’, ‘acceleration’, ‘success’, ‘development’, or ‘take the matters into your own hands’. Large numbers of women went to work – not only did they become family heads but also factory managers, competing with others. They wanted to achieve the best possible results and the propaganda of success made them believe it was possible. The question is to what extent and how long they were aware it was only propaganda?

Example 11: following the example of Soviet women

(11) *“In the avant garde of international, democratic feminine movement there are women from the Soviet Union and people’s democracy countries. Driven by Lenin’s and Stalin’s guidelines, Soviet women further extend and strengthen international bonds with women of all countries, they help strengthen the powerful, anti-war, democratic front, tirelessly expose the schemes of imperialists, and actively fight for international peace and friendship. Working women all over the world can see in the Soviet women their loyal friends, active fighters for peace and glowing future of the nations”* (Przyjaciółka, No. 10/1953, p. 6).

According to the government and journalists, Polish women should follow the Soviet ones, who had their equality guaranteed even before the war, started to work and showed how much can be achieved thanks to cooperation with the communists. Polish female workers were often persuaded that in the USSR women had a better life, that they had the full rights, fought for peace and lived practically without problems. So, as the press argued, the thing was just to follow them.

Example 12: direct expression

(12) *“I like my job very much and I have one dream...”, Królikowska stops in the middle of the sentence.*

“What’s the dream?”, I ask.

“Only don’t laugh at me. I’d be very happy if women could make at least one ship on their own. That’s why I try to persuade my friends to learn and work at the metalwork workshop. If there are about 30 of us, we will make it.”

We wish you, comrade Królikowska, to fulfil your dream as soon as possible” (Przyjaciółka, No. 10/1952, p. 4).

Again a woman doing a “masculine” job talked about her work and highlighted her satisfaction with it. Not only did she take up a job. It was her passion, her dream was to develop even more and she encouraged her friends to do the same. What is more, the heroine could speak for herself, thanks to which – it seems – she could express her feelings naturally, with her own words, and describe her dreams.

3. Evoking approval – manifesting power – by fulfilling a ritual

Example 13: direct catchphrases

(13) *“And then women’s equality finally came true. We can see women earn as much as men, they do the same jobs and get promoted: they are managers, rural commune heads, village leaders, they have seats in the parliament and constitute a huge army building the new life” (Przyjaciółka, No. 10/1949, p. 3).*

Catchphrases were often used in articles. They belong to the magical language, talking about what is expected as if it has already come true. The discourse of the time was magical, ritualistic and declarative. These features “*were used to convince the reader that the propagated views were right and lent credence to the achievements and successes of the new system*” (Nowak, 2002, p. 43). In example 13, women’s equality is described this way, trying to convince the reader that everything has already been done, inequalities eliminated, discrimination rooted out from people’s minds and payments equalized in every profession. It is so because in catchphrases there is no room for doubts: evaluations must be clear and explicitly presented to the readers (Głowiński, 2009, p. 10). A catchphrase is a perlocutionary act. Its meaning is not of key importance; its role is rather to call for action:

“A catchphrase is an expression which not only includes a guideline, a piece of advice or a recommendation, but also exerts pressure; the role of the words is not only to inform or advise but also to order action; language is no longer used only to convey some content but also to create something else, something more than what is said directly. A catchphrase is an expression that becomes a weapon” (Reboul, 1980, p. 302).

Example 14: military metaphors

(14) *Compeer Kasprzak realized quickly that there is only one way for woman-miner. She had to fight. She became a member of the Polish Communist Party. [...] Today’s compeer Kasprzak doesn’t struggle with poverty and fascism, but fights for the development of her mines, the demands of working women and her right to work and study (Trybuna Ludu, No. 49/1950, p. 3).*

Military metaphors were used to manifest power and prove that the Party and the people were fighting a good fight together, and the main constructor of the fight was the institutional sender – the author of what was good. The words used to describe this fight are supposed to evoke positive evaluation, as these “military” activities lead to the improvement of quality of life.

4. Evoking approval – identification through negative content

Examples 15 and 16

(15) *“Was this a necessary condition for the equality of women existing in Poland*

before the war? No, this condition was not and could not have been in the system based on the exploitation of man by man" (Przyjaciółka, No. 7/1952, p. 7).

(16) *"Women in Poland are happy in their own country, but they remember that their happiness is not shared by all women in the world, that in the imperialist countries and the colonial countries oppressed by imperialism, women still struggle hard to get out of the slavery" (Trybuna Ludu, No. 59/1951, p. 1).*

In articles the 'us' – 'them' opposition was often used to show how much good we (communists) have done and how much wrong was done by them – pre-war Poland and Western countries. The above mentioned examples suggest the superiority of the present situation in a general and ritual, quite abstract way. But concrete images were also used.

Examples 17 and 18

(17) *"The impairment of women which exists in capitalist countries, not to mention colonies and dependent states, inhumanly exploited by imperialist countries, here is a matter of irrevocable past. In France, Italy and other capitalist countries, the policy of increasing arms and subjecting national interests to aggressive plans of American billionaires leads to closing factories and a constant growth of unemployment, raising prices of everyday products, lowering the standard of living and increasing poverty of masses" (Trybuna Ludu, No. 67/1954, p. 1).*

(18) *"And we have reasons for pride – **the right to work, the right to education, care for the mother and child** – that is what women in capitalist countries do not know, because even if they are granted certain rights, the rights are not really present in their lives. Not to mention colonial and dependent countries!" (Przyjaciółka, No. 7/1953, p. 12).*

Journalists tried to convince women that in Western countries the rulers did not take into consideration women's needs and did not allocate any funds for them. They only spent money for armaments. And people suffered without any jobs or perspectives. In Poland, for a change, women had full rights. It is also suggested that Polish women really had the opportunity to use their rights and in the West they were oppressed. This strategy was aimed at negating the actions of capitalist countries, evoking contempt and disgust for them against the background of positive actions of communists.

5. Evoking approval – manifesting competence and scientification of statements

Example 19: manifesting competence

(19) *"These women are work leaders in many cases. The League of Women managed to arouse women's interest, motivate them and make them join in the execution of all the tasks set by the government and the party for the society. Active participation of Warsaw women in the work of territorial peace committees, in the campaign of gathering signatures for the Stockholm Appeal or collecting gifts for Korean children is their contribution to the great world issue of fight for peace" (Trybuna Ludu, No. 67/1951, p. 1).*

Articles suggest that only the party knew what was good for the people and only made decisions that resulted in good activities. That is why the League of Women encouraged by the government took up the voluntary collection of signatures and

gifts, drawing many women into the campaigns. The article suggests there would be no actions but for the government's initiative.

Example 20: scientification of statements

(20) *"In the year 1937/1938 in Poland there were only 13 thousand female students. Now the number has achieved 44 thousand, and over 300 thousand of girls are studying in vocational and general secondary schools"* (Trybuna Ludu, No. 67/1954, p. 1).

Scientification, which is ostensible objectification of the messages included in articles, was done by providing figures and percentage data. This lent credence to the message, proved the authors' knowledge about the discussed matter, and the assumption that it was drawn up by an institution and the press was only presenting the results of research. Figures tell much more than expressions such as *a considerable decrease*. The reader is unable to verify them so the provided data cannot be denied.

The examined articles have simple language and a narrow subject matter; they use key words (work, socialism, equality, peace, factory, work model, obligations, or family). They are obscure, lofty and often sound all the same – they are ritualistic. But using those texts, their authors succeeded in getting female readers' favour, as the women believed that the socialist authorities' actions would lead to their freedom and equality. It is especially visible in interviews and short stories, when women are allowed to say something and describe their way to socialism with their own words. They often say they used to be ridiculed, that nobody believed they would succeed, but actually they have been promoted, become valued employees, managers of factories and model workers. They emphasize that they owe that all to the new political system.

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**ASPECTS OF THE LANGUAGES AND DISCUSSIONS
IN LINGUISTICS**

APPLIED LINGUISTICS IN ACADEMIC LITERACY

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It is widely agreed that in teacher training courses, the development of academic writing as a linguistic macro-skill of production gains increasing relevance in the lives of students and future researchers and professionals of the language. Academic Literacy (AL), however, goes beyond that, engaging the trainees in the development of other competences, being academic writing but one aspect of the process. AL in ELT vocational courses in Argentina is ever more complex for it is aimed at not only training students to belong to a scientific/discourse community that requires them to develop specific disciplinary knowledge skills and thinking patterns, our students are also in the process of becoming proficient users of EFL, the means for development and the object of study in their professional life. In this regard, academic writing itself should be understood as the powerful epistemological tool it is for constructing disciplinary knowledge; writing as the means to gain and get hold of, transform and communicate knowledge about this foreign language. Applied linguistics and the implementation of pedagogical corpus applications in ELT-training courses at university has provided enhanced teaching strategies likely to foster the development of a) trainees' knowledge of EFL; b) writing as a macro-skill, and c) the target academic culture of research. This paper is a report on an experience incorporating the advances of applied linguistics and the analysis of digitized corpora in a writing course for teacher training students with a B2 level of proficiency. Fostering a nascent but significant research culture as the defining aspect of the target community, the implementation of simple research strategies to elucidate the uses of different lexico-grammatical items in digitalized genuine academic texts has helped them gain knowledge about the system of the language while promoting a gradual progress towards autonomy.

Voloshinov's materialist conception of language, focusing on its social dimension, and his notion of speech genres operating in direct connection with the conditions of the social situation where they occur (1976), are at the base of much theoretical developments on genre studies over the past 20 years (Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995; Swales, 2004; Bazerman, Bonini and Figueiredo, 2009; Prior, P. and Bilbro, R., 2011). It is now widely agreed that speech genres are not only and simply textual phenomena, and that they should be understood as human practices carried out by socially organized individuals. Furthermore, over the last 15 years, and with increasing clarity, genre analysis has moved from focusing on genres as isolated phenomena to describing systems of genres, in terms of sets and systems, chains, colonies, repertoires and ecologies (Bazerman, 1994; Swales, 2004; Fairclough, 2004; Bhatia, 2002), which proficient users develop while they engage in different activities as members of discourse communities. These theoretical developments in genre analysis have derived in an emphasis on writing as literate activity that operates in combination with a number of other competences directly connected with the different social practices performed by organized communities. In this line of thought, academic writing in undergraduate courses in different fields has progressively been reconsidered and is of now understood as an integral and

integrated part of the process of becoming a member of a disciplinary/professional community. Academic Literacy (AL) is not only concerned with the development of writing as an isolated linguistic macro-skill of production; going beyond that, AL engages trainees in the development of other professional competences, being academic writing but one aspect of this process of enculturation into the academic world (Russel, 1990; Carlino, 2007; Bazerman, 2005; Prior and Bilbro, 2011).

Complex as this process already is, AL in ELT vocational courses at colleges and universities in non-English speaking countries such as Argentina is ever more challenging for they are aimed at not only training students to belong to a scientific/discourse community that requires them to develop specific disciplinary knowledge skills and thinking patterns in the fields of language and linguistics, our students are also in the process of becoming proficient users of EFL, the means for development and the object of study in their professional life. In this sense, AL can be said to provide an empowering teaching-learning platform through its conception of language and its didactics, which promote the development of writing as a social practice and as the powerful epistemological tool it is for constructing disciplinary knowledge (Bazerman, 2005; Carlino, 2011): writing as the means to gain and get hold of, transform and communicate knowledge about this foreign language as the object of study and in this foreign language as the means for transmitting this knowledge.

Propaedeutic approaches have dominated training practices at ELT teacher courses, but a genre-based AL program, whose major goal would be to foster student's academic performance through the development of advanced literacy in institutional environments, should promote the implementation of professional-like practices in the process of enculturation. These activities would give trainees the opportunity to have first-hand experiences rather than the abstract experience of others in order to develop their own learning tools as autonomous students and future teachers and researchers. In this sense, Applied Linguistics and the advent and implementation of ICT in higher education can bring about some changes. Corpus Linguistics (CL), an important branch of Applied Linguistics, is one of the fastest growing approaches in empirically-based computer-assisted language studies (McEnery and Wilson, 1996); an original framework for comparing definitional and contextual treatments that is gradually becoming a standard in lexical research for has provided much reliable and useful information (Miller and Gildea, 1987).

Beside its application in dictionary design and grammar reference books, (Bibber et al, 1999; Carter & McCarthy, 2006), literary criticism (Louw 2007), legal discourse (Cotterill, 2004), advertising and media (O'Keeffe, 2006), politics (Charteris-Black, 2004), health discourse (Adolphs et al., 2004), and the design of ELT materials (Johns, 1991), amongst other applications, CL has been employed in different areas of study bringing a quantitative dimension to language research therefore revealing important new insights about how language works in particular domains. CL is the computer-based study of language that relies on samples of language use in its natural contexts (McEnery and Wilson, 1996). This method makes use of great collections of oral and/or written texts, i.e., corpora gathered according to specific criteria and which contain millions of words. The digitalized corpora can be electronically scanned (Biber et al., 2007) allowing for a quantitative analysis in terms of the possibility of studying the frequency with which a particular

linguist phenomenon occurs. The interpretation of these numerous associations from a functional approach also allows for a qualitative analysis, one which can be well exemplified. The size of the corpora is directly related to the possibility to observe the use of language in a number of texts not only at a micro but also at a macro level, within and throughout a variety of oral and/or written samples, as well as throughout various texts, registers, and disciplines, as needed for research. These corpora represent an important empirical reference of the descriptions and analysis made of the use of the language in natural contexts, as well as of the empirical patterns which may exemplify, contrast with and/or sometimes contradict prescriptive descriptions of the organized nature of language in EFL text books and traditional grammar.

CL research work has demonstrated that language follows, to a great extent, regular patterns of pre-structured chunks: what Sinclair (1991) calls idiomatic principle, as opposed to an open selection principle, which refers to combinations based on the selection of single words. One of the implications of the idiomatic principle is that these pre-grouped phrases—and not isolated words—can and should be the linguistic units of analysis. On the other hand, given the fact that the texts which make up a corpus have been digitalized, complex calculations can easily be made to reveal recurrent lexical and structural patterns, estimates which would demand great amounts of time and effort if they had to be carried out manually. Therefore, computer-based linguistic analysis has smoothed the process of decision making in terms of what, where, and how to conduct a search since the computer fulfills the task of the statistical treatment of data (Mussetta & Vartalitis, 2013). Moreover, this approach allows for quick and effective verifications of working hypotheses, contributing to a greater objectivity in linguistic research studies.

In the process of AL, computer assisted language study in general has boosted teaching strategies with the potential to develop meaningful learning activities. CL in particular, pioneered in the classroom by Tribble and Jones (1997), has contributed to EFL learning by exposing students to genuine natural texts in an efficient way that makes it possible to implement the phraseological approach capturing phenomena such as collocations and semantic prosody easily observed in corpora through the co-textual environment. Promoting an inductive approach to language learning, corpus based pedagogy fosters learner autonomy and a nascent but significant research culture as the defining aspect of the target professional community. Furthermore, the implementation of simple research strategies helping students to elucidate the uses of different lexico-grammatical items, and/or getting them to extrapolate grammatical rules with the genuine use of the language as seen in digitalized academic texts derives in their gaining and consolidating knowledge about the language as a system. These professional-like activities in language research also foster a gradual progress towards enculturation.

The implementation of the advances of CL for the analysis of lexico-grammatical items in digitized corpora in an AL course for teacher training students with a B2 level of proficiency in EFL has proved to have increased students' motivation to study the system of the language as professionals do. Getting students to assume a more active role towards their learning autonomy, the implementation of different pedagogical corpus applications has promoted the development of a) students' knowledge of EFL; b) writing as a macro-skill, and c) the academic culture of research of the disciplinary community to which they will belong.

Among other fourth generation concordancers, i.e., software for conducting data driven language analysis, the Compleat Lexical Tutor, developed by Tom Cobb, a CL researcher of the University of Quebec at Montreal (UQAM), is a free website, <http://www.lextutor.ca/>, run on Windows or Macintosh, which contains a vast range of resources for both teaching-learning as well as doing research on vocabulary and grammar. Briefly, the Compleat Lexical Tutor is divided into three sections that provide different tools for students, teachers and researchers: Tutorial, Research, and Teachers. Within the Tutorial, using interactive tools on the web site, learners can test and explore their vocabulary levels, compare active and passive vocabulary, use new words, read and listen to literary works, and test their grammar with concordances. In the section for Teachers, instructors can input material to create customized vocabulary practice materials for their students. Among others, Text-to-Speech (TTS) builder, cloze builders, a Hypertext Builder, a Multi-Concordance with Exercise Builder, and a Group Lex (a collaborative vocabulary exercise builder). The section worked with in the implementation of the type of activities proposed in this paper belong to the Research section in this web page, which also contains a wide range of other valuable tools for processing text such as frequency list-makers, HTML-tag strippers (useful for rendering HTML files into text files for further analysis), corpus builders (for those who wish to create their own corpora), and a sentence extractor, which removes end punctuation from sentences in texts. Other tools in the same section enable the researcher to locate words and phrases in different corpora, and the concordance tools with links to English and French concordancing programs can be used with little difficulty for a range of purposes.

This Web Concordancer, linked to entries in WordNet, has both corpus and text-based concordances in English and French, which allows the user to search various corpora in order to look at instances of language in their native/natural contexts, and to access collocational information. The 13 available English corpora include the Brown and British National Corpus (BNC) in both spoken and written forms, an Academic General corpus of 6 million words; the BNC Law corpus of 2 million words approximately; the US TV talk corpus of 338.000 words, and other corpora of different sizes on various disciplines and contexts.

In addition, a highly operational interface linked to pages that provide specific info on the available corpora; to WordReference dictionary and to fragments of the source texts that comprise the corpus in use for more context makes of this Internet site devoted to data-driven learning a user-friendly tool. Learners enter keywords, and can customize the search sorting the keyword to the left or to the right. Options include adding a second, associated word for generating more specific results, the concordanced output showing the key word as it has been used in real contexts. The tool offers students the means to search for frequent collocates, and to verify their own use of concordances for frequent words in different contexts, which fosters new words learning and improves fluency (Nation, 2001).

One of the direct pedagogic applications using the concordancer in this AL course was designed to raise trainees' awareness of the use of reporting verbs (see Annex 1). In this practice, students are presented with a list of reporting verbs they have to do research on extrapolating the dictionary description of the clause patterns that feature these verbs and the actual patterns of the clauses natives construct. The analysis is aimed at, first, verifying the frequency with which these verbs are used by

natives in different contexts; secondly, comparing and contrasting the prescriptive rules in the dictionary and or grammar text for the different meanings of these verbs and the actual language use in its natural environment. Lastly, trainees present a report with their findings following academic genre texts conventions.

Most studies in corpus linguistics use basic descriptive statistics, which do not seek to test for significance, but rather provide quantitative data. Frequency counts are the most basic statistical measure, a simple count of the number of instances in which the selected keyword occurs in a corpus. Students are not required much background in statistics to carry out these activities; the Complete Lexical Tutor provides this data, giving the total number of counts as well as standardized or relative frequency counts per million words. Therefore, by means of the simplest routine, when verifying the frequency with which the given keyword is used by natives in different contexts, students are able to analyze and decide if this is a frequently used word or whether an alternative word to realize the same meaning in the contexts explored should be considered. Answering the question of how often the keyword may appear in the different corpora alone is valuable information, not available in dictionaries, about the use of lexical items in natural contexts.

Towards a more qualitative analysis, comparing and contrasting the prescriptive rules in the dictionary (and or grammar texts) for the different meanings of these verbs with the actual language use in its natural environment as seen in the results of customized searches in digitalized corpora raises students' awareness of language structure and fosters metalanguage acquisition. The decisions students need to make regarding the specifications for the search before running the concordance; for instance, associated words to the left or to the right of the keyword according to the description the dictionary gives of the clause pattern that typically follows the reporting verb in this activity, already promote critical thinking about the language as a system. Furthermore, customizing the search of the keyword in order to retrieve the verbs in its different tenses, and the manual selection and analysis of the hits that represent the patterns under study gets students involved in hands-on professional-like research practice.

Finally, trainees are asked to write a report with their findings answering the questions in the assignment and following academic genre texts conventions. The meaningful sequence of the activities in this practice, as well as other lexical analysis carried out with the same electronic tool (see Annex 2), as part of the AL process in this EFL teacher training course at university level promotes professional enculturation and the development of linguistic competences and specific disciplinary knowledge skills and thinking patterns of the target community.

Going beyond the development of academic writing as an isolated macro skill of production in higher education, AL engages trainees in the development of professional competences. Academic writing itself becomes a powerful epistemological tool; the means to gain and get hold of, transform and communicate disciplinary knowledge. Applied linguistics and the implementation of pedagogical corpus applications in ELT-training from an inductive constructivist approach provided enhanced teaching strategies for learning and consolidating knowledge about the system of the language and for developing academic writing as a macro-skill. Simple but meaningful professional-like research activities, through which

knowledge is encoded from data by learners themselves, are likely to foster the development of an academic culture of research.

Annex 1

Practice # 1:

Reporting verbs revisited

We often use more specific verbs to report speech focusing on the speech acts, therefore conveying much more information about the exchange than the typical reporting verbs “say” and/or “tell” do. Besides understanding the meaning these more specific reporting verbs convey, focus should also be put on the lexicogrammatical structure that realizes those meanings.

In this practice, we’ll analyze the use of different reporting verbs in digitalized genuine texts.

GROUP 1: offer, refuse, agree, promise

GROUP 2: advise, invite, warn, persuade

GROUP 3: admit, regret, deny, apologize for

1. Run the Corpus Concordance English (v.6.5) <http://www.lex tutor.ca/conc/eng/> with the reporting verbs in the list above, and, with the help of the online dictionary, verify and describe its use in the General Academic (6+m) corpus answering the following questions:

- a. Is this reporting verb frequently used in academic texts?
- b. What are the most frequent clause patterns featuring this reporting verb for the meanings described in the dictionary?
- c. Provide examples to illustrate each case.

1. Run the Corpus Concordance English (v.6.5) with the same reporting verb using the Brown Spoken English Corpus (1+m) to compare/ contrast its use in this other context.

Example: Clause pattern featuring the reporting verb persuade

PERSUADE per•suade /pɚˈsweɪd/

1. to cause (a person) to do something, as by advising or urging:
[~ + object + to + verb] I persuaded her to go with me to the party.
[~ + object + into/out of + object] I persuaded her into going to the party with my roommate.
2. to convince (someone); cause (someone) to believe something:
[~ + object + of + object] They persuaded the judge of her innocence.
[~ + object + (that) clause] They persuaded the judge that she was innocent.

Results:

Quantitative data

Academic General (6m words)

1. to cause (a person) to do something, as by advising or urging:
[~ + object + to + verb] 120 hits (20 pm)
[~ + object + into/out of + object] into: 5 hits (1 pm)/ out of: 0 hits
2. to convince (someone); cause (someone) to believe something:
[~ + object + of + object] 12 hits (2 pm)
[~ + object + (that) clause] 73 hits (12 pm)

Brown Spoken Corpus (1m words)

1. to cause (a person) to do something, as by advising or urging:

[~ + object + to + verb] 7 hits (7 pm)

[~ + object + into/out of + object] 0 hits for both of them

2. to convince (someone); cause (someone) to believe something:

[~ + object + of + object] 0 hits

[~ + object + (that) clause] 2 hits (2 pm)

Annex 2

Practice # 2:

Similar but different

Begin and start

Run the Corpus Concordance English (v.6.5) <http://www.lex Tutor.ca/conc/eng/> with the verbs begin and start, and, with the help of the online dictionary, answer the following questions:

1. What is the difference in the frequency of these two verbs in different corpora?
2. What form of the verbs are they typically followed by?
3. What form of the infinitive, to inf or ing, seems to be more frequent after these verbs? Is this related to whether the verbs that follow them are state or action verbs? or is this related to the tense these verbs are used when constructing the clause?

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ASPECTUAL STATUS OF *-IYOR*

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Abstract

This paper aims to discuss the aspectual status of *-lyor* in Turkish as an aspect marker with different aspectual values determined by the context. In authentic texts in a variety of genres, it has been observed that *-lyor* has uses beyond the original definition of progressivity. Adverbials and context play an important role in determining semantic aspectual distinctions. Although it seems economical to claim that one form is used to express only one function, this does not seem to work in Turkish with *-lyor*.

I. Introduction

In this paper, I investigate the aspectual status of *-lyor* in Turkish as an aspect marker with different aspectual values depending on the context by arguing against the claims that *-lyor* is a present tense marker. This claim is based on the observation that *-lyor* has uses beyond the original definition of progressivity. The question arises whether it should be given some other definitions like perfective or perfect.

In Turkish, the aspectual distinctions are not grammaticalized. Thus, adverbials and context play an important role in determining semantic aspectual distinctions. According to Comrie's (1976), "Aspect is used to refer to general semantic oppositions possible". This is similar to the definition of viewpoint aspect of Smith (1997) 'Viewpoint aspects are necessary to make visible the situation talked about in a sentence'. Smith's framework does not seem to account for the *-lyor* question in Turkish. First of all, affixation is not the only way of determining the viewpoint aspect, since there are other factors determining the aspectual value of a sentence. That is to say, it might be the case that the sentence having *-lyor* marked on the verb expresses a viewpoint which is neither imperfective nor progressive. The data I use in this paper come from newspapers, TV and radio broadcasts.

In Turkish verbal markers have both tense and aspectual features. Although it expresses different aspects and it is used in narrative, as present tense is in other languages, I claim *-lyor* is not a tense marker, since it is used in combination with other tenses (future and past) like *geliyordu*, *geliyor olacak* "S/he was coming, s/he will be coming".

First, I will summarize the characterization of *-lyor*. In Section 2, I will summarize the aspects that are relevant to the uses of *-lyor*. Third, the interaction of *-lyor* with situation types will be dealt with. Later, different uses of *-lyor* will be discussed. Finally I will make some concluding remarks.

II. Definitions

1. Traditional Grammars

Lewis (1968) analyzes *-lyor* as the Present Tense marker. It is originally ancient *yorlamak* "to go, walk". This tense is used for actions either in progress or envisaged and where English has the perfect.

Underhill (1976) points out that Turkish suffix *-lyor*, from the verb "to walk, go" which formerly in the spoken language and currently in the written language

expresses progressive meaning, but in current spoken language, it is also used for habitual.

Banguoğlu (1974) and Ergin (1993) also analyze *-lyor* as a present tense marker which is used to talk about both habitual and on-going actions.

2. Kornfilt (1997)

Kornfilt (1997) discusses *-lyor* as having different aspectual values like stative continuous aspect, progressive aspect, ingressive aspect e.g. *koltuğa oturuyorum* “I am sitting in the chair”, and iterative aspect e.g. *Hasan çok öksürüyor* “Hasan coughs a lot”.

She also points out that it is also used in narratives without talking about the aspectual value of the following example.

(1) *Hasan işine gidiyor fakat kapıyı kapalı bulunca hayal kırıklığına uğruyor ve eve dönüyor.*

Hasan goes to work but when he finds the door closed, he gets disappointed and goes back home.

She points out that the narrative above refers to events happened in the past, *-lyor* is chosen among other past tense markers like *-miş* and *-DI*.

3. Taylan et. al. (2001)

Taylan et. al. (2001) talk about the role of adverbials in aspectual interpretation and claim that *-lyor* is an imperfective marker rather than a progressive marker, since it is used with stative verbs.

4. Yavaş (1980)

Yavaş (1980) claims that *-DI* is the only tense marker in Turkish, thus the absence of any tense marker suggests that it is present. This implies that *-lyor* is not the present tense marker as claimed in traditional grammar books. She compares *-lyor* with the aorist saying that when the progressive is used, it gives stage-level interpretation, whereas, Aorist gives individual-level interpretation expressing the action as a property of the agent.

III. Imperfective, Perfective, and Perfect

1. Comrie (1976)

Comrie (1976) defines the imperfective as explicit reference to the internal temporal structure of a situation viewing a situation from within and the perfective as viewing the situation from outside focusing on beginning and ending. Perfectivity indicates a complete action; all the parts are presented as a single whole. Perfective forms can refer to situations that have internal structure. However, imperfective forms cannot be used to refer to situations lacking internal structure. He categorizes habitual as a subdivision of imperfective. Habituals describe a situation which is characteristic of an extended period of time. Analysis of habituals by Comrie is more applicable to Turkish than Smith’s account as described in III.2 below.

Progressive, as he claims, is used for actions that require a constant input of energy to be sustained. Comrie claims that the perfect aspect, being different from other aspects, relates some state to a preceding situation. I will take perfect as an

aspect in this study following Comrie. I will also consider Prospective aspect, where state is related to some subsequent situation.

Where a form seems to have more than one meaning, it is often the case that one of these meanings seems more central. Comrie implies that aspect can be determined in the context. *He comes here* is habitual so imperfective in his framework. However, in *when he comes here, I'll tell him* it is narrative present and thus perfective.

2. Smith (1997)

Smith's (1997) theory of aspect has two parts: situation aspect, which is the classification of a situation as a state, activity, achievement, accomplishment or semelfactive; and second the viewpoint aspect in which the main semantic difference among aspectual viewpoints is in how much of a situation they make visible. Perfective viewpoints focus a situation in its entirety, including endpoints; Imperfective viewpoints focus an interval that excludes endpoints; Neutral viewpoints include the initial point and at least one stage of a situation. I will not consider Neutral viewpoint for Turkish because of the theory internal inconsistencies such that she claims it for English Future Tense but not for French. She considers Perfect as a construction having both temporal and aspectual features.

Smith says that imperfective viewpoints present part of situation, with no information about its endpoints. Thus, they are open informationally. She also argues for two types of imperfectives which are the general imperfective and the progressive: The former focuses on intervals of all situation types; the latter only applies to non-statives. She points out that progressives focusing on the internal stages of non-stative events, tend to appear in all tenses, in contrast, general imperfectives tend to be limited to past tenses.

Sentences with a Perfective viewpoint present a situation as a whole. The span of the perfective includes the initial and final endpoints of the situation: it is closed informationally. The perfective linguistically presents situations as punctual whether or not they actually have internal structure and whether they actually take time. The perfective may vary in meaning according to the endpoint type of a situation: telic events have natural endpoints, atelic events have arbitrary endpoints.

She claims that the information conveyed by viewpoint constitutes its semantic meaning. Semantic meaning is conveyed by linguistic form and cannot be cancelled. That is, if the verb has zero marking on the verb, the only aspectual interpretation is Perfective in English.

It is also claimed that imperfective forms are used in discourse for setting up background situations, perfective forms are used for narrating sequences.

3. Tonne (2001)

According to Tonne (2001), the simple verb in Norwegian can have imperfective meaning even with non-stative verbs. It is ambiguous with regard to aspectuality depending on the context. That is to say, lexical semantics of the verb and the arguments give the final aspectuality interpretation of the sentence.

In Norwegian, the progressive form is not obligatory for an imperfective aspect interpretation. When it is used, it combines with telic sentences, whereas, the

process progressive is used with achievement refers to a phase prior to the point of change.

IV. Interaction of situation types and *-lyor*

Following Smith (1997) I will talk about the situation types which are state, activity, achievement, accomplishment and semelfactive, which can be defined as expressing action as single in its occurrence without repetition or continuation, and their interaction with *-lyor*.

1. State

Constellations in which the verb has the feature State are stative. In Turkish so called “progressive” marker *-lyor* is used with states which is the reason for many to claim that it is a general imperfective marker rather than a progressive marker. I will discuss this issue in the following section.

(2) a. *Seni çok iyi anlıyorum.*

I understand you very well.

b. *Beni sevdiğini biliyordum.*

I knew you love/loved me.

c. *Seni seviyorum/severim.*

I love/like you.

d. *Senden hoşlanıyorum/ ?hoşlanırım.*

I like you.

States can be used with present or past progressive as in (2a) and (2b). In (2c) the use of *-lyor* makes a lexical difference such that first form means ‘love’ in English; second one means ‘like’. In (2d), the form without *-lyor* sounds borderline unacceptable. Considering such examples, it seems like most state verbs require the use of *-lyor*, since the situation takes time.

2. Activity

Activities are atelic, dynamic, and durative. They are used with present and past imperfective aspect.

(3) a. *Dans ediyor.*

S/he is dancing.

b. *Ali araba kullanıyordu.*

Ali was driving.

(3a) refers to an action in progress at present, but it may express habitual sense with the use of an adverbial. (3b) is ambiguous between habitual reading happened in the past and certain instance of driving that takes certain amount of time.

(4) a. *Dün Ali’yi gördüğümde araba kullanıyordu.*

When I saw Ali yesterday, he was driving.

b. *Ali eskiden hergün araba kullanıyordu.*

Ali used to drive every day.

Imperfective is not compatible with semelfactives, that is, they become derived activity when they are used with imperfective *-lyor*.

(5)a. *Ali öksürüyor.*

Ali is coughing.

b. *Ayşe kapıyı çalıyor.*

Ayşe is knocking on the door.

3. Achievement

In achievement situation type, verbs with the features telic and instantenous combine with a countable argument in verb constellations. Achievements with so called progressive marker refers to completed action, it does not refer to the phase before the event takes place as it does in English.

(6) a. *Ali okula varıyor.*

Ali is arriving at school.

b. *Ali rakibini geçerek bitiş çizgisini geçiyor.*

Ali passes the finish line by passing his rival.

c. *??Ameliyat yapıldığı zaman Ali ölüyordu ama ölmedi.*

??During the surgery, Ali was dying, but he didn't.

Sentences (6a) and (6b) imply the aftermath of the events mentioned. However, in (6c), *-lyordu* with achievement sentences refers to completed actions, so it is odd to conjoin a statement with a contradictory meaning.

4. Accomplishment

Telic situations are durative, and they express accomplishment. Especially in (7a), it is not certain whether the action is completed since imperfective focuses on some part of the situation. In (7b), the sentences has a habitual meaning which can be reinforced by the use of an adverbial like *hergün* "every day".

(7) a. *Ali bir daire çiziyordu.*

Ali was drawing a circle.

b. *Ali okula yürüyor.*

Ali walks to school.

V. Aspectual roles of *-lyor*

1. Imperfective uses

Bybee et. al. (1994) state that progressive may generalize into imperfective meaning. I will follow Taylan (2001) in claiming that *-lyor* is general imperfective since it is used with statives rather than a progressive. We might argue that *-lyor* is progressive with non-statives in the present tense, and it is general imperfective in the past tense since imperfective is generally found in the past tense in the languages with lexically marked imperfective. The same marker to express both progressive and general imperfective.

In the following sentences *-lyor* is used in the present imperfective aspect. They all refer to the cases whose initial and final endpoints are stated, that is they are open situations.

(8) a. *Kapıda girilmez yazıyor.*

It says "do not enter" on the the door.

b. *Sergide 94 eser yer alıyor.*

There are 94 artifacts at the exhibit.

c. *FB büyük düşünüyor.*

FB thinks big.

d. *Şu saatlerde hükümet toplantı yapıyor.*

At this time, the government is having a meeting.

In sentences (8a-c), the verbs refer to states although the verbs are not all statives, and (8d) refers to an activity in progress, which is reinforced by the use of adverbial. In the following sentences both sentences refer to past imperfective although past is not marked on (9a), and it is more like a narrative.

(9) a. *Bir gün Terim'le konuşuyorum.*

I am talking to Terim one day.

b. *Bir gün Terim'le konuşuyordum.*

I was talking to Terim one day.

The sentences with the verb *ol-* in (10a-c) refer to change of state. They express a transition or limited amount of time reading.

(10) a. *Hasta oluyorum.*

I am getting sick.

b. *Bazen çok kaba oluyorsun.*

Sometimes you act very rude.

c. *"It wasn't me" ve "My love" listemize yeni giren şarkılar oluyor.*

"It wasn't me" and "My love" are the new songs making it to our list.

2. Habitual

Smith (1997) says habitual sentences are derived in situation. In her framework, they are compatible with progressive since they are considered as a situation type. I will consider them as a subcategory of imperfective aspect following Comrie (1976). Habituals describe a situation which is characteristic of an extended period of time. Aorist is claimed to be the habitual marker in Turkish, however, *-lyor* seems to express habitual meaning in the following examples.

Consider the following examples:

(11) a. *O sabahları erken kalkıyor, banyo yapıyor ve hemen yürüyüşe çıkıyor.*

S/he is waking up early, takes a shower and goes for a walk right away.

b. *5 saniyede 1 kişi AIDS'e yakalanıyor.*

In every 5 seconds, on person catches AIDS.

c. *Bu dernek tüketiciyi temsil etmiyor mu?*

Doesn't this union represent the consumer?

d. *Kız çocuklarının çok azı okula gönderiliyor.*

Very few of the girls are sent to school.

e. *Kuyruğa girmeleri gerekiyor.*

They need to wait in line.

All the sentences above express habitual reading meaning these activities or events are repeated over time and it is the pattern which is observed for a certain period of time.

3. Perfective uses

The examples taken from sports-announcer use may seem as marked examples of “imperfective” *-lyor*. However, a further analysis shows that when *-lyor* is used with achievements, it may function as perfective as can be seen in the following examples.

(12) a. *İpi göğüslüyor ve yarışı kazanıyor.*

He crosses the finish line and wins the race.

b. *Tarik topu alıyor, kaleyi görüyor ve çok güzel vuruyor ama kaleci aynı güzellikle topu kurtarıyor.*

Tarik takes the ball, sees the goal, and kicks it beautifully, but the goal keeper saves it as beautifully.

c. **Yarışı kazanıyordu ama kazanamadı.*

*He was winning but couldn't win.

The following sentences with *-lyor* refer to informationally closed situations in the past. As in (12c), we cannot conjoin them with assertions that the events continue. They express either anger or surprise. (13b) may be prospective or progressive depending on the context.

(13) a. *Sana çok kızdım; eve geliyorum ama kimseyi bulamıyorum, sözünü unutmamalısn.*

I got really angry with you; I come home and can't find anyone, you can't forget about your promise.

b. *Bu havada dışarı çıkıyorsun ve derse gidiyorsun. Helal olsun sana!*

You are going out in this weather and going to class. Kudos to you!

Performatives in English are used in perfective aspect according to Smith (1997). I will follow her analysis in terms of perfective aspect, but the difference is that performatives are expressed by “imperfective” aspect marker in Turkish, which presents difficulties for those who analyse aspect only by looking at affixation.

(14) *Sizi karı koca ilan ediyorum.*

I announce you husband and wife.

In the following sentences, the used of *-lyor* draws attention to the actual completion of an event. Some of these sentences can be analyzed as states like *gözüküyor* ‘it seems/appears’.

(15) a. *1.4 milyon çocuğun HIV virüsü taşıdığı kaydediliyor.*

It is stated that 1.4 million children carry the HIV virus.

b. *Aslanyürk son anda pürüzler çıktığını söylüyor...*

Aslanyurek says that there were last minute hurdles.

c. *Benim başıma gelen bu olaylar bu söylentiyi doğruluyor.*

What happened to me confirms this rumor.

d. *Yaşlı olduğunu hatırlamasına yardımcı olmuş gözüküyor.*

It seems to have helped him to remember that he is elderly.

4. Perfect uses

Arslan (2001) analyzes the following sentences as examples of Universal Perfect. Following Comrie's definition of Perfect, the sentences with time adverbials like *-dır* and *-dAn beri* are considered as examples of Perfect aspect.

(16) a. *8 yıldır Boğaziçi'nde okuyorum.*

I have been studying at Bogazici for 8 years.

b. *1994'ten beri Boğaziçi'nde okuyorum.*

I have been studying at Bogazici since 1994.

5. Prospective

When *-lyor* is used to refer to a future action, it expresses some kind of plan and certainty. Time adverbials or the context give the futurate sense rather than internal structure or completion of the situation in the following examples. I assert that the aspect of future sentences are neither perfective nor imperfective.

(17) a. *Önümüzdeki hafta Avrupa Gençlik Festivali başlıyor.*

Next week, European Youth Festival is starting.

b. *Rüştü sezon sonunda Avrupa'ya gidiyor.*

Rustu is going to Europe at the end of the season.

c. *Şimdi reklamları seyrediyoruz.*

We are watching the commercials now.

d. *Rus askeri varlığı Afganistan'a geri dönüyor.*

The Russian military presence is returning to Afganistan.

e. *Yeni yasa tasarısına göre ÖSYM sınav merkezi oluyor.*

According to the new bill, OSYM is assigned as the testing center.

In (17a-c) the future is marked by the time adverbials, whereas, in (17d,e) it is contextually determined.

VI. Conclusion

-lyor can express all the aspects depending on lexical properties and the context, so it is not only a progressive or an imperfective aspect marker. There is no one-to-one correlation between form and meaning in the case of *-lyor* since it has multiple functions and uses determined by the context.

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PLURAL MARKING AND INDIVIDUATION EFFECTS IN GENERIC SENTENCES IN TURKISH

DİLEK UYGUN

This study investigates the restrictions on the occurrence of singular and plural nouns in generic sentences in Turkish. Generic sentences are characterizing statements such as 'Whales are mammals', 'Dogs bark' which express generalizations over individuals or situations. While the expression of genericity in Turkish is a topic which has not been investigated much, it has been indicated that both bare singular and plural nouns can occur in characterizing statements (e.g., Dede, 1986; Göksel & Kerlake, 2005;; Schaaik, 1996; Tura, 1973):

- (1) a. Filler güçlü hayvanlardır.
'Elephants are strong animals.'
b. Fil güçlü bir hayvandır.
'The elephant is a strong animal.'

Regarding the difference between the use of the singular and plural forms, Schaaik (1996) indicates that singular nouns are associated with strong genericity where reference to individuals is weak and plural nouns are associated with weak genericity with strong reference to individuals. According to Göksel and Kerlake (2005) the singular noun in generic statements refers to the 'class' as a single whole and used to indicate generalizations which are more absolute in nature such as laws of nature, definitions and classifications. However, these explanations do not account for the restrictions exemplified by the following sentences:

- (2) a. Patates C vitamini yönünden zengindir.
'The potato is rich in vitamin C.'
b. ?Patatesler C vitamini yönünden zengindir.
'Potatoes are rich in vitamin C.'
(3) a. ?Brezilyalı iyi futbol oynar.
'The Brazilian plays football well.'
b. Brezilyalılar iyi futbol oynar.
'Brazilians play football well.'

The generic sentences in (2) show that a characterizing statement about 'potatoes' is more acceptable with the singular form of the noun than the plural. On the contrary, the generic sentences in (3) demonstrate that a characterizing statement about 'Brazilians' is more acceptable in the plural form rather than the singular. Based on the Individuation Continuum (Lucy, 1992), this study argues that the restrictions on the occurrence of singular and plural nouns as illustrated by the above examples is an effect of the individuation associated with the concepts that the nouns 'potato' and 'Brazilian' refer to. On the individuation scale animates are at one end of the scale and are more individualized compared to substances which

lie on the other end, with inanimates falling somewhere in the middle of the scale. In this study it is proposed that in Turkish for nouns such as 'Brazilian' denoting animate entities conceptualized as bounded and discrete, it is the plural form which is used in the expression of genericity. On the other hand, for nouns like 'potato' denoting entities less individualized, it is the singular form which is used in generic contexts.

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ANAPHORA IN ENGLISH AND TUNISIAN ARABIC: OVERT VERSUS COVERT ANTECEDENTS

TAIEB JABLI

Abstract

A proper definition of anaphora is still missing from theoretical linguistics for, contrary to a large body of academic publishing, no satisfactory definition of this linguistic phenomenon has so far been provided. It is sometimes thought that anaphora, for example, is no different from deixis. In this paper, I will make the distinction between *anaphora*, *deixis*, on the one hand, and *presupposition*, on the other hand. Then I will examine how anaphora in English is different from that in Tunisian Arabic. In doing so, I will show that the antecedent in English need not be an overt verbal expression, but can be a purely cognitive inference. I will next argue that in Tunisian Arabic the case is different, because in that language, the antecedent must be an explicit verbal expression.

EXPRESSING THE L WORD IN ARABIC

WALAA HASSAN

Introduction

The legend for the book of Genesis states that as the sons of Noah decided to build a tower up to heaven, known later in history as the Tower of Babel, God decided to punish their- and actually all human- arrogance. Thus, God “confused the language of the whole earth.” Ever since not even two workers working on the tower project have been able to communicate the idea of moving a brick. The building process stopped, however, “the Lord scattered them abroad over the face of the whole earth.”



Image of Tower of Babel

In the modern age, people speaking the same language can feel massively distant apart specially when it comes to expressing *love* and intimacy. Luckily, different languages of humans around the globe can be learned, even with lots of efforts. However, the language of *love* has more complicated issues that humans need to realize in order to reach the hoped for intimacy communication. Also, though *love* is one of the most talked about human emotions, it remains vague and least understood. This vagueness may be attributed to many variables, of which the linguistic variable is one of the most important. The linguistic variable is not only about expressing the state of being in *love*, but also about the right

way of expressing it in human languages which is one of the most distinctive ways languages manifest their uniqueness.

“I love you” is expressed by “I want you” (te quiero) in Spanish, “(you) are (a) love(-source) (to me)” (suki da) in Japanese, “I love towards you” (aku cinta pada mu) in Indonesian, “I love a part of you” (!) (rakastan sinua) in Finnish, “I wish good (things to happen) to you” (ti voglio bene) in Italian, “to-me from-you love is” (mujhe tum-se pyar hê) in Hindi and many other languages spoken in India, “love I-have-you” (maite zaitut) in Basque, “to me you me-love-are” (me shen mi-kvar-khar) in Georgian (Georgia, southern Caucasus), “I I-you-love” (she ro-haihu) in Guarani (Paraguay). (Hagége 2009)

This study is mainly interested in describing the different terms of expressing the state of *love* in Arabic with specific consideration of the linguistic situation of expressing *the L word* in Egyptian Arabic (henceforth, EA). Moreover, it investigates how the semantic features of different Arabic *love* words play an important role in the way the Egyptian society, as an example of Arabic-speaking societies, perceives these words.

Keywords: Love, the L word, Egyptian Arabic, Arabic

Abbreviations

(SM): Singular masculine, (SF): Singular feminine

1. The Many Linguistic Expressions of Love in Arabic

The Literature of Classical Arabic (henceforth, CA) as well as that of Modern standard Arabic (henceforth, MSA) offer a huge and variable linguistic reference on the lexicon of *love*. Since this study is interested in MSA and EA, there is no room to mention this in detail. MSA offers at least nine different correspondent words for the English word *Love*, these are: (1) ‘ishq, (2) hayaam, (3) Hubb, (4) gharaam, (5) hawa, (6) widd, (7) Sa:ba, (8) law’ah, (9) jawa . Each of these words represents a different stage of being in *love* and is confined by its semantic features so that it would be accepted within a certain social frame.

1.1. ‘ishq

‘*ishq* represents the highest level of *love*, semantically it is associated with passionate selfless *love* emotions. In the history of Arabic literature this word was more attached to the true *love* reserved only for God expressed in the poetry and writings of Sufists and was mostly referred to as *l-‘ishq l-ilaahii*. Modern Arabs brought the word to attention once again in reference to this ardent passion of *love*. When a *lover* is in the state of ‘*ishq*, *I love you* is said as in (1):

(1) A- ?a-‘shaquk

I- Nom.-love-prst-you(SM)-Acc.

“I love you.”

B- ?a’shaquki

I-Nom.-love-prst-you(SF)-Acc.

“I love you.”

In EA, the word 'ishq has phonologically changed to 'ish?, however it is hardly used as a noun. Egyptian *lovers* who are deeply in *love* use it as a verb to express their deep emotions. It is common and the word that a *lover*, eventually, wants to hear the *be/loved*. Consider the examples in (2):

- (2) A- ba'sha?ak
 I- Nom.-/love-prst.-you(SM)-Acc.
 "I *love* you."
 B- ba'sha2ik
 I- Nom.-/love-prst.-you(SF)-Acc.
 "I *love* you."

Interestingly enough, "'ishq" can be seen in many different languages in which it also means *love*. This is because of Arabic's far-reaching influence. These languages include, but are not limited to, Persian, Turkish, Urdu, Hindi, Punjabi, Sindhi, Pashto and Azerbaijani. Arabic isn't the only language that has a plethora of different words used to express *love*. Greek, a language that has largely influenced English, also uses a variety of words for *love*.

1.2. Hayaam

The word *hayaam* is a noun the origin of which may be attributed to the verb *haama*, which means to wander with no particular intension. Thinking of this word within the framework of this meaning may help us to better understand that some one who is in the state of *hayaam* with someone else is a person who's uncontrollable state of *love*. This word is of the semantic features that relates to a *lover* who is in a constant state of thinking about the *be/loved* all the time. The word *hayaam* is commonly used in MSA, that is to say it appears more in the written form of the language. To say *I love you* using this word it would be as in (3):

- (3) A- ?a-himu bi-ka
 I- Nom.-/love-prst with-you(SM)-Acc.
 "I am in *love* with you."
 B- ?a-himu bi-ka
 I- Nom.-/love-prst with-you(SF)-Acc.
 "I am in *love* with you."

The word *hayaam* manifests itself in EA mainly as an adjective, that is a *lover* who's totally into the *be/loved* and continuously thinking about these feelings is *haymaan*, for a male, and *haymanah*, for a female as in (4):

- (4) A- ?ana haymaan biiki
 I- Nom. in-/love with-you(SF)
 "I am in *love* with you."
 B- ?ana haymaana biik
 I- Nom. in-/love with-you(SM)
 "I am in *love* with you."

As the examples in (4) show, the adjective form of the term *hayaam* that is used in Egyptian Arabic, *haymaan* and *haymanah*, corresponds to the English term *in love with* more than the simple *I love you*. To add even a stronger effect, a collocation of *'aashiq haymaan* is used to stress that a *lover* is totally and wholly in *love*. It is worth mentioning that this collocation is mainly used with the male *lover*, it would sound unacceptable to be used to describe a female *lover*.

- (5) A- enta ba2eet 'aashi? haymaan.
 you-Nom. become-pst lover(SM)-Acc. ...
 "You are deeply in *love*."
 B- ?? enti ba2eeti 'aash?a haymaanah.
 you-Nom. become-pst lover(SF)-Acc. ...
 "You are deeply in *love*."

1.3. Hubb

Hans Wher, A Dictionary of Modern Written Arabic (ed.,1980), translates the word *Hubb* to English as *love, affection, attachment*, and *l-mu'jam l-wasiiT* (The Middle Dictionary, ed., 2004) defines the word as "For philosophers, it is the tendency to *love* things or people that are dear, attractive or useful." (P.151) In general the word *Hubb* is the most commonly used word to express the state of being in *love* in Arabic, both Modern Standard Arabic and Egyptian Arabic. The well-known feature of Arabic as a very active language on the morphological level helped Arabs, from different regions, to form one word that is actually a phrase of a subject, a verb and an object that became the magical word of expressing *love*. Consider (6) and (7) from Modern Standard Arabic and Egyptian Arabic, respectively:

- (6) A- ?u-Hibu-k
 I- Nom.-*love*-Prst.-you(SM)-Acc.
 "I *love* you."
 B- ?u-Hibu-ki
 I- Nom.-*love*-Prst.-you(SF)-Acc.
 "I *love* you."
 (7) A- ba-Hib-ak
 I- Nom.-*love*-Prst.-you(SM)-Acc.
 "I *love* you."
 B- ba-Hib-ik
 I- Nom.-*love*-Prst.-you(SF)-Acc.
 "I *love* you."

As illustrated in (6) and (7) ?uHibuk/?uHibiki from the MSA changed phonologically as integrated into EA. Compared to *'ishq* and *hayaam*, *Hubb* has the connotation of being less fervent kind of *love* despite being very strong itself. However, *baHibak* and *baHibik* when said for someone you *love* in Egyptian society leave them with the most incredibly touched feelings, it is the magical way to say *I love you*. Similar to the *L* word in English, the semantic features of the *baHibak* / *baHibik* expression allowed it to be socially accepted on a wide scale. It is perfectly normal to hear it between friends, family members as well as *lovers*. Nevertheless, the way it sounds differs from one domain to another in a very remarkable way that you can easily recognize. One of the most interesting responses to *baHibak* / *baHibik* expression of *love* in EA is illustrated in (8):

- (8) A- Female: *ba-Hib-ak*
 I- Nom.-*love*-Prst.-you(SM)-Acc.
 Male: *ba-muut fi-ki*
 I- Nom.-die-Prst.-in-you(SM)-Gen.
 B- Male: *ba-Hib-ik*
 I- Nom.-*love*-Prst.-you(SF)-Acc.

Female: ba-muut fi-ik

I-Nom.-die-Prst.-in-you(SF)-Gen.

The response to the *L* word that (8) shows is, to my knowledge, confined to Arabic in general and EA in specific. Two remarks are worth of mentioning concerning the *bamuut* term: (1) the more you *love* someone, the longer the final vowel gets, (2) Egyptians tend to use the *mut* 'death' related terms to express that they have reached the maximum of a certain feeling status, consider (9):

(9) A- ?ana mayyt mn l-ta'b

I (am)-Nom. dead-Adj. from the-tiredness-Gen.

"I am exhausted."

B- ?ana mayyt mn l-guu'

I (am)-Nom. dead-Adj. from the-hunger-Gen.

"I am starving."

C- waHish-nii muut

Miss-Prst-me-Acc. death-Acc.

"I miss you so much."

D- baHibak muut

love-Prst-you(SM)-Acc. death-Acc.

"I love you so much."

Hubb and its family of verbs, adjectives and other derived words remain the most widely and commonly used term of expressing the *L* word in Arabic. It's comfortable, ensuring and of attractive effect on the significant other. However, Arabic speaking societies still find it difficult to use it frequently and publically both on the first and foremost perceived concept of *love* as the affection between *lovers* as well as the emotions shared between two friends, the *love* that a parent feels for their child or a *love* that a person may have for God.

1.4. gharaam, hawa

gharaam and *hawa* are two terms commonly used in Arabic *love* songs through ages. According to Hans Wher, A Dictionary of Modern Written Arabic (ed., 1980), the two terms translate to English as *love (n.)* or *affection* and they have the semantic features of ardent passionate *love* that can only be shared between *lovers*. On one hand, *gharaam* can also be used as an adjective, *mughram* (SM) and *mughramah* (SF) to refer to someone who is in a very attached *love* relation. On the other hand, *hawa* can be used in the verbal form, basically in MSA, to correspond to the English *I love you* expression that is to be:

(10) A- ?ahwa-ak

I- Nom.-love-Prst.-you(SM)-Acc.

"I love you."

B- ?a-hwaa-ki

I- Nom.-love-Prst.-you(SF)-Acc.

"I love you."

1.5. widd

widd is defined by *I-mu'jam I-wasiiT* (The Middle Dictionary, ed., 2004) as "approaching someone with a lot of *love* and intimacy". Similar to *Hubb*, *widd* is used widely to describe the intimacy and closeness in different human relationships.

In fact, it is more relevant to the friends and family relations as it implies a relation of close people who have many things in common. It is common both in MSA and EA in the noun form only.

1.6. *law'ah*, *jawa*, and *Sa:ba*

law'ah, *jawa*, and *Sa:ba*, are mainly used in the literature of Arabic language, specifically the written forms of modern literature. It is less used in post modern and contemporary literature and almost never used in EA and daily conversations. These terms are also frequently used in the classical and modern Arabic poetry than the post modern and contemporary one. The three terms are used only as nouns with the meaning of strong *love* that hurts the *lover* since it is not received well by the other part or because the two *lovers* are distantly apart.

2.0. Towards a more trusted *L* word

In 2010, Gary Chapman, an American pastor, wrote his book *The Five Love Languages* in which he identified five different *love* languages by the means of which people can understand, express, and communicate *love*. These five languages are: words of affirmation, touch, gifts, quality time and acts of service. To truly express *love* to someone, you need to recognize his/her language of *love* in order to *love* him or her better as well. This is not confined to romantic *love* relations, rather it should be the way we learn how to *love* our friends, family members and other dear ones better, not more.

The impotent understanding of *love* as the passionate stories of Romeo and Juliet, Tristan and Isolde and Layla and Majnun gave it an almost fairy-tale quality when, in fact, that may not be the case at all. Today's society has seemingly distorted the concept of *love* and turned it into this sort of romantic and mysterious entity that has powers all on its own. Perhaps as a society, our collective experience with *love* would change if we just changed our perception of the word itself. Individuals should learn to use the *L* word in different languages and societies responsibly to express all of their innocent feelings towards the other, who ever this other might be. To use it responsibly also means to help regain the trust in *the L word* since it will be used only when people mean it.

Specifically, the Egyptian society, as an example of Arabic-speaking societies, should get over this fear of expressing *love* openly and frankly. It needs to get over an accumulative understanding that showing and expressing *love* frequently is a sign of weakness. This is not confined to *lovers*, but goes further to different types of relations including family. The majority of Egyptian mothers do not say *I love you* to their children as frequently as they should, whereas it gets even harder for fathers to say who think of this as a way of spoiling their children.

To sum up, we, humans of different races and beliefs, need to speak to the soul what we have in the heart putting in consideration that having a lot of unexpressed *love* will not help when a relation fails. *Love* is not a prescribed set of actions. How boring would that be? It is a practice at understanding, an act as colorful, varied, surprising, and irregular as language.

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THE USES OF *NAFS* IN LINGUISTICS

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Abstract

Despite the mention of the existence of the Arabic reflexive marker *nafs*, there is to date no study which focuses primarily on the Arabic Middle Marker. The present paper investigates the middle category found inside the Arabic Middle Domain, namely non-reflexive. The Arabic Gigaword Corpus taken from the Linguistic Data Consortium with over than 350 million words has been used as a method to ascertain authentic and concise results. Findings show that the reflexive marker *nafs* has been used as a non-reflexive marker too; it is used to encode Middle situation types. The results raise several questions regarding middle systems cross-linguistically such as: do any other middle systems exhibit the use of the reflexive marker in Middle situation cases? And is this phenomenon due to language contact? This work provides an insight into the Arabic reflexive marker *nafs*, as well as a contribution to theoretical accounts of middle systems in general, and it raises more far reaching questions regarding Language influence.

1. Introduction

A great deal has been done recently on the Middle Domain (Steinbach 1997, Fagan 1992, Siemund 2010). Originally the term middle domain was applied by grammarians to designate an inflectional category of the Classical Greek verb and it expresses the idea that the verbal action is performed with special reference to the subject (Fagan: 1992). The present work studies the middle marker *nafs* as found inside the Modern Arabic Middle Domain, which will be defined in section 2. The study aims to show that (1) Kemmer's cross-linguistically account of middle systems is also applicable to Arabic, and more significantly (2) that the Arabic reflexive marker has developed from a simple body part marker to a non-reflexive pronoun.

The paper is organized as follows: section 2 defines what middle domain and reflexivity are. Section 3 introduces the methodology used to investigate the extension of *nafs* in the Middle Domain. Section 4 presents the results achieved and finally section 4 discusses the findings and recapitulates the main results.

2. Preliminaries

2.1 Reflexivity and Non-Reflexivity

As a starting point for reflexivity, I cite the definition of Faltz (1977) who states that a reflexive situation consists of a simple clause expressing a two-participant predication in which one participant is a human agent and the other is a patient and both fill different entities.

The example mentioned below describes a reflexive situation:

(1) John shaves himself.

John represents in this example the agent and himself is the patient. Both of them have two different semantic roles; different entities.

The equivalent of a reflexive situation in Arabic looks like in (2):

(2) *Nadhafa Alberto nafsahu.* (Arabic)Clean Alberto **REFL-Accu:Poss**

'Alberto cleanses himself'.

Reflexives can be simplex or complex. Simplex reflexives have a form that cannot be decomposed as in French *se*. Complex reflexives are composed of a pronominal element such as *self* in English.

Arabic uses the noun *nafs* 'soul' to form reflexive expressions. This noun is combined with a possessive pronominal suffix, which makes it a typical example of a complex reflexive. The reflexive pronoun originally refers back to soul and spirit. It is always used in religious contexts. Also, *nafs* is used in cases of intensification, to put accent on a subject or action, as it is described in example (3):

(3) *Alberto nafsahu dhahaba ila al masni'*Alberto Intensifier go **PREP ART** factory.

'Alberto himself went to the factory'.

2.2 The Middle Domain

The subject of middle and middle domains has been approached from the perspective of functional, typological and cognitive frameworks, following contributions made by Faltz (1985). In linguistic studies, the middle domain is generally used to refer to events in which the action or state affects the subject of the verb or its interests. Take for example:

(4) The cake cuts easily.

In this example the subject of the sentence cake is affected, seeing that the action of cutting is being practiced on the cake. It is notable in this sentence that the object is not overtly mentioned, but we understand from the context that there is somebody cutting the cake.

Each case in the middle domain is given a label to denote its semantic essence. Facilitative, for instance, denotes an explicit coordination with a passive. Anticausatives express events that are typically construed as spontaneous. Autocausatives, however, describes an action related to any body movement.

Languages which contain a middle marker and a middle system are termed middle-marking languages. Situation types which are expressed through the help of a middle marker are referred to as middle situations and together it all constitutes the Middle Domain.

According to Kemmer (1993) the difference between reflexivity and middle domain varies according to the agent of the sentence.

In reflexivity two distinct participants are mentioned, which both fill different entities, in the middle domain there is only one participant but it has two different semantic roles. To explain this distinguishability Kemmer (1993) uses a degree of distinguishability of participants as drawn below:

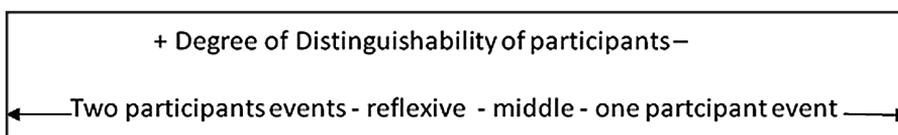


Figure 1.

The paradigm introduced by Kemmer (1993) clearly describes the difference between reflexivity and middle domain where in reflexivity two participants fill different entities (patient and agent) whereas in the middle domain it represents a special case of one participant event.

In Arabic, middle constructions are also identified. The verb stem IV *Inf'ala* (Ryding 2005) is used for the middle domain. However, this is only applicable to autocausatives and anticausatives as in the example mentioned below:

(5) *Inhana John*

Bow John.

'John bows himself'.

John is considered to be an actor in this sentence since the one performing this action is on his body. John changes his state from standing up to bowing. The action of changing in posture involves autocausatives.

Many other motion middles in Arabic are built in the same way in other words they take the form *Inf'ala* to convey the middle sense. Below is a selection of motion middle verbs in Arabic:

(6) *Irtama* (to fling), *inhadara* (to glie down), *intalaqa* (to dart), *indaf'a* (to plunge) *irtaqa* (to grow up), *inbataha* (to lie face down), *inzalaqa* (to skid).

3. Methodology

The data on which this study is based come from the *Arabic Gigaword Corpus* and from the *King Saudi University Classical Arabic Corpus* (KSUCCA). The former is available on DVD via Linguistic Data Consortium (LDC) and contains newswire data such as *Al Hayat News*, *Asharq Al-Awsat news*, *Agence France*, *Al-Nahar news*, etc. The corpus comprises 391619 million words. The KSUCCA is online accessible and contains data taken from sources like Literature, Religion and Science with about 50 million words.

The reason why two different corpora have been chosen is to achieve transparent results about the development of the reflexive pronoun over time and, mainly, because the Arabic computational linguistics field is still lacking Arabic parallel corpora that researchers can utilize in their academic works.

The corpora refer each to a different period of time. The *Arabic Gigaword Corpus* relies on data dating back to 19th century, Arabic latest emergence, whereas, the KSUCCA dates back to 1st to the 5th century, Arabic's earliest emergence. It would have been interesting to study data dating back to 17th century so as to follow the intermediate development of *nafs*, but, unfortunately, it was not possible to do it in this study due to the lack of Arabic data from that period of time.

The data collection has been divided into two parts, first, the Classical Arabic data, second, the Modern Standard Arabic. In each part, *nafs* is classified according to its use as a reflexive pronoun and non-reflexive pronoun. The use of *nafs* as intensifier has been excluded because this is not what this study aims at. In order to distinguish the reflexive use of *nafs* from non-reflexive three grammatical tests introduced by Steinbach (1997) have been used which are the negation, substitution and coordination tests.

I will here adhere to example 1 to shed light on the different distributional properties of *itself* in the middle domain:

- (7) Substitution John **shaves the dog**.
 (8) Coordination John **shaves himself and the dog**.
 (9) Negation John **did not shave** himself **but** the dog.

The reflexive sentence shows consistency when applying the tests. Himself in transitive sentences can be substituted by a nominal phrase, can be coordinated and can also be negated. The fact that these reflexive sentences pass the tests is due to the syntactic function of *himself*. Objects can be replaced, coordinated and negated. In contrast, *himself* in non-reflexive cases fails to pass the tests above for the only reason it does not have any independent grammatical function in the sentence.

In each extracted sentence, at least two tests have been applied and whenever *nafs* failed the test, it has been classified as non-reflexive.

4. Results

The use of *nafs* in both corpora has been detected in various contexts. *Nafs* has been used in contexts to express the meaning of a person, a physical being, as in the example below:

- (10) *aʔradhtu ʔn shatmihi ikraman li nafsī.* (Arabic)
 avoid- PREP insult-POS:SING respect-ADV for my soul
 "I avoided insulting him with respect to my soul"

It has also been detected in cases to express intensification, like:

- (11) *marartu bi rajuli nafsahu* (Arabic)
 passed-**Pron PREP man INTENSIFIER**
 "I passed by the same man".

Moreover, *nafs* is very often used to express reflexivity as in the following example:

- (12) *alqat bi nafsīha ilā nar* (Arabic)
 Threw **PREP INTENSIFIER PREP** fire
 "She threw herself into fire".

Quite often, *nafs* occurs in situations with one participant event as in (13):

- (13) *al sūal alladhi yaʔrahu nafsahu* (Arabic)
 Question PRON raise nafs-POS :SING
 "The question (that) raises itself".

The agent and the patient in this sentence are the same, there is one entity filled, i.e a one participant situation which is question. This example is a typical example of middle domain.

The search for *nafs* in KSUCCA resulted in 259 cases in which *nafs* occurs as a reflexive marker and 0 cases in which *nafs* occurs as a non-reflexive marker. The *nafs* examples are taken from text wires dating back to the 1st to the 5th century.

Below we cite an example taken from the KSSUCCA:

- (14) *3 Houkūm 3 almāniya t ʔtabirou nafs-a-h-a mas ūlatun akhlākiyan.* (Arabic)
 The government German considers **nafs-POS:N-ACC** responsible morally
 "The German government considers itself morally responsible".

In example (2) *nafs* is used as a reflexive pronoun since if coordinating the German government with any other subject the sentence would still has a meaning and sound grammatical.

Based on the Arabic Gigaword, we detected 8939 cases in which *nafs* occurs a reflexive marker and 8274 in which *nafs* is used as a non-reflexive marker (see

figure 2). In certain files, *nafs* has a high frequency in reflexive cases and in some others it occurs with lower frequency. In the majority of the files, the frequency of *nafs* has been detected in reflexive uses.

An example of non-reflexive *nafs* is illustrated below:

(15) *Lidhalika ajidu nafs morghama ala hifdhi kola faqra.* (Arabic)

For this reason I found **Refl-acc 3rd Sin:Poss** obliged **PREP** save each paragraph
 “For this reason I found myself obliged to save each paragraph”

In example (15) the verb *find* is fused with the reflexive pronoun *nafs* to give a new meaning that is different from the initial meaning of find *coming across something*. In this case, *nafs* is used as a lexicalizer, i.e. it is lexicalized with the verb to give birth to a new meaning which is ‘I have to’.

The use of *nafs* has been substantiated in anticausatives:

(16) *Iqtisadat souq tuhadidu nafs-a-ha bi istimra*

Economy Art market renew **Refl acc-3rd sing:poss** with continuously
 ‘The market economy renews itself continuously’.

As well as in autocausatives:

(17) *hina tdhommou nafs-aha ila nafs-ha*

Prep embrace **Refl acc3rd sing:poss** Prep Person.
 ‘when it embraces itself (the tree)’.

The use of *nafs* in autocausatives and anticausatives in several examples is a high indicator that *nafs* became a middle domain marker. The results achieved at out of the analyzed data are drawn below:

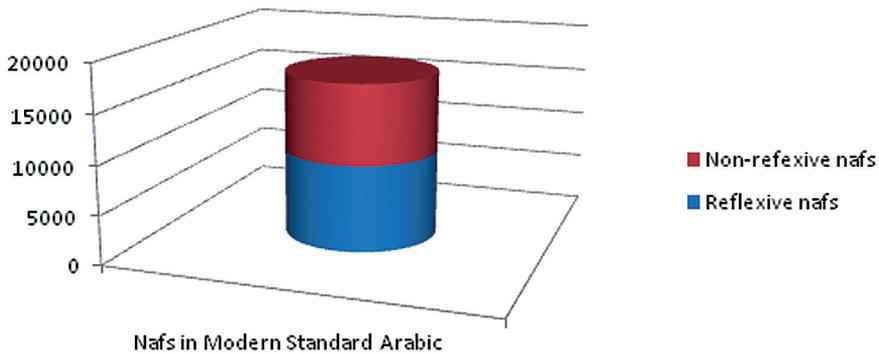


Figure 2. The occurrence of *nafs* in Modern Standard Arabic (19th century – 21st Century) according to KSUCCA

The figures mentioned below (figure 3 and 4) explain the difference in use of *nafs* in two different periods of time.

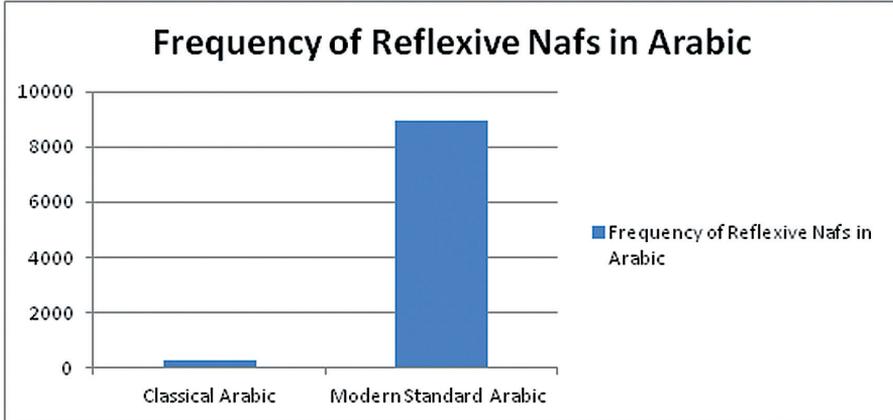


Figure 3. Reflexive *nafs* in Classical Arabic in comparison to Modern Arabic according to the Arabic Gigaword

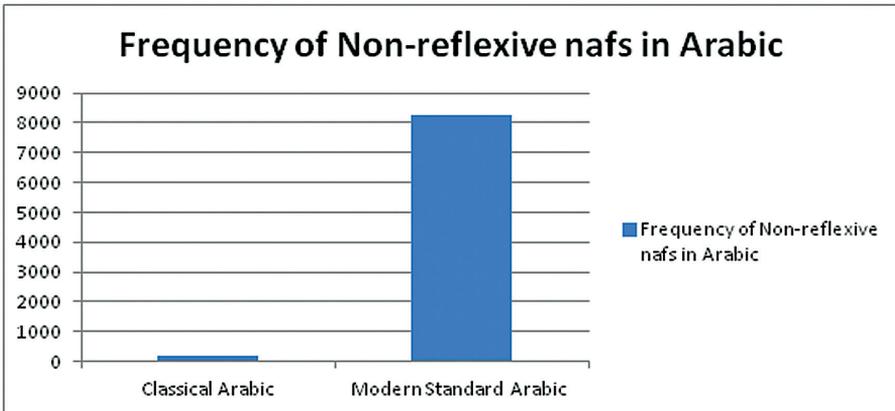


Figure 4. Non- reflexive *nafs* in Classical Arabic in comparison to Modern Arabic according to the Arabic Gigaword

5. Discussion

It is by no means evident to say that the Arabic language evolves over time. The variation of the language aspects is not random (Auer & Eich 2010). Simply speaking, the term *nafs*, which originally signifies *soul*, has been detected in primitive works like the Quran, poems, classical novels, in addition to its use as intensifier. It is all about authentic data dating back to the 1st to the 5th century. This body part marker expands to achieve a grammatical function in the language, similarly to other languages where the reflexive marker originally is a body part marker and as Faltz (1977) puts it generally languages having body part markers to be used as reflexive anaphors tend to have these reflexive anaphors changing their functions over time.

The figure below explains fairly the evolution of *nafs*:

Cross-linguistically, having an intensifier acting as a reflexive pronoun is not unusual, but this feature is not found in Classical Arabic, rather in Modern Standard Arabic and the verb types that co-occurred with *nafs* so far in MSA are similar to the verb types that occurred with non-reflexive *itself* in English. We mainly cite *translate itself*, *impose itself*, *find itself*, *arise itself*, *eat itself*, *dissolve itself*, etc., Siemund (2008, 2013).

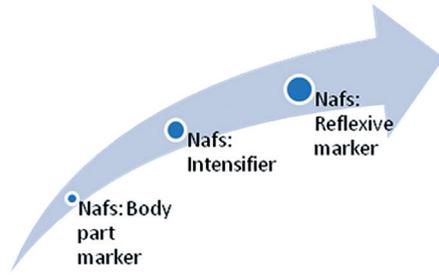


Figure 5. The step process of *nafs* in Arabic

These verbs are very frequently used in English as is demonstrated in Siemund studies (2008, 2010, and 2013) and they do occur with the same frequency in Arabic as is illustrated in the Arabic Gigaword Corpus. The drastic change in the use of *nafs* in the middle domain to encode anticausatives and motion middles can be seen as a highly distinctive trait, indicative of language development and most probably of loan translation. The phrases are reproduced as literal translations from English into Arabic. If we take the example (15) where *raise* in Arabic originally means *lay*, in this example together with *nafs* it literally means *ask*, which is the same meaning found in English.

The table below summarizes the diachronic analysis of *nafs* in Literature, where dark grey stands for frequent use and light grey for weak use.

Table 1. A Diachronic overview of *nafs* in Arabic Literature taken from KSUCCA and the Gigaword Corpus

	<i>Classical Arabic</i>		<i>Middle Arabic</i>			<i>Modern Standard Arabic</i>		
	1st Century	5th Century	16th Century	17th Century	18th Century	19th Century	20th Century	21st Century
<i>Nafs</i> Intensifier	Dark Grey		Dark Grey			Dark Grey		
<i>Nafs</i> Reflexive pronoun	Dark Grey		Dark Grey			Dark Grey		
<i>Nafs</i> non-reflexive pronoun	Light Grey		Light Grey			Light Grey		Dark Grey
<i>Nafs</i> Lexicaliser	Light Grey		Light Grey			Dark Grey		Dark Grey

When closely related languages are in constant contact, additional complication and language change may arise. But when gradual change occurs within a language which is not in contact with another, the question of how these features occurred arise. At this stage, it is essential to point out various internal language developments that exist in linguistic typology.

Conclusion

This paper has presented evidence in favor of the claim that reflexive markers can encode situations of the middle domain. Findings justified the use of *nafs* in cases of anticausatives and of autocausatives. Moreover, it is possible to draw connections between the uses of the middle marker and show that they are not

arbitrary but rather due to language influence or due to an internal language mechanism.

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TRAINEE ENGLISH TEACHERS' OPINIONS ABOUT MICROLINGUISTICS AND TWO TECHNIQUES TO DISTINGUISH ENGLISH CLAUSES

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In Turkey's BA programs in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), linguistics is a required course taught as Introduction to Linguistics I (microlinguistics) and Introduction to Linguistics II (macrolinguistics) in two separate semesters. Turkey's Higher Education Council provides a general course description for both courses. But the scope of Linguistics II varies substantially from program to program, and from instructor to instructor whereas variation in microlinguistics remains little. Generally, the following subfields are covered in Linguistics I: phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. Yet the topics in each subfield may differ among programs and instructors. The present study primarily aimed at finding out opinions of trainee teachers of English on microlinguistics. To this end, a questionnaire was given to a total of 118 students who attended the course taught by the same instructor in Fall Semesters of 2014-2015 (40 students), 2013-2014 (38 students), and 2012-2013 (40 students). The questionnaire sought to collect data on what the students think about the importance of the subfields of microlinguistics, the likeability of subfields, and the applicability of topics in each subfield to TEFL. For the importance and likeability of subfields of microlinguistics; phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics were listed in a jumbled manner, and the students were asked to rank them from 1 to 5 (e.g. 1="I like this subfield most", 5="I like this subfield least"). Secondly, two techniques were used in Fall 2014-2015 to present the differences between finite clauses (nominal, adjectival, adverbial, and appositive clauses) [Technique 1], and the differences between noun phrases and non-finite clauses (e.g. gerunds) [Technique 2]. The techniques were followed by a quiz and a short questionnaire about the techniques. Initially, the students were asked to use the same finite clause, like "when the 18th Olympic Games were held", in four different sentences, in each the clause was to be one of the four types (nominal, adjectival, adverbial, and appositive). Next, students read out their sentences and clause types. Then, some examples were written on the board to highlight the misperceptions about clause types. In Technique 2, four different sentences including the expression "drinking water" were written on the board (e.g. "drinking water" as a gerund, noun phrase, present participle, and reduced relative clause) and the students were asked to identify non-finite clause types and the phrase in four sentences. In the quiz, the students were given a multiple-choice item containing four sentences with the same finite clause employing different functions, and then they were asked to choose the correct option. The same was done for "drinking water". Finally, a short questionnaire was given to the students for their opinions about the effectiveness of the techniques. The results show that, as time passes, differences emerge in students' opinions on the importance of the subfields of microlinguistics, and on the likeability of subfields. For example,

whereas twenty-three students who took up Linguistics I in 2012-2013 Fall find semantics as the most important subfield, only ten students from 2014-2015 Fall pick semantics as the most important. A difference in the opposite direction can also be seen for syntax. While sixteen students from 2014-2015 Fall find syntax as the most important, the number falls to six for 2012-2013 Fall students. Also, there are some discrepancies observed between the students' quiz results and perceptions about the effectiveness of the techniques to distinguish clauses. To illustrate, of thirty-four students who found Technique 2 "very effective", only thirteen students correctly answered the multiple choice test. It can be concluded that trainee teachers of English present a diverse community in terms of perceiving microlinguistics and they should be helped to make meaningful connections among subfields.

INDIAN, ENGLISH: PEDAGOGICAL CONCERNS AND CHALLENGES

NUPUR TANDON

Abstract

The world today has become increasingly interconnected and multicultural, a concept that has been part of the Indian ethos since time immemorial as a Sanskrit phrase that means the whole world is one family and that the cosmic reality of each individual is one with the Maker and always moves towards the common good.

In this era of global proximity, language assumes a greater role in bringing together people and ideas, thoughts and creations. Over the years, it has become more than just a medium as it opens new avenues for the learners, motivating them to think independently and to employ it creatively for their advancement. Widely acknowledged as an international language, English in India has not only emerged as the language of social mobility but is also now widely recognised as a requisite 'skill' for any professional to be able to collaborate linguistically and culturally with diverse states and countries. Institutes of higher education, taking cognizance of the fact, are evolving strategies to help prepare their students navigate the professional world smoothly that include teacher training programmes, use of technology, innovations in the curricula, and the like.

The English language teacher in India faces a microcosm of multiculturalism and multilingualism as each learner brings to the class his or her unique set of cultural and linguistic values and norms. It is a challenge that has the potential to change the dynamics of each language class. To develop communicative competence in the learners, therefore, flexible and multi-resourced learning and teaching strategies need to be evolved that can effectively deal with these differences and mould them into linguistically and culturally sensitive global citizens. The paper will explore the various issues involved in teaching English as a Second Language in India to students of engineering and sciences, and the approaches and techniques that are needed, and that the author in her twenty three years of teaching has employed, to address these issues.

Introduction

As information technology becomes important in basic education and in global economies, English seems to have joined the list of basic skills essential for the advancement of personal dreams as well as professional goals. A good command over English is an added advantage as it continues to be a language of opportunity, employment, science, research, and technology, and a lack of skill in it is a major barrier in getting a good job.

English in India has always played a prominent role in the system of education, from the time it was introduced by the British to the present day. It is the 'co-official' language of the country according to the Constitution, and is commonly used for communication in a multilingual setting. Thus, it is a Second Language, though in some states it is taught as the third language and is even looked upon as a 'foreign'

language! Indeed, almost everyone in India has a mother tongue other than English, even those who are highly proficient in its use. Native Indian languages are often the medium of instruction at the primary level where the thrust of the educational policy is the use of the mother tongue or the language of the immediate community. These are gradually elbowed out at each succeeding level so that English takes over as the dominant language, especially in colleges and universities offering higher education and professional degrees. Students in these institutes are required to possess a fairly good command over English besides a sound knowledge of their core subjects so that they can compete with the best.

The heterogeneity of the learners in India, in terms of culture and background, their various mother tongues, their attitudinal differences towards English, and different thinking styles, poses a challenge for the teacher who faces the daunting task of helping her students acquire communicative competence in a language that, for some, is still a foreign language. The majority of the population of India still lives in villages, towns and sub-urban areas and, for quite a few of them, their vernacular is their mother tongue and first language. As they move to urban areas and start pursuing their professional degree courses, the need is felt not only for an understanding of the subjects being taught but also to express effectively this knowledge-in class, among peers and while facing job interviews. Additionally, they need to be adept at writing reports, proposals, business letters and other such official documents.

From the above it can be discerned that English is being taught with a view to developing it as a skill. For language teachers, therefore, the classroom becomes the field of operation: a place where much action takes place. In the author's institute, which is one of the premier technological institutes of the country, learners are taught linguistic items in the classroom- a conventional setting in which the teacher explains concepts and demonstrates with examples from texts and other materials. In the multi-media lab, however, each learner has access to his own computer and can practice what has been taught in class, assess his own performance, and record his progress. The lab classes also focus on the aspect of production of language through presentations, group discussions, recording speech, and other such activities. Thus, the three dimensions examined by Dickinson(1987), are to a certain degree taken care of; namely, the " , which, in this case, is the classroom combined with a self-accessible learning center, that is, the multimedia lab; secondly, "" which is identified in the syllabus to be followed, and, thirdly, the planning for the above, in the form of objectives, the time to be allotted for the fulfillment of these, the order in which the items need to be taught/learnt and the learning techniques to be advocated.

It is an established fact that in order to speak a language, one needs to think in that language. Rubin points out: ". (Rubin, J., 1979.'What the good language learner can teach us'. In: J.B.Pride, ed.1979 . Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp17-18)

Several approaches to cater to these variables need to be adopted which include an awareness of what makes a 'good' language learner. Studies undertaken by Dickinson (1987), Ellis & Sinclair (1989) and Malley & Chamot (1990) have shown that good language learners use more strategies compared to those used by less motivated learners and that strategies appear to help them self-direct their learning. Self-directed learning allows learners to learn at their own pace with the

help of materials designed for the purpose. Through continuous self-assessments, the student gradually develops autonomy and becomes capable of assuming responsibility for his learning. The teacher merely takes on the role of a facilitator, helping the learner in the event of any difficulty.

It has been observed, however, that while good learners are able to self-direct their learning properly, slow learners lack the requisite skills to do so. Moreover, a large number of students still fall short of the standards in communication skills required by recruiters to organizations, as per the feedback received from them. There exists, then, some gap in the teaching-learning process that needs to be plugged, as it were.

How is this to be achieved practically?

Method

Malaviya National Institute of Technology Jaipur is one of the premier government technical institutes of the country, where students from all over India come to obtain their degrees in engineering disciplines. The medium of instruction in the institute is English. It is taught as a core (compulsory) course in the First Year and follows a pre-determined syllabus. The course structure is a one-hour Lecture (Theory) and a two-hour Tutorial class. There is a prescribed text for Theory which comprises extracts from famous literary works, speeches of renowned world figures and the like. The course is supplemented with a two-hour session per student in a multi-media laboratory that has a range of software which supports the teaching units (Appendix A).

In the Second Year, students are offered a choice of electives that include basic and advanced courses on Communication Skills. There is a compulsory course on aspects of communication at the post-graduate level also, and electives on research and academic writing.

The assessment is made on the basis of (a) written examinations (70 per cent) and (b) an oral examination at the end of the semester (30 per cent).

These courses have been developed over the years through continuous appraisals by the faculty members of the feedbacks given by the students and are modified and upgraded accordingly.

The objectives of including English at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels in an institute that offers degrees in engineering disciplines are threefold, namely:

1. To enable students to comprehend and assimilate what is taught in the class
2. To develop language skills so as to improve their employability skills
3. To attain higher standards of academic excellence

With a view to gaining some insight into these issues, a survey was conducted by the author, in which 140 undergraduate students were asked about their expectations of the courses being offered to them, how far these expectations were met with and their opinion on what according to them ought to be taught to improve their communication skills in English. The students were also asked to rate the various skills in the order that they should be taken up in class. (**Questionnaire attached as Appendix B**).

Analysis

A qualitative and quantitative analysis of the responses of the students indicates that successful language learning in multicultural and multilingual contexts requires

more than syllabus design and construction, lesson planning and classroom teaching.

In response to the first question which asked the students what they expected to gain from the course, a significant 88% expected the language courses to improve their speaking skills, 85% expecting to become better at vocabulary, and 64% wanting to improve their grammar. Not many, however, thought reading and writing to be significant.

The question on what ought to be taught in order of its importance to the professional development, received an almost unanimous response from the students who rated spoken English skills as being of utmost importance to them. A student pointed out that 'the ability to initiate a dialogue and good conversational skills are what I need so that I can negotiate any situation I may be in'. Another commented, '..spoken English is one skill which we lack because we do not speak English with everyone...we speak English only in the English class.'

