

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach which is being used in the teaching of English language in the Malaysian Education System places a greater emphasis on its content rather than form. This approach can be seen as inadequate as it covers grammar on its surface (Ratnawati Mohd Asraf, 1996) and hence as an alternative supplementary approach, form-based teaching, might be introduced. This study explored whether the integration of explicit contrastive grammar with a semantic-based instruction might develop the students' use of the grammatical category of determiners (i.e. demonstratives and quantifiers) in producing noun phrases.

This chapter discusses some conceptual views of the study of language, implicit and explicit teaching of grammar, the KBSM (*Kurikulum Bersepadu Sekolah Menengah*) approach in teaching of grammar, the Communicative Language Teaching approach, the form-focused instruction, the role of the L1 in L2 writing, contrastive grammar instruction and the meaning-based approach. In addition, the English and Bahasa Malaysia (BM) noun phrases as well as the functions of the determiners especially the demonstratives and quantifiers in both languages are explained. In line with that, Tobin's (1990) and Reid's (1991) concept of invariant meaning (i.e. the concept of grammatical number analysis through the Entity Number System) is also discussed for its use as the framework of analysis in the study.

2.1 Some Conceptual Views of the Study of Language

Languages regardless of the place of origin are formed by sound which is the minimal unit or the smallest unit of a particular word. From a word, it is expanded into a phrase and further developed to form a clause. This production of language is recognised as the language acquisition process in a human being. This process commences from the very early stage that is phonetics. Then, it develops from the inner circle to the outer circle gradually. Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Lexicology and Semantics are the other five significant stages in language acquisition process (Baskaran, 2005).

Linguistics which is the study of language and its scientific description is a field that offers the linguists to expand the idea of how languages are being acquired, learned and further utilised in appropriate contexts as well as its maintenance. Many scholars in the past have introduced several approaches to language study. Harsh (1975) for instance, points out three approaches in language study which are the traditional grammar, descriptive linguistics and generative grammar.

The traditional grammar explains that “language can be dismantled into small pieces or units and that these units could be described scientifically, contrasted and added up again to form the whole” (Brown, 2000:9). This is well identified as prescriptive grammar which describes language use as either accurate or inaccurate and any formally taught person should understand and follow “the norms of the correctness (prescriptive rules)” (Klammer et al., 2007:4). The prescriptive rules underline the principle of how languages ‘should’ be used but not how languages are being used. Hence, it is expected that the language users are well versed in producing perfectly accurate grammar with nil errors.

In contrary to the preceding approach, in the descriptive linguistics, the emphasis does not lie solely over the structural pattern of a sentence but the

grammatical meanings of words are highlighted too in this approach. Descriptive linguists believe that in analysing the patterns of a language, the data should not be strictly driven from the language samples presented by grammarians on how sentences in a language should be formed but rather the way the language is being used in real situation. Thus, the descriptive rules which are formed through the analysis of language use by its speakers are found to be essential in comparison to the prescriptive rules of grammar which serves merely as an algorithm.

The combination of both the prescriptive rules and descriptive rules of grammar resulted in the emergence of the transformational-generative grammar. This approach to language study which is directed from the cognitive school of thought was founded and established by Noam Chomsky in 1950s. For Chomsky, all languages have a common structure that is known as Universal Grammar (UG). UG regards knowledge of language as knowledge of words (i.e. lexical items) and knowledge of rules (i.e. phonology, morphology and syntax). The Language Acquisition Device in human brain provides each individual the innate ability to acquire any language, specially, the first language, without formal training of its production.

The Universal Grammarians' concept which recognises language as merely rule-governed was seen debatable as the element of nurture and its inevitable role in the process of language acquisition was overlooked. Besides, the Universal Grammar which sees language in the aspect of syntax has overlooked another important aspect of language which is semantics. As such, a "syntactically sound" sentence is acceptable by Universal Grammarians although it is "semantically odd" (Ouhalla, 1999:48).

De Saussure, in the beginning of the 20th Century, proposed that language is not merely rule-governed but it works as 'a system of systems' (Tobin, 1990:79). In the Saussurean sense, language means "an abstract code of linguistic signs and their relationships shared by all members of a community (*langue*) which is being exploited

in a unique and individual way by each member of the community (*parole*)” (Tobin, 1990:41).