Almost all students acknowledged that the Lab Course was very useful in assimilating what they had been taught in the classes and that the interactive sessions in the lab proved to be 'confidence generating'.

Though 31% of the students rated themselves as having 'moderately improved' after taking the course, 67% felt that they had 'vastly improved' and only 2% reported 'no improvement'.

From these results it can be seen that coping with examinations is now no longer the target need-learning to speak is an important goal in itself for it is seen as a set of skills that they can use the rest of their lives. Learning and/or reiterating the rules of grammar remains important because speaking correct English is, according to these learners, still an indicator of being part of the 'elite' few.

Some other responses were as follows:

'There is no need to teach literature or even include literature and that too in the Lecture class.'

'Instead of the one-hour lecture, we can do presentations, which will greatly help in building our confidence'

'The lab classes are fun..I get the opportunity to speak in English and this is very important for me because I come from a Hindi medium background.'

'...the exercises on the computer are limited..'

However, it is the 33% students who have not rated themselves as 'vastly improved' after taking the course for an entire semester that should merit our concern.

Discussion

A lot happens in the language classroom that is dynamic and ever evolving-and largely unstructured. Even while teaching to a prescribed syllabus and with an eye on the demands of the examination system, not all can be taught or learnt the way it ought to. There are days when the class cannot be held due to some reason, or the students turn up without completing the assignment given to them, or they display a complete lack of interest that is so disheartening to any teacher!

As a skill, a language is assessed by the ability to comprehend, speak, read and write and with the development of local varieties, English takes on local attributes and colour. Thus, increasingly, English is being taught as a lingua franca. As Graddol points out:

(2006 p 87)

The issue of intelligibility is of primary concern with ELF, rather than accuracy, and the focus is, as Graddol says, on "" where the target model is not a native speaker but a bilingual one, who ""(2006 p87).

This also brings in Kachru's notion of 'functional nativeness' (Graddol,10) of highly proficient speakers of English- that it ought to replace the concept of native speaker because the boundary between native and non-native is fast losing its relevance, particularly with the steady rise and also the acceptability of what is known as Indian English. The concept of functional nativeness hinges round the two dimensions of range and depth, wherein range refers to the domains of use, and depth refers to how far it has penetrated society. Socio-cultural factors also contribute vastly to the development of a language among people of a particular region or area. To quote: (Shah & Sinroja 2006 pp 97-98)

“(Byram, Gribkova & Starkey 2002 p286)

This entails open-mindedness and the proclivity to experiment in the class, the need to be creative and the willingness to risk a bit of pandemonium.

Mere passive reception of linguistic items does not promote production of a language in varying situations and contexts and it needs to be remembered that a majority of these students have little or no opportunity of using the language outside of their class. This is reflected in the positive response of the students to the highly interactive lab classes and their dissatisfaction with the Lecture classes in which they were taught language through literary texts. Hence, situations need to be created in class that would help the learner construct his own knowledge. Brader-Araje & Jones (2002) refer to the idea of constructivism as a helpful tool in teaching ESL: Constructivist teaching fosters critical thinking and places learners in the centre of the learning process- a key concept in communicative language teaching. Each class is treated as a dynamic entity in which the learning incorporates rather than juxtaposes the prior experiences, knowledge and perceptions of the learners into the whole experience. Constructivist strategies include visual stimuli, collaborative tasks, peer learning and the like with the teacher introducing the activity and stepping back to let the students forge their way own way out.

Acquiring a second language in the classroom thus involves several factors: the level of the learner, his educational background, and the socio-cultural context in which he uses the language. An ESL teacher in India has, therefore, to adapt to the needs of each student of her class through some creative techniques and out-of-the box strategies both to engage their attention and to make each class a valuable learning experience. Tickoo (2004 pp 588-589) refers to the RA or Reflective Approach which

“...This means an evaluation of herself, her students, the language, that is, English, and the classroom.

It is thus the teacher who introspects about the teaching-learning experience who will empower herself to deal effectively with the heterogeneity of her class, use its limitations to her advantage and its strengths to the learners’.

Technology, too, offers a vast potential for stimulating teaching as well as learning. Gousie (1998 p55) states-

The emergence of on-line English language learning programs in various ESL and EFL communities offers a greater scope for learning English as a second language. At the same time, it has introduced new and exciting ways of teaching English with a wider and global perspective.

Technology-enabled learning uses the computer as a media for leveraging the pitfalls of our traditional education system by providing an environment which is more learner-centric, powered as it is by Internet Technology. This is, in fact, borne out by the students' positive feedback on the utility of the lab course. Besides, since most of the modules use the Indian English version in addition to the International English version, it offers the Indian student contexts and, of course, the pronunciation he/she is familiar with and can relate to. Interactive activities enable learners to test their strategies and build their language skills. Care, however, has to be taken to not let technology take over completely. Sharratt [1995] observes:

“Certainly, it is still the individual teacher who remains the most important component of the teaching-learning process, notwithstanding advances in technological pedagogy. Even though language or multimedia labs are made mandatory in all institutes that grant professional degrees, it is the English teacher who regulates the curriculum of the lab course in such a way that students make optimum use of it. The lab, when used as a teaching tool, reinforces the learners' grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary and provides them the opportunity to use the language. Inappropriate use of technology, on the other hand, would be self-defeating as it would perpetuate the old models of teaching and learning.

Conclusion

Indian users of English are multilingual, and do not use English for all purposes. Yet, English coexists with other Indian languages and remains a language most indicative of high standards and good class, and its value for students studying at professional universities remains undiminished.

The teaching of professional communication must reflect the realities of the Information Age if our courses are to prepare our students for a workplace that witnesses rapid transformations due to globalization and communication technology. Teachers of English as a Second Language need to move beyond the boundaries of the syllabus and the examination system to transform their classrooms into professional environs wherein the learner assumes autonomy for his learning and the teacher merely guides him towards his linguistic goals. According to Feez (1998), the Sydney School's approach to genre pedagogy, language use is fundamentally contextual and second language pedagogy should focus on teaching language in meaning-making situations, which forms the basis for the curriculum. (Cited in Tewari, Sandhya, 2010. 'A Study of the Paradigm Shift and Resultant Reinvented Teachers' Role., 48/6 Nov.-Dec., p.5)

Another aspect that needs to be dealt with is the examination system that requires students to be assessed more on their writing skills than the spoken. This appears to be in contradiction to the perceived needs of the students as the survey revealed and to the fact that good speaking skills are essential in the professional world. But that they can write good resumes, reports and, in short, grammatically, is equally important. Hence, some mechanism needs to be developed that can assess students on their integrative use of language rather than focusing on specific skills, one at a time. Multimedia labs offer this choice to the teacher who can make an informed decision regarding how best to use it to the learners' advantage. Designing learner specific activities on the computer can keep them motivated and thus improve their performance.

Several researches are now being carried out by teachers of English on how best to assimilate the advantages of web-based material with the Indian education system. Mobile-assisted language learning is also one area which is being looked upon as promising, provided other variables can be controlled. A radical reappraisal of how English is taught is required that will take into account the differences in culture, background and language of Indian students.

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APPENDIX A

SOFTWARE IN THE LANGUAGE/MULTIMEDIA LABORATORY

Tense Buster

Each unit begins with a presentation based on a dialogue, newspaper article or radio broadcast, where learners are encouraged to form theories about how the grammar works. Next comes a grammar rule where they confirm or correct their theories. Learners then move on to practice activities in which the language is contextualized and key aspects of form and function are highlighted. Each unit concludes with a randomized test enabling students to gauge their progress.

Study Skills Success

- Independent learning
- Critical thinking
- Reading
- Writing
- Listening
- Speaking
- Grammar
- Vocabulary
- Visuals
- Research

Clear Pronunciation & Clear Pronunciation 2

Clear Pronunciation 1 (Sounds) helps learners recognize and pronounce 43 English phonemes: vowels, consonants and diphthongs. The program includes over 1,000 audio clips and 50 videos which provide both comprehensive input for the sounds, and models for learners to copy. The Recorder enables users to record their voice and assess their pronunciation against a native speaker.

Clarity English Success

For many Indian students English language programs developed overseas contain too many barriers to effective learning. Accents and situations are unfamiliar, and the content may not fit with what is being taught at school and in college. Clarity English Success is designed to help Indian students develop their English skills in an Indian context: the voices are local, the contexts are relevant and the activities have been created by teachers who really understand the students' needs.

It's Your Job

Applying for a job in English is a daunting prospect for non-native speakers. It tests all the skills: reading the advertisement, writing the cover letter, and listening and speaking effectively in the interview. It's Your Job provides support, guidance and language input for every aspect of the process of finding employment in the Indian context.

Active Reading

The starting point is to present texts which are relevant, stimulating and lively. Topics range from advertisements for diets, to Internet posts on wireless gaming, to ecotourism. Text types include newspaper and magazine articles, emails, poems, recipes, stories and press releases. There's a lot of variety, and topics to appeal to every learner. Active Reading intelligently integrates reading with other skills. A text on fashion leads on to an activity where learners create their own advertisement for a watch; a unit on recipes takes students online to research recipes from different countries. This means speaking and writing are key ingredients in each unit.

Author Plus

Author Plus is suitable for teachers who want to create their own interactive activities for their students. These can be delivered on a network, online and through an LMS / VLE.

APPENDIX B**MALAVIYA NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY JAIPUR****Department of Humanities and Social Sciences****COURSE FEEDBACK****COURSE NAME: ENGLISH/LANGUAGE LAB**

NAME OF STUDENT (OPTIONAL):

YEAR AND BRANCH:

1. What were your expectations of the Courses? Tick
 - a. Improve my vocabulary
 - b. improve my speaking skills

- c. improve my writing skills
- d. improve my reading skills
- e. improve grammar
- 2. How would you rate yourself after completing the courses?
 - a. vastly improved
 - b. moderately improved
 - c. no improvement
- 3. Rate in order of decreasing importance what should be taught in the English classes:
 - a. English Grammar
 - b. Spoken English
 - c. Comprehension and analysis of written texts
 - e. Note-making and note-taking
 - f. English Literature
- 4. How far were sessions in the lab useful in improving your communication skills?
 - a. Very useful
 - b. moderately useful
 - c. not useful at all
- 5. What kind of reading material would you recommend to maintain the interest of students in the course?
 - a. motivational texts
 - b. poems
 - c. short stories
 - d. any other (please specify)
- 6. General Comments on the course

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TRANSDERIVATIONAL MORPHOLOGY IN TEACHING BUSINESS ENGLISH: A NEURO-LINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING PERSPECTIVE

LECTURER CRISTINA MIHAELA ZAMFIR

Abstract

Transderivational morphology has its roots in Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP), which is concerned, among other things, with the relationship between communication impacts and subjective experience. The three components of NLP, i.e. neuro, linguistic and programming, have to do with sensing the world through several representational channels, determining the way concepts interface and are verbalized. Starting from the concept of transderivational search (Bandler and Grinder, 1980), NLP co-founders (Dilts and DeLozier, 2000) have carried out extensive research on transderivational morphology, pointing to the analysis of the twists of a root word undertaking changeable or interchangeable affixes. The degree in which the patterns of particular words are likely to redirect our inner perceptual associations are thoroughly examined in the paper, through applications. The findings draw on the psychological – neuro-linguistic – effects that various affixes (prefixes and suffixes) have on our understanding of particular words. From the NLP perspective applied to business English, the following aspects will be highlighted: 1. The terminology and classification of derivational affixes (-ize, -ation, -al, -ly). In many common words, affixes no longer have any connection with their root meaning, creating new combinations of business words; 2. The changes that the syntactic categories of words bring into the path of mental associations we use to make sense of the words. In this respect, the paper will analyze how shifts in affixes can make up for our unique reference experiences in the case of a particular word, given the fact that the addition of one or more suffixes (-er, -ive and so on) can result in new mental associations, which enrich our model of the world; 3. The functioning of various prefixes and suffixes as types of ‘verbal submodalities’. Productive affixes (the case of -ing), usually associated with the idea of dynamism, trigger a submodality of movement that has implications in the way we perceive the experiences to which these words refer; 4. The impact of the word structures on our mental representations, laced with an analysis of submodality characteristics, meta program patterns and logical levels. A transderivational morphology worksheet will be presented to keep track of the various word structures regarding business terms. The paper discusses the degree in which the addition of different affixes contributes to distinctions like movement, colour, focus, distance or size as types of submodality. At the same time, meta program distinctions like chunk size, time orientation, or point of reference will be dealt with. Another way of organizing the relationship between surface structure and deeper structures will involve the logical levels, from the level of behaviour and capability (with suffixes like -able, -izing) to the level of identity (with suffixes like -ist, -ite) as a result of derivation.

Keywords: affixes, business English, meta programs, neuro-linguistic programming, submodalities, transderivational morphology, word structures

1. Introduction

Widely based on the contribution of Richard Bandler in the early 1980s, transderivational morphology explores the way we use our brain to influence and let ourselves be influenced by the transformation of particular words (roots). The function of the three components of NLP, i.e. *neuro*, *linguistic* and *programming*, has to do with determining how we interface, verbalize concepts, and respond to problems or approach new ideas according to the kind of mental programs established. They are the core elements which contribute to experiencing and shaping the outside world. This involves two basic processes: widening perceptual maps of reality and connecting reference experiences to perceptual maps.

From an NLP perspective, the process of *transderivational search* on which particular states of consciousness are based, is used to understand how people create meaningful relationships out of feelings, memories or associations to specific reference experiences. Linguistically, the implication of the concept “transderivational search”, later developing into “transderivational morphology”, is that we can search back across the alternative deep structures of a word (representation) from which the current surface structure(s) has/have been derived. To put it differently, the term “transderivational search” as it was first proposed by the NLP founders John Grinder, professor of linguistics, and Richard Bandler, a reputed psychologist, can be interpreted as the process of searching back through someone’s personal experience and mental representations to find a *reference* for any particular concept or word. Since words are *anchors* that trigger transderivational searches, the NLP principle according to which “each individual will have his or her own unique reference experiences for any particular *concept* or *word*” helps us discover the reference experiences from which a current *response*, *behaviour* or *judgement* is derived. Further research carried out by the NLP co-founders Robert Dilts and Judith DeLozier (2000) shows that, from a linguistic point of view, “a transderivational search involves searching back through your personal experiences to find a reference for what someone is talking about [...] it is often important to know what reference experiences a person is using when he or she is discussing a particular subject or referring to a particular word. The Meta Model was designed as a linguistic tool to help guide people on a transderivational search for the specific experiences which make up the deep structure of their verbal descriptions, statements and judgements” (Dilts and DeLozier, 2000, p. 1466).

2. Applications of Transderivational Morphology to Business Words

Originally suggested by R. Bandler as an extension of the Meta Model, the study of *transderivational morphology* was continued by Dilts and DeLozier with the purpose of widening the use of the notions of *deep structure* and *surface structure* and including more linguistic processes. Their analysis is twofold: on the one hand, they explain that NLP considers ‘deep structure’ to be “primary experience”, derived from sensory input coming from the outside world, and, on the other hand, they agree that NLP views language as “secondary experience”, which contributes to building our model (map) of the world – the ‘surface structure’ – through (trans) formations of words (linguistic derivations).

Thus, the type of pattern which is at the base of the NLP notion of transderivational morphology would be the determination of which prefixes and suffixes can be used

with a particular word, implying “the examination of the movement of a root across several derivations [...] and the focus on the psychological (or “neuro-linguistic”) effects the various prefixes and suffixes have on the way we understand and are influenced by particular words” (Dilts and DeLozier, 2000, p. 1461). In English, for instance, native speakers will recognize “*successful*”, “*willingness*” and “*fulfilment*” as well-formed words belonging to a group of positive emotional states. In the construction of these words, one can identify English well-known suffixes: “*ful*”, “*ness*”, “*ment*”. A simple switch of suffixes would make these words sound unusual: **“successment”*, **“willingful”* and **“fulfulness”* seem like they could or should have meaning, but they are strange.

Exploring a word’s morphology involves analyzing a word into its component parts, identifying word components or “morphemes” which are arranged according to a fixed internal structure. This means that the words have an *internal stability* (e.g. *successful*, *willingness*, *fulfilment*) which cannot be modified as illustrated above.

While many English words cannot be divided into smaller parts, a great many others can be thought of as consisting of parts that can be separated and still have meaning. It is clear that *profit*, *profitability*, *profitable*, *profitableness*, *unprofitable*, *profitably*, *profiteering*, *profiteer*, *profitless*, *profitlessly*, all have something in common, namely the base *profit*, and that the various parts that are added before and after this base form words with additional, or different meanings, or change it to other parts of speech.

The difference in meaning comes from the words’ morphology, or structure. Although they are derived from the same root word, they are given different twists through the various affixes (prefixes and suffixes) which, added to the base word, contribute to a more or less marked change of meaning or lexical value. These derivational suffixes change the meaning of the base significantly, or into a different word class. Firstly, the process of passing from *concrete to abstract*, characteristic of human thinking, very frequently affects the change of meaning: e.g. the noun *profit* is originally in its concrete meaning (1. money that you gain by selling things or doing business, after your costs have been paid – *big/ huge / hefty profit* ; 2. an advantage that you gain from doing something – *no profit in letting meetings drag on*); adding the suffixes *-ity*, *-able*, *-eer(ing)*, *-less*, the word is used in the abstract sense and acquires different meanings:

- e.g. *profitability* (n.) - when a business makes a profit;
- profitable* (adj.) - producing a profit or a useful result (~ business)
- profiteering* (n.) - the process of making unfairly large profits, especially by selling things that are very difficult to get at very high prices.(e.g. *black market* ~)
- profitless* (adj.) - not making money, or not useful to do.

Secondly, derivational suffixes turn nouns into adjectives, verbs into adjectives, adjectives into nouns, verbs into nouns, nouns of one type into nouns of another type. They add new meanings to the base, and in many cases more than one derivational suffix can be found in the same word:

- e.g. *profit* (n.) - money that you gain by selling things or doing business.
- profit* (v.) - (formal) to be useful or helpful to someone: *profit sb. to do sth.*

profit + *able* (adj.) - producing a profit or a useful result: *a very ~ marketing campaign, a very ~ rate of exchange*

un + profit + *able* (adj.) - 1. making no profit.

2. producing no advantages.

(e.g. *It'll be **unprofitable** to pursue this policy any further*).

profit + *less* (adj.) - (formal) not making a profit, or not useful to do.

profit + *less* + *ly* (adv.) - not making a profit, or not useful to do.

profit + *eer* (n.) - (disapproving) a person or organization that makes unfairly large profits, for example by selling things that are hard to get at very high prices.

profit + *eer* (v.) - to gain benefits or make a large profit by speculation.

profiteer + *ing* (n.) - the process of making unfairly large profits, especially by selling things that are very difficult to get at very high prices.

profit + *able* + *ness* (n.) - advantage, profit, pay off, benefit.

The extension of meaning is a process by which nouns of one type turn into nouns of another type like in the examples of “*profiteering*” and “*profitableness*” where the sense of the words is enlarged and enriched with the addition of the suffixes “-(*eer*)*ing*” and “*ness*”.

Linguistics defines *morphological derivation* as “the process by which a new word is built from a base, usually through the addition of an affix”.

New words are created through derivational suffixes by changing the class of the word to which they are added, forming nouns. Noun-forming suffixes are normally used to change a word to a different part of speech and sometimes they may produce a change in the meaning of the root word. The derivational affixes “-*er*” (“-*or*”) for example, combine with a verb to create a noun with the meaning “one who does X”, “*er*”/ “*or*” denoting the doer / agent of an action. Verbs such as *employ, invest, lend, manage, negotiate, perform, sell, supervise, work* can all give rise to nouns by adding the suffixes “-*er*”/“*or*”- *employer, investor, manager, negotiator, performer, seller, supervisor, worker*. The structure verb + *er* / *or* is used to form a noun that describes somebody’s occupation, or what somebody does.

From the NLP perspective, the addition of the “-*er*”/ “-*or*” suffixes contributes to shifting the word from being primarily focused at the behaviour and capability level to the identity level. While the derivational affixes -*er*/*or* create nouns referring to people, the addition of suffixes like “-*ness*”, “-*hood*”, “-*ship*”, “-*ance*”, or “-*ment*” to a(n) adjective/noun/verb root forms abstract nouns (ideas, feeling experiences), producing a change in meaning:

-*ness* (German origin): denotes a state or quality:

e.g. effect + *ive* (adj.) - successful and working in the way that is intended (~publicity campaign)

effective + *ness* (n.) - 1. efficacy (the ~ of the remedy)

2. good / favourable / lasting impression you see or hear sth. for impression the first time (~ produced by seeing a picture hearing a conference speech, greeting a customer).

- *hood* (German origin): denotes a state or quality :
 - e.g. neighbour (n.) - someone who lives next to you or near you; a country that is next to another one.
 - neighbour + *hood* (n.) - a little more or a little less than a particular number or amount:
 - (something) **in the neighbourhood of** £500 / 40% etc. : e.g. *The net volume of overseas investment is worth something in the neighbourhood of £100 million.*
- *ship* (German origin): denotes a state or quality :
 - e.g. distribut(e) + *or* (n.) - a person or business that supplies shops and companies with goods.
 - distributor + *ship* (n.) - a company that has an arrangement to sell the products of another company:
 - e.g. *Canada ~ for Saab cars*
 - partner (n.) -
 1. one of the owners of a business (*senior partner*)
 2. someone who starts a new business with someone else by investing in it (*business partners*).
 3. a country that invests in another or is invested in by another, or that trades with another (*economic partner, trading partner*).
 - partner (v.) - to be someone's partner in a business project
 - (**partner up with somebody**: *Compaq has partnered up with independent dealers to sell and service its computers*).
 - partner + *ship* (n.) -
 1. the state of being a partner in business (**be/work in partnership with somebody**)
 2. a relationship between two people, organizations, or countries that work together (*the partnership between US capital and Mexican labour*)
- ance* (Roman origin): denotes a state, process, continuity, result/outcome of a process
 - e.g. ally (v.) - to help and support other people or countries, especially in a disagreement.
 - all(y) + *iance* (n.) - an agreement between two or more organizations to work together:
 - e.g. *The two airlines have announced a strategic alliance with large implications for competition.*
 - insure (v.) -
 1. to buy insurance so that you will receive money if something bad happens to you, your possessions (*insure against loss/damage*); *insure (sth) for £ 2000 / \$ 3000.*
 2. to provide insurance for sth or sb: insure (sb/sth) against sth:
 - e.g. *The company insured against earthquakes and natural disasters.*

insure + *ance* (n.) - 1. arrangement in which a company collects premiums (= regular payments) from a person or organization and in return agrees to pay them the costs: they are involved in an accident, have sth stolen, or cause harm or injury to others.
(*take out insurance, claim (for) sth on your insurance*).

2. the business of providing insurance
(~*company/group*).

3. protection against something bad happening (~*against burglars*).

-*ment* (Roman origin): denotes processes and results, progress, position and place, change and development.

e.g. invest (v.) - to buy shares, bonds, property in order to make a profit.

invest + *ment* (n.) - 1. when money is put into a business in order to make it more successful and profitable (*stimulate/encourage/attract investment*).

2. when you spend a large amount of time, energy and emotion on something (*a huge investment of time and effort*).

move (v.) - 1. if a person or company moves, they go to work in a different place:

e.g. *The company is moving its headquarters in London.*

2. other meanings: to make progress in a particular way (*things moved when the contract was signed*); to change job (*move to Xsellnet as a manager*); to officially make a proposal at a meeting (*The chairman moves that the meeting be adjourned*); to suggest a change (*move an amendment*);

move + *ment* (n.) - 1. a group of people who share the same ideas or beliefs and who work together to achieve a particular aim: [+for] *the movement for unchallenged supremacy*.

2. when sb or sth changes position or moves from one place to another: *the movement of goods across the border*;

3. a gradual change or development in a situation or in peoples' attitudes or opinions: *no movement in negotiation talks, a movement towards a fair treatment of women in the workplace*.

better (adj.) - [comparative of good] more useful, interesting, satisfactory, effective, suitable.

- better + *ment* (n.) - 1. (formal) improvement, especially in someone's social and economic position: ***for the ~of sb/sth – hierarchical changes for the betterment of the organization.***
2. [property] an increase in the value of property caused by improvements in the area surrounding the property: *collecting betterment charges on owners who benefit from new developments.*

The terminology and classification of derivational affixes leads to the associations or the positive/negative feelings a word evokes, which may or may not be indicated in a dictionary definition. In many common words, affixes no longer have any connection with their root meaning, creating new combinations of business words. Not only do the component bits (derivational affixes such as *-ize*, *-ation*, *-al*, *-ly*) of vocabulary items change the category to which the word belongs, but, according to NLP researchers, they also guide us towards different paths of association, depending on how these bits are put together. Thus, according to Dilts and DeLozier (2000, p. 1461), transderivational morphology is an NLP term which “refers to the way in which the form or structure of a particular word directs our pathways of mental association, and thus influences the meaning and impact which that word has on us”.

Adjective-forming suffixes like “*ive*” which is of Latin origin create words with the meaning “performs or tends toward an indicated action”: e.g. *competitive*, *exclusive*, *expensive*, *abusive*, *manipulative*, *effective*, *responsive*.

Verb-forming prefixes such as “*re*”, a prefix of Latin origin, can combine with an existing verb to make a new business verb, instead of changing it to a noun. The meaning will be “to do sth again”: e.g. *rebuild*, *react*, *recapitalize*, *recall*, *reclaim*, *redraft*, *rebrand*, *reconstruct*, *redirect*, *resolve*, *reorganize*, *return*, *research*, *relocate*.

Attaching the prefix “*un*”, which is of German origin, to a word X also helps to create new business words, meaning “not X”:

e.g. *un + verb/adjective: unbundle, unbalanced, uncashed, undated, unlock, uneconomical, unemployed, undischarged, uninsured, unexpired, unlicensed, unsecured, unveil, unwind.*

Prefixes do not change the part of speech unlike most suffixes, but give a word a meaning which is the opposite or negative of the original.

Therefore, affixes can operate on almost any word with the purpose of forming new, productive combinations. By way of illustration, the verb-forming suffixes “*ize*”/“*ise*” of Greek origin can be easily added to almost any noun or adjective and turn it into a verb, meaning “to bring into the condition expressed by the basic word”. Thus, they change the meaning of the word into a *predictable way*:

e.g. *realize, privatise, subsidise, modernise, legalise, nationalise, rationalize, finalize, prioritize, economise.*

However, the suffix “*ize*” is not always with the meaning “cause to be or conform to or resemble”. It contributes to the *elevation of meaning*, implying the process by which a new meaning of a word acquires a “higher” status in comparison with

the initial one. Verbs, for example, will trigger different forms of transderivational search than nouns. The noun *cannibal* initially meant “a person who eats human flesh”/“an animal that eats the flesh of other animals of the same kind”, and later, by adding the suffix “ize”, e.g. *cannibal + ize*, it became a marketing term meaning “if one of a company’s new products cannibalizes an older one, it takes sales away from it”. The process of associating the suffix “ize” to the base word completely changes its meaning and leads to the semantic evolution of the word expressed in a metaphorical way. From an NLP point of view, we are likely to associate to a different personal reference experience with the verb “cannibalize” than we would with the noun “cannibal”. The noun “cannibal” could trigger a mental image of an animal eating flesh, but we would make no such associations with the verb “cannibalize”. In the new deepened image, one might visualize a mental movie of: 1. a product reducing the sales of other products made by the same manufacturer, or 2. taking parts of one machine to use in another, for example to repair it.

Another significant aspect is related to the changes that the syntactic categories of words bring into the path of mental associations we use to make sense of the words.

On the one hand, linguistically speaking, morphological derivation involves the process of class shifting, since affixes can change the deeper structure category to which a word belongs. On the other hand, in the NLP view, the addition of one or more suffixes (-er, -ive and so on) can result in new mental associations, which enrich our model of the world. Thus, by means of transderivational search, transformations in the deep structure are likely to examine the movement of a base word across several derivations and seek a reference for what someone is talking about. No wonder that, in NLP language, neurological and linguistic approaches blend, since words are ‘anchors’ which trigger transderivational searches. At this point, the paper analyzes how shifts in affixes can make up for our unique reference experiences in the case of a particular word, given the fact that shifts in linguistic surface structures are often compared in NLP with visualizing a mental movie of the different changes a word has to undergo to make it personally meaningful.

According to Dilts and De Lozier, “The meaning and significance of a word to a particular individual is a function of the amount of neurology it mobilizes. The verbal labeling of an experience allows it to be associated and connected to other neural circuits influencing the process of ‘transderivational search’ that we use to give meaning to the word” (2000, p. 1462).

It is well-known that common English words, in general, and business English words, in particular, like words in any other language, come into being in numberless ways. There is one thing characterizing every new “birth”, namely words are created out of elements already existing in some form or another. The time-space elapsing between a contemporary word and its initial source is generally very great. A word’s morphology brings information on the alteration in meaning or meanings in the course of a word’s historical development. As Dilts and DeLozier point out, the history of the development of a word is revealed through the analysis of its component parts, identifying related words, or “morphemes” in other languages:

“Prefixes and suffixes carry information about whether the root of the word is Greek, Latin, German, etc. Prefixes such as *co*, *com*, *con*, *dis*, *sub* and *trans* are Latin; as are the suffixes *able*, *ive*, *al* and *ation*. Prefixes such as *mis*, *out* and *under* are

German; as are the suffixes *er, ish, ly*. The suffix *ing*, however, is of Norse origin; *ful* and *ness* are Old English” (Dilts and De Lozier, 2000, p. 1462)

Prefixes:

e.g. *co* (Latin origin) - together

co + noun /verb : *co-worker, co-manager, co-insurance, co-exist, co-operate.*

con (Latin origin) - with; negative / opposite

con + noun /verb : *consign/ee/ment /or, conform, conman* (someone who tricks people into spending money)

dis (Latin origin) - with a negative force.

dis + verb: *dislike, displease, disembark, disagree, discharge* (remove from job), *disallow, distraint* (take goods from someone to be sold in order to pay rent that is owed), *dissolve* (to bring a company or partnership to an end officially), *disqualify, dismiss, dishonour* (~ *a bill of exchange*).

mis (German origin) - wrongly / badly

mis + verb: *miscount, mislead, mishandle* (goods), *misinform, misjudge, misspend* (~ *company funds*), *misconduct, mismanage* (*project, overheads*), *mis-sell* (~*a personal pension*), *misrepresent, misuse* (~ *funds*).

out (German origin) - out of / more

out + verb: *outbid* (succeed in obtaining a property / contract), *outdo, outfit, outflank* (if a company outflanks another, it is more successful than it), *outperform, outsell* (to be sold in larger quantities than another product), *outsource, outvote* (to defeat a person or their ideas, proposals by voting against them), *outnumber, outlast.*

sub (Latin origin) - below; under; less / lower

sub + adj./ noun: *substandard, subtotal, subterranean, subcommittee.*

trans (Latin origin) - across

trans + noun /verb/ adj.: *transaction, transcontinental, transnational, transparent, transfigure.*

under (German origin) - not enough, too little

under + verb: *undertake, undercharge* (to charge too little or less than the correct amount of money for sth), *underbid, undercut, underestimate, undersell* (sell goods at a lower price than someone else), *undervalue.*

If these prefixes are removed from the words, then words with different meanings are left.

The implication is that prefixes are used to change the meaning of words, they never change the part of speech. Many prefixes give a word a meaning which is the opposite or negative of the original. On the contrary, suffixes change a word to a different part of speech. We can use the suffixes “(a)tion”, “(i)tion” or “sion” to make business nouns from verbs. Many of these nouns are abstract and their use often makes a sentence sound rather formal:

verb +(a)tion: *qualify - qualification, occupy - occupation, inflate - inflation, privatize - privatization, quote - quotation, adapt - adaptation, form - formation, value - valuation, apply - application*

verb + (*i*)*tion*: deflate - deflation, delegate - delegation, compete - competition,
abolish - abolition, repeat - repetition, add - addition

verb + *sion*: revise - revision, expand - expansion, extend - extension, decide -
decision, provide - provision

However, there are business words in which suffixes shift. A word such as *operationally* comes from “operat(e) + “ion” + “al” + “ly”. The suffixes “ion” and “al” are Latin, but the suffix “ly” is actually Old English. *Operate* is a verb, *operation* is a noun, *operational* is an adjective, *operationally* is an adverb.

According to NLP, it is the syntactic category into which a word falls that will shift the order of our inner representation. From the neurolinguistic perspective, the transition of a base word across several derivations will create quite a different experience and produce either positive or negative emotional states. NLP places a great deal of emphasis on the notion of transderivational search, showing how even the slightest shifts in a word’s surface structure can lead to marked changes in the deep structures from which the meaning of the word is derived:

e.g. liquid (n.) - a substance that is not a solid or a gas, for example water.

liquid + *ate* (v.) - 1. to close a business or company and sell the things
that belong to it, in order to pay its debts.

2. to pay a debt (~ *a loan*)

3. (informal) to destroy sth that is causing a problem

liquid(ate) + *tion* (n.) - 1. the action of selling an investment (~ *of foreign
investments*)

2. the act of paying a debt.

Deeper structures reach the surface after a series of ‘transformations’. These transformations act as a type of filter on the experiential deep structures. In NLP view, this is what Dilts and DeLozier call “convergence zones” from which the coherent patterns of thought and association derive: “Language appears to be a very highly developed way of forming convergence zones for clusters of other cognitive activity. These types of convergence zones are known as ‘attractors’ ” (2000, p. 1462).

In the model of NLP, verbalization is a “secondary” representation of primary experience which involves expressing some deeper structure, i.e. an idea, emotion, belief, in the form language, i.e. verbal surface structures. Various affixes are considered to function as types of “verbal submodalities”; in addition, shifts in affixes give us a clearer picture of our inner representation of a word. This is the case of “-ing”, a productive suffix forming verbal nouns. It denotes processes and brings in a submodality of *movement* associated with the word. It is as interesting as useful to create new combinations of words which otherwise have a static meaning and change them into dynamic processes by adding “ing”: “bid” → “bidding”; “deal” → “dealing”; “handle” → “handling”; “position” → “positioning”; “promise” → “promising”; “schedule” → “scheduling”.

One of the main applications of transderivational morphology with regard to the suffix “ing” is to shift our internal representation of common / simple words like *hand*, *foot*, *back* which denote parts of the body by playing with their structure and morphology and turning them into business words:

e.g. hand + *ing* - the act of letting someone else take charge of something
which you were in charge of (*handing the business over*)

- foot + *ing* - 1. good financial arrangements under which a business operates (*a sound / firm financial footing*)
 2. if two companies deal with one another on an equal footing, they do so on the basis that neither side is more important or in a stronger position than the other: (*all parties to takeover proceed on an equal footing*).

back + *ing* - support or help, especially financial help (*financial backing*).

Shifting affixes is another aspect which greatly influences our personal experiences. More interesting and challenging it is to use suffixes and prefixes that are *not* normally added to the base word. The outcome will be to explore the impact of the different word structures on our cognitive programming and other functions of our nervous system; and also the way in which our mental programming shapes and is reflected in our language patterns.

Below is a list of common affixes used to alter a root word in various ways:

Suffixes: *ment, ia, able, izing, ist, er, ism, ure*

Prefixes: *pre, un, inter, re, co, de, trans, meta.*

e.g. Root words: *train, coach.*

Firstly, if representational systems are modalities (ways of experiencing the world), then *submodalities* are, in O'Connor and Seymour's (2002, p. 42) view, "the building blocks of the senses, how each picture, sound or feeling is composed".

In line with this, the particular perceptual qualities, called submodalities, that may be registered by each of the five primary sensory modalities allow for *distinctions* (submodality *characteristics*) such as: movement, colour, focus, distance, association or dissociation, location, size which change the structure of experience, and hence, its meaning.

Adding the prefix "un" to *train, coach* in order to make "untrain", or "uncoach", for example, may redirect our mental movie in a way that we have not visualized before. Attaching the suffixes "ment" or "ia" to create "trainment"/"trainia" or "coachment"/"coachia" may shift the image of the reference experience to one that is still and more disassociated.

Secondly, *physiological cues* involve changes in breathing, eye movement, or posture and are used to detect and track subtle mental processes that accompany our feedback to the word. As a result, one might experience different eye positions with the terms "pretrain" / "precoach" than "retrain" / "recoach" or "metatrain" / "metacoach".

Thirdly, *meta program* patterns are filters on our world (Knight, 2002), orientations (Katan, 2004) or patterns of motivation and working (Cooper, 2008) that relate to specific thinking styles described as distinctions: Chunk Size – larger (picture) / smaller (picture); Time Orientation – past/present/future; Point of Reference – self (internal) / other (external); Attitude – toward/away. Thus, altering the words "train"/"coach" to "cotrain"/"co-coach" may shift both the frame of reference and attitude from "self-oriented" (*internal-referenced, proactive and towards pattern*) to "other-oriented" (*external-referenced, reactive and away from mode*). Creating new combinations of words like "transtrain"/"transcoach" and "detrain"/"decoach" changes the chunk size with which we consider the experience to be either a wider frame of reference ("trans" = macro chunk, a bigger perspective) or a narrower frame of reference ("de" = micro chunk, sth reduced into its component parts).

Fourthly, *logical level* changes trigger a shift in the focus of the reference experience to the *lower levels of experience* (environment, behaviour, capabilities) and *higher levels of experience* (beliefs, values, identity). From the NLP perspective, a person may initially experience the meaning of training/trainer at the level of belief or identity:

- e.g. Training staff in courtesy is the key to customer service success. (belief)
- He is a top young trainer. (identity)

Moreover, the root word could be altered to “trainable” or “trainizing” which may move the focus of the experience to the level of capability. The concept of beliefs is mainly associated with a motivational factor which stimulates capabilities (Dilts and DeLozier, 2000; McLaren, 2000; Katan, 2004; Molden and Hutchinson, 2006). Beliefs emerge from the *deep structure* and become the shaper of our thoughts and actions in the *surface structure*. As Katan aptly puts it, “A belief in one’s capabilities to do something in a particular environment will enable capabilities and skills to be employed to their maximum” (Katan, 2004, p. 55). This obviously corresponds to Dilts and DeLozier’s definition of the notion of Neuro-Logical Levels, i.e. “The notion of Neuro-Logical Levels was formulated as another way to organize the relationship between surface structure and deeper structures. Each of the levels is connected and aligned as a function of derivations which allow a person to move from one level to the next in a ‘well-formed’ manner” (Dilts and DeLozier, 2000, p. 1475).

3. Conclusion

In this paper I have attempted to discuss the relevance and effectiveness of transderivational morphology applied to business English and the impact it has on creating new combinations of business words. Building on Bandler and Grinder’s concept of transderivational search, the paper has examined various processes of seeking alternative deep structures across the reference experiences from which words are derived.

From the linguistic perspective, the notion of transderivational morphology should be seen as the enriching of a root word after a series of ‘transformations’ (derivations) generating varied surface structures.

From the neurolinguistic point of view, the same process is centred on the psychological effects that possible prefix/suffix–noun/adjective/verb combinations have on our mental perceptions as regards the significance of a word.

Furthermore, my research has pointed out that slight additions (prefixes, derivational suffixes) to the morphology of a word bring up marked shifts in the deep structures leading to personal reference experiences associated with the positive or negative emotional states that a word evokes.

I shall conclude, therefore, by stating that the merit of NLP has been to show how the concept of transderivational morphology reveals the multiple relations involved at the level of mental associations between base words and their (trans)formations which result in the complete representation of their deep structures. The novelty of my analysis comes from the application of the notion to the formation of business English terms.

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USING RECORDINGS OF NATIVE SPEAKERS CONVERSING IN MĀORI AS LANGUAGE TEACHING RESOURCES

JOSEPH TE RITO

Māori language, the indigenous language of Aotearoa New Zealand is in serious danger of dying out. For over forty years, Māori people have been proactive in their struggle to save their language. In 1972 the Māori Language Petition of over 30,000 signatures was presented to Parliament. Today the language is taught from pre-school to tertiary level; there is a national Māori language television channel; and 20 tribal Māori language radio stations. I am founding and current Chairperson of Radio Kahungunu, the radio station of my tribe Ngāti Kahungunu. Since the station's beginning 26 years ago, we have recorded the on-air conversations of our elders and today our archival collection exceeds 2,000 recordings, all digitized. The majority of these elders have passed away but fortunately their voices live on through technology as examples for current and future generations of Māori people. Māori language teaching has concentrated for decades on developing reading and writing skills. This was due to the development of text books and other written resources but not the equivalent or complementary audio material in the classrooms. Hence, many Māori language learners were still lacking the confidence and ability to converse with ease in the language. Through this concern, I developed a research proposal and submitted it to Ngā Pae o te Māramatanga, NZ's Māori Centre of Research Excellence, based at Auckland University. It was successful. So I commenced, sourcing my primary data from Radio Kahungunu's archival collection: 20 hour-long on-air conversations between two elderly women. The project objectives include the production of a 'talking book' comprised of transcriptions of the conversations, their translations, the actual digitised recordings; a linguistic/dialectal analysis; and a radio language course using the elders' actual voices. The proposal is that the 'talking book' will be posted to the internet to enable learners to access the material and to hear the rhythm, stress, intonation and flow of the natural conversations as exemplified by native speakers. My contention is that that approach will vastly improve the students' conversational skills through their constant aural exposure to the Māori language spoken in a reasonably natural context, while viewing the written text. A preliminary linguistic analysis has revealed local dialectal idiosyncrasies and metaphorical language of the type being lost as our elders die off.

TENDENCIES OF INTERNATIONAL AND MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION IN KAZAKHSTAN AS A FACTOR OF DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS

KOSHERBAYEVA AIGERIM NURALI, KOSHERBAYEV RINAD NURALI

The important indicator of any country progress is the educational policy and compliance with international standards. In this regard, Kazakhstan occupies a leading position in the world that aims to develop new learning technologies and introduces advanced teaching techniques to create a training program. Most universities in Kazakhstan are involved in international activities. Moreover, at present there are about 5 branches of foreign universities.

These facts show that the internationalization of education and indicate Kazakhstan as open educational space. It is an advantageous position and necessary trend for the state which is the center of Eurasian continent. Kazakhstan is a society where different cultures coexist.

Today a variety of programs aimed at internationalization have been created in our country. These programs provide access to alternative educational proposals such as joint degree programs, programs to obtain two degrees to students.

In Kazakhstan nowadays it pays more attention to the study of foreign languages. To speak two or more foreign languages is one of the most important points for success in life. According to the UNESCO «A society based on knowledge must build on multilingualism and promote bilingualism and if possible to develop the ability to speak three languages from primary schools.» To support this idea a program «Trinity of languages» is successfully developing where the Kazakh language is as a state language, Russian as an international communication language and English as a language of world status. They open the possibility for the development of new educational technologies and successful internationalization of Kazakh youth and integration into the global educational community.

The significant step towards the higher education internationalization in Kazakhstan was the state decision of adopting the basic structural reforms taking place in the European Union and known as the «Bologna Process». Kazakhstan has been praised for innovative efforts to reform its higher education system in accordance with the Bologna process. The most famous form of higher education internationalization is the student mobility - increasing the student numbers who are studying abroad. The student mobility is stimulated by various state and regional programs.

In 1994 a scholarship «Bolashak» was established taking into account the fact that there were very few professionals with a truly «best western» education. Due to this scholarship talented young people have the opportunity to study at the top foreign universities and acquire world languages. More than 3000 students and teachers study in 20 countries including Spain, the UK, the USA, Switzerland, Germany and the Asian continent countries.

The higher education internationalization is not only students exchange and a cooperation agreement. This process affects the international standards

implementation in all aspects of research and training activities, both at the level of state and educational institutions. It means that modern man must fully own extensive set of knowledge and skills that need to work in the global economy and to implement scientific works recognized at the international level; use of international experience and foreign experts to improve the quality of higher education institutions in Kazakhstan attracting foreign students and teachers.

Thus, the process of internationalization implies:

The broad understanding of phenomena is enhanced and deepened through the studying cultures, languages, environmental situations, governments, political relations, religions, geography and the world history. While the definition of phenomena is various in a used definite language but international education should generally include:

- Knowledge of other world regions & cultures;
- Familiarity with international and global issues;
- Skills in working effectively in global or cross-cultural environments, and using information from different sources around the world;
- Ability to communicate in multiple languages; and

International education is also a major part of international development.

In this article the authors raise the important issue about international education. They note that the important indicators of progress in a country are the components of its educational policies and compliance with international educational standards. In this regard, the authors have noted that Kazakhstan has a leading position in the world on the internationalization of higher education.

The serious factor of international education is a unique *trilinguism project* - Kazakh, Russian and English. language policy and planning initiatives aiming to construct a trilingual university system and harmonise Kazakh as the national language, Russian as an international language and English as a language of global status. This multilingual education model which allows a modern man interacting in terms of multiculturalism.

One of the most important forms of education internationalization is a teacher development system of the national center «Orleu» and it can be noted the «Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools» in close connection with the University of Cambridge in the UK.

The authors have studied a lot of research about international education and summed up that the problem of international education has many different meanings and its definition is still open for debating. Some scientists have defined two general meanings of the international education according to the student involvement. The first refers to education that extends beyond national borders by the exchange of people e.g. students go to study at an international branch campus as a part of the abroad study program or academic mobility. The second is a comprehensive approach to education that intentionally prepares students to be active and engaged participants in the global world.

The International Education defines the term according to the criteria such as to develop citizenship in the world in compliance with culture, language, and social cohesion, to form a sense of identity and cultural awareness, to widen recognition and development of universal human values, to encourage discovery and learning

enjoyment, to provide students with personal skills, abilities working in a team and knowledge that can be applied broadly, to promote global thinking responding to local situations that allows upholding diversity and flexibility in teaching pedagogies and supplying appropriate forms of assessment and international benchmarking.

Teachers and students willing to be a part of international education development are able to learn through organizations, university and college programs. Organizations around the world use education as a means to development. The United Nations Millennium Development Goals include to education specific goals:

- Achieve universal primary education in all countries by 2015;
- Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2015.

International Education improves the quality of life through education for half a million children and adults in 22 countries. International Education's programs promote individual and collective change: Our training programs improve adult education, help displaced peoples and reduce violence through conflict resolution. How do we do it? International Education is a leader in building the skills, knowledge and resources of local groups so they can accomplish their missions effectively.

One of the important problems of the modern paradigm international and multilingual of education is the development of the individual in the open educational space. This process is evident and our stay in the new informational century dictates the integration of every person into the world educational stream. In fact, "openness" is the qualitative characteristic of modern thinking. But an open educational space (environment) - is not a new phenomenon. It has the deep history beginning with the emergence in the 10th century Houses of Scientists in Central Asia and universities in Europe. Even at that time the best minds from all over the world, in search of the true knowledge and scientific facts, flocked to the countries and the cities which were the centres of science at the time. This was the scholar and lexicographer of the East al-Farabi who was called during his lifetime the second teacher of the world. The scientist's educational trip was long and widespread. He travelled all regions of the vast continent of Asia, the Middle East and arrived Baghdad and then Damascus. So he brought to the world famous works of art, music, psychological treatises about the mind and the government management. To count all his achievements is impossible, but the scientist's thinking range is unique. The great Ferdowsi who wrote "Shah-Nameh"; Ibn Sina, from his pen came the Canons of Medicine; Yusuf Balasaguni who gave the world the "Beneficial knowledge"; Mahmud Kashgar who published the first philological dictionary of Turkic dialects can be also included as the best minds in the East.

Undoubtedly, an article can not reveal all the problems international and multilingual of education. Our challenge is to formulate this problem as an important part of the educational potential of modern people.

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CULTURE, IDEOLOGY AND LANGUAGE

“NO DISHES, NO DESSERTS, NO BANANAS: JUST RICE”

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Abstract

Linguistically, Plang, a language spoken in Southeast Asia, is under the Palaungic branch of Mon-Khmer subfamily under the Austro-Asiatic language family. Plang people live intensively in Myanmar, especially near Myanmar and China border areas. They have migrated to Thailand and spread into many regions. This paper studies the Plang found in Nakhon Pathom province. The Plang people in Nakhon Pathom are mainly engaged in orchid cultivation. They no longer grow rice as they did traditionally but still eat rice. Rice, as the Plang staple food, is eaten accompanied by other foods. The significance of rice eating by the Plang people can be seen from verbs for eating. The verb for eating rice is ‘to eat (rice)’. Any food items apart from rice namely dishes eaten together with rice, food items eaten without rice, as well as fruit or vegetables eaten imply, are designated by other 3 lexical items: ‘to eat’ (for curry or dishes, eaten with rice), ‘to eat’ (for food items eaten for entertainment, eaten without rice); and *mAAAn* ‘to eat’ (for some fruit and vegetable items which are eaten in plain form, just boiled or fried) respectively. Such assignation reflects the importance of rice which is represented by the plain verb *som*; the verb *som* is never used to any other food item other than rice. However, food items other than rice may be assigned by the verb *som*. In such cases, it means that there is insufficient rice available to eat due to famine or disaster, so other food items must be eaten instead. This conveys, connotatively, the message that there is a food shortage.

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THE IMPACT OF TURKISH TV SERIES ON AZERBAIJANI VIEWERS: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY EXAMINING THE FORMATION OF TOURIST IDENTITY THROUGH LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

ZIYAD QULIYEV, SAADET EBRU ERGUL, DILBAR QULIYEVA, MEHMET ERGUL

Description

Forming a tourist identity, impacts of media and the concept of “Hyper-Realism” have been widely discussed in the literature (Baudrillard, 1988). In relation with this, the concept of “Free Time” use its affect and consequences related to tourism and culture have also been underlined (Hibbins, 1996). The rising popularity of the Turkish TV series have also been evaluated in the literature (Busby et al, 2013) and its impact in terms of tourist motivation and culture have been put forward in the recent years.

Under this scope, influences resulting from media, television and its relationship with “Free Time” use could be examined through utilizing its role on tourism, language and culture.

Methodology

This is an exploratory study trying to examine and quantify the added value of the Turkish TV series on Azerbaijani society while investigating its impact on daily life, language learning and motivations to travel. 300 questionnaires were conducted in Azerbaijan and basic descriptive analyses from the data have been pulled out. A detailed table of the results will be shared.

Implications and Discussion

Overall the results obtained from the statistical analyses revealed that Turkish TV series have an important influence on the Azerbaijani society. Especially its influence on language and food culture has been stressed along with the domination of Turkish culture. After going through the results, one can easily say that “Tourist Identity” has been created through the influence of the TV shows and media.

Relevance

This study is highly relevant to related sectors, and may exemplify best practices in motivation to travel and language learning.

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TURKISH UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS CYPRIOT TURKISH AND STANDARD TURKISH IN CYPRUS

ÇİŞE ÇAVUŞOĞLU, DIMITRIS EVRIPIDOU

Abstract

This study focuses on the attitudes of university students of Turkish background towards the variety of Turkish spoken in Cyprus, namely Cypriot Turkish (CT), and Standard Turkish (ST). The participants of the study were sampled from the largest private university in the northern part of Cyprus and a questionnaire was distributed to explore whether their attitudes were by and large prescriptive or not. Age, gender and region from which they originated in Turkey were the variables through which possible differences in their attitudes were explored. In addition, the participants' perceptions of their own linguistic productions of these two varieties were investigated through the questionnaire. The results showed that Turkish university students had somewhat negative attitudes towards CT, which they found to be highly inferior compared to ST. They also found CT less rich and less appropriate for expressing seriousness. CT was preferred over ST in none of the traits that were included in the questionnaire, although the participants rated the two varieties equally for being attractive, refined, friendly, melodic, affectionate and for expressing honesty.

Keywords: Cypriot Turkish, Standard Turkish, Language Attitudes, University Students, National Languages, Turkish Students

Introduction

Standard language ideologies, where only one legitimate version of a language is widely accepted to be the dominant and the "official" (Bourdieu, 1991), entail questions of both "inferiority vs. superiority" and perceptions related to being an "insider vs. an outsider" to a specific group. In other words, linguistic code does not mean all the members of the group are perceived equally by other group members. Thus, perceptions and attitudes towards different language varieties or dialects become significant when such language varieties, by nature, are perceived to be 'inferior' nor even 'inexpressive' nlinguistic codes or systems of communication, especially when they are compared to their corresponding standard or official versions. Although focus on issues such as people's attitudes towards certain varieties/linguistic codes had been avoided for various ideological and political reasons for a long while, recent research studies have shown how such attitudes have deeper social meaning and significance in people's interactions with each other (Gal and Irvine, 1995). It has been repeatedly discussed that negative views about varieties or dialects are neither innocent nor harmless since they can have an impact on speakers' lives, their self-esteem, educational attainment, status and employment opportunities (Edwards, 1989); worse still they may even encourage some to think that such speakers are ignorant and intellectually inferior by the accident of which variety they happen to use (Bereiter, and Engleman, 1966, Bourdieu, 1991). Additionally, it would be generally difficult to distinguish attitudes toward language varieties from attitudes to the perceived groups and community members who use them because language varieties are not simply characteristics

of a community; in some cases they define a community and in other cases they are the reason for a community to exist (Garrett, 2010).

Despite the fact that, in the last few decades, most researchers bring forth evidence that support the equality of all varieties or dialects with their corresponding standard or official one (Honey, 1983; Anderson and Trudgill, 1990; Hernstein and Murray, 1994), specific linguistic codes and varieties still remain under the dominance of others. Given the importance of language attitudes in creating this dominance, this study examines the attitudes of Turkish university students, who are currently studying in Cyprus, towards Cypriot Turkish (henceforth CT) and Standard Turkish (henceforth ST). It is believed that this specific group's attitudes reflect the most valid perspectives of Turkish people's attitudes towards CT and ST since they have the first hand experience and everyday contact with CT speakers due to their immersion in the context, as opposed to Turkish speakers in mainland Turkey. Additionally, since these students come from various parts of Turkey, and were not necessarily expected to speak in ST, we were also interested in investigating how they perceived their own linguistic abilities in the aforementioned varieties.

Brief Historical Background of Cyprus

Before the Ottoman occupation in 1571, Cyprus has been populated by Greeks since the Bronze Age. Migration by Muslims continued during the Ottoman reign with people especially from Anatolia settling on the island. When World War I started in 1914, the administration of the island was handed over to the British Empire. In 1960, an independent state was formed with the contribution of the two largest ethnic communities, i.e. the Greek majority or the Turkish minority. However, the independence did not satisfy either group and Greek Cypriots fought for union (enosis) with Greece, while Turkish Cypriots advocated the partition of the island (taksim) into a Greek and Turkish domain that would join the two 'motherlands' respectively. Interethnic clashes and a coup sponsored by the Greek junta followed independence, which provoked the events of 1974 that resulted into the current division of the island (Anthias, and Ayres, 1983; Gazioglu, 2000; Loizides, 2007). An independent state was proclaimed in the northern part of the island by the Turkish Cypriots in 1983, which was condemned internationally, with the UN Security Council declaring it legally invalid (Mallinson, 2011). Turkey, however, is the only state who recognises its existence. Currently a number of private universities run in the northern part of the island, whose students, at large, come from Turkey.

Linguistic Context and Attitudes

CT, as language variety, is believed to be significantly unlike ST in terms of its phonology, syntax and lexis (Saraçoğlu, 2004; İssa, 2005, 2006). İssa (2005, p. 15) explains that CT can be "puzzling to an Istanbul Turk," who would presumably speak the standard version. This may be true because of the origins of Turkish Cypriots. CT is linked to Anatolian dialects and not to ST as much, while attempts to point out similarities or draw connections between the two varieties are, as Kabataş (2007) explains, founded more on an emotional basis rather than a scientific one. He also indicates that if CT is to be compared to a language, this should be Anatolian Turkish and its various dialects that existed before the 13th century. Even if such a comparison was to happen, CT can be said to have undergone a transformation of its own, independently from ST; the former's phonetic characteristics were shaped by the distinct geographical and cultural circumstances in Cyprus, between the 16th

century and 1974 (Kabataş, 2007). For example, in CT, there are a series of sound deviations in consonants and vowels in relation to ST, while there are also syntactic variations which make CT substantially different from ST (Vancı-Osam, 2006). All these deviations from ST have been attributed to the Turkish Cypriots' long history of co-existence with Greek Cypriots (Demirci and Kleiner, 1999). Due to hundreds of years of language contact, some words in CT were borrowed not only from Cypriot Greek, but also from English, Arabic, Italian and Latin (Issa, 2006).

Unique characteristics in CT have also developed because the variety was left without strong influences from Turkey over long periods of time, which resulted in the preservation of old language characteristics and also the development of innovative features (Demir and Johanson, 2006). After the division of the island in 1974, ST became the official language of education, bureaucracy, and the mass media in the northern part of the island, while the language was, at an initial stage, perceived by the Turkish Cypriot speakers as a natural consequence of the idea that they were now a 'part' of the Turkish nation (Kızılyürek and Gautier-Kızılyürek, 2004). The fact that more Turkish settlers were arriving in the island after 1983 made the use of ST even more common in everyday life (Vancı-Osam, 2006), while the division of the island also led to the introduction of new language policies which aimed at strengthening the Turkish national feeling among Turkish Cypriots. For instance, new Turkish names were given to villages and towns replacing the Greek names. Prior language campaigns such as the 'Citizen Speak Turkish', which aspired to alienate the Turkish speaking Cypriots from their Greek speaking counterparts (Kızılyürek and Gautier-Kızılyürek, 2004) paved the ground for these new language policies. At the same time the role of ST implied that CT was inadequate to be the national language of the Turkish Cypriot community. According to Kızılyürek and Gautier-Kızılyürek (2004) the Turkish Cypriots themselves started considering their own language variety as being inferior while ST now sounded more 'educated' and 'well-mannered', in contrast to CT which was often perceived as 'rough' and 'rustic'. Kızılyürek and Gautier-Kızılyürek (ibid) explain that, this language ideology with Mustafa Kemal Atatürk's language reforms at its core, enabled Turkish Cypriots to have an ethnic identification, as Turks of Cyprus, in opposition to earlier terms used to identify them through their religion, i.e. Muslim subjects of the Ottoman Empire.

In time, however, the legitimacy of official nationalism among Turkish Cypriots seem to have deteriorated due to continuous migration from Turkey, along with the unresolved status of the northern part of the island, and the international isolation. As an alternative, growing focus on Cypriotness as a concept of identity shared with Greek Cypriots, which includes a reference to entities beyond the nation, to Cyprus as an island and the supranational European Union (Ramm, 2005), emerged. From a linguistic point of view, the fact that the Turkish migrants themselves do not speak the idealised ST was an important factor in the formation of such a standpoint. Centring on the differences between Turkish settlers and Turkish Cypriots, such attitudes brought out a further need for the latter to differentiate themselves from the former and CT as a linguistic code that entailed Cypriotness as opposed to Turkishness became the most apparent tool for this identification (ibid). Even though hints of these perspectives and attitudes can be observed in subtle ways in the daily life in northern part of Cyprus, academic studies largely ignored the attitudes of both Turkish Cypriots and Turkish settlers towards various cultural and linguistic issues.

Linguistic research focusing on Turkish Cypriots' attitudes towards their language varieties has been scarce. In a diaspora setting in London, Çavuşoğlu (2010) stressed that even though Turkish Cypriots accepted the dominant position of ST in their public interactions, they showed strong linguistic and cultural loyalty to CT in their private interactions. In particular, her research revealed that young people were resisting the imposition of ST in various ways and claiming distaste towards it. In an attitudes study, Osam (2004) investigated the language attitudes of Turkish Cypriots towards CT and ST, by employing the matched-guise technique. The results of his study suggested that speakers of CT were perceived as less educated, while speakers of ST were believed to be more educated. In addition, it was found that the participants had positive attitudes towards ST speakers who were perceived to be more attractive, ambitious, intelligent and nicer, while CT speakers were found to be more sincere, credible, friendly, affectionate and funnier. It was also argued that these traits corresponded to the general cultural characteristics and world view of the Turkish Cypriot society. A more recent study, however, carried out by Evripidou and Çavuşoğlu (2013), challenged such prescriptive language attitudes among Turkish Cypriots. Their questionnaire and interview results revealed that CT speakers appeared to hold positive feelings towards the CT variety, while they did not seem to favour ST over CT for most of traits used in their study. CT was found to be more friendly, honest, and affectionate than ST, while it was also perceived to be equally rich, serious, melodic and attractive with the ST variety. CT was found to be neither superior nor inferior to ST according to their participants.

Aims of the Study

Even though some empirical research has been carried out on Turkish Cypriots' language attitudes towards CT and ST, very little empirical research, if any, has been carried out on Turks' attitudes towards CT in relation to ST. Thus, this study examines the language attitudes of Turkish students who are studying in Cyprus, towards CT and ST and their linguistic self-evaluations in relation to the two language varieties after being exposed to the linguistic repertoire of the northern part of the island. In addition, the study aims to investigate the reasons behind their attitudes towards CT. In particular, this study investigates:

- a. Turkish university students' language attitudes towards and perceptions of CT in relation to ST;
- b. Possible differences in their attitudes based on age, gender, and regions of origin in Turkey; and also,
- c. Turkish university students' linguistic self-evaluations in terms of CT and ST.

Methodology

The study was carried out in two phases using a mixed methods approach. In the first phase, a questionnaire was adapted and developed on the basis of previously designed ones (Tsiplakou 2003; Evripidou, and Çavuşoğlu 2013) to study the language attitudes and perceived language abilities of Turkish university students who reside in the northern part of the island. The questionnaire consisted of three parts. The first part asked for demographic information related to age, gender and the birth places of the participants and their parents. The latter piece of information was considered important in order to identify the origin of the participants and make sure that they were of Turkish origin. In the second part, there

were nine statements where the participants were asked to rate CT with respect to ST on superiority, richness, friendliness, melodiousness, honesty, seriousness, politeness, attractiveness and affection. In the last section, the participants were asked to rate themselves with regard to their own linguistic productions in written and spoken ST and spoken CT (since it lacks a formal written code as yet). A total of 150 questionnaires were distributed to the university students studying in the Faculty of Education for bachelor degrees at a private university in the northern part of Cyprus. Only 103 of these were returned back for analysis and among those questionnaires, only 94 were eligible for the criteria of the study, i.e. all participants to be from Turkish backgrounds. In other words, all of the 94 participants were born and had completed their primary education in various parts of Turkey. In addition, both of their parents were also born in Turkey. The questionnaires were administered during class hours by the researchers, filled in individually by the students and returned to the researchers on site.

To analyse the quantitative data collected through the questionnaires, frequency distributions, mean scores and percentages were used. Traits that were related to the participants' attitudes towards the two language varieties were given values from 1 to 3 (1-less, 2-equal, 3-more). Since the initial analysis of data showed that a normal distribution cannot be assumed, non-parametric tests, namely Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis were used to identify possible significant differences between groups.

Table 1. Demographics (Questionnaires)

<u>Variables</u>	<u>Groups</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
<u>Gender</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>42.6</u>
	<u>Female</u>	<u>54</u>	<u>57.4</u>
<u>Age</u>	<u>18-23</u>	<u>88</u>	<u>88.3</u>
	<u>24+</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>11.7</u>
<u>Total</u>		<u>94</u>	<u>100.0</u>

As Table 1 shows, 57.4% of the participants were female while 42.6% were male. In terms of age, the participants were grouped into two, namely those between 18 and 23 and 24 +. There were two reasons for this choice. First, the university's policy regarding students' age stated that if students were 24 and above, they would be considered mature students. Hence, those above 24 were grouped together as mature students. The second reason for this choice was to reduce any possible bias due to group numbers when conducting group comparison tests. Since an overwhelming number of students were between the ages of 18-23 (88.3%), dividing students into more groups and comparing their attitudes would not reveal reliable results as the number of participants in each group would not be balanced.

As a follow-up stage, two focus groups (FGs) with a total of 12 Turkish university students were carried out. Students were selected using the snowball sampling technique. They were briefed about the aims and procedures of the study prior to their participation and their consent was obtained. The participants in this phase of the study were also studying in different departments in the Faculty of Education

and their ages ranged from 18 to 24. There were six participants in each FG. Table 2 shows the age and gender distribution of the participants in the FGs.

Table 2. Demographics (Focus Groups)

Groups	Gender		Age		Total (in each group)
	Male	Female	18-23	24+	
Group 1	2	4	4	2	6
Group 2	3	3	5	1	6
Total	5	7	9	3	12

The FGs were organised as semi-structured group interviews with a number of themes pre-identified to be covered with all groups. Participants were encouraged to state their individual opinions and discuss language related topics. The semi-structured questions were used to explore the participants' attitudes towards CT in their everyday lives and they inquired about any memories/memorable experiences related to CT, the use of CT among their friendship groups and in the media and their evaluations of themselves as users of this variety. The FG sessions were recorded using an audio-recorder and then selectively transcribed during the analysis phase. For the purpose of this research and in an attempt to guarantee confidentiality, participants were given pseudonyms. First, open coding was used to analyse the data, followed by axial coding, where the initially identified themes were checked for any internal relationships. Content analysis was also employed to identify the adjectives used by the participants to describe CT during their discussions as an indicator of their attitudes towards the variety. The main emerging themes were later tabulated and relevant quotes were noted.

Results

When the attitudes of the participants are observed, it becomes clear that they have somewhat neutral attitudes towards CT, although the overall mean score is very close to negative attitudes ($M = 1.61$, $SD = .57$). Table 3 shows that out of nine traits, only the last trait, which is about the linguistic code being affectionate, received a mean score of slightly above 2. This score indicates that the participants find both varieties equally affectionate. This shows that in the rest of the cases, the participants either favoured ST over CT or believed that they were almost equal in terms of expressing the given trait. The most negative attitude towards CT was observed for item 1, where ST was perceived to be superior over CT by the participants. As shown in Figure 1, 80.9% ($n = 76$) of the participants believe that CT is inferior when compared to ST.

Table 3. Attitudes of Participants towards Both Varieties: General Overview

Questionnaire Item	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
Item 1: Compared to ST, I think CT is ... (superior-inferior)	94	1.20	.43
Item 2: Compared to ST, I think CT is ... (rich)	94	1.22	.44
Item 6: Compared to ST, I think CT is ... (appropriate for seriousness)	94	1.30	.56
Item 5: Compared to ST, I think CT is ... (appropriate for honesty)	94	1.65	1.16
Item 8: Compared to ST, I think CT is ... (attractive)	94	1.68	.88
Item 7: Compared to ST, I think CT is ... (refined)	94	1.84	3.33
Item 3: Compared to ST, I think CT is ... (friendly)	94	1.85	.80
Item 4: Compared to ST, I think CT is ... (melodic)	94	1.86	.97
Item 9: Compared to ST, I think CT is ... (affectionate)	93	2.02	.90
Total	94	1.61	.57

Similarly, in terms of richness ($M = 1.22$, $SD = .44$) and expressing seriousness ($M = 1.30$, $SD = .56$), ST was rated to be better by the participants. Figures 2 and 3 show that CT was rated to be less rich than CT by 78.7% ($n = 74$) of the participants, while 75.5% ($n = 71$) found CT less appropriate to express seriousness.

For the rest of the items, as expressed earlier, the mean scores indicate that the two varieties were found equally appropriate for expressing honesty, equally attractive, refined, friendly,

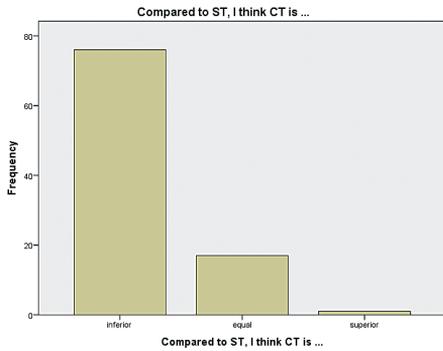


Figure 1. Participants' Attitudes towards CT and ST in Terms of Superiority

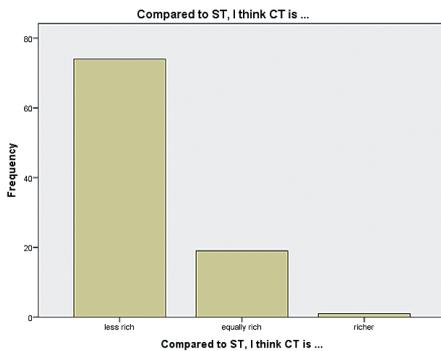


Figure 2. Participants' Attitudes towards CT and ST in Terms of Richness

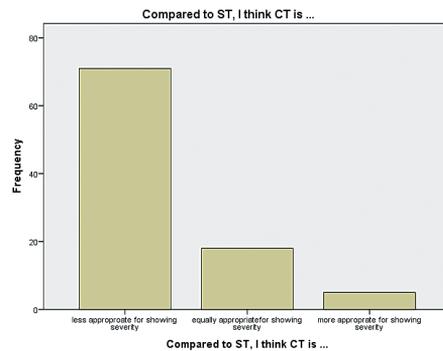


Figure 3. Participants' Attitudes towards CT and ST in Terms of Seriousness

melodic and affectionate. There were no items that CT was rated to have more appropriate or better traits than ST.

The linguistic self-evaluations of the participants in this study revealed that they rated themselves to be very good in both written and spoken ST, while they believed that they were fair speakers of CT (see Table 4).

Table 4. Linguistic Self-assessment of the Participants

Questionnaire Item	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
My spoken ST is ... (fair/very good/excellent)	93	1.77	.68
My written ST is (fair/very good/excellent)	92	1.89	.75
My spoken CT is (fair/very good/excellent)	91	1.14	.44

This was an expected result because the composition of the participants was quite diverse in terms of the places of birth and primary education within Turkey, where different dialect of Turkish are spoken. Hence, not many participants rated themselves as excellent speakers of ST. Similarly, none of the participants are native speakers of CT, therefore it was expected that their spoken CT would be fair.

Differences based on Age, Gender, and Region of Origin

In terms of gender, the Mann-Whitney U test did not reveal any differences in the attitudes of males and females towards CT and ST both in general ($U = 982.0$, $p = .45$) and in an item by item analysis. Likewise, there were no differences found in the linguistic self-evaluations of the participants based on their gender. The Kruskal Wallis test for significant differences in attitudes based on their region of origin in Turkey showed that there were no differences in the participants' attitudes in general ($H(6) = 7.388$, $p = .286$), as well as in individual items. In terms of age, however, differences were observed in the attitudes of the participants overall ($U = 257.00$, $p = .018$). Yet, an item by item analysis revealed that only in items three and five attitudes were found to differ significantly by age. Table 5 displays the results of the Mann-Whitney U test, showing significant differences in attitudes with regard these items, which asked the participants to rate CT and ST based on friendliness and appropriateness for expressing honesty.

Table 5. Mann-Whitney U Test Results based on Age

	Item 3: Compared to ST, I think CT is ... (friendly)	Item 5: compared to ST, I think CT is ... (appropriate for honesty)	Overall
Mann-Whitney U	246.5	297	257.000
Z	-2.64	-2.12	-2.356
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.034	.018

For both of these items, 18-23 year-olds appeared to have more positive ratings for CT (Mean Rank = 50.03 for item 3 and Mean Rank = 49.42 for item 5) compared to 24+ year-olds (Mean Rank = 28.41 and Mean Rank = 33.0, respectively).

Interestingly, differences were also found in the linguistic self-evaluations of different ages groups with regard to spoken ST (see Table 6).

Table 6. Differences among age groups based on linguistic self-evaluations

Items	My spoken ST is ... (fair/very good/excellent)
Mann-Whitney U	287
Z	-2.145
Asymp. Sig.	.032

A detailed comparison of the groups using Mann-Whitney U tests revealed the opposite of the results with regard to their attitudes. In terms of spoken ST, the older group (24+) rated themselves to be better (Mean Rank = 61.91) than did the 18-23 year-old group (Mean Rank = 45.00) and the difference between the groups was significant for this item at $p < .05$. There were no significant differences based on age in other items in the participants' attitudes.

Focus Groups

Parallel to the findings of the questionnaire data, the results of the analysis of qualitative data obtained through the FGs showed that the participants had somewhat negative attitudes towards CT. When they were asked to comment about their thoughts on CT, without any exceptions, all participants claimed that they liked the variety. However, when they were prompted to further comment about their thoughts, they used very negative attributes to describe CT and their relevant experiences with it. The most frequently used adjectives to describe CT by the participants were "funny" and "strange." Most of the participants explained that they found the variety "funny" because it made them laugh when they first heard it. They also claimed that they "got used to it and now it's normal" (FG 1). One of the participants even stated that "In the beginning, when a person spoke to me in Cypriot Turkish, I found it less attractive [compared to ST] but now I got used to it" (Celal, FG 2). This normalisation/neutralisation of their attitudes indicates that their initial perception of the variety was somewhat negative, i.e., they thought that it was something to be laughed at. This view was voiced by Ferhan, a second year student who claimed that CY was "funny" to her. She said "It makes me laugh. I found it so strange." and that she CT "does not sound better" than ST. This view was confirmed by other participants in the discussion group. Therefore, it is claimed that there appears to be a superficial positiveness around CT whereas the actual attitudes towards the variety are negative. The analysis also revealed that the attitudes of Turkish university students towards CT can be discussed around three major themes. These are correctness, language as a symbol of identity and CT vs. other varieties.

Correctness

Correctness was the most frequently reiterated theme in the FG discussions in relation to the participants' attitudes towards CT. Deniz, a first year student, explained that she found Turkish Cypriots "sweet ...but they make grammar mistakes while speaking" (FG 1). Selin, who participated in the discussion in FG 1, pointed out that anyone "even in Cyprus, should learn to speak Turkish correctly - Cypriot Turkish is not correct." In FG 2, Mert explained that:

A person using the language should be able to use it in the right way, so Turkish is the language used in Turkey. So, they [Cypriots] must believe that we use the right way ... They should try to adapt their speech to ours.

This view clearly overlaps with national language ideologies, where the only acceptable version of a language is believed to be the standard one and everyone learning/speaking the language is expected to be able to “adapt” their variety accordingly.

When the issue of correctness was brought up by several participants during the discussion, it appeared that they related this attribute of the language to general education. According to the participants, Cypriot teachers were to be blamed for people not using CT in their everyday lives because they did not use ST in schools. As Ahmet claimed “Language has rules and I don’t understand why teachers don’t use those rules. It’s weird.” Ahmet’s words point to a significant difference between the participants’ awareness of “knowing” the rules and “using” them. According to him, Cypriot people knew the rules but they did not use it, which caused them to continue speaking in “the wrong way” (Ahmet, FG 1). The participants also believed that being able to speak the “correct” version of Turkish was closely linked to being educated. In other words, using ST was considered to be an attribute of educated people. Referring to her lecturers at the university, Selin explained that, “educated people should use ST” and the fact that most of her lecturers did not use this variety was a contradiction in her view. Meryem, a first year student in FG 1, claimed that while Turkish Cypriots “always think that they are more modern than us [Turkish people], much more intellectual or educated,” they actually sound uneducated because an educated person would use “correct Turkish, which Cypriot Turkish is not.” She also claimed “I don’t think the Turkish used here is normal and I believe all teachers, lecturers and politicians should be able to use normal Turkish.” As mentioned earlier, such requirements of using “normal” Turkish points to a strong belief in standard language ideologies, which will be further elaborated on in the Discussion section.

Intelligibility, i.e. whether the participants understood CT spoken by their friends and lecturers, was frequently reiterated in the FGs in relation to the correct use of the language. Ahmet, in FG 1, explained that he had been corrected by Turkish Cypriots while he was speaking but it was actually very hard for him “to understand what they were talking about.” In his personal experience, the “wrong Turkish” that Turkish Cypriots used caused a lot of misunderstandings. The participants attributed this unintelligibility to the different use of “stress” or “accent” by speakers of CT, both at the word and the sentence levels, as well as borrowed words from Cypriot Greek.

Language as a Symbol of Identity

Another strong theme that was repeated in the FGs was the idea that CT was used as a symbol of Turkish Cypriot identity, specifically to distinguish the speakers of this variety from people from Turkish mainland backgrounds. Through the group discussions, the participants demonstrated that they had a distinctive awareness in relation to the similarities between Cypriot Greek and CT and how they related to their respective standard versions. Celal in FG 2 said that CT was “like Cypriot Greek, which is different from Standard Greek. CT is the same. It’s different from

ST." However, the general attitudes of the participants towards this distinction were quite negative. Mert (FG 2) suggested that Turkish Cypriots:

Don't say that they are Turkish. They prefer to say they are Cypriot and they see the language as a symbol, like a different country. They have their own language, their own country. They are proud that they speak their own language. Language is one of the factors that makes them different from us.

Mert's words imply that he was not very happy with the way that this distinction was made between Cyprus, more specifically the northern part of the island, and Turkey through CT as a separate linguistic code. He also draws on a discourse of "us-them" with implications of group belonging, while language is the dividing line between these two groups. In FG 1, a similar view was suggested by Selin, who argued that "They [Turkish Cypriots] don't need to feel different from us, they must feel the same as us. There are seven different regions of Turkey and Cyprus is the eighth." It can be inferred from Selin's words that she strongly believes in the "Turkish Nation as one" ideology (Robins, 1995), which argues for the existence of a Turkish supra-family of which each Turkic linguistic group is a member. According to Selin and others, Turkish Cypriots are no exception to this and linguistic varieties should not be attributed such significance to make them feel any different.

When the participants were prompted to comment on the possible reasons for Turkish Cypriots using language as a symbol of identity, Ahmet interestingly claimed that Turkish Cypriots thought that "Cyprus is a colony of Turkey. It's a bad feeling or emotion for them. So they want to feel that they are much stronger than us." In this interpretation, Ahmet draws on an oppressor-oppressed relationship with his reference to Cyprus being perceived as a "colony." As an extension of this perception, Turkish Cypriots resist this perceived oppression by bringing out linguistic differences which helps them distinguish themselves from their oppressors. In this way, they feel "stronger" than the group of people whom they think are the oppressors. As a result, much to Ahmet's disapproval, Turkish Cypriots use their linguistic variety as a symbol of identity that is distinctly different from that of the Turkish people of the mainland.

CT vs. Other Varieties

The participants in this study identified CT as a distinct variety of Turkish. They also talked about its relationship to ST as well as other varieties of Turkish that are spoken daily in different parts of Turkey. However, in all of their arguments, they seemed to perceive ST as the most superior version and claim that all varieties of Turkish other than ST were "funny." Despite their earlier claims in relation to identity that Turkish Cypriots were expected to feel a natural part of the Turkish nation, when they talked about different varieties of Turkish in Turkey, they identified CT as a distinct variety. Asya's words (FG 1) are a good example of this attitude: "We have our own varieties too but we believe that our Turkish is closer to ST than the Cypriots." It is worth noting Asya's use of the possessive pronoun "our" to refer to the different varieties used in Turkey and her reference to CT as "their." This shows that while acknowledging the several varieties of Turkish other than ST, CT is still perceived as belonging to an external group of speakers. In addition, this variety is rated lower than any other variety as, according to the participants, it resembles to ST the least.

Discussion

While Evripidou and Çavuşoğlu (2013) argue that the attitudes of Turkish Cypriots towards their own varieties are positive and that their findings confirm the arguments that Ramm (2005) and Çavuşoğlu (2010) have previously put forth in relation to CT being used as a marker of identity, the results of the current study indicate that the language attitudes of Turkish university students towards CT and ST are relatively negative. The participants prioritised ST over CT for almost all of the functions that these linguistic codes are utilised for. This was the case regardless of which region they originated from, where different varieties of Turkish can be identified and used on a daily basis (Karahan, 1996). The reasons behind these attitudes became more apparent in the focus groups where the participants acknowledged the existence of other varieties of Turkish in Turkey but still rated CT even lower than those varieties. According to them, there was only one correct version of Turkish and that was ST. All other varieties were either “incorrect” or “funny.”

The findings in relation to the linguistic self-evaluations of different age groups revealed that the older group rated themselves as better users of ST than the younger group, which may also relate to the fact that the younger group of participants had more positive attitudes toward CT compared to the older group. In other words, the better one considers himself/herself in using ST, the more negative attitudes he/she appears to have towards other varieties. Such attitudes are extensions of the what Bourdieu (1991) describes as legitimisation of one variety over the others, where the standard or the official version is considered to be legitimate and appropriate to express serious issues while other varieties are considered to be inappropriate and “funny,” i.e. something to be laughed at. As mentioned earlier, this process of legitimisation of one version at the expense of others being marked as “incorrect” and “not proper” seemed to be a common understanding among the participants of the current study.

With inappropriateness and/or incorrectness comes loss of prestige. In parallel, speakers of varieties that are considered to be illegitimate or non-official are usually perceived as belonging to lower social classes with lower levels of education (Bourdieu, 1991). This was also highlighted by the participants in the focus groups, where they explained that educated people should certainly be able to speak ST well and should adhere to it in official settings and in the media. For the participants, CT is still “rough” and “rustic” (Kızılyürek and Gautier-Kızılyürek, 2004). The inability of CT users to speak ST properly was attributed to the education system, more specifically to the language teachers’ lack of linguistic skills in ST, which portrayed the whole process as a vicious cycle of reproducing “incorrect” Turkish through education. In other words, Bourdieu’s “production and reproduction of legitimate language” (Bourdieu, 1991, p. 43) works in reverse when CT is considered. In this respect, this study confirmed that the Turkish university students with first-hand experience of CT in Cyprus still support the standard language ideologies (Gal and Irvine, 1995).

The prescriptive attitudes towards CT as expressed by Turkish students were somewhat expected. It is worth noting that the students themselves use linguistic codes that are not standard and seem to have negative attitudes towards them too. It is apparent that they perceive the northern part of Cyprus as a part of Turkey

and seem to be displeased with CT acquiring a symbolic nature among Turkish Cypriots. They believe that CT does not deserve the opportunity of becoming an official language despite the fact that it was used by Turkish Cypriots as a marker of identity. As Fishman (1977) pointed out that "Ethnicity is rightly understood as an aspect of a collectivity's self-recognition as well as an aspect of its recognition in the eyes of outsiders" (p.16). One would then speculate that language becomes a central ingredient of identity, especially when it is related to ethnic identity, as described in Fishman's definition. In Cyprus, due to the notions of Turkishness versus Cypriotness and Cypriotness versus Greekness, language becomes an even more significant marker of identity. This is something acknowledged by the Turkish students, that is to say, they seem to understand the desire expressed by Turkish Cypriots to be different from Turks, however, it is something that does not necessarily please them. One would also speculate that such attitudes of 'outsiders' (Turks) towards CT and Turkish Cypriots would somehow strengthen the latter's need for being different, which was highlighted by Evripidou and Çavuşoğlu (2013) in their study on Turkish Cypriots' (attitudes toward their own linguistic variety. Taking for granted that language and ethnicity are somehow interlinked, it may be rightly surmised that their relationship is reinforced by the role of outsiders' language attitudes as much as it is reinforced by their own.

In one of the focus groups, a fourth year student pointed out that she felt "happy" when she heard CT being spoken by someone in Istanbul. This may suggest that people with longer contact with CT may have more positive attitudes towards it. As Altinkamış and Ağırdağ (2014) found in their study on the attitudes of Turkish immigrants in the Flemish speaking part of Belgium, length of residence and social class are significant factors that affect language attitudes of Turkish speakers. Moreover, Pehlivan's (2012) study on the effectiveness of dialect awareness training on the attitudes of his participants with respect to Anatolian dialects have shown that those who received the training had more positive attitudes in terms of the place and function of dialects in education, attitudes towards dialect users, emotional values attributed to dialect use and attitudes towards the status of dialects.

Conclusion

As in any other field, attitudes have an organic relationship to language and the way that any linguistic variety is perceived by its users and others has real life implications for both parties. In addition to such implications that are experienced on a daily basis by individuals, language planning and policy are also influenced by such attitudes at a macro level. Hence, investigating language attitudes is of utmost importance to understand linguistic and social changes. In an attempt to examine the language attitudes of people from Turkish backgrounds towards the Cypriot variety of Turkish, the current study showed that Turkish university students who are residing in Cyprus for their tertiary education have negative attitudes towards CT. They believe that it is an incorrect version of ST and that it is neither rich, nor appropriate to be employed while talking about serious issues. They are also aware that CT is being used as an identity marker by Turkish Cypriots to distinguish themselves from people from mainland Turkish backgrounds. Not only do they believe that CT is inferior to ST, but also think that CT is inferior to all other varieties

of Turkish that are currently in use in Turkey. However, as Altınkamaş and Ağırdağ (2014) pointed out, contact time with the target linguistic code is an important variable to be considered when language attitudes are examined. This variable was not investigated in the current study. Thus, further studies that take other variables such as time of contact with the language variety and different reasons of residence in Cyprus into account are needed to determine whether attitudes change over time or due to different orientations of residence, or perhaps both.

In addition, especially in the focus groups, extensions of the “us-them” distinction between the ST speakers and CT speakers were observable. These attitudes not only draw distinct lines between groups of speakers of different varieties but also imply membership and inclusion/exclusion from the group. This notion of “othering” is not only reflected in their attitudes toward the spoken variety but it also may be realised in actual discriminatory behaviours (Hansen, Rakic, Steffens, 2014). Hence, more studies looking at the behavioural patterns in everyday interactions of ST and CT speakers are necessary to understand how these social processes take place and what their manifestations and implications are.

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TOWARDS UNDERSTANDING THE FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR IN THE MEDIA STATEMENTS OF MILITANT ORGANISATIONS IN THE MIDDLE EAST: A CASE OF HEZBOLLAH'S MILITARY ARM

HATEM EL ZEIN

Abstract

Militant organisations need media to transmit their messages. However, the developments of communication technologies allow militant organisations, particularly the jihadist guerrillas in the Middle East, to use online medium to convey their statements to wider audiences. Generally, the statements are embedded with representation whether to 'the self' or to 'the other.'

In the context of Arab-Israeli conflict, Hezbollah's military arm, the Islamic Resistance, acknowledged since the mid-1980s the significance of media in the war by establishing what so called the Military Media Unit. This mouthpiece of Hezbollah's military arm produces various outputs, including media statements about the Islamic Resistance's activities and announcements.

This paper is concerned with analysing the issued statements by this unit. It aims to explore their grammatical structures based on Halliday's functional grammar under the umbrella of critical discourse analysis discipline.

The paucity of this paper has been derived from the fact that it seems there is dearth of studies in this field. To bridge the gap, the paper spots the grammatical structures in a sample of archival media statements to unveil how the military arm of Hezbollah represents itself and its enemy.

Although the obtained results in this paper may not be generalised to the issued statements by other jihadist organisations, the theoretical framework may provide the concerned researchers in this field an insight about the significance of understanding the notion of representation in the media statements of guerrilla movements in the Middle East.

Keywords: Critical Discourse Analysis, Functional Grammar, Hezbollah, The Islamic Resistance, The Military Media Unit

Introduction

In observing the online medium of the jihadist organisations in the Middle East, whatever the context of their war, they include media statements about their activities or announcements. Regarding the Arab-Israeli conflict, as shown from the previous war on Gaza Strip, Palestinian guerrillas, such as Ezzeddeen Al-Qassam Brigades of Hamas (The Islamic Resistance Movement) and Al Quds Brigades of the Islamic Jihad Movement in Palestine, utilise online medium to transmit media statements.

The main focus of this study is to analyse the issued media statements by Hezbollah's military arm to from various linguistic perspectives. Although these

statements are published and broadcasted, via *Al-Intiqad* (previously *Al-Ahed*) newspaper, *An-Nour* radio and *Al-Manar* television, the existed website www.moqawama.org is considered an online medium used by Hezbollah's military arm to transmit its statements to wider audiences, including the concerned researchers who aim investigate this output.

To delve in the microstructural analysis of a sample of the issued statements, this study reviews the existing literature about media discourse of Hezbollah's military arm.

Literature Review

In reviewing the literature about its media discourse, it seems there is a scant attention about the issued statements by the Military Media Unit of the Islamic Resistance, the military wing of Hezbollah in Lebanon. Osipova (2011) points out that there are statements issued by this media unit (called also War Information Unit) which was established in 1984 after two years of Hezbollah's inception. The functions of the issued statements are to document the military operations initiated by the Islamic Resistance against Israel and Israeli army and obituaries about the fighters who are killed (ibid). These statements have a military context and written by the unit which provides them to *Al-Manar* television and other Hezbollah media outlets, before distributing to other media outlets in Lebanon (Harb 2011).

Although many researchers have analysed some elements of the media discourse of the Islamic Resistance, such as the military operations' videos and the speeches of Secretary-General of Hezbollah who is considered the leader of the party's military arm (e.g. El Hourri 2012; Harb 2011), it seems there is no study focused on the statements issued by the unit.

To bridge the gap in this field, this paper focuses on the issued media statements by Hezbollah's military arm to explore the grammatical structure. Thus, the analysis of the statements unveils semantic relations and reveals the notion of representation. As a result, this paper illuminates an output of media discourse of Hezbollah's military arm.

Methodology

In analysing media discourse under the umbrella of critical discourse analysis, there are many approaches (Bell & Garrett eds. 1998). One of the approaches is to analyse the macro- and microstructure of the discourse, utilising Social Semiotic and Critical Linguistic, particularly in analysing microstructural of the discourse (Fairclough 1995).

In this regard, functional grammar, which has been developed by the British linguist Michael Halliday, contributed to discourse studies (Wodak & Meyer 2009). Halliday & Matthiessen (2014) argue that the language has socio-functional characteristics and the sign should be interpreted in its context, pointing out there are three meta-functions of language: ideational, interpersonal and textual. The first meta-function is about what is going on and the major grammatical system is transitivity such as actor, location and process. The second is about the social relation between the writer and / or the speaker with the receiver, where the major grammatical systems are mood and modality. The third relates to the text itself, where the major grammatical systems are theme and rheme.

This functional approach has contributed to discourse studies, where the researchers can approach the text or a speech intrinsically and at extra-linguistic level (Fairclough 2013). Although this approach has been developed basically on English, this does not mean that it cannot be applied into other languages. Indeed, it may exist differences between languages at the intrinsic level (texts or speeches). However, there are similarities in the sign systems, because the universality of the meta-functions of language (Hasan 2012). In this vein, the analysts of discourse can utilise Halliday's approach into any language in their analysis.

To identify its denotation, El-daly (2010: 248) outlines some definitions of discourse related to their different usages, pointing out that some researchers use the terms 'discourse' and 'text' interchangeably and others use the term discourse only for the spoken language. He defines the term discourse as mass and count nouns, pointing out that

“‘Discourse’, used as a mass noun, means roughly the same as ‘language use’ or ‘language-in-use’. As a count noun (a discourse), it means a relatively discrete subset of a whole language, used for specific social or institutional purposes.”

In this regard, this paper considers the analysed discourse as a count noun, because it constitutes a part of the media discourse of Hezbollah's military arm.

However, the significance of the utilised approach in this study is its ability to identify the notion of representation to 'the self' and 'the other' in the statements. Notably, Bazzi (2009) has employed a similar approach in her study about Arab news and conflict in the Middle East.

Data Collection and Justification

The collected archival data in this study have a military context. However, this study has collected the available complete statements issued by the Islamic Resistance, particularly via its media unit. The statements go to the era between October 2000 and August 2007. The majority of the collected data go to the July War in 2006. They are obtained from *Al-Ahed* newspaper archives and the official website of the Islamic Resistance (www.moqawama.org).

The author selected this period, because it is the more recent one and the Islamic Resistance did not issue many statements after the end of the July War. Furthermore, there are relatively some long statements during the July War. Such statements, which have a military context, may allow reviewing different grammatical structures.

The limitation in this study is related to the translated excerpts by the author from Arabic into English. In this translation, the author attempted to be concise and accurate. However, the translation of some rhetoric excerpts may not reflect completely the precise meaning intended by Hezbollah's military arm.

Data Analysis

As noted earlier, the analysis of discourse in this study is on the microstructural level. Thus, this paper aims to study the grammatical structure of the issued statements by Hezbollah's military arm based on Halliday's functional grammar.

The Grammatical Structure of the Statements

According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2014), language has socio-functional characteristics and there are three meta-functions of language: ideational,

interpersonal and textual. The first meta-function is about what is going on or by other words the event and its major grammatical system is transitivity such as actor, location and process. The second meta-function is about the social relation between the writer and / or the speaker with the receiver, where the major grammatical systems are mood and modality. The third meta-function relates to the text itself, where the major grammatical systems are theme and rheme.

In applying this technique on statements issued by the Islamic Resistance, it can be concluded that they include the three functions.

Regarding the ideational function, the statements are representational, by providing news stories about the feature of clashes between the Islamic Resistance and Israeli army. For example:

“At 6:50 am, the Islamic Resistance bombarded the headquarters of the Israeli Battalion in Margaliot’s (Hunin’s) barrack with the appropriate weapons and the mujahedeen was able to achieve direct hits...”

Source: The Islamic Resistance, 03 August 2006

However, the notion of interpersonal function can be traced in the statements that include clause as an exchange of information. For example:

“Contrary to what has been aired by the enemy’s media that the occupation forces took control of Bint Jbeil city, the Islamic Resistance denies that and confirms that the city remains outside the control of the occupation forces and the battles are still being fought on its outskirts...”

Source: The Islamic Resistance, 25 July 2006

This statement shows that the Islamic Resistance is responding on previous information provided by the Israeli army.

Textual function can be observed within the statements’ thematic structure, which reflects the lexical choices by The Islamic Resistance. For example:

“The Islamic Resistance’s mujahedeen write one epic after another as they confront the Zionist enemy - devoid of military honour and humanitarian identity - each time it dares to desecrate the territories of our beloved homeland...”

Source: The Islamic Resistance, 31 July 2006

Transitivity

This grammatical component relates to ideational function, as noted earlier. Halliday and Matthiessen argue that this system of representation to exist should entail “a configuration of Actor + Process + Goal” (2014: 227).

What’s important about this configuration and related to this study are material clauses with a recipient or recipients, which “construe figures of ‘doing-&-happening’. They express the notion that some entity ‘does’ something — which may be ‘to’ some other entity” (Halliday & Matthiessen 2014: 227).

This grammatical equation can be applied on the Islamic Resistance’s clashes with Israel (**entity**: The Islamic Resistance; **does**: attacked, shot, launched, etc. **to other entity**: Israel and Israeli army). In this context, Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) point out to two major types of representation: operative, which is related to this study, because the actor the Islamic Resistance is active, and receptive which is not concerned to this study, because the organisation is not a passive actor. As a result, Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) postulate this configuration: Actor + Process + Goal + Recipient.

In applying Halliday and Matthiessen's model on two statements of the Islamic Resistance, the results are as follows:

First statement:

"At 3:00 pm the Islamic Resistance bombarded the Israeli enemy's colonies in Kiryat Shmona and Yiftah with barrages of missiles."

Source: The Islamic Resistance, 09 August 2006

The elements of configuration in this statement are: Actor (The Islamic Resistance), Process (bombarded) and Goal (Israeli enemy's colonies...).

However, there is a mix-up between the Goal and the Recipient and the question is: what is the real goal? Is it the goal of bombardment (where)? Or is it the goal from bombardment (why)? Notably, the goal of bombardment is the residue of the sentence, particularly "Kiryat Shmona and Yiftah." However, this analysis is not adequate in this case where the sensitivity of such text imposes seeking on the intentional goal (why) rather than the geographical goal (where).

In order for this statement to be aired or published by any media outlet, it would require context and background information according to the editorial policy of the outlet. Remarkably, this short statement was in the context of the July War in 2006 between the Islamic Resistance and Israel. The organisation was producing daily statements during this period. Thus, some statements did not provide the intentional goal from bombarding or shooting, while other longer statements provided further contexts and showed that the goal from bombardment as a reaction and defensive. The next statement, which published in the same day of the previous statement, points to the intentional goal from bombardment.

Second statement:

"Replying to the assaults and Zionist massacres against unarmed civilians, at 11:20 am the Islamic Resistance bombarded Beit She'an Zionist colony, located at a distance 68 kilometres from the Lebanese - Palestinian border, with a barrage of Khaibar-1 missiles."

Source: The Islamic Resistance, 09 August 2006

This statement provides two goals. Firstly, the geographical goal of bombardment is Beit She'an. Secondly, the intentional goal from bombardment is "Replying to the assaults..." and the recipient is Beit She'an. This intentional goal also contains an actor (Zionist), a recipient (unarmed civilians) and embeds a process of assaults and massacring. Such taxonomy between geographical goal (where) and intentional goal (why) is crucial to rearrange Halliday and Matthiessen's configuration, when the organisation prioritises the intended goal in its statements. Thus, the modified configuration will be as following: Goal + Actor + Process + Recipient. Table 1 shows the structure of this new configuration in an excerpt from a statement issued by the Islamic Resistance.

Table 1: An example of Transitivity in a statement

Goal	Actor	Process	Recipient
Replying to the assaults and Zionist massacres against unarmed civilians	The Islamic Resistance	bombarded	Beit She'an

Regarding the intentional goal, there are statements encompassing many goals. These goals are related to the context of the statements. Thus, the goals

cannot be isolated from the context of the statement and the wider context, which is the conflict. Generally, the Islamic Resistance makes extensive use of causative objects (called in Arabic *Mafool Li-Ajlihi* or *Mafool Laho*) in the first sentence of the statement. This usage seems to be purposeful, because it provides the statement with an argument to justify the military initiated operations by the Islamic Resistance. As a result, this grammatical strategy through shifting the focus of the message receivers shows that the organisation's goals are in the context of reactions against the Israeli assaults.

Mood and Modality

The grammatical notion of mood and modality is related to the interpersonal meta-function of language. The system of mood is determined by its clause, which entails a subject and a finite and suggests a mood tag. However, the verb works as a predicator and the rest of the clause called a residue (Halliday & Matthiessen 2014).

This study is concerned with the indicative clause, particularly its declarative one, because this feature aligns with the analysed statements. In applying mood system on clauses, which assert on certain issues in the context of responding to another entity, it can be concluded that the auxiliary may consider a finite element in some declarative clauses. The following sentences, which will be further explained in Table 2, provide examples about the notion of mood in the statements of the Islamic Resistance:

“The South [Lebanon] will remain disobedient against the occupation.”

Source: The Islamic Resistance, 06 August 2006

“*Its soldiers will not experience stability on our land.*”

Source: The Islamic Resistance, 07 August 2006

“They [The Islamic Resistance's fighters] are as they promised their leader the Secretary-General [to turn southern Lebanon into a cemetery for the invaders].”

Source: The Islamic Resistance, 14 August 2006

Table 2: Examples of mood in a number of The Islamic Resistance's statement

Mood		Residue	Mood Tag	
Subject	Finite	remain disobedient against the occupation.	Finite	Subject
The South	will		Won't	it?
Mood		Residue	Mood Tag	
Subject	Finite	experience stability on our land.	Finite	Subject
Its soldiers	will not		Will	they?
Mood		Residue	Mood Tag	
Subject	Finite	as they promised their leader the Secretary-General.	Finite	Subject
They	are		Aren't	they?

In the interpersonal function of language, the speaker or the author may judge a certain issue in a clause by using some prepositions or a proposal to impress the message's receiver (Halliday & Matthiessen 2014). Notably, the degree of inclination in the statements is high, because they reflect clearly the obligation of the Islamic Resistance to fight and its desire to kill the Israeli soldiers.

In its statements, the organisation uses assertive and modal verbs. In this vein, the verb “confirm” or the level of confirmation can be observed in many statements, such as “inflicting the enemy forces with eight confirmed casualties”, “one dead and 9 wounded could be counted, some in critical condition” and “inflicting the enemy with a confirmed high number of casualties of dead and wounded” (Source: The Islamic Resistance, 06 August 2006).

The last clause did not provide the number of casualties. It only indicated that the number of dead and wounded is “high.” This quantification represents another form of modality as it showed the level of inclination. In the second clause, there are a modal verb “could” and a modal quantifier “some.” In this regard, the Islamic Resistance uses modal quantifiers, such as “dozens” and “scores” in the statements likely to show its power and superiority. For example, “due to the resistance fighters’ hunting scores of them...” and “pounded dozens of Zionist settlements with its rockets” (Source: The Islamic Resistance, 07 August 2006).

Furthermore, the organisation uses adjuncts as in the following example:

“The occupation army keeps hiding the real number of its human and material losses fearing that this issue might reflect negatively and increase the deteriorating morale of its public and soldiers.”

Source: The Islamic Resistance, 14 August 2006

This final clause includes a clear judgment and an adjunct “negatively”, revealing the level of subjectivity. Such use seems to be purposeful, because it is directed to the followers of the organisation and Israelis.

In summary, mood and modality show the subjectivity and intentions of the speaker or the author.

Theme and Rheme

The notion of theme-rheme is related to structural resources of the third meta-function of language, which is called texture. Halliday and Matthiessen (2014: 89) point out that the clause to form a message should entail two connected components the theme, which always comes first, and the rest. In this regard, the same authors define the theme as,

“The element that serves as the point of departure of the message; it is that which locates and orients the clause within its context. The speaker chooses the Theme as his or her point of departure to guide the addressee in developing an interpretation of the message; by making part of the message prominent as Theme, the speaker enables the addressee to process the message. The remainder of the message, the part in which the Theme is developed, is called in Prague school terminology the Rheme.”

Halliday and Matthiessen (2014: 120) distinguish between marked and unmarked themes within the overall thematic structure, and between the thematic structure itself and information structure (Given + New), because “Theme + Rheme is speaker-oriented, while Given + New is listener-oriented.”

Generally, the Islamic Resistance’s statements are rich with declarative clauses, particularly in the statements that start with a preposition or a causative object. Examples of such marked themes:

“In the context of its continuous reply to Zionist assaults (**Marked Theme**), the Islamic Resistance (**subject**) bombarded Nahariya colony at 1:45 pm (**Rheme**).”

Source: The Islamic Resistance, 19 July 2006

“At 9:00 am this morning (**Marked Theme**), the Islamic Resistance (**Subject**) intercepted an Israeli force Altaybeh-Project (**Rheme**)...”

Source: The Islamic Resistance, 04 August 2006

These examples have shown the linkage between marked theme and rheme separated by a subject. In contrast, unmarked theme is the subject. Examples of unmarked themes in the analysed statements:

“An Israeli armoured force (**Unmarked Theme**) attempted to advance towards Adaisseh hills... (**Rheme**)...”

Source: The Islamic Resistance, 30 July 2006

“The Islamic Resistance’s hero mujahedeen (**Unmarked Theme**) attacked a Zionist enemy congregation in Hunin valley with the appropriate weapons... (**Rheme**)...”

Source: The Islamic Resistance, 06 August 2006

Halliday and Matthiessen (2014: 120) point to another theme called a predicated theme, “which involves a particular combination of thematic and informational choices.” However, the configuration (it + be + ...) of a predicated theme exists basically in the imperative clause or speeches when the speaker intends to provide new information and departs from the Given (Theme) to New (Rheme). The following clause provides an example of a predicated theme:

“It is the historical epic books which the Islamic Resistance’s heroes write day after another.”

Source: The Islamic Resistance, 20 July 2006

In this example, the author uses metaphorical expressions to show the strength and steadiness of the Islamic Resistance’s fighters. This clause, which introduced a written statement during the July War of 2006, consists of two themes and two rhemes. Table 3 shows the information elements and the location of themes and rhemes.

Table 3- An example of a predicated theme in The Islamic Resistance’s statements

Theme	Rheme		
It	is the historical epic books which The Islamic Resistance’s heroes write day after another.		
Given	New		
Theme	Rheme	Theme	Rheme
It	is the historical epic books	which	The Islamic Resistance’s heroes write day after another.
Given	New	Given	New

In the context of this study, the relevant themes are the marked ones, because they are chosen by the author of the statements to foreground the clause. Such use entails semantic features, because the author identifies its theme or themes and provides a subjective meaning (Halliday & Matthiessen 2014).

By and large, the statements are rich with causative objects and prepositions to show that the Islamic Resistance is in the state of self-defence against Israeli army assaults and occupation. In this vein, unmarked themes, which can be noticed

in some statements during the July War, may no longer exist, and even may be considered as marked themes if the analyst takes into consideration the number of statements produced by the organisation daily in at that period in the context of facing the Israeli army attacks against Lebanon. However, other statements during that period included many themes and rhemes. For example:

“In executing its decision and promise (**Marked Theme**) and in retaliation to the Zionist enemy’s brutal attack, which expanded to include the entire Lebanese land, targeting civilians and unarmed innocents and inflicting the systematic destruction of the residential buildings and infrastructure (**Marked Theme**), the Islamic Resistance (**Subject**) shelled with support from Allah, the Exalted, and His blessing, the Zionist area of Afula, after Haifa (**Rheme**), with a barrage of its Khaibar-1 missiles (**Rheme**). Thus (**Marked Theme**), the Islamic Resistance (**Subject**) starts a new stage of the fight (**Rheme**), defiance (**Rheme**) and confrontation with a relentless determination and full certainty in the divine victory and constant preparation to offer the most precious sacrifices in defence of the dignity, pride, sovereignty and independence of our dear homeland Lebanon (**Rheme**).”

Source: The Islamic Resistance, 28 July 2006

This statement has shown contrasts of actions. Based on the meaning of the marked themes, it can be concluded from the perspective of its author that the Israeli army is the attacker and the Islamic Resistance is the defender. Likewise, the other statements show the same meaning, and even employ the same words and similar foreground clauses, in the marked themes due to intended repetition by the author. Such repetition in the statements of ‘bad’ representation of the Israeli army and ‘good’ representation of the Islamic Resistance will turn unmarked themes into marked ones, as argued previously. In this regard, Halliday and Matthiessen (2014: 133) point to the importance of such analysis of the thematic structure of all clauses in a text to “gain an insight into its texture and understand how the writer made clear to us the nature of his underlying concerns.”

In summary, theme-rheme analysis shows how the author presents the statements. This representation through grammar holds semantic characteristics, because it unveils the image of both sides in the conflict from the perspective of the Islamic Resistance.

Results and Conclusion

This paper is an attempt to fill a gap in the existing knowledge, because the literature revealed that there is no study about the statements issued by Hezbollah’s military arm the Islamic Resistance.

It has sought to focus on the grammatical structure of the statements issued by this military arm, particularly during the July War with Israel in 2006. It shaded the focus light on the grammatical structure of the statements based on Halliday’s functional grammar to show how Hezbollah’s military arm constructs reality through language. This construction of reality has cultural implications, because it uncovers how this organisation represents itself, Israel and Israeli army.

As a result, this paper may allow the concerned researchers to employ this approach to analyse the issued statements by military media units of militant organisations in the Middle East, particularly the Palestinian guerrilla movements.

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NAVIGATING LANGUAGE SKILLS THROUGH TRAVEL AND CULTURE

DAVID BUNK

Navigating Language Skills Through Travel and Culture is a presentation of a an ESL class at Portland State University where language learners familiarize themselves with American culture through a variety of language building activities such as map reading, trip planning, travel vocabulary, and videos. A visual display will present the structure of the class and select activities.

MEANING AND NARRATION

THE COGNITIVE MODELING OF THE CONCEPT TREE AS PART OF THE MODERN ENGLISH-LANGUAGE MAP OF THE WORLD

TASUEVA S.I.

Abstract

The given article shows the concept TREE as a cognitive model which includes different components. We determine three main areas of the given concept such as *prominent parts, usage and tree names*. Each of these areas has subgroups which give the full picture of the model.

One of the basic notions for cognitive linguistics is the notion of cognitive modeling during which the person builds a model of the world, or a map of the world which can be further represented by linguistic means (Kovalevich, 2004). The cognitive modeling of the concept as the main unit of the mental map of the world allows describing the basic variants of its verbalization; to determine opportunities of its use, and also to receive the information on its content and structure, the values and senses which are verbalized by corresponding lexical units.

It is typical of any concept to contain certain substantial attributes by means of which it can be related to a corresponding category and which define its place and role in the language picture of the world. The analysis of the sample consisting of 3420 names and definitions of trees has allowed us to construct a cognitive structural model of the concept **TREE**. The given model can be presented as a macro area **TREE** which breaks down into 7 micro areas, namely: *prominent parts, tree families and their popular representatives, usage, tree names, characteristic features, location and procreation*. Our analysis has shown that these micro areas, in turn, are further subdivided into subareas which constitute the model of the examined concept.

All these cognitive units of the concept are very interesting from the cognitive point of view, but in the present article we shall dwell on the micro areas **prominent parts, usage and tree names**.

In the structure of our cognitive model of a concept **TREE** the most volume micro area is prominent parts. This segment breaks up into 12 subareas, and each of them is characterized by its own substantial filling.

When we mention the word tree the first representation that arises is an image of a plant with leaves and branches, which has different fruits and flowers. As our research showed, the most important and polytypic is subarea **leaves (17%)** which can differ on the following components – **shape (47%), flavor (30%), consistency (23%)** – *aromatic, deciduous, glossy, oval, scalelike, divided, pinnate, heart-shaped, having oily glands, lobed, long, triangular, starshaped, palmate, needlelike, hairy, smoothedged, poisonous, fanshaped, swordshaped, hollylike, toothed*. This model is updating in the main case of selection and, as appears from the given adjectives, the form and structure of leaves act as the main criterion of distinction and a categorization here:

(1) Royal palm – any of several palm trees of the genus *Roystonea*, esp *R. regia*, of tropical America, having a tall trunk with a tuft of **feathery pinnate leaves** (ABBYY Lingvo, 2006);

(2) Balm of Gilead – A North American hybrid female poplar tree with **heart-shaped leaves** (Mulitran (En-En), 2007).

The next subarea by quantity of components is **fruitage (15%)**. Fruits of trees can be different types and forms therefore we focus attention on their external characteristics again. *Berry* fragment (37,9%) enters this subarea, and characteristics of berries consist in aroma and a form – *toughskinned, strawberry-like, waxy*:

(3) *Arbutus* – Any of several temperate shrubs especially strawberry tree of S. Europe. They have clusters of white or pinkish flowers, broad evergreen leaves and **strawberry-like berries** (Mulitran (En-En), 2007);

Besides **berry**, the following components enter the considered subarea:

– *fruit (24,8%)*: in this case the major role is played by a fruit grade that influences all other qualities inherent in subspecies of trees. We differentiated the nominations of grades in a form, tastes and an external cover – *pulp, apple, tulip-shaped, olivelike, plumsized, beanlike, buttonlike, ball-shaped, barrel-shaped, urn-shaped, many chambered, heartshaped, round, leathery, sugary, bladderlike, kidney-shaped*:

(4) Pomegranate tree – An Asian small tree cultivated in semitropical regions for its edible fruit. The many – chambered **globular fruit** of this tree has tough reddish rind, red pulp and many seeds (*Collins (En-En), 2006*);

(5) Oleaster – Any of several shrubs or trees of the genus *Elaeagnus*, especially *E. angustifolia*, of S. Europe, Asia, and North America, having silver-white twigs, yellow flowers, and **an olive – like fruit** (ABBYY Lingvo 12, 2006);

– *nut (11,7%)*, here we concern the division according the structure and the form *kidney-shaped, oily, egg-shaped*:

(5) Cashew – A tropical American anacardiaceous evergreen tree, *Anacardium occidentale*, bearing **kidney-shaped nuts** that protrude from a fleshy receptacle Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000;

– *acorn (10,6%)*: characteristic signs of this type of fruits as language material testifies, consist of a form – *slender pointed, stalked, with small cups*:

(6) Red oak – Any of several deciduous oak trees, esp *Quercus borealis*, native to North America, having bristly leaves with **triangular lobes and acorns** with small cups (Mulitran (En-En), 2007);

– *cone (9,7%)*: the distinctive feature is a form – *long, lustrous, round, egg-shaped*:

(7) *Arbor vitae* – Any of several Asian and North American evergreen coniferous trees of the genera *Thuja* and *Thujopsis*, esp *Thuja occidentalis*, having tiny scalelike leaves and **egglike cones** (Mulitran (En-En), 2007);

– *Pods (5,3%)* which can be *long* and *urn – shaped*:

(8) Royal poinciana – A leguminous tree, *Delonix regia*, that is native to Madagascar but widely cultivated elsewhere, having clusters of large scarlet flowers and **long pods** (ABBYY Lingvo 12, 2006).

So we have showed the significant fragments of the analyzed microarea. The categorial signs revealed for the considered concept subareas are also represented at the lexical level. Especially it is noticeable in the case of adjectives: 41% of them are parasynthetic units with the following second elements - *shaped*; - *like*; - *sized*.

Besides the significant subareas our concept includes some insignificant ones. They are:

- *seed (11,3%)* where the form and structure play the determinative role – *nutlike, pealike, poison-ous, winged, stone, hairy, woody, almond – shaped:*

(9) Maple – Any tree or shrub of the N temperate genus *Acer*, having **winged seeds** born in pairs and lobed leaves (ABBY Lingvo 12, 2006),

and *root (11%)*. The analysis showed that this subarea of a concept can be both significant and insignificant, depends on the age of a tree, and is subdivided according to the structure and location into *poisonous, aromatic, aerial:*

(10) Banian tree – A moraceous tree of tropical India and the East India having **aerial roots** that grow down into the soil forming additional trunks (*Collins (En-En), 2006*).

The important component of the considered microarea is a subarea **branch (10%)**, which is one of the key subareas for this concept, and by the principle of growth and structure, can be divided into *prickly, slended, leafless, wooly, spreading, flexible, hanging, drooping:*

(11) Dutch elm – A widely planted hybrid elm tree, *Ulmus hollandica*, with **spreading branches** and a short trunk (*Collins (En-En), 2006*);

(12) Locust – A North American leguminous tree, *Robinia pseudoacacia*, having **prickly branches**, hanging clusters of white fragrant flowers, and reddish-brown seed pods, the yellowish durable wood of this tree (*Multitran (En-En), 2007*).

The structure of the given microarea includes subarea **needles (9%)** which contents the categorial signs of an external form, such as *thickish, flattened, paired:*

(13) Pinaster – A Mediterranean pine tree, *Pinus pinaster*, with **paired needles** and prickly cones (ABBY Lingvo 12, 2006),

and also **sap (7,1%)**, which is determined by structure as *poisonous, latexlike, milky:*

(14) Upas tree – A large moraceous tree of Java having whitish bark and **poisonous milky sap**. **The sap of this tree used as an arrow poison** (*Multitran (En-En), 2007*).

The constitutive part of a concept TREE is represented by the following subareas – **buds (5,4%)** and **flowers (5%)**. The features of a structure and a smell are predominant in the latest one – *fragrant, leathery, narrow, petalled, budlike, bell-shaped, waxlike prevail:*

(15) Japanese Andromeda – An ericaceous Japanese shrub or small tree, *Pieris japonica*, with drooping clusters of small **bell-shaped white flowers** (*Multitran (En-En), 2007*).

The subarea **wood (4%)** is also very determinative one, and according to our analysis the division happens on a structural sign – **soft, smoothy, light-colored, tough elastic, porous:**

(16) Lancewood – Any of various tropical trees, esp. *Oxandra lanceolata*, yielding a **tough elastic wood** (*Multitran (En-En), 2007*).

The following subarea of the considered concept is **bark (3,2%)**, the principle of color is main here. In addition, it is possible to determine also a bark structure – *ironbark, thick spongy, thin, white, papery, rough, fibrous, bluish:*

(17) Woollybutt or woolly butt – Any of several eucalyptus trees, especially *Eucalyptus longifolia*, having **loose fibrous bark** around the base of the trunk [*Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000*].

The last subarea **trunk (2%)** where the defining sign is only the trunk form – *branchless, divided, wide-tapering, cross grained, bottle shaped, knotty*:

(18) Doum palm – An Egyptian palm tree with a **divided trunk** and edible apple-sized fruits (Multitran (En-En), 2007).

As the given analysis showed, the microarea **prominent parts** of the concept TREE has 12 subareas one of which breaks up to 6 fragments and include 105 conceptual and categorial signs which are represented by means of the descriptive adjectives allowing to create a complete idea of the concept model. Existence of these microareas and fragments characterizes the concept TREE as a mental structure forming a considerable fragment of an English-speaking conceptual picture of the world.

The trees can be used as material, a tool, and also a food. This fact allowed us to allocate the following segment of cognitive model of our concept – **usage**. This microarea is mostly uncovered from the point of view of the actual application of a tree and consists of 6 subareas. The analysis of these subareas allows conclusion that subarea **industrial function (39%)** is the main. **Industrial function** breaks up to 4 fragments: *production (41,9%), food (33,5%), medicine (20,6%) and art (4%)*. During research we studied this function and designated in details, in order to show what parts of a tree and what families of trees in what purposes are used.

Production function can be carried out by use of separate parts of a tree, and also in total with several of them: *tree used for radiocarbon dating and oil as fuel; seed for cosmetic oil and making soap; pod, seed, leaves as substance in tanning; bark for making paper; root for carving, making toys and as saint symbol; leaves for wax and fiber for rope; dead needles as aromatizer; dead leaves in coloring; wood for book covers, wheel, tools, handles of weapon, light of beacon, fence; flowers, leaves for perfume; latex of wood for chewing gum and electrical industrialization* (Multitran (En-En), 2007).

Food function is realized by means of such components of a tree and its combinations as: *root in cooking; boiled needles for making relaxing drink; nut, fruit, acorn in preserves, pod; latex of wood used as substance for milk; leaves in cooking; seeds as food; sap as source of sugar* (Multitran (En-En), 2007).

Medicine function is carried out through *bark, leaves, seeds, root, sap in making drugs, latex of wood in dentistry sugar* (Multitran (En-En), 2007).

Art function is limited by only one sphere – *nut used in painting sugar* (Multitran (En-En), 2007).

The following important function is **decorative function (24%)**. *Leaves, fruit, branches as ornament* can be used here; *tree as Christmas' tree sugar* (Multitran (En-En), 2007).

Customary function (20%) defines the use of various parts of a tree as the tool for different ceremonies – *fruit (18%), branch (18%), leaf (17%)* (Multitran (En-En), 2007).

Separate kinds of trees are accepted as idol for people therefore we should note **the religious function (9%)** which includes *trees mentioned in Bible, sacred trees and mythical trees* (Collins (En-En), 2006).

Utilitarian function (7%) – in this segment the major function is *shade* and it is carried out by the whole tree:

(19) Silky oak – Any of several trees of the Australian genus *Grevillea*, especially *G. robusta*, having divided leaves, smooth glossy wood, and showy clusters of orange, red, or white flowers: **cultivated in the tropics as shade trees** (*Collins (En-En), 2006*).

The cases of people's execution through hanging were very widespread in the Middle Ages, and since then the name *gallow tree* is associated with this event, this fact shows **the informal function (1%)** where the tree is *a timber for hanging criminals*:

(20) Gallow tree – 1) **a wooden structure** usually consisting of two upright posts with a crossbeam from which a rope is suspended, **used for hanging criminals** 2) any timber structure resembling this, such as (in Australia and New Zealand) of a frame for hoisting up the bodies of slaughtered cattle (*Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000*).

This subarea is directly connected with **prominent parts** that testify the use of a tree parts in certain spheres of activity. As the analysis shows, *leaves fragment* (32,1%) is dominating as it is used in all spheres, including religious and utilitarian. Such fragments of a tree as *root* (20,7%), *bark* (17,3%), *fruit* (11,1%), *seed* (10%), *sap* (4,9%), *latex of wood* (3%), also are making all listed spheres of use, except the **art function**.

Distribution changes if to speak about kinds of trees, to say exactly, about their families. Here the sphere of tree usage directly depends on typology of trees. We classified spheres of the use of trees to show, what families of trees are used more in certain spheres.

Industrial function

a) *production* – coniferous trees (19,3%), bombacaceous trees (14,4%), dipterocarpaceous trees (13,9%), verbenaceous trees (11,6%), meliaceous trees (10,2%), juglandaceous trees (8,5%), hamamalidaceous trees (7,9%), fagaceous trees (7,4%), leguminous trees (6,8%);

b) *food* – anacardiaceous tree (26,4%), rosaceous trees (20,8%), oleaceous trees (10,3%), moraceous trees (10%), lauraceous trees (9,7%), rutaceous trees (9,2%), sterculiaceuous trees (7,5%), rubiaceuous trees (6,1%);

c) *medicine* – zygophyllaceous trees (34,9%), bignoniaceous trees (22,6%), magnoliaceous trees (15,8%), myrtaceous trees (13,7%), santalaceous trees (13%);

d) *art* – hamamalidaceous trees (62%), juglandaceous trees (38%).

Decorative function – coniferous trees (59%), magnoliaceous trees (41%).

Such spheres of tree usage as customary, religious, informal aren't connected with families of trees, but have connection with tree names.

All tree names are given on a certain occasion, and the reasons of it leave the roots in history. The full linguistic description of lexical units is impossible without reference to the theory of a nomination. The theory of nomination, first of all, is connected to finding out how the conceptual forms of thinking correspond among themselves, how names are created, fixed and allocated to different fragments of the outside world (*Vardzelashvili, 2000*).

Nominative signs carry out a representative function, denoting both individual objects and facts, and naming a class of subjects or a series of facts, for they express general concepts and concepts about the diverse «world of things and ideas» (*Ufimtseva, 1986 : 41*).

During the analysis of tree names which we have defined *what attributes and functions carried out by trees have served as the reason of occurrence of such nominations for separate trees*. Our analysis has allowed to designate the microarea of our structural model determined as **tree names**. The given microarea can be divided into 16 significative subareas, and we are going to try to describe each of them in detail.

The sphere of using trees is huge and many-sided, and here we can single out the most widely represented subarea **production** (54 %), which comprises tree names which have been developed due to the industry branch where they are used – *industry* (37,9 %):

(21) Soapberry tree - Any of various chiefly tropical American sapindaceous trees of the genus *Sapindus*, especially *S. saponaria* (or *S. marginatus*) **having pulpy fruit containing saponin** (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000);

(22) Candlenut - A euphorbiaceous tree, *Aleurites mollucana*, of tropical Asia and Polynesia. **The nut of this tree which yields oil used in paints and vanishes. In their native regions the nuts are strung together and burned as candles** (Collins (En-En), 2006);

- *medicine* (33,2 %):

(23) *Nux vomica* - An Indian spiny loganiaceous tree, *Strychnos nux-vomica*, with orange-red berries containing poisonous seeds, **any of the seeds of this tree, which contain strychnine and other poisonous alkaloids 3) a medicine manufactured from the seeds of this tree, formerly used as a heart stimulant** (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000);

- *cosmetic* (17,4 %):

(24) Ylang-ylang or ilang-ilang - An aromatic Asian tree, *Cananga odorata* (or *Canangium odoratum*), with fragrant greenish-yellow flowers yielding a volatile oil: family *Annonaceae*, **the oil obtained from this tree, used in perfumery** (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000);

- *food* (12 %):

(25) Sugar maple, sweet maple, sugar tree rock maple (the Maple sugar, a maple American) - And North American maple tree, *Acer saccharum*, **that is grown as a source of sugar, which is extracted from the sap, and for its hard wood** (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000).

As well as in any other nominative system designating natural phenomena, a considerable number of names have been given to trees in honour of well-known people and the scientists engaged in the problems of botany and natural sciences, and that has allowed us to group these tree names into the conceptual subarea **personalities** (24, 6 %) where the basic representatives are those who have influenced the process of tree nomination - *nobleman* (10 %):

(26) *Grevillea* - Any of a large variety of evergreen trees and shrubs that comprise the genus *Grevillea*, native to Australia, Tasmania, and New Caledonia: family *Proteaceae* Etymology: **named after C. F. Greville (1749-1809), a founder of the Royal Horticultural Society** (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000);

- *artist* (4 %):

(27) *Bauera* - Any small evergreen Australian shrub or tree of the genus *Bauera*, having pink or purple flowers Etymology: **named after Franz (1758-1840)**

and Ferdinand (1760-1826) Bauer, Australian botanical artists (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000);

- *governor* (3,7 %):

(28) Paulownia - Any of scrophulariaceous tree of the Japanese genus Paulownia, esp. P.tomentosa, having large heart - shaped leaves and clusters of purplish or white flowers. **Named after Anna Paulovna - daughter of Paul I of Russia** (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000);

- *botanist* (3 %):

(29) Leyland cypress - A fast-growing cypress, Cupressocyparis leylandii, that is a hybrid produced by crossing the macrocarpa with the Nootka cypress (Chamaecyparis nootkatensis): widely grown for hedging. Also called: Leylandii, Leylandi. Etymology: **named after C. J. Leyland (1849-1926), British horticulturalist** (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000).

Separate parts of a tree, as it is known, have a variable structure and different shades, therefore, the names of trees emphasize some prominent properties of trees that are salient to the observer. We have classified these names into the following conceptual subareas: **leaves** (19 %), the trees having various types of structure, aromas and colors of leaves, and this subgroup includes *flavour* (6 %), *consistency* (4 %), *colour* (2 %), **branch** (15 %), the basic distinctive sign - *shape*; **seeds** (8 %) which can be broken on *placement*, *coating*; **wood** (4 %) **and bark** (4 %), here the important place occupies color - *colour*, which is also reflected in the corresponding verbal nominations; **fruit** (3,1 %), **nut** (3 %) which are characterized by a variety of forms and colors, owing to which the conceptual fragment under consideration is divided into *shape*, *flavour*, *consistency*; further follow **sap** (2,6 %) and **trunk structure** (2,5 %):

(30) Carambola or star-shaped tree (Караμβола) - A tree probably native to Brazil but cultivated in the tropics especially SE Asia for its edible fruits. **Its fruit is the smooth - skinned yellow and star-shaped on cross section** (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000);

(31) Bottle tree or baobab - any of several Australian sterculiaceous trees of the genus Sterculia (or Brachychiton) that **have a bottle-shaped swollen trunk** (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000).

The location of a tree also plays an important role for its name, therefore we have designated the corresponding conceptual subarea as **location** (2,3 %). According to our sample it is possible to divide this fragment into *place*:

(32) River red gum – a large Australian red gum tree, Eucalyptus camaldulensis, **growing along river banks** (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000).

The similarity of a tree to certain subjects and the phenomena has defined the name of the conceptual subarea **resemblance** (2,1 %). The specific structure of a tree and its leaves is the significant semantic attribute, which structure the given group:

(33) Casuarina or she-oak – any tree of the genus Casuarina, of Australia and the East Indies, having jointed leafless branchlets: family Casuarinaceae, **referring to the resemblance of the branches to the feathers of the cassowary** (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000).

Fruits of the tree and its bark are one of the basic power supplies for the majority of animals and birds, and this fact is also reflected in the names of several trees and

it has promoted the creation of the conceptual fragment ***animals and birds that eat fruit and climb trees*** (2 %):

(34) Chile pine, Monkey puzzle - A South American coniferous tree *Araucaria araucana*, having branches shaped like a candelabrum and stiff sharp leaves. **So called because monkeys allegedly have difficulty climbing them** (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000).

(35) Turkey oak (the Oak Austrian) - An oak tree, *Quercus cerris*, of W and S Europe, with deeply lobed hairy leaves Etymology: **so called because its acorns are often eaten by turkeys** (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000).

The characteristic ***peculiarities*** (1,4 %) organizes group of trees whose name has arisen due to certain remarkable and distinctive features:

(36) Hoop pine - A fast-growing timber tree of Australia, *Araucaria cunninghamii*, **having rough bark with hoop-like cracks around the trunk and branches** (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000).

An important value in the development of the system of nominations for a tree was and still is played by the religious faith of different peoples. Here again it is necessary to note that some trees were considered sacred, and people worshipped, idolized and idealized them, and that was inevitably indicated in the names of these trees. The microarea of our concept includes two related subareas uniting the names of religiously significant trees - ***religion*** (1, 1 %) and ***belief*** (1,1 %).

(37) Pagoda tree - A Chinese leguminous tree, *Sophora japonica*, with ornamental white flowers and dark green foliage, tree resembles pagodas by form and grows in Japan, China and Korea, ***mythical tree which brings pagodas (old Indian coins)*** (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000);

(38) Bodhi Tree - The sacred ***peepul*** (Indian moraceous tree) at Buddh Gaya ***under which Gautama Siddhartha attained enlightenment and became the Buddha*** (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000);

(39) Yggdrasil Ygdrasil or Igdrasil - Norse mythology the ash tree that was thought to overshadow the whole world, binding together earth, heaven, and hell with its roots and branches (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2000).

The prominent attributes of trees play a decisive role in creating nominations for them, because they are the most significant, and are fixed in the semantics of the corresponding linguistic signs. Trees have a plenty of characteristics, the most salient of which promote the substantial integrity of the concept TREE. As our research has shown, the same attributes can be both significant and insignificant, depending on whether they are fixed in the semantics of verbal units designating trees.

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THE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE NARRATIVE STRUCTURE AND THE RHETORICAL ELEMENTS IN THE STORY OF ASHAB AL-KAHF

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Abstract

This study discusses the structural narrative and rhetorical elements as well as the correlation found between the two aspects in the story of *Ashab Al-Kahf* (The Companions of the Cave) contained in *Surah Al-Kahf* (The Cave) in the Qur'an. Through the analysis, it aims to reveal the various elements of the rhetorical styles found in the story. In addition, the narrative structure for each plot is further examined, and the rhetorical elements are explored to reveal its beauty, refinement and subtlety, as well as its function and role in supporting the narrative structure. To achieve these objectives, the study took into account both its linguistic and situational contexts to reveal its congruency within the narrative elements, and offers explanation on why it appears to be so in the Qur'an.

Keywords: Narrative, Rhetoric, Linguistic, *Ashab Al-Kahf*, Congruency

Introduction

Ashab Al-Kahf (The Companions of the Cave) tells the story of a group of youths who fled into a cave with their pet dog. This was an attempt to escape from a despotic ruler who wanted to execute them because of their faith in Allah. Inside the cave, they underwent a miraculous process of hibernation and slept for 309 years. Their bodies were preserved and upon waking up, they neither aged nor were ill. It was as though they had fallen asleep for a short while. They remained unaware of their situation until one of the youths went to a nearby town in search of food. The story of these youths has since become a widely held discussion among people and remains so to this day.

The story presented in the Qur'an begins with the basic question to arouse the readers' interest with *أَمْ حَسِبْتُمْ*

(*Have you thought*). This reminds the reader that the story is a sign of the power of Allah (Al-Khalidi, 1989, p.34) that sheds the truth of the message and the prophethood of Muhammad (As-Suyuti, 2002, p. 168).

﴿أَمْ حَسِبْتُمْ أَنْ أَصْحَابَ الْكَهْفِ وَالرَّقِيمِ كَانُوا مِنْ آيَاتِنَا عَجَبًا﴾ ①

«*Have you thought that the companions of the cave and the inscription were, among Our signs, a wonder?*» (9).

The story ends with a conclusion that retains its theme on divinity and its objectives and purpose of the story, which is the unwavering belief towards the might of Allah who gives life to His creations.

﴿قُلْ اللَّهُ أَعْلَمُ بِمَا لَيْسَ اللَّهُ غَيْبٌ السَّمَوَاتِ وَالْأَرْضِينَ أَبْصَرَ بِهِ، وَأَسْمَعُ مَا لَهُمْ مِنْ دُونِهِ، مِنْ لَدُنِّي وَلَا يُتْرَكُ فِي حُكْمِهِ أَحَدًا﴾ ②

Say, «*Allah is most knowing of how long they remained. He has [knowledge of] the unseen [aspects] of the heavens and the earth. How Seeing is He and how*

Hearing! They have not besides Him any protector, and He shares not His legislation with anyone» (26).

The Chronological Structure of the Narrative

The narrative structure of the Qur'an is as follows:

1. The fleeing of the youths towards a cave where they assembled while praying to God;

﴿أَمْ حَسِبْتَ أَنَّ أَصْحَابَ الْكَهْفِ وَالرَّقِيمِ كَانُوا مِنْ آيَاتِنَا عَجَبًا ﴿٩﴾ إِذْ أَوَى الْفِتْيَةُ إِلَى الْكَهْفِ فَقَالُوا رَبَّنَا آتِنَا مِنْ لَدُنْكَ رَحْمَةً وَهَيِّئْ لَنَا مِنْ أَمْرِنَا رَشَدًا ﴿١٠﴾﴾

«Have you thought that the companions of the cave and the inscription were, among Our signs, a wonder?» (9). [Mention] when the youths retreated to the cave and said, «Our Lord, grant us from Yourself mercy and prepare for us from our affair right guidance» (10).

2. A brief narrative describing their deep slumber in the cave and their righteousness is a test in this world;

﴿فَضَرَبْنَا عَلَى آذَانِهِمْ فِي الْكَهْفِ سِنِينَ عَدَدًا ﴿١١﴾ ثُمَّ بَعَثْنَاهُمْ لِنَعْلَمَ أَيُّ الْفِرْعَوْنِ أَحْصَى لِمَا لَبِثُوا أمدًا ﴿١٢﴾ نَحْنُ نَقُصُّ عَلَيْكَ نَبَأَهُم بِالْحَقِّ إِنَّهُمْ فِتْيَةٌ ءَامَنُوا بِرَبِّهِمْ وَزِدْنَاهُمْ هُدًى ﴿١٣﴾﴾

“So We cast [a cover of sleep] over their ears within the cave for a number of years (11). Then We awakened them that We might show which of the two factions was most precise in calculating what [extent] they had remained in time (12). It is We who relate to you, [O Muhammad], their story in truth. Indeed, they were youths who believed in their Lord, and We increased them in guidance” (13).

3. The flashback scenes of past incidents that caused them to flee into the cave;

﴿وَرَبَطْنَا عَلَى قُلُوبِهِمْ إِذْ قَامُوا فَقَالُوا رَبُّنَا رَبُّ السَّمَوَاتِ وَالْأَرْضِ لَنْ نَدْعُو مِنْ دُونِهِ إِلَهًا لَقَدْ قُلْنَا إِذَا سَطَطًا ﴿١٤﴾ هَتُوكَافٍ قَوْمَنَا أَخَذُوا مِنْ دُونِهِ ءَالِهَةً ۗ لَوْلَا يَأْتُونَ عَلَيْهِم بِسُلْطٰنٍ بَيِّنٍ ۖ فَمَنْ أَظْلَمُ مِمَّنْ آفَقَرَى عَلَى اللَّهِ كَذِبًا ﴿١٥﴾ وَإِذْ أَنْزَلْنَا قُرْآنَهُمْ وَمَا يَسْتُدْرِكُ إِلَّا اللَّهُ فَأَوْفُوا إِلَى الْكَهْفِ بِنِسْرٍ لَكُمْ رَبِّكُمْ مِنْ رَحْمَتِهِ. وَيَهَيِّئْ لَكُمْ مِنْ أَمْرِكُمْ مَرْفَقًا ﴿١٦﴾﴾

“And We made firm their hearts when they stood up and said, «Our Lord is the Lord of the heavens and the earth. Never will we invoke besides Him any deity. We would have certainly spoken, then, an excessive transgression (14). These, our people, have taken besides Him deities. Why do they not bring for [worship of] them a clear authority? And who is more unjust than one who invents about Allah a lie?» (15). [The youths said to one another], «And when you have withdrawn from them and that which they worship other than Allah, retreat to the cave. Your Lord will spread out for you of His mercy and will prepare for you from your affair facility» (16).

4. A flashback scene of the incidents that occurred while they slept in the cave;

﴿وَرَبَّى الشَّمْسُ إِذَا طَلَعَتْ تَرَوَّرَ عَنْ كَهْفِهِمْ ذَاتَ الْيَمِينِ وَإِذَا غَرَبَتْ تَقَرَّبُ مِنْهُمْ ذَاتَ الشَّمَالِ وَهُمْ فِي فَجْوَةٍ مِنْهُ ۗ ذَلِكَ مِنْ آيَاتِ اللَّهِ مَنْ يَهْدِ اللَّهُ فَهُوَ الْمُهْتَدِ ۗ وَمَنْ يُضِلِلْ فَلَنْ يَجِدَ لَهُ ۗ وَلَئِنَّا مُرْسِلُونَ ﴿١٧﴾ وَنَحْسَبُهُمْ آفِكَاظًا وَهُمْ قُدُومٌ ۗ وَقَلَّ عَلَيْهِمْ ذَاتَ الْيَمِينِ وَذَاتَ الشَّمَالِ ۗ وَكَلْبُهُمْ بَاسِطٌ ذِرَاعَيْهِ بِالْوَصِيدِ ۗ لَوِ اطَّلَعْتَ عَلَيْهِمْ لَوَلَّيْتَ مِنْهُمْ فِرَارًا وَلَمَلِئْتَ مِنْهُمْ رُعْبًا ﴿١٨﴾﴾

“And [had you been present], you would see the sun when it rose, inclining away from their cave on the right, and when it set, passing away from them on the left, while they were [laying] within an open space thereof. That was from the signs of

Allah . He whom Allah guides is the [rightly] guided, but he whom He leaves astray - never will you find for him a protecting guide (17). And you would think them awake, while they were asleep. And We turned them to the right and to the left, while their dog stretched his forelegs at the entrance. If you had looked at them, you would have turned from them in flight and been filled by them with terror” (18).

5. Their restoration from a long sleep;

﴿وَكَذَلِكَ بَعَثْنَاهُمْ لِيَتَسَاءَلُوا بَيْنَهُمْ ۚ قَالَ قَائِلٌ مِّنْهُمْ ۖ كَمْ لَيْسْتُمْ ۖ قَالُوا لَيْسْنَا بِيَوْمًا ۖ أَوْ بَعْضُ يَوْمٍ ۖ قَالُوا رَبُّكُمْ أَعْلَمُ بِمَا لَيْسْتُمْ ۖ فَابْتِغُوا أَحْسَنَ مِمَّا بَدَدْتُمْ ۚ وَقَالَ آخَرٌ مِّنْهُمْ ۖ هَذِهِ إِلَى الْمَدِينَةِ ۖ فَلْيَنْظُرْ أَيُّهَا أَزْكَى طَعَامًا فَلْيَأْتِكُمْ بِرِزْقٍ مِّنْهُ وَلِيَتَأْتِطَفَ وَلَا يَشْعُرَنَّ بِكُمْ ۚ أَحَدًا ۗ﴾ ﴿١٩﴾ ﴿يَتَّبِعُونَ آيَاتِنَا وَيُصَلُّونَ عَلَيْكَ بِمَا كَانُوا يَكْفُرُونَ ۚ﴾ ﴿٢٠﴾

And similarly, We awakened them that they might question one another. Said a speaker from among them, «How long have you remained [here]?» They said, «We have remained a day or part of a day.» They said, «Your Lord is most knowing of how long you remained. So send one of you with this silver coin of yours to the city and let him look to which is the best of food and bring you provision from it and let him be cautious. And let no one be aware of you (19). Indeed, if they come to know of you, they will stone you or return you to their religion. And never would you succeed, then - ever» (20).

6. The scene involving the generation after the incident and the stir and debate that came after;

﴿وَكَذَلِكَ أَغْتَابْنَا لِيَعْلَمُوا أَن وَعَدَ اللَّهُ حَقًّا ۖ وَأَنَّ السَّاعَةَ لَا رَيْبَ فِيهَا ۚ إِذْ يَتَشَرَّعُونَ بَيْنَهُمْ أَمْرَهُمْ ۖ فَقَالُوا ابْنُوا عَلَيْهِم بُنْيَانًا ۚ رَبُّهُمْ أَعْلَمُ بِهِمْ ۚ قَالَ الَّذِينَ غَلَبُوا عَلَىٰ أَمْرِهِمْ لَنَتَّخِذَنَّ عَلَيْهِم مَّسْجِدًا ۗ﴾ ﴿٢١﴾ ﴿سَيَقُولُونَ ثَلَاثَةٌ رَّابِعُهُمْ كَلْبُهُمْ وَيَقُولُونَ خَمْسَةٌ سَادِسُهُمْ كَلْبُهُمْ رَجْمًا بِالْغَيْبِ ۗ وَيَقُولُونَ سَبْعَةٌ وَثَامِنُهُمْ كَلْبُهُمْ ۚ قُلْ رَبِّي أَعْلَمُ بِعَدَّتِهِمْ مَّا يَعْلَمُهُمْ إِلَّا قَلِيلٌ ۗ فَلَا تَحْمَارِ فِيهِمْ إِلَّا مِرَاءً ظَهَرَ ۚ وَلَا تَسْتَفْتِ فِيهِمْ مِنْهُمْ أَحَدًا ۗ﴾ ﴿٢٢﴾ ﴿وَلَا تَقُولَنَّ لِشَايٍ إِنِّي فَاعِلٌ ذَٰلِكَ وَعْدًا ۗ﴾ ﴿٢٣﴾ ﴿إِلَّا أَنْ يَشَاءَ اللَّهُ ۗ وَادَّكَّرَ رَبُّكَ ۚ إِذَا نَسِيتَ وَقُلْ عَسَىٰ أَنْ يَهْدِيَنِّي رَبِّي لِأَقْرَبٍ مِّنْ هَٰذَا شَدًّا ۗ﴾ ﴿٢٤﴾

“And similarly, We caused them to be found that they [who found them] would know that the promise of Allah is truth and that of the Hour there is no doubt. [That was] when they disputed among themselves about their affair and [then] said, «Construct over them a structure. Their Lord is most knowing about them.» Said those who prevailed in the matter, «We will surely take [for ourselves] over them a masjid (21). They will say there were three, the fourth of them being their dog; and they will say there were five, the sixth of them being their dog - guessing at the unseen; and they will say there were seven, and the eighth of them was their dog. Say, [O Muhammad], «My Lord is most knowing of their number. None knows them except a few. So do not argue about them except with an obvious argument and do not inquire about them among [the speculators] from anyone” (22). And never say of anything, «Indeed, I will do that tomorrow,» (23). Except [when adding], «If Allah will.» And remember your Lord when you forget [it] and say, «Perhaps my Lord will guide me to what is nearer than this to right conduct» (24).

7. The revelation concerning the duration of their slumber in the cave;

﴿وَلَيْسُوا فِي كَهْفِهِمْ ثَلَاثَ مِائَةٍ سِنِينَ ۖ وَازْدَادُوا تِسْعًا ۗ﴾ ﴿٢٥﴾ ﴿قُلِ اللَّهُ أَعْلَمُ بِمَا لَيْسُوا لَهُمْ ۚ غَيْبُ السَّمَوَاتِ وَالْأَرْضِ أَصْبَرُ بِهِ ۗ وَأَسْمِعْ مَا لَهُمْ مِنْ دُونِهِ ۚ مِنْ وَلِيٍّ وَلَا يُشْرِكُ فِي حُكْمِهِ أَحَدًا ۗ﴾ ﴿٢٦﴾

“And they remained in their cave for three hundred years and exceeded by nine (25). Say, « Allah is most knowing of how long they remained. He has [knowledge of] the unseen [aspects] of the heavens and the earth. How Seeing is He and how Hearing! They have not besides Him any protector, and He shares not His legislation with anyone” (26).

The Rhetorical (Balaghah) Elements of the Narrative

1. The use of specific words to highlight the main characters;

﴿إِذْ أَوْى الْفِتْيَةُ إِلَى الْكَهْفِ فَقَالُوا رَبَّنَا إِنَّا مِن لَّدُنكَ رَحْمَةً وَهَيِّئْ لَنَا مِنْ أَمْرِنَا رَشَدًا﴾ (15)

The specific use of the word *الْفِتْيَةُ* (a group of youths) to refer to the *Ashab Al-Kahf*, reveals the characters and their age. Clearly, the Qur'an used these words to denote its importance to the story, which is that it involves youths who have mental and physical agility and good character (Mustafa, 1972, p.673 and Ibn Manzur, 2004, p.127). By mentioning their age as *الْفِتْيَةُ*, readers are able to discern their status.

If *الْفِتْيَةُ* is replaced with the third person masculine plural - *هُمْ* (they) - instead, readers would not be able to distinguish their age and so might mistake the characters as being old, or middle-aged, teens or children. Therefore, when the Qur'an made a clear pronouncement of their age, it is also consistent with the lessons for youths: the lesson is to appreciate the depth of their courage against threats that could also bring death. With the youth's firm principles to uphold truth and justice, and their mental and physical strength, they were able to stand up for the sake of the *ummah* (Muslim community) and the world. It is the youth's burning desire that contemporary youths should emulate. Therefore, the Qur'anic use of the *الْفِتْيَةُ* to refer to the character of the *Ashab Al-Kahf* is timely and consistent with the context of the narrative.

The cave *الْكَهْفُ* is presented as a foil to the characters. Although the Qur'an could also use *الجَبَلُ* (the mountain) or *الْوَادِي* (the valley) as foils, the question is, what is the significance of the cave to the youths? This writer believes that the cave carries its own symbolic meaning such as perseverance against all hardships. This comes with the decision to part with all comforts and loved ones. Thus, *الْكَهْفُ* is a significant and timely symbol of sacrifice for the sake of God. This is an example of a test that a believer can use to measure the strength of his faith to Allah.

2. Excluding particular words to create subtlety in language;

In the phrase *فَقَالُوا رَبَّنَا* (*They said: Our Lord!*), it is found that the Quran did not mention the use of the interjection *يَا* (O). This demonstrates the subtleness of the language adopted by a person who is speaking to God. In this context, it also depicts their anxiety and panic as they made their journey to the cave. Even readers who know that none except Allah can provide assistance share in their anxiety, hence their direct prayer to God (*Our Lord!*). Perhaps the Qur'an is teaching humans that Allah wants His creations to make a direct plea to God ('Utayyah, 1997, p.277). Perhaps the youths' exclamation for God, without using other interjections or phrases, is the most apt reaction in such a circumstance. It also depicts how much their hearts and souls are closely linked to Allah.

3. Preceding a particular phrase to demonstrate purity and priority;

Furthermore, it is found that the Quran had preceded *مِن لَّدُنكَ* (*from Yourself*) before the words *رَحْمَةً* (*mercy*) and *رَشَدًا* (*guidance*) which reinforces the aesthetics of

the text. This approach purifies their request, as if they are praying: (*We do not seek mercy and leadership for our safety, unless it comes from You, O Lord of the Worlds*). Such eloquence is very effective in capturing their fear and reliance on Allah. This Qur'anic style illustrates the various forms of dialogues used to capture the mood of the story, further enhancing the storytelling technique.

A careful analysis reveals that the Qur'an has also used the word رَحْمَةً (*mercy*) because it is the beginning of all forms of peace and blessings on this earth. Mercy is a source of blessing, where life continues to exist and flourishes (Al-Khalidi, 1989, p.64). It is by Allah's mercy and guidance that the youths were led into safety. Hence, from this perspective, the Qur'an clearly demonstrates the importance of His mercy to the readers. It is for this reason that the youths are glorified as His servants. This argument is reinforced in verse 13 where the Qur'an began with ءَامَنُوا (*who believed*) before هُدًى (*guidance*) because it is through faith that Allah's guidance is sent and grows in manifold over time.

4. Preceding a particular phrase to show recognition and respect;

﴿يَحْنُ نَقُصُّ عَلَيْكَ نَبَأَهُم بِالْحَقِّ إِنَّهُمْ فِتْنَةٌ ءَامَنُوا بِرَبِّهِمْ وَرِذَّتَهُم هُدًى﴾ (13)

In verse 13, the Qur'an structured the verse by bestowing special recognition and respect for the Prophet Muhammad. This is evident in the phrase عَلَيْكَ (*to you*) that precedes نَبَأَهُمْ (*their story*): (*We who relate to you their story*). A normal structure would be: (*We relate their story on to you*) (Abdul Rahman, 2006, p.97). The writer believes that it is to acknowledge and pay respect to the Prophet Muhammad who, at the time, was saddened when the disbelievers refused to believe in the message. The story of *Ashab Al-Kahf* was revealed to give a morale boost to the Prophet, and the story of the youth's struggle against injustice became a medium of communication between the Prophet and Allah. It is to show that youths, who are neither prophets nor apostles, had the determination to create change and awareness to form a society who believed in the Oneness of God. It is a story that can be emulated and can help the Prophet to formulate effective strategies to convey Islam.

Further analysis reveals the beauty of its composition: the arrangement of the word نَحْنُ (*We*) to refer to God, and عَلَيْكَ (*to you*) to refer to the Prophet, and نَبَأَهُمْ (*their story*) to refer to the *Ashab Al-Kahfi*, carries a symbol of respect and esteem as previously mentioned.

In fact, the repetition of the phrase الْفِتْنَةُ (a group of youths) in verses 10 and 13 is a symbol of distinction and honour for them (Hawa, 1999, p.3166).

5. The use of precise words to describe patience;

﴿وَرَبَطْنَا عَلَىٰ قُلُوبِهِمْ إِذْ قَامُوا فَقَالُوا رَبُّنَا رَبُّ الْأَرْضِ لَن نَّدْعُوهُ مِن دُونِهِ إِنَّهَا لَقَدْ قُلْنَا إِذًا شَطَطًا﴾ (14)

In verse 14, it is found that the phrase وَرَبَطْنَا عَلَىٰ قُلُوبِهِمْ (*And We made firm their hearts*) is used to convey how Allah has strengthened their hearts with forbearance and faith. This illustrates their clear stance towards the Oneness of Allah and their perseverance in upholding their principles. Hence, the use of the word رَبَطًا (*firm*) shows their will and spiritual strength to uphold their responsibility as believers.

6. The use of الجماعة (The Masculine Plural Pronoun) to show solidarity;

Notice the use of the word فَقَالُوا (*they all said*); the letter و in the word is known as الواو الجماعة which indicates that there are more than two individuals in the group. This illustrates their solidarity in upholding their faith, truth and justice, so much so

that their hearts, bodies, and thoughts have become one. There would be a change in meaning if the Qur'an had used مِنْهُمْ قَالَ قَائِلٌ (*said one individual from among them*), or قَالَ أَحَدُهُمْ (*said one of them*) instead.

7. Preceding specific phrases to show the consequences of transgressing limits;

﴿هُؤُلَاءِ قَوْمًا اتَّخَذُوا مِنْ دُونِهِ ءَالِهَةً لَوْلَا يَأْتُونَ عَلَيْهِمْ بِسُلْطَانٍ بَيِّنٍ فَمَنْ أَظْلَمُ مِمَّنْ افْتَرَىٰ عَلَى اللَّهِ كَذِبًا﴾ (10)

Furthermore, it is believed the Quran has placed the phrase افْتَرَىٰ عَلَى اللَّهِ (*invent things about Allah*) before the phrase كَذِبًا (*a lie*) to show that the Qur'an condemns all kinds of lies against Allah. The act is a sin more grievous than lying to humans or other creations. This is accentuated by the use of the comparative adjective أَظْلَمُ (*more unjust than*) to describe the attitude of the *kuffar* who transgressed the limits by lying to Allah.

8. The use of جُمْلَةُ الشَّرْطِ (Conditional Phrase) to answer questions;

﴿وَإِذِ اتَّخَذْتُمُوهُمْ وَمَا يَعْبُدُونَ إِلَّا اللَّهَ فَأَوْوُوا إِلَى الْكَهْفِ يَنْشُرْ لَكُمْ رَبُّكُمْ مِنْ رَحْمَتِهِ وَيَهَيِّئْ لَكُمْ مِنْ أَمْرِكُمْ مَرْفَقًا﴾ (11)

The use of the words يَنْشُرْ لَكُمْ (*your Lord will spread for you*) is the answer to the imperative sentence فَأَوْوُوا (*then go to*) where it was presumed that they were about to embark to an isolated place without any contact with the outside world and to bear the challenges and struggles. However, such fears are alleviated when the Qur'an guarantees that the youths will be given His mercy, and will be bestowed with comfort and security.

9. Specific descriptions given through the imperfect verb (الفِعْلُ الْمُضَارِعُ) to indicate movement;

﴿وَيَوْمَ اشْمَسَ إِذَا طَلَعَتْ تَزَوُّرٌ عَنْ كَهْفِهِمْ ذَاتَ الْيَمِينِ وَإِذَا غَرَبَتْ تَقَرَّبُ مِنْهُمْ ذَاتَ الشِّمَالِ وَهُمْ فِي فَجْوَةٍ مِنْهُ ذَلِكَ مِنْ آيَاتِ اللَّهِ

مَنْ يَهْدِ اللَّهُ فَهُوَ الْمُهْتَدِ وَمَنْ يُضِلِلْ فَلَنْ تَجِدَ لَهُ وَلِيًّا مُرْشِدًا﴾ (17)

Verse 17 describes the movement of the sun outside the cave where it rises in the morning and sets in the evening. This is indicated with the imperfect continuous verb. The Quran explains that when the sun rises, the light goes to the right of the cave - تَزَوُّرٌ عَنْ. When it sets, the light moves to the left of the cave - تَقَرَّبُ مِنْهُمْ (The matter was discussed by Khudar, 2004, p.133) as if the movement is happening at this very moment where readers are witnesses to it.

It is this writer's belief that the use of the phrase تَرَى (*you would see*), with its imperfect continuous verb, is worth mentioning considering that the story had occurred in the past. This structure illustrates the uniqueness of the Qur'an because it describes the event to the Prophet Muhammad as if he was a witness to it. In this verse, the use of the far-deictic demonstrative pronoun (that indicates distance) - ذَلِكَ - is a symbol of respect that captures the magnitude of the event.

10. The description of sleep and continuous movement with the use of the duplicated verb patterns to evoke a mood;

﴿وَتَحْسَبُهُمْ أَيْقَاظًا وَهُمْ رُقُودٌ وَنُقَلِّبُهُمْ ذَاتَ الْيَمِينِ وَذَاتَ الشِّمَالِ وَكَلْبُهُمْ بَاسِطٌ ذِرَاعَيْهِ بِالْوَصِيدِ لَوِ اطَّلَعَتْ عَلَيْهِمْ لَوَلَّيَتْ

مِنْهُمْ فِرَارًا وَكَلِمَاتٍ مِنْهُمْ رُجْعًا﴾ (18)

Verse 18 refers to a flashback narrative to refer to verses 11 and 12.

﴿فَضَرَبْنَا عَلَىٰ آذَانِهِمْ فِي الْكَهْفِ سِنِينَ عَدَدًا﴾ (11) ﴿ثُمَّ بَعَثْنَا لَهُمْ أَيُّ الْهَرَمِيِّينَ أَحْصَىٰ لِمَا لَبِثُوا أَمَدًا﴾ (12)

It tells the story of the sleeping youths in the cave, which was already mentioned in verse 11 and 12. Yet, in verse 18, it is repeated again. Their slumber depicts

the might of Allah who controls every movement and development of the story, beginning from the sleep that spanned hundreds of years to their reawakening. The Qur'an describes in detail how their bodies tossed right and left whilst they slept. This assertion is illustrated with the use of the word رُؤِدَ (sleep), which shows that they slept for hundreds of years. The phrase نُفَلِّهُمُ (We turned them), and the use of the duplicated verbs (to show repeated and prolonged movements), indicates that their body were consistently moving. This is also narrated as if it was occurring in front of the readers. This style is also consistent with the Quran's goal, which is to tell this story so that the readers are immersed fully, and that lessons are derived, not only from the characters in the story, but also through the selected words and phrases.

11. The Qur'an reveals treatments for paralysis and coma;

It must be reminded that even in the absence of body movements, Allah had preserved and protected their bodies from pests and deterioration. However, it is clear that نُفَلِّهُمُ illustrates the occurrence of continuous movement that has contributed to their survival. According to medical science, when the human body is paralysed or in a state of comatose, if the body remains static, it may cause damage to the blood stream and weaken the bones and muscles. (Walter O. Seiler, 2008, p.5)

12. The removal of التَّمْيِيزُ (The Accusative of Specification) to evoke suspense;

﴿ وَكَذَلِكَ بَعَثْنَاهُمْ لِيَتَسَاءَلُوا بَيْنَهُمْ ۚ قَالَ قَائِلٌ مِّنْهُمْ كَمْ لَبِثْتُمْ ۖ قَالُوا لَبِثْنَا يَوْمًا أَوْ بَعْضَ يَوْمٍ ۚ قَالُوا رَبُّكُمْ أَعْلَمُ بِمَا لَبِثْتُمْ ۚ فَابْعَثُوا أَحَدَكُمْ بِرِوقِكُمْ هَذِهِ إِلَى الْمَدِينَةِ فَلْيَنْظُرْ أَيُّهَا أَزْكَى طَعَامًا فَلْيَأْتِكُمْ بِرِزْقٍ مِّنْهُ وَلْيَتَلَطَّفْ وَلَا يُشْعِرَنَّ بِكُمْ أَحَدًا ۗ ﴾

Based on this verse, the Qur'an has removed a phrase after the phrase كَمْ (how long), - قَالَ قَائِلٌ مِّنْهُمْ كَمْ (...) لَبِثْتُمْ ؟ - which refers to التَّمْيِيزُ (specification) that evokes suspense in the narrative. This question invites several questions, such as: «how many hours? Or how many days? Or how months? Or how many years have we slept for? (This matter was discussed by Abdul Rahman, 2006, p.109). In this context, the analysis reveals that the person inquiring is unable to ascertain what is being experienced and was questioning his friend. In addition, the Qur'an invites the readers to appreciate the youths' belief in the unseen.

13. Special use of the particle ال التَّعْرِيفُ (The Definite Article) to indicate certainty;

The Qur'an used ال التَّعْرِيفُ to the word المَدِينَةَ . From a linguistics standpoint, the word المَدِينَةَ refers to a civilization centre, industrial centre, and the social hub. In this verse, the Qur'an adopted the particle (المَدِينَةَ) ال التَّعْرِيفُ to the common noun مَدِينَةَ to refer to a city that was familiar to them. At the same time, the Qur'an was also demonstrating to the readers that the youths truly did not know what has happened to them.

14. Using specific words to highlight antagonistic characters;

﴿ إِنَّهُمْ إِن يَظْهَرُوا عَلَيْكُمْ يَرْحُمُوكُمْ أَوْ يُعَذِّبُوكُمْ فِي مِلَّتِهِمْ وَلَنْ تُفْلِحُوا إِذَا أَبَدْنَا ۗ ﴾

Furthermore, the Qur'an used يَرْحُمُوكُمْ (indeed, they will stone you) to imply the kuffars who were harsh, cruel, and intolerant of people of other faiths.

15. The use of the present continuous verbs to highlight on-going conflicts;

﴿وَكَذَلِكَ أَغْتَرْنَا عَلَيْهِمْ لِيَعْلَمُوا أَن وَعَدَ اللَّهُ حَقًّا وَأَنَّ السَّاعَةَ لَا رَيْبَ فِيهَا إِذْ يَتَنَزَّلُ عَنَّا بِرَبِّهِمْ فَقَالُوا ابْنُوا عَلَيْنَا بَنِينَ ﴿١١﴾ رَبُّهُمْ أَعْلَمُ بِهِمْ قَالَ الَّذِينَ عَلِمُوا عَلَىٰ أَمْرِهِمْ لَنَتَّخِذَنَّ عَلَيْهِمْ مَسْجِدًا ﴿١٢﴾﴾

Based on verse 21, the Qur'an used the phrase *يَتَنَزَّلُ* in a present continuous verb pattern instead of the past tense verb even though the event had occurred in the past. It is believed that this is to illustrate that the conflict is still occurring until today.

16. Removing *المُسْتَنْدُ إِلَيْهِ* (The Subject) as the main character in a narrative to evoke mystery and surprise;

﴿سَيَقُولُونَ ثَلَاثَةً رَّابِعُهُمْ كَلْبُهُمْ وَيَقُولُونَ خَمْسَةً سَادِسُهُمْ كَلْبُهُمْ رَجْمًا بِالْغَيْبِ ﴿١٣﴾ وَيَقُولُونَ سَبْعَةً وَثَامِنَهُمْ كَلْبُهُمْ قُلْ رَبِّي أَعْلَمُ بِعَدَّتِهِمْ مَّا يَعْلَمُهُمْ إِلَّا قَلِيلٌ ﴿١٤﴾ فَلَا تَمَارَ فِيهِمْ إِلَّا مِرَّةً ظَهَرَ وَلَا تَسْتَفْتِ فِيهِمْ مِنْهُمْ أَحَدًا ﴿١٥﴾﴾

The Qur'an mentions that there is an on-going interest in the story of the youths. Interestingly, the Qur'an has also used a narrative structure to highlight the characters by removing the subject to refer to the youths.

It should be: «سَيَقُولُونَ (هُمْ) ثَلَاثَةً ... وَيَقُولُونَ (هُمْ) خَمْسَةً ... وَيَقُولُونَ (هُمْ) سَبْعَةً ...» to mean: 'They (the people) will say, "they (the number of youths) were three, ... they were five ..., they were seven..."' (Atiq, 1974, p.134). Thus, eliminating the subject enhances the language and evokes a sense of mystery and surprise. If the subject (هُمْ) was used instead, it may reduce the aesthetics value of the language (Matlub, 1980, p.161).

Furthermore, the Qur'an also used the present continuous verb *يَقُولُونَ* and the future verb *سَيَقُولُونَ* to indicate the people's continuous and persistent fascination in the matter. Evidently, within the present society, some are still questioning the number of youths in the cave rather than deriving lessons from the story.

17. Demonstrative pronoun (far-deictic) to refer to the future;

﴿وَلَا تَقُولُوا لِنِسَائِنَا إِنِّي فَاعِلٌ ذَلِكَ غَدًا ﴿١٦﴾ إِلَّا أَنْ يَشَاءَ اللَّهُ ۗ وَادْكُرْ رَبَّكَ إِذَا نَسِيتَ وَقُلْ عَسَىٰ أَنْ يَهْدِيَنِّي رَبِّي لِأَقْرَبَ مِنْ هَذَا رَشَدًا ﴿١٧﴾﴾

In verse 23, the Qur'an used the demonstrative pronoun (far-deictic) to indicate distance *ذَلِكَ* (that), which refers to the future, which is tomorrow. It is believed that the future (tomorrow) refers to a future that is known only by Allah. This coincides with the background of the story that discusses matters of faith and belief in the unseen. If men expect to reap benefits in the future, then he must place his hope onto Allah and ask Him, the way that the youths did.

18. Removing *التَّمْيِيزُ* (The Accusative of Specification) to evoke continuous suspense;

﴿وَلَيْسُوا فِي كَهْفِهِمْ ثَلَاثٌ مِائَةٍ سِنِينَ وَازْدَادُوا تِسْعًا ﴿١٨﴾ قُلِ اللَّهُ أَعْلَمُ بِمَا لَيْسُوا لَهُمْ عِيبٌ أَلَمْ تَرَ أَنَّهُمْ لَبِئْسَ مَا كَانُوا يَفْعَلُونَ ﴿١٩﴾﴾

Based on this verse, the Qur'an informs the readers the duration of their sleep that was 309 years (based on the Islamic Hijrah calendar calculations whereby the 309 years is equivalent to 300 AD). The difference for every 100 years in the Hijrah calendar to the AD calendar is three years. Thus, it is clear that the Qur'an is informing the readers that they slept for 300 years and an additional nine years (Az-Zuhaili, 2005, p.250). Therefore, the removal of the *التَّمْيِيزُ* (accusative of specification)

to refer to the *سِتِينَ* (years) after the word *تِسْعًا* (nine) is sufficient to mention only once after the words *ثَلَاثَ مِائَةٍ* (300). If *التَّمْيِيز* was not meant to refer to the years; or days or weeks, or months, then it would have been specific and clear after the mention of the word *تِسْعًا* (Ben Salim, 2012).

Conclusion

Surah Al-Kahf contains four stories, each containing its own lessons. One of the stories is about a group of youths who hid in a cave to escape from a despotic ruler. They then, by the will of Allah, fell asleep for 309 years.

The story of the youths contains many lessons, and no doubt that the book is a revelation sent as guidance to humanity. Based on the study of the narrative and its *Balaghah*, the writer believes that the story is not only meant for reading or memorising, but it is a model of a storytelling technique; containing techniques comprise elements of suspense, conflict, mystery interwoven through tightly structured verses, which are itself aesthetically unique.

The narrative structure and detail in each selected words are presented in a variety of techniques, and the Qur'an utilised a variety of them to accommodate the situations that evoke a particular mood for each scene.

In addition, the youths' characters are also highlighted in the story. This is presented through a plot that transgresses man's imagination in order to illustrate an incident where there is a strong reliance on Allah and how importance the relationship is between the youths and Allah.

In terms of time, the interweaving of verses and phrases, including its uses of flashbacks, illustrate the dynamic techniques used to narrate the timeline of the story. This is why it is the writer's opinion that there is *Balaghah* in the presentation of time in order that the readers' interest and momentum of the story are sustained. The story of *Ashab Al-Kahf* has its own uniqueness in the use and selection of the narrative structures and the *Balaghah* that complements it. It is the objective of this article that readers are able to appreciate how the two of *Balaghah* and narrative structure have harmoniously contributed to the story's aesthetic value.

As a conclusion, the story of *Ashab Al-Kahf* has demonstrated the uniqueness in its use of implicit and explicit words, which all contributed to the preservation of the Qur'an's beauty.

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MOODS AND MODALITY IN THE TURKISH AND JAPANESE DREAM NARRATION

SONEL BOSNALI, CAHİT KAHRAMAN

Abstract

The speaker, with his utterance, transforms not only the information, but also provides information about its source or the way it is acquired. Named as evidential, this modality is expressed distinctively by different languages. Evidentiality is generally evaluated in two categories as direct and indirect. When the speaker indicates the source of information as himself/herself, there is direct evidentiality. In the case of indirect evidentiality, the source of information is either hearsay or inferential. In this case, the speaker isn't the witness of the event's moment but the afterwards, s/he is the witness of the environment in which the event is told and assumer or perceiver of the event. In this category, the attention of the speaker is not directed to the event's itself, but to the traces occurring after it and the acquirement of the information. This study examines how the source of information is stated in the narration of Turkish and Japanese dream and discusses which modalities are involved. In the morphologic analysis conducted with verbal corpus formed from 23 dream narratives of 4 Japanese and 7 Turkish speakers, it is confirmed that there is an important difference between two languages in terms of evidentiality in dream narration. However, it is an important data that both languages use mostly present continuous tense, especially in the second sequence. Narrating the past events in present continuous tense shows that the focus is not on the source of the information but the events are updated during narration.

1. Introduction

The fact that in which field of modality the dream narration takes place or how the data from the dream is coded is an interesting case. And in this domain, there are very few research studies, except the work of Cohen (2010) and some general presentations in some articles.

Guentchéva integrates the narration of imaginary events (*faits rêvés*) in the semantic frame of indirect evidentiality (Guentchéva, 1996, pp.11-12). According to Aikhenvald (2004), some languages consider the dream world as subconscious realization of the real world, and mark dream accounts with a direct or visual evidential. Some languages distinguish the dream world from real world; in this case they use a reportative or non visual evidential". Cohen who examines the use of evidentials in dream narratives in Tagalog and Cree languages discovered that "the conventionalized evidential is not necessarily the one used in retelling dream narratives" in these languages and "the evidential being used depends on the type of dream being presented" (Cohen, 2010, p.51).

In this study, the modality use in dream narration is being examined for the languages of Turkish in which indirect evidentiality has grammaticalised and Japanese in which it is much more differently expressed. In this objective, we collected dream accounts from Turkish and Japanese speakers. First we discuss the

evidentiality modality and examine evidential systems of Turkish and Japanese. Then, we examine moods used in the dream narratives in these languages after the data obtained from the corpus which consists of Turkish and Japanese dream narrations are discussed.

2. Evidentiality

Modality, which is described as “the attitude of the speaker towards the content of his utterance”, is classified into two categories as *epistemic* and *deontic*. Evidentiality, which is evaluated in the frame of epistemic modality, is defined as “the speaker’s submitting the source of the information that his utterance conveys” or in broader sense “stating the reliability of the information conveyed” (Barbet and De Saussure, 2012, p.4). Evidentiality includes two categories as direct and indirect. Direct evidentiality becomes the point when the information that the speaker conveys is obtained from the personal experience. In indirect evidentiality, the point is stating that the information that the speaker conveys is not obtained from the personal experience. Indirect evidentiality consists of two different categories as information obtained through hearsay (myth, second hand information, folklore...) and information obtained through inference by just reasoning or based upon concrete cases (Guentchéva, 1996).

Having an instrument to state the source of the information is the common point of all languages, that is, evidentiality is universal. However, the practices that the languages prefer in order to realize this are different from each other and various. In this respect, evidentiality can be seen in two different levels as grammaticalised and ungrammaticalised. The source of the information in several European languages such as French and English can be shown in syntax or lexis: On dit que..., il paraît que..., They say that..., I heard that...; apparemment, reportedly...). Some languages, however, has a morphological system in order to indicate that the information that the speaker conveys is obtained through a “mediator”. In this case, “grammaticalised evidentiality” is the point. Grammaticalised indirect evidentiality can be formed in four different ways such as; structures from *parfait*, affixes (prefix or suffix), auxiliary verbs (*auxiliaire*) and special particles (Guentchéva, 1996, pp.11-12).

The semantic scope of indirect evidentiality also includes information obtained through a second individual or hearing; information obtained through inferences and information about mythologic, legendary, fabulous and imaginary events (*faits rêvés*) (Guentchéva, 1996, pp.11-12).

2.1. Evidentiality in Turkish

There are tens of studies on evidentiality in Turkish and other Turkish languages. (Aksu-Koç and Slobin 1982, 1986; Bastürk, et al., 1996; Meydan, 1996; Johanson, 2000; Csató, 2000; Aikhenvald, 2004; Göksel and Kerslake, 2005; Bacanlı, 2006; Aislin Stott, et al., 2010; Demir, 2012; Gülsün, 2012). With some minor differences observed in this study, there is a consensus with respect to the fact that evidentiality in Turkish is of the grammaticalised type and it is compulsory to mark. Accordingly: direct evidence is marked with morpheme -DI and indirect evidence with two morphemes *mış* and *-(y)mış*. -Morpheme *-mış* is a verbal suffix that also marks

relative past tense and perfective aspect, and *-(y)mış*, a copular suffix that is a pure indirective marker with no tense or aspect content (Göksel and Kerlake, 2005).

So, the information source could be direct (firsthand) (-DI) or indirect (*-mış/- (y)mış*):

- (1) Ali *iş-i-ni* **bitir-di** (∅).
Ali work-POS3-ACC finish- DIR.PAST (3P)

“Ali finished his work”.

- (2) Ali *iş-i-ni* **bitir-mış** (∅).
Ali work-POS3-ACC finish- INDIR (3P)

“Ali finished / has finished his work”. (It is said that)

- (3) Ali **akıllı-ymış** (∅).
Ali intelligent-INDIR (3P)

« Ali is/was intelligent ». (It is said)

In the case of indirect evidence, depending on the context in which it is used, the information source could be a report (hearsay), an inference or a non-visual perception. On the other hand, it is known that there is a connection between evidentiality and mirativity (Aikhenvald, 2004). In fact, the evidential suffix *-miş* can be also used to indicate surprise (Aksu-Koç and Slobin, 1986, p.159).

However, in most of these studies, there is an attitude that *-miş* indirective marker is functional only in past tense. In fact, indirectivity, contrary to the condition in Persian, (Lazard, 1996, p.21), is not limited with past tense in Turkish, but is related with all tenses.

- (4) Ali *iş-i-ni* **bitir-di** / **-iyor** / **-ecek** (∅).
Ali work-POS3-ACC finish- DIR.PAST / DIR.PRES / DIR.FUT (3P)

“Ali finished / finishes / will finish his work”.