Saussurean’s concept of language is parallel to the Diverian theory which is originated from the Columbian School of Linguistics. It rather explicates that analysis of language should not be directed only to the linguistic form but also its communicative functions as they are inseparable entities in any languages. Subsequent to that, semantics, the study of meaning is found prominent to determine how people communicate and understand meanings with words of language. However, understanding meaning is mediated by context and individual users of language (Saeed, 2009). These challenges are addressed by Tobin’s (1990) and Reid’s (1991) concept of invariant meaning analysis based on a sign-oriented approach. In this process, each word or lexical item in a language is assigned with an abstract or vague meaning which is termed as single invariant meaning. The analysis which is based on the sign-oriented approach suggests that the single invariant meaning for each word can be synthesised through the identification of its function in various spoken or written sentences which are being used in real context. This concept is a new paradigm which has diverted the concept produced by the sentence-oriented.

According to Tobin (1990:71) the difference between the sign-oriented approach and sentence-oriented approach is the source of linguistic data for analysis where “sentence-oriented approaches basically rely on native speakers’ intuitions in analysing a grammar of competence (*langue*) and generally shun what people actually say by avoiding a grammar of performance (*parole*) whereas in sign-oriented analyses, the data is retrieved from spoken or written language in real context that is what the interlocutors actually do (*parole*).” It is undeniable that the defining role of semiotics in the study of linguistic meanings is to designate or postulate a meaning which is called a single invariant meaning to a sign and express how these signs are exploited by humans to

communicate as described by Tobin (1990:72), it is essential to “bridge the gap” and identify the relationship between the knowledge of competence (*langue*) and performance (*parole*).

Thus, in this study, the element of linguistic meaning analysis is integrated into the teaching and learning method presented to the students to see its effectiveness in developing the use of the grammatical category of determiners in English and BM. As such, the idea which denotes that language works as a system in the Saussurean sense offers the room for the language teachers to perform or include some elements of linguistic analysis to be supplemented with the pedagogical explanation provided in the classroom hence makes teachers to perform the role of a linguist before imparting any lesson.

2.2 Implicit and Explicit Teaching of Grammar

The controversy surrounding the teaching of grammar is whether or not it should be taught. The endless effort of many scholars around the globe to research and generate useful findings regarding the issue is unquestionable. Chitavelu et al. (2001:196) defines implicit knowledge as knowledge which is applied only at “level of use” but not explanation of the underlying rules whereas explicit knowledge as knowledge which enables the user of language to “describe” and at the same time to “explain the rules.”

Ellis (2005) denotes that the measuring of both the implicit and explicit knowledge is rather complicated as it involves the mental process which is too abstract to be articulated. In a psychometric study conducted by Ellis (2005), five tests namely an oral imitation test, an oral narration test, a timed grammaticality judgement test (GJT), an untimed GJT with the same content and a metalinguistic knowledge test that were used to measure the implicit and explicit knowledge, were tested their construct

validity and reliability. The results indicate that the first three types of tests were applicable in measuring implicit knowledge compared to the other two tests which were able to measure explicit knowledge. The imitation and narration tests which primarily focused on meaning allowed the students to use their implicit knowledge to attempt the questions whereas the explicit knowledge was tapped when answering the questions focusing on forms.

The implicit knowledge which is related to using the language appropriately and explicit knowledge which highlights the forms and rules of language are intertwined with the teaching and learning process which takes place in the classroom. Harmer (1988) suggests that overt and covert are the two approaches used in the teaching of grammar. In the overt teaching of grammar, grammar rules are presented explicitly to the learners either by using a deductive method or an inductive method. The presentation of grammar rules at the initial stage of learning before giving any practice is an obligatory strategy of the deductive method whereas when the learners are introduced to as many language samples as possible before deriving the rules based on the sample of use is the strategy used in an inductive method. For the covert teaching of grammar, the grammar rules are not the concern of the learners but practice using the form is adequately emphasised.

The implicit way of teaching grammar is parallel to the acquisition and learning hypothesis established by Krashen in 1980s who believes that second language is “internalised” either by means of “acquisition” or “learning” (Brown, 2000:278). Language is learned consciously when the learners are exposed to its form and rules but acquired subconsciously when the learners comprehend the system of the language without explicit instruction or conscious attention to its form. Krashen (1981:99) says that “fluency in second language performance is due to what we have acquired, not what we have learned.” This idea of Krashen suggests that the presentation of rules of a

grammatical item is redundant as the learners will acquire them subconsciously out of the examples they encounter. Krashen (1982) strongly believes that only acquired language leads to the fluent communication in the real life situation and “the effect of grammar is peripheral and fragile and direct instruction of specific rule has a measureable impact on tests that focus the performer on form, but the effect is short-lived” (Krashen, 1992:410). Based on the acquisition-learning hypothesis, it is evident that grammar should not be taught explicitly and even if it is done, the result may not be retained.