- (5) Ali *iş-i-ni* **bitir-(iyor/-ecek/-miş-) -mış** (∅).
Ali work-POS3-ACC finish- (PRES) / (FUT)/(PAST) / INDIR (3P)

“Ali finishes /will finish/ finished/ had finished his work”. (It is said that)

We know from Bacanlı’s (2006) study that *-miş/-(y)mış* indirective marker has tens of different pragmatic meanings (irony, doubt, compliment, indifference, hypothesis, reproach, challenge, train, joke...) apart from these semantic functions.

There is no specific study on using evidential modality in dream narration in Turkish. This subject has been shortly referred to in general studies on evidentiality. However, the information given in these studies includes some problems. As a matter of fact, Slobin and Aksu-Koç (1982, p.187) have pointed out that the suffix *-miş* is used in dream narration after mentioning the narrative function of the suffix *-miş*:

“In addition to the above everyday uses, the form has a special narrative function, limited to accounts of unreal events outside the regular experience of the speech community, such as myths, folktales, dreams, and jokes”.

On the other hand, Meydan doesn’t agree with this idea and underlines that dream narration is not narrated completely in indirective modal. He claims that the narrator uses indirective modal in order to determine the spatial and time-wise frame of his dream and that the indirectiveness here is inferential and admirative. He also claims that the main events in dreams are narrated through the suffix *-DI* (Meydan, 1996, pp. 130-131).

2.2. Evidentiality in Japanese

The choice of evidential may depend on the speaker's involvement with the information (Mushin, 2001). It can code the information obtained from personnel experience (direct evidence). Direct evidentials express a speaker's proposition which falls in the speaker's information territory and to which the speaker has socially licensed primary access in each speech situation (Nobuko Trent, 1997, p. 191):

- (6) Pochi wa ringo o tabe-**ta** / **-teiru** /- **ru**
Pochi TOP apple OBJ eat-DIR.PAST (3P) /DIR.PRES (3P) /DIR.FUT (3P)

"Pochi ate / eats / will eat the apple".

Or it can code the information obtained from inference (judgment), quotation (reportive), or thought, belief, fantasy (constructive) (Chung and Timberlake, 1985). Referred to as indirect evidential, this modality express a proposition which does not fall in the speaker's information territory (Nobuko Trent, 1997, p. 192). According to Mc Cready and Ogata, Japanese has a large number of evidential and modal expressions (Mc Cready and Ogata, 2007). Nobuko Trent (1997, p. 48) defines seven major modal auxiliaries that express epistemic modality. Haruko Aoki (1986, p. 223) defines five evidential markers in Japanese. However, there are four hearsay and inferential evidential markers, *soo-da* (*desu*) (they say), *yoo-da* (*desu*) (appear), *rashii* (*desu*) (seem), and *mitai* (*desu*) (it looks like), which tells us about the source and reliability of the information obtained by the speaker. There are two similar auxiliary particles to *soo-da*, *to-iu-koto-da/desu* which is more formal than *soo-da*, and *-tte* which is more polite expression to the senior or elders (Sasaki, 2002). These formats are used when the speaker wants to describe "conjecture", "condition", or hearsay (Nakahata, 1992, p. 15). Since Japanese has a SOV sentence structure (Subject + Object + Verb sequence), evidential markers connect to the verb at the very end of the sentence and do not have inflection.

- (7) Pochi wa ringo o tabe-**soo-da**.

Pochi TOP apple OBJ eat-INDIR.FUT (3P)

"It seems Pochi will eat the apple".

- (8) Pochi wa ringo o tabe-**ta** (+ *yoo da/ soo da/ mitai /rashii/to-iu-koto-da/-tte*)

Pochi TOP apple OBJ eat-DIR.PAST (3P)

"Pochi ate the apple".

- (9) Pochi wa ringo o tabe-**teiru** (+*yoo da/ soo da/ mitai /rashii/to-iu-koto-da/-tte* (aktarma))

Pochi TOP apple OBJ eat-DIR.PRES (3P)

"Pochi eats the apple".

- (10) Pochi wa ringo o tabe-**ru** (+*yoo da/soo da/ mitai /rashii/to-iu-koto-da/-tte*)

Pochi TOP apple OBJ eat-DIR.FUT (3P)

"Pochi will eat the apple".

3. Moods and modality in dreams

3.1. Data

Our data come from 23 dream narrations obtained of 11 Turkish and Japanese speakers: 12 narrations from 7 Turkish and 11 narrations from 4 Japanese speakers. It has been carefully taken into consideration that Turkish test subjects are from different age groups and from different regions of Turkey. Thus, these subjects from

four different regions have different socio-cultural profiles. On the other hand, the test subjects are supposed to narrate two each dreams, one is the oldest dream that they can remember and the other is the newest dream. Japanese test subjects consist of four individuals chosen from three different regions of Japan. One of these subjects has narrated 4 dreams, one 3, and the others two each dreams.

3.2. Findings

3.2.1. Dreaming in Turkish

There are 234 inflected verbs and copulas that indicate actions in 12 Turkish dreams. When the verbs and copulas in the corpus are generally examined, it has been seen that direct evidentials are used for 90 % and indirect evidentials are preferred for 10 %. However, the dream narrations should be generally divided into two sequences/parts.

3.2.1.1. Moods of dream's context

The first sequence consists of the real events and conditions in which the spatial and time –wise and thematic frame is designed; which gives the impact of the dream on the individual or presents the information about the real life, generally at the beginning or at the end of the dream. On the contrary to Meydan, it has been seen that in this sequence indirective evidentiality hasn't been used. In fact, as it can be seen in the table, all of the 64 verbs in this sequence are in direct evidentials mood. Most of them, in a word 45% is conjugated in present continuous tense, 50% of them are conjugated in simple past tense and 5% of them are conjugated in subjunctive mood. Accordingly, these parts are kept out of the research question examined in the study because the real events and conditions in real world are expressed here.

3.2.1.2. Moods of unreal or subconscious world in dream

The second sequence which is the essential concern of the study is the parts where the information about the events and the conditions seen and occurred in dreams is narrated. In fact, in this sequence where there is information about "irreal world", there are 170 verbs and copulas. The rate of them among all the verbs that constitutes the corpus is 73%. When the verbs are observed in this sequence, it has been seen that there are 147 verbs in direct evidence mood. They have high frequency of usage with 85%. On the other hand, two narrators (S1-S2 ve O1-O2), have applied to only direct evidence. The indirect modal which K2 is used in a verb is used here in mirative aspect.

(11) Bi tane köpek, doğur-**muş**.
 A dog give birth-INDIR(PAST) (3P)

"A dog gave birth".

Thus, it can be said that three narrators (S, O, K) have never used indirect evidential modal in their narrations. The surprising point here is the present continuous tense which is used mostly in direct evidential. While the 66% of these verbs are in present continuous tense, 18% of them are in past tense. Past tense has never been used in 6 of the 12 narrations. Even in narrating the old dreams, present continuous tense is used.

The two each dream narrations of K are in present continuous tense.

- (12) Rüyamda kuş lastiğiyle kuş avl-iyor-um. İşte kuş lastiğimin şeyi kop-uyo [...]
 dream-POS1-LOC sling-INST bird hunt-DIR.PRES-1P so sling-GEN thing break-DIR.PRES-3P

Kuş lastiğimi bağl-ıyo-m. Bi daha devam ed-ıyo-m kuş avlamaya.
 sling-ACC connect-DIR.PRES-1P one more continue-DIR.PRES-1P bird hunt-DRT

"I am hunting birds with a sling in my dream. My sling is breaking loose.
 I am tying it and going on to hunt birds."

However, interestingly, while one of the test subjects has used only past tense in one of his dreams (O1), he has used both tenses in another dream (O2).

- (13) Bi saray var-dı. Ben etrafında gizli bi şekilde yaş-ıyo-du-m. [...] Ondan sonra,
 One palace have-DIR.PAST(3P) live-CONT-DIR.PAST-1P and then

onların elinden kurtulup, tekrardan aynı şekilde yaşamaya devam ed-ıyo-du-m.
 continue-CONT-DIR.PAST-1P

"There was a palace. I lived around it invisibly. Then I ran away from them,
 I was continueing to live like that.

- (14) Anl-ıyor-um onların o şekil olduğunu, çünkü bana camların içinden ellerini
 understand-DIR.PRES-1P

geçirip uzat-ıyor-lar. [...] En son benim arkadaşımın kardeşinin kılığında gel-di.
 extend-DIR.PRES-6P come-DIR.PAST-3P

Ben tam elimi uzat-tı-m, omuzuma dokun-du [...].
 extend-DIR.PAST-1P touch-DIR.PAST-3P

"I understand that they are like this because they are extending their
 hands through the glass. The last time, he came in the form of my friend's
 brother. Then when I extended my hand, he touched my shoulder."

Our corpus presents important data related with the usage of indirect evidential in dream narration. First of all, we encounter this modal in five narrations obtained from four different test subjects. 23 of their verbs, 13% of the verbs, are in indirect evidential mood. However, it should be pointed out that none of the test subjects in question have used only this modal. They have used direct and indirect evidentials together; more intense in some narrations, less intense in some narrations:

- (15) Oğlum bö:le tek başına kal-mış; ıslan-mış ama. Evi de de su bas-mış. Bö:le
 stand-INDIR(PAST)(3P) wet-INDIR(PAST)(3P) flood-INDIR(PAST)(3P)

mutfağın halısı su ol-muş; temiz su. Oğlum, sonra tek başına gör-üyor-um.
 wet-INDIR(PAST)(3P) see-DIR.PRES-1P

Sonra eve gel-iyor tekrar. Onu tekrar eve gelirken gör-üyor-um.
 come-DIR.PRES(3P) see-DIR.PRES-1P

"My son is out on a limb, but he got wet. The house was flooded. The
 carpet in the kitchen got wet; clean water. I am seeing my son all alone.
 Then he is coming back home. I am seeing him coming back home."

- (16) Kız çocuğu ol-muş. Eşi kucağına al-ıyo. Evdeki kız çocuğu da arkasını dön-müş;
 have-INDIR(PAST)(3P) take-DIR.PRES(3P) turn-INDIR(PAST)(3P)

küs-müş onlara.
 be cross-INDIR(PAST)(3P)

"A baby girl was born. Her husband is taking her on her lap. The daughter
 at home has turned her back, got cross with them."

- (17) Kadıköy evlendirmede nikâhı var-mış. Yirmi dakika kal-mış ve gelinliği
 have-INDIR(PAST)(3p) stay-INDIR(PAST)(3p)

giy-me-**miş** hâlâ; gazete oku-yo-**muş**. Damadı bil-mi-**yor**-um; nikâhta görürüm
 wear-NEG-INDIR(PAST)(3p) read-PRES-INDIR. (3p) know-NEG-DIR.PRES-1P

artık di-**yor**-um. Ben de ona çiçek yaptırıp, üzerimi de^ğişip gel-ecek-**miş**-im.
 say-DIR.PRES-1P come-FUT-INDIR-1P

Demet olmasını istediğim şeyi, çiçekçi bond çantaya koy-uyo-**muş**. Acelem
 put-PRES-INDIR(3P)

olduğundan alıp çık-ıyor-um. Azıcık geç kal-ıyor-um nikâha. Evlen-**iy**o sonuç
 go out-DIR.PRES-1P stay-DIR.PRES-1P marry-DIR.PRES(3P)

itibariyle ama damadı gör-e-m-**iyor**-um.
 see-POS-NEG-DIR.PRES-1P

“She had a wedding in the Kadıköy marriage office. Twenty minutes to her wedding, she was not wearing her wedding gown yet. She was reading a newspaper. I don’t know the bridegroom; I say to myself I can see him in the wedding. Having ordered flower for her, I will change my clothes and come. The florist puts in the bag what I want as a bunch. Since I am in hurry, I take it and go out. I am getting a little late for the wedding. Finally, she is getting married. But I cannot see the bridegroom.”

- (18) Oraya [göle] arkadaşlarla birlikte yüzmeye gid-ecek-**miş**-iz. Bi gid-**iy**o-z orda göl
 go-FUT-INDIR-4P go-DIR.PRES-4P

kuru-**muş**. Hiç su yok [Ø]. Böyle normalde ağaçsız bi yer [Ø], ama ağaçlık bi yere
 dry-INDIR.PAST(3P) DIR DIR

gid-**iy**o-z; nasıl bi şeyse işte. E sisli bi ortam [Ø]; sanki gece ... gece-**ymiş** gibi
 go-DIR.PRES-4P DIR.PRES nigT-INDIR

aynı veya akşam alaca karanlık bastır-ıyo-**muş** gibi aynı. Sonra gid-**iy**o-z.
 push-PRES-INDIR go-DIR.PRES-4P

“We will go swimming to the lake with friends. Once we are there the lake got dried up. There is no water. Normally it is a treeless place. But we are going to woodland. It is foggy, as if it was nighttime or as if twilight set in. Then we’re going.”

Primarily, it has been clearly seen that, on the contrary to Meydan’s claim, indirect evidential is not just used to form the spatial and time-wise frame of the dream. In this part named sequence 1 the mentioned type is never used. It has been seen that there is no unique modal type for the events which happened in the dream: the narrator uses the different tenses of both indirect and direct evidentials such as –lyor type of present continuous tense.

3.2.2. Dreaming in Japanese

There are total 96 verbs in 11 Japanese dreams. However, as some of them are in infinitive, gerund and participle which has no value of time and modality, the number of the total verbs to be evaluated is 65. It can be seen from the verbs and copulas in the corpus that 97% direct evidentials and 3% indirect evidentials are preferred. Present continuous tense of direct evidentials is used more than the others: 54% of the verbs are conjugated in this tense. In addition to that, this type is used in both sequences, as in 24th and 25th sentences:

- (19) Jibun ga taitei hitori no kyaria uaman to shite shutchousaki no hoteru no isshitsu ni **i-ru**..
 be-DIR.PRES(1P)

“As a career woman, on my business trips, I am in a hotel room.”

- (20) ... mezame ta toki ni nokotte
- i-masu**
- .

be-DIR.PRES(HON)

“When I wake up, I remember (my dream).”

The usage of past tense in both sequences is 40%

- (21) [...] sono yume mo nankai mo kurikaeshi
- mite-ta**
- .

see-DIR.PAST (1P)

“I was seeing this dream repeatedly”

- (22) wa- abunai itai zo to
- omo-tta**

VOC- dangerous

VOC

QUOT

tink-DIR.PAST(1P)

“Wow, it’s dangerous, it will hurt, I thought.”

3.2.2.1. Moods of dream’s context

There are 37 verbs in the first sequence which is related with the context of the dream. 95% of these verbs are in direct evidential modal, 5% is in indirect evidential. 40% of the direct evidential verbs are in past tense, 52% of them are in present continuous tense. Furthermore, 3% of them are in subjunctive mood. As it is seen, information about the context of the past dreams is generally given in present continuous tense of direct evidential modal. One of the indirect evidentials used in this sequence means inference:

- (23) Kodomo no koro İstanbu-ru no yume o
- mi-ta**
- to iu koto desu**
- .

Child MOD temps İstanbul MOD dream ACC see-PAS

INDR.EVID (HON)

“It seems that I had dreamed Istanbul in my childhood.”

Another is used in the mean of judgement.

- (24) Mango ga kirai ni
- nari soo**
- tte iu.

Mango NOM hate DAT become INDIR.EVID

“It seems I will hate Mango”

3.2.1.2. Moods of unreal or subconscious world in dream

There are total 28 verbs in the second sequence in which the events and conditions in the dreams are narrated. All of these verbs are in direct evidentials modal. 18% of the verbs in direct evidentials are conjugated in past tense, 82% of them are conjugated in present continuous tense. Two of the narrators (N1, N2) use both past and present continuous tense in their narrations. The other two of them use only present continuous tense. In addition to this, most of the dreams (9 of them) are narrated only in present continuous tense.

4. Concluding remarks

Whether it is described as “the speaker’s making himself move away from the event psychologically” (Slobin and Aksu, 1982, pp.196-198), or “the speakers’ moving away from his own utterances” (Lazard, 1999, p.95), the logic which lies on the root meaning of indirective markers is seen as the distance that the speaker sets or wants to set towards his utterance (Johanson 2003:284).

The information obtained in the dream is coded in two different types in terms of evidentiality in Turkish: morpheme of indirect evidential -mİş and morphemes of direct evidentials -lyor or -DI. Notably, the speaker can form one of the following sentences while narrating the events in his dreams whether it was years ago or just yesterday:

- (25) [...] Çiçekçi [...] çanta-ya koy-uyo(r) - muş.
florist bag-LOC put-PRES-INDIR(3P)
- (26) koy -uyor - ø.
put- DIR-PRES (3P)
- (27) koy -du.
touch-DIR.PAST-3P

“(In my dream) The florist puts (it) in the bag”.

There is no semantic difference between these sentences. Thus, it is understood that there is not a complementary distribution of this variable. This variable is more likely to be sociologically based (free variation). It is undoubted that further studies on this subject will be beneficial.

It is clearly seen that indirect evidentials are not used in dream narratives in Japanese because there are only two verbs in indirect evidentials in the corpus and the semantic functions of these indirect evidentials particles are different: inference and judgement.

There is an important difference between two languages in terms of evidentiality in dream narration. However, it is an important data that both languages use mostly present continuous tense, especially in the second sequence. Narrating the past events in present continuous tense demonstrates that the source of the information is not on the focus, but the events are updated while narrating.

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Annexes

1. Abbreviations

POS :	Possessive
ACC :	Accusative
DIR.PAST :	Direct evidential, past tense
3P :	3 person singular
INDIR :	Indirect evidential
DIR.PRES :	Direct evidential, present tense
DIR.FUT :	Direct evidential, future tense
PRES:	Present tense
FUT:	Future tense
PAST.P:	Past perfective
INDIR(PAST):	Indirect evidential, past tense
CONT-DIR.PAST:	Direct evidential, past continuous aspect
NEG:	Negative modality
TOP:	Topic particle
OBJ:	Object marker
HON:	Honorific form
VOC:	Vocative
QUOT:	Quotative
DAT:	Dative
MODI:	Noun modifier
NOM :	Nominative

Dreams

1.1. Turkish dreams

1 (L1)

S1 {Dün akşam gör-**dü**-m hocam bi tane rüya. Oğlum gör-**müş-tü**-m}.

S2 {Oğlum bö:le tek başına kal-**mış**; ıslan-**mış** ama. Evi de de su bas-**mış**. Bö:le mutfağın halısı su ol-**muş**; temiz su.}

S1 {Öyle gör-**dü**-m.}

S2 {Sonra ev sahibimle beraber ... karışık. Oğlum, sonra tek başına görüyorum oğlum. Sonra eve geli**yor** tekrar. Onu tekrar eve gelirken görüyorum.}

S1 {O kadar [Ø].}}}}

2 (L2)

S1 {Bi tane var ama aklımda. Kardeşimi doğum yapmış gör**düm** sezaryenle. Aslında şu anda kardeşim erkek çocuk bekli**yo**.}

S2 {Kız çocuğu ol**muş**. Eşi kucağına alıyo. Evdeki kız çocuğu da arkasını dön**müş**; küs**müş** onlara.}

S1 {Öyle gör-üyor-um, öyle gör-**dü**-m. Orda bit-**ti**. Hatırlamı-**yor**-um.}}

3 (S1)

S2 {Şimdi motorumla otobanda ilerli**yorum**. Otobanda böyle yüz, yüz elli metre ötemde bi ayı çıkıyo. O tam ayı otobanın önünde [Ø]. Önce ee yanından basıp

geçiyim **diyorum**. Pençe atar diye korkuyorum. Sonra geri dönüp basıyım **diyorum**. Bu sefer de, karşı şeritte olduğum için araba gelebilir **diyorum**.)

S1 {Ortada kalıp sonra da uyanıyorum}.

S2 {Ya tek başımayım. Üç şeritli bi yoldayım.}}

4 (S2)

S2 {Ablamın elinde çiçek vardı; küçük bi çiçek [ø] hani. Biraz pahalıya almıştı. Neden onu daha ucuz bi yerden almadığını sormuştum.}

5 (K1)

S1 {Bir hafta falan oldu görelî. Şimdi bizim mahalleden bi tane adam öldü. İşte bunu beraber gittik, mezarlığa gömdük falan}.

S2 {İki üç akşam sonrası, ben rüyamda kuş lastiğiyle kuş avlıyorum. İşte kuş lastiğimin şeyi kopuyo, meşini kopuyo. Taşı koyduğum yeri kopuyo. Bakkalın önünden geçiyorum. Bu ölü adam duruyo orda. Elinde de bi makas var. İşte ben böyle adama bakıyorum. Ama öldüğünü biliyorum yani. Öldüğünü biliyorum; nasıl, işte, öldüğünü falan. Neyse bu adama doğru bakıyorum. Kulağını kesiyom bunun makasla. Makasla onun kulağını kesiyom. Sonra iki tane delik açıyom bunun kulağının iki tarafından. Kuş lastiğime bağlıyom. Bi daha devam ediyom kuş avlamaya.}

S1 {Çok acayip bişeydi yani. Bu şekilde bitiyö yani.}}

6 (K2)

S1 {Eski rüyamdan hatırladığım var [ø]. Onu anlatmak istiyorum.}

S2 {Şimdi ortaokuldayım.}

S1 {Şu an lisedeyim de. Eski bi rüya [ø] .}

S2 {Ortaokuldayım. Arkadaşla beraber voleybol oynuyoruz. Topum okulun arkasına kaçıyo. Topu almaya gidiyorum. Bi tane köpek doğurmuş; yedi sekiz tane yavruları var. Ben merak edip, köpeğin yanına gidiyom. Yavrulara tek tek bakıyom dişi mi erkek mi diye. Tek tek bakmaya başladığımda, ikinciye bakıyom bişi yok [ø], dişi mi erkek mi diye bakıyom. Üçüncüye, dördüncüye geliyom. En sonuncuya bakıyom; tam bakarken dişini çıkarıyo bana, dişini gösteriyö; ön iki dişini gösteriyö. Ben korkuyorum, kaçıyorum. Arkadaşımı da alıyom, bizim eve doğru gidiyoruz. Sonra evde balkonda ışığı açıyorum, oturuyorum orda. Bakıyorum köpek hala yavrularıyla beraber sıra sıra geliyör benim arkamdan.}

S1 {İşte çok fena korkmuştum o zaman. Bu şekilde bitiyö. Sonra uyanıyorum.}}

7 (O1)

S1 {Dün gece gördüğüm bir rüyayı anlatayım hocam ben size. Bizim evin içinde, tam odanın şeyinde, balkon var [ø]. Balkon aynı kapı ve iki tane camdan oluşuyo.}

S2 {Orda annem, babam ve ben oturuyoruz. Ben cin görüyorum; yani şeytan ama insan kılığında [ø]. Anlıyorum onların o şekil olduğunu çünkü bana camların içinden ellerini geçirip uzatıyorlar. Elimde de bi baston var. Bu bastonun nerden geldiğini bilmiyorum ama elimde bi baston var. Ben onları gördükçe cama vuruyorum, kaçıyo. Genç şekilde geliyö, yaşlı elinde baston şeklinde geliyö. En son, bab.. annem görüyo bunları; belli bir süre..... dikkat edince. Ama babam görmüyo, inanmıyo bana. En son benim arkadaşımın kardeşinin kılığında geldi. Ben babam.... ben tam elimi uzattım, omuzuma dokundu. Ben onu fark etmemiştim. O anda refleksle

elinden **tuttum** ve onu içeri **çektim**. Annem de bana yardım **etti**. En son babam hala görmediğin iddia **ediyodu**. En son annem... babam bunu elleyince hissetti ve onu fark **etti** ve babama da **göründü**. Babam sanki normal bi çocukmuş gibi: oğlum sen bizim evimizde ne arıyosun **dedi**. Ve ben babama sen hâlâ fark edemedin mi **dedim**.

S1 {O anda da zaten uyandım hocam.}}

8 (O2)

S1 {Eski bi rüyamı hatırlıyorum hocam. Ben bunu yıllarca, hatta yıllarca her gece gördüğüm bi rüya [Ø]. Genelde ep bi filmin dizinin devamı gibiydi.}

S2 {Bi saray vardı. Ben etrafında gizli bi şekilde yaşıyordum. Kendim içeri girip mesela yiyecek şeyler alıp, yiyip kaçıyordum. Böyle er gece bi kişiye illahi yakalanıyordum. Ama nedense böyle içerdeyken değil de, bahçede yakalanıyordum. Ondan sonra, onların elinden kurtulup, tekrardan aynı şekilde yaşamaya devam ediyordum.}

S1 {Rüyam bu şekilde [Ø] yani. Başka da bi olay yok [Ø]. Genelde ep bi dizinin devamı gibi devam ediyö.}}

9 (E)

S1 {Arkadaşım rüyamda evleniyo.}

S2 {Kadıköy evlendirmede nikâhı varmış. Yirmi dakika kalmış ve gelinliği giymemiş hâlâ; gazete okuyomuş. Damadı bilmiyorum; nikâhta görürüm artık diyorum. Ben de ona çiçek yaptırıp, üzerimi değişip gelecekmışim. Demet olmasını istediğim şeyi, çiçekçi bond çantaya koyuyomuş. Acelem olduğundan alıp çıkıyorum. Azıcık geç kalıyorum nikâha. Evleniyo sonuç itibariyle ama damadı göremiyorum.}

S1 {Ama [damat] şimdiye kadarkilerden biri değil [Ø], onu biliyorum.}}

10 (S)

S1 {Evet hocam. Bak sana bi, çocukken gördüğüm rüyayı anlatayım. Ortakulda falandım. Eee işte o zamanlar, yeni yeni İmam Hatipte öğrenci-yi-m işte. O zamanlar böyle namaz kılmaya, işte camide müezzinlik yapmaya falan başladım. O sıralarda işte bi gün, bizim köyün kenarından bi çay geçiyo, tamam mı? Çayın böyle, ovanın içinde durgun aktığı bi yerde böyle geniş bi yer, genişlediği bi yer [Ø], yani çayın havzasının, şeyin yatağının oraya biz göl diyoruz. Durgun gibi [Ø] yani su.}

S2 {Oraya arkadaşlarla birlikte yüzmeye gidecekmışiz. Bi gidiyöz orda göl kurumuş. Hiç su yok. Böyle normalde ağaçsız bi yer [Ø], ama ağaçlık bi yere gidiyöz; nasıl bi şeyse işte. Eeee sisli bi ortam [Ø]; sanki gece ... geceymiş gibi aynı veya akşam alaca karanlık bastırıyomuş gibi aynı. Sonra gidiyöz. Diyorum ki ya bu göl kurumuş kurumuş. Gölde hiç su kalmamış falan diyorlar. Böle yaklaşıyöz, eee çay yatağının içinde, böyle en orta yerinde, ne deyim işte bi metrelik bi yerden su geçip gidiyöz; incecik bi şey gibi dere suyu gibi [Ø] aynı. Geri tarafları hakikaten kurumuş. Böyle basamak basamak şey gibi [Ø], ağaç kökleri falan böyle görünüyö. Orda bize sırtı dönük birisi oturuyo; beyaz küppeli birisi [Ø]. Ondan sonra, başını tam göremedim.}

S1 {Hatırlamıyorum yani o zamanlarda da hiç hatırlamıyordum.}

S2 {Eee.. o anda, hani, bi aklıma geliyo, yani o peygamber efendimizmiş gibi bi şey oluyo. Ondan sonra. Yanımdakiler falan hiç bi yorum yapmıyorlar ona. Ondan sonra, önüne doğru gidiyöz böyle. Yani yanından geçiyöz. Dere yatağının içersinde yürüyöz. Arkamı dönüyorum bö:le, oturan kişiye bakmak için. O sırada, ayaklarının

arasından bö:le bi su aşağıya doğru çağlamaya başlıyo. Sonra göl doluyo. O sırada da kucağında bi bebek gördüm. Sonra, işte, yürüyoz biz. Tamamen başka bi çayıra gidiveriyoz. Yani ordan dere yatağından çıkıp gidelim derken birden bire ortam değişio. Başka bi çayırdaki top oynamaya başlıyoz biz tabi.}

S1 {Ondan sonra uyandıım tabi. Dahası yok [ø] yani.}}}

11 (M1)

S1 {Var hocam anlitiyim. Babam yeni vefat etti. İlk babamı gördüm iki ay önce falan.}

S2 {Sağlıklıymış. Normal bi şekilde dışarda yatıyo bi mermer üstünde. Ö:le doktorunu görüyorum bi anda. İki tane doktoru, dimi ilkini görüyorum. Diyo ki: babanız çok iyi [ø]. Kendi doktoru, yoğun bakım doktoru geliyor sonra. Diyo ki: işte babanız vefat etcek, yani son zamanlarını yaşıyo, kendinizi hazırlıklı tutun, hazır olun duruma, diye.}

S1 {Ö:le gördüm.}}

12 (M2)

S1 {Babamı gördüm. Yemek yememiştım o günü. Annem dedi: aç mısın? Yemedim, sonra komşuya gitmiştım; orda da demişlerdi aç mısın diye. Değilim dedim. Aslında aç gibiydim hani. Çok yorgundum ama erkenden yattım. Sonra babamı gördüm rüyamda.}

S2 {Dedi ki: “kızım karnın aç mı?” “Değil baba”, dedim. “Eğer” dedi “aç olursan” dedi “ben de buraya geldiğinde sana yemek vermem”, dedi.}

S1 {Çok etkilenmiştım o rüyamda.}}

1.2. *Japanese dreams*

13 (N1)

S1 {Watashi wa kodomo no koro kara yoru **mi-ta** yume ga yokuasa jissai ni sono toori ni naru no o nanjukkai to naku keiken **shi-teimasu**. Sore igai ni **mi-ta** yume ga nanjuunen mo hete kara totsuzen genjitsu ni nattari suru koto mo **arimashi-ta**. Watashi wa rokujuunen kurai mae ni shoogakkoo koogakunen no koro **mi-ta** yume ga}

S2 {kara-de kukkiri to **shi-ta** aozora no mukoo ni oka ga ari, watashi mo kochira gawa no takadai ni tatte minami kara nishi no hoo o **mi-oro-shi-te-iru** no desu ga, mukoo no oka no hoo ni kazegawarina kookei ya tatemono ga mieteite, doko ka gaikoku no yoo ni **omoe-mashi-ta**. Kazegawari na tatemono to wa marui do-mu ya enpitsu o **tate-ta** yoo na sentoo ga ikutsu mo mie, watashi no zujoo o koete shiroi hikooki ga ato kara ato kara ichi ni fun oki ni tsuuka shi, nishi no hoo ni sora to mo umi to mo **tsu-ka-nai** aoi kuukan ni **ori-te-yuku** no **deshi-ta**.}

S1 {Sono koro wa mada sensoo no ato deshita no de, masshiro na hikooki nado zenzen tonde inai jidai **da-tta** n desu ne. Watashi wa sono toki no kookei o sukechi shite oki yagate kekkon shi, musume to musuko ga umare toku ni jibun ni seikaku ya kao no yoku **ni-ta** musume ni wa nandemo hanashi o **shite i-ta** no de kanojo ga chuugakusei no toki ni kono sukechi o omoishinagara kaitemite sorega doko no keshiki nano ka **shi-ri-tai**, dekireba **mi-te-mi-tai** nado to **katari a-tta** mono deshita. Musume o toruko no Isutanbu-ru ni ryuugaku sase, jibun mo tsui ni ijuu shite sono toki sakanoboru koto yonjuuni, san nen mae ni **mi-ta** ano kookei ga resutoran kara

mi-ta mono to hobo onaji **da-tta** koton i kidzuite gakuzen to **shimashi-ta**. Kodomo no koro isutanbu-ru no yume o **mi-ta to iu koto desu.**}}}

14 (N2)

S2 {Jibun ga taitei hitori no kyaria uuman to shite shutchousaki no hoteru no isshitsu ni **iru** toka, mada daiissen de katsuyaku **shi-te-iru** ka no you na sutorii no ichibu ga kou,}

S1 {**mezame-ta** toki ni **noko-tte imasu.**}

S2 {De, aru toki wa kouenkai no endan ni **ta-tte iru** to ka sutaffu to tomoni kaigi o **shi-te iru**}

S1 {toka itsumo **ni-ta** yoo na shichueeshon wa yoku **de-te kimasu.**}}}

15 (Y1)

S1 {Mazu **oboe-te-ru** no ga}

S2 {yoku ano o-baachan no ie no inaka no ni kai ni tsunagaru kaidan no tokoro kara **ori-te-ru** tochuu de korogechite, wa- abunai itai zo to **omo-tta** toki ni karada ga fuwatto uku}

S1 {yume wa kodomo no koro yoku mi te tari **shi-te-ta** shi.}

16 (Y2)

S1 {Ato wa jibun no Tsukuba no ie de koogakunen no toki niwa, nanka koo}

S2 {kyakkanteki ni jibun ga o-too san o-kaa san ga nanka uchuuujin mitai na hito ni **hako-ba-re-ru** yoo na}

S1 {yume mo **mi-ta** no o yoku **oboe-te-iru** naa.}}

17 (Y3)

S2 {Sore to, ato wa mata o-baa chan chi, o-baa chan no tokoro ni itte inaka de koo, kaeru toki no wakaregiwa ni nanka koo fushigi na oto ni kakomare nagara, sore o koo, kimochi warui na to omoi nagara jibun ga doko ni **iru** noka yoku **waka-nnai** jootai ni natte,}

S1 {a, mata kono yume da to omotte yoku sono yume mo nankai mo kurikaeshi **mi-te-ta.**}}

18 (Y4)

S1 {Kowai yume o **oboe-te-ru** ne, ii yume yori mo kowai yume no hoo ga yoku kioku ni **noko-tte-ru**. ii yume wa mattaku **oboe-te-nai** kedo, soo yatte **oso-wa-re-ru** yume to ka nani ka kara nigeru yume toka. Ma, hotondo Tekirdag de iru toki no yume o **mi-te-ru.**}

S2 {Tatoeba, Tekirdag de sugoi ookina Tsunami, minna ga **nomikoma-re-ru** yoo na sono Tsunami ni A to R chan ga gakkoo no jikan da kara hashitte te o tsuna i de isshookenmei sono, kazeni fukarenagara hantaigawa, hantaigawa ni **nigeyoo to shi-teru** yume ka ato wa, **osowa-re-ru** yume to ka koo, doroboo ni hairarete jibun ga gatto koo **tsukama-re-ru** yume to ka kyoofu de sakendari to ka soo yuu yume ga ooi.}

19 (X1)

S2 {Kuruma no unten shite ite bureeki o fundemo **tomara-nai.**}

20 (X2)

S2 {Toire ni ikitakute yume no naka de **shiyoo to su-ru** to tiore ga mizu de ippai de **deki-nai**}

S1 {sore ga nan do mo tsuzuite me ga **same-ru.**}

21 (X3)

S2 {Chiisana toki ni dare ka kowai hito ni oikakerarete koe o dasoo nimo **de-nai.** Kowakute kowakute tamaranakatte}

S1 {me ga sameru to yume de **yo-ka-tta** to hotto **shi-ta** omoide ga **aru yo.**}

22 (A1)

S1 {Kodomo no koro yoku **mi-ta** yume wa (unto)}

S2 {kekko **oikake-ra-reru** yume. **Koro-sa-re** wa **shi-nai** kedo **oikake-ra-reru** yume da ne.}

23 (A2)

S1 {Saikin **mi-ta** yume wa ano}

S2 {dekkai mango ga atte, supan to kittara naka kara nan ka hen na seibutsu ga detekite}

S1 {Mango ga kirai ni **nari soo** tte iu,}

S2 {ikimono ga nanshurui mo detekichatte, ee mitai na.}}}

2. Tables

T1. Subject's profiles

	Subject	Age	Gender	Place	Profession	MT
1	L1, L2	37	F	Samsun	Worker	Turkish
2	S1, S2	30	M	Sivas	Teacher	Turkish
3	K1, K2	18	M	Kırklareli	Student	Turkish
4	O1, O2	18	M	Tekirdağ	Student	Turkish
5	E	31	F	Hatay	Engineer	Turkish
6	S	34	M	Çorum	Teacher	Turkish
7	M1, M2	24	F	Çorlu	Entrainor	Turkish
8	N1, N2	72	F	Tokyo	Translator	Japanese
9	Y1, Y2, Y3, Y4	37	F	Osaka	Teacher	Japanese
10	X1, X2, X3	59	F	Ehime	OL	Japanese
11	A1, A2	34	F	İbaraki	OL	Japanese

T2. Moods in Turkish Dream Narration

	INDIR. EVID.	DIR. EVID.			f
		Pres.	Past	O	
	-miş	-lyor	-DI -lyorDU -mişDI	-A -AcAK	
Tot.	23	141	62	8	234
%	10	60	27	3	100
		90			
S1	0	29	32	3	64
%	0	45	50	5	100
		100			
S2	23	112	30	5	170
%	13	66	18	3	100
		87			

T3. Moods in Japanese Dream Narration

	INDIR. EVID.	DIR. EVID.			f
		-ta (-nakatta)	-teimasu, -teiru, -reru (-nai)	-tai	
	soo-da, yoo-da, rashii, mitai-da, to iu koto-da, -soo-da	Past	Pres.	Vol.	
Tot.	2	26	35	2	65
		61			
%	3	40	54	3	100
		97			
S1	2	21	12	2	37
		33			
%	5	57	33	5	100
		89			
S2	0	5	23	0	28
		28			
%	0	18	82	0	100
		100			

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TRANSLATION, BILINGUALISM AND LANGUAGE

A SCIENTIFIC APPROACH TO CODE-SWITCHING STUDIES VIA BIBLIOMETRIC ANALYSIS

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Abstract

A considerable amount of literature has been published on code-switching (CS hereafter) since the study of it has been on the spotlight for several disciplines and contexts which range from sociolinguistics and anthropology to discourse analysis and conversation analysis, from bilingual classrooms to EFL classrooms. This variety demonstrates that CS has gained ground and grown popular in many disciplines in various forms and aspects. In order to shed light upon this phenomenon in a specific manner, bibliometric analysis was chosen to analyse this phenomenon. Therefore, the current research aimed at identifying various trends in the field of code-switching. In the identification of emerging trends and patterns in code-switching, Scopus database was systematically scanned to obtain relevant results for code-switching. The year range was set from 1960 to 2015 (April). Using the keyword “code-switching” as a search criterion, the data set was searched in terms of the number and year-wise distribution of documents, forms of documents, source, affiliation, country, and subject area. In the light of the findings of this research, a number of implications regarding code-switching phenomenon and the importance of bibliometric analysis are provided for future studies.

Key words: Code-switching, bibliometric analysis, Scopus database

1. Introduction

Due to its complicated essence and intersection at various interdisciplinary approaches, there has not been a consensus on definition of CS and related terms. The earliest definition of CS belongs to Weinreich (1953) who defined it as switching from one language to another in accordance with appropriate changes in speech situation and described this phenomenon for a bilingual speaker (Redouane, 2005). In the same vein, CS is the alternate use of two or more languages by bilinguals within the same conversation (Milroy & Muysken, 1995). Poplack (1980) defined CS as “the alternation of two languages within a single discourse, sentence or constituent”. In an earlier report, Poplack (1980) categorized CS by means of integration degrees of items from one language to the morphological, phonological and syntactic pattern of other language.

Another definition comes from Myers-Scotton (1989) who defined CS as the use of two or more languages in the same conversation without a marked phonological assimilation from one language to the other. On the other hand, from a structural perspective, Bokamba (1989) explained CS as the mixing of words, phrases and sentences from two different grammatical systems (as cited in Van der Meij & Zhao, 2010). The structural perspective to CS focuses on what language alternations and regularities are behind these occurrences whereas the functional perspective addresses why certain alternations occur and the reasons and effects of CSs (Van der Meij & Zhao, 2010).

Halmari (2004) delineated the study of CS as the incorporation of two or more languages into the same conversational episode. Halmari (2004) stated that CS studies have acquired a legitimate status within the linguistics framework to a great extent, especially studies concerning bilinguals and their communities which have provided rich information for a) syntacticians interested in the universal properties of language b) psycholinguists dedicated to the organization of bilingual mind c) sociolinguists examining how the choice of code reflects distinct social constructs such as power and prestige d) discourse analysts as a discourse-organizational strategy and e) pragmaticians investigating interpersonal relations and conversation dynamics.

The definitions above provide different perspectives and motives to study CS. The motive to investigate CS requires the phenomena to be contemplated from different perspectives and approaches. Since CS utterances indicate speakers' underlying motivations for why, when and how they switch from one language to another, the issue has been approached from different spheres, such as linguistic, sociolinguistic and ethnographic (Ataş, 2012). Therefore, this study aspires to identify the articles, conference papers, reviews, book chapters and books on code-switching in linguistics and variety of fields by means of bibliometric analysis. It is hoped that this methodology will be helpful to make sense of the trends and developments in CS research.

1.1. Bibliometric analysis

Bibliometrics or bibliometric analysis is a kind of quantitative research which aims to analyse the patterns of publications within relevant field (Thanuskodi, 2010). Besides attempting the statistics of the publications, it provides information for the quality and importance of a scholar or scholarly work (Moed, Luwel & Nederhof, 2002). Bibliometric analysis is basically used for counting the publications and their citations in the literature, identifying the regional patterns and the extent of collaboration at national and international level (Thanuskodi, 2010). Moreover, it is utilized in order to assess the productivity of a scholar or an institution. ISI Web of Science (Thomson Scientific), Scopus (access is limited to subscribers) and Google Scholar (free access) are commonly used resources for acquiring the relevant data. However, there are some common limitations regarding these databases. The main problems of the databases are as follows (Science-Metrix, 2004):

- limited coverage
- exclusion of certain types of documents
- classification of journals
- changes in journal titles
- name spelled the same way
- number of authors
- erroneous citations

However the limitations mentioned above have been improved for more than a decade. For instance, the developments with respect to "open access" publications have increased the access to these publications and coverage of journals by Web of Science and Scopus (Hicks & Wang, 2010). Also, with the emergence of Google Scholar and Google books, thousands of digital data, such as books, book chapters, and journals have become available to the researchers.

However, the developments in the databases do not overcome the problems with accessing to the research outputs. There are certain shortcomings related to the different disciplines as well. Bibliometrics is utilized in the natural sciences, medical research and engineering fields since these disciplines are necessitate certain bibliographic features for bibliometric analysis (Science-Metrix, 2004). This might stem from the difference in knowledge production, methods used for acquiring the information and the dissemination of the results in certain sciences. Furthermore, one of the indicators of bibliometric analysis is that research should be published in an open and international journal which might be different for social sciences and humanities since they disseminate their publications through local and national channels and in different forms unlike medical research and natural sciences (van Raan, 2003). These factors bring the issue whether bibliometric analysis should be used for social sciences or not. Godin (2002) maintains that bibliometric analysis is a good method which can be used in social sciences as it can be for natural, biomedical and engineering sciences. In addition to that the author suggests that although people believed that bibliometrics was appropriate only for natural and engineering studies, the recent developments have shown that it can be used for social sciences despite certain limitations, such as poor coverage, books and book chapters, and the use of different languages other than English. Therefore, this study attempted to canvass how this method could be used for code-switching studies in the literature. Objectives of the current study were to identify:

- the number and year-wise distribution of the documents
- type of the documents
- source of the documents
- affiliation
- country
- subject area

2. Methodology

2.1. Data Collection and Analysis

In this paper, the Scopus database was systematically scanned to retrieve a dataset with respect to the CS phenomenon. The Scopus database was chosen for the analysis because it delivered the most flexible overview of the CS research compared to Web of Science and Google Scholar in terms of presenting the dataset in more visual-friendly manner. The data range included from all years to 2015 (April). The subject area was limited social sciences and humanities as research areas in the search. The term “code switching” was used as a key word to scan the article titles and abstracts.

In the analysis part, the search results were limited to year, source, affiliation, country /territory, type of document and subject area. The bibliometric information was analysed through the use of Bibexcel software which is a great tool for bibliometric analysis, and in citation studies. First, the data were converted from Scopus file into Bibexcel Dialog format. Second, CiteSpace softwares were used for bibliometric network visualizations.

3. Results and discussion

The purpose of this study was to identify the trends in the world and to present a roadmap related to CS studies. For this reason, the answers were sought for the following items:

3.1. *The number and year-wise distribution of the documents*

As a result of keyword “code-switching” search in Scopus database, 952 documents were determined between 1976 and 2015 (end of April). The results were limited to social sciences, arts and humanities, psychology, neuroscience in terms of subject area. Figure 1 clearly indicates that the publications were in a stable phase between the years 1976 and 1996. Therefore, it can be deduced from the graph that the studies were carried out in limited disciplines and few authors within this time, and the detailed analysis of the following research objectives will shed light upon this phenomenon. Regarding code-switching as “a lack of language proficiency” or “an act between bilinguals” might have an impact on the number of these publications as well.

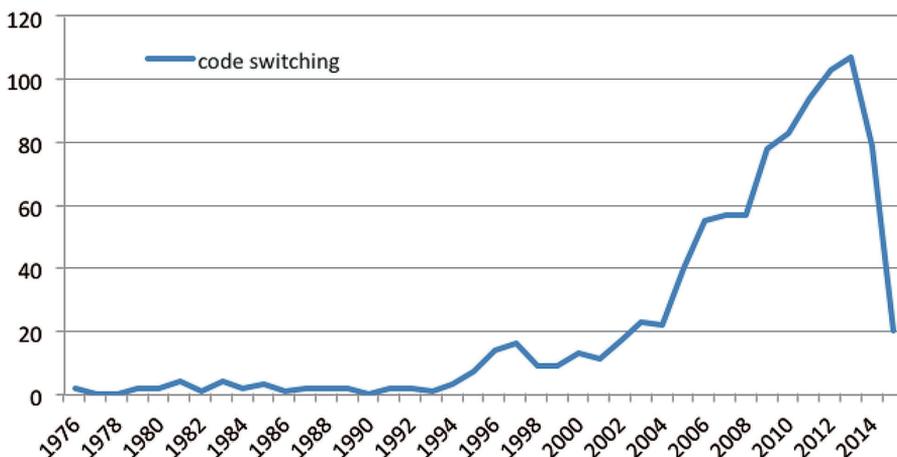


Fig. 1 Number of publications on code-switching between 1976-2015 (end of April)

Moreover, Figure 1 illustrates that there has been a sharp increase from 2004 till 2015 in the number of the publications. As the publications are investigated more in detail, it is observed that the inclusion of foreign language classrooms has broadened the scope of the code-switching studies. Also, it should be added that reason for the sharp decline after 2014 is because the publication process still continues in 2015.

3.2. *Type of the documents*

The analysis of the types of documents revealed that the studies were published mainly in five formats: articles, book chapters, conference papers, reviews and books.

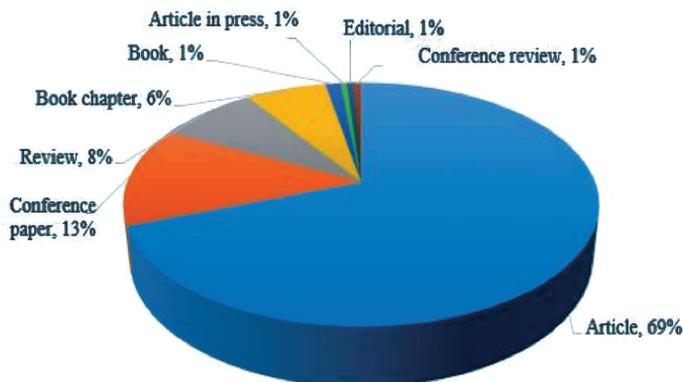


Fig. 2 Distribution of the document types

As depicted in Fig. 5, maximum number of publication was made in the article type (660-69%) in 952 studies. It is followed by 126 conference papers (13%) and 76 reviews (8%). It can be deduced from the document type analysis that the researchers preferred to disseminate their study results mostly as national/international journals or in conferences. However, it should be noted that the articles, conference papers, reviews, editorials and books/chapters involve SSCI or AHCI documents excluding local or non-SSCI publications.

3.3. Source of the documents

In order to analyse the contributions to the code-switching studies and provide the most prolific sources for the researchers interested in code-switching, the leading journals were addressed in Figure 3. The analysis yielded 130 journals which published on code-switching in different subject areas. However, 11 journals which have published more than 10 publications up to 2015 (end of April) were included in the following figure for sake of brevity.

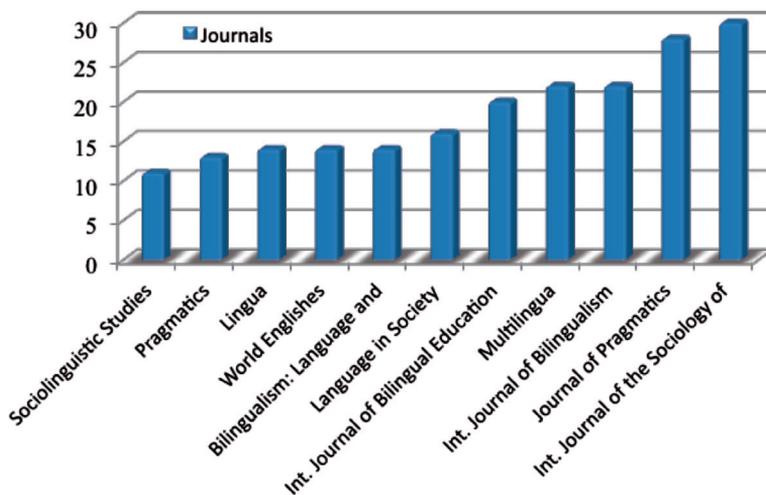


Fig.3 Distribution of leading journals

As illustrated in Figure 3, International Journal of the Sociology of Language have contributed to the field the most (30), followed by Journal of Pragmatics (28), International Journal of Bilingualism (22) and Multilingua (22) articles. From the Figure 3, it is apparent that most of the contributions have been received from bilingualism, linguistics and sociology to the code-switching field.

3.4. Affiliation

In order to identify distribution of code-switching studies regarding affiliations, 10 universities were chosen. As illustrated in Figure 4, the most prolific institution with regards to code-switching is Pennsylvania State University with 12 publications. Linkopings Universitet and University of Malaya follow it with 11 publications, Birkbeck University of London (10), University of Texas (10), Helsingin Yliopisto (9), Monash University (8), and Radboud University Nijmegen, Indiana University and University of California with 7 publications. It can be deduced from Figure 4 that code-switching studies are widely distributed around the world. Moreover, it indicates that 40 % of the studies were carried out in the US and the other 40% in Europe which shows the popularity degree of the subject in the Old World and New World. Another implication is that all of the studies were carried out within universities.



Fig. 4 Distribution of affiliations featured in publications

3.5. Country

The distribution of publications according to countries was identified by choosing the most prolific ten countries. The USA is the pioneer country for code-switching studies with 250 publications. It is followed by United Kingdom with 100 studies. Germany has been pushed into third rank with 45 articles followed by South Africa (39) and Australia (32). Figure 5 also shows that the collaborations among the countries which might be helpful to identify to the global trends. According to the network analysis of the countries, the US is the dominant country engaging in joint studies on code-switching followed by England and Germany.

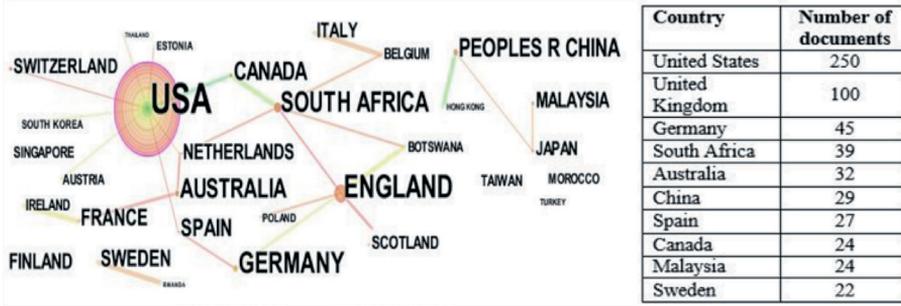


Fig.5 Distribution of countries in publications

3.6. Subject area

Scopus database was scanned under four broad out of 19 categories: social sciences, arts and humanities, psychology and neuroscience. Figure 6 demonstrates that 1596 publications were made in these four subject areas in total. 53% of the documents were published in social sciences, 37% of them in arts and humanities, 9% of them in psychology and 1% of them were found neuroscience subject area.

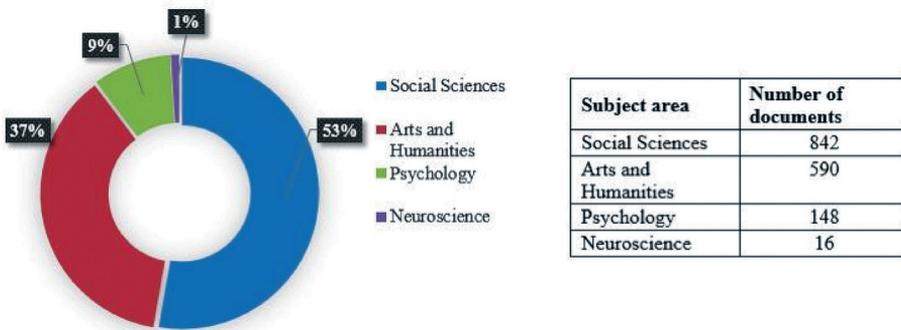


Fig.6 Distribution of subject areas in publications

4. Conclusion

The current study was designed to determine the emerging trends and patterns in the field of code-switching. As a results of the analysis of 952 documents were found between the years of 1976 and 2015 (end of April). Moreover, a sharp increase was observed between the years of 2004 and 2015. The detailed analysis of the papers showed that code-switching studies have been proliferated with publications in EFL and ESL field. In addition to that, the analyses of publications with regards to types of documents indicated that the studies have been disseminated mainly in five formats: articles, conference papers, reviews and books and book chapters. Furthermore, International Journal of the Sociology of Language (30), Journal of Pragmatics (28), International Journal of Bilingualism (22) and Multilingua (22) were found to be the leading journals in code-switching area. Also, it was identified that most of the contributions have been acquired from bilingualism, linguistics and sociology to the code-switching field. Distribution of code-switching studies concerning affiliations showed that Pennsylvania State University (12), Linkopings

Universitet and University of Malaya (11) rank among the top three institutions which have contributed to the field. Additionally, analyses of code-switching on the basis of country revealed that the USA is the pioneer country followed by the UK and Germany. Finally, the results of the analyses indicated that more than half of the studies have been published in the area of social sciences.

The findings of the present study suggest that a growing interest has been observed towards code-switching area and this interest has been nurtured from different subject areas and disciplines in various formats. Also, these findings will enhance our understanding of trends and patterns in code-switching field. Last but not least, it is hoped that this small scale study will be instrumental to the researchers who are interested in this field and present a compact guideline about it.

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THE UNIT OF TRANSLATION

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Abstract

The notion of translation Unit (UT) has been differently tackled by many scholars (Catford, 1965; Kinneavy, 1971; de Beaugrande, 1980, Reiss and Vermeer, 1984; Newmark, 1988; Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995; Nord (1991), Barkhudarov (1993) ; Shuttleworth and Cowie, 1997 ; Matthiesen (2001); Guo Jianzhong (2002); Hatim and Munday, (2004); Nord (2005); Huang and Wu (2009) among others). Scholars relate UT to various language levels that extend from morpheme to text or discourse. Some scholars base their argument on text type, whereas others tackle the issue in terms of functions. In this paper UT is related to both notions of specified text types, and text functions, not in relation to the general categories of register/genre, but in relation to micro textual levels within a macro text, that require variable translating strategies. The general notions of register (or genre) does not seem to be a practical measure for establishing UT, because genres may include various types of texts within their general frames. It also attempts at relating UT to a number of variable text-function categories. It concludes with some suggestions in relation to the notion of UT that might bring up new insights into the issue by specifying the appropriate translation unit which could be a useful strategy when working with certain text types and functions.

Keywords: translation, unit of translation, text type, text function, translating strategy, language level.

1. Introduction

Specifying the appropriate translation unit with which translators use when translating a text, has been a controversial issue. For Catford (1965), the unit of translation (henceforth UT) extends from morpheme to clause. Newmark (1988: 140) says that the UT in most translations is at the level of lower units (word/clause), and in some cases at the level of higher units. For other linguists, translating is carried out at higher levels including the inter-textual level (de Beaugrande:1980). For Snell-Hornby (1988/1995) the UT is “a cohesive segment lying between the level of the word and the sentence.” Koller and Baker say that ST may be translated into larger TL units for explicitation when SL and TL are not closely related whereas Barkhudarov defines a UT as “the smallest unit of SL which has an equivalent in TL” (cited in Shuttleworth and Cowie, 1997: 192-193). Vinay and Darbelnet (1995: p.21) suggest a formal-cognitive approach combining a ‘lexicological unit’, and a ‘unit of thought’, and define UT as “the smallest segment of the utterance whose signs are linked in such a way that they should not be translated literally” (cited in Hatim and Munday, 2004, p.138). Matthiesen (2001) considers the clause to be the proper UT. Guo Jianzhong, relates the UT to the paragraph level (2002). Jianzhong(2002) suggests ‘paragraph’ as the best UT for Chinese-English translation. Hatim and Mason (2004) consider ‘word’ to be the UT in literal translation, and that free translation involves longer stretches of language. Nord (2005), opts for a translation-oriented text analysis within a functional approach at or above clause level. Huang and Wu (2009) in a quantitative study support the ‘sentence’ as the established UT.

The general notion of register (or genre) does not seem to be a practical measure for establishing UT, because genres may include various types of texts within their general frames.

This paper relates 'UT' to both notions of specified text types and text functions not in relation to the general categories of register/genre, but in relation to micro textual levels (sentence, clause, group, word) and larger units in certain text types (paragraph, and macro text), that require variable translating strategies. It also attempts at relating UT to a number of variable text-function categories.

2. Text Types

Texts are classified into a variety of types in relation to different parameters. According to medium, texts are spoken and written; and according to genre, texts are classified into scientific, journalistic, literary, legal, poetic, narrative, dramatic, etc. According to function, texts can be classified into factual (informative-instructional-descriptive), narrative, argumentative (persuasive), and expository. Because speakers use various linguistic techniques and styles to express themselves in accordance with their communicative needs in various situations, a text is not generally a pure type, but often is a hybrid of more than one type or segment, with the aim of fulfilling certain micro functions within the overall text act or macro function. A novel which is usually characterized as narration may include conversation, argumentation, description, etc. Advertisements may be persuasive and directive simultaneously. On the other hand, more than one text that belong to different genres may share certain textual and stylistic features as magazine articles and newspaper articles that contain a variety of text types and styles (news stories, literature, arts, industry, business, advertisements, etc). In the age of modern technology, a text may include a variety of genres (letters, numbers, graphs, images, etc) that merge and mix to fulfill a certain function. Relating UT to a text type in terms of the general genre category only does not seem to be a practical measure in handling the UT.

3. Text Function

The notion of function too has been tackled by some many scholars. John Searle (1976) suggests six types of functions or speech acts: assertive, directives, commissive, expressive, declaration, and representative. Katherine Reiss (1976) suggests three types of function: informative (which includes information, arguments, feelings, judgments, intentions, and compliments); expressive (artistic or creative use of language); and operative (text as stimuli to behavioural responses, action or reaction on the part of the receiver). Halliday (1976) suggests three function types which are: ideational, interpersonal and textual. Janet Holmes (2008, Pp.271-272) mentions 8 functions: referential, affective, directive (orders or requests.), expressive (of mood or feelings), poetic (artistic language function), meta-linguistic (using language to describe language), commissive (vows, bets, promises, threats, and declarations of war) and heuristic (suggested by Halliday in relation to children's learning).

Scholars are not consistent in the classification of functions with regard to their number, names, and implications. What Reiss and Bühler call 'Informative' is called 'ideational' by Halliday, 'referential' by Janet Holmes. What Reiss and Bühler calls 'Social' function is called 'interpersonal' by Halliday, 'affective' by Janet

Holmes, and 'phatic' by Malinowski. The term 'expressive' function for Reiss is the artistic language function, but 'expressive' function for Jakobson is the expression of feelings or mood. The artistic language function is called 'poetic function' by Jakobson.

A text's function may be handled in terms of a macro text act and a number of different micro functions that serve or fulfill the main purpose of the text act as an overall general function. An advertisement text may have multiple micro functions: poetic (achieving foregrounding through certain artistic literary features), informative (providing positive information about a commodity or service), interpersonal (establishing some form of solidarity or rapport with the addressee (potential customer), all of which serve the main (directive/persuasive) text act or function that stimulates the addressees to buy a certain commodity or service).

A translator thus ought to pay careful attention to the micro functions of a text, without losing sight of the macro function or text act while translating. This may be compared to a driver who ought to concentrate not only on the few meters ahead of him to avoid small pitfalls, but also to keep sight of the farther part of the road ahead of him, so that in his endeavour to avoid small pitfalls would not fall into much larger ones.

4. Text –Type / Function

This paper attempts at relating the 'UT' to the criteria of both text type and text function, in order to attend to the relevant linguistic-textual, semantic-pragmatic, and socio-cultural aspects of texts. The different factors that may influence a translator's decision as to the focus point of the UT (which becomes the starting point of his translating process) will be discussed.

Text-type and text-function are not only inter-related but also inseparable. Text producers produce texts, as they make their linguistic choices of paradigms from various linguistic levels (phonology, morphology, lexi, syntax,), and syntagms (combinations of paradigmatic elements) to create thematic structure, information structure, stylistic features (politeness, formality, etc.), and textual aspects of paragraphing, punctuation, and outlay. Text producers try to express and impress the receivers, according to the goals they want to achieve within the relevant socio-cultural contexts. Translators act as decoders of such SL linguistic, stylistic, textual and cultural systems. In authoring the TT, they become re-coders of the TL texts, in terms of content processed chunks or UT that involve the counterpart TL levels.

UT thus refers to the translator's starting point of handling the amount of content to be processed.

5. Factors that Affect the UT:

UT may be influenced by a number of factors such as: text type and function, structure length and complexity, translator's experience and competence, time pressure, and the degree of linguistic and cultural convergence or divergence between SL and TL.

5.1. Text type and Function

5.1.1. Information-oriented (referential) texts

(1). London is the capital of England.

Texts that convey information or instructions and rules about a certain life experience or domain (as in scientific, technical, legal, economics, etc.) where the dominant text function is referential (i.e. informative), the UT focus in such texts is usually on the thematic structure (i.e. theme-rheme) and information structure (given-new) that should carefully be attended to.

In this example, the 'theme' and 'given' information (London) constitutes a UT at the word level, and the rheme constitutes a second UT at the group level:

UT 1 (theme/given information)	UT 2 (rheme/new information)
London	is the capital of England

(2). The capital of England is London.

In example 2, theme/given information (The capital of England) is the first UT at the group level, whereas the rheme part is the second UT at the word level:

UT 1 (theme/given information)	UT 2 (rheme/new information)
The capital of England	is London

(3). Answering that question was easier than saying 'London is the capital of England'.

In example (1) the text "the capital of England is London" is information-based. In example 5, the same text and words are not information-based, but focus is on its being an example of easiness. When the information unit is used with a secondary function of serving some other dominant function in a text, the UT is at levels higher than the 'word', such as the group-clause levels.

(4). Gold is more expensive than silver, and it is also more desirable.

In coordinated clauses, each clause can be analyzed independently:

UT 1 (theme)	UT 2 (rheme)		UT 3 (theme)	UT 4 (rheme)
Gold	is more expensive than silver	and	ellipted subject [it]	is also more flexible

In texts with specialized terms or jargon, the UT begins at the word level and moves up to the group, the clause, and the sentence levels. The rheme part can be handled as one UT, or can be divided into two UTs depending on the translator's skill and experience:

(5). Hypermetropia and astigmatism are the defects most likely to cause headaches.

. UT 1 (theme)	UT 2 (rheme)	
Hypermetropia and astigmatism	are the defects	most likely to cause headaches.
	are the defects most likely to cause headaches.	

In the following example, the legal text needs careful handling with regard to content, and may be processed as 8 UT at the group-clause level with attention to certain legal technical words:

(6). "If any state party to this **Convention** / considers there has been an abuse of privilege or **immunity** / conferred by this Convention , / consultations shall be held / between the State and the specialized **agency** concerned / to determine whether any such abuse has occurred, / and if so, / to attempt to ensure that no repetition occurs."

(Section 24, Article 7, Convention on the Privileges and Immunities of the Specialized Agencies, UN):

5.1.2. Translating texts that are partly information-oriented:

Some texts are charged with a mixture of information-oriented function (referential), and other functions:

(7). Quran Ch.44, Aya (verse) 35:

'Allahu nurul samawati wal-ard mathalu noorihi kamishkaatin feeha misbaah al-misbaahu fi zujaja al-zujaja kaannaha kawkabun durriyun..'

"Allah is the light of the heavens and the earth. The similitude of His light is as a niche wherein is a lamp. The lamp is in a glass. The glass is as it were a shining star.." (Pickthall's Explanatory Translation, p. 343).

(8). Quran Ch.81, Aya (verse) 6: 'wa itha al-biharu **sujjirat**'.

In translating a religious text, the UT is usually at the clause level. When a verse contains an ambiguous or semantically indeterminate lexical item, the UT swings to the word level as in example (8) above.

The underlined word has been given different interpretations by exegetes, and different English equivalents by translators: 'boil', 'rise', 'burnt', 'flooded'. In such cases, translators may seek help from the intra-textual macro text level by looking for parallel intra-textual stylistic variants which sometimes gives helpful clues to resolve some problems as in the case of the one under discussion in which the sense 'burning' is supported, and thus one may support the translation that is based on this sense (Ilyas, 2013, p.89):

"When the sea are set burning"

5.1.2. Translating texts that are not information-oriented:

When translating texts that are not information-based, but have other functions (such as full idioms, Proverbs, social formula, poetic, advertisements, etc) the UT is usually at higher levels.

5.1.2.1. Full Idioms and Proverbs:

In the case of rendering full idioms, and proverbs, the UT is at the group-clause level since the meanings of full idioms do not result from the addition of the meaning of its constituents, but have their own special meanings:

(9). once in a blue moon (Group Level)

(10). to let the cat out of the bag (Clause Level)

(11). Not all that glitters is gold.

In the case of partial idioms, the UT of the non-idiomatic part is usually at the word level:

(12). needle's eye

5.1.2.2. Social Formula (with interpersonal function)

The UT in social formula is at the clause-sentence level:

(13). How do you do?

5.1.2.3. Poetic Texts

Poetic Texts constitute replacing SL semiotic codes (of rhyme, rhythm, stress, intonation, etc.) by counterpart TL semiotic codes in accordance with the TL socio-cultural norms of writing within a particular genre, the UT for a poetic text begins at the phonological level when sounds are artistically manipulated (through parallelism or deviation), and moves upward on the rank scale (group, clause, sentence) and macro text. Each line in example 14 can be a UT:

(14). Shall I compare thee to a summer's day
Thou art more lovely and more temperate

Another source of structural ambiguity or complexity is ellipsis (as in the following stanza from Hopkins) which would move the UT down to the word or group level.

(15). I cast for comfort I can no more find
By groping round my comfortless than blind
Eyes in their dark can day or thirst can find
Thirst's all –in-all in a world of wet.

The missing or ellipted words make this stanza structurally and semantically complex and ambiguous. Specifying the ellipted words will help in disambiguating the stanza:

I cast [around] for comfort [that] I can no more find
By groping round my comfortless [situation] than blind
Eyes [can find day] in their dark[ness] can day or thirst can find
Thirst's all –in-all [satisfaction] in a world of wet.

Deviant expressions and structures as is the case with the poetry of e e cummings 9 using a concrete comparative form 'thicker' or 'thinner' as a qualifier for an abstract word 'love'; besides the use of double comparative forms 'more thicker' and 'more thinner' make the UT swing to the lower levels of morpheme and word in order to look for equivalent deviant forms in the TL:

(16). love is more thicker than forget
More thinner than recall

5.1.2.4. Advertisement

Advertisement mainly involves semiotic and cultural TL features, because what is important in an advertisement is not its information content but achieving the desired impact on the receivers (skopos), by using TL semiotic and artistic devices. Micro components are not important except for contributing to the achievement of maximum effect on the receivers. The UT in advertisement texts is therefore at higher levels (clause-sentence level), with much freedom to diverge from the original textual features and devices to conform to TL cultural norms. ST items and

semantic chunks are not necessarily rendered into parallel TL ones, and may be expanded or contracted as long as the main function (marketing) is achieved. In example 14, the six-line English advertisement may become two lines in another language, but non-verbal semiotic features (whether pictures, font type, colour, bold print, etc. should also be attended to and reproduced unless they are discarded for cultural reasons:

- (17). When the heat is on,
 And the pace is slow,
 There's a cool fresh world
 Where you can go
 Clear, crisp, and light
 It tastes of **Sprite**.

5.2. Text Length and Structural Complexity

5.2.1. Text Length

The length and complexity of structures also affect a translator's choices of UTs. A long structure would usually be divided into smaller units or chunks. When the information-oriented text is a long one, the UT is usually on the levels of group and clause, with special attention to scientific or technical jargon. Sentence (6) may be handled as 9 UTs:

- (18). In such studies of **pattern** and **process**, attempts are made to unravel the **interrelationships** and **roles** of various species in particular communities, while function at the **ecosystem** level **involves studying** such processes as the **flow of energy** and the **cycling of nutrients**.

5.2.2. Structural Complexity

An ambiguous would move the UT down to the word or group level. In the following example, a translator will have to think about the first two words whether to be interpreted as a nominal group in which 'aunts' is considered the subject of the clause or as an object of the verb with an ellipted subject:

- (19). Visiting aunts can be a nuisance.

5.3. Time Pressure and Translator's experience

Modern society is obsessed with speed, and doing things within short notice which causes overload and haste in performing translation tasks. If translators intend to do their task hastily, they would generally select small UTs or chunks (generally at the word-group level, with little focus on the macro level, leading to errors sometimes.

5.4. Degree of conformity between SL & TL Languages and Cultures

The size of the text unit and semantic chunk selected for translation processing is affected by the degree of convergence/divergence between the SL and the TL. Translating a text between two languages that have a high degree of linguistic and cultural convergence will reduce the number but increase the size of semantic chunks to be processed; but translating the same text between two languages that have a high degree of linguistic and cultural divergence will reduce the number of semantic chunks but increase the size to be processed.

Findings and Conclusion:

1. Since a text may contain a variety of types, there is no pure text type; and relating the notion of UT to the macro text or genre typology and function does not seem to be quite useful. UT would better be related to the micro text types and functions within a macro text.

2. In texts whose basic function is mainly referential (information-based), the UT begins at the lexical level due to the importance of specialized jargon, and swings to higher levels (as in example 5).

3. In texts whose basic function is partly referential, such as religious and business texts (as in examples 7), the UT is usually at the group-clause levels, with specific attention to ambiguous lexical items (as in examples 8), as well as structural and stylistic features.

4. In texts whose content transcends the lexical level as in full idioms (example 9) and proverbs, (example 11), the UT is usually at the larger levels (group-clause); but in partial idioms it is at both the word and group levels.

5. In texts that are not information-oriented such as social formula (example 13), advertisements (example 17) etc., the UT is generally at higher levels (group-clause levels). A SL text may be replaced by a non-corresponding TL text as long as the rendering achieves the main text act or function (which in the case of advertisement is marketing a commodity or service).

6. The UT in poetry is generally at higher levels (the clause, stanza, and text), but in certain poetic texts that use of ellipsis (as in example 15) and deviation (as in example 16) as artistic poetic devices, the UT moves down to the word level and in some cases to the morpheme level.

7. A UT tends to be relatively larger in size and smaller in number when the SL and the TL are linguistically and culturally similar.

8. A UT tends to be relatively larger in size and smaller in number when translators are more experienced.

9. Other factors affect that affect variability of UT such are: text length, text complexity, time Pressure, translator's experience, and degree of conformity between SL & TL Languages and Cultures.

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THE IMPACT OF MISUSED ENGLISH TERMINOLOGY ON TRANSLATIONS INTO OTHER EU LANGUAGES

ANGELINA GAŠPAR, MARIJA BILIĆ, NATAŠA STOJAN

Abstract

The research focuses on cross-lingual analysis of misused legal terminology in English language and its implications on other EU languages (French, Italian and Croatian). Cross-lingual analysis examines the interference of one language with others in terms of message conveyance, relevance of semantic shifts, differences in formulations and the impact of misused English terms on each language and their coverage in the reference language resources. The EU legislation is drafted by non-native speakers following strict norms and equivalence requirements in translation. Thus, good drafting and high translation quality entail achieving the same legal effect, using clear and consistent terminology and avoiding linguistic interference. However, despite the fact that the multilingual translation work is done by highly qualified human translators who have specialized in a domain-specific subject, that there is a multi-step revision process of quality control and a number of multilingual linguistic resources, and despite multilingualism being affirmed as one of the basic principles of the EU, complex legal terminology continues to pose specific challenges. Consequently, this research is based on a list of 101 misused terms which are selected from draft reports from the Court of Auditors and then checked in dictionaries, the British National corpus as well as with native speakers in the UK (Gardner, 2013). The list consists of words and expressions used wrongly in terms of English grammar, semantics and pragmatics. In order to evaluate their spread and implications on translations into other EU languages, Linguee free online tool is used for compiling a list of contextual translation examples for English, French and Italian language. All translation examples contain a hyperlink to corresponding documents which are available at the Eur-Lex database or the UN web- page. As far as Croatian language is concerned, the impact of misused English terminology is checked in a million-word Croatian-English parallel corpus of legislative texts. The newly created list of multilingual translation examples is further verified in the reference language resources: the EU's inter-institutional terminology database IATE and the EU's multilingual thesaurus, EuroVoc which are constantly being updated and improved. As far as IATE improvements are concerned, IATE statistics for the third quarter of 2013 show that 134 664 changes were made (e.g. insertions, updates and deletions of terms). Our research is based on a preliminary assumption that inaccurate terminology is still present in the above mentioned language resources. Research results are going to be presented in the paper with the aim to contribute to the efforts of ensuring high quality of domain-specific translations, as well as multilingual terminology, lexicography and machine translation.

Keywords: misused English terminology, translation, EU languages, cross-lingual analysis, legislation, IATE, EuroVoc

1. Introduction

Besides being the most widely-spoken language in the world with many different versions and standards, English is also the drafting language of the EU. Objectivity, precision, clarity, uniformity and economy are the main objectives expected to be met in legal genre that is well-known for its recurrent and standardized expressions. Correct and accurate legal terminology is an important aspect of quality of translation and consequently, quality of translation-based language resources since poor quality of translations and terminology in the EU multilingual environment can lead to discrepancies between language versions, interpretation problems and court cases as presented in the EU's *Studies on translation and multilingualism* (2012). However, establishing translation equivalence across different languages and legal systems is a complex and error-prone process. According to Steinberger et al. (2013), in 2008 72% of all documents were drafted in English and only 11% in French. Official figures from the Directorate General for Translation of the European Commission for 2014, indicate that out of 2 302 465 pages translated in total, 11.57% were translated into English, 6.72% into French and 5.89% into German. A total of 1 471 translators was employed. Despite all the DGT's efforts to ensure high quality of its translation services in terms of productivity and efficiency, instances of language interference and misused terminology still appear and should be treated in a more systematic manner. This paper explores the impact, spread and implications of the misused English legal terminology on other EU languages. A newly compiled list of multilingual expressions extracted from on-line tool *Linguee* and Croatian-English parallel corpus is examined at the lexical, semantic, syntactic and pragmatic level. Statistical results support the conclusions.

2. Related Work

Simplicity, unambiguousness, precision, uniformity, repetitiveness, consistency and economy are regarded as the main features of the EU documents which can be supported by the drafting rules stated e.g. in the Point 5.2. of *the Joint Guide of the European Parliament, the Council and the Commission for persons involved in the drafting of legislation within the Community institutions* (2003) according to which “[...] the original text must be particularly simple, clear and direct, since any overcomplexity or ambiguity, however slight, could result in inaccuracies, approximations or real mistranslations in one or more of the other Community languages”, and in e.g. Guideline 6, according to which “The terminology used in a given act shall be consistent both internally and with acts already in force, especially in the same field. Identical concepts shall be expressed in the same terms, as far as possible without departing from their meaning in ordinary, legal or technical language.” Consequently, in the service level agreements (SLAs) it concludes with other Commission services, Directorate-General for Translation (DGT) states that: “For the translations that it provides, DGT will ensure correct usage of the target language, correct use of subject-specific and Community terminology, consistency with the original and between the different language versions, and compliance with the specific conventions for different types of texts (legal, political, letters, speeches, Web, etc.)”.

In order to meet the above mentioned objectives, the versions in other 23 languages are produced by human translators who have specialised in specific subject

fields and who work in a cutting-edge IT environment using CAT tools, with many custom-built enhancements aimed at streamlining the work and ensuring quality and consistency. The quality is further controlled at the level of each translation service, by legal services and by the EC's Publications Office (PO) (Steinberger et al, 2013). Despite all that (or maybe precisely because of it), research conducted by Jeremy Gardner, a senior translator at the European Court of Auditors showed that *"the European institutions have, over the years, developed their own vocabulary that includes words that do not exist or are relatively unknown to native English speakers outside the EU institutions, words that are used with a meaning, often derived from other languages, that is not usually found in English dictionaries and words which are used with more or less the correct meaning, but in contexts where they would not be used by native speakers"* (Gardner, 2013). Gardner made a list of 101 misused English words and expressions in EU publications from statements of preliminary findings and draft reports from the Court of Auditors while other words were obtained from English-speaking colleagues. The terms were then checked against dictionaries, native speakers in the UK, and the British National Corpus and supported by examples from official publications. Although, internally, it may often be easier to communicate with these terms than with the correct ones, it must be borne in mind that the European institutions also communicate with the outside world and documents are translated in 24 and more languages.

Since English is considered to be a *lingua franca*, many scholars have dedicated their research to the topic of the influence of English on other languages such as Danish, German, Spanish (d'Artibale et al, 2008), Polish and other Slavic languages (Witalisz, 2011), Israeli and Mandarin Chinese (Zuckermann), etc.

3. Research

3.1. Resources

The authors of this paper have limited their research on the analysis of the impact of the misused English terminology defined by Gardner (2013) on translation into other EU languages such as French and Italian using *Linguee*, a translation tool which combines an editorial dictionary and a search engine with which it is possible to search billions of bilingual texts for words and expressions. Compared to traditional online dictionaries, *Linguee* contains about 1,000 times more translated texts, which are displayed in full sentences. The majority of the example sentences are from the bilingual web, e.g. professionally translated websites of companies, organizations, and universities. For this research, only translation examples containing a hyperlink to documents available at the Euro-lex database or the UN web-page are taken into consideration.

As far as the Croatian language is concerned, the impact of misused English terminology is checked in a million-word Croatian-English parallel corpus (Gašpar, 2015) which is created out of 82 different types of Croatian legislative texts and their corresponding English translations: laws, treaties, regulations, decisions, ordinances and guidelines which are publicly accessible at the web-page of the Digital Information Documentation Office of the Government of the Republic of Croatia. The annotated corpus consists of 1 142 130 words in total, 506 338 words in Croatian and corresponding 635 792 words in English due to the typological difference between languages with Croatian being a synthetic and English an

analytic language. The newly created list of multilingual translation examples is further verified in the reference language resources, *IATE* and *EuroVoc*.

IATE (= “Inter-Active Terminology for Europe”) is the EU’s inter-institutional terminology database which has been used in the EU institutions and agencies since summer 2004 for the collection, dissemination and shared management of EU-specific terminology. Terms are fed into the database by EU terminologists and translators on the basis of information from translators, administrators, lawyer-linguists, experts and other reliable sources. The project was launched in 1999 with the objective of providing a web-based infrastructure for all EU terminology resources, enhancing the availability and standardisation of the information. IATE has 8.4 million terms, including approximately 540 000 abbreviations and 130 000 phrases, and covers all 24 official EU languages. IATE statistics for the third quarter of 2013 show that terminologists in the Council, Parliament and the Commission have made 134 664 movements, i.e. insertions, updates and deletions which supports the fact that new terms are added on a daily basis and the contents are constantly updated.

EuroVoc is a multilingual thesaurus originally built specifically for the manual indexing and retrieval of multilingual documentary information of the EU institutions, but it is now much more widely used, e.g. by the libraries of many national governments in the EU. It is a multi-disciplinary thesaurus covering fields that are sufficiently wide-ranging to encompass both Community and national points of view, with a certain emphasis on parliamentary activities.

3.2. Cross-lingual analysis

After checking the presence of misused terms in IATE and EuroVoc for all four languages, a more detailed cross-lingual analysis is conducted in order to examine the interference of one language with others in terms of message conveyance, relevance of semantic shifts and differences in formulations. Cross-lingual analysis is carried out within the frame of translation techniques which are an excellent instrument of textual analysis that in combination with other instruments offer a possibility to study how translation equivalence works in relation to the source text (ST).

Since the 1950s, there have been many definitions and classifications of translation techniques which not only cause terminological, conceptual and classificatory confusion but also often overlap. Therefore, the authors of the paper have decided to focus on Vinay and Darbelnet’s classical model (1985/ 1995) and Delisle’s model (1993), i.e. their techniques of literal translation, transposition and modulation as well as amplification, economy, addition and omission.

According to Vinay and Darbelnet, literal translation is the prescription for good translation: “*literalness should only be sacrificed because of structural and metalinguistic requirements and only after checking that the meaning is fully preserved*” (1995: 288). This is especially valid for EU documents which need to be translated in all 23 languages and which once translated, have the equal status of a ST, and are not a mere translation, As already highlighted, precision and consistency are among the most important features of legal texts. However, literal translation is not always possible due to differences between languages concerned and it surely is to be avoided when the ST contains misused words such as those 101

listed by Gardner and analysed in this paper. Examples of literal translation listed below are examples of bad instances of literal translation since they show how the misused English words have been incorporated directly into French and/ or Italian. Each example is supported with the explanation given by Gardner why the word is considered to be used wrongly.

When literal translation is not possible or correct, other translation techniques should be applied.

Transposition is defined as a mere shift between grammatical categories (i.e. verb for noun, noun for preposition, etc.). Therefore, the examples of transposition listed below also show the strong impact of English onto French and/ or Italian because only the word class of these words has been changed due to morphosyntactic features of target languages while the sense/ lexical choice has remained the same.

Modulation is a procedure that is justified, in the words of the English edition of Vinay and Darbelnet's work, *"when, although a literal, or even transposed, translation results in a grammatically correct utterance, it is considered unsuitable, unidiomatic or awkward in the TL"* (2004: 133). According to them, *"transposition simply shows a very good command of the target language whereas modulation is the touchstone of a good translator"* (1995: 246). Modulation is a shift in cognitive categories. Vinay and Darbelnet postulated eleven types of modulation: abstract for concrete, cause for effect, means for result, a part for the whole, geographical change, etc. The examples of modulation listed below show how, by applying this technique, translators have avoided the direct influence of misused English terms and have achieved translation equivalence by using instead the words which have a similar meaning, but are more appropriate for EU legal documents.

In 1977, the initial list of seven basic procedures was complemented by other procedures among which are amplification and economy. Amplification occurs when the TL uses more signifiers to cover syntactic or lexical gaps and economy is the opposite procedure. These techniques were chosen for analysis since, as stated above in the paper, precision is an essential feature of legal texts meaning that amplification and economy should be avoided. There are not many instances of neither of these techniques in the examined corpora which goes in favour of the translators in question.

The last two translation techniques that have been analysed are addition and omission which were introduced by Delisle (1993) and defined as translation errors. Addition is the introduction of unjustified stylistic elements and information that are not in the ST while omission is the unjustifiable suppression of elements in the target text (TT). The examined corpus contains only few examples of addition and omission which is a compliment to the translators who worked on these translations since nothing should be added or omitted from the ST, especially when legal texts are concerned.

3.2.1. Translation techniques applied in French and Italian translations

COHERENT

LITERAL TRANSLATION

Eng: the application of Community law is **coherent** with objectives

Fr: l'application de la discipline communautaire soit **cohérente** avec les objectifs

TRANSPOSITION

Eng: this objective should be achieved in a manner **coherent** with other objectives

Fr: Il doit toutefois y avoir **cohérence** entre la réalisation de cet objectif et celle d'un certain nombre d'autres

In the EU jargon, 'coherent' is frequently used with the meaning of 'in agreement with' or 'accordant with' (something else) although it means 'logical; consistent and orderly' when referring to an argument or a publication, or 'capable of logical and orderly thought' when referring to a person. The preferred alternative is consistent (Gardner, 22).

MODULATION

Eng: The proposal is fully **coherent** with the objectives and aims of the 6th Environment Action Programme

Fr: La proposition **cadre parfaitement** avec les objectifs du 6e programme d'action pour l'environnement

FORESEE

LITERAL TRANSLATION

Eng: A project must **foresee** at least three events

Fr: Un projet doit **prévoir** un minimum de trois événements

Eng: the Mediterranean countries that **foresee** the gradual establishment of a free trade

It: i paesi mediterranei, che **prevedono** la progressiva creazione di una zona di libero

TRANSPOSITION

Eng: the supplier to **foresee** the applicable law

Fr: une plus grande **prévisibilité** du droit applicable pour le fournisseur

The basic meaning of the word 'to foresee' is 'to see something in advance, to predict, expect' and it's not always clear whether the prediction or expectation is based on fact or not. Alternatives are: envisage, plan, set out in, contemplate, expect, and predict (Gardner, 38).

MODULATION

Eng: we do not **foresee** any practical problems

Fr: nous ne **voyons** aucun problème pratique

FORMULATE

LITERAL TRANSLATION

Eng: **to formulate** common positions and proposals for action

It: di **formulare** posizioni e proposte di azione comuni

TRANSPOSITION

Eng: attempt **to formulate** some key policies to contribute to productivity growth

Fr: une tentative de **formulation** de certaines politiques clés afin de contribuer à la croissance de la productivité

The word 'formulate' means 'to put into or express in systematic terms', 'to express in (or to express as if in) a formula' or 'to devise'. In EU texts it's used abundantly with a meaning similar to 'draw up' or 'prepare'. Proposed alternatives: are draft, draw up, produce, prepare. (Gardner, 38)

MODULATION

Eng: to **formulate** common solutions on matters concerning railway safety

Fr: d'**élaborer** des solutions communes en matière de sécurité et d'interopérabilité

FICHE

LITERAL TRANSLATION

Eng: the information **fiche** for customers is made available

Fr: la **fiche** d'information des consommateurs la fiche d'information des consommateurs est mise à la disposition

'Fiche' is a French word. Its only use in English is to indicate the (somewhat outdated) microfiche. Alternatives are: sheet, document, record, entry (Gardner, 37).

MODULATION

Eng: in line with the project **fiche**

It: in linea con la **scheda** del progetto

AMPLIFICATION

Eng: information contained in the **fiche** is provided

It: informazione inserita nella **scheda informativa**

EXERCISE

LITERAL TRANSLATION

Eng: appraisal and promotion **exercise** based on a new system

Fr: **exercice** d'évaluation et de promotion fondé sur un nouveau système

Eng: the 2006 promotion **exercise**

It: dell'**esercizio** di promozione 2006

'Exercise' is often used in EU documents to indicate a procedure or process of some sort or a period in which something is done. The preferred alternative is procedure (Gardner, 35).

MODULATION

Eng: The promotion **exercise** referred to

It: L'**azione** promozionale cui fa riferimento

OMISSION

Eng: the merit-based promotion **exercise**

Fr: la promotion au mérite

INCITE

LITERAL TRANSLATION

Eng: producers are **incited** to produce above their contractual needs

Fr: les producteurs sont **incités** à produire au delà de leurs besoins contractuels

The meaning of the word 'incite' is 'to stir up violent or unlawful behaviour' or to 'urge or persuade (someone) to act in a violent or unlawful way'. In EU texts the word is used with a meaning similar to stimulate, encourage. Alternative for the word is encourage (Gardner, 42).

MODULATION

Eng: acts are **incited** by governments or politicians

Fr: ces actes sont **motivés** par des gouvernements ou des responsables politiques

It: tali azioni siano **fomentate** da governi o esponenti politici

OMISSION

Eng: the risk of **inciting** panic

Fr: au risque de panique

EXTERNALISE

LITERAL TRANSLATION

Eng: The Commission intends **to externalise**, under its responsibility, activities which generate

Fr: La Commission a l'intention d'**externaliser**, sous sa responsabilité, des activités qui génèrent

Eng: **to externalise** technical support activities

It: di **esternalizzare** le attività di supporto tecnico

TRANSPOSITION

Eng: The proposal aims **to externalise** certain tasks in a clearly defined framework

Fr: L'objectif de la proposition est d'inscrire l'**externalisation** de certaines tâches dans un cadre bien défini

Although 'externalisation' has become a very popular word in the UK public administration, it is a recent acquisition so it may not be quite clear to readers exactly what it means. It is preferable to use more established terms such as outsource/ outsourcing, contract out, send out (Gardner, 36).

AMPLIFICATION

Eng: the Commission may **externalise** certain tasks

It: Commissione può **affidare** determinate mansioni **all'esterno**

JUSTIFICATION

LITERAL TRANSLATION

Eng: For any specific information item missing, the registrant will provide a **justification**

Fr: Le déclarant fournira une **justification** pour tout élément d'information manquant.

Eng: the Member State shall provide **justification** to the Commission
 It: lo Stato membro interessato fornisce alla Commissione una **giustificazione**

TRANSPPOSITION

Eng: the applicant has to provide a **justification** for the method used
 It: il richiedente deve **giustificare** il metodo utilizzato

The word 'justification' means 'the act of justifying' or 'something that justifies'. In EU texts the word is used with a meaning of 'evidence', 'explanation'. Alternatives are: evidence, supporting document, proof, explanation (Gardner, 46).

OMISSION

Eng: the Member State shall provide **justification** to the Commission
 Fr: L'État membre concerné fournit à la Commission

HIERARCHICAL SUPERIOR

LITERAL TRANSLATION

Eng: the **hierarchical superior** of the accounting officer
 Fr: le **supérieur hiérarchique** du comptable
 It: il **superiore gerarchico** del contabile

The term 'hierarchical superior' is characteristic for the ecclesiastical context. Alternatives for the term are: manager, line manager, boss, immediate superior, head of unit, director (Gardner, 40).

AMPLIFICATION

Eng: the liaison officer's **hierarchical superior**
 Fr: dell'ufficiale di collegamento solo **dal punto di vista gerarchico**

OMISSION

Eng: the authority of the **hierarchical superior**
 Fr: Sous l'autorité de la hiérarchie

ACTIONS

LITERAL TRANSLATION

Eng: environmental **actions** undertaken
 Fr: les **actions** en faveur de l'environnement /des actions environnementales
 It: **azioni** di sostegno ambientale intraprese

The word 'action' in its meaning of 'the fact or process of doing something, typically to achieve an aim', is uncountable in English and therefore does not take a plural. Where used countably as a synonym for scheme, project or measure, the latter are preferred (Gardner, 5).

MODULATION

Eng: appropriate **actions**
 Fr: **mesures** concrètes

ESTABLISH

LITERAL TRANSLATION

Eng: Commission should **establish** a report on the functioning of the system

Fr: la Commission **établit** un rapport sur la base des informations reçues

The verb 'establish' means to 'set up', 'found' or 'secure'. A company or criteria can be established, but not a report. The preferred alternatives here are: draw up, draft, produce, prepare (Gardner, 33).

MODULATION

Eng: the producer organisation shall **establish** a report of its activities

Fr: L'organisation de producteurs **dresse** un rapport de ses activités

Eng: Commission should **establish** a report on the functioning of the system

It: La Commissione dovrebbe pertanto **elaborare** una relazione sul funzionamento del sistema

INTERVENTION

LITERAL TRANSLATION

Eng: social policy **interventions**

Fr: **interventions** de politique sociale

Eng: rural development policy **interventions**

It: gli **interventi** nel campo dello sviluppo rurale

The word 'intervention' is frequently used in the military context with the meaning 'interference by a state in another's affairs'. In EU texts the term usually refers to EU-funded operations in the member countries and elsewhere. Furthermore, the word is uncountable, but in EU texts it is often used in the plural form. Alternatives are: activities, projects, EU-funded activities/ projects (Gardner, 44).

MODULATION

Eng: The risk-capital **interventions** under this Decision

Fr: Les **opérations** de capitaux à risques qui seront financées, en vertu de la présente décision

3.2.2. Translation techniques applied for Croatian-English language pair

LITERAL TRANSLATION applied in the following examples represents loan internationalisms that have entered the Croatian language as many other languages. Preserving their structural peculiarities and identical meaning, these words have entered the Croatian language due to the translation of the EU legislation finding their co-referents in the reverse translation.

Cro: **adekvatno** iskustvo

Eng: **adequate** experience

Cro: **Kabinet** ministra

Eng: **Cabinet** of the Minister

Cro: **Kolegij** ministra

Eng: **College** of the Minister

Cro: potrebne **intervencije** servisnih službi
Eng: necessary **interventions** of repair and maintenance services

Cro: propisanim **samokontrolama** i službenim kontrolama
Eng: established **self-controls** and official supervisions

Cro: gospodarska suradnja s **trećim zemljama**
Eng: economic cooperation with the **third countries**

MODULATION applied in the following examples clearly shows the extent to which many of the misused English words have become incorporated into the English lexicon and are used even by Croatian translators when translating into English.

Cro: posebne **mjere**
Eng: Affirmative **actions** are specific

Cro: **trenutačno** i djelotvorno povlačenje
Eng: **actual** and immediate withdrawal

Cro: **zadovoljavajući** stambeni prostor
Eng: **adequate** living accommodation

Cro: **uređaji** za sigurnu plovidbu
Eng: **aids** for safe navigation

Cro: **znak** kojima dokazuje službeno svojstvo
Eng: **badge** as proof of his official status

Cro: **Ovlasti** organizacijskih jedinica
Eng: **Competencies** of organisational units

Cro: provođenje kriminalističkih **vještačenja**
Eng: conducting criminal **expertise**

Cro: **ravnomjerna** distribucija masti
Eng: **homogeneous** distribution of the fat

TRANSPOSITION applied in following examples refers to a mere shift of grammatical class of the misused English words.

Cro: obavlja **kontrolu** usklađenosti
Eng: **controls** the harmonization

Cro: uzgojno valjana **goveda**
Eng: animals of the **bovine** species

Cro: **izmijeniti** razlučna prava
Eng: **modification** of any lien

AMPLIFICATION applied in the following examples shows how the Croatian translators have, by adding some elements to the SL item and thus making the TL item more precise, have resorted to some of 101 misused English words

Cro: **komisionar** za kupnju
Eng: commission **agent**

Cro: **pomagala**
Eng: **aid** devices

Cro: **brodar**
Eng: ship **operator**

ECONOMY applied in the following examples shows the reduction in the number of words in TL which is in accordance with the general rules of drafting EU documents, but the choice of the concrete word is not a proper one.

Cro: Vrijeme i mjesto održavanja te **dnevni red** ročišta
Eng: time, site and the **agenda** of the meeting

Cro: **zastupnici klijenata** u stjecanju udjela
Eng: **agents** in the acquisition of shares

Cro: **državne potpore** korištene protivno propisima
Eng: **aid** used in contravention of the rules

ADDITION is generally applied in order to achieve cross-cultural pragmatic understanding as translation comprises not only a movement between languages but also between two cultures. However, the following examples represent instances of adding completely new information which should never be done in translation, let alone in translation of legal texts.

Cro: ne obračuna prema potrošnji u
Eng: on the basis of the **actual** consumption

Cro: primjenjuju posljedice
Eng: **adequate** application of penalties

Cro: broj životinja u ispitivanju po genotipovima
Eng: number of **bovine** animals per genotype

Cro: očisti od razlivenog goriva
Eng: **eventual** fuel poured out

OMISSION applied in the example below is an example of a bad translation practice since no information from the ST should ever be lost in translation, especially when legal texts are concerned.

Cro: posljedica **štetne** radnje trgovca
Eng: trader's actions

4. Results

Statistical analysis is performed by comparing the list of misused English words or expressions provided by Gardner (2013) to a newly generated list of the same words used in different contexts and translated into other European languages. Using the *Linguee* tool, 95 and 94 out of Gardner's 101 misused English words or expressions were detected for English and Italian respectively. The number of words found in the million-word Croatian-English parallel corpus is significantly lower amounting to 44 words, but their coverage in English translations indicates their spread and the issue of directionality which is out of the scope of this paper. Translators were

probably under the influence of the *Acquis Communautaire*, the accumulated body of the EU legislation that all Member States are required to translate as well as the obligation to harmonize the national legislation with the EU legislation. The number of hits for the English language is as expected and it slightly decreases for other languages (EN-400 hits, FR-355 hits, IT-331 hits, Cro-221 hits). Only nine matches were found in English as a source language (SL) and target language (TL): *adequate procedures, navigation aid, bovine species, meat from bovines, animals of bovine, bovine animals, Cabinet of Minister, economic operator, training course*). The direct influence of English on French is reflected in 171 examples and on Italian in 150 examples. Term variants are used in 60 examples in French, 40 examples in Italian and 46 in Croatian. All data are presented in Chart 1.

Cross-lingual analysis

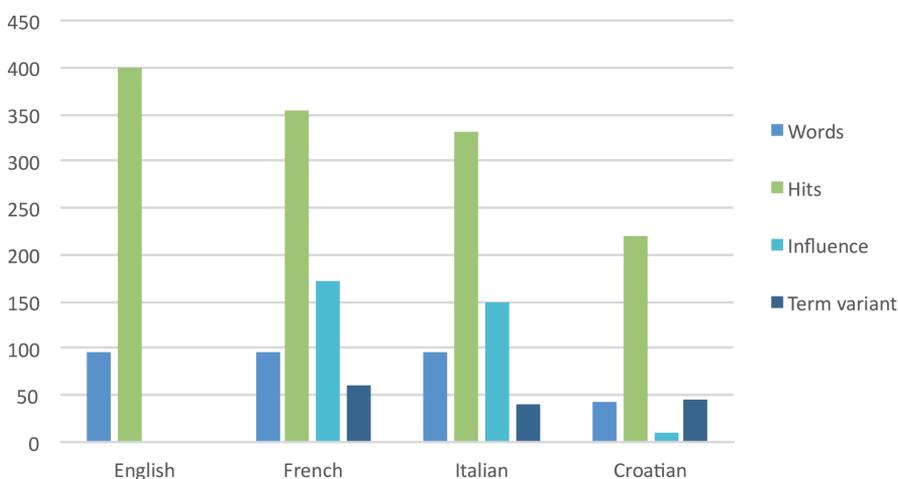


Chart 1: Cross-lingual analysis

The newly created list of multilingual translation examples is verified in the reference language resources: the IATE database and EuroVoc. The results referring to the number of their co-referents in IATE database confirm the preliminary assumption that this resource contains inaccurate terminology: 67 matches for English as SL (17%), 65 for French (18%), 63 for Italian (19%) and 31 (14%) for English as TL. While values for all three languages are approximate, the lowest value of English as TL results from the fact that the Croatian national legislation has a specific terminology. The relevant statistics for EuroVoc are more encouraging: 13 matches for English as SL (3%), 15 for French (4%), 16 for Italian (5%) and only 4 (2%) for English as TL. This research raises concern in regard to content, application, benefits and drawbacks of the reference language resources. On the one hand, misused English words either being headwords or component words of the extracted expressions should not be found in the reference language resources, but their coverage is statistically significant, except for English as TL. The results are shown in Chart 2.

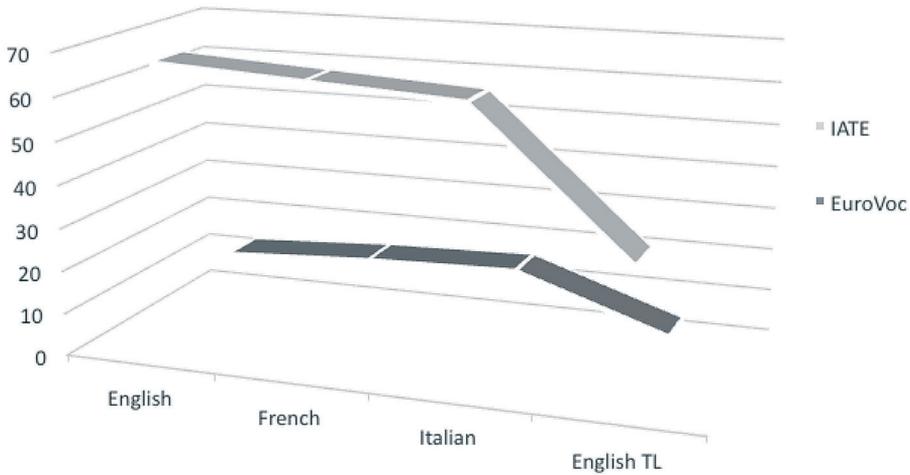


Chart 2: Words/expressions represented in the reference language resources

The most frequently applied translation techniques in English-French, English-Italian and Croatian-English language pairs are: literal translation (483), followed by modulation (284) and transposition (78) while other techniques are less frequent: amplification (26) and omission (21). Chart 3 presents frequencies of the translation techniques applied across the languages. Literal translation is the most represented technique for English-French and English-Italian language pairs because all languages share many linguistic similarities. Conversely, modulation is the most frequently applied technique for Croatian-English language pair due to differences between languages.

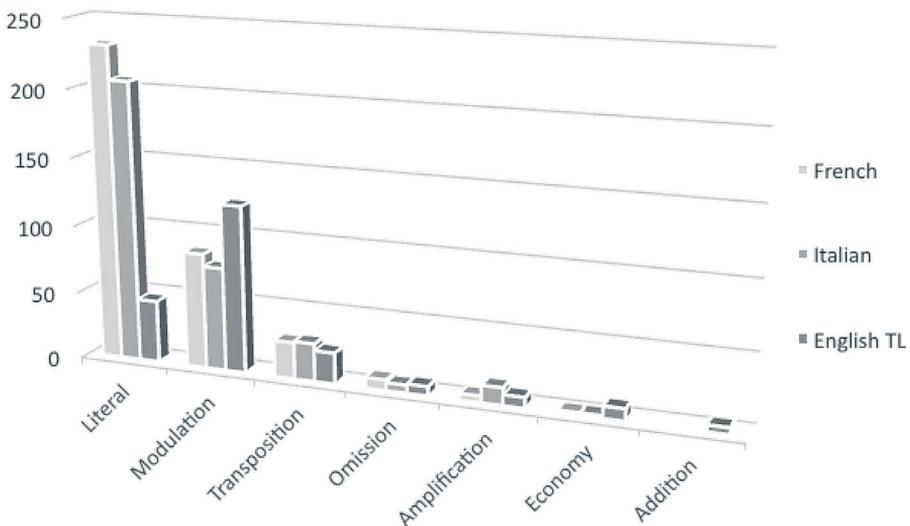


Chart 3: Translation techniques applied across languages

5. Conclusion

The main aspects of a good drafting and translation quality refer to achieving the same legal effect, using clear and consistent terminology and avoiding linguistic interference. This research confirmed that all the efforts put into elimination of linguistic interference are not sufficient as the dominance of English over other languages is omnipresent. The hypothesis that misused legal terminology can affect other EU languages motivated authors of this paper to conduct this research. The impact of the English language on other EU languages is assessed through a qualitative (linguistic) and quantitative (statistical) approach. Cross-lingual analysis is conducted at the lexical, syntactical and semantic level in order to reveal both similarities/differences among languages and translation techniques adopted in order to convey meaning. Linguee free online tool and Croatian-English parallel corpus have proven to be a valuable resource for compiling the contextual multilingual translation examples. The research raises concern in regard to the accuracy of the reference language resources which should reduce the risk of human errors. However, both linguistic and statistical results confirm the preliminary assumption referring to the coverage of misused terminology in the reference language resources despite the constant updates and improvements. Errors are likely to occur repeatedly as they may be deleted from digital language resources (termbases, dictionaries, thesauruses) but kept in translation memories or corpora. The future research would include other EU Languages, different genre and other language resources (termbases, translation memories, on-line translation tools etc.). This pilot study aims to contribute to the efforts of ensuring the quality of domain-specific translations, multilingual terminology, lexicography and machine translation.

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TRYING TO KEEP CHILDREN HAPPY IN THE CONTEXT OF HUMOUR TRANSLATION: A CHILDREN'S LITERATURE TRANSLATION PROCESS RESEARCH CASE STUDY

ELENA XENI

This session presents the results of a recent study on children's literature translation process research (ChLTPR), focusing on humour translation. Translator-participants are observed while translating extracts from humorous children's literature (ChL), in an attempt to identify and analyse aspects of the complex process of translating humorous texts for children, so as to understand it better. Participants from three focus groups (FGs), i.e. beginner, competent and expert translators, verbalise their thoughts, actions and beliefs, as they go about translating children's texts in the course of think-aloud experiments. In this context, they reveal their decision-making process and their principles lying underneath, regarding what they think makes children laugh, enjoy literature and be happy. Realities, challenges and perspectives of the study regarding translating humour for children, what makes children happy, childhood and enjoyment, etc. are critically presented and implications for literacy and childhood studies are discussed.

NARRATIVE ABILITIES OF TWO TURKISH-GERMAN BILINGUAL SIBLING PAIRS IN THEIR WEAK LANGUAGE

STEFAN RATHERT

The aim of this study was to examine the narrative skills of four Turkish-German bilingual children in retelling a story. The participants were two sibling pairs aged 8;3/12;3 and 8;4/12;2 having a Turkish mother and a German father, and living in the same Turkish city. They retold a tale in their weak language, German, which was presented beforehand as a video. The children's speeches were audio-recorded and transcribed. In order to prepare the data for analysis, mazes were excluded from the retellings, and the data set was separated into T-units. The retellings were analysed for language productivity, syntactic complexity (number of words per T-unit and number of complex sentences per T-unit) and target-deviating language (morphosyntax of verb forms and noun phrases). The analyses revealed that differences did not exist between age groups but between sibling pairs: While one sibling pair showed a higher level of narrative ability in language productivity and syntactic complexity, the other pair produced more accurate language as evidenced by the lower frequency of target-deviating language. The results suggest that the acquisition of narrative skills of children is – at least within the age range of the participants – less associated with age but rather with individual differences resulting from, e.g., the home context. The results related to the emergence of target-deviating verb forms and noun phrases strongly indicate that morphosyntactic accuracy is an area of slow development in the weaker language of bilingual children and dissociated from narrative abilities.

CROSS CULTURAL RELATIONS AND LANGUAGE

REFUSAL PATTERNS AS REALIZED BY ALBANIAN AND AMERICAN ENGLISH SPEAKERS: CROSS CULTURAL DIFFERENCES AND SIMILARITIES

JEHONA MUSTAFA-MURTEZANI

Abstract

This paper represents a PhD research proposal focusing on refusal speech act strategies as realized by native Albanian speakers and Native American English speakers. Also, it will compare and contrast the performance of Albanian EFL learners to that of native speakers of American English, by analyzing the degree of negative pragmatic transfer from L1 to L2 when refusal speech acts are produced. Finally, it will reveal the differences in results that two different elicitation methods yield. The data of the study will be collected through naturally occurring situations and enhanced open-ended role-plays. The naturally occurring population will consist of 25 Albanian and 25 Albanian EFL students studying in Macedonia, as well as 25 Native American English speakers studying in US. Regarding the enhanced open-ended role-play data, 20 situations mirroring the exact circumstances of the experiment will be created and role-played by 20 native Albanians and 20 Albanian EFL students. All gathered data will be analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. The quantitative analyses will consist of frequency counts of realized refusal strategies per individual and methods. The qualitative analyses in this study will be made with respect to the preference for refusal strategies (direct, indirect and adjunct to refusals), distribution, internal head modification, as well as content of semantic formulas of *excuses* and *reasons*. Evidence of pragmatic transfer will be searched and analyzed at all levels of before mentioned quantitative and qualitative analyses. The overall gained results will shed light on the cultural and pragmatic differences that exist between these two culturally and linguistically different languages. Furthermore, data received from both means of data collection will be contrasted and thus making an important contribution to the field of multi-method approach in Interlanguage pragmatics.

Keywords: refusals pragmatics research methodology pragmatic transfer

Literature Review

Refusal speech act studies

Refusal speech act literature represents a field of research which mainly focuses on the various realization patterns of refusal speech acts as realized under different social variables and conditions. Refusals represent a type of disliked response which threatens interlocutors' positive face (Brown and Levinson, 1987) by showing unwillingness to comply with requester's desire and request.

Furthermore, refusals tend to represent a source of cross cultural misunderstanding when not realized according to the proper cultural norms and standards of a language. This suggests that there are culturally specific refusal formulas employed in given circumstances, and if failing to possess this competence,

one is likely to run the risk of offending the interlocutor and thus being labeled as impolite or rude (Gumperz, 1978; Beebe et al. 1990; Brasdefer, 2008 etc). However, comparative analyses between different speech acts and cultures have significantly contributed to raising the awareness about the culturally specific concepts, and thus promote better cross cultural communication and understanding (Beebe et al. 1990; Morkus, 2009; Ghazanfari et al. 2013; etc.).

One of the most important studies that revealed discrepancies in terms of refusal realizations between different languages and cultures is Beebe et al. (1990) who discovered differences between native Japanese, Japanese English speakers and Native American in terms of order, frequency, and content of semantic formulas. Results revealed that Americans refuse according to the degree of familiarity or social distance; while Japanese according to the social status of the speaker. As for the content analyses of excuses, the difference appeared in the field of excuses where Japanese, unlike Americans, tend to give less specific reasons for their excuse. In another study Nader Morkus (2009) focuses on the intercultural aspect of refusals as realized by Egyptian Arabic and American learners of Arabic as foreign language. American learners of Arabic used a higher percentage of direct strategies compared to native Arabic, as well as lower percentage of indirect strategies, mostly in higher status situations. Concerning the socio-cultural differences of the refusal speech acts, and the differences that may arise in terms of gender differences, Ghazanfari et al. (2013) conducted a study by investigating the differences in refusal among Persian and English speakers. Results show that Persian speakers refused in a way that reflects collectivism, and in being such, avoid using *regret* and *self-defense*. On the contrary, English results reflect a more individualistic view of the world, where the 'I' pronoun is of a very frequent use.

Cross-cultural pragmatic transfer

Research in nterlanguage pragmatics has proved that the speech act production of L2 learners of English differs substantially from that of native speakers. Furthermore, a consistent finding in the speech act studies shows that a significant 'culprit' of such inconsistencies is the lack of L2 pragmatic competence (Morkus, 2009; Beebe et.al. 1990; Allami and Naeimi, 2011; Al-Issa, 1998; Abed, 2011). Fraser (1983, as cited in Abed, 2011) defines pragmatic competence as "the knowledge of how an addressee determines what a speaker is saying and recognizes intended illocutionary force conveyed through subtle attitudes" (p.30). According to Wolfson (1989), pragmatic transfer refers to the transfer of rules of speaking and language behavior, while Beebe at el. (1990) puts it as "transfer of L1 sociocultural communicative competence in performing L2 speech acts or any other aspects of L2 conversation..." (p.56). Since every single language is interwoven with cultural elements and expectations, any strive for intercultural interaction faces the challenge of meeting these socio cultural constrains of L2. Therefore, when L2 speakers fail to grasp this pragmatic element of the language, they usually rely on the native language competence, and thus leading them to a negative pragmatic transfer in L2.

In order to avoid any communication breakdown, resulting from pragmatic failure, numerous cross cultural pragmatic speech act studies have been conducted, which are of vital importance to understanding the intercultural communication

process (Morkus, 2009; Al-Issa, 2003; Al-Kahtani 2005; Gumperz, 1982 etc). Morkus (2009) in his study revealed some significant elements of negative pragmatic transfer with regard to frequency and choice of refusal strategies. American learners of Arabic tend to use more frequently the statement of regret, being the third most commonly used strategy, unlike native Arabic who used is as the ninth most frequently used strategy. Al-Issa (2003) conducting a study between Jordanian and English speakers identified three areas where pragmatic transfer is evident: choice of semantic formula, length and content. Also Al-Kahtani (2005, cited in Abed 2011) found out differences in the refusal speech act realization between Saudis and Americans with respect to order, frequency and content of semantic formula.

An attempt toward a theoretical framework of the study

The framework that I intend to implement in my study is the theory of face and politeness

Theory of face

Initially introduced by the Chinese anthropologist Hu in 1944, and further developed by Goffman, the notion of face represents the public self image of a person which is constantly under negotiation. Maintaining ones face is considered to be a major issue in social interaction. While interacting, one has to adapt according to the situation, and employ appropriate face work in order to minimize the threat to the hearer face.

Theory of politeness

According to the Cambridge dictionary 'politeness' is defined as "behaving in a way that is socially correct and showing understanding of and care for other people's feeling"; however, the linguistic interpretation of this concept is much more complex. Below, are some theorists who have made major contribution to a better understanding of the linguistic politeness phenomenon. Lakoff (1973), as one the earliest linguists to study politeness, analyzed it from a conversation point of view. She suggests that interlocutors use certain rules of polite behavior that help minimize the conflict in an interaction. Lakoff identifies the following rules of politeness: 1) do not impose and 2) give options 3) make your listener feel good.

In a similar vein, Leech (1983) proposes maxims of politeness which derive from Grice's (1975) maxims of conversation. Leech lists six maxims: tact, generosity, approbation, modesty, agreement, and sympathy. However, both these approaches have faced major criticism on the ground that these rules can be of an endless number due to the various factors that can influence the interaction, such as: setting, topic, purpose etc. (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

On the other side, Brown and Levinson (1987) made one of the most influential attempts for explaining the politeness phenomena. Central in their theory is the evolution of the Goffman face into a politeness theory. Brown and Levinson based on the idea that politeness represents an attempt of threat minimization on the hearer's face. They identify two types of face, which they claim to be universal: positive face and negative face. A person's positive face implies the person's desires to be liked, appreciated and approved by the other members of the community,

whereas the negative face refers to the “basic claims to territories, personal preservers, rights to non-distraction, i.e., freedom of action and freedom from imposition” (Brown and Levinson, 1987:61). They propose the following strategies for minimizing the threat to the hearer’s face: Bald-on-Record, Negative Politeness, Positive Politeness and Off-Record. Bald-on-Record usually means using no effort to minimize the threat on the hearer’s face; it is more oriented toward maximizing the efficiency rather than saving hearer’s face wants. Positive Politeness strategies are directed toward the positive face of the hearer, which indicates that hearer’s wants and desires are liked or appreciated by the speaker. On the other hand, the Negative Politeness strategies attend to the hearer’s negative face by not intruding into the hearer’s freedom of action, or space. Off-record strategies imply face threat minimization which is achieved by means of using hints and metaphors. In addition, Brown and Levinson propose three universal social variables that affect the seriousness of the FTA, such as: social distance (D), Power (P), Ranking (R).

Scollon and Scollon (2001) try to simplify Brown and Levinson’s theory of face by treating it as a paradoxical unit consisted of two sides: involvement and independence, which must be projected simultaneously in any interaction. Scollon and Scollon propose three face relationships that are crucial during face negotiation: deference (-P, +D), solidarity (-P, -D) and hierarchy (+P, +D). Deference politeness system is one in which interlocutors treat each other with respect, while not being close to one another, e.g. colleagues who do not know each other well. Solidarity politeness is a system that has a high degree of involvement strategies which are present in close friend conversations. Hierarchy is the only asymmetrical system where interlocutors recognize the differences in social aspect, and thus use different face strategies; the ‘higher’ status interlocutor uses involvement face strategies, and the ‘lower’ uses independence face strategies.

Based on the discussion above, I intend to use Brown and Levinson’s politeness framework and theory of face, as revised by Scollon and Scollon (2001). Following Scollon and Scollon, during the interaction we negotiate ‘face’ by showing involvement and independence, projected simultaneously in all interactions. Consequently, Interlocutors have to carefully phrase the communication, in a way that shows the right degree of involvement and independence. If failing to find this equilibrium, the speaker is likely to be labeled as being rude, offensive or impolite. Since the aim of this study is to analyze refusals in two different cultures, in both symmetric (- Power) and asymmetric (+Power) social situations, I will adopt Scollon and Scollon (2001) face system of interaction. For the purpose of this investigation, the three face systems will be tested: hierarchical (+Power, +Distance) and deference (-Power, +Distance) and solidarity (-Power, -Distance). The reason why this model of analyses was chosen lies on the opportunity that it offers to analyze both aspects of face in two different languages, as well as determine which of the two aspects of face, involvement or independence, will predominate in the Albanian and English culture.

Research methodologies in cross-cultural speech act studies

Over the last decades, an extensive number of research studies focus on the reliability and validity of different data collection methods used in cross-cultural pragmatics research.

One of the most widely used data collection methods in the field of speech act study is the Discourse Completion Test (henceforth DCT). Since the very first use of DCT in the Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989), the DCT constitutes one of the main elicitation tools for conducting empirical studies in the field of cross cultural and interlanguage pragmatics (Blum-Kulka and Olshain, 1984; Beebe Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz, 1990; Al-Issa, 1998; Nguyen, 2006; Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford 1993; Al-Shalawi, 1997; Woodfield and Economidou–Kogetsidis, 2010, to mention but a few). The DCT collection procedure consists of “scripted dialogs that represent socially differentiated situation. Each dialog is preceded by a short description of the situation, specifying the setting, and the social distance between the participants and their status relative to each other, followed by an incomplete dialog” (Blum-Kulka et al. 1989, p. 13-14). This means of data collection has been greatly criticized as not being the closest representation of natural spontaneous speech.

A step forward regarding the reliability and validity of the speech act data was made with the introduction of the role play method. Felix-Brasdefer (2008) argues that although role play data do not provide real life occurrences of the speech act, they are still worth implementing because of the following reasons: 1) it enables the researcher to obtain complete conversational interaction, that is, data include openings and closings of conversations; 2) it allows the researcher to exert some degree of control over the conversation; and, 3) it reflects a consciousness of the appropriateness of language use (Scarella, 1979 as cited in Felix-Brasdefer, 2008).

It is unanimously accepted that the most reliable and valid data collection method in the field of pragmatics and cross cultural studies is the observation of naturally occurring speech with the use of audio-recording, video -recording and field notes. Following Wolfson and Manes (1980) the best way to collect natural speech acts samples is the spontaneous speech where none of the respondents are aware of being recorded or studied. However, the collection of such data poses some serious problems in terms of its administration. Firstly, the researcher does not have the control over the social variables such as age, gender, status, power, rank, education level, ethnic group etc. Secondly, it is very difficult to gain access to sufficient tokens of the speech act for the purpose of the study; usually these studies are very time-consuming. Thirdly, these results are not reliable for cross cultural contrastive studies since it is quite difficult to observe similar utterances in two different languages, (Felix-Brasdefer, 2008).

Identification of a research gap and relevance of the proposal

This proposal is relevant to the interlanguage pragmatics as well as English and Albanian language because it is the first study to compare and contrast the realization patterns of refusals in these two languages. Also, during my research I noticed a research gap in terms of the Albanian linguistic politeness system. This study will provide the first Albanian speech act politeness data upon which further investigations can be carried on. Furthermore, being a Skills lecturer at the South East European University (SEEU), this study will help me as a researcher and lecturer to identify Albanians' EFL pragma-linguistic and socio-pragmatic gaps, and thus help students bridge these differences by avoiding any unintended offence or communication breakdown. Moreover, L2 lecturers can benefit from the findings

when preparing metapragmatic assessment activities dealing with the realization of refusals in the target language as well as making correct pragmatic choices (Mirzaei et.al. 2012). In addition, this study will help EFL teachers identify students' flaws and design appropriate course syllabi with a focus on raising socio-cultural awareness and enhance cross-cultural understanding.

Regarding the significance of the methodology of data collection, this study will contribute greatly to the current intercultural study of refusals. Up to now, most of the refusal interlanguage speech act studies have mainly relied on the DCT (Blum-Kulka and Olshain, 1984; Beebe Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz, 1990; Al-Issa, 1998; Nguyen, 2006; Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford 1993; Al-Shalawi, 1997; Woodfield and Economidou –Kogetsidis, 2010, etc), role plays (Gass and Houck, 1999; Garcia 1992, etc), naturally occurring data (Bardovi-Harling and Hartford, 1991; Hussein, 1995; Thurnbull and Saxton, 1997) or double elicitation method like: DCT vs. role play (Margalef-Boada, 1993; Kodama, 1996), DCT vs. natural occurring data (Hartford and Bardovi-Harling, 1992; Beebe and Cummings, 1996).

To my present knowledge, no intercultural refusal study has solely relied on natural occurring and role-plays as data collection instruments. Apart from Turnbull (2001), who compared all five different elicitation methods of refusal (DCT - oral and written, role-play, experimental method, naturally occurring speech) in only two face systems, deference and hierarchy, no other attempt is known to the researcher to have conducted a study of this nature. Thus, the present study will be the first to fully concentrate on these two elicitation methods, and compare the results yielded by them. Thus, this study will have a pioneering merit in filling the gap of Albanian-English refusal speech act study, as well as make an important contribution to the field of multi-method approach in Interlanguage pragmatics.

The aim of the research

The aims of my research are several. First of all, I intend to investigate the refusal realization patterns of native Albanian and native English refusals, and identify the similarities and differences. Secondly, I aim to examine the extent of negative pragmatic transfer when refusal speech acts are realized by EFL Albanian students. And thirdly, make a comparative analysis of the results yielded by natural occurring situations and role plays. The inspiration for this study arose from my 11 year teaching experience at SEEU, where little or no attention is paid to the pragmatically correct realization of English speech acts, i.e. refusals. As a result we have students that lack explicit instruction on the correct sociocultural and pragmatic norms of refusing in the target language.

The research questions I intend to answer through this investigation are the following:

1. What are the differences and similarities in the realization patterns of refusal speech acts between native Albanians and native American English Speakers in terms of directness, frequency, content and distribution of refusal strategies?
2. What is the extent of negative pragmatic transfer from Albanian when Albanian EFL students realize the speech act of refusal?
3. What is the extent to which experimental refusal data approximate role play data in terms of frequency, degree of directness and content?

Research Methodology

Regarding the means of data collection, I intend to employ two elicitation methods, naturally occurring data and enhanced open-ended role plays. The reason behind such choice is the following: it is mentioned in the interlanguage pragmatics that double elicitation method is a more reliable elicitation approach, and gives a deeper insight into the speech act process (Economiodou-Kogetsidis, 2013, Al-Shboul et al., 2012, Kasper and Rose, 2002). Also, as Rose and Ono (1995, cited in Al-Shboul et al. 2012) state “we should not expect a single data source to provide all the necessary insights into speech act usage” (p.207). Moreover, as Al-Gahtani and Al-Shatter (2012) state, naturally occurring data is the most effective data collection procedure when we focus on how pragmatic features are employed, a fact this corresponding with our primary goal of the study. However, role plays outweigh natural data when the focus of the research is on pragmatic development, a fact that helps us analyze the Albanian EFL responses. As a result, by employing double elicitation methods we will get the best representative data for answering the first and second research question, while the comparison of these results will help us answer the third research question.

Setting

Both natural occurring data and role play data will be collected from students, (aged 18-25) studying at SEEU, Macedonia, and Indiana University (IU) in Bloomington, US.

The process of data collection

The natural occurring data collection will be conducted following a modified version of Turnbull's (2001) experimental approach to data collection. The procedure to be employed is the following: an announcement for a two week summer school (at SEEU campus and US, respectively) will be distributed by subject professors' to three target groups, native Albanians, Albanian EFL and Native Americans. In the announcement there will also be a call for a number of volunteers to help with the technical part of the organization. Interested candidates will be asked to provide their phone numbers, later on to be contacted by the responsible person. Once a sufficient number of applicants are registered, a research assistant will call and record the conversation. Since our focus is on refusal data, unfavorable working conditions will be offered, in order to raise the probability for refusal elicitation. The working conditions mentioned may include: long working hours, night shifts, extensive administrative work etc.

In order to collect the data in all three face systems, solidarity, deference and hierarchy the following procedure is planned to be followed. The manipulation of status will be achieved by the introduction that the research assistant makes when establishing the first contact, e.g. “Hello, my name XY and I am full professor at SEEU/ IU” for the deference face system, and “Hello, my name is XY and I am a university student who is helping out with the Summer school preparations” for the deference face system. Regarding the solidarity face system, different scenery is planned. Selected students from the existing pool will be asked to call a friend and ask him/her to help the caller write down a paper. In order to increase the probability for refusal elicitation unreasonable requests and conditions would be

mentioned, e.g. short deadline, too many words, unfamiliar topic etc.

The advantage of this method, concerning the deference and hierarchy face system, as Turnbull (2001) states, is the developed interaction which can be considered as natural speech, since respondents will be expecting the call, and thus not be aware of the fact that their talk is being recorded. On the other side, the researcher has control over the situation and can react accordingly. Once the conversation ends, the applicants will be informed about the reason behind this call, and permission for using the data will be asked.

Natural occurring data will consist of 25 EFL Albanian students studying at the SEEU in Tetovo, Macedonia. Also, there will be 25 SEEU Albanian students providing the native Albanian data, and 25 American students who will provide the native English data.

Regarding the enhanced open-ended role play data, 20 situations mirroring the exact circumstances of the experiment will be created and role played. This methodology is successfully applied by Felix-Brasdefer (2002) and he proves the fact that content –enriched role play scenarios result in more elaborate and rich speech act data.

Data Analyses

The data collected in this study will be coded according to a classification scheme proposed by Beebe et al. (1990, see appendix A below) and analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively.

The quantitative analyses will consist of frequency counts of realized refusal strategies per individual and methods. Rankings of the strategies used in terms of frequency will be provided. A T-test will be applied to denote if means of different groups are statistically different. Results will be presented and calculated through descriptive statistics in percentages.

The qualitative analyses in this study will be made with respect to the preference for refusal strategies that comprise the whole speech act set of refusals (direct, indirect and adjunct to refusals), as well as expressions used to internally mitigate the illocutionary force of the refusal head act (mental state predicates, modal adverbs, degree modifiers and tag questions). In addition, the content of semantic formulas of *excuses* and *reasons* will also be analyzed to shed light to the cultural and pragmatic differences that exist between these two culturally and linguistically different languages. Evidence of pragmatic transfer will be searched and analyzed at all levels of before mentioned analyses.

Expected results

Firstly, this study is expected to shed light on the differences of realization patterns of refusals between Native Albanian and Native American English users. Since this study represents the first scientific attempt to discover discrepancies between these two languages, the findings and results will be of a vast importance for the future research to be built on. Moreover, in a pilot project conducted in Macedonia, Mustafa (2014) concluded that Albanians are more direct than American English speakers in all three situations: high, equal and low status person. Following these results, a degree of pragmatic transfer from Albanian to English is expected to occur. Regarding the comparative analyses of data collection methodology, natural

occurring data are expected to be more various and direct than role plays, and thus, better representatives of refusal realization strategies.

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Appendix A**Beebe et al. (1990) taxonomy of refusal strategies****Direct**

- Performative (e. g., 'I refuse')
- Nonperformative statement
- 1. 'No'
- 2. Negative willingness/ability ('I can't', 'I don't think so')

Indirect

- Statement of regret (e. g., 'I'm sorry ...', 'I feel terrible ...')
- Wish (e. g., 'I wish I could help you ...')
- Excuse, reason, explanation (e. g., 'My children will be home that night'; 'I have a headache')
- Statement of alternative
- 1. I can do X instead of Y (e. g., 'I'd rather ...', 'I'd prefer ...')
- 2. Why don't you do X instead of Y (e. g., 'Why don't you ask someone else?')
- Set conditions for future or past acceptance (e. g., 'If you had asked me earlier, I would have ...')
- Promise of future acceptance (e. g., 'I'll do it next time', 'I promise I'll ...', or 'Next time I'll ...'__using 'will' or promise or 'promise')
- Statement of principle (e. g., 'I never do business with friends')
- Statement of philosophy (e. g., 'One can't be too careful')
- Attempt to dissuade interlocutor
- 1. Threat or statement of negative consequences to the requester (e. g., 'I won't be any fun tonight' to refuse an invitation)
- 2. Guilt trip (e. g., waitress to customers who want to sit a while: 'I can't make a living off people who just order coffee')
- 3. Criticize the request/requester, etc. (statement of negative feeling or opinion); insult/attack (e. g., 'Who do you think you are?' 'That's a terrible idea!')
- 4. Request for help, empathy, and assistance by dropping or holding the request.
- 5. Let interlocutor off the hook (e. g., 'Don't worry about it', 'That's okay', 'You don't have to')
- 6. Self-defense (e. g., 'I'm trying my best', 'I'm doing all I can do')
- Acceptance that functions as a refusal
- 1. Unspecific or indefinite reply
- 2. Lack of enthusiasm
- Avoidance
- 1. Nonverbal
- a. Silence
- b. Hesitation
- c. Do nothing
- d. Physical departure
- 2. Verbal
- a. Topic switch
- b. Joke
- c. Repetition of part of request, etc. (e. g., 'Monday?')

- d. Postponement (e. g., 'I'll think about it')
- e. Hedging (e. g., 'Gee, I don't know', 'I'm not sure')

Adjuncts to refusals

1. Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement (e. g., 'That's a good idea ...'; 'I'd love to ...')
2. Statement of empathy (e. g., 'I realize you are in a difficult situation')
3. Pause fillers (e. g., 'uhh', 'well', 'oh', 'uhm')
4. Gratitude/appreciation

BUSINESS NAMING PRACTICES IN TURKEY: THE FOREIGN EFFECT

EMRAH GÖRGÜLÜ

Abstract

This paper investigates the ongoing influence of foreign lexical elements and Englishization on business naming practices in Turkey. It is argued that the impact of foreignization and the English language on Turkish business naming continues to increase and manifests itself in various creative ways. The effect of foreignization and English on the Turkish business context, especially shop-naming, was widely discussed in previous work. The consensus seems to be that non-Turkish elements used in shop-naming could be classified into three major categories: (i) foreign signs which could either be English or non-English, (ii) hybrid signs that include a combination of elements from Turkish and a foreign language and (iii) Englishized Turkish signs which are artificially created signs that use English orthography. I show in this paper that in addition to the existing practices employed, there is a recent novel business naming practice in the country. This new strategy, which I call consonant doubling in this work, copies the consonant in the middle of the word and is sometimes accompanied by an English functional element. Interestingly, this new strategy has some important linguistic consequences since it changes both the syllable structure and the pronunciation of the word it applies to. Further research will reveal whether the process will have certain long-term effects on the language.

1. Introduction

This paper is concerned with the ever-increasing influence of foreign words, specifically English lexical items, on Turkish business naming practices. It is well-attested that business naming across the world is widely influenced by the English language (cf. Haarman 1984, Ross 1997, *inter alia*). In this paper, I argue that foreignization and Englishization also have a big effect on Turkish business naming practices and manifests itself in various innovative ways. The effect of the English language on Turkish business discourse, especially on different types of shop-naming practices, was discussed at length in recent work. For instance, Selvi (2007, 2011) notes that shop-naming practices could be classified into three major categories in the country. The first category contains foreign signs such as 'Auto City' (a car dealer) and 'Café des Cafés' (a restaurant) which could be either English or in another language. The second category includes hybrid signs like 'Happy Hamile' (a store selling clothes for pregnant women) with a combination of Turkish and non-Turkish words. The third category, on the other hand, contains Englishized Turkish signs which are artificially created signs such as 'Chilek' (representing the Turkish letter 'ç' using the English spelling convention 'ch') and 'Dishy' (representing the Turkish letters 'ş' and 'i' using the English spelling conventions 'sh' and 'y' respectively). Basically, these signs make use of English orthography to represent Turkish phonology. In this paper I argue that in addition to these existing business naming practices, there is a new strategy that uses consonant doubling, creating

another consonant sound in the middle of the word. In addition, this new word sometimes appears with an English word. The new practice can be classified into a new fourth category discussed above and has some significant repercussions in terms of the phonology of Turkish. This is due to the fact that consonant doubling leads to a change in the syllable structure and the pronunciation of the word, something which is not observed in the other categories. These changes bring to mind the question of whether consonant doubling would have a long-term effect on the Turkish language in terms of language change and language variation, a question that needs to be further addressed.

The structure of this paper is as follows: in Chapter 2 I give a broad, chronological overview of previous studies on the use of English in shop-naming practices across the world. This chapter also includes an outline of earlier work on the influence of English on business naming in Turkey. In Chapter 3 I introduce a new set of data and show the new way of business naming practice that is becoming more and more widespread in the country. The term adopted to identify the new strategy is consonant doubling since it basically targets consonant sounds in the middle of the word which may or may not appear with an English element. It is also shown in this chapter that the new practice has certain repercussions in terms of Turkish phonology since this strategy has some effect on the pronunciation of these words. Chapter 4 briefly concludes the paper and provides some suggestions for future work.

2. Previous Work on English Business Naming

2.1 Business naming in the world

The use of the English language in business naming in non-English speaking countries across the world is not a new phenomenon. The investigation of the English shop-naming practices in these countries goes back as far as Haarman (1984) and Thonus (1991). The questions that are generally addressed in these studies are how and why English is widely used in business names in countries in which English is spoken as a foreign language. For instance, Thonus, in her seminal work, investigates the influence of English on business naming in a number of cities in Brazil. Following Kachru (1982: 6), she refers to the phenomenon as Englishization and argues that there are basically two major types of strategies observed in the Brazilian context: (i) a sophisticated use of English constructed upon conscious and meticulous selections of words such as 'Hotdog' for a pet store, and (ii) a choice free from the context in which business names are used, for example 'Stroke' for a fashion store. One of the conclusions Thonus draws is that the underlying reason for using English signs is to attract average Brazilian customers and sell the product, as well as the service which is "different and worthwhile" (1991: 73). In that sense using English could be thought of as a smart strategy for a business owner to stand out amongst others and draw more customers to the store.

In a similar study, Ross (1997) looks into the business naming practices in Italy. Ross is mainly concerned with the possible reasons for the widespread use of English shop signs in the Italian business context. He argues that using English in shop-naming cannot be due to the instrumental value of English. That is to say, even though a city like Milan is a major tourist attraction in Italy, its popularity cannot be compared to that of other cities such as Florence and Rome. Thus Ross

maintains that English signs cannot possibly serve as a facilitating tool for non-Italian speaking people visiting the city. Instead, Ross proposes that the [simple reason for most of these shop signs [in Milan] is that English is today seen as an attractive and fashionable language. An English name lends an aura of chic prestige to a business, suggesting that it is part of the international scene, following the latest trends, up-to-date with the newest ideas] (1997: 31). Ross concludes that Englishization of shop signs in Milan is just another way of exhibiting appreciation of the lifestyle and values associated with the American culture which is considered to be a sign of prestige, style and modernity by many people.

McArthur's (2000) study is somewhat different in that he investigates the use of English in shop-naming in multilingual environments such as Zurich in Switzerland and Uppsala in Sweden. The study focuses on certain locations in the downtown areas of the two cities. McArthur's findings show that out of thirty-one store signs in Zurich, four businesses use English-only signs. This is followed by seven English-German signs and two English-French signs. McArthur takes these results as an indication of a significant inclination towards English in the Swiss context despite the low number of English-only business names in the city. On the other hand, when we consider the Swedish case, we see that it exhibits remarkable similarities to the previous one. The results show that the use of English in business naming includes twenty-two English-only signs, eight English-Swedish signs and one English-French sign. In addition, the findings indicate a number of multilingual signs including two trilingual signs containing English and three quadrilingual signs including English. This study is considered to be an important one in terms of illustrating the dominance of English in shop-naming practices regardless of the language(s) it co-occurs with, whether it is German, French or Swedish. Another important conclusion to be drawn from this study is the reflection of the multilingual society on shop-naming with multiple languages on shop signs, one of them being English.

Another work on the Englishization of business names is reported in MacGregor (2003) who conducted a study on shop signs in Tokyo, Japan. MacGregor analyzed one hundred and twenty shop signs in an area close to downtown Tokyo. His initial hypothesis was that Japan is still a monolingual country and hence is free from the widespread influence of English. However, the study demonstrates that out of one hundred and twenty shop signs, thirty-one of them were English-only and twenty-nine constituted the English-Japanese hybrid signs. That is to say, nearly half of the signs analyzed was under the influence of English. It is also highlighted that the dominant store types with English-only shop signs were women's clothing stores (9 shops) and hairstylists (4 shops). These stores belong to the fashion industry which, in the Japanese society, is considered to be under the greatest influence of the western world (cf. Haarman 1984: 105).

Stewart and Fawcett (2004), on the other hand, investigate the use of foreign languages in six towns in the northwestern region of Portugal. Their study includes two hundred and seventy-one shop signs analyzed in six small Portuguese speaking towns. They found that even though shop signs in small towns in the country are predominantly monolingual, a total of twenty-seven signs are in English. They also report that two-thirds of the English shop names were labeled 'Snack Bar', even though they remain skeptical as to why this is the case. Other names they encountered include those such as 'Fashion and Style', 'Black-Gate Bar' and 'Handicraft's'.

More recently, Dimova (2008) investigates what she calls the pervasiveness and creativity of the English language in commercial nomenclature in Macedonia. Her analysis includes a big set of data containing over nine thousand entries from the online Macedonian Yellow Pages. Dimova reports that English names were significantly more likely to be found in Skopje, the capital city of Macedonia, than in all the other cities and businesses that adopted an English name are primarily in media, leisure or entertainment industries. Also, she notes that orthographic, formative, and semantic types of creativity were among those that were identified in the processes of transliteration, word/phrase formation. She concludes that the reason why English is the most dominant foreign language used in commercial names is due to its associations with globalization and modernity.

To summarize, the use of English in business naming practices is a well-studied phenomenon and is widespread around the world. One of the reasons for adopting a full or partial English business name over the local language is the fact that it is the representative of the western world and its status as an international language. Additionally, it is often associated with concepts such as quality and modernity, two important characteristics one would certainly look for in today's business world. In the next sub-section, I will shift the focus to a particular country, specifically Turkey, and provide a historical overview of the English business naming phenomenon, with particular attention to how and why English is used in business naming in the country.

2.2 Business naming in Turkey

The influence of English on the Turkish language, and Turkish culture in general, is not a new phenomenon. Recent research indicates that its origins can be traced back to the early 1950s (cf. Doğançay-Aktuna 1998). This coincides with the time when English began to replace French. Up until that time, French was the dominant foreign language in the final years of the Ottoman Empire and during the first three decades of the modern Turkish republic. Before the Second World War, French used to be taught at schools and was the language of business and diplomacy in the country. Beginning in the 1950s, English began to be taught in public schools as a foreign language. Additionally, international relations with the western world, especially with the United States, gained momentum since the US had then become the new military and economic power in the ever-changing world (cf. Doğançay-Aktuna 1998, Büyükkantarçioğlu 2004 and Selvi 2011). English still continues to be the most widely taught and spoken foreign language in Turkey today.

The earlier studies about the influence of English on business naming in Turkey go back as far as studies done in 1990s. Yaman (1990) and Üstünova (1996) were the first to investigate the English effect on the shop signs in the city of Ankara and Bursa respectively, while Alkibay (1996) looked into the adoption of non-Turkish words in business naming throughout Turkey.

In terms of variation in the methodology employed, one could cite Doğan (1999) since, in addition to conducting observations, he made use of different techniques while gathering data such as interviewing in his study. Doğan's data include a total of one hundred and five store signs both in Turkish and in different foreign languages. He reports that out of one hundred and five shop names, more than half (%51) had a foreign name, demonstrating a general tendency towards the

foreignization in shop naming. He notes that the important factors that contribute to business naming practices both in English and Turkish contain personal reasons (32%), commercial benefits (17%), ideological reasons (17%) and a sense of being different (15%). On the other hand, the business owners who adopted a foreign name for their business stated that it was because of being interesting (17%), a tendency to relate to the culture (15%), a preference for being different (9%), the suitability with the business (9%), being a brand name (9%), being impressive (8%), and a personal choice that is not their own (4%).

Gözaydın (2000)'s study investigates the store naming practice in a big shopping mall called Karum (meaning water front or harbor in the Assyrian language) in Ankara, the Turkish capital. Gözaydın's data included one hundred and eighty-eight shop names in Karum and his findings indicate that only thirty-eight stores (20%) have Turkish-only signs. On the other hand, the remaining one hundred and fifty stores had non-Turkish signs (94 stores) or foreign-Turkish hybrid signs (56 stores). Gözaydın notes that the reason for the high number of foreign names in that particular shopping mall is not because of the franchising of business places since they only account for 8% of the stores in the mall. The reason behind foreignization is accounted for by referring to the attitudes and perceptions of business owners attempting to impress their customers.

Aydoğan (2001) studies the widespread use of English in the business practices in the tourism industry. This is an interesting approach since tourism is generally thought of as an international industry. It is also one of the most significant areas to represent a country at the global level. Aydoğan's data includes three hundred and eighteen hotel names spread around Turkey. The results indicate that only thirty hotel names (9.5%) are in Turkish, whereas the remaining two hundred and eighty-eight hotels (91.5%) were in a foreign language such as 'The Holiday Resort Hotel' and 'Sugar Beach Hotel' or Turkish-foreign language hybrids like 'Maviköy Holiday Village' and 'Martı Lapezla'. Aydoğan takes these results as indicating the dominance of non-Turkish signs in the process of hotel naming in the country. He concludes that the balance of the language contact is getting worse since this creates a disadvantage for the Turkish language.

Demircan (2001), in his study, argues that due to the post-modern structure in the world, different power centers seek to establish relations with various countries in an attempt to increase their interests and benefits. Because of this, Turkey has become a big market for foreign products and services. Since their dissemination will be achieved through a world language, Turkish has also become a market of foreign words. Basically, Demircan's study includes a total of five hundred business places in different locations in İstanbul and his findings indicate that four hundred and forty-five of them have English words. He concludes that 27% of the businesses have chosen English names in an attempt to take advantage of public figures. Many of the names include those of singers, actors and TV shows. Additionally, 20% of the store owners stated that the products with English brand names are considered to be more prestigious by the customers. In other words, having a foreign name is considered to have privilege. In addition, 36% of business owners stated that they chose an English name because they find it commercially interesting, explaining why foreign branding is so much appreciated in the country.

More recently, Selvi (2007, 2011), in his work on business naming and the World Englishes in the Turkish sociolinguistic context, investigates the spread of English in the Turkish business discourse, namely business names and shop window displays. Selvi is mainly interested in the linguistic characteristics of business naming using non-Turkish elements. He argues that it is possible to group the practice of shop-naming in Turkey into three major linguistic categories (Selvi 2011: 190-191). These three categories could be classified as:

(i) Foreign signs: Business places that employ non-Turkish lexical items. This category could be further divided into two sub-categories as English and non-English business signs.

a. Non-English signs: Business places that have non-English lexical items in their names. Some representative examples would be *Café des Café* (café), *Pittoresque* (jewelry store), *Ares* (hair stylist) and *Monami* (tailor).

b. English signs: Business places that have only English lexical items in their names. *One Way Car Wash* (car wash), *Datasoft* (information technologies), *Blue Way* (shoe store), and *Free Style* (clothing store) are such examples.

(ii). Hybrid signs: Business places that use lexical items both from Turkish and a foreign language. Examples include *Happy Hamile* (meaning 'Happy Pregnant', a clothing store for pregnant women), *Ankara Home Center* (department store), *Cep Land* (meaning 'Pocket Land', a mobile phone store).

(iii). 'Englishized' Turkish signs: These include business places that employ artificially created signs that make use of English orthography to represent Turkish phonology. That is to say, these signs do not in fact correspond to Turkish orthographic conventions. Therefore, they would appear to be meaningless to those who are not familiar with the English spelling system. Some examples of this category include the furniture store *Chilek* (representation of Turkish *çilek* by the English orthographic convention 'ch', 'çilek' meaning strawberry in Turkish). Another example would be the women's clothing store *Dishy* (representation of Turkish letter 'ş' by English orthographic convention of 'sh', and of Turkish 'i' by English 'y', 'dişi' meaning female).

Selvi notes that even though the shop signs in the last category are less dominant in business naming, their existence should be taken as a clear demonstration of the deep penetration of the English language into the Turkish business discourse. He also notes that the inescapable spread of English in the Turkish social life has caused a huge public debate with regards to the current status of the Turkish language in the country. It is also not surprising that the business naming phenomenon is in the center of these lively discussions. In other words, the Englishization of Turkish shop signs is considered to be a good representative of the debilitating consequences of foreignization of the Turkish language, culture, and social structure.

As can be seen from the discussion above, foreignization in the form of Englishization as well as the use of words from other foreign languages in the business naming practices is widespread in Turkey. It was shown that the process manifests itself in different ways and for various reasons. However, it should also be noted that the linguistic categorization that Selvi provides is not the only way to employ foreignization and Englishization in shop naming. The use of English in Turkish business discourse is still an ongoing process and surfaces in various new and creative ways. In the next section, I will introduce a novel form of foreignization and Englishization in the business naming practices in the country.

3. Foreignization and Englishization: A New Hybrid Form

As noted above, there seems to be a growing tendency among Turkish business owners in recent years to use what is referred to as foreign or Englishized Turkish signs in the practice of business naming in Turkey. This new strategy manifests itself in various ways mostly because businesses often seek new ways to stand out among their competitors and draw more attention to their places in an attempt to look different and attract more customers. That is why new creative forms are discovered frequently and sometimes used along with the existing ones. Among these, there is a particular one which is somewhat different from those described in the previous section. Specifically, the new practice is used for the purpose making the store name look less Turkish and more foreign or English-like. Basically, it applies to original or naturalized Turkish words and adds an extra consonant in the middle of the word. This new word sometimes co-occurs with an English word in an attempt to make it look even more foreign. The use of a similar form was first reported in Üstünova et al. (2010: 1396) and was described as one of those attempts to change the shape of both original Turkish words and borrowed words by “tempering with” letters. Üstünova and colleagues’ data include business names in which Turkish letters were replaced by letters that represent the English orthography and punctuation, as shown in (1a), (1b) and (1c) below.

- (1) a. Ali > Aly, Saatçi > Saatchi
 b. Cemali’s, Aly’s, Kuzu’s
 c. Gece > Gecce, Oda > Odda

The examples in (1a) show the fact that the English spelling conventions are replacing their Turkish counterparts in business naming. Similarly, in (1b) we see an instance in which the English possessive construction is applied to Turkish at the cost of losing the genitive-possessive construction proper in the language. On the other hand, (1c) is an example where the original word is changed by adding an extra letter in the middle of the word. As noted above, Üstünova and colleagues take this as an attempt to change the shape of Turkish words by making various modifications. However, as I will show in the next section, this practice seems to have more significant linguistic repercussions and has become one of the most common ways of creating business names in the country.

Note that the data collection process for this study started as a mere observation. However, following Dimova (2008), several online yellow pages containing substantial lists of different types of businesses in Turkey were referred to in order to have a more thorough research and a more systematic and careful data collection process. Table 1 below illustrates the preliminary data.

Table 1: Consonant doubling & Englishization in Turkish business naming

	Turkish word	Business name	Business type	Location
1	Kasap (butcher)	Kassap	Butcher's	İstanbul
2	Makas (scissors)	Makkas	Hair stylist	İstanbul
3	Oda (room)	Odda	Hotel	İstanbul
4	Elmas (diamond)	Ellmas	Tailor's	İstanbul

5	Meze (appetizer)	Chef Mezze	Restaurant	İstanbul
6	Pabuç (shoe)	Pabbuç	Shoe shop	İstanbul
7	Dürüm (wrap)	Ye Dürüm	Restaurant	İstanbul
8	Askı (hanger)	Asskı	Clothing store	İstanbul
9	Hamam (Turkish bath)	Hammam	Restaurant	İstanbul
10	Şeker (sugar)	Şekker Home	Fabric store	İstanbul
11	Bebek (baby)	My Bebbek	Kids store	İstanbul
12	Tava (pan)	Tavva	Restaurant	İstanbul
13	Aşk (love)	Aşşk Kahve	Coffee shop	İstanbul
14	Karga (crow)	Karrga	Advertising agency	İstanbul
15	Durak (bus stop)	Durrak	Coffee shop	İstanbul
16	Pastacı (Cake maker)	Passtacı	Coffee shop	İstanbul
17	Misket (marble)	Missket	Restaurant	İstanbul
18	Simit (bagel)	Simmit	Pastry shop	Ankara
19	Kebab (kebab)	Kebbap	Restaurant	Ankara
20	Elma (apple)	Ellma	Advertising agency	Ankara
21	Tabak (plate)	Tabbak	Restaurant	Ankara
22	Kahve (coffee)	Çakıl Kahve	Coffee shop	İzmir
23	Köfte (meatball)	Köfte'CM	Restaurant	İzmir
24	Bahçe (garden)	Bahhçe	Wedding Hall	İzmir
25	Börek (pastry)	My Börrek	Pastry shop	İzmir
26	Gece (night)	Gecce	Women's clothes seller	Bursa
27	Moda (fashion)	Modda	Furniture store	Bursa
28	Lokma (morsel)	Lokkma	Restaurant	Antalya
29	Pide (Flat bread)	Pidde	Restaurant	Konya
30	Keyif (joy)	Keyyif	Coffee shop	Çanakkale
31	Biber (pepper)	The Bibber	Restaurant	Sakarya
32	Fırın (oven)	Pazar	Fırın Patisserie	Manisa
33	Sofra (table)	Keyf-i Soffra	Restaurant	Muğla
34	Mutfak (kitchen)	Mutfak	Restaurant	Bilecik
35	Bukle (lock)	Bukkle	Online jewelry store	N/A
36	Defter (notebook)	Deffter	Online notebook store	N/A
37	Saksı (pot)	Sakksı	Online planting store	N/A
38	Kitap (book)	E-Kittap	Online bookstore	N/A
39	Hizmet (service)	Hizzmet	Online service provider	N/A
40	Sepet (basket)	Seppet	Online shopping center	N/A
41	Zincir (chain)	Zinncir	Online employment website	N/A

As noted above, this new strategy takes a Turkish word and has the effect of doubling the consonant sound in the middle of it. Moreover, the newly created word is sometimes accompanied by an English word preceding or following it. In that sense, it could be construed as a hybrid strategy and a subtle way to make the new word look less Turkish and more like a foreign or English word. Table 1 illustrates a sample of the forty-one business names that adopted the strategy. More specifically, the first column shows the original Turkish word along with its meaning in English. The second column, on the other hand, illustrates business names with consonant doubling and Englishization applied to the word. The third and fourth columns show the type of the businesses and their geographical location respectively. However, it should be noted that since this is still an ongoing research, the data presented in Table 1 is by no means an exhaustive list containing each and every business in Turkey that adopted the strategy in business naming. Nevertheless, it is still a sufficient amount of data representing the phenomenon in the country. In the next sub-section, I will have a closer look at the specifics of the data and analyze it in some detail.

3.1 Analysis of the Data

First of all, the data illustrates the fact that businesses related to food and gastronomy outnumber other types of businesses. This category contains restaurants (13 stores), coffee shops (5 stores), patisserie/pastry shops (3 stores) and a butcher shop (1 store). However, a closer look at the data will also reveal the fact that different types of businesses in various industries have adopted the strategy. Among others, one could name businesses as diverse as clothing stores (2 shops), advertising agencies (2 stores), one furniture store, one fabric store, one shoe shop, one kids' store, one wedding hall, one hotel, one tailor and one hair stylist. Moreover, the data show that the strategy is also used in online business naming, with seven websites doing various kinds of businesses. This clearly indicates that the use of consonant doubling and Englishization is not something that is employed by only certain business types.

Another important fact that can be observed by looking at the data is that the majority of the businesses that adopted the strategy is located in metropolitan Turkish cities such as İstanbul, Ankara, İzmir and Bursa. However, it also shows that using the new strategy is spreading to smaller Anatolian cities (cities on the Asian side of Turkey) including Antalya, Konya, Manisa, Muğla, Bilecik, Sakarya and Çanakkale, even though the number of the businesses that adopted the strategy currently constitutes the minority. Therefore, one could say that the practice is not just limited to big industrial cities anymore, but rather is becoming more common in other less populated areas of the country too.

In addition to the facts about various business types that have adopted the strategy and their geographic location, Table 1 also illustrates some interesting linguistic facts. It should be noted that Turkish is a strictly CV(C) language. It is clear from the data that consonant doubling applies primarily to two-syllable words as the data above include only one instance of consonant doubling applied to a one-syllable word. This, however, does not mean that it would never apply to more one-syllable words or to any multi-syllable words in the language. As far as the phonology of the word is concerned, if the first syllable is a closed syllable (a syllable

that ends in a consonant), it is always the consonant of that syllable that undergoes consonant doubling. In other words, the consonant of the second syllable never goes through the process. Consider the data in (2) below.

- (2) a. bah-çe → bahh-çe
 b. köf-te → köff-te
 c. sak-sı → sakk-sı

The examples in (2) illustrate the process of consonant doubling in the first syllable of the word. It should also be noted that since there are now two consonants in the coda position of the first syllable, the way the word is articulated has undergone some change as well. More specifically, Turkish, unlike English, distinguishes between short and long consonants. This means that if there are two adjacent consonants in a word, both of them need to be articulated. Thus the outcome of consonant doubling is two adjacent consonants in the middle of the word. The word needs to be pronounced differently as the coda position of the first syllable contains two consonants and it would take longer to articulate both.

Conversely, if the first syllable of the word is an open syllable (a syllable that ends in a vowel), the consonant that is doubled is naturally the one in the second syllable, as illustrated in (3).

- (3) a. ta-bak → tab-bak
 b. ki-tap → kit-tap
 c. dü-rüm → dür-rüm

This process seems to be even more interesting since it derives a closed syllable out of an open one, as shown in (3a-c). The newly created consonant occurs in the coda position of the first syllable. Similar to the case in (2) above, it changes the pronunciation of the word, as shown in (4).

- (4) a. ta-bak [t^habak] → tab-bak [t^habbak]
 b. ki-tap [k^hıtap] → kit-tap [k^hıttap]
 c. dü-rüm [dyrym] → dür-rüm [dyrrym]

The examples in (4a) and (4b) show that geminate consonants in Turkish derived by consonant doubling need to be pronounced separately, as shown in (4a) and (4b). Since the process changes the structure of the syllable, its phonological effect is even more noticeable. The data in (2) and (4), therefore, illustrate the fact that the process changes both the spelling and the pronunciation of the word it applies to.

In addition to the consonant doubling process, there is sometimes a process of Englishization where the newly created word is accompanied by an English lexical item. The data include a number of examples such as ‘Şekker Home’, ‘My Bebbek’, ‘Chef Mezze’ and ‘The Bibber’. The presence of such examples clearly indicates the Englishization process in the Turkish business context.

In summary, just like the use of multiple languages in shop-naming practices in some countries such as Switzerland, there are multiple ways of shop-naming

practices in countries like Turkey. It was demonstrated that there is a new and creative way of business naming that is being employed by businesses in recent years. The new practice is called consonant doubling, which is basically a process that targets single consonants in the middle of word and creates another consonant adjacent to them. The new word sometimes appear with an English word, thus making the process a hybrid one. The output then is a business sign that looks less Turkish and more foreign or English. It was also noted that the process has some important phonological repercussions in the sense that it derives a closed syllable out of an open one. Also, the pronunciation of the word changes because of the presence of two adjacent consonants in the middle of the word. Further research will reveal whether such processes as consonant doubling will have a long-term impact on the phonology of Turkish in general.

4. Conclusion

In this paper I demonstrated that the practice of foreignization and Englishization in the business naming process is still ongoing and manifests itself in various new and creative forms in Turkey. The term coined to identify this new procedure is consonant doubling since it targets consonants in the middle of a word and creates another one. An English word sometimes co-occurs with the newly created word. The reason for employing non-Turkish signs, especially those in English, is probably because it evokes the sense of being interesting, different, and perhaps more appealing. Therefore, business naming is not just the practice of borrowing foreign words from other languages but rather adapting Turkish words to English spelling and orthography. More importantly, it was noted that this particular strategy has significant phonological consequences in that it converts short consonants into long ones. It also creates a closed syllable out of an open one.

The practice of consonant doubling and the presence of English words is a good example to illustrate the extent to which the influence of foreign elements and the English language itself impacts Turkish. An area of inquiry to pursue further would be to investigate the consonant doubling strategy in other environments such as at the beginning or at end of the word. Such practices already exist and a representative example would be 'çuval', a clothing store in İstanbul, which derived from the word 'çuval' (sack). It seems reasonable, if not necessary, to see if this practice is also becoming widespread in business naming throughout Turkey. Moreover, it is equally important to do a similar study concerning the use of Englishization in product naming in Turkey to see if the process is spreading to other practices of naming. Lastly, the question of whether consonant doubling would have a broader effect on Turkish in the long run remains to be investigated. Further research will shed more light on these issues.

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PHONOLOGICAL PROCESSES OF NORTH OF KHUZESTAN LANGUAGE VARIETIES AND STANDARD PERSIAN: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

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Abstract

From a linguistic point of view, Iran is an extremely diverse country (Lewis 2009). With the penetration of Persian language education and media, many of the smaller languages of Iran are now threatened with extinction (UNESCO 2013). Moreover, population displacement due to the Iran-Iraq war in Khuzestan, located in the south-west of Iran, has also threatened these language varieties. All these factors reduce the number of speakers of local dialects. Therefore, it is necessary to study and preserve them. The aim of this paper is to study the phonological processes of language varieties in the north of Khuzestan and to compare them with those of the standard Persian dialect in the framework of generative phonology which owes much to the work of Chomsky and Halle (1968). Required data were collected through interviews with more than 40 literate and illiterate male and female participants, the majority of whom were middle-aged (40-70). The data were transcribed based on the IPA and analyzed descriptively. The phonological processes studied here are consonantal processes such as: assimilation, dissimilation, lenition, elision, metathesis and neutralization. All the studied phonological processes in this paper try to access easy and acceptable syllabic and lexical structures in the phonotactics of these language varieties. Among them is the simplification of double-consonant clusters through elision and assimilation. Some of these phonological processes are not present in the standard Persian dialect. Lenition and elision are the most frequent ones. In these language varieties, lenition is seen as approximantization and spirantized processes.

Keywords: phonological processes, Khuzestan, language varieties, Standard Persian, lenition, elision

1. Introduction

This study investigates some consonant phonological processes of language varieties in the North of Khuzestan and compares them with those of the Standard Persian. According to Kalbasi (1999, p.35), these language varieties which are classified within the Southwestern group of Iranian languages are regarded as dialects of New Persian and they have the same origin with it. So the data have been compared to Standard Persian. Khuzestan with an area of 64746 square Kilometer is located in South west of Iran (Figure 1). The data for this survey were gathered through interviews with more than 40 literate and illiterate male and female participants with Dezfuli, Lori and Bakhtiyari language varieties from 20 villages and cities like Dezul and Andimeshk in this region. The data were transcribed based on the IPA and analyzed descriptively in the framework of generative phonology. In this view, phonological representations are sequences of segments made up of

distinctive features which describe aspects of articulation and perception. (Chomsky and Halle, 1968).

The main questions of this study are:

1. Which vowels and consonants are there in language varieties of North of Khuzestan that do not exist in standard Persian?
2. Which phonological processes are occurred in language varieties of the North of Khuzestan that are not found in the Standard Persian phonological system?

2. Literature review

Until recently, many researchers have worked on different aspects of language varieties of North of Khuzestan, some of which are mentioned in the following:

Unvala (1955) in his book discusses about Dezfuli, Lori and Laki dialects and states that Lori is the mother of Dezfuli and Shushtari.

Mohamad Taher Moezi (1967) in his work, *Dezfuli Dialect and its Lexicon*, studies some words, expressions, idioms and poems in this dialect.

Saleh Golriz (1980) in his M.A thesis describes phonological processes and the phonetic differences in Standard Persian and Lori dialect.

Amanollahi Baharvand (1991) in his book explains the integration and distribution of the Lori people in Iran. He also studies the etymology of *Lori*, the lineage of Lori people and Lori and Laki language varieties. He knows Lori people as a part of Fars.

Foruzan Raoufi (1996) in her M.A thesis studies the phonemes and phonological processes in Dezfuli dialect.

Farzaneh Atabakhsh (2002) in her M.A thesis compares two language varieties of Khuzestan, Dezfuli and Shushtari, and studies phonetic system, morphology, and syntax of these dialects and distinguishes their similarities and differences with Standard Persian.

Mahnaz Saeedi (2012) in her work studies the language varieties of North of Khuzestan according to phonetic, morphology and syntax. She also compares these language varieties with Standard Persian.

3. Consonants and vowels of language varieties of North of Khuzestan

These language varieties contain 24 consonants and 8 allophones as follows: /p/ , /b/ , /t/ , /d/ , /k/ , /g/ , /q/ , /f/ , /v/ , /s/ , /z/ , /h/ , /m/ , /n/ , /r/ , /ʃ/ , /tʰ/ , /β/ , /ʎ/ , /ʒ/ , /j/ , /x/ , /dʒ/ .

[l] and [tʰ] are allophones of /ʎ/ , [ŋ] and [ɲ] are the allophones of /n/ , [w] is the allophone of /v/ and /b/ in vocalic environment. [δ] is the allophone of /d/ between two vowels, [ħ] the allophone of /h/ and [ʁ] the allophone of /ʒ/. (See Table 1). These language varieties have 9 underlying vowels and 3 allophones: 6 simple vowels: /i/ , /y/ , /a/ , /ɒ/ , /ε/ , /ø/ , /ə/ , and 3 diphthongs /yə/ , /iə/ and /oə/. [u] [o] are the allophones of /ɒ/ and [e] is the allophone of /ε/. (Figure 2)

4. Consonant phonological processes

4.1 Assimilation

One of the most common phonological process is Assimilation. Haghshenas (2005, p. 152) states that "sometimes a consonant loses some of its phonetic features in syntagmatic with another consonant and takes the phonetic features of its adjacent consonant instead. This process, perhaps one of phonetic universals,

is called Assimilation». Crystal (2003, p.38) writes that “in standard generative phonology, assimilation is characterized through the notion of feature copying: segments copy feature specifications from neighboring segments. In non-linear models, a feature or node belonging to one segment (the trigger) is viewed as spreading to a neighboring segment (the target)”.

There exist two types of assimilation as Hagshenas (2005, P. 152) writes that “if this process causes one of consonants to turn completely into another consonant, it is called Complete Assimilation. However, if the assimilation does not end in complete assimilation, then it is called Partial Assimilation.” Assimilation based on the linear direction of change from the dominant phoneme towards the changing phoneme is divided into two general parts regressive and progressive assimilation. This view has been supported by Kenstowicz (1994). According to Arlatu (2005, p.94), in progressive assimilation of two syntagmatic consonants, the first one remains fixed and unchanged and second is assimilated. Progressive assimilation is contrasted with regressive assimilation. Examples of assimilation in these language varieties are as follows:

4.1.1 The Assimilation of nd to nn

In some of these language varieties, [d] after [n] changes to [n]. The phonemic segment /n/ spreads its nasality feature to [d] and completely assimilates it to [n]. (see tables 2.a, 2.b)

By taking table 2.a into consideration, the following linear rule shows this process (rule 1). According to rule 1, in some of language varieties in north of Khuzestan, the voiced stop /d/ within a word completely assimilates to the preceding coronal nasal /n/. This process does not exist in standard Persian.

Because of the complete assimilation of [d] to [n], the number of sound segments are changed in the words in table 2.a. But the assimilation does not take place in table 2.b. Because all the words in table 2.a are nouns, but words in table 2.b are past participle used as adjectives. Also the omission of sound units in 2.b leads to compensatory lengthening in nucleus.

4.1.2 The Assimilation of /n/ to /m/ before /b/

In the given data the assimilation process is regressive. In this process which is common in standard Persian and many other Iranian dialects, the coronal [n] changes to [m] before a bilabial consonant. (see table 3)

When the coronal nasal /n/ comes before the bilabial stop /b/, it assimilates to the stop in [+bilabial] feature and changes to [m]. (rule 2)

On the other hand, when [m] is adjacent to [b], they assimilate to each other in the manner of articulation (rule 3)

According to Kenstowicz (1994, p.99), in transparency rule the applications of a given rule to a given form are presented in phonetic representation. In other words, both structural description and structural change are seen in surface structure. This rule is contrasted with opacity rule. In table 3, the assimilation is occurred but [b] as the sound causing this process is not seen in the context. According to opacity rule, at first because of the presence of [b] in the context, [n] changes to [b] as the regressive assimilation, then [b] changes to [m] in progressive assimilation, so geminate sequence [-mm-] is formed; finally, one of the identical adjacent consonant

is deleted according to the least effort principle and compensatory lengthening is occurred in nucleus. Since this research is about the consonant phonological processes, the compensatory lengthening phenomenon is not studied in this paper. The following rule shows the derivation of [pa:mɛ]: (rule 4)

The first stage of this process(rule2) is seen in standard Persian.(Kambuziya Kord-e Zafarnlu,2006.p.171)and other Iranian dialects such as Eghlid (Sharifi,2009.p.42) and Lori Balagarive (Kambuziya Kord-e Zafaranlu,et al.,2013.p.159), and the second and third stages are seen in language varieties in North of Khuzestan. By taking these stages into consideration, there is a rule ordering in this process. So the third stage is created by application of rule 2 and 3(first and second stages) ; that is, /b/ is deleted after changing to /m/.On the other hand, the deletion of the first adjacent consonant to vowel leads to compensatory lengthening. This shows that /b/ assimilates to /m/ before compensatory lengthening process. For instance, the presence of intermediate form [pammɛ] results in deletion of m₁ in the sequence of [-m₁m₂-] .In the given data, if the deletion of /b/ is applied before changing to /m/,compensatory lengthening does not take place. So the deletion of /b/ does not occur before changing to /m/.Stage 4a is the only rule which applies in standard Persian and the surface structure of *Panbe*(cotton) is [pambe].

4-2.The neutralization between /l/ and /r/

/l/ and /r/ are similar in many features, so they have common phonological processes (Beroghani, 2004.p.68) and make a natural class of sounds. According to Mackenzie, D.N. (2000), these two liquid consonants were once one phoneme, so they have been substituted for each other in many contexts. This process is seen in Latin(kenstowicz,1994.p.35) , and many Persian dialects including Sabzevari(Beroghani,2004.p.66),Eghlid (Sharifi,2009.pp.54-55) and Balagarive Lori Dialect (Kambuziya Kord-e Zafaranlu,et al.,2013.p.160).This process is observed in language varieties of North of Khuzestan(see table4.a and 4.b).In the mentioned data ,according to Mackenzie, D.N. (2000) consonant /r/ is an underlying phoneme(except *barg*(leaf) which is seen both as *warg* and *walg*(rule 5). The following rule shows neutralization of /l/and/r/ after vowels. This phenomenon does not occur in Standard Persian and /l/and/r/ preserve their distinction.

4.3 Dissimilation

Crystal (2003,p.144) defines dissimilation as, “*The influence exercised by one sound segment upon another, so that the sounds become less alike.*” Dissimilation process can be progressive or regressive. (Haghshenas 2005, P. 155).

4-3-1 Alternation [f] ≈ [b]:

In these language varieties it is difficult for old informants to produce two consecutive fricative consonants. It leads to dissimilation phonological process (See table 5).In these language varieties, [f] changes to its corresponding voiced stop [b] when coronal fricative [s] as coda comes before fricative non-coronal [f] in initial position of the next syllable. [f] Changes to [b] because of low frequency in producing [p] as its corresponding stop voiceless[f] in these language varieties and also in all Iranian language varieties. This dissimilation process is a kind of fortition because it occurs in syllable- initial position (rule6).

The rule shows the derived-form of [dɛsbɪk] from underlying to surface structure(Rule 7).This process is seen in Eghlid(Sharifi,2009.p.66) and Balagarive language varieties (Kambuziya Kord-e Zafaranlu,et al.,2013.p.161). But it does not occur in standard Persian.

4-3-2 Alternation [t] ≈ [d]:

In language varieties of this area, there is another kind of dissimilation in which [t] changes to [d] after voiceless fricative consonants (see table6).

Based on table 6 , when one of the voiceless fricative [f],[x],[ʃ] comes before voiceless stop [t] , [t] changes to its corresponding voiced equivalent[d](rule 8).

Based on rule 8 , [t] changes to its voiced equivalent /d/ after [f],[x],[ʃ] in consonant cluster and in consonant sequence across syllable boundaries, both members of the cluster or consonant sequence are the same in [-voiced] and [-sonorant] features, [-voiced] changes to [+voiced] because of dissimilation process in the second member of the cluster .This process occurs in Hamedani dialect (Kambuziya Kord-e Zafaranlu and Bahrami Khorshid,2008)Balagarive dialect (Kambuziya Kord-e Zafaranlu,et al.,2013.p.164)and also informal speech of standard persian(Modarresi Ghavami,2007).

4-4 Lenition

According to Carr(2008,p.89)lenition is any process whereby consonants become weaker, in the sense of becoming voiced and/or undergoing a diminution in stricture. Trask (1996, p.201) also defines lenition as *“Any phonological process in which a segment becomes either less strongly occluded or more sonorous. Often the term is extended to various other processes, such as loss of aspiration, shortening of long segments and monophthongization of diphthongs, which represent ‘weakening’ in some intuitive sense”*.Honeybone (2012,p.1) states that, *“the types of change that are typically recognized as lenition include spirantization (a segment becoming a fricative, e.g., p becoming f), approximantization (becoming an approximant, e.g., d becoming ð), debuccalization (losing oral articulation to become a glottal e.g., X becoming h).”* Spirantization and approximantization are studied in this paper.

4-4-1 Spirantized(Fricativization)

4-4-1-1 b to v and f

In language varieties in North of Khuzestan, bilabial stop [b] changes to labiodental fricative [v] in intervocalic environment (table 7.a) and at the end of the word after a back vowel (table 7.b). Rule 9 shows this process (rule 9).

This rule shows that bilabial stop /b/ changes to labiodental fricative [v], in the word-final position or in a syllable-final position (coda) and after nucleus or between two vowels .This process is not very common in standard Persian. This process occurs in very few Persian words, as in [tɒbe] (pan) and [b ɒz] (open) pronounced [tɒve] and [vɒz] . Both pronunciations are applied in standard Persian.

The analysis of table 7.c is similar to table 7.a and7.b(see table 7.c).But in some of the words, voiceless obstruent /t/ follows /b/.That’s another reason for devoicing of /b/ and changing it into its voiceless continuant co-articulation [f] after vowels(in some words after /t/) in the word-final position or syllable- final position (coda) and in intervocalic environment(rule 10).

4-4-1-2 d to z

In table 8, voiced coronal stop /d/ changes to its voiced continuant equivalent /z/. According to above data, there is a phonological alternation between [d] and [z]. To determine the underlying form, two hypotheses have been investigated.

Hypothesis 1: /d/ is an underlying form and needs a rule to change it into continuant [z] after vowel in word- final position or syllable -final position (coda) and between two vowels.

Hypothesis 2: /z/ is an underlying form and needs a rule to change it into continuant [d] after vowel in the word- final position or syllable -final position (coda) and between two vowels.

In the above data, phonological alternation is seen in the word-final position or syllable-final position (coda) and between two vowels. According to **the phonetic acceptability criteria** the mentioned environments are the typical position for lenition and the change of a stop into a continuant is a kind of lenition.