Prabhu (1987) who holds a similar view, denotes that grammar teaching is unpromising because the knowledge that a speaker needs in order to use a language is simply too complex. Complexity in memorising various rules associated with a grammar item that should be memorized or remembered by the speakers of the language including the exceptions to certain rules may be a disadvantage to learn the language explicitly. McKay (1987) says a further problem in giving only explanation on the grammatical structures to the students in order to make them to be proficient in certain language is that they may not be able to use the language to communicate effectively as there is very little time to figure out grammar rules when spontaneous communication takes place. Hence, implicit way of teaching grammar is found to be beneficial as the mainly expected feedback from the process of learning a language is to use it fluently in related circumstances but not the explanation of rules by the learners of the language.

Parallel to the views on implicit teaching of grammar, the explicit teaching of grammatical categories too plays a significant role in the process of second language learning. The idea of grammar is frequently associated with the concept of rules and “if the students ‘know’ the rules, they ‘know’ the grammar and if they ‘know’ the grammar, they ‘know’ the language” (Maley, 1991:59). As such, fine knowledge of grammar of

certain language results in the effective use of the language. Moreover, the knowledge of rules of grammar item which are taught explicitly allows the language users to apply confidently the grammatical categories. In addition to that, the explicit teaching can be used to “monitor output” that becomes “a source of input” (Ellis, 1994:169). In other words, the explicit teaching of rules reduces grammatical errors made by learners in speaking and writing as the knowledge of rules in these learners’ mind monitor (control) their output (the speech or writing).

In one of the studies, López (2004) identifies that the explicit teaching of rules of the If-Clause and Simple Past and Past Continuous tense was found effective as the students in the experimental group who received the explicit grammar instruction performed significantly better than the students in the control group who was taught the regular course and another group who was exposed to meaningful and contextualised input without any explicit grammar instruction. At the same time, Kim (2004) too asserts that explicit instruction of grammar rules is beneficial as it was effective in learning the English unaccusative verbs for Korean EFL learners.

As a bilingual or multilingual, it is substantially an advantage for the speaker to use his or her mother tongue to speak or write fluently and accurately. After all, native speakers do not consciously think of grammar when they speak or write as the language (mother tongue) is not learned but acquired ever since young (Alexander, 1988b). However, this is certainly not applicable in the foreign language or second language situation as these languages could not be acquired as the learners lack exposures. As such, when relating this circumstance to the learning of English as a second language in Malaysian Education system, the students are regarded as having less time to learn the language in the classroom due to insufficient time allocation for the subject. Suffice to say, the language is utilised only in the English language classroom without any further exposure especially for the students from the rural area who seldom use the language

outside the classroom. Consequently, there is a need for these languages to be instructed explicitly, in order to be used effectively as the learners have no opportunities to learn the language except in the classroom.

Celce-Murcia (1991:466) suggests that “grammar should never be taught as an end itself but always with reference to meaning, social factors or discourse or a combination of these factors.” If the grammar is taught without any meaning or without any relations to the social factor, it may lead to the trend teaching about the language and not the use of grammar items of the language. According to Zhongganggao & Carl (2001) the teaching of rules of grammar to the students should not be separated from the use in their daily life situation because when it is isolated, the students would face difficulties in their daily communication and as the result, they might become less proficient in the language.

Implicit and explicit way of grammar teaching have both advantages and disadvantages if they are presented individually but the blend of both explicit instruction and implicit learning has a greater tendency in improving the language proficiency (Ellis, 1995). This view is in line with DeKeyser (2003) cited in Hulstijn (2005) who finds that the acquisition of L1 grammar relies on the implicit learning but the acquisition of L2 grammar depends on both the implicit and explicit learning. Ellis (2006) who sees the issue of grammar teaching as remaining controversial highlights his own beliefs in the teaching of grammar by looking into a number of perspectives. According to Ellis (2006) the teaching of grammar does not only involve the form but the meaning and the uses of the grammatical structures should not be abandoned. Moreover, the teaching of grammar rules are suggested to be offered to learners who at least possess prior knowledge over the structure which is being learned to ease the learning process. Additionally, the corrective feedback is also important in learning grammar where Ellis et al. (2006) indicates that the metalinguistic explanation (explicit

feedback) benefits both explicit and implicit knowledge which are input based and output based.