The first hypothesis is proved, because the mentioned environments are considered as lenition positions according to the "phonetic acceptability criteria" and changing a stop to a continuant is a kind of lenition. Also according to **naturalness criteria** lenition process is common in the above examples. That is, /d/ is the underlying form and changes into continuant [z] in syllable -final position, word- final position, after a vowel and between two vowels (rule 11).

4-4-1-2 G to X

In language varieties in north of Khuzestan, mid Persian consonant /G/ changes into its voiceless equivalent /X/ before a voiceless consonant, syllable-final position, after a vowel, word- final position. Table 9 shows a phonological alternation between [G] ≈ [X] (Table 9). To determine the underlying form two hypotheses have been investigated.

Hypothesis 1: The voiced stop /G/ is an underlying form and needs a rule to change it into voiceless continuant [X] in the word- final position or syllable-final position (coda).

Hypothesis 2: The voiceless continuant /X/ is an underlying form and needs a rule to change it into voiced stop [G] in the word- final position or syllable-final position (coda).

The process of changing voiced stop /G/ to its voiceless affricative equivalent /X/, preceded by voiceless consonants /t/ , /s/ , /f/ , /tʃ/ /ʃ/ , is very common in Iranian language varieties, including Sabezevari (Beroghani, 2004.p.63), Eghlidi (Sharifi, 2009.p.63) and Kermani (Razmdide and Kambuziya kord-e zafaranlu, 2013.p.114).

The stop /G/ changes to /X/ when immediately preceded by a vowel and followed by a voiceless consonant, in word-final position and in syllable-final position (see table 9 and rule 12). Rule 12 shows changing voiced the stop uvular/G/ to its voiceless continuant equivalent/X/ after a vowel (and in some words before voiceless consonants) in word final position or in syllable-final position.

4-4-2 Approximantization

4-4-2-1 Alternation [b] ≈ [w]:

In language varieties of north of Khuzestan, bilabial [b] changes to approximant

[w] after back low vowel [ɒ]. According to table 10, bilabial [b] after vowel [ɒ] changes to approximant [w] (Rule13).

4-4-2-2 Alternation [d] ≈ [ð.]:

In some of the language varieties in north of Khuzestan, there is a process in which coronal stop [d] changes to its corresponding fricative [ð] in intervocalic environment (Table 11 and rule 14). Standard Persian lacks this phonological process.

4-5 Elision

A consonant or a vowel can be completely lost under certain conditions. This process usually occurs in the word final position or in syllable-final position (Kambuziyya Kord-e Zafaranlu, et al., 2013, p.168). Carr (2008, p.49) defines elision as *“a process in which a phonological segment is not pronounced.”*

4-5-1 Elision of [n] in word final position

According to table 12, in these language varieties nasal [n] is deleted after high back [u] (Table 12 and Rule 15).

4-5-2 The Elision of [d] and [t] in [st] and [zd] consonant clusters

The coronal [d] and [t] are deleted as the second member of consonant clusters in word-final position (table 13 and rule 16). This process happens in st and zd sequences in word-final position in casual Persian speech, Such as:

/dast/ (hand), */rɒst/* (right) and */dozd/* (thief) which are pronounced *//das//*, *rɒs/* and *doz/* respectively.

According to Kambuziyya Kord-e Zafaranlu (2006, p.444) this process also is seen in the given data (Table 14). In Standard Persian, in words ending with consonant clusters st and zd, the second member of the cluster is deleted in combination with another word which begins with a consonant and makes a sequence of three consonants in word boundary (Rule 17).

4-5-3 Final voiced consonant deletion

In language varieties of north of Khuzestan, the final consonant is deleted in words ending with voiced obstruent consonants [d, z] and having one of the long vowels /i/ and /a/ as its nucleus (Table 15.a, 15.b).

Comparing data in 15.a and 15.b shows that in these language varieties the final consonant is deleted in words which ends with voiced obstruent consonants [b, g, d, z] and are preceded by a high vowel. But the deletion of final consonant does not occur in words which the preceding vowel is not long (Rule 18). This process does not take place in standard Persian.

4-6. Metathesis

Crystal (2003, p.249) defines metathesis as *“an alternation in the normal sequence of elements in a sentence-usually of sounds.”* And Carr (2008, p.100) defines metathesis as *“a process in which segments within a word are switched around.”* In the context V C1 C2 (V) the consonants C1C2 switch around as VC2C1 (V).

6. There are two kinds of dissimilation in these language varieties: when voiceless fricative [f] comes after fricative [s], it changes to voiced stop [b], also [t] changes to [d] when it comes after obstruent consonants [f] , [ʃ] and [X].

8. Spirantized which is a kind of lenition is seen as follows: changing [b] into its continuant equivalents [v] and [f], changing [d] to fricative [z], changing voiced uvular stop [G] to continuant [X]. These processes do not occur in Standard Persian.

9. Approximantization is another kind of lenition found in these language varieties: changing [b] to approximant [w] and changing [d] to approximant [ð].

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THE HISTORY OF SUFFIX '-ÓW' IN POLISH AGAINST THE BACKGROUND OF OTHER SLAVIC LANGUAGES

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Abstract

The development of plural genitive is one of the most complex problems in the history of Slavic nominal declension. The basis for development of declension forms in Slavic languages was the Pre-Slavic root-based division into declension patterns. Pre-Slavic plural genitive suffixes for the contemporary masculine gender in Polish were: *-ъ for *-o-* root declension pattern, *-ь for *-jo-* root pattern, *-овъ for *-u-* root pattern, *-ьб for *-i-* root pattern, and *-ъ for nouns with the *-n-* root pattern. The original complex classification was then reduced in Slavic languages. Along with the development of Slavic languages' inflection, abandoning root-based classification and the appearance of genders, a new declension division developed and the rules of repartition of genitive suffixes were transformed.

In most Slavic languages, the greatest expansion occurred in the case of the suffix *-ów* > *-овъ from *-u-* root declension, originally only applying to a few words such as *syn*, *dom*, *wół*, *miód*, *wierch*. In Polish, even before the development of writing, this suffix was taken on by hard root nouns masculine, and by most nouns with roots ending with a soft or functionally soft sound. In the history of Polish language, suffixes *-i* and *-ów* competed in the plural genitive of masculine soft root nouns (especially those ending with a hardened consonant). This article is an attempt to show the slow process of withdrawal of the suffix *-ów* from nouns of this type.

In the 18th and 19th centuries, the suffix *-ów* from the masculine paradigm began to occur in feminine and neuter nouns too. This phenomenon stopped, however, probably as a result of criticism from 19-century grammar book authors.

The suffix *-ów* is also widely used in other Slavic languages. In Slovak, it is actually the only suffix used for masculine nouns (with rare exceptions of soft root forms with *-i*, or zero suffix forms). The situation is similar in Czech, where the suffix *-ů* that has developed from Pre-Slavic *-овъ occurs almost without exception. In Russian, the suffix *-ов/-ев* is taken on by masculine nouns ending with a hard sound or phonetic [j] or *-c*. In Ukrainian, the suffix *-ів* originating from *-овъ is used for masculine declension and some neuter nouns. In Slovenian there is a suffix *-ov/-ev*, whereas in Serbo-Croatian the suffix *-ova/-eva* has appeared as a contamination of singular genitive suffix *-a* and suffixes *-ov/-ev* (the latter variant applying to soft root nouns). In Bulgarian and Macedonian there are no plural genitive forms.

The slow elimination of the suffix *-ów* from soft root masculine nouns is an interesting phenomenon. The suffix *-ów* was initially expanding very strongly not only in Polish but also in other Slavic languages. As a characteristic suffix, only occurring in plural genitive, it does not lead to syncretism of forms, so it is attractive for the linguistic system. The aim of the article is to present the development of the suffix *-ów* in Polish, as well as to briefly discuss the occurrence of the suffix and its range in other Slavic languages.

In Pre-Slavic, the repartition of plural genitive suffixes was based on a formal criterion (Stieber 1971: 10), and the genitive form developed as a result of unification of Pre-Indo-European genitive and ablative forms. The criterion depended on the declension type of the noun. Following this criterion, *-o-* and *-jo-*, as well as *-a-* and *-ja-* root nouns in plural genitive received **-ъ* for hard roots and **-ь* for soft roots, respectively; *-ǫ-* root ones – suffix **-ovъ*, *-j-* root ones – **-ьjъ*, and 5th declension nouns formed plural genitive using **-ъ*. The original complex classification was then reduced in Slavic languages. Along with the development of Slavic languages' inflection, abandoning root-based classification and the appearance of genders, a new declension division developed and the rules of repartition of genitive suffixes were transformed depending on gender, phonetic-morphological and semantic criteria.

In most Slavic languages, the greatest expansion occurred in the case of the suffix *-ów* > **-ovъ* from *-ǫ-* root declension, originally only applying to a few words such as *syn*, *dom*, *wót*, *miód*, *wierch*. Although as early as in OCS (Old Church Slavonic), the *-ǫ-* declension pattern was non-existent (Stieber 1971: 22), it had a considerable influence on other masculine nouns (especially those following former *-o* declension). In accordance with the law of polarisation, this suffix was attractive for the linguistic system: it did not lead to syncretism of forms. It was only used for plural genitive, so its function was clear and did not overlap with any other case category. These obvious advantages of the suffix *-ów* made it increase its original application in most Slavic languages.

In Polish the suffix *-ów* > **-ovъ* became popular even before the development of writing for nouns of the former *-o-* and *-jo-* declensions (e.g.: *wozów*, *sąsiadów*, *mężów*, *cesarzów*). The continuation of the original state of *-o-* and *-jo-* root plural genitive, i.e. pure root after the disappearance of final position yer, was still occasionally found even in the 17th century. In old prints we can find the relics of zero suffix plural genitive: *cud*, *łokiet*, *sąsiad*, *tysiąc*, *włos*, *zqb* (15th century), *potwor*, *sąsiad*, *Tatar*, *włos*, *zqb* (16th century), *sąsiad*, *bojar*, *sultan*, *Tatar*, *Turek*, *prog* (17th century). In contemporary Polish the former zero suffix plural genitive has been preserved in words such as: *do Włoch*, *Prus*, *Węgień*, as well as in the expression *dotychczas*. Pre-Slavic heritage (i.e. the suffix *-i*) has remained in nouns of the former *-i-* root declension (*gości*). This suffix was also taken on by other soft root nouns with original *-jo-* and *-n-* roots (*koni*, *dni*, *pisarzy*, *miesiący*), although in Old Polish their forms with the suffix *-ów* also existed: *koniów*, *dniów*, *pisarzów*, *miesiąców*. The table below presents Pre-Slavic plural genitive suffixes taken on by nouns with *-o-*, *-jo-*, *-u-*, *-i-* and *-n-* roots. These nouns are currently masculine. The table also shows plural genitive suffixes and examples from contemporary Polish:

Table 1. Plural genitive suffixes in Pre-Slavic and in Polish (Rospond 2000: 133).

root	examples			
	suffix	Pre-Slavonic	suffix	Polish
<i>-o-</i>	<i>-ъ</i>	wozъ, sъsědъ	<i>-ów</i>	wozów, sąsiadów
<i>-jo-</i>	<i>-ъ</i>	mъžъ, cesařъ	<i>-ów</i>	mężów, cesarzów
<i>-u-</i>	<i>-ovъ</i>	synovъ, domovъ	<i>-ów</i>	synów, domów
<i>-i-</i>	<i>-ьjъ</i>	gostьjъ, golqъbьjъ	<i>-i</i>	gości, gołębi
<i>-n-</i>	<i>-ъ</i>	kamenъ	<i>-i</i>	kamieni

In contemporary Polish the strongest criterion for repartition of plural genitive suffixes is the gender criterion. Apart from this, there is also the phonetic-morphological criterion, according to which the suffix depends on the final sound of the root (hard, soft or hardened). The suffix *-ów* is carried by hard root masculine nouns (*panów, stołów, synów*), some soft root nouns (*krajów, tramwajów, uczniów*) and those whose root ends with a functionally soft sound (*meczów, palców*). The suffix *-i*, alternative to the distinctive *-ów*, is carried by some of the soft root nouns (*gości, gołębi, kamieni*), and by those with a root ending with a functionally soft sound (*miesiący, pisarzy, koszy, badaczy*). Some of the nouns ending with a phonetically soft consonant make variant forms: *pisarzy/pisarzów* or *koszy/koszów*. Over the whole period of development of the Polish language, the suffixes *-ów* and *-i/-y* have been competing with regard to soft root masculine nouns and nouns with the root ending with a functionally soft consonant.

Methodology and source selection criteria

In order to investigate the taking on of the suffix *-ów* by Polish nouns, old texts from the period of approx. the 15th century up to the mid 20th century were analysed. The existing corpus of Old Polish texts drawn up by the Laboratory of Old Polish of the Institute of Polish Language (Polish Academy of Sciences) was used to analyse the situation occurring in Old Polish. The contemporary linguistic material was gathered on the basis of the National Corpus of Polish (NKJP). The representative method, allowing to draw conclusions about the whole set on the basis of partial investigation, was used to gather the linguistic material.

The canon of sources from the 16th century to the mid 20th century was selected so that it would adequately reflect typical Polish language. The following evaluation criteria were taken into consideration when selecting the sources:

- a) mainly taking into consideration non-anonymous prints whose places and dates of publication are known, printed in different regions and written or translated by authors and translators from different parts of the country;
- b) excerpting the same number of sources from each of adopted time sections;
- c) selecting prints proportionally to the probable share of regions in the total number of publications in Poland;
- d) choosing prints belonging to different functional and stylistic varieties of Polish of the time – as varied as possible in terms of content and style;
- e) mainly focusing on prose.

Careful selection of the study sample is aimed to provide representative linguistic material. Even representation of texts from which plural genitive forms were excerpted allows accurate presentation and analysis of changes. It should be noted, however, that it was not always possible to strictly observe the above-mentioned principles. Since the works published in the first half of the 16th century had limited content and style, most of the texts included in the canon were religious works. The first quarter of the 16th century was also represented by fewer sources.

Only prints, not manuscripts, provide the base material. This assumption was made because the language of prints represents the average, standardized Polish language to the greater extent than the language of handwritten texts, bearing individual features. Moreover, unlike manuscripts, printed materials usually include information on the year and place of publishing, which ensures meeting the other

criteria of source selection: even time distribution of the excerpted material and the balance of publication places.

The canon mostly includes prose. Including poetry in the source material for language history research is a disputable issue for researchers.

For the collected source material to illustrate the occurring processes in a representative way, it must be evenly distributed in the studied time section. Special attention was given to ensuring the same number of text samples representing each century.

Suffix -ów for hard root masculine nouns

In Polish, the suffix *-ów* gained popularity in plural genitive of hard root masculine nouns very early (even in the pre-writing era) and covered such nouns almost without exception. In contemporary Polish there are only few zero suffix archaisms, of which Rospond writes this way:

“After the disappearance of yers, the relics of this zero suffix genitive survived in some categories or isolated words. These are: 1) names of nationalities, later also referring to countries: do Włoch, Prus, Węgier, Czech; 2) plural names of places: z Krzeszowic, Mydlnik, Piekar, Kęt; 3) nouns ending with -anin, also place and ethnic names: mieszczan, dworzan, Brzeżan, Rzymian, Egipcjan; 4) separate and compound words: przyjaciół, nieprzyjaciół, dotychczas= do tych czas (i.e. czasów).” (Rospond 2000: 133)

The other hard root nouns take on *-ów*: *domów, listów, namiestników, rozumów, sądów, świadków, urzędników, wołów*.

Suffix -ów for soft root masculine nouns

The suffix *-ów* also appeared in the declension of nouns with roots ending with soft consonants. Since ancient times, the suffix *-ów* has been competing in those nouns with the suffix *-i* from the former Pre-Slavic *-i-* root declension, developed as a result of contraction of *ьѣ*. The suffix *-i* (following hardened consonants, *-y*) appeared in the declension of nouns that used to have roots ending with *-jo-* and *-n-*.

In the past, more soft root nouns took on the suffix *-ów*. In texts from before the 16th century we can find soft root forms with *-ów* which currently carry *-i*: *łokciów, niedźwiedziów, paznokciów, cieniów, dniów, kamieniów, koniów, promieniów*. Approximately 82% of soft root masculine lexemes isolated from the corpus of Old Polish texts carry the suffix *-ów*. Also in 16th-century old prints we can find examples of soft root nouns ending with *-ów*: *gosciov, łokciow, paznokciow, dniow, koniow, ogniow, promieniow, przekupniow, przychodniow, stopniow, tygodniow, uczniow, więźniow*. Currently most of them only have *-i*: *gości, łokci, paznokci, dni, koni, ogni, promieni, stopni, tygodni*. Forms such as: *cieniów, stopniów, paznokciów, promieniów* were preserved relatively long in the Polish language (even up to the 19th century), although alternative genitive forms with the suffix *-i* were also used.

Until the 20th century, all masculine nouns whose roots ended with the sound *-j* took on the suffix *-ów* nearly without exception: *bojów, krajów, obyczajów, rodzajów, stryjów, wujów*. Only three forms ending with *-i* were found in the 19th century: *dobrodziei, kaznodziei, pokoi*, although the forms *dobrodziejów* and *pokojów* were used more often. In NKJP we can find forms with *-i* beside their

alternatives with *-ów*. Sixteen words taking on either *-i* or *-ów* were isolated: *bobslei/bobslejów*, *czarodziei/czarodziejów*, *dobrodziei/dobrodziejów*, *gnoi/gnojów*, *kowboi/kowbojów*, *liszai/liszajów*, *lokai/lokajów*, *naboi/nabojów*, *olei/olejów*, *pokoi/pokojów*, *przedpokoi/przedpokojów*, *samurai/samurajów*, *stoi/stojów*, *tramwai/tramwajów*, *wyboi/wybojów*, *złodziei/złodziejów*. The other 82 forms only take on the suffix *-ów*. Thus, the isolated forms prove that nouns with roots ending with *-j* are also a set of forms susceptible to the expansion of the suffix *-i*.

The table below presents the frequency of occurrence of soft root masculine forms with the suffix *-ów* and *-i* from the 15th century up to our times.

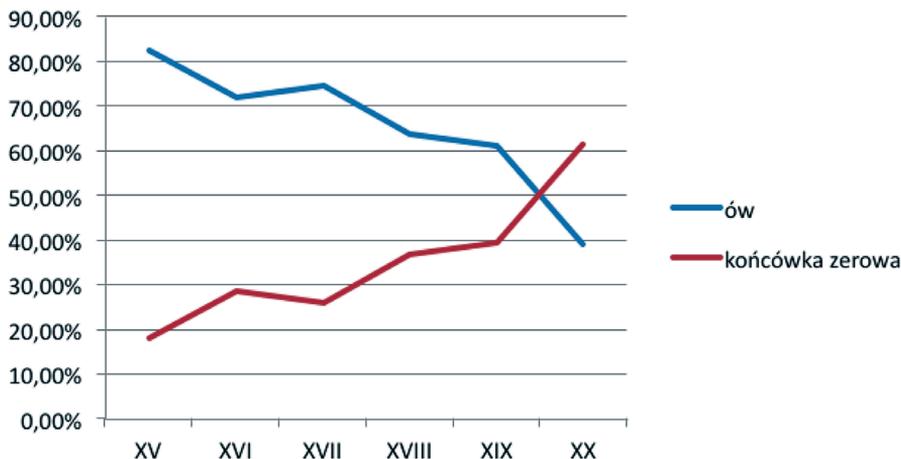


Chart 1. Percentage distribution of suffixes *-ów* and *-i* among soft root masculine forms.

The highest number of soft root masculine nouns with *-ów* were found in 15th-century texts (approx. 82.29%), and the lowest, in those from the first half of the 20th century (approx. 38.85%). The suffix *-ów* was predominant until the end of the 19th century. In the 20th century, the suffix *-i* became dominant. This chart shows that over the whole period of development of the Polish language, the distinctive suffix *-ów* has been withdrawing from plural genitive of soft root masculine nouns in favour of the suffix *-i*.

The suffix *-ów* for masculine nouns whose root ends with a functionally soft consonant

The group of masculine nouns whose repartition of genitive suffixes is most complicated is those with the roots ending with functionally soft but phonetically hard consonants. Consonants: *sz*, *ż*, *rz*, *cz*, *dz*, *c*, *l* had lost their softness by the mid 16th century but in the morphological system they functioned as soft sounds. About 88% of the forms isolated from 15th-century texts ending with a hardened consonant took on the suffix *-ów*. Hence, it can be said that most nouns of this kind – after the hardening of the root's final sound – formed plural genitive like the hard root ones. Few of them took on *-y* – the hard alternative of the suffix *-i* from the soft root declension paradigm. Until the beginning of the 19th century, the

proliferation of suffix *-ów* was significant: over 80%. On the basis of review of the collected material, a decrease of forms with *-ów* can be observed since the second quarter of the 19th century. From that time too, the number of forms with *-ów* was slightly decreasing, only to apply to approximately 65% of nouns in the first half of the 20th century. Analysing the forms of plural genitive occurring in the NKJP, we can see further disappearance of the suffix *-i/-y*. The excerpted forms with *-i/-y* account for 57.32%.

Visual presentation of the collected data in the chart shows the slow disappearance of the suffix *-ów* from plural genitive of masculine nouns with roots ending with functionally soft sounds:

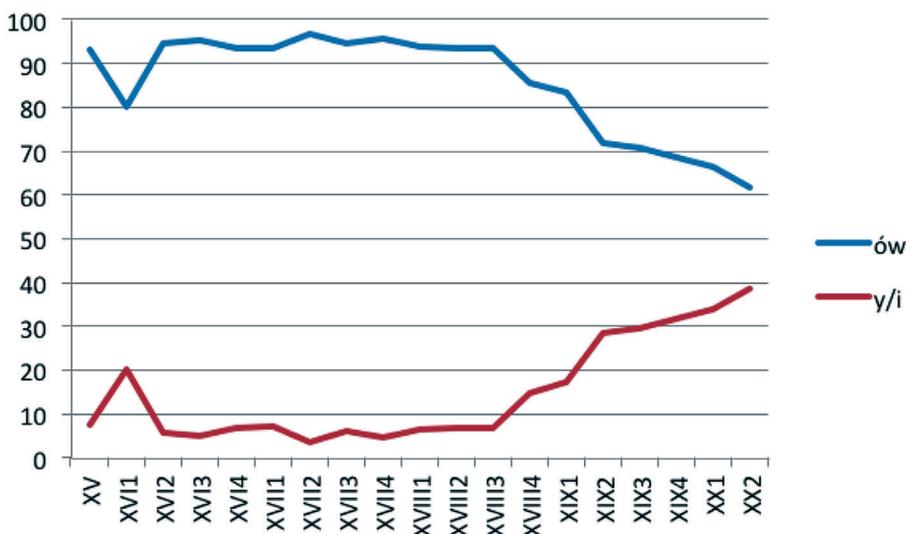


Chart 2. Percentage distribution of suffixes *-ów* and *-y/-i* among the forms of masculine nouns with roots ending with functionally soft sounds.

The number of lexemes taking on *-ów* consistently decreases in favour of *-i/-y*, so as to

achieve 61.53% in the second quarter of the 20th century. The greatest increase in the number of lexemes with *-y/-i* can be observed at the turn of the 19th century and the early 19th century. It was then that the greatest changes occurred in the repartition of plural genitive suffixes of nouns with roots ending with hardened sounds. In the 20th century, the number of forms with *-y/-i* was still growing. However, the disappearance of the suffix *-ów* took place evenly.

The suffix *-i/-y* unevenly applied to lexemes ending with a functionally soft consonant. Nouns ending with *-dz*, *-dź* and *-c* were particularly resistant to its influence. They maintained the suffix *-ów* nearly without exception. As for the other lexemes, the suffix *-y/-i* is dominant at the moment. But the level of introduction of the suffix *-y/-i* to plural genitive of the other nouns ending with hardened consonants was varied. to Lexemes ending with *-rz* were the first to take on the suffix *-y*. The increase of forms with *-y* began in the second half of the 18th century and was quickest in the 19th century. Nouns with roots ending with *-cz* began to

take on the suffix *-y* in the 19th century, but it was most popular in the 20th century. The suffix *-y* is especially carried by nouns with the ending *-acz*. The suffix *-i* was also spreading among nouns ending with *-l*. Its expansion started in the 19th century. The beginning of compensation processes connected with the replacement of suffix *-ów* with *-i* is confirmed by the existence of numerous lexemes taking on alternative suffixes. Nouns ending with *-sz* and *-ź* began forming plural genitive with *-y* relatively latest. The time of expansion of *-y* among those nouns was the 20th century, but currently the suffix *-y* has gained dominance among them. Both in the case of lexemes ending with *-sz* and with *-ź*, there is a characteristic large group of lexemes alternatively taking on suffixes *-y* and *-ów*, currently undergoing the process of change of the suffix from original *-ów* to *-y*. The withdrawal of *-ów* and advancement of *-y* can also be associated with derivational word forms, which is pointed out by Bajerowa:

“The expansion of -i (-y) plural genitives is not an even process. Nouns ending with -arz, -ciel (-ciel) and the noun żołnierz were quicker to follow the new trend.” (Bajerowa 1964: 77)

What influences the expansion of the suffix *-y/-i* among these nouns? Bajerowa (quoted in Grappin) argues that the process was probably influenced by the disappearance of the suffix *-owie* from plural nominative:

“Probably Grappin is right in linking the history of suffixes -owie and -ów, seeing the reason for the elimination of -ów in the disappearance of -owie which occurred at the same time. Therefore, it is understandable that -ów first disappeared from the nouns in which the suffix -owie was not used because of the long dominance of the suffix -e.” (Bajerowa 1964: 78)

The tendency to proliferation of the suffix *-i/-y* among soft root masculine nouns is also found by Mariola Krupa (Krupa 2001), who analysed the normative guidelines referring to plural genitive included in two dictionaries important for shaping the linguistic norm of the 20th century: *Słownik ortoepiczny [An Orthoepic Dictionary]* by S.Szober of 1937 (Sszob) and *Słownik poprawnej polszczyzny [A Dictionary of Polish Usage]* edited by W. Doroszewski of 1973 (Sdor). The author of the article has studied the changes in the normative guidelines for the making of plural genitive forms of 299 soft root masculine lexemes occurring in both dictionaries. The analysis showed the instability of the norm, which is indicated by the changes in the correctness qualifiers of 192 lexemes, i.e. 64.2% of the studied nouns. The guidelines were the same mostly for nouns that take on the suffix *-y/-i*, which illustrates the expansion of the suffix. It was also confirmed by the quantitative analysis of the collected material:

“The juxtaposition also shows that in contemporary Polish the number of nouns for which -i(-y) is the standard suffix has clearly grown. In Sszob there were 44 of them (e.g. 14.7%), and in Sdor, 129 (e.g. 43.1%). This may prove the extension of application of this suffix, if it is gaining advantage over -ów It can be considered as the dominant variant in Sdor. It is the only or the first choice suffix in the case of 212 nouns (i.e. more than 70%).” (Krupa 2001: 32)

The tendency for the suffix *-i/-y* to spread is also proved by the analysis of another dictionary of Polish usage published in 2012: *Wielki słownik poprawnej polszczyzny [A Great Dictionary of Polish Usage]* edited by A Markowski.

The suffix *-ów* – distinctive and nonsyncretic, initially only used for several nouns of the *-u-* root declension – first began to apply also to most soft root nouns

and those with a root ending with a functionally soft consonant. Currently, we can see the gradual withdrawal of *-ów* and limitation of its occurrence to hard root nouns. The spread of the suffix *-y/-i* among nouns ending with hardened consonants may be related to hypercorrection. Language users, remembering that soft root forms with suffix *-ów* such as *koniów*, *liściów*, *stoniów*, or even feminine or neuter forms with *-ów*: *dziewczynów*, *bezów*, *oczów* are incorrect, more willingly choose the suffix *-y* also in plural genitive of masculine nouns whose roots end with a hardened consonant. The unification of suffix repartition is also influenced by the contemporary media: the radio, TV and the Internet. They promote the standardization of language, and thus inflection normalization.

Suffix *-ów* for feminine nouns

Feminine forms with *-ów* occurred in largest numbers in the 18th and 19th centuries. In 18th-century old prints it was possible to isolate 19 lexemes: *burdów*, *fortyfikacyów*, *grow*, *kokoszew*, *kreaturów*, *krucyatów*, *norów*, *osów*, *ostrogów*, *ostrzygów*, *pchtów*, *perłów*, *pluskwów*, *poziomków*, *renetów*, *sadzów*, *suszarniów*, *szufłow*, *wsiów*. Nearly all the nouns end with vowels (only *wieś* ends with a consonant). More forms were isolated from 19th-century texts (24 lexemes): *akademiów*, *akcyów*, *ceremoniów*, *ćmów*, *funkcyów*, *georginiów*, *grów*, *herezyów*, *kancellaryów*, *kompaniów*, *komzów*, *konwulsyów*, *kopiów*, *kuszków*, *lichwów*, *modłów*, *opiniów*, *oponóczyów*, *parafiów*, *plebaniów*, *powincyów*, *spekulacyów*, *wsiów*, *wszów*.

Such forms began to be used in the 18th century, but their greatest popularity occurred in the 19th century. But the percentage of their occurrence in literary Polish was not considerable. It was, respectively, 0.84% of all the 18th-century forms and 1.47% of the forms isolated from 19th-century texts. It can only be supposed that in spoken language the share of plural genitive forms with the suffix *-ów* was higher. However, no forms with *-ów* were found in 20th-century texts. Perhaps under the influence of criticism from the authors of 19th-century grammar books the suffix *-ów* was rooted out from the feminine declension paradigm.

Suffix *-ów* for neuter nouns

The suffix *-ów* is taken on by nouns of Greek / Latin origin ending with *-um*. However, from the 16th century onward, and especially in the 18th and 19th centuries, the suffix transferred from masculine declension was also taken on by certain hard and soft root nouns. Four lexemes with *-ów* were isolated from 16th-century old prints: soft root *dziniów* ('dzień' – a beehive in a live tree in the forest), as well as hard root *udów*, *żółtków* and *niebiosów* with root expansion, which accounts for 4.40% of all neuter lexemes. In 17th-century texts there were only: *działów* and *udów*. They account for 1.85% of all neuter lexemes. These forms gained popularity in the 18th century and it was in that century that their occurrence was the highest: *bagnów*, *bezprawiów*, *białków*, *dobrów*, *dziąsłów*, *jajów*, *kolanków*, *nadbrzeżów*, *oczów*, *pokoleniów*, *poletków*, *przedmieściów*, *skrzelów*, *straszdyłów*, *uczuciów*, *uszów*, *wesselów*, *widowisków*, *zayściów*. The suffix *-ów* occurs in as many as 10.61% all the isolated neuter lexemes. It was taken on by 10 hard root nouns (including 4 nouns with roots ending with *-k*) and 9 soft root ones. Forms with *-ów* were also quite frequent in the 19th century: 4.75%. In 19th-century texts we can find: *kolanków*, *morzów*, *nadbrzeżów*, *nadużyciów*, *nozdrzów*, *oczów*, *płuców*,

przedmieściów, przymierzów, przysłówiów, słowóźródłów, uczuciów, uszów, uysciów, wezgłowiów.

The greatest change occurred at the turn of the 20th century. In the 20th century they were rooted out due to the critical opinions of linguists and have been used no more. In 20th-century texts only forms *oczów* and *uszów*, were isolated, whose correct plural genitive forms, being the remnant of former dual number, allow alternations. Neuter forms with *-ów* were also most popular in the 18th and 19th centuries. In the 20th century, the suffix *-ów* disappeared from the nouns other than those ending with *-um*.

The suffix *-ów* in Polish

The suffix *-ów* is distinctive; it only occurs in plural genitive, so it does not cause the syncretism of forms. It might seem that it would be natural in the linguistic system for *-ów* to proliferate not only among masculine nouns but also among feminine and neuter ones. This was promoted by strong demorphologization processes in the plural number. Still, the expansion of *-ów* was weakening from the second half of the 19th century and stopped in the beginning of the 20th century. The weakening of *-ów* is not only visible in feminine and neuter declension but it also occurred in masculine declension (especially with reference to nouns ending with a functionally soft consonant).

The withdrawal of *-ów* from feminine and neuter genders was influenced – apart from prescriptivists' demands – by the competition of suffixes *-ów* and *-i/-y* among masculine nouns with roots ending with a soft or hardened consonant and gradual extension of application of suffix *-i/-y*. The decline of *-ów* in this context occurred in the first decade of the 19th century, intensified in the second decade and has still been continuing.

Analysing contemporary Polish language, Stefańczyk (Stefańczyk 2007: 148) concludes that the function of gender demorphologization in plural genitive has been currently taken over by the suffix *-i/-y*. This suffix is present in plural genitives of all three genders. It is used for:

- a) most soft root masculine nouns (especially those with the root ending with a functionally soft consonant);
- b) consonant feminine nouns, and most nouns ending in plural nominative with *-arnia*, *-alnia* or a consonant cluster including *l* after a consonant, such as: *budowla*, *butla*, *fasola*, *hodowla*, *muszla* and others, e.g.: *msza*, *wieczera*;
- c) feminine nouns ending with *-j* (most often with *-cja*, *-sja*, *-zja*, *-ia*): *akademia*, *aukcja*, *lekcja*, *opcja*, *racja*, *restauracja* etc.;
- d) some soft root neuter nouns (most of the soft root neuter nouns which are not derived from verbs, ending with *na* *-enie*, *-anie*, *-cie*).

In colloquial language, the suffix *-i/-y* is even more widely used. It is not only more often taken on when the norm allows alternative suffixes, e.g.: *funduszy*, *mieczy*, *czarodziei*, *kropli*, *makreli*, *szabli*, *topoli*, *alei*, *kawiarni*, *sypialni*, *bożyszczy*, *odnóży*. Plural genitive forms such as *meczy*, *zorzy*, *róży*, *uczni*, *tramwai* are also popular in the usus: The wider presence of suffix *-i/-y* in the usus, as well as its more frequent choice in the case of variant forms, prove the constant spreading of *-i/-y* in all three genders. So it can be supposed that *-i/-y* has taken over the role of the suffix whose aim is to unify the forms of plural genitive of nouns with the root ending with a soft or functionally soft consonant of all three genders.

The suffix *-ów* in other Slavic languages

In Pre-Slavic, the *-u-* declension only applied to few nouns. It might seem that its case forms would disappear in the course of development of particular Slavic languages. But it did not happen. This declension had a great influence on masculine nouns.

One of the suffixes occurring in the declension pattern of *-u-* nouns was the plural genitive suffix *-ovъ*. This suffix played a significant role, not only in Polish but also in other Slavic languages. In Slovak, *-ov* is taken on in plural genitive by nearly all masculine nouns. The suffix *-i* is taken on by few nouns: *hostí, koní, peňazi*). The zero suffix type is also very rare (*do tých čias*).

The situation is similar in Czech. Masculine nouns carry the suffix *-ů*, which has developed from *-ovъ*: *pánů, mužů, předsedů, soudců*. Lehr-Spławiński so writes about the dominance of *-ů* and the few exceptions:

In plural genitive the suffix *-ů* is used both in the hard and soft type: *hradů, mečů, koňů* etc. Apart from that, there are single examples of preserving old forms without any ending, e.g. *do oblak, s vrch, peněz, tisíc, přátel* etc. Normally such zero suffix forms are used for country and place names, e.g. *do Uher, do Karlových Var (Varů), z Lubkovic* etc. (Lehr-Spławiński 1950:36-37)

Nouns of the former *-i-* declension take on the suffix *-í*, e.g. *lidí, hostí*.

In Upper Sorbian the application of *-ow* also extended to feminine (*žonow, dušow, nocow, kólnjow*) and neuter nouns (*słowow, morjow, polow, ćělatow, symjeňow*).

In Russian the suffix *-ow (-ов)* is taken on by hard root masculine nouns (except those ending with ж, щ, with ц with the stress on the root, and with *-анин, -янин, -онок, -ёнок*): *городов, зубов*. Its variant – the suffix *-ев* – is taken on by nouns ending with й and ц with the stressed root: *трамвайев, санаториев, пальцев*. In Russian more nouns have retained the zero suffix form of plural genitive than in Polish, e.g. *волос* ‘hair’, *глазок* ‘mesh, hole, circle’, *раз* ‘one time’, *сармат* ‘Sarmatian’, *сапог* ‘boot’, *солдат* ‘soldier’, *чулок* ‘stocking’.

In Ukrainian, the suffix *-iv* originating from **-ov* occurs in the masculine declension and few neuter nouns (e.g. *дубів* ‘oaks’, *ножів* ‘knives’, *морів* ‘seas’).

In Slovenian, there is a suffix *-ov/-ev*: *mostov, gradov, oračev, cesarjev*.

In Serbo-Croatian, contamination of the singular genitive suffix *-a* and *-ov/-ev* occurred. The result was the suffix *-ova* (following a hard final position sound of the root) and *-eva* (following a soft one) This suffix is taken on by one syllable nouns: *gradova, poslova, muževa*.

In Bulgarian or Macedonian plural genitive forms do not occur due to the simplification of declension system.

Conclusion

The suffix *-ów* used to be extremely expansive. Initially characteristic of infrequent *-u-* root nouns, it gradually became dominant both for hard root and soft root words. The reason for that is undoubtedly the exceptional attractiveness of this suffix, as one that was not burdened with other case forms. In the 18th and 19th centuries, the suffix *-ów* also began to enter the feminine and neuter declension paradigms, which reflects the tendency to demorphologize the plural number in Polish. However, the dominance of the suffix *-ów* in Polish plural genitive

was halted. Currently, a slow increase in popularity of soft root masculine forms (especially those finished with a functionally soft sound) with the suffix *-i/-y* can be observed.

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SIGN AND MEANING

SIGN ATTRIBUTION AND SEMANTIC RELATIONS IN THE TURKISH SIGN LANGUAGE

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Research on sign languages indicates that each of them possesses a unique structure when compared with each other and that each function as a meta-language to the natural language they are attributed to. The Turkish Sign Language (ISO 639-3: tsm) demonstrates distinct features compared to Modern Turkish (ISO 639-3: tur) to which it serves as a meta-language, in particular from the perspective of sign attribution processes involved, both from a synchronic as well as diachronic perspective, thereby supporting the weak version of the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis, i.e. the Linguistic Relativity Hypothesis. This distinctiveness inevitably reveals itself in semantic relations.

In this study we will analyse signs contained in the Turkish Sign Language (TSL) in comparison to lexemes contained in Modern Turkish focussing on semantic relations, i.e. monosemy, mononymy, polysemy (in particular metaphor and metonymy), homonymy, synonymy and equivalence. Our data has been extracted from the official websites of the Turkish Language Institute containing a Turkish Sign Language Dictionary and the Koç University containing a Turkish Sign Language Word List. Results have been approved by a Turkish Sign Language specialist.

Results show that the Turkish Sign Language and Modern Turkish bear distinct features considering semantic relations, due to the different methods applied in visual sign attribution and word formation processes respectively. This inevitably supports the idea that the former when compared to the latter has to be considered functioning and developing as an independent language.

CHECHEN WRITING ORIGIN

MANTSAEVA AINA

As generally known, Nakh group languages have the common grammatical system, vocabulary, phonetical system and etc. In the course of the historical development the two Nakh languages individualized into independent literary languages. This process, first of all, influenced their lexical level. The vocabulary of each language has been enlarging as a result of the development with new conceptions and terms, originated both by means of the native and the borrowed languages. This made it possible publication on specific Vainakh languages fiction (original and translated), socio - political and scientific literature on various branches of knowledge, which in turn contributed to the development of terminological vocabulary of Vainakh languages. Due to the fact that this process in each of the Vainakh languages proceeded largely independently from the other related languages, the new lexical and terminological dictionary enlargement in each case acquired its own specific features, which led eventually to the formation of the isolation of the vocabulary.

Despite the common vocabulary of the Nakh family and a number of the other combining features, the apprehension of the literature, especially scientific, published in one or another Nakh language, is complicated for representatives of other peoples that to some extent complicates scientific contacts between the representatives of the same profession and it does not promote to the successful development of the individual branches of science .

The Nakh languages have not yet well established terminology sector. They are largely determined by the existence of national - Russian bilingualism and Russian monolingualism in a number of areas. In addition , the development of the terminology in different Nakh languages along with the common characteristics is different in specific of the each republic, because literary languages and therefore national terminological systems have different historical destiny[Malsagov, 1941].

Questions of terminology now, with the increasing use of the Chechen language in the field of science, teaching in secondary, higher schools, the media, the development of theoretical and practical issues of terminology is of primary importance, especially with regard to the process of improving it as a state language. Acquisition the status of the state language, the adoption of the "Law On the languages of the Chechen Republic peoples," the implementation of the State program of development of the languages of the Chechen Republic peoples - all contribute to the expansion of the communicative functions of the Chechen language, which in turn has led to increased interest to the problems of terminology

In the Chechen linguistics there is an opinion that Chechen ancestors had a written language in old times. According to some scientists the Chechen writing rudiments could appear in the Middle Ages in the form of icon signs, left on the walls of the towers and crypts [Chentieva, 1958, p. 11-12; Aliroev, 1990, p. 74- 83]. But the sense of these signs unfortunately, have been still a puzzle [Krupnov, 1971, p. 188], and we have to confess that the ancient script, used on the former territory of the Chechen-Ingush Republic, apparently was Georgian, penetrated with the

missionaries at about XII century. This version is considered in the works of the authors as Smirnov, Krupnov, Muzhukhoev.

Some authors think the Chechen writing appeared in the VIII cen. [Chentieva, 1958, p. 13-16; Aliroev, 1990, p.85]. It was connected with the arguments about the chronology of the unique Georgian temple Tkhaba-Erdy, which is in Ingushetia. Paleographer Bakridze dated this temple to the 830th, and in 1950th. Krupnov considered that Christianity had been introduced in the Northern Caucasus in the VI - VII cen. [Yakovlev, 1927, p. 17; Smirnov, 1928, p. 454 - 455; Krupnov, 1951, p. 10].

The scientists [Vagapov, 1989, p. 11-12; Khizriev, Aliroev, 1990, p. 74- 83] see the traces of the Chechen writing in Zelentchuk writing, dated to the Xth. cen.

Vagapov [1990, p. 100] found the Chechen phrase in the work of the Gothic historian Jordan (VI cen.), which means - "he (my father) - alan (by name) Mutti". So, according to the author, a gothic annalist had left information in his writing, authenticating of his nakh origin ("Alan").

The following writing, decoded by the same researcher, is an engraving on the inner side of the Scythian king Skyles'ring: *KELE OE ARGOTAN PAR JANE* = Old Chechen *KELA WA ARGOTAN PHAR JANE* "Kala, Argota, master, did" [Vagapov, 1990, p. 101-103].

According to Vagapov [1990, c. 104], these writings argue about the availability of the considerable player of Nakh tribes in the Scythian world, who used in certain cases the script of the more powerful people, among whom they lived. The indirect confirmation of this thought may be the finding of his namesake in the field of Slavic-Nakh and German-Nakh lexical parallels, in particular slav. *magati - Goth. magan 'can' - nakh. magan 'can', slav. (so)dejati, russ. *done*- Goth. dan 'to do' - nakh. dan 'to do', dina 'done'; Goth. visan 'stay the night' - nakh. visan 'stay the night'; Slav. *legati - Goth. liegen - Nakh. liegan 'fall asleep,fall down'; Slav. *gibati (< *bigati) - Goth. biegen 'bend' - Nakh. biegan 'bend'; Old Isl. tyda 'explain' - getiedan 'translate' - Chechen. tidan 'explain' < tiedan 'cut' [Vagapov, 1994, p. 49, 163, 166].

Some scientists go further, dating the origin of the Chechen (Nakh) writing to the III century B.C. The certification of it, is a number of cuneiform inscriptions, found on the territory of the historical Urartu, which are identified in the Chechen language [Tumanov, 1913; Desheriev, 1963; Aliroev, 1984; Chokaev, 1989; Timaev,1991; Nashkhoev, 2003]. But their analysis does not show the real picture of the old Chechen writing.

The original scientific research of the Chechen language starts with Uslar's work "The Chechen language". It was Uslar who made Chechen alphabet on the base of the Russian graphics and also models of Chechen fairytales, legends and proverbs were collected in the before-mentioned work. In 1862 Uslar opened the first school for Chechens in the castle Grozny, where 25 children studied reading and writing in Chechen. But the school existed not long and soon it was closed. With the help of the scientist Uslar, Kady Dosov, Chechen by birth, made the first Chechen alphabet on the Russian graphics.

After the Caucasian war and entry Chechnya into Russia the Muslim schools worked in the mountainous areas, where mullahs taught Arabic and the Koran reading. Arabic was inseparably connected with Islam and highlanders' opposition under the Muslim banner. The aim of czarism was the penetration of the Russian

language in all spheres of its interaction with the highlanders. In the course of time Arabic was ousted by Russian and was used only in the religious sphere. In 1863 the highland primary school was opened. In 1864 in Terskaya region a number of schools were opened where writing and reading were taught on the base of native languages and mastering spoken Russian was compulsory. Russian children were given Scripture lessons and the children of local nations studied Koran. But gradually the Russian language ousted native languages in schools. If in 1848 all children in gymnasiums studied two local languages as compulsory, so in 1853 only one language was studied. And in 70th the czarist administration noted that in the connection with the using and understanding the Russian language by the highlanders, there was no necessity in local languages study.

In 1870 fortress Croznaya received a town status and played an important role in the economic, cultural, social and political life of Chechnya. The oil production in Grozny (1893) resulted a big business, cemented with banks and foreign capital. A labour market was formed in Chechenia: people of different nationalities: Armenians, Georgians, Avars, Kalmyks, Ingush, Russians came to earn money. A violent development of industry and commerce brought to the appearance of stores, storehouses and mills owners (Bashirov, Mitsiev, Arsamirzoev, Mustafinov and others). First Chechen oilmen appeared. Chechen industrial bourgeoisie developed. In 1872 the first translators' school was opened in Grozny to ensure mutual understanding among the workers and their owners. In 1896 Pushkin's college started functioning, and in 1904 - an actual college and women's gymnasium. Schools were opened both in the plain and mountainous villages. The first national primer was issued. In 1914 in Chechnya 154 schools functioned. But in the whole, the population was illiterate. Literacy among the Chechens accounted 0,8%.

In XVIII-XIX cen. Islam dominated in the religious and social life of the Chechens. Arabic writing was used not only in religion but also in the book-keeping, official and private copying. A considerable number of Arabic words appeared in the Chechen language of this period: ментар - a book, мужалт - a cover; 1едал - authority, низам - law, дoла - prayer, жам1ат - society, къеда - cadı, вурд - a religious persuasion and others. In XIX cen., however, the influence of the Russian language increased and such words appeared: салти - soldier, эсар - officer, инарла - general, кано - canvas, йутаб - stage(phase), сибрех - Siberia, state prison; пилмат - machine gun, ц1ерпошт - train, картол - potato, копаста - cabbage, сторпал - truss, кибарчиг - brick, ишкап - cupboard, ведар - bucket, стака - glass and others.

The Chechen language development in this period happened also due to the inner recourses under the close interaction of the different dialects bearers. The opening of schools, colleges, new ABC rise in Chechen favoured the origin of educational terminology and the language use in a new field. Chechen intelligentsia appeared during this period.

In February 1917 czarism was overthrown: a new period in the history of Russia and correspondingly, in the Northern Caucasus came. In 1918-1920 after the Civil war the questions of language formation were not in the focus of attention. In 1921 January, 20 in Vladikavkaz a highland founding congress was convened where Highland Soviet Republic was proclaimed and Chechen County, Ingushetia, Osetia, Kabarda, Adygei, Bolcaria entered into. The Highland republic government adopted a resolution, which obligated all citizens from 14 to 30 to study grammar in Russian

and native language. All the persons, preventing from literacy campaign must be held liable according to the revolutionary time law. An extreme commission on literacy campaign was organized.

The work was complicated by lack of writing and teaching personnel. In January, 1922 the Highland republic decayed. National statehood formation had a great importance in the Chechen language development. Favourable conditions arose for the Chechen language dialects, approaching to the norms of the national language. From 1921 to 1925 Chechen regional committee chairman was T. Elderkhanov. Party and Soviet organs tried in the shortest time to open a number of schools, cultural and educational work implementing among the Chechens. Chechen government defined the tasks of Bolshevik party in the struggle of national inequality eradication: courses on local personnel preparation in different fields were opened. To realize the problem, it was necessary to develop writing in native languages. Educated persons gathered around T. Elderkhanov: Oshaev, Isaev, Nozhaev, Arsanov and others. A burning problem of Chechen literary language future dialect foundation originated. In the choice of supporting dialect there were taken into account the residence of its bearers in economically developing centers, their numerical superiority over the bearers of other dialects. Taking all this into account, a dialect of flat country was chosen as a Chechen literary language, spread among the citizens of Grozny capital. Arabic writing was used by Chechens and Ingush people and including 14 nationalities of Northern Caucasus and Central Asia. In 1921 K.Tuchaeva and T. Elderkhanova issued Chechen ABC, which existed only one year, but it marked the beginning of illiteracy eradication. Arabic graphic adoption gave possibility to involve teachers of Muslim schools to work, having prepared them beforehand to work at schools. In 1923 Sugaipov updated ABC and issued a new primer for the Lower Sixth and a reading book, set of problems and Geography. For the period from 1924 to 1932 at the stations of illiteracy eradication 69.333 people were made literate, including 2120 Chechen women.

During that period the ideological orientation of the Soviet power towards the "World Revolution" and working class of the Western countries provided the idea of Latin alphabet introduction. "Latin adoption had a great significance. It broke down the wall between the European and Muslim culture" - underlines Mikoyan in 1925 at the conference on the issue of Latin adoption. Professor N.F.Yakovlev offered to adopt Latin even in Russian, but Lenin rejected it.

Latinization had additional ideological sense in the Northern Caucasus. First, it authenticated equal rights between Russian and Caucasian nations. Secondly, Latin opposed to Arabic graphic, which was seconded by anti-Soviet Muslim clergy. In 1923 Latin was adopted by other republics: Ingushetia, Northern Ossetia, Kabarda and the other nations of the Northern Caucasus used still Arabic. As in Chechnya and Dagestan Arabic script was used by Muslim clergy, the process of Latin adoption was suspended. The first attempts of Chechen alphabet establishing on the basis of Latin graphic was made in 1920 on the first Congress of the mountain educated people in Pyatigorsk, but again under the influence of Arabists it was rejected.

In 1925 the first Chechen alphabet project on Latin graphic, comprised by M. Salmursaev and H.Oshaev, was approved on the conference of the Chechen regional presidium. On March, 18 1925 the first Chechen newspaper "Serlo" (Light) in Chechen was issued.

In 1926 Latin print for the Chechen writing and printing was produced in Leningrad. Up to 1927 "Serlo" printed articles, using Russian, Arabic and Latin graphics. And since 1927 the newspaper completely adopted Latin graphic.

In 1927 the first 16 Chechen teachers graduated short-term teaching courses. In the same year the first Chechen lexicographer A. Matsiev published "Russian-Chechen Dictionary". In 1927-1928 in Chechnya 104 schools functioned, where 14,2% children studied.

In 1929 the Union of Chechen Writers was established. From May 1, broadcasting station start working. On the workers' courses a national department was opened, teachers were trained in two pedagogical colleges and short-term courses.

The Scientific society, formed in 1929 was reformed into Local History Research Institute. Two pedagogical technical secondary schools, two oil technical secondary schools, workers' courses of Rostov Institute of transport engineers, two agricultural technical secondary schools, medical technical secondary school, Oil Institute, Pedagogical Institute functioned in Grozny. Works of art in Chechen were issued. Since 1930 - 1933 text books in Chechen for primary school were published: arithmetic, the Chechen language, a reading book, natural history, terminological dictionary by A. Matsiev, Islamov [1930], trilingual dictionary by A. Matsiev [1932], collection "Verbal national creation" [1932]. Since 1922 Chechen executive committee issued 150 documents in the sphere of education with the target of illiterate eradication, women involving into the cultural building, to raise Chechens' standard of education in the institute of higher education in different Russia cities, to open clubs and libraries, sporting circles, to train Chechen specialists. On May,1, 1931. The first national theatre was opened. The plays of S. Arsanov, S. Baduev, H. Oshaev and others were represented. On September,7, 1932 Local History Research Institute was reorganized into National Culture Research Institute.

In 1934 Chechen and Ingush autonomy joined into one Chechen-Ingush autonomous republic. Regional Committee and Regional Executive Committee gave directions to establish a single alphabet for both Chechens and Ingush people on the base of Latin graphic. The Immediate goal was Chechen and Ingush alphabets discrepancy eradication. A single alphabet was adopted. In future the task of language formation was to study root vowel changing in all the dialects of the Chechen and Ingush languages and making spelling rules on its basis.

In February 1936 the resolution of plenary session II on All-Russian Executing Committee decree discussion "Of national policy violation in the Northern Caucasus" was published. In the decree district councils, district executive committees and Soviet of the settlements were charged with underestimation of the "deep political issue of Soviet and economic mechanism localization policy", national personnel training, native people involving into manufacture, aboriginal population service in their native language. Regional Executive

Committee Plenum notified the organizations, establishments and officials that "eliminating and reaction to the actions on national proletariat formation, State machinery localization policy and business correspondence translation into the native language will be considered as class enemy counter-revolutionary sally" and obliged town, district and rural councils to work out issues on teaching native languages in village schools, to introduce native language in all schools and other institutions in town; to organize workmen training courses for Soviet apparatus - secretaries, typists, accountants, accounts clerks, instructors and others, to organize

native language study special courses for the nationalities, residing in the region and not mastering Chechen and Ingush languages; to approve the opening of 70 district schools for half-educated and illiterate Chechen and Ingush workers and 22 schools on native language study for the workers of different nationalities; single out money for the activities". Since that time in the life of Chechnya and Ingush republic there has never been such a considered and universal resolution.

On December, 5 1936 Chechen-Ingush autonomous region was reformed into Chechen-Ingush Autonomous Soviet Socialist republic with its capital - Grozny. By the end of 1936 apparatus "localization policy" was implemented 70%. All who had any education and authority among the population were given a new assignment. But when they had just proceeded to business, at night time on August, 1 1937 the "general operation on anti-Soviet elements' elimination" was conducted in all districts and villages. As a result, 14 000 people were arrested, some were shot, the others exiled to the concentration camps. But the security officers considered it not enough. And in October 1937 "bourgeois-nationalist tangle" was disentangled in Chechen-Ingush republic. Chechen-Ingush Plenum gathered in just built Culture center and all town, districts and village executives were invited. They reported about secret activities of this "tangle" and it was here that all the Chechens and Ingush men, including Chair of the Government and the other officials (head of the museum, Research Institute director) were arrested. The arrests had been caring on up to November 1938.

Chechen-Ingush republic was cleared from the nation's "enemies". In spite of "extremes" the development of the Chechen society and culture continued. Since September, 1 1938 the Pedagogical Institute started functioning. 130 full-time students studied at three faculties: historical, physical and mathematical, philological, 60 night-class students, 147 part-time students. A national theatre, music school and technical secondary school were functioning. Unions of writers, painters and composers were organized. In republic there were issued 16 newspapers, 3 Institutes of Higher Education functioned, 15 vocational education institution, 408 schools, 5 theatres, 248 libraries and 212 reading rooms. 75% of the population eliminated illiteracy.

New social and political conditions, culture and economy development, Chechen mass involvement in labour and social life, education development, literature editions, schools, Institutes of Higher Education, museums, theatres opening; radio and telephone communication appearance; all this brought many borrowings from Russian and other languages into Chechen. And they contributed new words formation by means of the language itself, calques, semantic development in the language, further development of the vocabulary, terminology, graphic perfection, spelling, accelerated Chechen literary language development, its formation. The introduction of compulsory school education promoted the literary language spread in the spheres where dialects had ruled. For the shortest period there were worked out foundations of the Chechen writing and spelling; dictionaries, references were made. The work on research of the principle questions in phonetics, grammar, lexicology, dialectology and history, archaeology and folklore, favoured practical problems solution, relating to Chechen language oral standard establishment. During these years many borrowings from Russian and through it were in the sphere of science-technical, educational, medical, military, administrative

terminology and so on: *савет* - совет "council", *делгат* - делегат "delegate", *акти* - актив "assets", *пиленум* - пленум "plenum", *сезд* - съезд "congress", *пирсадатал* - председатель "chairman", *правлени* - правление "governing", *собрани* - собрание "meeting", *юьхьанцара парторганизации* - первичная парторганизация "initial party organization", *пхеаашеран план* - пятилетний план "five-year plan", *культури министертство* - министерство культуры "Ministry of Culture", *министрийн Совет* - Совет министров "council cabinet", *дохтар* - доктор "doctor", *коьрта инжнер* - главный инженер "engineer-in-chief", *технолог* - технолог "technologist", *библиотека* - библиотека "library", *лекци* - лекция "lecture", *лакхара образовани* - высшее образование "higher education", *стипенди* - стипендия "scholarship", *турмомер* - термометр "thermometer", *амбулатори* - амбулатория "outpatients' clinic/department", *бальниц* - больница "hospital", *артист* - артист "actor", *культури ц1а* - дом культуры "culture centre", *Илман статья* - научная статья "scientific article" and so on. It was this period that conditioned the stratification of the Chechen literary language: research and publicistic, literary and art styles acquired their own peculiarities; office work language foundations were based. Being the basis of Chechen literary language formation, folklore continues to play an important role in its development. Continuity between oral-poetic and written-literary language is clearly observed. Functional language development conditioned infrastructural development in the vocabulary, semantic processes, syntactical phenomena and stylistic differentiation. Not all Chechens mastered literary language both in villages and towns, but the main role of the Chechen literary language had been clearly marked out. A wide social and intensive use of the Chechen language by social society is a real premise of informal and literary varieties of the Chechen language approaching.

The Chechen-Ingush ASSR education in 1936 set forward a number of problems in front of the government. Affinity of the Chechen and Ingush languages, in spite of the specific features in phonetics, grammar and vocabulary, is enormous. Nevertheless, the issue on a single language was not on agenda, though Chechens outnumbered Ingush people fivefold. Two languages coexisted peacefully, equally implementing social functions among their people. Teaching in schools, newspapers and literature publication, performance and etc. were in both languages. So, Cultural Revolution success was enormous. But in its development Chechen-Ingush republic was fully dependant on the ideology and politics changes in Russia, Moscow. The Chechen language was becoming a victim of Russian changes. And Russia was waiting for large changes. Internationalism and west proletariat focusing made way to the new ideological orientations - past of Russia and its patriotism. Correspondingly, an old imperia idea to give dependant peoples writing on the Russian graphic revived. It would make them closer to Russia and facilitated the process of their Russianization. Soviet of Nationalities USSR resolved "according to numerous working people requests" to adopt Russian writing for all peoples of the Northern Caucasus. New ideological directions were institutionalizing in the conception of state language, stipulating its compulsory use in all Russian language State Institutions.

In 1938 according to the scheme, offered by professor N.Yakovlev, ABC was made up in Russian graphic, used for all Northern Caucasus languages and the other

regions (more than 70 nations). The Russian alphabet adoption was connected with many problems: to master a new alphabet 10 000 people had to be retrained, to change the print, republish all books and that obviously, slowed down the language development and illiteracy eradication. Chechen-Ingush State Pedagogical Institute and Research Institute of History, Language and Literature conducted a considerable work on spelling orderliness and terminology, textbooks publishing for Chechen and Ingush villages, the translation of social and political, agricultural, medical and technical literature. In 1941 textbooks in Russian were published for national schools, where the Chechen and Ingush languages were taught as subjects, and other disciplines were taught in Russian.

Chechen literary language, including its regulatory and substandard variants, was developing under the influence of the nationwide language. Chechen oral folk art has preserved and has been handed down national customs and traditions. So, since the second half of the XIX cen. Chechen folklore has been studying [Dosov, 1862; Bartolomey, 1866; Uslar, 1888; L.N. Tolstoj; A. Fet; Tsiskarov].

Islamic culture influenced greatly on the Chechen language linguistic terminology. The basic types of Institutions in Chechnya before the October revolution were faith schools *мектеб "мактаб"* (4е4. мактаб) и *Медресе "madrasah"* (чеч. хьуьжар).

With the maktab and faith schools appearance in pre-revolutionary period some linguistic terms formed in the Chechen vocabulary. Basically, these are terms, borrowed from Arabic (*хьаьрк, элп, астаг1-элп, лам-элип, мад*), as the only institutions available for Chechen children were maktab and faith schools under Muslim mosques where Arabic and Islam elements were taught. Separate attempts of the progressive-minded

representatives of highland intelligentsia to introduce national writing had no success. The system of education of all highland population was built on the basis of foreign language: Arabic and Russian (primary schools in villages).

By that time the past of Chechens and Ingush people was of interest on the part of Russian scientists and foreign travelers. Soon after, new works of Vainakh intelligentsia appeared [Laudaev, 1872; Sarakaev, 1911; Eldarkhanov, 1909; Sheripov, 1916]. But they had a comparatively small vocabulary. However, some separate words, used in these works, perpetuated the names of some cultural artifacts and the notions of Chechens and Ingush people intellectual culture. These works are chiefly ethnographic descriptions and contain a rather insignificant material. Speaking about linguistic sources of pre-revolutionary work it is necessary to mention short glossaries by I. Klapproth [Klapproth, 1832], about first «Chechen primer» (composed by A.I. Bartolomey with the assistance of cadet Dzhamal-Edin Mustafinov, Edic Bacharov and Akhmed-khan Tramov) [Tiflis, 1866], first Chechen grammar [P.K. Uslar, 1888], and also about Starchevsky and his "Caucasian interpreter" (a translator from Russian into the main Caucasian languages) [Starchevsky A.B., 1891], "Caucasian translator, including 30 languages" [Starchevsky A.B., 1893], Elderkhanov Tashtemir work "Chechen ABC and the first reading book" [Tiflis, 1911].

Pre-revolutionary Chechen lexicography is presented rather weak. So, in 1909 in Port-Petrovsk the first multi-lingual Arabic- Kumic-Avar-Chechen-Ingush dictionary appeared. "Hamsat al-sinat" was reissued then in 1911 and 1914 - in Temirkhan-Shura. In 1911 Arabic-Kumic-Avar-Chechen-Lack- Russian dictionary was published

with small edition (500 copies) “Sitat Al-sinat” [E. Khasmagamadov, 1988]. Unfortunately, the authors of these publications are unknown, as the publishing activity of Dagestan press was faintly reflected in Russian state bibliography of those times. Very often the bibliographic indexes are limited by the book quantity data, published in any language but the information about the authors, titles and contents of the issued books lack.

The Chechen publications of Dagestan printing establishments had also textbooks. For example, a guidebook for primary school was issued in 1914-1916 in Temirkhan-Shura. There, in 1912-1917 a school book “Sullamu-as-siban” was printed. It contained 27 lessons in Kumic and Chechen languages, including lessons in Arithmetic.

It is necessary also to note the philological work in Chechen “Kitab-Al-Amoilat”, issued by M.Mavraev typography. [Khasmagamadov, 2006, p. 316].

Secondary education, not to mention high education lacked in the country, not taking into account a non- classical secondary school in Grozny. Only small majority of people got secondary education in the district, and only few - higher education. Besides, they got it outside the republic - in the Higher Educational Institutions of Russia and Muslim religious centers (Istanbul and Cairo). There were no scientific and cultural organs in the republic. The first ones appeared here only in early XX century.

Chechnya and Ingushetia had no publishing centers. Separate periodicals - central and regional- were issued by the state institutions and some representatives of local intelligentsia and the officials. In 1909-1910 a paid library started functioning in Grozny.

Actually, the Chechen language (written form), as many languages having recently acquired a written form in the USSR, was formed in a post-revolution period. A methodical study of the Chechen language, its literary forms development, alphabet, grammar, dictionaries, terminology establishment, e.g. its regular functioning is related to the post-revolutionary period. (since 1917).

Periodization of Chechen linguistics history development - one of the serious questions, required special study. Two main periods have been underlined: 1) pre-revolutionary (before 1917), 2) post-revolutionary. Each of these periods is divided into number of stages. The most successful periodization, worked out in details, is presented by Ovkhadov. He marked out four stages:

1 stage - from 1917 to 1924-1925;

2nd stage - from 1925 to 1937-38;

3rd stage- from 1938 to 1950-1956;

4rd - since 1956 up to our days (Ovkhadov, 2002).

The first stage is characterized with the writing issues development of (ABC and spelling) terminology, textbooks and tutorials for schools, first grammar publication, i.e. practical questions decision. Chechen and Ingush terminological committees were formed during that period. Their purpose was the development and regulation of the terminology.

However, despite these decisions, a question of terminology development and unification of terms, in particular linguistic, on the scientific principles wasn't developed properly. Therefore in the use of linguistic terms of the Chechen language some discord is traced.

From 20th years of the XX century in Chechnya and Ingushetia education starts developing. After creation of public writing in the conditions of absence of textbooks and other necessary grants in the native language, the big role was played by the "Serlo" newspaper which, along with schools, was the distributor of literacy and education and laid a new way of loan - written. As printing sources testify, still in the beginning of the 20th a noticeable development is gained by agricultural, technological, scientific, educational and pedagogical terminology.

In 1925 the special program of Chechen lexicon collecting for scientific studying and lexicographic systematization was developed. Special expeditions for collecting lexicon were organized, collected material was included into the dictionaries published in the next years.

The major landmark which predetermined the main outline of the national - language policy and planned the main directions of its realization, was the 10th congress of All-Union Communist Party (bolsheviks) in which resolutions it was noted that:

- a) "the problem of party consists in helping the labor mass of not great Russian people to catch up with the Central Russia which left forward, to help them;
- b) to develop and strengthen at itself the court operating in the native language, administration, bodies of economy, authorities made of local people, knowing life and psychology of the population;
- c) to develop at itself the press, school, theater, club business and in general culturally - educational establishments in the native language ...

"The second period of the national and language politics (from 1925 to 1937-1938) was rather fruitful for Chechen people in relation to writing, literature, culture development including also illiteracy eradication and educational level improvement (if do not take into consideration the progressive events of repression). During that period Chechen writing adopted Latin graphics. Publishing activities, system of schools, periodicals widely developed. Since the development of writing and culture, a pedagogical printing started actively developing. The process of words borrowing from Russian and through it became more active during that period.

National writing development, creation of the literary language standard, expansion of the native language scope, teaching subjects in the native language at schools gave the chance to Chechens to publish textbooks and to be trained in the native language. It promoted formation and development of linguistic terminology of the Chechen language. Further development of a linguistic term system is connected with transfer of the Chechen writing to the Russian graphic basis. The developed conditions caused the necessity of creation of the linguistic terms and the named words which considerably enriched lexical structure of the Chechen language. Terms formation was spent by two ways: 1) by creation of terms from the elements which are available in language; 2) by loan of terms from other languages.

However the purposeful studying of history of language in 1920-1940 was out of the question.

The third period of the national and language politics in the USSR (1938 - 1950 -56) is significant with the change of majority of USSR nations languages writing into Russian graphics, including Chechen and Ingush people.

Naturally, the 3rd period national - language policy was the most tragic both for Chechens, and for other people which shared its fate - Balkars, Ingushs, Kalmyks,

Karachays, the Crimean Tatars and Turks - Meskhetinets who on February 23, 1944 all were exiled. The people were on the verge of disappearance, especially in an initial stage of deportation.

The "Spelling dictionary of the Chechen language" by H.G. Gugiyev published at the beginning of 1942 was the only edition of this period. This happy exception probably happened because the dictionary had been printed before the war. In general, since 1941 the development of the Chechen linguistics was suspended. The people endured many adversities, the Great Patriotic War and universal deportation of Chechens in 1944-1957 affected a demographic situation. In this regard from the middle of 1941 up to the 60th years the Chechen language wasn't the object of studying that in turn radically influenced the developments of a linguistic terms system of the Chechen language.

These tragic events in the strongest degree slowed down the development of the national culture and the native language of Chechens and Ingushs, as well as the development of cultures of the other deported people: Karachays, Balkars, Kalmyks, Crimean Tatars, etc.

During this period native language study, newspapers and books issues were prohibited, In school certificates in the column "native language" the Chechen children had a crossed out section, in rare instances - Kazakh or Kyrgyz depending on the place of residence.

The forth period of the national and language politics has started since 1956. During this period spiritual and material requirement of the autonomous nations "increased" so that their further movement on this way in native language was impossible.

Most likely, "a considerable lag" of union republics nations' needs let them save their literary languages during this period. On this stage there was also "recognized unreasonable" the enlargement of local languages functions in the national autonomous republics, regions and districts.

The first form textbook in the Chechen language by A.G. Matsiyeva was the very first textbook published after the return of Chechens to the historical homeland in 1957. This textbook differed in high stylistic and methodical advantages, spelling options of writing met standards of the plane dialect which was the base of the literary language. As an example it is possible to note writing of a diphthong oh in such words as *gloyla* "headboard", *a hoyd* "day nursery, a feeding trough", *nloyla* "lark" who in works of other authors turned into brazen violation of any norms of a plane dialect in ов //авв: *glovla*, *havda*, *nlavla*.

In 1961 the spelling dictionary, the second in the history of the Chechen language, was published.

In the same year the most considerable "Chechen - Russian dictionary" by A.G. Matsiyev was published in Moscow for all the history of the Chechen language, containing 20 000 words. The advantage of the dictionary is not only its volume comprising the main arch of the Chechen lexicon but also that unlike the previous dictionaries practically all forms of cases of nominal parts of speech and temporary forms of verbs are given in it.

Further growth of culture, fast development of national education, sharp increase in number of high schools, specialized secondary and higher educational institutions sped up work on preparation uchebno - methodical literature. The

Chechen language gradually started being learned comprehensively in the scientific plan and now has in the asset tens monographic researches, one hundred scientific articles, educational literature, scientific and methodical works by a technique of teaching in the Chechen language, dictionaries of various profiles, etc. All this promotes the quantitative and high-quality growth of the Chechen literary language linguistic terminology.

The fourth period is characterized by the progress in the development and research of the Chechen language, and also the formation of the number of his researchers. The huge merit in training of specialists on the Chechen, Ingush languages belongs to the Georgian school of linguistics. A great assistance in this process was given by Moscow and Makhachkala linguists.

The fact that the Chechen people and the language, as well as the other deported people have survived is already possible to consider as a victory and a celebration of "national - language policy".

However national - language policy didn't promote the acquisition of the actual status of the Chechen language as a form of national statehood - the autonomy which was under close attention of policy and ideology, didn't allow the languages of the people of autonomies to break that functional barrier which was predetermined by their national statehood form, i.e. again - national policy, and at all not inside structural features of these languages since any language has unlimited opportunities of structural development, of course, if functions allow (i.e. again policy).

Analyzing the language situation and considering the problems of preservation and development of indigenous languages of the Chechen Republic, it should be noted that the state of the terminological work, despite some progress, far behind the modern linguistic practices and objectives development of the native language. Still the basic methodological principles and scientific principles of the theory and practice term system have not been insufficiently developed. Not everywhere in the terminological practice there is still a terminological norm. However, of particular concern are the regional variants of linguistic terms of the Chechen language, which leads to inconsistency in the use of the same term.

However, it is difficult to establish the prospects for further development and principles of their selection as well as to give them an objective assessment of the scientific and social aspects and to carry out theoretical studies, included in the practical term system improvement in general, .not having studied , and ascertaining the functional state of the linguistic terms of modern Chechen language at an early stage of its development.

Finally, it is possible to give brief conclusions :

1. The strong influence of Russian terminology on the Chechen language linguistic terminology formation, especially at the initial stage of its formation: it is meant primarily the nature of the Chechen terminology trace and a direct borrowing and linguistic terms of the Russian language.

2. Mainly the stagnant Chechen linguistic terminology character in the 60s - 80s , as a consequence of the absence or small number of publications on the Chechen linguistics during this period in the Chechen language

3. Term creativity activating, including linguistic terminology since 90s . XX century. For example: "alam"- a sentence; "dozar"- conjugation , "ardamdosh"-

participle. Many new words been introduced by means of suffixes - "darba" (khidarba -hydrotherapy; "hatdarba"-mud treatment; -larma (khilarma -reservoir) and others.

Recently, certain activation in the terminology of the Chechen language again has become prominent. On the one hand, this increase in the number of borrowings from the Russian language and in Russian, because of the expansion of scientific potential and Chechen philologists outlook (sociolinguistics, typology, etymology, cognitive linguistics). On the other hand, this is the growth of the national consciousness of the new generation linguists and terms creativity activity in the use of internal resources of the language.

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PHONETICS

TURKISH FOLK MUSIC PHONETIC NOTATION SYSTEM/ TFMPNS CHARACTERISTICS OF PHONOLECT- MUSICOLECT: URFA REGION SAMPLE

GONCA DEMİR

Abstract

Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System/TFMPNS is a notation system example which aims to initiate a parallel application to the national/international linguistic/musicological application foundations of which were laid under the scope of Istanbul Technical University Institute of Social Science Turkish Music Program post graduation thesis, which will be developed under the scope of Istanbul Technical University Institute of Social Science Musicology and Music Theory Program doctorate thesis, which is configured in phonetics/morphology/vocabulary axis of together with traditional/international attachments based on Standard Turkey Turkish/STT (the standard language/standard variant which is recognized and adopted in a community as a means of agreements among the regions, gains dominant position by becoming widespread spoken dialects and has a large function among language types and usage areas is in a position of means of communication among speakers of different dialects)-Turkish Linguistic Institution Transcription Signs/TLITS (transcription marks used to transcribe local oral features existing on the axis of phonetics/morphology/lexicon criteria and theoretical/performance infrastructure of local oral texts, which is collected through the comprehensive compilation work on Anatolian dialectology)-International Phonetic Alphabet/IPA (standard alphabet type consisting of symbols which is developed with the aim of redacting sound values in international standards, encoding speech sounds of all languages in an exemplary manner, preventing confusion engendered with numerous transcription system by providing correct pronunciation of languages and developing a separate symbol for each sound) sounds. In phonolectology as a result of researches carried out with local variation method in the axis of linguistic approaches it was emphasized by phonolectologists who draw attention to the term phono (every kind of phonologic term/concept/element in the axis of phonological)-lect (every kind of phonolinguistic variant/alternate/range in the axis of phonolinguistical) that phonolinguistic properties which sustain according to phonolinguistics laws, in musicolectology as a result of researches carried out with local variation method in the axis of linguistic approaches it was emphasized by musicolectologists who draw attention to the term musico (every musicologic term/concept/element in the axis of musicological)-lect (every kind of musicolinguistic variant/alternate/range in the axis of musicolinguistical) that musicolinguistic properties which sustain according to musicolinguistics laws are sustained in the existence of phonetics/morphology/vocabulary criteria together with local/universal correlations on theoretical/executive infrastructure of Turkish folk music literary/musical texts in the axis of performance theory (every kind of folklinguistic/rociolinguistic/sociolinguistic execution deictical types in the axis of ethnological)

which is one of the folklore analysis models. Through this announcement which is to be presented within the scope of the LILA'15: Linguistics and Language Conference; transmission/adaptation process of phonolect/musicolect features structured in phonolinguistic/musicolinguistic axis to Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Database/TFMPNS D will be carried out through case of Urfa region.

Key Words: Phono / Lect / Variant / Phonological Variant / Dialinguistic Performance, Musico / Lect / Variant / Musicological Variant / Dialinguistic Performance, Phonolectology / Phonolinguistics / Phonolect / Phonolinguistic Performance, Musicolectology / Musicolinguistics / Musicolect / Musicolinguistic Performance, Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Database / TFMPNS D.

Turkish folk music phonetic notation system database/tfmpns d

Turkish folk music has a privileged place in music types due to regional dialect varieties. The future of Turkish folk music depends on protection of its attitude originating from dialect differences and its resistance against change. Turkish folk music regional dialect properties are transcribed by Turkish Linguistic Institution Transcription Signs/TLITS depending on linguistic laws in axis of phonetics, morphology and parole existence. On the other hand, depending on musicological laws, regional dialect properties of Turkish folk music which is a verbal/artistic performance type structured in axis of linguistic approaches in ethnomusicology-performance/display theory are also transcribed by Turkish Linguistic Institution Transcription Signs/TLITS. It is determined and approved by linguistic/musicology source and authorities that this reality which is also present in other world languages can be transferred to notation and vocalized again and again in accordance with its original through International Phonetic Alphabet/IPA existence and usability of which have been registered by local and universal standards through the notification that will be submitted (Radhakrishnan, 2011: 422-463). Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System/TFMPNS is a notation system example which aims to initiate a parallel application to the international linguistic/musicological application foundations of which were laid under the scope of Istanbul Technical University Institute of Social Sciences Turkish Music Program post graduation thesis, which will be developed under the scope of Istanbul Technical University Institute of Social Sciences Musicology and Music Theory Program doctorate thesis, which is configured in phonetics/morphology/lexicon axis of together with traditional/international attachments based on Standard Turkey Turkish/STT (the standard language/standard variant which is recognized and adopted in a community as a means of agreements among the regions, gains dominant position by becoming widespread spoken dialects and has a large function among language types and usage areas is in a position of means of communication among speakers of different dialects: Demir, 2002/4, pp. 105-116), Turkish Linguistic Institution Transcription Signs/TLITS (transcription marks used to transcribe local oral features existing on the axis of phonetics/morphology/lexicon criteria and theoretical/performance infrastructure of local oral texts, which is collected through the comprehensive compilation work on Anatolian dialectology: TDK, 1945, pp. 4-16) and International Phonetic Alphabet/IPA (standard alphabet type consisting of signs and symbols which is developed with the aim of redacting sound values in international standards, encoding speech sounds of all languages in an exemplary manner,

preventing confusion engendered with numerous transcription system by providing correct pronunciation of languages and developing a separate symbol for each sound: IPA, 1999) sounds (Demir, 2011).

Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Alphabet Database/TFMPNS AD: transcription system of Turkish Language Institution/TLI dialect researches (Ercilasun, 1999: 43-48), transcript in dialect studies (Sagir, 1999, pp. 126-138), vowel and consonant changes of Anatolia dialects (Caferoglu, 1964-1965, pp. 1-33), Urfa/Kerkuk/Tallafer Dialects Turkish Language Institution Transcript Signs/UKTD TLITS (Ozbek, 2010, pp. xviii, 11-19), IPA provisions of the words in Turkish alphabets and TDK-IPA provisions of voice descriptions-transcription signs (Pekacar & Guner Dilek, 2009, pp. 584-588), phonology ABCs of Turkey Turkish Pronunciation Dictionary/TTPD: IPA provisions of vowels and consonants (Ergenç, 2002, pp. 46-47), IPA tables (URL <<http://www.langsci.ucl.ac.uk/ipa/ipachart.html>>), International Phonetic Alphabet/IPA Turkish vowel/consonant letter tables (IPA, 1999, pp. 154-156), extra-IPA symbols for irregular speaking (URL <<http://www.langsci.ucl.ac.uk/ipa/extIPACHart2008.pdf>>), IPA number table (URL <[http://www.langsci.ucl.ac.uk/ipa/IPA_Number_chart_\(C\)2005.pdf](http://www.langsci.ucl.ac.uk/ipa/IPA_Number_chart_(C)2005.pdf)>), IPA unicode character codes (URL <<http://www.langsci.ucl.ac.uk/ipa/phonsymbol.pdf>>), IPA X-SAMPA equivalency table (URL <<http://www.kreativekorp.com/miscpages/ipa/ipa-x.html>>).

Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Sound Database/TFMPNS SD: International Phonetic Alphabet/IPA sound records (URL <<http://www.langsci.ucl.ac.uk/ipa/sounds.html>>), International Phonetic Alphabet/IPA Turkish vowel/consonants tables sound records (IPA, 1999, pp. 154-156), Turkish Language Institution Turkish Audio Dictionary/TLI TAD (URL <<http://www.tdk.gov.tr/>>), 128 pieces of Turkish folk music texts sound records transcribed with the Urfa/Kerkuk/Tallafer Dialects Turkish Language Institution Transcript Signs/UKTD TLITS (URL <<https://tez.yok.gov.tr/UlusalTezMerkezi/>>). Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Dictionary Database/TFMPNS DD: Turkish Language Institution Current Turkish Dictionary/TLI CTD (URL <http://www.tdk.gov.tr/index.php?option=com_gts&view=gts>), Turkish Language Institution Turkish Audio Dictionary/TLI TAD (URL <http://www.tdk.gov.tr/index.php?option=com_seslissozluk&view=seslissozluk>), Turkish Language Institution Big Turkish Dictionary/TLI BTD (URL <http://www.tdk.gov.tr/index.php?option=com_bts&view=bts>), Turkish Language Institution Search Dictionary/TLI SD (URL <http://www.tdk.gov.tr/index.php?option=com_tarama&view=tarama>), Turkish Language Institution Turkey Turkish Dialects Dictionary/TLI TTDD (URL <http://www.tdk.gov.tr/index.php?option=com_ttas&view=ttas>), Turkish Language Institution Folk Dialects Compilation Dictionary in Turkey/TLI CDFDT (TDK, 1963-1982: C. I-VI), Turkey Turkish Pronunciation Dictionary/TTPD (Ergenç, 2002, pp. 91-486), Urfa/Kerkuk/Tallafer Dialects Index and Dictionary/UKTD ID (Ozbek, 2010, pp. 113-253). Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Works Database/TFMPNS WD; 128 pieces of Turkish folk music texts transcribed with the Urfa/Kerkuk/Tallafer Dialects Turkish Language Institution Transcription Signs/UKTD TLITS (Ozbek, 2010, pp. 254-329), IPA Turca: Rule-Based Turkish Phonetic Converter Program/RBTPCP (Bicil & Demir, 2012).

Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Phonotactical Probability Calculator Database/THMFNS PPCD: IPA provisions and sound definitions of the letters in

Turkish alphabets IPA provisions of transcript signs (Pekacar & Guner Dilek, 2009, pp. 584-588), Urfa/Kerkuk/Tallafer Dialects Turkish Language Institution Transcript Sings/UKTD TLITS vowel/consonant distinctive signs (Ozbek, 2010, pp. xviii, 11-19), IPA Turca: Rule Based Turkish Phonetic Translator Program/RBTPTP character codes (Bicil & Demir, 2012), Turkey Turkish Pronunciation Dictionary/TTPD phonology ABCs: Standard Tukey Turkish/STT IPA provisions of vowels and consonants (Ergenç, 2002, pp. 46-47), UCLA phonetics lab archive/Turkish language section (URL <<http://archive.phonetics.ucla.edu>>). International Phonetic Alphabet/IPA (URL <[http://www.langsci.ucl.ac.uk/ipa/IPA_chart_\(C\)2005.pdf](http://www.langsci.ucl.ac.uk/ipa/IPA_chart_(C)2005.pdf)>), extra-IPA symbols for irregular speech (URL <<http://www.langsci.ucl.ac.uk/ipa/extIPACChart2008.pdf>>), IPA number table (URL <[http://www.langsci.ucl.ac.uk/ipa/IPA_Number_chart_\(C\)2005.pdf](http://www.langsci.ucl.ac.uk/ipa/IPA_Number_chart_(C)2005.pdf)>), IPA X-SAMPA equivalency table (URL <<http://www.kreativekorp.com/miscpages/ipa/ipa-x.html>>), International Phonetic Alphabet/IPA Turkish vowel/consonant letter tables (IPA, 1999, pp. 154-156), IPA unicode character code charts (URL <<http://www.langsci.ucl.ac.uk/ipa/phonsymbol.pdf>>), IPA fonts (SIL Encore IPA and SIL IPA93 fonts (doulos/sophia/manuscript fonts: base characters/diacritics/tone and punctuation)-phonetic fonts for macintosh/windows-adobe fonts for macintosh/windows-the four stone phonetic fonts in GIF form (stone sans/stone sans alternate/stone serif/stone serif alternate)-rogers fonts (IPAPhon) for macintosh/windows-phonetic fonts for TeX/LaTeX etc. (URL <<http://www.langsci.ucl.ac.uk/ipa/ipafonts.html>>).

Also, Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Database/TFMPNS D consists of some databases too, these are; Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Aural Distinction Test/TFMPNS ADT & Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Articulation Test/TFMPNS AT & Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Phonological/Morphological/Lexicological Criteria Identification Test/TFMPNS PMLCIT & Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Phonetic Analysis Test/TFMPNS PAT ect.

Turkish folk music phonetic notation system/TFMPNS phonolectology/phonolinguistics/phonolect/phonolinguistical performance characteristics

The result of research conducted in the fund (all kinds of phonological axis phonic term/concept /items: Kılıç, 2011: 1-10), allophone (all kinds of phonological axis sub-phonemic term/concept/items: Karadüz, 2008: 430-457), phoneme (all kinds of phonological axis morphophonemic term/concept/items: Üçok, 1951: 363-380), morpheme (all kinds of morphological axis morphemic term/concept/item Gemalmaz, 1999: 3) that existed due to phonologists of phonological laws attention to the term the phonological features (phonological axis in every variant/variant/variation: phonology/fund-allophone to-phoneme-morpheme/phonemic-allomorph/phonological performance: sulfonic/allophonic/phonemic/morphemic sensibilities development processes: phonological/morphological/vocabulary criteria: specific to the sound systems of symbolic/iconic plural units: vowels/consonants/suprasegmental phonemes/other symbols/book CBOs/accent marks: Gemalmaz, 1980: 3-29) local/theoretical linguistic text with universal relevance/performance is emphasized that existed in infrastructure (Coskun, 1999 & 2008).

The result of structured research in the field of phonolectology phono (all kinds of phonological axis phonological term/concept/items: Selen, 1968: 39-40)-

lect (phonolinguistic axis in any phonetic variant/variant/variation: Marcel, 1985: 115-124), the combination of concepts with the resulting phonolect (phonetic/formal/verbal language use types and formats: Gold, 2009: 83 & Sobkowiak, 2007: 134-151) the local/universal with relevance phonetics/morphology/vocabulary criteria (phonetic/morphological/verbal) at the level of local variation method (language variant/alternate/diversification reasons: non-language local factors: regional/ethnic/social groups/musical language relations/professional/social status/education/faith/context/age/gender factor/size etc: Anttila, 2002: 206-243) have phonolinguistic axis properties (phonolinguistic performance ideas: Ergenç url <<http://dergiler.ankara.edu.tr/dergiler/26/1029/12448.pdf>>, phonological processing processes: phonological recall/encoding/memory/grapheme/processing/manipulation/strategy, phonetic motor planning/audio vocabulary potential: Yucel, 2009: 1-7, 14-18, 190) linguistic approaches in dialectology in the framework of (linguistic axis in any linguistic term/concept/item-linguistic variant/variant/variation: Chambers & Trudgill, 1998: 3-12, 32-44) at the level of verbal/defined as an artistic performance genre Turkish folk music, literary/musical texts (Çobanoğlu, 1999) theoretical/in performative infrastructure, local/universal with relevance phonetics/morphology/vocabulary is emphasized by phonolectologists that existed with the criteria (Ozbek, 2010).

Phonolectology/phonolinguistics/phonolect/phonolinguistical performance characteristics of the literary/musical texts of Urfa Turkish folk music defined as a kind of verbal/artistic performance types was evaluated at three levels including, sound information criteria (ı, ũ, ũ and ô narrow, semi-narrow o, è close e and ì long i sounds which are the narrow, flat, half-round and closed shapes of i, u, ü sounds close to e were determined in addition to a, e, ı, i, o, ö, u, ü sounds located in Standard Turkey Turkish/STT. In terms of continuity neither short nor the long vowels except the words 'āşık and yār are in the normal length. Vowels belong to the words which are entered to the language from Arabic-Persian are often normalized: such as ḥammām>ḥemam "hamam" etc. With long i resulting from the reduction or adjustment of sound, long i in the taken words located in the poems written in divan poetry form retain their lengths during the usage. In Turkish all vowels except ı sound have normal lengths. This property of Turkish effects the taken words too. In Urfa's dialects just like in all East Anatolian Dialects/EAD, long vowels from the taken words are shortened systematically and turned to the normal length vowels. For example maḥmūr>maḥmur "sleepy, silly" etc. As a result of the transformation of second singular person suffix n into y in Urfa dialect and sometimes completely removing even this y sound, it is seen that i sound at the end of a word is voiced in a long tone: For instance ettin>ettiy>ettī "ettin" etc. o, ö vowels in Urfa dialect are located only on the first syllable in accordance with the Turkish general rule. It is seen that -yor, continuous time suffix which is never be used in Urfa dialect, started to be used in both form by breaking the general rule: like gidīyor, gidiy "gidiyor" etc. In addition to the sounds b, c, ç, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, ş, t, v, y, z in Turkey Turkish/TT written language, ğ, ħ, ħ, k, ' ayın and ' hemze sounds were determined. There is no j sound in Urfa dialect. Just like in Old Anatolian Turkish/OAT, this sound is only seen in the taken words. Only the word vicdan>vijdan formed as a result of the change c>j in local folk music compilation is detected. Depending on the general sound rules of Turkish, c, ğ, l,

m, v sounds are located among the sounds which are not found in the beginning of the words and b, c, d, g, ğ at the end of a word or syllables. On the contrary to the general sound rules of Turkish, b, d, ğ sounds are seen in the foreign words like kebāb>kebab “kebab”, etc. c and ğ are seen at the end of both Turkish words like hem dağ>dağ “yara” etc. and taken words like ħarāc>ħerac “haraç” etc. Sound ğ has been used at the end of a word and syllables in old Turkish and it is a sound found today in some Turkish dialect except Western Turkish/WT.), morphology criteria (vowel changes: thinning of thick vowels-thickening of thin vowels-rounding of flat vowels-flattening of round vowels-narrowing of wide vowels-widening of narrow vowels-transformation of narrow/round vowels into semi narrow/round vowels, consonant changes: toning/un-toning/continuing/discontinuing/some changes among continuous consonants/other changes), lexicon criteria (Arabic-Persian translations, metaphorical meanings, shape and usage types of local words located in 128 song text belong to Urfa region, even though they are removed from Turkey Turkish/TT written language, they are used in Urfa/Kerkuk/Talaffer Dialect/UKTD widely are given under the title index and dictionary, respectively) (Ozbek, 2010, pp. iii-iv, 5-10, 11-19, 34-41, 113-253). (See Table 1-2-3-4).

Turkish folk music phonetic notation system/tfmpns musicology/musicolinguistics/musicolect/musicolinguistical performance characteristics

The result of research conducted in the field of musicology musicophone (all kinds of musicological axis musico-phonetic term/concept/items: Yucel, 2009: 1-7, 14-18, 190), musico-allophone(all kinds of musicological axis sub-phonemic term/concept/item: Brown, 2000: 271-300), musicophonical (all kinds of musicological axis morpho-phoneme term/concept/items: Feld & Fox, 1994: 25-53), musico-morphological (all kinds of musicological axis musico-morpho-phoneme term/concept/items: Antović, 2005: 243-257) drew attention to the terms musicologists by the musicological features that existed due to the musicological law (musicological axis in every variant/variant/variation: musicology/musicophone-musicoallophone-musicophonem-musicomorpheme/musicophonomical-musicomorphemical variant/musicological performance: musicophonemic/musicallophonic/musicophonemic/musicomorphemic sensibilities development processes: phonological/morphological/vocabulary criteria: specific to audio symbolic/iconic plural units: notes/changer signs/nuances terms/articulation marks/octave determinants: Radhakrishnan, 2011 : 422-463) local/with universal relevance is emphasized that existed in theoretical performative infrastructure musicolinguistic text (Demir, 2011).

The result of structured research in the field of musicolectology, it has been emphasized by musicolectologists that the term musicolect (types and forms of rhetorical/phonological/executive representational use of musical language: Stone, 2008: 51-53) consisting of musico (all kinds of musical terms/concepts/elements on the axis of musicology: Hacıoğlu, 2009: 23-24, 74-77)-lect (all kinds of variant/variation on musicolinguistic axis: Şenel, 1997-98: 1-3) maintains its existence within the theoretical/performative framework of literary/musical text of Turkish folk music defined as an artistic performance genre at the level of phonetics/morphology/vocabulary standards with local/universal relevance (phonetic/morphological/lexical), on the axis of local variations method (the reasons of

variations/diversification in music: local non-music factors: regional/ethnic/social groups/musical language relations/professional/social status/education/faith/context/age/gender factor/size etc: Yöre, 2012: 563-585) and within the framework of musicolinguistical characteristics (pre-rational/pre-linguistic/pre-artistic oral cultural psychodynamics and performance ideas: Feld & Fox, 1994: 25-53, temporary-fluent-fricative sequential articulation of the sound and arrangement organizations: Antović, 2005: 243-257, oral-literary performative types and forms: Radhakrishnan, 2011: 422-463) and at the level of phonetics/morphology/vocabulary criteria with local/universal relevance (Ozbek, 2010).

Musicolectology/musicolinguistics/musicolect/musicolinguistical performance characteristics of the literary/musical texts of Urfa Turkish folk music defined as a kind of verbal/artistic performance were evaluated in six levels, including formal characteristics (Urfa/Kirkuk/Tallâffer Dialects Turkish Language Institution Transcription Signs/UKTD TLITS that have been transcript in axis Urfa of local 128 of Turkish folk music literary/musical texts, poetry and formats: mania/66, rough/21, running/small number of songs/51, ode/authorities, squared/1 and muhammes/1) dimensional specifications (sofa/structured in folk literature specific prosodic elements axis of Turkish folk music, literary/musical texts measure/rhyme types and formats: few in number but are each side of what has been said sofa-style poetry with prosody a sequence number so that 5, 6, 7, 8 and 11'l the syllabic as well as the rhyme of all types of mold are numerous with 1/2 based on consonant match half-rhyme) contextual features (the style/type and form of Turkish folk music literary/musical texts structured on the axis of Kirkuk/Telafer subdialects located in Iraqi Turkmen region and Sanliurfa downtown subdialect located in Southeast Anatolia: local singing/local dialect features structured on the axis of phonology-phonetics/morphology-morphological/vocabulary-lexical criteria of Old Anatolian Turkish and Oguz Azerbaijani Turkish) literary arts (Turkish folk music, literary/musical texts literary/musical types and forms structured on the axis of verbal/artistic performance display elements: personification, simile, pun, reference ve wordplay, mahmudiye, mesnevîs, Abrahamic, Bashir, Persian, elezber, divan) representational/expressive qualities (Turkish folk music literary/musical texts literary/musical types and forms structured on the axis of natural utterance elements matching the colloquial: poetic folk literature products including short/inverse/interrogative sentences, appeals/shouting words, words/terms/audio/size/rhyme repetitions, skill to transform word into poetry, nature of lover,expression of love, proper names, historical/mythological figures, personality/title/communities, time/space, country/city/place names, marital life, aphorisms, judgments, statements, local words, mimicking words, exclamations) the performance tradition (folklore analysis model of the performance/execution in representation theory axis structuring the Turkish folk music literary/musical texts phonic/verbal executive types and formats: TOR/types/forms of diversity, the original rhythm/bright expression/three octaves of the artist with the sound width/mem in/mevlidh those/singers of/Zakir villages rooms/well at night/mountain yacht, etc.) (Ozbek, 2010: iii-iv, 5- 9, 11-19, 34-41, 97-112, 113-253, 330-336). (See Table 5-6).

SUMMARY

Performance theory of folklore analysis model (folkloristic axis in any performative variant/alternate/range: performative to the individual axis types

and formats: Cobanoglu, 1999), linguistic approaches in ethnomusicology (all kinds of musicolinguistic axis graphological/rhetorical/phonological variant/alternate/range: individual axis linguistic/phonetics types and formats: Stone, 2008) and dynamism in the context of interpreting the criteria for the work of Turkish folk music traditional music (all kinds of musicological axis dialectical/stylistic/stylistic variant/alternate/range: musical genres and styles to have on individual axis: Parlak, 2013) axis in verbal/artistic performance genre and prelinguistic/preartistic defined as an origin language Turkish folk literary/musical text of theoretical/performative infrastructure at the local/global correlation together with phonology/morphology/vocabulary (Ozbek, 2010) existed at the level of criteria; phonolectology/phonolinguistics / phonolects / phonolinguistical performance characteristics (phonological recall / encoding / memory / grapheme / processing / manipulation/strategy, phonetic motor planning/audio vocabulary potential), musicolectology/musicolinguistics / musicolect / musicolinguistical performance characteristics (prelinguistic/pre-artistic oral culture psychodynamics and performance ideas) Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Database/TFMPNS D (Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Alphabet Database/TFMPNS AD & Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Sound Database/TFMPNS SD & Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Dictionary Database/TFMPNS DD & Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Works Database/TFMPNS WD & Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Phonetic Therapy Applications/TFMPNS PTA & Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Phonotactical Awareness Skills Development Processes/TFMPNS PASDP & Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Phonotactical Probability Calculator Database/THMFNS PPCD & Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Aural Distinction Test/TFMPNS ADT & Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Articulation Test/TFMPNS AT & Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Phonological Awareness Competencies Education Sessions/TFMPNS PACES & Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Phonological Awareness Competencies Control Lists/TFMPNS PACCL & Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Phonological/Morphological/Lexicological Criteria Identification Test/TFMPNS PMLCIT & Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Phonetic Analysis Test/TFMPNS PAT & Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Sound Vocabulary Analysis Tests/TFMPNS SVAT & Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Phonetical Analysis Assessment Form/TFMPNS PAAF & Turkish Folk Music Phonetic Notation System Phonological Awareness Competencies Assessment Group/TFMPNS PACAG ect) to the transfer/adaptation process must be carried out.

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CONTRIBUTION OF EARLY ARAB SCHOLARS IN PHONETICS IN LIGHT OF MODERN PHONETICS

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Abstract

This paper investigates the contribution of early Arab scholars in general phonetics and phonology and its impact on modern phonetics. It is important to note that phonetics and phonology were not independent disciplines. Rather, they were part of other disciplines. Therefore, in terms of early Arab contribution to phonetics and phonology, their scholarship can be derived from three major areas:

(i) Arabic linguistics whose pioneers are Alkhalīl Al-Farāhīdi through his book *Al'ain*, Sibawayh through his book *Al-Kitāb*, and Ibn Jinni through his book *Sir Sjnā'at Ali'rāb*.

(ii) medicine, philosophy and music whose most prominent figures are Al-Kindi through his book *Istikhrāj Al-mu'mma*, Al-Farābi through his book *Al-Musīqā Al-Kabīr*, and Ibn Sīna through his book *Asbāb Huddūth Al-Harf*.

(iii) the modes of reading and the art of reciting the Qur'an (*Tajwīd*) whose most important contributors are Abu Amr Al-Dāni in his book *Al-Tahdeed fī Al-Itqān wal-Tajwīd*, Makki bin Abi Taleb Al-Qaisi in his book *Al-Ri'āyah litajwīd Al-Qirā'ah wa tahqīq Al-Tilāwah*, and Ibn Al-Jazari in his books *Al-Tamhīd fī 'ilm Al-Tajwīd* and *Al-Mukaddimah Al-Juzariyyah*.

It can be argued that Al-Farāhīdi and Sibawayh are the architects who lay the foundation of Arabic phonetics and phonology. In spite of the lack of equipment and modern tools, both have included in their linguistic works detailed phonetic and phonological treatises on classical Arabic that defined the parameters of these two sub-disciplines for subsequent centuries. This paper highlights the creativity of these early phoneticians in initiating the technical terminology and the analytical tools for the study of Arabic phonetics that are unique to this tradition. However, the paper also points out the areas in which the phonetic analysis of early Arab phoneticians is inadequate, the discrepancies in their discussion, and the areas of agreement with modern discoveries in the field of phonetics and phonology.

Keywords: *phonetics, Alkhalīl Al-Farāhīdi, Sibawayh, Ibn Jinni, Ibn Sīna*

1. Introduction

Interest in phonetics is not confined to the modern times. It is as ancient as the beginning of human languages. The early Arabs have contributed heavily to the advancement of this discipline and produced quality research and made new discoveries. The first Arab linguist who has investigated sounds and the phonemic inventory of the Arabic language is Alkhalīl bin Ahmad Al-Farāhīdi (d. 170/786). Other linguists who have followed the steps of Alkhalīl and contributed to the disciplines of phonetics and phonology are Sibawayh (d. 180/796), Ibn Jinni (d.395/1004), Ibn Duraid, (d.223/933) Al-Mubarrad, (d. 286/899), al-Azhari, (d.370/980), Ibn Manthuwir (d. 630/1311) and Ibn Sīna (d.427/1037).

The extent of contribution made by early Arab phoneticians to the development of phonetic tradition has not been acknowledged by the biographical accounts which record the commencement and growth of linguistics. However, some western scholars have valued the effort of early Arab scholars in phonetics and phonology such as Bergsträsser (1994:13) who states that “*the western phoneticians were not preceded by any nation except for Arabs and Indians*”. He also acknowledges that Alkhalīl Al-Farāhīdī is the founder of phonetics. Firth (cited in Al-Najjār (2004)) also states that phonetics has evolved and grown in the service of two holy languages: Sanskrit and Arabic. Indian scholars have also been deeply involved in the study of phonetics. The Indian scholars have been the first who have discussed phonetics as an independent discipline of linguistics. A famous Indian phonetician is Panini whose book is “*Ashtadhyayi*”. Robins (1976:24) claims that Arabs and Indians used more adequate terminology in phonetics and articulation than the terminology used by the Greeco-Roman scholars. Robins (1976:98) also claims that the Sibawayh’s phonetic description was not up to the Indian standards, his phonetic description was ahead of preceding and contemporary western phonetic science. He also claims that Shadah (1931) argues that “*Sibawayh deserves, due to his endeavor in phonetics, to be considered one of the greatest honor of the Arabs*”. The term ‘phonetics’ (*‘ilm al-aswāt*) per se has been used by the Arab scholar Ibn Jinni. However, the elements of the phonetic analysis have been investigated thoroughly by the Arab linguists, scholars of medicine, music, modes of reading, and *Tajwīd*.

2. Areas of Arab endeavors in phonetics

Sciences that have contributed to the emergence of Arabic phonetics can be observed in three domains: (Al-Tayyal,1994:2).

- (i) sciences of the Arabic language (grammar, morphology, syntax, rhetoric, and prosody),
- (ii) sciences of philosophy, medicine and music,
- (iii) sciences of modes of reading and *Tajwīd*,

Due to the fact that only the above first and second areas are relevant to the current research, these two areas will be discussed below:

2.1 Areas of Arabic language studies

The study of Arabic as a science starts with the appearance of the first Arabic dictionary *alʿain* (The Voiced Pharyngeal Fricative /ʕ/) by Alkhalīl Al-Farāhīdī. The title *alʿain* is based on his claim that the place of articulation of the sound /ʕ/ is the first sound which the Arabs produce from the pharynx. The book is considered as the first phonetic analysis in the history of Arabic linguistics. His books on phonetics are *tarākīb al-aswāt* (Structure of Sounds), *kitāb al-nagham*, (The Book of Melodies), and *kitāb Al-īqāʿa* (The Book of Rhythm) (Al-Hamawi, Y,11:74; Ibn Khillikān, 2:246).

The second inspiring figure in this area is the student of Alkhalīl Al-Farāhīdī, Sibawayh, whose magnum opus is *Al-Kitāb* (The Book) which includes a thorough analysis of Arabic phonetic and phonological fundamental problems that vary from the description of the places and manners of articulation to the study of the suprasegmental features such as assimilation, dialectology and modes of reading. It also presents a deep analysis of the Arabic phonemes and the allophonic

variations of some sounds. He also discusses the allophones of the glottal stop and the phonetic variations such as the full articulation of the glottal stop /ʔ/, the leaning pronunciation (*al-imālah*), the vowelization (*al-l'āl*) and replacement (*al-ibdāl*) of the glottal stop. The book has been considered as a major reference to all phoneticians, grammarians, and dialectologists for subsequent centuries.

Other important scholars in the area of Arabic language studies are Alzubarrad whose book is *Al-Muqtadhab*, Ibn Al-Sirāj (d.316/928) whose books are *Al-Usuul fi Alnahw*, and *Risālat al-Ishtiqāq*, Ibn Duraid whose book is *Al-Jamharah*, Alzajāji (d.340/951) whose book is *Al-Jumal*, and *Al-Azhari* whose book is *Al-Tahthib*. Scholars who explain the book of Sibawayh and elaborate on his phonetic ideas are like Al-Sirāfi (d.368/978), whose book is *Sharh Kitāb Sibawayh*, Al-Rummani (d.384/994) whose book is *Sharh Kitāb Sibawayh*, Al-A'lam Al-Shantamari (d.476/1083), whose book is *Sharh Shawāhid Sibawayh*, Abu Ali Alfārsi (d.377/987) whose book is *Ta'līqah ala Kitāb Sibawayh*. Another important scholar is *Al-Zamakhshari* (d.538/1143) whose book *Al-Mufassal* has been elaborated on by Ibn Ya'īsh (d.643/1245) meticulously especially with reference to the science of phonetics. Another great scholar is Al-Ridha Al-Isterbāthi (d.686/1287) whose book is *Al-Shāfi'a* which is a detailed morphophonemic analysis of Arabic. Other books on phonetics that are not available today but have only been mentioned in old Arabic references are like *Al-Aswāt* by Qutrub (Sibawayh's student) (d.206/821), *Al-Aswāt* by Al-Akhfash (d.215/830), *Al-Aswāt* by Ya'qūb bin Alsukeit (d.246/860), *Al-Aswāt* by Ibn Abi Dunia (d.281/894), *Al-Swāt wal-Bahha* by Yehya Bin Masweih (d.243/857), and *Al-sawt* by Galenus which is translated into Arabic by Hunayn ibn Ishaq (d.298/910).

The second famous phonetician after Sibawayh is Ibn Jinni who is the first linguist to author a book on phonetics as an independent discipline. In his book *Sir Sinā'at Ali'rāb*, Ibn Jinni gives a detailed description of the places of articulation, manners of articulation, and the suprasegmental features such as *i'āl* (vowelization), *ibdāl* (replacement), *idghām* (assimilation), '*alnaq*' (transfer), '*alhathf*' (deletion). He also discusses the differences between the letter and the vowel, suitable and odd sounds, gemination and degemination and other phonological issues. He is considered to be truly a pioneer in the field of phonetics and phonology. His phonetic writings were not only confined to his book '*Sir Snā'at Ali'rāb*'. However, you can also find phonetic analysis in his other book '*Al-Khasāis*' in which he tackles phonological problems such as the 'quality of vowels', 'vowel lengthening' and 'consonant lengthening' (Bohas et al (1990)). Omer (2003:100) claims that Ibn Jinni is the first linguist who uses the term '*ilm Al-Aswāt*' (phonetics). As a result of his deep interest in phonetics, Ibn Jinni writes another book on the 'length of vowels and sounds' (*Risālah fi Madd al-Aswāt wa Maqādīr Almaddāt*). Ibn Jinni's ideas and books have attracted the attention and interest of different western and Arabic scholars and phoneticians such as Henry Flesh in his paper "*Al-Tafkīr Al-Sawti 'ind Al-Arab fi Dhaw 'Sir Sinā'at Ali'rāb libni Jinni'*", Hussam Al-Nu'emi in his book "*Al-dirāsāt Allahgiyyah wa Al-sawtiyyah 'ind Ibn Jinni'*", and Mohammad Hassan Bakla in his book '*Ibn Jinni 'Alim Al-Sawtiyyāt*'.

Phonological problems are also discussed in several books on Arabic linguistics, such as '*kitāb Al-Jīm*' on dialectology by Abi 'Amr Al-Shaibāni (d. 206), *Al-Bayān wal- Tabyīn* by Al-Jāhiz (d.255/868) in which he discusses *Al-Lathghah* (lisp) as a speech defect, sound structure, and repetition of sounds. *Abu Hātim Al-Rāzi*

(d.322/933) in his book *Al-Zīnah*, carries out a contrastive linguistic analysis of Arabic and Persian sounds. Abu Bakr Al-Bāqillani (d.403/1012) in his book '*ʿĴāz Al-Quran*' discusses the manners of articulation and their relationship to Quranic verse-opening words. Al-Khafaji (d.466/1073) writes *Sir Al-Fasāha* (Secret of the Eloquence) in which he discusses the essence of sounds, places and manners of articulation and gemination and degemination of sounds. Alfakhr Al-Rāzi (d.606/1206) in his exegesis (*Al-Tafsīr Al-Kabīr*) discusses sounds, their initiation, and their relation to anatomy. In his other book *Al-Mabāhith Al-Mashriyyah fi 'Ilm Al-Ilāhiyyat Al-Tabi'yāt* demonstrates the speech mechanism in such a way that is almost similar to modern physiology (Al-Tayyal,1994:7). The noticeable problem in the Arabic history of phonetics and phonology is that subsequent linguists do not improve the findings of early linguists such as Al-Farahīdi, Sibawayh, Ibn Jinni and Ibn Sīna. The subsequent linguists, for centuries, only recycle what the early Arab scholars have written. However, the subsequent linguist Al-Sakāki through his *Miftāh Al-Olūm* has successfully drawn a preliminary sketch of the vocal organs which can be claimed to be compatible with today's account (Heselwood and Hassan, 2011).

2.2 Areas of philosophy, medicine and music

The first pioneering figure in this field is the philosopher Al-Kindi (d.260/873) who studies sounds very closely and wrote many books such as *Istikhrāj Al-mu'mma* (cryptography) in which he presents the repetition and re-arrangement of sounds based on a phonological rule devised by Al-Kindi. According to this phonological rule, he classifies sounds into consonants and vowels (*sāit and sāmit*). Based on his own statistics, Al-Kindi makes a universal conclusion that consonants are more frequent than vowels in all languages. Then, he divides vowels into long and short. Moreover, he establishes more than one hundred phonological rules of euphony and cacophony. Al-Kindi has also written another book of applied phonetics (*Allathghah* (lispings)) in which he tackles speech defects. In the introduction of the book, he gives a detailed description of the speech mechanisms of various languages. Then he discusses the reasons of lispings and the description of places of articulation with an anatomical analysis. Al-Kindi is the first Arabic physician who discusses acoustic phonetics, dynamics of air, air stream mechanism, and auditory perception of linguistic and non-linguistic sounds (Al-Hleis, 1985:101).

The second important scholar is Al-Farābi (d.339/950). In his book *Al-Musīqa Al-Kabīr*, he discusses sound and consonance, lax and hard sounds. He also refers to the possibility of using some machines to measure the sound. Ikhwan Al-Safa (4th/10th century) have composed a book on music *Al-Musīqa* in which they discuss the auditory power of sounds.

Another prominent scholar is Ibn Sīna (d. 428/1036). In his highly valued book *Asbāb Huddūth Al-Harf* he unprecedentedly discusses a variety of phonetic problems from different perspectives. These problems include:

- (i) articulatory phonetics,
- (ii) physics of speech,
- (iii) anatomy of vocal organs,
- (iv) contrastive phonetics where he contrasts Arabic sounds to other sounds of different languages, and
- (v) onomatopoeia.

2.3. Area of modes of reading and Tajwīd

The scholars of this area connect the study of phonetics to the study of the Quran and Quranic recitation. Bergsträsser (1994:13) points out that “the science of phonetics was part of the science of grammar and the readers of the Quran use it for the sake of improvement the recitation of the Quran”. Tajwīd is the practical phonetics of Quranic discourse. The problems that are discussed in Tajwīd are:

- (i) assimilation of *nun* /n/ and nunation (*tanwīn*),
- (ii) gemination,
- (iii) the states of the glottal stop,
- (iv) phonemes and allophones, and
- (v) places and manners of articulation

The first poem composed in this area of study is *Al-Qasīdah Al-Khaqāniyyah in Tajwīd* by Musa bin Khaqān (d.325/936). The poem is explained by Imam Al-Dāni (d. 444/1052) who also authors a book on tajwīd (*Al-Tahdīd fi Al-Itqān wal-Tajwīd (Tajwīd Al-Tilāwah)*) (p:98). The most important book on Tajwīd is *Al-Ri'āyah litajwīd Al-Qirā'ah wa tahqīq Al-Tilāwah* by Makki bin Abi Taleb Al-Qaisi (d. 437/1045). In this book, he discusses the following themes (Al-Qaisi 1996):

- (i) a detailed account of forty four manners of articulation of Arabic sounds,
- (ii) the state and the different allophonic variations of the glottal stop,
- (iii) different allophonic pronunciations of Quranic phonemes,
- (iv) the states of nasal sounds,
- (v) the differences in places of articulation, and
- (vi) gemination and degemination.

All the scholars who come after Makki bin Abi Taleb Al-Qaisi have only followed his steps. In other words, they have not effectively contributed to this field with the exception of the prominent scholar Ibn Al-Jazari (d. 833/1429) who has authored several books and composed many poems in the field of modes of reading and tajwīd, such as *Al-Tamhīd fi 'ilm Al- Tajwīd* and *Al-Mukaddimah Al-Juzariyyah*.

3. Contribution of early pioneers of Arabic phonetics

In this section, we will discuss the scholarship of major early Arab phoneticians. With regards to the first area (Arabic linguistic studies), Al-Farāhīdi and Sibawayh will be discussed. As for the second area (philosophy, medicine and music), Ibn Sīna will be discussed. The third area (modes of reading and tajwīd) falls outside the scope of the present discussion.

3.1 Alkhalīl bin Ahmad Al-Farāhīdi

Al-Makhzumi (1986) claims that Al-Farāhīdi is the first Arab linguist who has discovered the relationship between the study of phonetics and the study of morphological and syntactic analysis. Al-Farāhīdi has also paid attention to the study of phonetics. His research in the rearrangement of the order of sound description based on their places of articulation and adroitly has paved the ground for the subsequent phoneticians and enabled them to describe the manner of articulation and the segmental and suprasegmental features of Arabic. Let us consider how Al-Farāhīdi arranges the description of the Arabic sounds according to his book *Al-fain*:

3.1.1 Al-Farāhīdī's order of consonants

In his introduction to *Alfain*, Al-Farāhīdī introduces a phonetically-based alphabet different from the traditional letter-based alphabet and argues that he “cannot start with description of the alif, /a/ as it is a vowel and not a consonant” (1999, 1:47). Since it is impossible to start with the letter-based alphabet *alif* /a/, he does not like to start with the *ba* /b/ without any phonological evidence. When he closely looks into the sounds based on their places of articulation and based on the air stream mechanism, Al-Farāhīdī prefers to start with the voiced pharyngeal fricative /ʕ/ because, in his view, it is the first sound which humans produce from the pharyngeal cavity. The experiment that he has conducted has been to utter a sound preceded by a vowel [ab], [ak] [aχ] etc. Based on this experiment, he orders the sounds beginning from the pharyngeal /ʕ/, velar, palatal, alveolar to the bilabial nasal /m/. As a result, the word *alfain* has been given as a title to his book. Despite the fact the pharyngeal /ʕ/ is not the first sound to produce from the pharyngeal cavity because it is preceded by the glottal sounds /ʔ/ and /h/ in terms of modern phonetics, Al-Farāhīdī has preferred to use the /ʕ/ as a title for his book and the first sound to describe phonetically. His position is based on the fact that the glottal stop /ʔ/ and the glottal fricative /h/ are phonetically problematic. We can, therefore, claim that the description of sounds based on their horizontal dimension is attributed to Al-Farāhīdī. However, Ibn Kayysān (d. 299/911) argues that Al-Farāhīdī has been aware of the fact that the /ʕ/ is preceded by the glottal stop /ʔ/ and the glottal fricative /h/. As quoted by Al-Suyūti (1999, 1:90), Ibn Kayysān has claimed that Al-Khalīl says: “I neither start my book with the description of the glottal stop /ʔ/ because it is subject to change, deletion and shortening, nor with the alif /a/ because it cannot be on the onset of a word, nor with the glottal fricative /h/ because it is a hidden voiceless sound. Thus, I have come down to the second cavity in which I have found the pharyngeals /ħ/ and /ʕ/. I have also found that the /ʕ/ is phonetically clearer in pronunciation than the /ħ/. For this reason, I have started my phonetic description with /ʕ/”.

According to Al-Farāhīdī, the order of the consonants based on their points of articulation is as follows:

/ʕ/, /ħ/, /h/, /χ/, /ʁ/, /q/, /k/, /dʒ/, /ʃ/, /d/, /sʕ/, /s/, /z/, /tʕ/, /d/, /t/, /ðʕ/, /θ/, /ð/, /r/, /l/, /n/, /f/, /b/, /m/, /w/, /a/, /j/.

3.1.1.1 Comparison between Al-Farāhīdī's order and the IPA chart

Let us consider the following Table 1 which compares the order of Al-Farāhīdī to the order of the modern IPA chart.

Table 1. Order of consonants according to Al-Farahīdī and to the IPA chart.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
Alfarāhīdī's order	ʕ	h	ħ	χ	ʁ	q	k	dʒ	ʃ	d	s	s	z	t	d	t	ð	θ	ð	r	l	n	f	b	m	w	a	j
IPA chart order	ʔ	h	ħ	χ	ʁ	q	k	j	ʃ	dʒ	s	s	z	t	t	d	d	l	r	n	ð	ð	θ	f	b	m	w	

Based on Table 1 above, we can make the following observations:

- (i) the number of the sounds in both lists is the same; however, there is a

mixture between consonants and vowels in Al-Farāhīdī's order as we can observe in number (27) where he adds the *alif* /a/. However, we believe that he considers the *alif* and the *hamza* /ʔ/ as two allophones of the same phoneme due to the confusion in writing.

(ii) the glottal fricative /h/ comes after the /ʕ/ and /ħ/ in Al-Farāhīdī's order while it is before /ʕ/ and /ħ/ in the IPA order.

(iii) from number (4) to number (16), the order of Al-Farāhīdī is similar to the order of the IPA chart where the horizontal dimension runs from the uvulars /χ, ʁ, q/ to the velar /k/, then to the postalveolars /ʃ, ʒ/, and finally to the alveolars /ɖ, s^ɕ, s, z, t^ɕ, d, t/.

(iv) the labiodentals /ð^ɕ, θ, ð/ come before the alveolars /r, l, n/ in Al-Farāhīdī's order whereas they come after the alveolars in the IPA chart.

(v) the bilabials /b, m w/ are similar to the IPA chart order.

(vi) the palatal semivowel /j/ comes at the end of the list in Al-Farāhīdī's order because he considers it as a vowel; however, this semivowel is palatal approximant in the IPA chart.

3.1.1.2 Al-Farāhīdī's grouping of consonants compared to the IPA's order

Al-Farāhīdī does not only order the consonants based on their places of articulation, but he also groups them in categories based on their places of articulation and gives each category a descriptive title. Table 2 shows Al-Farāhīdī's grouping of sounds based on their places of articulation:

Table 2. Al-Farāhīdī's grouping of sounds based on their places of articulation:

	sounds	P.O.A	translation	IPA
1	ʕ ħ ʁ χ	halqiyya	pharyngeals	pharyngeal & uvular
2	q k	lahawiyya	uvulars	uvular & velar
3	ɖʒ ʃ ɖ	shajriyyah	palatal	postalveolar & alveolar
4	s ^ɕ s z	asaliiyyah	apical	apico-alveolar
5	t ^ɕ t d	nat'iyyah	alveolar	apico-alveolar
6	r l n	thalaqiyyah	laminal	lamino-alveolar
7	ð ^ɕ θ ð	lathawiyyah	gum ridge	dental
8	f b m	shafawiyyah	bilabial	bilabial
9	j w a ʔ	hawiyyah	oral	palatal, bilabial, open vowel, glottal stop

Based on table 2, we can make the following observations:

(i) Al-Farāhīdī considers /ʕ/, /ħ/, /ʁ/, and /χ/ as pharyngeals (*halqiyyah*) whereas in the IPA chart classification, the /ʕ/ and /ħ/ are pharyngeals but /ʁ/ and /χ/ are uvulars.

(ii) Al-Farāhīdī puts /q/ and /k/ in one category as uvulars (*lahawiyyah*); however, the /q/ is uvular while /k/ is velar according to the classification of the IPA chart.

(iii) /ɖʒ/, /ʃ/ and /ɖ/ are classified as palatals (*shajriyyah*) by Al-Farāhīdī; according to the IPA chart, the /ɖʒ/, /ʃ/ are postalveolar or prepalatal while the /ɖ/ is described as voiced pharyngealized alveolar where the pharynx is involved in the production of /ɖ/ as a secondary articulation.

(iv) The /s^ɕ/, /s/ and /z/ are named by Al-Farāhīdī after the active articulator, i.e., the apex of the tongue. In the IPA chart, places of articulation are given based

on the passive articulators. Consequently, /s^c/, /s/ and /z/ are apico-alveolar in the IPA chart.

(v) The /t^c/, /t/ and /d/ are described by Al-Farāhīdi as alveolars (*nat'iyyah*) which is similar to the description of the IPA chart. However, the IPA chart describes the /t^c/ as voiceless pharyngealized alveolar where the pharynx is involved in the production of /t^c/ as a secondary articulation.

(vi) The /r/, /l/ and /n/ are described by Al-Farāhīdi as *dhalāqīyyah* (laminal). This description is based on the active articulator. In modern phonetics, the /r/ and the /l/ are described as lamino-alveolar or laminal coronals where the description is primarily based on the passive articulator.

(vii) The /ð^c/, /θ/ and /ð/ are described by Al-Farāhīdi as *lathawīyyah* (gum). This definition is not in line with the description of the IPA chart. In modern phonetics, the /θ/ and the /ð/ are described as dental; the /ð^c/ is described as a pharyngealized dental because the pharynx is involved in the production of the /ð^c/ as a secondary articulation.

(viii) The /f/, /b/, and /m/ are described by Al-Farāhīdi as bilabial (*shafawīyyah*). This description corresponds to the modern description by the IPA chart. The difference between /f, b/ and /m/ is that the /m/ is nasal whereas the /f/ and the /b/ are oral sounds.

(ix) The /j/, /w/, /a/, and /ʔ/ are described by Al-Farāhīdi as *hawā'iyyah* (pneumatic). In the IPA chart, the description is totally different. The /j/ is dorso-palatal, the /w/ is labio-velar, the /a/ is an open vowel, and the /ʔ/ is a glottal stop.

3.2 Sibawayh

Through his book *Al-kitāb*, the most celebrated book ever written on Arabic and linguistics, Sibawayh has had the greatest impact on the study of Arabic and Arabic linguistics until our present time (Al-Ani, 1995). The name Sibawayh has been proverbial in the traditional study of the Arabic grammar. Sibawayh himself gives credit to his teacher and mentor, Al-Farāhīdi, whom he acknowledges and quotes throughout his book (ibid 1995).

3.2.1 Sibawayh's grouping of consonants

Sibawayh follows the steps of his teacher, Al-Farāhīdi, with regards to the vocal organs and the places of articulation of sounds. However, the order of sounds in Sibawayh's book is different from the order of Al-Farāhīdi. Sibawayh starts with the glottal stop *hamza* /ʔ/ and the glottal fricative /h/, followed by /ʁ/ and /χ/; he has also ordered the /k/ before the /q/. He claims that Arabic has sixteen places of articulation (Sibawayh 1999, 4:431). In fact, they are fifteen. Table 3 displays Sibawayh's grouping of sounds based on their places of articulation.

Table 3. displays Sibawayh's grouping of sounds based on their places of articulation:

	sounds	P.O.A	description
1	ʔ h a	aqsa alhalq	furthest point of pharynx
2	ʕ h	wasat alhaq	middle point of pharynx
3	ʁ χ	adna alhalq	nearest point of pharynx
4	q	aqsa allisaan	furthest point of tongue with the above articulator
5	k	below the /q/	Below the place of /q/ opposite to the velum

6	ɖʒ ʃ j	wasat allisaan	middle of tongue opposite to the middle of the palate
7	ð	haafat allisaan	blade of tongue and the neighboring area opposite to the molars
8	n	haafat allisaan	blade and tip of tongue opposite to the above area behind the teeth
9	r l	haafat allisaan	blade of tongue behind /n/ and opposite to the above area behind the teeth
10	t̪ d t	taraf allisaan	between the tip of tongue and the gum ridge
11	z s s̺	taraf allisaan	between the tip of tongue and the behind the teeth
12	ð̺ θ̺ θ̺	taraf allisaan	between the tip of tongue and the tips of teeth
13	f	batin alshafa lsufla	exolabial with the superior teeth
14	j w a ʔ	bajn alshaftein	between the two lips
15	ŋ	khayashiim	From the nasal cavity

3.2.2 Sibawayh's grouping of consonants compared to Al Al-Farāhīdi's and the IPA's order

We can argue that neither Al-Farāhīdi nor Sibawayh have been aware of the difference between the larynx and the pharynx. They give them the same term (*alhalq*). Consequently, they place all the glottals and the pharyngeals under one category, i.e., the *halqiyyah*. Table 4 compares the order of sounds in Sibawayh and in Al-Farāhīdi to the order of the IPA chart based on the places of articulation of sounds.

Table 4. Order of places of articulation in Sibawayh and in Alfarahiidi and in the IPA chart

No.	Alfarahiidi	P.O.A	Sibawayh	P.O.A	IPA	P.O.A
1	ʕ h ʁ ʁ	pharyngeals & uvulars	ʔ (a) h	pharyngeals	ʔ h	glottals
2	q k	uvular & velar	ʕ h ʁ ʁ	pharyngeals	ʕ h	pharyngeals
3	ɖʒ ʃ d	postalveolars & pharyngealized alveolar	k q	velar & uvular	ʁ ʁ q	uvulars
4	s̺ s̺ z	alveolars	ð ɖʒ ʃ	pharyngealized alveolar & postalveolars	k	velar
5	t̪ t d	alveolars	j l r	palatal & alveolars	j	palatal
6	r l n	alveolars	n t̪ d	alveolars	ʃ ɖʒ	postalveolars
7	ð̺ θ̺ ð̺	dentals	t s̺	alveolars	l r n t̪ t̪ d s z s̺	alveolars
8	f b m	labiodental & bilabials	z s ð̺	alveolars & Pharyngealized dental	θ̺ ð̺ ð̺	dentals
9	j w a ʔ	palatal & bilabial & vowel & glottal	ð̺ θ̺ f	dentals & labiodental	f	labiodental
10			b m w	bilabials	b m w	bilabials

Table 4 shows that the IPA chart starts with the glottals /ʔ/ and /h/. Sibawayh also starts with the /ʔ/ and the /h/. However, he classifies them as *halqiyyah*

(pharyngeals). Sibawayh also inserts the /a/ as an allophone of /ʔ/ whereas Al-Farāhīdi does not start with the glottals. Rather, he starts with the pharyngeals /ʕ/ and /ħ/ and the uvulars /ʁ/ and /χ/. Again, the order of the pharyngeals in Sibawayh is similar to the order of the IPA chart except that Sibawayh groups the pharyngeals /ʕ/ and /ħ/ with the uvulars /ʁ/ and /χ/. The uvular /q/ is listed before the velar /k/ in Al-Farāhīdi's order which is the same order of the IPA chart whereas the /k/ precedes the /q/ in Sibawayh's order. The order of the palatal /j/ which comes immediately after the velars in the IPA chart is preceded by the postalveolars /ɖʒ/ and /ʃ/ and by the pharyngealized alveolar /ḍ/ in Sibawayh's order. However, it is grouped with the /w/, /a/ and /ʔ/ in Al-Farāhīdi's order. Because the velum or the pharynx is involved in the production of /ḍ/ as a secondary articulator, it has been listed immediately after the uvular /q/ and the velar /k/ in Sibawayh's order. That makes Sibawayh's order more symmetrical to the order of the IPA chart. The order of the alveolars in both Al-Farāhīdi's order and the Sibawayh's order is almost symmetrical to the order of the IPA chart except that the pharyngealized dental /ḏʕ/ is grouped together with the alveolars /z/ and /s/ in Sibawayh's order. However, Sibawayh places the dentals and the labiodental /f/ together in one group and places all the bilabials in one group. This is similar to the IPA chart whereas Al-Farāhīdi places the labiodental and bilabials together in one group.

3.2.3 Sibawayh distinction between voiced and voiceless consonants

Robins (1976:98) claims that the only serious observational failure in Sibawayh's phonetic description lay in not diagnosing the mechanics of the voice-voiceless distinction. Unfortunately, this claim is inaccurate. Not only did Sibawayh describe the places of articulation of Arabic sounds, but he also has gone beyond his teacher Al-Farāhīdi and divided the sounds into two groups: the first group is nineteen consonants and referred to as *majhūrah* (voiced); the second group is ten consonants and referred to as *mahmūsah* (voiceless), (Sibawayh:1982:434). Based on Sibawayh, Table 5 demonstrates sounds into *majhūrah* (voiced) and *mahmūsah* (voiceless):

Table 5 *mahmūsah* and *majhūrah* dichotomy

voiced	voiceless
ʔ a ʕ ʁ q ḍʒ j ḍ l n r tʕ d z ḏʕ ð b m w	h ħ χ k f s t sʕ θ f

Sibawayh's description was similar to that of modern phonetics except for three sounds: /q/, /tʕ/ and the hamza (glottal stop) /ʔ/ which are described as *majhūrah* (voiced) by Sibawayh in this dichotomy. According to Al-Ani (1995), "there is no indication that Sibawayh was aware of the function of the vocal cords, since he made no reference to the function of the glottis. Sibawayh emphasized the amount of *nafas* (breath): it is the amount of breath, or the lack thereof, that plays the role in the dichotomy of this classification". Al-Nasir (1993:38) discusses what Sibawayh has exactly meant by the two terms *mahmūs* and *majhūr* and concludes that for Sibawayh *mahmūs* is equivalent to voiceless and *majhūr* is equivalent to both 'voiced' and 'unvoiced'. In his review of Al-Nasir's book, Al-Ani (1995:3) describes this conclusion as ambiguous and contradictory because voiceless and unvoiced

mean the same thing. Al-Nasir wonders how the same feature can function in a dichotomous manner. In his effort to find an excuse for Sibawayh for considering the /q/ and the /t^ʕ/ as *majhūrah* (voiced), Al-Ani (1995), in his review of Al-Nasir's book, claims that the /q/ and the /t^ʕ/ could have been pronounced as *majhūrah* (voiced) at Sibawayh's time. We believe that this claim is difficult to prove. Al-Ani does not give any account for considering these two sounds only as voiced at that time. Moreover, if we agree with him about the /q/ which is plausible to be pronounced as /g/ in some Arabic dialects, it is difficult to explain how the /t^ʕ/ could be pronounced as voiced. However, Al-Ani gives a good account of the problem when he thinks that Sibawayh has focused on the amount of *nafas* (breath) to distinguish between *mahmūs* (breathy) and *majhūr* (breathless). For Al-Ani, the reasonable explanation is that these two sounds /q/ and /t^ʕ/ are included in the *majhūrah* because they are unaspirated. In his opinion "the amount of breath and aspiration seems to be the key to unraveling the mystery of this phonetic feature. Consequently, if we consider these two sounds as aspirated, they will fit easily into the voiced-voiceless dichotomy. However, Sibawayh did not know the function of the vocal cords. Therefore, the amount of breath or lack of it seems to be the determining factor in his classification of Arabic consonants into *mahmūsaḥ* and *majhūrah* " (Al-Ani 1995:3-4).

3.2.4 Sibawayh's distinction between phonemes and allophones

Sibawayh is the first Arab scholar who distinguishes between phonemes and allophones. Although he does not clearly draw a distinction between the two phonological levels as we know them in modern phonetics, he lists twenty nine phonemes that are unanimously agreed upon to constitute the phonemic inventory of the Arabic language (see Table 3). Allophonically, he makes a list of twenty nine phonemes plus six allophones. The six added allophones are:

- (i) the light *nūn* [n], (nasal) [ŋ],
- (i) the *hamza* [ʔ] that is pronounced between the glottal stop and the vowel /a/,
- (ii) the leaning *alif* (*almumālah*),
- (i) the /ʃ/ which is pronounced as /ɟʃ/,
- (i) the *sād* /s^ʕ/ that is pronounced as /z^ʕ/, and
- (i) the pharyngealized *alif* /ɑ/ as in the dialect of al-Hijāz in [assaʔɑ:h] "prayers", [azzaka:h] "charity" and [alħaja:t] "life".

Sibawayh also adds that the twenty nine phonemes can also be realized as forty two where thirteen allophones are different realizations of the original twenty nine phonemes inventory. He indicates that these thirteen allophones are the result of the influence of foreign languages on the pronunciation of some non-native speakers of Arabic. These allophones are:

- (i) [k] that is pronounced between the voiceless /k/ and the voiced /g/. I believe that the pronunciation of /k/ in the Sudanese dialect is similar to what Sibawayh means by this allophone,
- (i) [ɟʃ] that is similar to /k/,
- (ii) [ɟʃ] that is similar to /ʃ/,
- (iii) [ɖ] that is weak,
- (iv) [s^ʕ] that is similar to /s/,
- (v) [t^ʕ] that is similar to /t/, (this is available in a sub-dialect in Ta'iz, Yemen),

(vi) [ð^s] that is similar to /θ/, and

(vii) [b] that is similar to /f/.

These eight allophones in addition to the six allophones mentioned above constitute fourteen allophones and not thirteen as indicated by Sibawayh. To draw a distinction between what is a phoneme and what is an allophone, Sibawayh emphasizes the fact that these allophones are different realizations of the original twenty nine phonemes.

3.2.5 Sibawayh's description of manners of articulation compared to the IPA's

Sibawayh has been aware of the three dimensions on which the description of consonants is based. By the three dimensions, we mean the state of the glottis (voiced, voiceless), the horizontal dimension (place of articulation), and the vertical dimension (manner of articulation) (Hassan and Heselwood 2011; Dickins 1999; Semaan 1968). We have discussed in section 3.2.3 and 3.2.4 the places of articulation and the voiced-voiceless dichotomy. Now, we turn our attention to how Sibawayh describes the manners of articulation (Sibawayh 1999, 4:423). Table 6 demonstrates the manners of articulation according to Sibawayh. This has influenced subsequent Arab phoneticians until the recent time.

Table 6 Manners of articulation according to Sibawayh

	manners	Sibawayh's definition	sounds	conformity to IPA
1	shadīd (strong or hard)	sounds with (air) being obstructed	ʔ q k dʒ t ^s t d b	plosive and affricate sounds
2	rakhwah (lax or loose)	sounds with (air) being continuant	h ḥ ʁ ʁ ^s s ^s Ḍ z s ḏ ^s θ ḏ f	fricatives except for /d/
3	between shadīd and rakhwah	similar to /h/	ʁ	/ʁ/ is fricative
4	deviating	it is a shadīd sound, but air is not obstructed; it deviates from the centre and air is allowed through the two sides.	l	/l/ is lateral; the description is almost the same like IPA.
5	shadīd nasal	air is obstructed in the mouth but allowed through the nose.	n m	/n/ and /m/ are nasal stops
6	mukarrar	shadīd but air continues for trilling; it allows air like the rakhwah sounds. If there no trilling, there will be no continuation of air.	r	/r/ is trill
7	layyinah	soft because their points of articulation is wider than the other sounds and air is allowed freely	w j	/w/ and /j/ are approximant.
8	hāwi	air is allowed freely more than /w/ and /j/ because you can make your lips completely rounded in /w/ and raise your tongue to the palate in /j/ but you cannot do that in /a/	a	/a/ is a resonant vowel.
9	almuṭbaqah	tongue covers the oral cavity	s ^s Ḍ t ^s ḏ ^s	/s ^s Ḍ t ^s and ḏ ^s / have the velum or pharynx as a secondary articulation.
10	almunfatiha	oral cavity is open except for the point of contact.	All sounds except s ^s Ḍ t ^s ḏ ^s	all other sounds have a primary articulation only

We can safely conclude that although he has used different terms, Sibawayh has also employed all the manners of articulation used in modern phonetics. It is worthwhile to note that when Sibawayh uses the term *al-ṭawt* in his description of manners of articulation, he refers to the air stream mechanism, (Sibawayh 1999, 4:433-434). Consequently, plosives, nasals, fricatives, affricates, trill, lateral and approximant have been used in his description of manners of articulation. The following observations are taken into account:

- (i) plosives and affricates are given one term (*shadīd*),
- (ii) fricatives are given the term *rakhwah*
- (iii) the fricative /ʕ/ is considered as a status between *shadīd* and *rakhwah* by Sibawayh
- (iv) /l/ is considered as a deviating sound, a term which is similar to lateral,
- (v) the nasal sound is accurately described as a *shadīd* nasal which is equivalent to the nasal stop,
- (vi) trill /r/ is given the term *mukarrar*,
- (vii) /w/ and /j/ are considered as *layyinah* (soft), and Sibawayh's description of the term means exactly the same as approximant, and
- (viii) Sibawayh's description of the term *hāwi* is in conformity with the term resonant which means that the stricture is more than the approximant.

The dichotomy of *almuṭbaqah* and *almunfatihah* noticeably distinguishes between the sounds that require secondary articulations (*almuṭbaqah*) and the sounds that require only primary articulations (*almunfatihah*). Moreover, it is worthwhile to note that Sibawayh has argued that *almuṭbaqah* sounds /s^ʕ/ will be /s/, the /t^ʕ/ will be /t/, the /ð^ʕ/ will be /ð/, and the /d/ will never exist without *iṭbāq* (Dickins: 1999). We can claim that what Sibawayh mentions is accurate except for his observation about the /d/ which will be /d/ without *iṭbāq*.

3.3. Ibn Sīna (Avicenna)

Ibn Sīnā is a Persian polymath who is regarded as one of the most influential thinkers and writers of the Islamic Golden Age. Of the 450 works he is known to have written, around 240 have survived, including 150 on philosophy and 40 on medicine. His most famous works are (The Book of Healing – a philosophical and scientific encyclopedia) and (The Law of Medicine – a medical encyclopedia) which has become a standard medical textbook in many medieval universities and has remained in use as late as 1650 (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Avicenna>).

3.3.1 Phonetic problems discussed by Ibn Sīna

Arab phoneticians who have come after Sibawayh are influenced by Sibawayh's ideas in terms of the places and manners of articulation. These phoneticians have kept repeating Sibawayh's ideas without any critical comments or making any improvements. However, when Ibn Sīna appears, he writes his unmatched book *Asbāb ḥuddūth Al-ḥarf*. In this book, he uses phonetic terminologies and discusses phonetic and phonological concepts that are produced for the first time. He documents existing knowledge of speech acoustics and physiology (Heselwood and Hassan 2011; Bohas et al 1990; Semaan 1968). He unprecedentedly discusses a variety of phonetic problems from different perspectives. The problems that he discusses include:

- 1) articulatory phonetics,
- 2) physics of speech,
- 3) anatomy of vocal organs,
- 4) contrastive phonetics where he contrasts Arabic sounds to other sounds of different languages, and
- 5) non-linguistic sounds and onomatopoeia.

3.3.2 Reason of sound occurrence

According to Ibn Sīna, the reason for the occurrence of sound is the quick and forceful undulation of air as a result of two actions: *alqar'* and *alqal'*. These two terms used by Ibn Sīna are equivalent to 'contact' and 'release' in modern phonetics. In his book *Al-Qanūn* (1999, 2:225) he explains "*the muscle that is responsible for the sound is the larynx when it is in the opening position. Larynx is actually the first organ which produces the sound and all other organs are subsidiary and supportive. The initiation phase starts from the diaphragm and the chest muscles. The lungs are responsible for the inhalation and exhalation process and when the air reaches the larynx it is modulated and therefore the sound is produced*".

Ibn Sīna explains that the *qar'* (contact) is not the main reason for the production of sound. According to him, the main reason for the production of sound is the *qal'* (release) as you may have a *qar'* without producing any sound. This is exactly similar to what modern phonetics explains about the production of sound. In modern phonetics, three stages are essential for the production of sound: initiation, phonation, and articulation, (Catford 1977). In the third stage only, we have the contact and release processes where the sound is actually produced. In his book *Al-Shifa* (1966:198) he asks himself a number of questions through which he tries to lay the foundation of articulatory phonetics, acoustic phonetics, and auditory phonetics. His questions are:

- (i) Is sound only the process of *qar'* (contact) and *qal'* (release)?
- (ii) Is it the undulation and waves in the air? or
- (iii) It is a third phase originated in the ears of the receiver of sound?

3.3.3 Anatomy of the larynx

Ibn Sīna has been the first scholar to discuss the anatomy of the larynx. He divides larynx into three cartilages:

- (i) *Alghoḍḍuf aldarāqī (altursi)* = thyroid cartilage

The thyroid cartilage, also known as the Adam's apple, is the largest and uppermost of nine cartilages in the larynx, or voice box. It houses the vocal folds, commonly called the vocal cords. The thyroid cartilage is composed of two plates, called laminae, that join in the front at an angle of 90 to 120 degrees.

- (ii) *'adiim alism* (nameless) = cricoid cartilage

The function of the cricoid cartilage is to provide attachments for the cricothyroid muscle, posterior cricoarytenoid muscle and lateral cricoarytenoid muscle, cartilages, and ligaments involved in opening and closing the airway and in speech production.

- (iii) *almukabbi (altirghāli)* = arytenoid cartilage

The arytenoid cartilage is a pair of pyramid-shaped pieces of cartilage found in the larynx (voice box) which are fundamental to the production of vocal sound. They are located on the dorsal side of the larynx above the cricoid lamina.

3.3.4 Order of consonants compared to the IPA's

Ibn Sīna divides sounds into simple and compound:

- 1) The simple sounds are: /b, t, ḍ, d, ḏ, t^ʕ, q, k, l, m, n/.
- 2) The compound sounds are all other sounds: fricatives, and approximants.

This division shows the genius of Ibn Sīna whose work is in corresponding to the division of modern phonetics. The first category is the stops (plosives and nasals). The sounds in this category are characterized by:

- (i) complete closure,
- (ii) air is trapped behind the two articulators, and
- (iii) sudden release.

The second category contains fricatives and approximants. These sounds are characterized by:

- (i) slight closure,
- (ii) air goes through the two articulators, and
- (iii) gradual release.

Ibn Sīna classifies sounds into consonants (ṣawāmit) and vowels (ṣawāit) (*Asbāb Huddūth Al-Harf* (1983:48). See Table 7.

Table 7 Order of sounds by Ibn Sīna compared to the IPA chart

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
Ibn Sīna's order	ʔ	h	ʕ	ħ	χ	q	χ	k	ḍ	ʃ	ḏ	s ^ʕ	s	z	t ^ʕ	t	d	ð	ḏ ^ʕ	ḏ	l	r	f	b	m	n	w	j
IPA chart order	ʔ	h	ʕ	ħ	χ	q	k	j	ʃ	ḏ	s	s ^ʕ	z	t	t ^ʕ	d	d	l	r	n	ð	ð ^ʕ	θ	f	b	m	w	

When we investigate the order of consonants by Ibn Sīna, we can make the following observations:

- (i) glottals, pharyngeals uvulars and velars are compatible with the IPA order,
- (ii) the palatal /j/ is listed at the end of the order as he considers the /j/ as a semi-vowel,
- (iii) the postalveolars /ʃ/ and /ḏ/ are in agreement with the IPA order,
- (iv) all alveolar sounds are in conformity with the IPA order except for the sonorants /l/ /r/ and /n/,
- (v) the dental sounds are in agreement with the IPA order,
- (vi) labiodental /f/ is in conformity with the IPA order, and
- (vii) the bilabials /b/, /m/ and /w/ are compatible with the IPA order.

4. Conclusion

Having said the above, we can make the following concluding statements:

- (1) The contributions of the early Arab phoneticians can be found in three main areas:
 - (i) sciences of the Arabic language (grammar, morphology, syntax, rhetoric, and prosody),
 - (ii) sciences of wisdom, philosophy, medicine and music,
 - (iii) sciences of modes of reading and *Tajwīd*,
- (2) Area (i) is overwhelming in the number of phoneticians, their creativity, originality and domination over the scholars for subsequent centuries.

(3) The most prominent figures in the first area is Al-Farāhīdi, Sibawayh and Ibn Jinni,

(4) The number of sounds in Al-Farāhīdi's order of consonants is symmetrical to the number of sounds in the IPA chart; however, there is a mixture between consonants and vowels in Al-Farāhīdi's order.

(5) While Al-Farāhīdi discusses only the places of articulation, Sibawayh has discussed more phonetic problems than Al-Farāhīdi, such as voiced and voiceless consonants, manners of articulation and phonemes and allophones.

(6) Other contributors in the first area are only imitators recycling the ideas of the three major scholars (Al-Farāhīd, Sibawayh, and Ibn Jinn).

(7) It can be observed that Ibn Jinn improves on the ideas of Sibawayh and Sibawayh improves on the ideas of Al-Farāhīdi.

(8) The most prominent figure in the second area is Ibn Sīna who discusses phonetic problems that have not been discussed before. He lays the foundation of acoustic and auditory phonetics and his ideas on the vocal organs anatomy are almost in line with modern anatomy of the vocal organs.

(9) The most prominent figures in the third area are Al-Qaisi and Ibn Al-Jazari whose phonetic discussion is marked by repetition of Sibawah's ideas. However, these scholars have neither tried hard to discuss new phonetic problems nor have they benefited from Ibn Sīna's ideas. The connection they have made between phonetics and Quranic recitation has made phonetics subsidiary. Thus, for centuries, phonetics does not emerge as an independent discipline in the study of language.

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FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

THE EFFECT OF FOCUS ON FORM & TASK COMPLEXITY ON L2 LEARNERS' ORAL TASK PERFORMANCE

ASGHAR SALIMI

Second Language learners' oral task performance has been one of interesting and research generating areas of investigations in the field of second language acquisition specially ,Task –based Language Teaching and Learning. The main purpose of the present study is to investigate the effect of focus on form and task complexity on L2 learners' oral task accuracy.

To this end, sixty intermediate learners of English as a foreign language attending an English institute were chosen as the participant of the study and were divided into three groups control and two experimental groups with and without focus on form strategy. ANOVA and Independent Sample T-test were employed as the statistical means of analysis. The results a of analysis revealed significant differences among the performance of the groups. The study carries significant implications for syllabus and task designers, curriculum developers and language teachers.

THE EFFECTS OF ORAL VS. WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON EFL LEARNERS' ESSAY WRITING

FARHAD TAYEBIPOUR, MARJAN SOBHANI

This study was an attempt to investigate the effect of different types of corrective feedback on EFL learners' essay writing. To this end, the performance of the learners as a result of two types of feedback, that is, oral feedback (OF) and written feedback (WF), and each with two subcategories (focused and unfocused) was studied. To conduct the study, two writing tasks were employed as data collection instruments to measure the learners' essay writing skill. The participants were 75 Iranian female low-intermediate EFL learners at a language institute in Shiraz. They were asked to write two essays as pretest and posttest on the basis of two similar but not identical picture stories. Each and every participant's writing was corrected in terms of the target structures, that is, past tense, punctuation, and capitalization. Paired samples t-test, independent samples t-test, and ANOVA were utilized. The results indicated that three types of feedback, namely, oral feedback (both focused and unfocused) and written feedback (focused) were significantly effective in the posttest whereas the written unfocused feedback was not. In other words, the participants showed a statistically significant difference in their performance in the posttest as a result of receiving these three types of feedback.

THE EFFECT OF FOCUS ON FORM ON EFL YOUNG ADULT LEARNERS' ACCURACY AND GENERAL PERFORMANCE

ASGHAR SALIMI, AIDA HASSANI

One of the key issues in the literature of second language acquisition (SLA) attracting the attention of many second language acquisition researchers has been the role of form-focused instruction in language developments. It is argued that some degree of attention and noticing seems necessary for second language development. A number of SLA researchers argue that some degree of attention to form seems to be necessary in language development. There have been several studies on the role of attention and noticing in second language acquisition/learning. However, there exists a gap in the literature on the effects of form-focused instruction on young adult learners' accuracy and grammar development. Therefore, to fill the gap in the literature, the present study was set out to investigate the effects of form-focused instruction on young adult learners' performance in terms of the linguistic domain of accuracy and general proficiency. For the purpose of this study, 60 young adult learners were chosen as the participants of the study. They were assigned into three groups based on the type of treatment they received, i.e. focus on form vs. focus on forms (ppp) and communicative. The three groups received treatment for twenty sessions. At the end of the treatment, a structure and general Cambridge Mock Examination tests were administered to check the effectiveness of the instructions and to collect data. The results of the data analysis indicated significant differences between the performances of three groups. The findings of the present study may carry some implications for SLA researchers, language teachers, and task designers.

ESP TEACHING PRACTICE AT THE LANGUAGE CENTER OF THE FACULTY OF LANGUAGES, CULTURES AND COMMUNICATIONS AT SEEU

BASRI SALIU

Abstract

The paper offers an insight into the highlights of the ESP teaching practice at the South East European University of Tetovo, the second ranked University in Macedonia according to Academic Ranking of World Universities also known as Shanghai Ranking. ESP started since the foundation of this University in 2001. English Instruction at this University was the essential part of the curriculum since then. During the following years, the type of the English Instruction developed into ESP courses which were organized into several obligatory ESP subjects taught in two semesters of undergraduate studies at the South East European University. The main characteristic of the ESP course is to enable the learners acquire the necessary target language and vocabulary from their subject matter in English or in other words to function adequately in target situation. With this paper, by following the most recent findings in the realm of the ESP, I tend to discuss and share the specific educational and social circumstances within which the learning/teaching process of ESP courses take place in our University as well as the new approaches applied in this faculty. Language Instruction and teaching in general have recently undergone considerable changes, which has brought new approaches to education. One of them is the approach which rather favors the learners' potential than the teacher input. As a modern approach to language teaching, which rather favors the learners' potential than the teacher input certainly raises the level motivation and encourages students to use language in meaningful way. In our educational setting learners are mainly seen as a potential and are encouraged to enter the "language arena" or the classroom as direct actors to be used as a resource rather than as spectators.

Keywords: ESP, teaching practice, subject matter, approaches, learners' potential

Introduction

In today's competitive world in which we witness how much effort people put in selling goods or services to the others, education along with that English has become a business, too. This means that universities really have to struggle to attract students. One of the most significant educational trends for attracting students is the teaching and growing of English courses in Universities. We are all aware of this situation and the growing tendency of universities to provide courses in English is something we see every day from TV adverts, different University promotions etc. However, when deciding to write this paper, I was inspired by the present situation with the higher education in Macedonia which also tries to follow these global trends in education and is further characterized by massive student enrollment at universities assisted by government policies and the perception that English taught

subjects is an invaluable advantage for those who can afford it. In superlative for these trends speaks the English Linguist David Graddol who describes it with the following words:

“One of the most significant educational trends world-wide is the teaching of growing numbers of courses in universities through the medium of English. The need to teach some subjects in English, rather than the national language, is well understood: in the sciences, for example, up-to-date text books and research articles are obtainable much more easily in one of the world languages and most readily of all in English...English-medium higher education is thus one of the drivers of language shift, from L2 to L1 English speaking status (Graddol, 1997.p.45)

In the light of this, having been a language teacher at different faculties for twelve years, I became quite familiar with the teaching practice in general and in particular with the ESP teaching practice at the Language Center of the Faculty of Languages, Cultures and Communications. There is no University in Macedonia which provides that much English teaching at its Language Center as the South East European University of Tetovo. It was the founder and the first management of the South East European University that first recognized the importance of the English language for their students and their professional development. They introduced English as a subject at each semester of their studies, for four continuous semesters.

Under these circumstances, the conditions were met for an adequate instruction in *English for Specific Purposes (ESP)* and South East European University as a newly established University opened its “doors” to quite modern approaches in foreign language teaching such as *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)*. The term CLIL was first invented by David March, University of Jyväskylä, Finland in 1994, referring to situations where subjects, are taught through a foreign language with two aims, learning of content and the simultaneous learning of a foreign language. It is important to mention that it is exactly ESP course which supports modern approaches such as CLIL. Therefore, in this context I wish to share our experience with ESP teaching practices at the Language Center of SEEU with other teachers of ESP who are involved in these programs.

The General English Language situation in Macedonia

It is nothing wrong to say that ESP is reserved for professional discussion on University level. Although the ESP instruction is also met in some secondary professional schools and in some companies that prepare professionals for tasks that require proficiency in English, still University creates a special challenge to ESP.

There is a strong rationale for this. At University students’ proficiency in English is expected to be high, at least designated to be as *intermediate*. Also, a considerable desire for studying English is expected because it is one language that helps students understand the content of the books and texts from their course packs of their studies as well as their further specialization through Life Long Learning (LLL)

However, the situation in Macedonia is far from that. Unfortunately, most of the students who enroll at University typically come from rural areas where, until recently, foreign languages at primary and secondary school level were taught by unqualified staff. The language instruction has been short, substandard and irregular which has created some kind of unwillingness amongst the students towards learning of foreign languages in general and English in particular. Political situation

with the obstruction of the integration processes of the country towards the European Union added even more to the students feeling unease, especially when dealing with use and practice of the language. As non European citizens, in many education exchange programs, students have limited application opportunities or when applying they are not sufficiently appreciated. This entire situation limits the various opportunities for them to use the language.

Yet, aware of the importance of the English language in general, students are keen to fill in the gaps in their background knowledge from their secondary schools and create hope that the country one day will be part of Europe where knowing English won't be only a privilege but also an essential need for daily life activities, job search, career build up and other purposes.

Language Center courses at SEEU



The Language Center was founded in 2001 and was the first independent unit to provide instruction within South-East European University (SEEU). It provides language services to all SEEU students. Its 20 well-equipped classrooms, CELTA Center and the Language Resource Center (LARC) are designed to meet the educational needs of the students, staff and the community as well as create an environment that is conducive to learning.

Language study is a central part of every SEEU student's academic career, both as required subjects and as optional elective courses. Part of the University's mission is to promote a multilingual approach to learning, stressing both the importance of local and international languages. The Language Center has the crucial role in achieving this goal. The primary function of the Center is to provide courses specified in the curricula of the five SEEU faculties. Due to these requirements and student interest, the LC is the largest teaching organization at the University, with more than three quarters of the entire student population taking classes there at any given time.

Basic Skills English and English for Specific Purposes are the largest Center's teaching programs. Basic Skills are offered as core courses to the Faculty of Law, Faculty of Business Administration, Faculty of Public Administration and Political Sciences, Faculty of Contemporary Sciences and Technologies and Faculty of Languages, Cultures and Communication. All the students are required to take minimum two semesters of basic skills. Instruction is full semester and it is designed to take students from Common European Framework (CEF) levels A1 to C1 of English language proficiency.

ESP course outline and teaching practices at SEEU

Students from all SEEU faculties (except for Department of English Language and Literature) are required to complete English language courses specialized to

their field. Students generally begin these courses during the third semester. By that time students are supposed to have already passed their exams in General English and be ready to develop further their English skills in their field of study language. The Language Center provides the syllabus, materials, and the instructors for the ESP courses.

ESP courses or English for Legal Studies courses is a one semester course, including four class hours per week for 14 weeks. It focuses primarily on development of language proficiency in general and subject-related vocabulary and secondly on developing academic writing and reading skills and discuss articles and lessons in the field of law as part of their speaking skills. Materials used in this course are from different sources, such as Internet and professional English books for Law. Students use materials as adapted from the ESP Law teachers to meet their specific and professional needs as regards English in Legal Studies. On line management system called LIBRI is also used as a useful tool during the course, either for assignment delivery or to follow up classroom activities and tasks.

Students by the end of the semester are expected to be able to achieve the following goals and objectives:

- Learn and use basic vocabulary and discuss basic professional terms and concepts from their field of study.
- Recognize and translate the target vocabulary while using bilingual dictionaries.

Teaching Vocabulary Practices

From the outline it is obvious that learning vocabulary is a very important part for ESP teaching at the Language Center of SEEU. In the attempt to bring the process of learning vocabulary closer to the students' experience we sometimes term it as "Target Vocabulary". Namely, the use of the term "target vocabulary" has a significant positive effect on removing the stereotype that students have towards the wide vocabulary of the English language and for raising their motivation levels, which very often result in high achievement. In the following paragraphs we will explain our best practices for teaching, explaining and building vocabulary in the ESP courses. Techniques and approaches that lead to a word being remembered are plenty but in this manuscript we will disclose only what do we practice at the Language Center of SEEU with the ESP students from different faculties. Practices which we think enable students to reach their full potential in vocabulary learning and achieve positive results in the final examination. These comprise *noticing* (through formal instruction, negotiation) *retrieval* (repetition through teacher explanation and dictionary use) *generation* (rethink the meaning and re-use the word in different context), and translation.

Noticing

Noticing is giving attention to an item. Prior to that we as teachers try to survey carefully the learners and seek their opinion about what stories and topics they find interesting, Although our views of what will be interesting many times do not match with what learners find interesting we still as instructor do this. Yet, this seems to motivate them and encourage participation. Nevertheless, as instructors we manage by the end of the day to decide on the chosen topics, stories and

general content along with the learners. Sometimes we decide easily, sometimes compromise is a solution.

As regards the noticing on the actual text, learners then are asked to notice the word, be aware of its importance and language relevance. Nation (2001) in his study claims that noticing occurs in different ways, such as, looking up a word in dictionary with an intention to study it, and guessing the word from the context and the other words around. To put it another way, noticing as good teaching practice in LC occurs when learners are involved and their attention is aroused. This situation seems to favor learning to take effect.

Another important aspect of *noticing* that occurs in our center is *negotiation* and *definition*. There are many studies that illustrate that vocabulary items that are negotiated are more likely to be learned than words that are not negotiated (as cited by Nation 2001 pg.145). Negotiation as a phenomenon in our center mostly takes place when we do select the teaching material, list the target vocabulary. By *definition* we imply when we try to increase the vocabulary learning by explaining briefly while listening to the story.

Retrieval

“The second major process that may lead to a word being remembered is retrieval” (Baddeley, 1990. pg.156). After explaining the word and its meaning, or looking it up in the dictionary the word is subsequently retrieved through different tasks so the memory of that word will be strengthened. Students are asked to do retrieval in two ways silently and loudly. When the word is met in listening or reading, students perceive the form and repeat it silently. There is also productive retrieval which involves students in communicating the meaning of the word.

Several other studies have also shown the importance of repetition as a factor in remembering the word. As Baddeley (1990) suggests, “it is not simply repetition which is important but the repeated opportunity to retrieve the item which is to be learned. When learners hear or see the form of the word, they need to retrieve what they know of its meaning”. (p.156) In addition, Baddeley also (1990) claims that “each retrieval of the word strengthens the path linking form and meaning and makes subsequent retrieval easier” (ibid)

The most effective applied practice for retrieval in the Language Center is the so called using of “cues”. After noticing the word, deciding its relevance for the course we simply give students *hint* or *clues* as to what the missing word might be in a given text. Usually students know the words from the noticing and the clue helps them to find it and in this way repeat it. We use two types of useful cues: a. *Phonemic cues*: where the first vowel or consonant sound of the missing word is used to aid the student in the process of word retrieval. For example if the missing word is *soup* we make an extended s sound so it triggers the student’s memory of the full word. The phonemic cue also helps the student produce the word quicker. Here are some examples of phonemic cues:

1. Math example: $2+2=$ (we cue “four” by saying the sound “f”)
2. History example: Columbus came to America in (we cue “1492” by saying “f”)
3. Science example: The gas which humans need is (we cue by saying “ah” for oxygen)

With this in mind, this is similar to the feeling of “having it on the tip of your

tongue.” and b. *Semantic cues*: where the student is provided the category or group that the word belongs to. For example, if the word is *chicken*, we use cues for that by saying that “*It’s a farm animal*” Another way we prompt the student by using semantic cues is when we use questions: Here are couple of examples of semantic cues:

1. “*What about the thing that we decorate. It’s green, it has pine needles, it’s a _____.*”
2. “*You put juice in a _____.*”
3. “*The day before Thursday is _____.*”
4. “*It’s red. It’s a fruit, it grows on a tree.*”
5. “*You sit at it. It has four legs. You eat meals at it.*”

Another semantic strategy we use in our Language Center is the so called *cloze exercise*. This strategy implies using an understanding of all the words in a sentence to give you a good idea of what the missing word might be. For example, if the target word is *keys*, you could say, “*I forgot the _____ so I can’t unlock the front door.*”

Generation

By generation we imply the process of thinking about the word and re-using it in different context. Students practice this way of remembering the word after they have repeated it and understood its meaning. They learn the word and then try to re-use in other contexts as appropriate.

The Technology of Translation

As mentioned before apart from other teaching practices in vocabulary building we can also claim that translation of technical text from English into Albanian, Macedonian and other local languages and the other way round is one of the priorities for the vocabulary building in the ESP teaching. In an attempt to be clearer in our intention we sometimes term this as “The technology of translating Technical Text” In the following paragraph we will explain how translating technology helps students build their vocabulary in their major field.

As typical for any technology, the starting point is basic materials, in our center basic materials are considered *parts of speech*. Therefore at the very beginning of the course we introduce parts of speech and give basic information on them. We carefully assess the quantity of the material so we don’t overburden the students with grammar which may discourage students from learning. By other words we use grammar, in this case parts of speech, as a tool to make easier the translation and along with that the vocabulary learning process. It is important to emphasize that in our ESP classes initially students are not expected to translate paragraphs, instead we ask them to concentrate on singular simple sentence, which are then broken down into smaller constituent parts. In the process of focusing on singular sentences the students are guided to translate certain words into their language. They are advised first to identify the parts of speech, which they would have been familiar with from before and then do the translation. The students are never given difficult sentences. The examples we give our students illustrate the above explanation very clearly. Here are a couple of examples:

1. *The factory producing steel needs iron.*
2. *The conveyor belt which carries raw materials to the plants is very expensive.*

Applying the method of identifying the parts of speech and then translating the word will exclude the unnecessary language items in the sentence and students will be more committed to the task and later ending up with better memorization of the vocabulary.

We should mention here that once the students get enough skills in translating simple sentences, words, more complex structures are introduced. In the end it is worth mentioning that the students are warned that their translations do not necessarily always have to be correct from the first attempt. But in that case students, when students feel that the translation does not fit the logic of the text they are advised to revise it.

Conclusion

Our approach to teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) focuses mainly on target vocabulary in their subject matter, learning of terminology that they might need after graduation. We aim not to overburden our students with too much vocabulary than they would find useful in their future career. With that in mind we have introduced relatively simple examples of teaching practices in our ESP classes. Our experience, as well as numerous students surveys, showed us that our students are satisfied with these teaching approaches in ESP. These approaches enable them to engage in the process of learning new target vocabulary without fear, which is a very good basis for development of their communication skills in English.

In conclusion, the approaches described above we think to empower the students in the ESP classes with a very high degree of confidence and ease. From our experiences in class we can conclude that it is better to encourage students to use their preferred approaches to language teaching and the easy ones, such as retrieval, translation than try to do complex thing such as analyzing, discussing and commenting texts in English only. We think that with the guidance we offer them with these approaches there is more learning occurring and this is aimed at enabling future graduates from different faculties to take important steps towards interrogating technical literature in English with confidence, thereby using the language as a tool for furthering their professional knowledge.

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RISING DIPHTHONGS IN L2 SPANISH BY L1 MODERN GREEK SPEAKERS

MARIA KOUTI

Abstract

Recent research on L2 acquisition of phonological structure has been extensively focused on the acquisition of consonantal clusters in onset and coda position (Tarone 1987; Broselow and Finer 1991; Hancin-Bhatt and Bhatt 1997; Major 2001). However, little research exists on the acquisition of syllabic nuclei in L2 phonology (Zárate-Sández 2011). In Spanish phonotactics, lexical items that contain sequences of two adjacent vocoids, such as *piedra* [pje.dra.] ‘rock’ or *agua* [a.ɣwa] ‘water’, are diphthongized if the first vocoid is high and not identical to the second, as in the examples cited above, which are generally accepted as having 2 syllables. As Zárate-Sández (2011) and Kilpatrick and McLain Pierce (2014) noted an hiatus is produced, i.e. two consecutive vowels in different syllables, when neither vowel is /i/ or /u/, for example *ae* in *traer* [tra.er], ‘to bring’ or if the [+high] vowel is stress-bearing.

The present study examines the acquisition of Spanish rising diphthongs /ie/ and /ue/ by adult native speakers of Modern Greek. In addition, it examines the variation phenomena attested in the learners’ interlanguage within Optimality Theory (Prince and Smolensky 1993). The main research questions are (i) how language learner’s L1 affects the realization of the Spanish vocoids sequences in terms of the syllabification of the diphthongs and (ii) to observe the path of L2 phonological development of L1 Modern Greek speakers in terms of interlanguage constraint rankings. 15 L1 Modern Greek advanced learners of L2 Spanish, as well a native Spanish speaking control group, completed a syllabification task in which Spanish rising diphthongs /ie/ and /ue/ were placed in initial or medial stressed syllable. The preliminary results show that L1 Modern Greek speakers are more likely to judge Spanish rising diphthongs /ie/ and /ue/ as hiatus rather than diphthongs. Furthermore, it is shown that Modern Greek speakers have access to three truly independent phonological grammars, reflecting the variability observed in our learners’ interlanguage phonology.

1. Introduction

One of the most studied phenomena in L2 phonology is the acquisition of the syllable structure by second language learners. Most studies have addressed this complex issue by examining whether the various difficulties that most L2 learners show with acquiring the phonotactics of the target language are related to the principle of “transfer” from their native language (Tarone, 1980).

As Kilpatrick and McLain Pierce (2014: 286) noted, many L2 learners find the development of native or near-native pronunciation of vowels and vowel sequences to be particularly challenging due to differences in articulatory reference points between the native and the new language. The present study examines the patterns of syllabification in L2 Spanish used by L1 Modern Greek learners, focusing mainly on Spanish rising diphthongs /ue/ and /ie/, offering an analysis of “syllabification” within Optimality Theory (OT) (Prince & Smolensky, 1993).

The paper is organized as follows: in section 2 I will be reviewing the major findings in the field of L2 acquisition of syllable structure introducing the basic principles of Optimality Theory (OT) (Prince and Smolensky, 1993) adapted as the theoretical framework for analyzing the L1 Modern Greek learners' patterns in acquiring L2 Spanish rising diphthongs. In section 3 I will briefly present the basic phonotactics of Spanish and Modern Greek and section 4 presents the materials and methodology adopted for this study. Moreover, in section 5 the results of the present study are considered, with discussion focusing especially on how an optimality-theoretic approach explains transfer and developmental effects in the interlanguage of our Greek learners. Finally, section 6 contains a brief conclusion.

2. Acquisition of L2 Phonology and Optimality Theory

Most studies related to L2 acquisition have pointed out to the notion that L1 phonological features can affect L2 acquisition. In particular, it has been reiterated that the syllabic structure of the L2 is influenced by the phonology of the L1, so that the nature of the errors that appear in the syllabic structure of the L2 is the result of interference exerted by the L1 of the learners in the target language. This notion was first formalized in the influential work by Lado (1957) and in his 'Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis' (CAH) which stated that L2 phonological errors would be expected—or 'predicted'—in those areas where the systems differ, due to negative transfer from the L2, while shared features would positively transfer directly to the L2.

In subsequent years, however, other scholars such as Eckman (1977) with his Markedness Differential Hypothesis (MDH) or Major (1987) with his Ontogeny Phylogeny Model (OPM), challenged the premises of the CAH, and claimed that they were flawed because the mere attempt to measure the level of difficulty between the L1 and L2 overlooked the fact that there are linguistic universals that run across languages. These studies correctly predicted that more marked features in the L2 will be acquired later than the less marked version.

According to Zárata- Sáñez (2011: 166), approaches like Eckman's MDH or Major's OPM made a big leap in the understanding of interlanguage phonology in the sense that they attributed phonological development not only to L1 and L2 differences (causing *interference errors* due to the L1) but also to universal patterns of acquisition (causing *developmental errors*, similar to those made by native speakers when acquiring their L1). Thus, as it has been showed, both first language transfer and universal developmental factors are at work in second language acquisition (Major, 1998, Hancin-Bhatt and Bhatt, 1997 and Broselow *et al.*, 1998).

In recent years, one theory that took both transfer and developmental factors into account is Optimality Theory (Prince & Smolensky, 1993). As Hancin - Bhatt and Bhatt (1997:331) stated "*Optimality Theory (OT) provides a more explicit account of the interactions between transfer and developmental effects in L2 syllables*". Generally speaking, OT is a constraint-based generative linguistic theory which aims to explain both the universality and variability of language. The basic principle of OT is that there is a set of universal constraints and all the constraints are violable and in conflict. Constraints are ordered in ranks in accordance with the structure of particular languages. Though constraint violation is allowed, the violation of higher rank constraints usually leads to fatal violation and that potential candidate will not

be selected as the optimal output. The optimal output is the form which involves "... the least costly violation of constraints" (Kager, 1999:3).

In other words, in OT the selection of output is the interaction and ranking between the violable universal constraints. The candidate that does not violate the highly ranked constraints and violates the least number of constraints of the language is the optimal form. For this study an optimality-theoretic account has been adapted to understand the observed phenomena in L2 Spanish learning of rising diphthongs by L1 Modern Greek learners, since, as Hancin-Bhatt mentioned (2008: 124) "*In OT, observed variation across languages is captured by variant constraint rankings, so the job of a language learner is to infer the specific constraint ranking of the target language*".

3. Diphthongs in Spanish and Modern Greek

Both Spanish and Modern Greek are two languages with a relative easy syllabic structure (Hualde, 2005; Núñez Cedeño and Morales-Front, 1999). The tendency in both languages is to adopt the archetype CV, i.e. every consonant in medial position is syllabified with the following vowel (e.g. the word *mesa* is syllabified as [me.sa]). However, a number of possible syllable types can be found in both languages apart from the prototype CV syllable, as it is seen in Figure. 1:

Inventory of syllable types in Spanish	Inventory of syllable types in Modern Greek
V	V
CV	CV
CVC	CVC
CCV	CCV
CCVC	CCVC
CCVCC	CCCV
VC	CCVC
VCC	VC
CVCC	

Figure 1. Inventory of syllable types Spanish (Núñez Cedeño, 2000:461) and Modern Greek (Holton *et al.*, 2000:376)

According to the possible syllable types, we can infer the phonotactics for both languages:

Spanish : $C_0^2 V C_0^2$

Modern Greek: $C_0^3 V C_0^1$

In other words, in Spanish in onset and coda position two consonants can be found while in Modern Greek, three consonants can appear in onset position and only one in coda.

Perhaps, the only real complications with regard to syllable structure in Spanish and in Modern Greek have to do with the syllabification of sequence of vocoids.

In Spanish, according to Hualde (2005: 55), glides are best considered allophones of corresponding high vowels, and not independent phonemes. If the sequence involves two non-high vocoids, the sequence is produced as a hiatus, as in (1a). If the sequence involves a high vocoid and a non-high vocoid, the sequence is produced as a diphthong, as in (1b), unless the high vocoid is the nucleus of the syllable bearing word stress, as in (1c). If the sequence involves two high vocoids, the sequence is produced as a diphthong with the first vocoid being a glide, as in (1d):

1. (a) *teatro* [te.ˈa. tro] theatre
- (b) *cuando* [ˈkwan.do] when
- (c) *mío* [ˈmi. o] mine
- (d) *cuidado* [kwi.ˈða.ðo] care

In short, the rule for diphthong formation in Spanish can be synthesized in what Hualde (2005: 80) calls the ‘gliding rule’: Gliding rule: /i/, /u/ → [j], [w] if adjacent to a different V and not stress-bearing. However, not all hiatus formations in Spanish can be predicted from the gliding rule. For example, the word *María* in Spanish is syllabified as hiatus while the words *riendo* or *siendo* are syllabified as diphthong and hiatus respectively which constitute cases of exceptional hiatus in Spanish. Regarding this point, Simonet (2005: 250) based on Hualde (2005) postulated the following rule in Spanish: Castilian Spanish (unexpected hiatuses):

- a. Morphological or paradigmatic reasons favor hiatus when:
 - A morphological boundary appears between the two vowels.
 - The word is paradigmatically related to a form whose high vowel is stressed, and, thus, syllabic.
- b. A prosodic effect obtains: A vowel sequence in word-initial position, when lexical stress falls on one of the vowels of the sequence or one syllable to the right (crucially, only one), takes hiatus configuration: *d[i.a]logo* ‘dialogue’, *d[i.a]lógó* ‘I dialogue’, but *d[ja]logué* ‘I dialogued’.

In Modern Greek, on the other hand, the phonemic status of the palatal glide is disputed, with some linguists seeing it as a *single phoneme* /i/ (Kazazis 1968; Malavakis 1984; Nikolopoulos 1985; Warburton 1976) while others have argued proposing *two phonemes* /i/ and /j/ (Holton 1997; Householder 1964; Koutsoudas 1962; Mirambel 1959; Nyman 1981; Setatos 1974). Topintzi and Baltazani (2013: 177-178) have postulated the following: “the glide [j]”, sometimes behaves as an allophone of /i/ (1) and sometimes as phoneme distinct from it (2).

- (1) [i]~[j] alternations
 - pó.ði* “foot” *pó.ðja* “feet”
 - ðo.ká.ri* “girder” *ðo.kár.ja* “girders”
- (2) [i]~[j] contrast
 - á.ði.a* “permission” vs *á.ðja* “empty”
 - sci.á.zo* “shade” vs *scá.zo* “scare”

So, in Modern Greek we encounter words where the high vocoid may surface as a vowel or a glide in an apparently arbitrary way, found in otherwise identical melodic contexts. Indeed, there are even minimal pairs which only differ in the vocoid’s realization (some examples are *áðia* ‘permission’ and *áðja* ‘empty’ (f.), *pión* ‘deeds’ and *pjon* ‘whom’ (m.) or *ípia* ‘mild’ (f.) and *ípja* ‘I drunk’). This variability is often explained by using accounts which appeal to diachrony (given that the glide historically evolved from [i]) or to diglossia (since in cases of alternation, [i] is

considered more part of the purified katharevusa, whereas the glide as part of the colloquial dhimotiki).

Based on the previous discussion, the main research questions of this study are presented below:

- 1) Do L1 Modern Greek learners of L2 Spanish have the same intuitions as native speakers do about diphthong/hiatus resolution when syllabifying Spanish words?
- 2) What are the patterns of syllabification used by L1 Modern Greek learners? Is there transfer of their native L1 Modern Greek in Spanish?

4. Methodology

There were a total of 25 subjects belonging to one of two groups: The experimental group consisted of 15 L1 Greek learners of L2 Spanish (14 females and 1 male, ages 23-54) and the control group of 10 native Spanish speakers (4 males and 6 females, ages 28-56).

All participants in the experimental group (henceforth, EX) were students at various Greek foreign language schools, enrolled in advanced and superior Spanish, which correspond to B2 level and C2 level of Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), respectively. Also, in order to divide the sample into these two proficiency levels, the criterion of possessing the Diploma of Spanish as Foreign Language (DELE) certificates of level B2 and C2 was used: 9 participants had successfully passed the DELE C2 exam and 6 participants had successfully passed the DELE B2 exam. Regarding the control group (henceforth, CG), all 10 native speakers of Spanish were speakers of Peninsular Spanish (various regions).

Two questionnaires were used in the study:

1. One syllabification Task containing 29 words for participants to syllabify: 14 target items and 15 distracters, i.e. words without vowel sequences (see Table 1)
2. A background questionnaire containing questions aimed at collecting participants' demographic information and previous Spanish learning experience, as well as some questions on reactions to the syllabification task (level of difficulty, use of syllabification rules, etc.).

All 14 target items in the syllabification task contained a vowel sequence of [je] and [we] which undergoes the gliding rule described in section 3 above, that is, native speakers will treat them as diphthongs under normal circumstances. In addition, two factors were controlled for all 14 items: diphthongs appeared in initial position - except for the word '*caliente*' in which the diphthong appears in medial position- and stress fell on the diphthong-bearing syllable in all 14 items.

Spanish words with rising diphthongs /ie/-/ue/
pedra
caliente
Viena
diez
griego
miércoles
siete
pliegue
siempre
rueda
pueblo
suerte
dueño
sueco

Table1. Words used in the syllabification intuition task

The data collection process for each participant took approximately 20 minutes. Subjects were given a sheet containing all of the words, and each word was followed by a blank. The subjects were asked to determine the number of syllables in each word, according to their phonological intuitions, by dividing the word into syllables, tapping, or by any other means that they felt would be useful, and to record their answer for each word in the following space.

5. Results

It was found from the data collected that apart from the form that resembled the correct syllabification, the learners in the experimental group produced forms that were different from the standard ones, i.e. to syllabify as diphthongs the /ie/ and /ue/. The results of the syllabification intuitions task are reported in Table 2, where an X indicates that a subject's intuition about the word differed from what was expected.

Words	Syllabification intuitions by subject in Experimental group (advanced and superior)														
	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9
diez		X	X	X		X			X			X	X		X
pedra	X		X	X	X					X					
griego	X	X	X	X		X	X		X			X	X		X
miércoles	X	X	X	X	X	X	X					X	X	X	
pliegue	X	X	X	X		X	X		X			X	X		

siempre	X	X	X			X	X							
siete	X	X	X	X		X	X							
caliente	X	X	X	X		X			X			X	X	X
Viena	X	X	X	X	X					X				
sueco	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X			X	X	
rueda	X	X	X			X	X	X	X			X	X	X
pueblo		X	X			X	X	X	X			X	X	X
suerte	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X			X	X	
dueño	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X			X	X	

Table 2. Syllabification intuitions by subject in experimental group

The data presented in Table 2 show that there is considerable disagreement between subjects as to whether a particular word contains a diphthong or a hiatus. It is clear that L1 Modern Greek learners' intuitions are highly inconsistent with the hypothesized syllabification in Spanish. It is very interesting that only one subject, S5, perceived correctly the diphthongs /ie/ and /ue/, while all other subjects for the most part perceived hiatuses where diphthongs were expected. Moreover, it is found that L1 Modern Greek learners perceived correctly 94 out of 210 cases as diphthongs (45%) while 116 out of the total 210 were perceived as hiatuses. Figure 2 lists out the percentages of correctly perceived hiatuses and diphthongs.

Regarding the control group, Table 3 reports their syllabification intuitions' results where only three native speakers disagree with the hypothesized syllabification of the word *miércoles*, i.e. perceiving the diphthong /ie/ as hiatus. I cannot find any convincing explanation about this fact and I could argue that this could possibly constitute influence from existence of a written accent on the vowel /e/ or, as Simonet (2005: 250) noted, a prosodic effect obtains that favors hiatus, i.e. when lexical stress falls on one of the vowels of the sequence in word-initial position.

Experimental Group

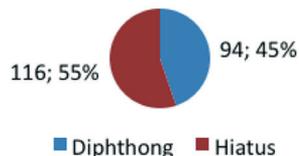


Figure 2. Experimental group's results

Words	Syllabification intuitions by subject in Control group										
	N1	N2	N3	N4	N5	N6	N7	N8	N9	N10	
diez											
piedra											
griego											
miércoles	X	X		X							
pliegue											
siempre											
siete											

caliente									
Viena									
sueco									
rueda									
pueblo									
suerte									
dueño									

Table 3 Syllabification intuitions by subject in control group

As mentioned earlier, OT argues that the phonological differences of languages are the differences in constraint ranking. The Spanish native speakers' constraint ranking, which constitute the ranking of the target language grammar (Grammar_{target language}) that L1 Modern Greek learners need to acquire, is the following:

1. ONSET: all syllables must have onsets.
2. * CODA: avoid the presence of codas.
3. * COMPLEX NUCLEI: avoid complex nuclei.

However, the constraint of SONORITY SEQUENCING (SON-SEQ) is deemed necessary to be added to account for the cases of *mié-rco-les*, *sue-rte*, *sie-mpre*, and *ca-lie-nte* where some L1 Modern Greek learners perceived correctly the diphthongs but committed various errors with regard of the position of coda and/or onset. Therefore, the syllable structure constraint ranking of Spanish language regarding rising diphthongs is:

Grammar_{target language}: SON-SEQ » ONSET » *COMPLEX NUCLEI » * CODA.

Table 4 reports the various outputs, i.e. errors, produced by the learners, regarding these Spanish words and in Table 5, the example "" is used to illustrate native speakers' constraint ranking.

Input	Output 1	Output 2	Output 3	Output 4
/kaliente/	[ka.li.en.te]	[ka.li.e.nte]	[ka.lje.nte]	[ka.ljen.te]
/miercoles/	[mi.er.ko.les]	[mi.e.rko.les]	[mje.rko.les]	[mjer.ko.les]
/suerte/	[su.er.te]	[su.e.rte]	[swe.rte]	[swer.te]
/siempre/	[si.em.pre]	[si.e.mpre]	[sje.mpre]	[sjem.pre]

Table 4 Various possible candidates by L1 Modern Greek learners

Input: /kaliente/ Output: [ka.ljen.te]

/kaliente/	SON-SEQ	ONSET	*COMPLEX NUCLEI	*CODA
a. [ka.li.en.te]		*!		*
b. [ka.li.e.nte]	*!	*		
c. [ka.lje.nte]	*!		*	
d. [ka.ljen.te]			*	*

Table 5.

Analyzing carefully the data produced by L1 Modern Greek speakers, the initial constraint ranking which is arranged in accordance with the structure of our learners' native language (Modern Greek) is the following:

Grammar_{Level 1 (L1)}: * COMPLEX NUCLEI >> ONSET >> * CODA >> SON-SEQ

This L1 phonological grammar is the most prominent in our learners because Modern Greek generally allows hiatus, since avoid complex nuclei is more important than onset. Also, this is grammar our learners must rely on in order to rerank the constraints in the course of their L2 phonological development. Table 6 illustrates the native grammar of our learners.

/kai.ente/	*COMPLEX NUCLEI	ONSET	*CODA	SON-SEQ
a. [ka.li.en.te]		*	*!	
b. [ka.li.e.n.te]		*		*
c. [ka.lje.n.te]	*!			*
d. [ka.ljen.te]	*!		*	

/suerte/	*COMPLEX NUCLEI	ONSET	*CODA	SON-SEQ
a. [swe.rte]	*!			*
b. [swer.te]	*!		*	
c. [su.er.te]		*	*!	
d. [su.e.rte]		*		*

Table 6 Examples of L1 phonological grammar of Modern Greek learners

As the learners' interlanguages progress towards the target language, the ranking of constraints will be closer to that of native speakers. Two more L2 phonological grammars appeared available to our learners:

Grammar_{Level 2}: SON-SEQ >> *COMPLEX NUCLEI >> ONSET >> *CODA

Grammar_{Level 3}: ONSET >> *CODA >> SON-SEQ, *COMPLEX NUCLEI

These L2 phonological grammars represent the stages of interlanguage of our L2 Modern Greek learners, since in this sense, these L2 phonological grammars are initially built using the L1 phonological grammar (in Grammar_{Level 2} there is still a problem with the diphthongs), but after the initial stages, as modifications occur in the L1 phonological grammar, the L2 phonological grammars become distinguishably different from the L1.

In the following Table 7 and Table 8, some examples are used to illustrate the stages of interlanguage of our Modern Greek learners:

/mierkoles/	SON-SEQ	*COMPLEX NUCLEI	ONSET	*CODA
a. [mjer.ko.les]		*!		**
b. [mje.rko.les]	*!	*		*
c. [mi.e.rko.les]	*!		*	*
d. [mi.er.ko.les]			*	**

Table 7 Example of Grammar_{Level 2}

/mierkoles/	*ONSET	*CODA	SON-SEQ	*COMPLEX NUCLEI
a. [mjer.ko.les]		**!		*
b. [mje.rko.les]		*	*	*
c. [mi.e.rko.les]	*!	*	*	
d. [mi.er.ko.les]	*!	**		

Table 8 Example of Grammar Level 3

6. Conclusions

The present study had as main objective to analyze the patterns of syllabification of L1 Modern Greek advanced learners of L2 Spanish with regard to the syllabification of Spanish rising diphthongs /ie/ and /ue/. Our study revealed that L1 Modern Greek learners, even in advanced or superior level, rely heavily on their L1 in order to syllabify correctly the Spanish diphthongs.

At the same time, there is variability in the learners' interlanguage phonology: in our data, the target forms were also pronounced correctly by the learners, but not all of the time (in contrast to the native speaker control). We take this variability to be evidence of an ongoing process of restructuring or reranking of constraints, i.e., of movement along the interlanguage continuum. Our subjects had already studied Spanish for 3 years and more, and, although, 9 subjects belong to the Superior level (meaning that they behave like native-like speakers of Spanish), yet their interlanguage phonology showed considerable variability. This shows that the development of interlanguage phonology is a long-term ongoing process.

Thus, our data and analysis showed the stages of interlanguage of our L1 Modern Greek learners. Apart from the L1 phonological grammar and the Grammar of the target language already present in our learners, two more L2 phonological grammars were attested. Table 8 illustrates the phonological grammars present in our learners based on our data.

	Greek-speakers' learning Spanish /ie/ and /ue/ rising diphthongs
State _{initial} :	GRAMMAR _{LEVEL 1 (L1)} : * COMPLEX NUCLEI >> ONSET >> * CODA >> SON-SEQ
State _{n1} :	GRAMMAR _{LEVEL 2} : SON-SEQ >> *COMPLEX NUCLEI >> ONSET >> *CODA
State _{n2} :	GRAMMAR _{LEVEL 3} : ONSET >> *CODA >> SON-SEQ, *COMPLEX NUCLEI
State _{target} :	GRAMMAR _{TARGET LANGUAGE} : SON-SEQ >> ONSET >> * COMPLEX- NUCLEI >> * CODA

Table 8 Modern Greek speakers' learning Spanish /ie/ and /ue/ rising diphthongs

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LINGUISTIC DEVELOPMENT AND MOTIVATION IN LANGUAGE TOURISM

MONTSERRAT IGLESIAS

Abstract

Language tourism may be defined as “a tourist activity undertaken by those travelers (or educational tourists) taking a trip which includes at least an overnight stay in a destination outside their usual place of residence for less than a year and for whom language learning is a primary or secondary part of their trip” (Iglesias, 2014, p. 10).

At present, an increasing number of people travel to a foreign country at some point in their lives in order to learn a language other than their mother tongue. Generally speaking, the exploration of the linguistic benefits deriving from study abroad (SA) sojourns indicates that oral skills in the target language are significantly promoted. The comparatively less predominant scholarly interest in the development of listening and literacy abilities has also shown progress in these areas. However, research has not gathered evidence of significant advantages in the acquisition of grammar (Churchill & DuFon, 2006).

Whether SA sojourners are mostly interested in traveling overseas to learn a foreign language for personal or for academic/professional reasons, their stay will probably include different elements that will be relevant components of their language travel experience. Some of these elements will be more related to the language tourism product itself. Conversely, other aspects will refer to the user, who can be considered a language tourist benefitting from the services offered by the tourism industry and language learning providers alike.

This paper will provide an overview of research carried out in the last decades on language gains fostered by SA programs. The focus will then shift to one key factor influencing the language tourism experience from the language traveler’s perspective: motivation.

Key words: Language tourism, study abroad, motivation, linguistic gains

Linguistic gains through language travel

From a holistic perspective, the language study trip serves a multiple purpose, since it is a source for enriching life experiences that transcend language learning. As an experimental means for linguistic development, it is considered to promote foreign language proficiency. Traditionally, research on the benefits of a stay abroad for language learners has focused on specific aspects of communicative competence.

In terms of structural accuracy the impact for advanced students does not seem to be very noticeable (Freed, 1998). Most of the studies on grammar acquisition have been conducted among students of Spanish or French as a foreign language. Generally speaking, they have documented students’ progress toward target norms in different ways, without reaching native-like proficiency after a year or less abroad (Churchill & DuFon, 2006). This was partly due to either learners’ lack of norm-related awareness or their incapacity to conform to the norm in their productions.

Oral proficiency development during study abroad has been the most studied aspect and the overall results show significant improvement. More specifically, learners' self-confidence and fluency are boosted:

“Those who have been abroad appear to speak with greater ease and confidence, expressed in part by a greater abundance of speech, spoken at a faster rate and characterized by fewer dysfluent-sounding pauses. As a group, they tend to reformulate their speech to express more complicated and abstract thoughts, display a wider range of communicative strategies and a broader repertoire of styles” (Freed, 1998, p. 50).

Learners' speech has been traditionally analyzed using pre-post tests -such as the Oral Proficiency Interview- focusing on fluency. The global evidence seems to suggest that students resort to less pauses, fillers, hesitations and struggles while producing more and longer fluent runs.

Several studies have analyzed the Spanish pronunciation of native English-speaking students abroad with global favorable results despite some individual variation. Inconsistencies can be caused by a wide range of aspects such as prior formal language instruction, initial proficiency level, opportunities for input and interaction using the target language before and during the SA stay, the learning environment or the length of the SA stay (Churchill & DuFon, 2006). Initial grammatical knowledge and reading proficiency may also be a predictor for greater oral progress (Brecht, Davidson & Ginsberg, 1995).

Enhanced oral competence has a positive impact on how SA sojourners see themselves as foreign language users and how they socialize with other speakers. Dewey, Belnap and Hillstrom (2013) found considerable gains in speaking abilities related to survival skills.

When it comes to the acquisition of listening skills through a SA stay, SLA research has been far less abundant. This is also the case of scholarly interest in the development of literacy skills. It can be assumed that actually this tendency indicates which aspects of SA programs are mostly promoted, and this in turn has an effect on learners' expectations. Despite being relatively scarce and using a variety of research methodologies, on the whole the studies seem to suggest that some improvement in these areas is achieved as well (Churchill & DuFon, 2006).

In terms of literacy skills, researchers have found that it is more difficult for advanced students to show progress (Dewey, Belnap & Hillstrom, 2013). On the whole, reading and writing during a SA stay seems to foster second language acquisition (SLA), for example with respect to lexical development (Dewey, 2008). Freed, Segalowitz and Dewey (2004) have concluded that writing may be related to the improvement of oral proficiency. In turn, Pérez- Vidal and Juan-Garau (2009) have gathered evidence of an increase in SA sojourners' writing proficiency, which may be due not only to the frequent use of writing and speaking skills, but also to the acquisition of the target norms through practice.

A by no means complete picture of research carried out on each one of the above-mentioned skills is provided in Table 1, which sums up gains in linguistic competence in terms of speaking (S), listening (L), reading (R), writing (W) and structures (St), i.e. grammar and/or vocabulary. The sources do not include unpublished PhD dissertations and conference proceedings.

Authors	S	L	R	W	St
Allen & Herron (2003)	X	X			
Campbell (1996)	X	X			
Collentine (2004)	X				X
Cubillos, Chieffo & Fan (2008)		X			
DeKeyser (1991)	X				
Dewey (2004, 2006, 2008)			X		X
Dewey, Belnap & Hillstrom (2013)	X				
Díaz-Campos (2004)	X				
Dubiner, Freed & Segalowitz (2006)	X				
Duperron (2006)					X
Duperron & Overstreet (2009)	X				
Dyson (1988)	X	X			
Fraser (2002)			X	X	
Freed (1990, 1995)	X				
Freed, Segalowitz & Dewey (2004)	X				
Freed, So & Lazar (2003)	X			X	
Ginsberg, Robin & Wheeling (1992)		X			
Guntermann (1992a, 1992b)					X
Hernández (2010)	X				
Isabelli-García (2003, 2008, 2010)	X				X
Jimenez-Jimenez (2010)					X
Juan-Garau & Pérez-Vidal (2007)	X				
Kinginger & Whitworth (2005)		X			
Kline (1998)			X		
Knouse (2012)	X				
Lafford (1995, 2004)	X				
Lafford & Ryan (1995)					X
Lapkin, Hart & Swain (1995)	X				
Liskin-Gasparro (1984)	X				
Llanes & Muñoz (2009)	X				
Lybeck (2002)	X				
Magnan (1986)	X				
Magnan & Back (2007)	X				
Meara (1994)	X		X	X	
Milleret (1990)	X				
Milleret, Stansfield & Kenyon (1991)	X				
Milton & Meara (1995)					X
Möhle (1984)	X				
Mora & Valls-Ferrer (2012)	X				
Opper, Teichler & Carlson (1990)	X				
Pérez-Vidal & Juan-Garau, (2009, 2011)	X			X	
Ryan & Lafford (1992)					X
Sasaki (2011)				X	
Segalowitz & Freed (2004)	X				X
Segalowitz et al. (2004)	X				
Simões (1996)	X				
Stevens (2001)	X				
Teichler & Maiworm (1997)	X				
Trenchs-Parera (2009)	X				
Willis et al. (1977)	X	X	X		
Yager, K. (1998).	X				

Table 1. Research works on gains in linguistic competence in SA contexts

Motivation in SLA

In the context of social psychological studies, Gardner's Socio-Educational Model has usually been a referent in terms of conceptualizing motivation. According to Gardner, the two key aspects influencing learners' motivation to learn a foreign language are their attitudes relating to the learning situation and their integrativeness. Integrativeness entails being receptive to other cultures, and more specifically to the foreign language culture (Gardner, 2005). Integrativeness is possible when learners are interested in foreign languages, and also have both a positive attitude towards the target community and an integrative orientation.

By orientation Gardner understands the reasons why foreign languages are learnt, which can lead to integrative or instrumental orientation. The first has to do with becoming psychologically involved with the target language community, connecting to foreign language speakers and even feeling identified with the target language culture. The latter is related to more pragmatic factors, e.g. benefiting from economic or social gains (Gardner & Lambert, 1972).

Even though initially Gardner focused on integrative motivation, he eventually acknowledged the fact that integrative and instrumental orientations are interrelated, and that both of them foster learners' motivation. For him, the main facets of motivation in SLA can be measured taking into account the students' motivational intensity (the efforts they make to achieve their learning objectives), their desire to learn the target language and their affective reactions to learning the target language (Gardner, 1985; 2005).

Social psychological research is more concerned with the affective features of language learning motivation, while researchers in the field of educational psychology such as Deci and Ryan rather focus on cognition, i.e. the role of beliefs, mental structuring and processing (Heinzmann, 2013).

Self-determination theory was initially developed by Deci and Ryan and formally introduced in the 1980s to study individuals' motivation and personality on the basis of three innate psychological needs: competence, autonomy and psychological relatedness (i.e. identification). In order for people to develop and function properly, engage in activities successfully and enhance their performance, persistence, and creativity such needs should be satisfied and fostered by the socio-cultural environment (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

These authors distinguish between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The first one has to do with undertaking activities -such as learning a foreign language- which people enjoy inherently, without expecting some kind of external reward. In contrast, for externally motivated language students learning is a means to an end, e.g. to obtain good qualifications (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Despite intrinsic and extrinsic motivation were initially regarded as counterparts, external rewards are no longer considered to undermine intrinsic motivation if they lead to the provision of feedback with respect to competence, performance or progress. One of the basic requirements for intrinsic motivation is self-determination, which can be facilitated by creating a learning context that promotes a sense of belonging, enables students to choose and be responsible for their choices, and makes them feel competent when carrying out challenging but feasible activities (Dörnyei, 1994).

There are three types of intrinsic motivation, depending on the origins of learners' satisfaction: intrinsic knowledge orientation (when pleasure draws from satisfying the learners' curiosity about a certain topic), intrinsic accomplishment orientation (when pleasure draws from mastering a difficult task), and intrinsic stimulation orientation (when pleasure draws from the natural beauty of the language, for example in phonetic terms) (Noels, 2001).

As for extrinsic motivation, it can derive from different degrees of self-determination. Therefore, four subtypes of extrinsic motivation can be distinguished and placed along a continuum: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and integrated regulation. The last two are the most self-determined types, as they are closer to intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). For example, according to Noels (2001) foreign language students may be learning the target language in order to achieve a specific, necessary goal, such as not losing a job (external regulation). They may also self-impose some kind of pressure, such as their willingness to be respected by their colleagues or classmates, and learn a foreign language so as not to feel embarrassed (introjected regulation). Other students may feel that they will eventually become better professionals if they develop their foreign language skills, i.e. learning a foreign language helps them to attain another objective which is important for them (identified regulation). Finally, some students may regard themselves as universal citizens or travelers and consider that their foreign language communicative competence is inherent to that image (integrated regulation).

Besides intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, the lack of motivation whatsoever is referred to as amotivation by Ryan and Deci (2000). Amotivated students are passive and do not believe that their efforts are related to the results they obtain from the tasks they are obliged to do.

Some authors have seen a clear correlation between Gardner's motivation model and Deci and Ryan's framework. Based on empirical evidence, Noels (2001) considers that an instrumental orientation and external regulation refer to the same construct, whereas an integrative orientation matches especially with intrinsic motivation, and also somehow with the most self-determined subtypes of extrinsic motivation. Nevertheless, from a more theoretical perspective an integrative orientation implies learning a foreign language in order to connect with the target community members in search of their acceptance or even affection, as Gardner himself points out (1985). As this can be regarded as an external reward, integrative orientation seems in this sense more similar to the most self-determined forms of extrinsic motivation rather than to intrinsic motivation (Heinzmann, 2013).

Motivation and language travel

The different types of motivation put forward by Deci and Ryan (see Table 2) can also be applied to the language tourists, as the language learning component is a key aspect of their language travel experience.

The language tourist: motivations	
1. Intrinsic	1.1. Intrinsic knowledge orientation 1.2. Intrinsic accomplishment orientation 1.3. Intrinsic stimulation orientation
2. Extrinsic	2.1. External regulation 2.2. Introjected regulation 2.3. Identified regulation 2.4. Integrated regulation
3. Amotivation	

Table 2. Demand: the language tourist's motivations

The relationship between intercultural contact mainly generated by international tourism, interethnic/language attitudes and foreign language motivation has been addressed by Dörnyei and Csizér (2005). According to these authors, in SLA intercultural contact is both a means and an end. Foreign language learning aims at meaningful cross-cultural contact, as communicative competence in foreign languages potentially enables communication between individuals from different ethnolinguistic communities. On the other hand, interethnic contact can facilitate foreign language interaction, have a positive effect on learners' attitudes and be a major motivational factor which may foster foreign language learning and improved proficiency.

Foreign language learners' attitudes, motivations and beliefs regarding the language learning environment and the way they are perceived by locals in their SA destinations can influence their behaviour to their advantage or to their disadvantage. In turn, the way locals deal with learners can alter their attitudes (Isabelli-García, 2006), which can affect different aspects of the language travel experience.

This exploratory paper has focused on motivation in language travel exclusively from a language learning perspective. Future research avenues could analyze the motivations which lead to the selection of specific language tourism destinations and language tourism products concerning not only the language learning component (i.e. the educational input and the language learning complements), but also the travel component (i.e. transport, accommodation, catering and leisure options). Not to mention the motivations underlying language travelers' preferred learning styles (e.g. in terms of learning objectives or autonomy) and travel patterns in the destination (e.g. regarding learners' interactions and contact with the local culture), as well as pre and post-trip travel patterns (e.g. when it comes to planning a SA sojourn or providing customer response).

Gathering relevant information relating to language tourists' motivations is key in developing well-informed knowledge of the reasons behind SA sojourners' choices in order to improve SA program design, match their expectations to meet

their needs and offer a better service to enhance their language tourism experience. This, in turn, can also have a profound impact on both the language travelers and the target communities.

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IS INCORPORATING ONLINE STUDY SUPPORT MATERIAL INTO THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE COURSE AN EFFECTIVE LEARNING TOOL

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Most language teachers have recognized the huge potential of technology in providing linguistic and interactive content for teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP). New generations of Digital Natives prefer blended learning approach that combines a face-to-face environment and online learning.

The paper deals with the teaching model of ESP for students of the first year of Viticulture, Oenology and Pomology at the Polytechnic in Pozega. The model is based on blended learning in the Moodle Learning Management System (LMS) on the B2 level of the Common European Framework of References for Languages. Our study has focused on facilitating the communication between the teacher and the students using online study support material integrated in a traditional language course. The paper questions the technical skills of the Digital Natives and studies the contribution of the Moodle Learning Management System (LMS) to promote easier acquisition and proficiency in English.

The obtained results lead to the conclusion that online study support material benefited the students and had positive effects on the improvement of their linguistic skills. Furthermore, the study suggests that designing and incorporating online support materials into traditional education requires skilful planning and preparation. It is an on-going process which enables the teacher to make the changes in order to meet the students' needs and interests.

Key words: technology, Digital Natives, online support material, collaboration, groupwork

1. Introduction

The present study describes a computer-mediated approach that incorporates online study support material into an English course designed according to the Common European Framework of References for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001). The teaching model of ESP (English for Specific Purposes) for students of the first year of Viticulture, Oenology and Pomology is based on the combination of a face-to-face environment and online learning within the e-learning system Merlin, which is an e-learning platform, based on an open-source system Moodle developed and administrated by the E-learning Centre. It is free of charge e-learning platform for members of the University, teaching staff and students. The course book has been designed in collaboration with specialist professors based on a needs analysis with special emphasis on developing the skills needed for mastery of ESP.

The aim of our study is to observe Digital Natives' approaches to language acquisition in specialized higher education. Today's students are named as the New Learners, the Digital Natives or the Next Generation that suggests a fundamental difference in the way they approach knowledge acquisition, problem solving, and

moving into the workforce (Dobbins, 2005, Dziuban and Hartman, 2004). Having this in mind the teacher must be cautious in choosing content, materials and methods of teaching.

1. 1. Higher education principles

Twenty-nine European states signed the Bologna Declaration in 1999 and declared their aims of establishing a common European Higher Education Area (EHEA) by the year 2010. A lot of attention has been paid to learning for the future, which meant that a deep modification of educational models was needed. It included introduction of new methodologies aiming at students' life-long learning for personal as well as professional purposes. Our study has been focused on the priorities posed by European Higher Education Area: employability skills which include the ability to use new information technologies, the new learner-centred development of knowledge and the development of new competences in languages.

New approaches towards employability skills particularly aim at integration of students in groupwork. Recruiters appreciate the candidate's experience of working in group settings, and consider teamwork as one of the core transferable skills valued by employers in the workplace (Elgort, et al., 2008). Educational approaches are therefore turning from individual to groupwork that is considered more effective for promoting student learning and retention (Montero-Fleta and Pérez-Sabater, 2011).

Most higher education students belong to the New Millennium and their ability to use new information technologies should not be questioned. Web applications that help information sharing and collaboration can create learning environments in which students participate in more active way. The role of a teacher changes from provider of information to facilitator of student learning. The change is from teacher-centered construction of knowledge to learner centered. Hutchinson and Waters suggest that when teachers start developing their ESP materials they should follow the four basic precepts in ESP materials development. Those precepts are: suitability for the proficiency level, relevance to learner's needs, creativity in tasks/ activities and discursive strategies, and stimulation of the target speech acts. Some overarching characteristics of instructional materials are that they do not teach, but facilitate the learning process; present a clear and coherent unit structure; are in consonance with pedagogical approaches; and offer problem solving tasks (Hutchinson and Waters, 1989). Development of knowledge challenges learners to be more active and collaborative with other students in looking for and finding alternative solutions, closing the possible knowledge gaps, revising and testing their thinking and finally presenting the best solution they can derive (O'Loughlin, 1992; Cole, 2009).

Among other skills needed for professional success the development of a proficiency in languages, the acquisition of specialized vocabulary and development of communication skills are definitely very important. Our study considers all named factors and gives a new insight into the introduction of online study support material designed by Digital Natives, the students of the English Language Course of the first year of Viticulture, Oenology and Pomology.

1. 2. New learning styles of Digital Natives

The phenomenon named the New Learner or the Digital Native refers to children and young adults born into the digital era. Prensky (2001) coined the metaphor. Teachers who were born before the digital era are considered digital immigrants, immigrants to computers and the Internet. On the other hand, the exposure of Digital Natives to Media has taught them to challenge any tradition, institution or value. They can navigate complicated software easily, more and more of them take class notes on personal digital assistants and get the desired information from blogs or Wikis. Their learning environment is changing; they like to access course materials anytime, and are positive about flexibility and accessibility of language course material on the Web. Their skills are frequently more technologically proficient than their teachers'. Keeping this in mind language teachers have realized how important it is to accommodate the learning skills of net generation and meet their learning needs. The new learning tools provided by the Internet can "meet the connectivity demands that today's students expect" (Blattner and Fiori, 2009, p. 17). A Wiki website offers possibility for a group of individuals to work together on a particular topic of interest, share their knowledge and experience with other students and present the result of their collaborative work.

2. Background of the study

The English language curriculum has been changing throughout the years trying to cope with specific needs of learners. The Common European Framework of References for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001) encourages independent learning. In our study, Wiki pages, the product of students' involvement and collaboration were incorporated as an online study support material in an English course to suit the interests of Digital Natives.

The purpose of this study was to examine to what extent collaborative writing focused on improving English grammar could benefit the process of English language learning. The questions we focused on were dealing with students' particular learning styles, their integration in groupwork, working atmosphere, experience with the E-learning system Merlin, possible technical problems and support, the extent to which Wikis promote learner-centred construction of knowledge, and finally the contribution of Wikis to the development of students' proficiency in grammar and self-confidence.

3. Design of the study

3. 1 Participants

At present the situation of learning a foreign language at a tertiary level in Croatia is the continuation of language teaching from secondary school (students leaving school around B2 level of the Common European Framework of References for Languages) and starting tertiary English at this level. The English language instruction program at the Agricultural Department of Polytechnic in Pozega amounts to 60 hours, distributed in the first two semesters of the studies. The language groups differ not only in size but also in ability. English Language for students of the first year of Viticulture, Oenology and Pomology is taught in the form of contact teaching (once a week for 90 minutes) with the use of a coursebook.

The study took place during the first semester of the 2013-2014 academic year. The participants were 54 first-year students of Agricultural Department. Their level was either lower intermediate, B1 or intermediate B2 according to CEFR. The profile of the participants was young adult students, 35 male and 19 female. Their average was 19, 50 were 19 and 4 were 20. They were students born around 1994 and most of them Digital Natives (91%). The figures were obtained through a survey on students' use of computers and the Internet based on the questionnaire published by Margaryan, et al. (2011). As expected, the survey had shown that they all used technology on a daily basis and their attitude on the introduction of new technologies to their lessons was positive.

3. 2. Methodology

At the beginning of the course, the students took a placement test which indicated certain grammar deficiencies, mainly in the use of tenses, the use of prepositions and articles. In order to deal with this problem the idea was to design and carry out a study over the course of semester, which consisted in the creation of online grammar support material devised as a Wiki product within the University e-learning platform Merlin. All the students in Croatia have their own AAI electronic identity account which enables them to access the e-learning system Merlin. Each institution within the Ministry of Science, Education and Sports that has been included into AAI@EduHr system (SRCE, 2006) as functional unit has its own LDAP Directory where all electronic identities of users from that institution have been stored.

Part of the task was done in class during the 15 weeks of the course and students had to do a part of the activity either at home or in the computer lab. Teams were formed based on results of placement test, so that groups would have a heterogeneous linguistic level. According to Montero-Fleta and Pérez-Sabater, (2010), in this way, the students could work collaboratively in teams and learn from the other members of the team. In our study students worked in groups of five and one group of four. Each group had to deal with a specific grammar content task. Individual groups were given the instructions how to create a particular part using a Wiki platform. They had to study the grammar point assigned, design a presentation of the theoretical content, develop exercises with the keys to check the understanding of the particular grammar point and prepare an oral presentation of the material developed (Power Point Slides). Finally, their Power Point Presentation and corresponding exercises were incorporated into online grammar support material for other students' to practice and test their knowledge of a particular part of grammar. The teacher was always available to help in problems associated with specific grammar content and possible problems with technology.

3. 3. Design of the questionnaire

The student questionnaire was administered in the last week of January 2014 at the end of first semester. The students completed the questionnaire which consisted of 12 questions (Table1) in one of the English classes. The questionnaire based on a Likert scale aimed at determining the respondents' level of agreement to each statement in the questionnaire in order to get the feedback on their perception on learning environment, groupwork, promotion of learner-centred construction of

knowledge, Wiki usability, management of study time, variety of activities, learning environment, technical problems and collaborative construction of knowledge.

4. Data analysis and discussion

The results of the student End-of-Semester Questionnaire are displayed in Table 1 with an indication of the number of affirmative answers out of 54 respondents and the percentage they represent.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Positive, secure and motivating learning environment was created.	37 68.53%	7 12.96%	8 14.81%	2 3.70%
The working atmosphere within the group was motivating.	32 59.25%	10 18.52%	9 16.67%	3 5.56%
The objectives of the tasks were clear and appropriate.	37 68.52%	6 11.11%	7 12.96%	4 7.41%
The Wiki website improved collaboration in groupwork.	20 37.04%	23 42.59%	10 18.52%	1 1.85%
The Wiki saved time in task completion.	15 27.78%	23 42.59%	5 9.26%	2 3.70%
Technical problems were encountered when editing.	7 12.96%	20 37.04%	24 44.44%	3 5.56%
Technical problems were due to low Internet speed.	8 14.81%	19 35.19%	22 40.14%	5 9.26%
Sufficient support was given in problems associated with technology.	40 74.08%	9 16.62%	5 9.26%	0 0.0%
The Wiki website was useful to construct knowledge collaboratively.	20 37.04%	25 46.30%	7 12.96%	2 3.7%
The Wiki project helped you to learn the grammar points dealt with more efficiently.	28 51.85%	25 46.30%	1 1.85%	0 0.0%
The Wiki project facilitated learning of grammar through a variety of activities.	31 57.41%	21 38.89%	1 1.85%	1 1.85%
The Wiki project helped you build self-knowledge and self-confidence.	21 38.89%	29 53.70%	3 5.56%	1 1.85%

Table 1

4.1. End-of-Semester question 1: Positive, secure and motivating learning environment was created.

The data revealed that 81.49% of the students considered that positive, secure and motivating learning environment was created. Only 3.70% strongly disagreed.

4.2. End-of-Semester question 2: The working atmosphere within the group was motivating.

Regarding the working atmosphere within the group 77.77% of the students thought that it was motivating.

4.3. End-of-Semester question 3: The objectives of the tasks were clear and appropriate.

79.63% of students agreed, 12.96% disagreed and 7.41% strongly disagreed.

4.4. End-of-Semester question 4: The Wiki website improved collaboration in groupwork.

The students showed a satisfactory degree of collaboration and interactivity among members of the group. It is important to mention that there was a difference in the way the groups distributed the roles among members. In some groups a member of the group had been named to be responsible for communication and updating the information in the Wiki, although all of them contributed equally. In communication with students, some pointed out their preference for carrying out the task individually.

4.5. End-of-Semester question 5: The Wiki saved time in task completion.

When time dedicated to task completion was considered, most respondents appreciated the time saved to construct the final document.

4.6. End-of-Semester question 6: Technical problems were encountered when editing.

Nearly half of the students complained about technical problems in editing when trying to add or correct parts of the task.

4.7. End-of-Semester question 7: Technical problems were due to low Internet speed.

Almost half of the students reported technical problems and difficulties with the Internet loading speed. In communication they complained about difficulties when drawing tables.

4.8. End-of-Semester question 8: Sufficient support was given in problems associated with technology.

Students were in agreement that they were given adequate support when problems with technology occurred. 90.74% of students agreed and 9.26% disagreed.

4.9. End-of-Semester question 9: The Wiki website was useful to construct knowledge collaboratively.

Most students showed a high level of agreement about usefulness of the Wiki site to construct the task collaboratively. However, few individual students disagreed and expressed their reluctance to share knowledge with other students.

4.10. End-of-Semester question 10: The Wiki project helped you to learn the grammar points dealt with more efficiently.

A vast majority of the students had positive feelings on the skills acquired through the process of preparation and implementation of the required task. Only one student disagreed. Positive perceptions were reflected in the results of their grammar achievement test they took at the end of the course.

4.11. End-of-Semester question 11: The Wiki project facilitated learning of grammar through a variety of activities.

Students showed a high level of agreement with the statement that a variety of activities helped them learn grammar easier. Only one student disagreed and one strongly disagreed.

4.12. End-of-Semester question 12: The Wiki project helped you build self-knowledge and self-confidence.

As in the previous question a vast majority of students were in agreement that work on the task helped them build self-knowledge and self-confidence. Only 7.41% disagreed with the statement.

5. Conclusion

The aim of this study was to reveal the attitudes and motivation of Digital Natives towards collaborative writing which focused on the improvement of English grammar. Students involved in the study had the opportunity to experience the implementation of online technologies for knowledge construction. Their collaboration and interactivity was satisfactory. In general, the study has presented positive outcomes to the questions posed to the students.

The data show that in spite of the Digital Native character of the students participating in the study, they faced difficulties in dealing with technology. However, most of them recognized the suitability of Wiki website to share and construct learner-centred construction of knowledge. A vast majority of the students had positive attitudes on the linguistic skills acquired and they agreed that learning environment was motivating.

Overall, this study shows that the collective work done by the students created a student-centred learning environment which resulted in the production of an online part of the course content. Online study support material complements the coursebook and extends the contact with and among the students. Various exercises incorporated into online study support material with the immediate feedback give students an insight into the areas they need to practice more. Students can access a range of activities when they are online whenever and wherever they have access to the Internet, which suits the way and style of their knowledge acquisition.

In conclusion, it is important to emphasize that questioning learning styles and preferences of Digital Natives should be continued by a follow up study addressing their learning styles by using some other parameters such as computer games, the tools most frequently claimed to be their learning preference.

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DISCUSSIONS, ERRORS AND PROBLEMS

A PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS OF COMMON ERRORS IN ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAYS BY ADVANCED LEARNERS OF MANDARIN CHINESE

HUA XIANG

Substantial research has taken place in the field of second language writing with the approach of error analysis, particularly on Chinese students writing in English (Darus, S. and Subramaniam, K., 2009; Chen, Y. W., 2002; Chen, F. 2007). Meanwhile there has been vast investigation into L2 learners' self-perception of their writing (Weaver, E. R., 2006). However, limited studies have connected the analysis of students' performance with their self-perception. Even fewer studies are available regarding writing essays in Mandarin Chinese by foreign students (Zhao, Y. 2011).

This study combines two approaches to understand students' problems in second language writing. On the one hand, it presents a data-driven, learner-centered and pedagogically oriented analysis of a corpus of 50 argumentative essays (in total over 25,000 characters) produced by international undergraduate students who study Mandarin as part of their degree at the London School of Economics and Political Science (LSE). The common errors are classified and analyzed at three main levels: structural level, sentence level and lexical level. On the other hand, a survey with six questions which generally describe the whole writing process has been carried out among the same group of students. The survey aims to explore students' understanding of the writing task, with a focus on their knowledge about the structure of argumentative essays in Chinese. At the same time, students are invited to report their biggest challenges in the writing practice, as well as their preferred forms of feedback after the writing. The survey results are coded and compared with the previous error analysis. Specifically, students' understanding of the essay structure is in juxtaposition with their actual structural problems. Their perception of the biggest difficulty is measured against the actual errors made at different levels.

The study illustrates typical errors made by the advanced learners of Mandarin Chinese focus on the sentence as well as lexical level. The students encounter difficulty in producing complex sentences with correlatives. They also confuse words with similar meanings when it comes to content words. The functional words also bring great challenge to the learners. This is in line with the fact that most students consider limited vocabulary, phrasing and forming complex sentences to be their biggest difficulty in writing. On the other hand, however, the students seem to value the content and ideas more in comparison to linguistic areas of the writing. By comparing and analyzing the above findings, some pedagogical implications are discussed.

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COMPREHENSION PROBLEMS IN BROCA'S APHASIA: A CASE OF TELUGU LIGHT VERBS

YANAMANDRA SATYA HARINI

Abstract

This paper deals with the comprehension problems that Broca's aphasics have while processing the light verbs in Telugu (a Dravidian language spoken in South India). Since the representation of light verb constructions exposes certain challenges involved in the processing of language in the brain, an understanding of constructions with these verbs seems to be important. Light verbs in Telugu carry tense, gender, number and agreement morphology and mark the case of the subject and the main verb is in the participial form.

There are two general views regarding the processing of light verbs: the 'lexical approach' (Hale and Keyser (1993, 2002) Goldberg (2003)), which states that the light-verb interpretation is fully listed as an idiom in the lexicon and the 'compositional approach' (Jackendoff (2002) Culicover & Jackendoff (2005) Pinango et al (2006)), which claims that the argument sharing in light verbs occurs in a syntactic compositional process leading to a computational cost due to lack of overt morpho-syntactic support. An analysis of the reaction time taken by normals and aphasics to process different categories of light verbs suggested that all light verbs cannot be treated alike. There seems to be a need to categorize under different classes. The idiosyncratic light verbs seem to be lexicalized; and the more transparent ones appear to be composed in real time. The study reveals problems in the procedural memory of aphasics rather than in declarative memory.

Introduction

The present study aims to analyze the comprehensibility abilities of Broca's aphasics with regard to processing of light verbs in Telugu language. Language breakdown is an important area of study that throws light on the processing mechanisms. It is a known fact that much information on language processing so far has come from aphasic patients. Though aphasia can be broadly classified as Wernicke's and Broca's, the present study is restricted to issues related to Broca's syndrome only. People with extensive damage to Broca's area, in addition to profound speech production difficulties, also often manifest signs of 'agrammatism', an apparent selective loss of grammatical words and inflectional morphemes.

Production and comprehension problems in Broca's aphasia

The syndrome of Broca's aphasia is characterized by agrammatic speech and the various symptoms observed in the production and comprehension of Broca's aphasia could be attributed to the disruption of the syntactic module of the language processing system. This would definitely impair the patient's ability in utilizing the grammatical morphemes which in turn result in irregularities in the production of syntactic structures and comprehension of syntactic cues.

In case of speech production, verb production is said to be much difficult for Broca's aphasics, both at the word and at the sentence level. In general, it

is demonstrated that Broca's aphasics have problems with verb retrieval and production, which can be seen in their speech patterns. It was observed that agrammatic aphasics have difficulty producing verbs and this difficulty is said to be linked to argument structure of the verb.

Based on this hypothesis, the Tree Pruning Hypothesis (in short, TPH), proposed by Friedmann and Grodzinsky (1997), tried to justify a pattern of impairment in agrammatism. According to the TPH, the syntactic tree is pruned at a particular level based on the severity of the deficiency in agrammatic aphasics. The nodes of Complementizer (C), Tense (T) and Agreement (Agr) could be impaired depending of the degree of impairment in agrammatic speech. It stated that any node that is damaged would not be able to project higher. This hypothesis claimed that agrammatics often fail to project the higher nodes such as CP of the syntactic tree.

In accordance with this, Martinez (2003) showed that Broca's aphasics have problems with higher structures of the hierarchy and that tense, being a higher node, is more severely impaired than agreement. In most cases, the comprehension problems related to Broca's syndrome seemed to be less obvious due to their non-fluent speech. However, it was observed that these patients suffer from non-fluent production as well as abnormal comprehension, more specifically in relation to complex syntactic structures such as light verbs.

Therefore, this work tries to throw light on certain aspects of an intriguing phenomenon in human language, i.e. the processing of light verbs. Light verbs are a type/subclass of complex predicates, in which the complex predicate consists of a main predicational component and a light verb. For example, in English, take in 'take a walk'. Here the primary meaning is provided by 'walk' and 'take' is the light verb. Since the constituents of a light verb construction show a mismatch between the form and the meaning, their representation would pose a challenge for the processing of language in the brain.

Light verb constructions in Telugu

The language of discussion for the purposes of the present study is Telugu, a South Indian language. Light verbs in Telugu, similar to many other Indian languages, carry tense, gender, number and agreement morphology and mark the case of the subject. An example of a typical light verb construction in Telugu is shown below. The main verb is in participial form and the light verb takes all markers of tense and agreement.

Ravi	<i>pustakam</i>	<i>cadiv-i</i>	<i>paressaa-Du</i>
Ravi-Nom	book-Acc	read-perf.part	throw-past-3p.masc.sg.
"Ravi read the book (thoroughly)"			

Image 1

Light verb constructions are a type of complex predicates where the event structure is determined by more than one element. The two predicational elements, the main verb and the light verb, contribute to a joint predication. There have been two major approaches to the study of interpretation of light verbs: lexical

and compositional. According to the lexical approach, the light-verb interpretation is fully listed as an idiom in the lexicon. But light verb interpretation, as per the compositional approach, is a result of the local syntactic and semantic context of the predicate and its object.

Subjects and Experiments

The three aphasic patients, two men and a woman, suffered damage to the brain due to blood clots in the flow of blood to the brain. The patients have been undergoing treatment for quite some time at Sweekar Rehabilitation Institute, Hyderabad (Telangana, India). A few common traits observed in these patients are as follows. The speech of these patients was non-fluent, interspersed with few words, short sentences and many intervening pauses. The words were produced with much effort and often with indistinct sounds. There was a clear selective deletion of connectives that made their speech seem to be telegraphic. It was stated, by the authorities, that their auditory comprehension was relatively intact in informal conversation, but formal testing seemed to have disclosed a defective performance. It was reported that their repetition of words and sentences was impaired. Psychologically, they were upset and depressed by their condition. At home and in their workplaces, they have predominantly used Telugu for regular communication. They could read, write and speak Telugu fluently. They used English for official communication only.

A detailed explanation of the experiments conducted is given here followed by an analysis of the identification patterns as well as the mean reaction times taken by the subjects. Grammaticality judgement tasks using light verb constructions were designed to test the comprehensibility abilities of non-fluent bilingual aphasic patients, who can speak and understand Telugu and English, and the results were compared with the abilities of normal language users.

Experiment 1

Most of the linguistic theories argue for absolute mapping between syntactic and semantic structure but in case of light verb constructions, there seems to be a mismatch between syntactic and semantic argument structure. To account for this mismatch, Hale & Keyser (2002) and Goldberg (2003) argued for storing this kind of idiosyncratic syntax-semantic mapping of light verb constructions in the lexicon as a listed exception and that these constructions should be simple to process than non-light constructions either due to high frequency or due to their reduced syntactic complexity. Culicover & Jackendoff (2005), on the other hand, argued for a shared argument structure through semantic composition assuming the need for more complex semantic composition than typical sentence processing for these constructions. In tune with this assumption, Wittenberg, Pinango & Jackendoff (2010), in their experiments on the processing of light verbs, have shown that light verb constructions elicit increased reaction times.

To check the same, we conducted an experiment to examine the processing of light verb constructions compared to non-light verb constructions. To test this, we constructed five sets of materials. Each set contained a context sentence followed by three constructions viz. with normal light verb construction, with non-light verb construction using the same verb and with an anomalous light verb construction

using the same verb. The subjects were asked to classify every situation as natural or unnatural. An example set of sentences is given below.

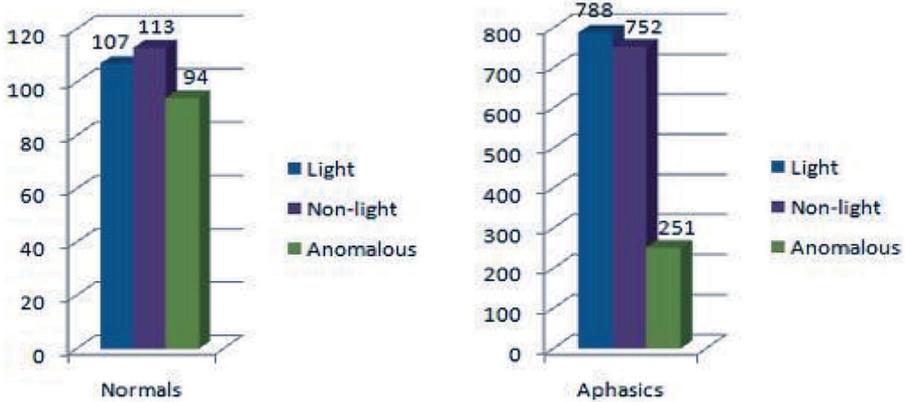
<i>ravi-ki</i>	<i>oka</i>	<i>uttaram</i>	<i>vaccin-di</i>	(context sentence)
Ravi-Dat	one	letter-Nom	come-past-3p.sg.	
"Ravi received a letter"				
(a). <i>atanu</i>	<i>uttaram</i>	<i>cadiv-i</i>	<i>paaresaa-Du</i>	
He-Nom	letter-Acc	read-perf.part.	throw-past-3p.masc.sg.	
"He read the letter thoroughly"				
(b). <i>atanu</i>	<i>uttaram</i>	<i>cimp-i</i>	<i>paaresaa-Du</i>	
He-Nom	letter-Acc	tear-perf.part.	throw-past-3p.masc.sg.	
"He tore the letter"				
* (c). <i>atanu</i>	<i>uttaram</i>	<i>aric-i</i>	<i>paaresaa-Du</i>	
He-Nom	letter-Acc	shout-part.	throw-past-3p.masc.sg.	
*"He shouted the letter"				

Image 1

Normal subjects have rated light verb constructions and non-light verb constructions as natural and the anomalous constructions as unnatural. Aphasic patients have rated most of the light verb constructions and all non-light verb constructions as natural and the anomalous constructions as unnatural. The table below shows the mean reaction times (henceforth mean RTs, represented on the Y-axis in the given graphs) for the three conditions. Interestingly, the normal subjects have taken less time to rate LVCs (107ms) than the non-light constructions (113ms). Also, they have taken much less time (94ms) to rate the anomalous sentences as unnatural. In accordance with the assumptions of Wittenberg, Pinango & Jackendoff (2010), the patients, unlike the normal subjects, have taken more time to rate LVCs (788ms) than the non-light constructions (752ms). But, like normal subjects, they have taken much less time (251ms) to rate the anomalous sentences as unnatural.

	Light verb condition	Non-light condition	Anomalous condition
Normals	107	113	94
Patients	788	752	251

Image 3 Mean reaction times (in ms) for light verb, non-light verb and anomalous conditions.



Graph 1

Experiment 2

Butt et al (2008) stated that heavy verbs contain complete range of information about semantic argument structure, whereas light verbs require another predicate to share their argument structure. Therefore, they are expected to be processed differently. It was argued that heavy verbs are semantically rich so they rely on semantic cues more than on syntactic ones, whereas light verbs rely more on syntactic cues as they are semantically impoverished.

We then conducted an experiment to check whether the patients are able to identify the heavy and light use of select verbs and to see whether they have difficulties in identifying the light verb use. In this experiment, a set of three pairs of sentences containing heavy and light use of select verbs in similar environment are selected. A description of an example set of sentences is given below. In the first pair of sentences, the first one has a noun and a main verb combination while the second sentence has a noun and a light verb combination.

(a). <i>nuvvu</i>	<i>paTTukunna-vanTe</i>	<i>addam</i>	<i>pagulutun-di</i>	(N + V)
you-Nom	catch – cond.	mirror-Nom	break-past-2p.sg.	
“If you touch it, the mirror will break. ”</td				
(b). <i>nuvvu</i>	<i>paTTukunna-vanTe</i>	<i>moham</i>	<i>pagulutun-di</i>	(N + LV)
you-Nom	catch – cond.	face-Nom	break-past-2p.sg.	
“If you catch it (or me), you will be punched (on face)”				

Image 4

In the second pair, the first sentence has a main verb in combination with another main verb while the second one has a main verb and a light verb.

(a). <i>aame</i>	<i>inTi-ki</i>	<i>vell-i</i>	<i>poyyin-di</i>	(MV)
she-Nom	house-Dat	go-part.	go-past-3p.fem.sg.	
“She has gone to and went away from home”				
(b). <i>na kotta</i>	<i>cokka</i>	<i>cirig-i</i>	<i>poyyin-di</i>	(MV + LV)
my new	shirt -Nom	tear-perf.part.	go-past-3p.sg.	
“My new shirt is torn”				

Image 5

In the third set, the first one has a main verb preceded by an adverb whereas the second sentence has a light verb and a main verb.

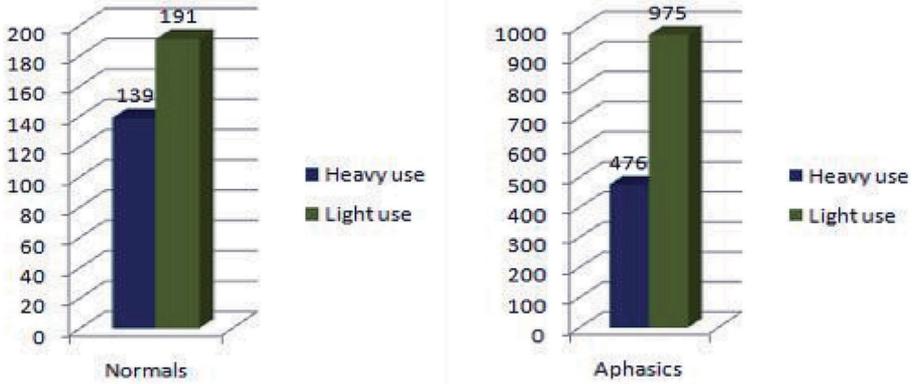
(a). <i>aame-ni</i>	<i>aa sangati</i>	<i>gaTTi-gaa</i>	<i>ceppama-nu</i>	(MV)
her-Acc	that news	loud-adv	tell-fut-3p.sg.	
“Ask her to tell the news loudly”				
(b). <i>aame-ni</i>	<i>aa sangati</i>	<i>nokk-i</i>	<i>ceppama-nu</i>	(LV + MV)
her-Acc	that news	press-perf.part.	tell-fut-3p.sg.	
“Ask her to (emphasize and) tell the news”				

Image 6

The informants, both normal subjects and aphasic patients, have identified all the given sentences, which differentiated the heavy and light use of verbs, as acceptable ones. When compared between normals and aphasic patients, the mean RTs of patients were much higher than those of normals in both the conditions. When compared between heavy and light use of verbs, the mean RTs were much higher for light use than for the heavy use of verbs. The table below displays the mean RTs in identifying the use of verbs.

	Heavy use	Light use
Normals	139	191
Aphasics	476	975

Image 7 Mean RTs (in ms) in identifying the heavy and light use of verbs.

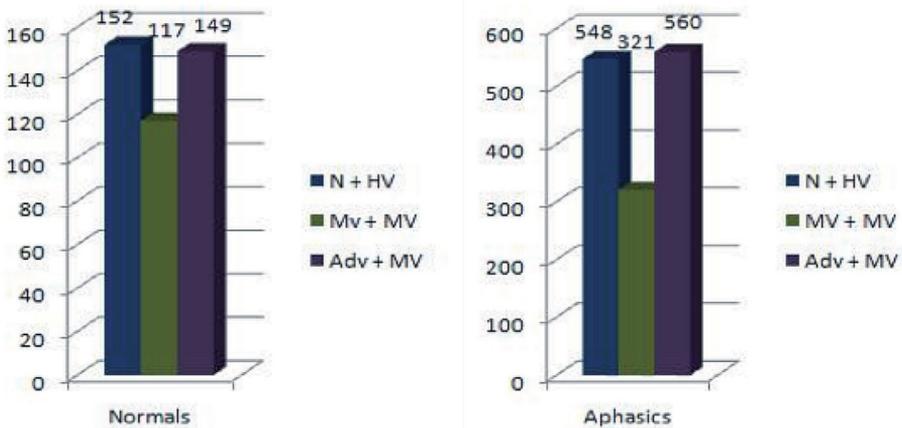


Graph 2

In case of normals, the mean RTs for noun and a heavy verb combination (152 ms) and also for noun and a light verb combination (231 ms) are higher than those in all other cases. In case of light verb use, the mean RTs for noun and a light verb combination (231 ms) was the highest of all, followed by the infrequent light verb and main verb combination (179 ms) and the more frequent main verb and light verb combination (162 ms) order. The tables given below show the mean reaction times taken by the subjects in each of these conditions.

	N + HV	MV + MV	Adv + MV
Normals	152	117	149
Patients	548	321	560

Image 8 Mean reaction times (in ms) in three conditions of heavy verb use.



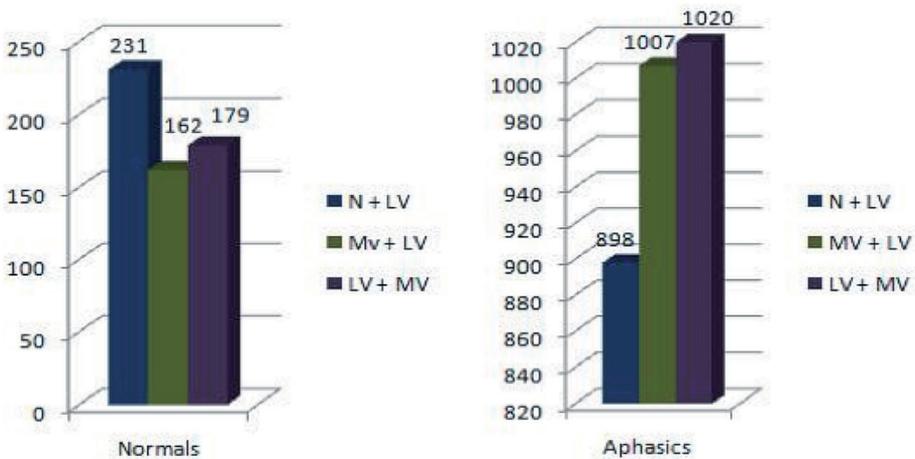
Graph 3

In case of patients, the mean RTs for adverb and main verb combination (560 ms) in case of heavy verb use and for the infrequent light verb and main verb

combination (1020 ms) were higher than in other cases. In case of light verb use, the mean RTs for the infrequent light verb and main verb combination (1020 ms) were the highest of all followed by the more frequent main verb and light verb combination (1007 ms) order. In this case, the mean RTs for noun and a light verb order (898 ms) was the least.

	N + LV	MV + LV	LV + MV
Normals	231	162	179
Patients	898	1007	1020

Image 9 Mean reaction times (in ms) in three conditions of light verb use.



Graph 4

It can be stated that the mean RTs for main verb and a light verb order are lower than light verb followed by a main verb order, indicating that the regular order of main verb followed by the light verb was easy to identify than the infrequent light verb and then a main verb order. Frequency seems to be an important factor here.

Experiment 3

We then conducted another experiment to check which combination, a noun and a light verb or a main verb and a light verb, is easier to process. To test this, we constructed two sets of materials containing a noun/main verb and a light verb combination. The first set had five sentences containing a noun and a light verb combination while the second set had five sentences containing a main verb and a light verb combination. An example set is given below.

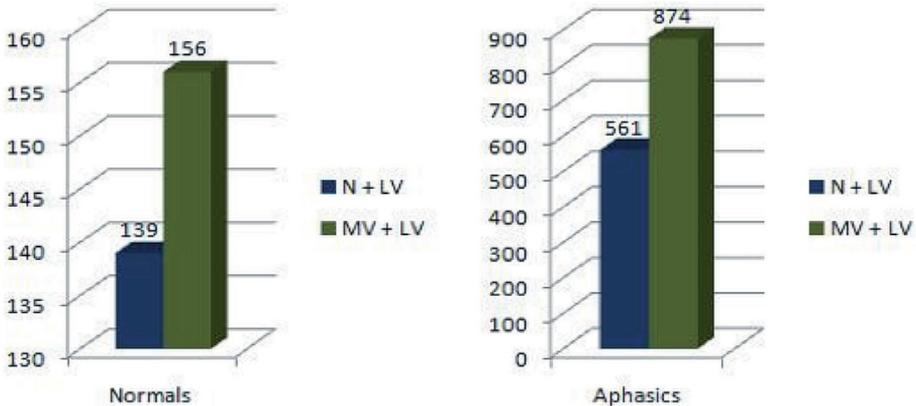
Single light verb (or Noun + Light Verb) construction			
(a). <i>atanu</i>	<i>cakka-gaa</i>	<i>kadha</i>	<i>allaa-Du</i>
he-Nom	well-adv.	story-Acc	weave-past-3p.masc.sg.
"He weaved the story well"			
Double verb (or Main Verb + Light Verb) construction			
(b). <i>ravi</i>	<i>pustakam</i>	<i>cadiv-i</i>	<i>paaresaa-Du</i>
Ravi-Nom	book-Acc	read-perf.part.	throw-past-3p.masc.sg.
"Ravi read the book thoroughly"			

Image 10

The informants, both normal subjects and aphasic patients, have identified all the given sentences, which consisted of noun and a light verb and also main verb and a light verb combinations, as acceptable ones. The table below shows the mean RTs (in ms) in identifying N + LV and MV + LV combinations. When compared between normals and aphasic patients, the mean RTs of patients (561 ms & 874 ms) were much higher than those of normals (139 ms & 156 ms) in both the conditions. When compared between constructions with a noun and a light verb combination and those with main verb and a light verb combination, the mean RTs were much higher for the latter set than for the former set.

	N + LV	MV + LV
Normals	139	156
Aphasics	561	874

Image 11 Mean reaction times (in ms) in identifying N + LV and MV + LV combinations.



Graph 5

In case of normal subjects, the mean RTs are higher for sentences with main verb and a light verb combination (156 ms) than those with noun and a light verb combination (139 ms). Accordingly, aphasic patients too exhibited a similar pattern for these constructions and that the mean RTs for main verb and a light verb combination (874 ms) are higher than for noun and a light verb combination (561 ms).

Discussion of findings

From the results of our study, it can be stated that light verbs were more difficult to process than non-light ones (or heavy verbs) for the subjects. Broca's aphasics were able to process the light verb constructions in the right manner to a larger extent but took longer reaction times compared to normals. The increased processing times seem to be indicative of the fact that light verb constructions were problematic for aphasic patients.

So far, all light verbs have been treated alike in the literature but as per our study, there seem to be certain differences. In general, at least in Telugu language, some of the light verbs seem to be relatively more transparent and others opaque. The meaning of the 'lighter' light verbs [for e.g., '*cirigi* (tear) - *poyyindi* (go)' = torn] is more transparent, while that of the 'heavier' light verbs [e.g., '*Tapa* (letter-post) - *kaTTu* (tie)' = die] is strictly (or overtly) idiomatic. Therefore, there exists a need to classify the light verbs into different categories.

Our findings seem to be intermediary to lexical and compositional approaches. Hence, to account for the same, we considered Ullman's (2001) declarative/procedural model. According to this model, language processing is based on two mental capacities: a 'mental lexicon' and a 'mental grammar'. The mental lexicon involves declarative memory and the mental grammar involves procedural memory. The model suggests that the declarative memory is an associative memory that stores lexical knowledge and other factual information, and is readily available to all other mental systems. While procedural memory involves the embedded learning and use of grammatical rules. This system would be important in the systematic combination of stored information and abstract forms into complex structures. Thus, as per this model, the composition of a complex structures like light verbs involves activation of both the systems simultaneously.

In our study, the most frequently used light verbs, we believe, are stored as lexical chunks in the mental lexicon and are therefore easier to process both for normals and the aphasics. However, when the subjects were given the infrequent forms, they had to activate their mental grammar to comprehend these forms i.e. they had to analyze and compose these structures in real time. Hence, they took longer time to process them. Frequency effects were, in general, observed for stored representations but not for those composed by rules in real time. Two types of frequency effects can be observed in the present study viz., frequency of the expression and frequency of the sequence/order.

a). Frequency of the expression: It can be noted that the most frequently used expressions [e.g., '*taagi* (drink) - *caavu* (die)' = drink heavily] elicited lesser reaction times than the infrequent expressions [e.g., '*teppinci* (bring) - *vestaanu* (put)' = brought] by the subjects. Therefore, we concluded that the frequent forms were probably stored in the mental lexicon and hence were easier to retrieve than the infrequent expressions.

b). Frequency of the sequence/order: There have been quite a number of studies, which indicated that aphasic patients have much difficulty in the comprehension of structures that do not follow the canonical order of major constituents. These studies signify that the canonical forms are simpler to process. Thus, frequency effects in comprehension problems cannot be ruled out. To support the claim, the results indicated that the more frequent sequence of a main verb followed by a light verb was easier for the subjects, both normal and aphasics, than the rare sequence of a light verb and a main verb. Frequency of order too can be stated to be an important factor.

Lewis (1993) suggested that language should be analyzed as consisting of multi-word chunks. He stressed that without chunking, language acquisition, production and comprehension of the language would be limited and slowed down (Lewis, 1993). It was also suggested that non-fluent aphasics try to memorize complex forms in lexical memory to compensate for their grammatical impairments (Drury & Ullman, 2002). In addition, Code's (1982a, 1982b) analysis of different types of aphasic patients indicated that formulaic expressions were more frequent in the non-fluent than in the fluent aphasias. To sum up, studies on aphasic patients have supported the idea that lexical chunks are stored and processed separately in the brain.

Also, in the present study, Broca's aphasics exhibited certain degree of inconsistency in certain cases. For instance, within the set of the select sentences of N + LV, the subjects have taken least reaction times for the least opaque expressions [e.g., '*santosham* (happy) – *vesindi* (put)' = feel happy]. The rule mechanisms seem to be impaired in case of more opaque expressions and hence longer reaction times. The results seem to suggest that such instances, similar to infrequent expressions, may be composed in real time.

As per Lewis's (1993) model, procedural memory involves coordination of processes in real time and computation of structures in sequence. The knowledge available in this memory tends to be implied and encapsulated. This system triggers aspects of rule-learning, which help in acquiring and performing processes involving sequences. It is commonly referred to as an implicit memory system because both the learning of the procedural memories and the memories themselves are generally not available to conscious access (Ullman & Pierpont, 2005).

To summarize, by observing the results of experiment 1 and 2 of our study, it can be stated that light verbs were more difficult to process than non-light ones (or heavy verbs) for the subjects. From the results of experiment 3, it was observed that the subjects, both normals and aphasics, have taken less time for noun and a light verb combination [e.g., '*santhosham* (happy) – *vesindi* (put)' = feel happy] than for main verb and a light verb combination [e.g., '*teppinci* (bring) – *vestaanu* (put)' = brought] suggesting that nouns seem to be easier to process than verbs.

Conclusion

As a general rule, it can be stated that Broca's agrammatics had much difficulty processing verbs with lesser semantic weight than those with greater semantic weight. As per the present study, it can be concluded that light verbs need to be categorized under different classes: some which are lexicalized and others are composed in real time. Reaction times indicate that patients with Broca's aphasia

comprehend the lexicalized light verbs faster than the compositional ones. This clearly indicates that the rule mechanisms involved for the creation of light verbs are affected in Broca's aphasia.

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PRONUNCIATION ERRORS OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN MALAYSIA: PROBLEMS AND REMEDY

ANDREW YAU HAU TSE

Abstract

Second language (L2) learners of English have a tendency to make a lot of errors in English pronunciation resulting in transmitting wrong messages and causing nuisance to the listeners. The objective of this study is, therefore, to identify students' pronunciation errors in English and subsequently help them improve their pronunciation. Qualitative measure will be adopted in this research. This is done in the form of structured interview to forty-two year one students who are majoring in English in a private university in Malaysia. The data collected from the interview will be analysed manually to identify their pronunciation errors. The findings revealed that Chinese students of English have problems in pronouncing certain English vowels, consonants, and diphthongs. To conclude, these learners should recognize these errors and try to rectify them by working on pronunciation exercises. The subjects of this research are Malaysian Chinese students, further research is needed in using Malaysian Indians and Malays to explore their problems.

Keywords: pronunciation errors, second language learners

Introduction

Malaysian English (ME) refers to all types of English spoken by Malaysians. The speakers' first language (L1) may affect the way they pronounce English. The reason is that there are differences in vowels and consonants between the speakers' L1 and English (Wan 2007). Because of the multi-culture nature in Malaysia, children are usually bilingual or multi-lingual, depending on their ethnic groups, hence, the multi-lingual learners will experience difficulty in pronouncing English because of different sound system (Phoon 2010).

Mandarin Chinese students may face problems with English sounds because some sounds do not exist in the Chinese sound system, for instance, English consonants such as /v/ and /ð/, do not appear in Chinese. Thus, they will use similar sounds to substitute the unknown. Again, as there are differences in vowels, Chinese students may not be conscious of the long and short vowels. The English vowel /u:/, for instance, is differentiated by quality and length. As there is no such difference in Chinese, Chinese students may assume it as the same vowel (Zhang 2009).

a) Problem Statement

Little research has been done on the pronunciation errors made by Malaysian Chinese students. They keep on making errors in pronunciation.

b) Purpose of the study

- i) To help university students pronounce English accurately and confidently;
- ii) To investigate the pronunciation errors encountered by students;

c) Significance of the Study

This investigation is significant in the sense that after identifying the pronunciation errors made by Chinese students, the lecturer can prepare appropriate teaching and learning materials for their students. It also benefits other researchers in phonology for Chinese learners of English.

d) Methodology

Qualitative method was adopted in the present study whereby forty-two year one students majoring in English in a private Malaysian university were interviewed. They were asked to read out nineteen English words containing vowels, consonants, and diphthongs. Their pronunciation was recorded on a disc. Later, this data was analysed manually.

e) Research Questions

Based on the problems and purposes stated in the introductory chapter, this research tries to address the following two questions:

- i) What are the common features of pronunciation errors made by forty-two English major undergraduate students?
- ii) Will the Malay language influence the English pronunciation of the forty-two English major students?

Literature review

This paper is an examination of the pronunciation made by Malaysian Chinese students based on the notion of Contrastive Analysis (CA) and Error Analysis (EA) which is a reflection of different phonetic system. CA was created by Fries in 1945 and expanded by Lado in 1957, with similarities and differences of L1 and the target language compared. Further, the problems that learners faced can also be predicted.

According to Chang (1996), the similarities of two languages will enhance learning whereas the differences will accelerate the learners' difficulty to learn (Tseng 2008). L1 (first language/mother tongue) is the main cause of error in pronunciation. EA was a substitute for CA, in which linguists use the learners' L1 and target language to prophesize errors. However, EA cannot foretell a substantial number of errors (Corder 1967).

To conclude, both CA and EA are useful strategies in examining the characteristic pronunciation errors faced by Malaysian Chinese students of English.

Methodology

i) Pilot Study

Before data collection, the interview questions for students will be piloted to test their validity and reliability. They will be revised, if necessary.

ii) Data Collection

- Interview forty-two year one students from the Department of Languages & Linguistics in a private university in Malaysia
- Students are required to read aloud nineteen English words containing vowels, consonants, and diphthongs
- Their pronunciation errors will be recorded

ii) Data analysis

Students' pronunciation errors will be analysed manually.

Results

4.1 The use of contrastive analysis (CA) was to anticipate the characteristics of pronunciation errors based on a systematic comparison between the learner's native language and the target language (Chinese and English). The analysis aimed to help the learners to have a better understanding of how these errors originate and try to avoid making these errors repeatedly.

4.2 The common characteristics of pronunciation errors of the subjects resulting from the influence of Mandarin Chinese were diagnosed into four categories:

a) *The absence of certain English sounds in Mandarin Chinese*

Substitution of English sounds occurs due to the fact that some of the English sounds do not exist in the Mandarin Chinese. The voiced palatal fricative /z/ does not exist in Mandarin Chinese, one subject replaced /z/ with /s/ in 'vision' /vɪzən/. Six subjects replaced /z/ with /s/ in 'leisure' /leɪzər/. /θ/ and /ð/ were substituted with /t/ and /d/ respectively. Five subjects could not pronounce the voiceless interdental fricative /θ/ in 'theory' /θeri/ as it does not exist in Mandarin Chinese.

Thus they replaced it with the nearest sound /t/ while only one of the subjects replaced it with /d/. A significant finding about the /θ/ sound was that six out of the six subjects substituted voiceless labio-dental fricative /f/ for /θ/ which appears in the middle of the word birthday /bɜːdeɪ/. Moreover, voiced interdental fricative /ð/ was also substituted with /d/ as in 'that' /ðæt/.

Four out of the six subjects pronounced 'orange' /ɔrændʒ/ as /ɔrən/ eliminating the final voiced palatal affricative /dʒ/ which does not exist in Mandarin Chinese. The error regarding /v/ was not randomly made. The voiced labio-dental fricative /v/ does not occur in most Chinese dialects. As a result, Chinese speakers could treat /v/ as a semi-vowel /w/. For example, one of the subjects pronounced 'vase' /vaːz/ as [west], with /v/ substituted by /w/.

The use of monophthong /e/ for diphthong /eɪ/ occurred due to the absence of /eɪ/sound in Mandarin Chinese. Two out of the six subjects replaced /eɪ/ with /e/ in 'eight' /eɪt/. Similarly, three out of the six subjects replaced /eɪ/ with /e/ in 'date' /deɪt/. The subjects had trouble in perceiving the sounds which do not exist in their native language and thus they substituted those sounds with the nearest equivalents (Zhang 2009).

b) *Consonant cluster confusion*

In the present study, final consonant clusters were greatly simplified to a single consonant by the subjects. Apart from simplification of final consonant clusters, the subjects also eliminated the final consonant clusters from the words.

Example: 28 out of the 42 subjects did not pronounce the final consonant cluster correctly in 'silk' /sɪlk/. 7 of them omitted the /k/ from the alveolar-velar /lk/ cluster while 5 of them omitted the lateral /l/ from the alveolar-velar /lk/ cluster.

Alternatively, the subjects inserted schwas into the consonant clusters. 6 out of the 42 subjects inserted a schwa in consonant cluster /lm/, for example, 4 of them pronounced 'film' /fɪlm/ as [fɪlm] while another 2 pronounced as [fɪ l m]. A schwa was also inserted in a consonant cluster by deleting the final sound. For example, 5 of the subjects produced 'squeezed' /skwiːzd/ as [skwiːz] by eliminating the final stop /d/ and replacing it with a schwa.

c) *Omission of grammatical endings and contractions*

There were four types of grammatical endings anticipated in this study, namely, a) grammatical endings of third person singular, b) plural form, c) past tense and d) contraction. All of these do not occur in Mandarin Chinese grammar. 24 out of the 42 subjects omitted the final fricative /z/ in 'orders' /:dez/ which represents grammatical endings of third person singular. Omission of the plural marker occurred in 'stamps' /stæmps/ where 30 out of the 42 subjects omitted the /s/ from bilabial-alveolar /sp/ cluster.

Omission of the past tense marker also could be observed. Because of the likelihood of simplification of final consonant clusters, a small number of past tense words, where the past tense morpheme was realized as a consonant cluster, were included to examine the pronunciation errors of the subjects. 23 out of 42 subjects had difficulties with 'squeezed' /skwi:zd/ where there is a final consonant cluster. Subsequently, the omission of /t/ occurred in 'stopped' /stɒpt/ where 7 of the 42 students eliminated /t/ from bilabial-alveolar cluster.

Moreover, 22 out of the 42 subjects produced 'wasted' /weɪst/ as [weɪst] where the past tense marker was omitted. Omission of contraction occurred in 'didn't' /dɪdnt/ where 8 out of the 42 subjects omitted the ending sounds as there is no such grammar rule in Mandarin Chinese. 4 of the 42 subjects produced the word as [dɪn] while 5 pronounced it as [dɪd].

d) *Long and short vowel distinctions*

Some subjects in the present study did not consistently distinguish long and short vowels. Most Mandarin Chinese vowels are quite identical with their English counterparts in terms of manner and position of articulation, but there are more vowel contrasts in English than in Mandarin Chinese, and some contrasts such as /i/ and /i:/ or /u/ and /u:/ do not exist in Chinese at all. In this study, words with short vowels showed the greater tendency to be realized as long vowels.

Example: 35 out of the 42 subjects lengthened the /i/ for /i:/ in 'vision' /vi:zən/.

Discussion, limitations, & conclusion

5.1 Discussion

Apparently, Mandarin Chinese and Malay appeared to have some influence on English pronunciation. From the point of shared and unshared sounds of English, Mandarin Chinese and Malay, many sounds that have undergone changes in ME were unshared sounds (Phoon 2010). In consonants, for instance /θ/, /ð/, and /v/ are unshared sounds specific to English. /θ/ and /ð/ were realized as stops /t/ and /d/ respectively. In addition, in the present study, the /θ/ sound which appears in the middle was realized as /f/ sound. Substitution of English sounds occurs due to the fact that some of the English sounds do not exist in Mandarin Chinese. The substitution of /s/ for /z/ sound which does not exist in Mandarin Chinese was produced as in words like vision /vɪzən/ and leisure /leɪzər/.

As for vowels, the diphthong /eɪ/ was substituted with the monophthong /e/, as /eɪ/ does not exist in Mandarin Chinese. When Chinese students had trouble in perceiving the sounds which do not exist in their native language, they tend to find the nearest equivalent to substitute those new sounds (Zhang 2009). Diphthongs are like long vowels, thus diphthongs which are influenced by Mandarin Chinese will

be short (Gao 2005). Hence, the simplification of diphthong tends to be produced by the Chinese students. The distinction between long vowels and short vowels do not exist in Mandarin Chinese. Thus it is common that Chinese students have difficulties in making the distinction between /i/ and /i:/ or /ʊ/ and /u:/.

English consonant clusters do not exist in Mandarin Chinese as Mandarin Chinese consonants are always followed by vowels. Thus it is difficult for Chinese students to produce those sounds. The position of phonemes and the way of combining them are not the same with the two languages. In this study, final consonant clusters were simplified to a single consonant or were deleted for two of the consonants. Alternatively, the schwas were also inserted in the consonant clusters. In addition, final consonant clusters in grammatical endings as in third person singular, plural form, past tense and contraction can be extremely troublesome for Chinese students as they do not appear in Mandarin Chinese grammar. On the other hand, the occurrence of errors in initial consonant clusters was not as high as final consonant clusters.

Glottalisation of final stops is a phonological feature which is very unique to ME. According to Phoon (2010), glottalisation of final stops might only influenced by one or two of the languages. Glottalisation might be due to the influence of Malay and Chinese dialects such as Hokkien, Cantonese, and as well as a variety of Mandarin Chinese used in Malaysia which contain glottal stops in final syllable. Phoon (2010) suggested that the occurrence of glottalisation is influenced by the phonology of substrate languages, mainly Malay and the Chinese languages and dialects.

All final stops in Malay are realized as glottal stops and stops are generally not released in Chinese dialects such as Hokkien and Cantonese. According to Phoon (2010), another possible reason for the high occurrence of glottalisation is influence from the extensive borrowing of English words into Malay. Hence, it is not surprising that these words tend to be pronounced with glottal stops in English.

Voiceless stops such as /p/, /t/ and /k/ were occasionally pronounced with minimal aspiration and respectively sounded like voiced stops /b/, /d/ and /g/. Aspiration is used in Mandarin Chinese to distinguish stops phonemically. However, the intensity of aspiration is less intense in /ph, th, kh/ in Mandarin Chinese as compared to English which may lead to confusion with English /b, d, g/ as a result of differences in degree of aspiration (Phoon 2010).

The influence of the Malay language contributes to some of the most remarkable characteristics of ME. In Malaysia, there are many borrowed and adopted words and terms from English into Malay. These words are adopted from English mostly to suit Standard Malay phonetics and phonology system which is different from English in some ways, such as the sound-spelling discrepancy of English words, which is almost non-existent in Malay.

It is believed that the effect of Malay loanwords potentially impacted the acquisition of some speech sounds (Phoon 2010). Therefore, it is essential for Malaysian students to realize the differences of pronunciation between English words and Malay words.

5.2 *Limitations*

There are some limitations in this study. First, the number of the subjects selected could have been larger, hindering a complete and thorough generalisation to the Malaysian population. In future research, more subjects could be recruited.

Second, not all errors made by subjects resulting from native language interference were taken into investigation due to limited time. Besides, there is no direct evidence to show that some of the errors are only derived from native interference. For instance, there may be other factors influencing the development of learner errors such as learner's insufficient knowledge of phonology and phonetics, spelling, age, attitude and psychological factors.

Third, this study is limited to the study of the consonants and vowels system between the native language and the target languages. Thus in the read speech, the suprasegmental (intonation, stress and rhythm) and segmental (assimilation, elision and linking) sections of the recording are disregarded.

Finally, it is not enough to reveal all pronunciation errors made by the subjects based on reading words only. There could be better results if the data analysis be based on natural and informal conversations. For instance, an interview of subjects' views towards pronunciation could be conducted.

5.3 Conclusion

Due to the complex linguistic situation in Malaysia, Malaysian Chinese students are learning a variety of English that has already been affected by both Mandarin Chinese and Malay, as is seen, for instance, in the glottalisation of stops and simplification of final consonant clusters. However, these students are also learning Mandarin Chinese and Malay at the same time, so these ME features are reinforced for each generation. Although Mandarin Chinese and Malay are very different from English in terms of speech sound inventory and phonotactic structures, in the Malaysian context the difference is actually less because of the characteristics that have already been incorporated into ME (Phoon 2010).

Some findings based on CA and EA have been questioned in Second Language Acquisition (SLA). In fact, not all the pronunciation errors listed will certainly match all the errors that will be made by the Chinese learners of English. Neither can a teacher identify all the errors that the students have made. However, CA can offer instructive information for EA whereas EA can prove the importance of CA. Under the guidance of CA, this study has illustrated the common characteristics of pronunciation errors of Chinese learners of English by analysing their native linguistic background, which illustrates how one's native language influences one's English pronunciation. The importance of pronunciation, which has been long ignored in the development of speaking skills, thus, is encouraged to be taken into consideration (Gao 2005). It is hoped that the findings of this study can help English Language teachers understand the phonological acquisition of ME students who are learning Mandarin Chinese and Malay at the same time and thus help to improve their students' awareness and understanding of the interference of different sound systems on English pronunciation.

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