Likewise, based on the findings obtained for the effects of implicit and explicit instruction on simple and complex grammatical structures for adult English language learners, Andrews (2007) suggests that although explicit instruction is better than implicit instruction to present complex rules to the learners, both explicit and implicit methods are successful to teach simple rules regardless of the learners' proficiency level. Li & Tian (2008) too believe that the integration of both implicit and explicit procedures is the most ideal way of teaching grammar in a second or foreign language context. All in all, it is believed that an effective grammar lesson would take place when the forms (which are taught in grammar lessons which means focus on forms approach) are integrated with the communicative activities (a focus on form approach).

2.3 The KBSM Approach in Teaching of Grammar

The curriculum specifications for English language in KBSM (*Kurikulum Bersepadu Sekolah Menengah*) is developed and established as a standard guide for the teaching of English to the secondary school students in Malaysia. The aims and objectives to be achieved were developed by taking into consideration "the way English is used in society in everyday life, when interacting with people, accessing information and understanding and responding to literary works" (Ministry of Education, 2000:2). English language is taught as one of the compulsory subjects in all primary and secondary schools in Malaysia in line with its status as a second language in this developing country (Ministry of Education, 2001).

Interpersonal skills which enable the learners to engage in collaboration with other people, informational skills which allow the learners to utilise the language to obtain, process and give information and aesthetic values which facilitates the learners

to express themselves creatively are the three areas of language which are emphasised in English language teaching (Ministry of Education, 2003). As the primary focus or aim is on how the learners use the language in real life situation appropriately, the grammar of the language is seen peripheral where the idea of teaching this element of language in isolation is not encouraged but integrated with the receptive skills and productive skills (i.e. reading and listening as well as speaking and writing) respectively by providing meaningful contextualised input.

2.4 The Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLT)

The deterioration of standard of English in Malaysia which occurred due to the change of medium of instruction results in the implementation of the New Primary English Language Programme (NPELP) for primary schools in 1983 (Ministry of Education, 1983). It was this time when the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) method used in teaching the language which enable students to communicate in the real life situation (Ministry of Education, 1983).

The communicative approach to language learning focuses on getting students to use language effectively in purposeful communication (Brown, 2001; Chitravelu et al., 2001). In CLT, language learning means learning to communicate and through its principles, a second language learner may serve as a successful communicator (Williams, 1995). Besides, in CLT, accuracy is given less priority in comparison to fluency as more attention is laid on acceptable language by judging the accuracy in context (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983).

Likewise, Brown (2000) says that in CLT, grammatical structure is immersed under various categories and therefore, less attention is paid to the overt presentation and discussion over the grammatical rules. In other words, CLT does not encourage the overt teaching of grammar which provides explicit explanation of the rules of certain

grammatical items when teaching and learning process of grammar occurs in the classroom. Communicative Language Teaching principle is in accordance with the principle of meaningful learning initiated by Ausubel in 1960s under the cognitive school, who believes that learning becomes effective when input provided is interrelated or connected to the prior knowledge possessed by a language learner. This is different from the rote learning which introduces language as discrete and separate entities. Hence, in order for meaningful learning to be achieved, in CLT, input presented to the students is extracted from authentic language samples.

Richards (2006) provides an explanation over the goal of the CLT approach as to achieve the communicative competence before arriving at the knowledge of grammatical competence. A language user is perceived as communicatively competent when he or she has the knowledge on how to use a particular language in an appropriate context by referring to the setting, participants and purpose of the communication. In addition, a competent user of a language should also be able to maintain communication by applying various communication strategies if there is any sign of communication breakdown to appear. In CLT, grammatical competence is not the major concern as someone who masters the rules of certain grammatical items may not necessarily be a competent user of the language especially when engaged in meaningful communication.

Grammar explanation and error correction are incidental in CLT approach where errors are often tolerated. Errors that are not pointed out and explained from the very beginning in a learning stage may become fossilised and lead to inappropriate use of grammatical items (Chitravelu et al., 2001). Thus, there is a need to integrate the explicit teaching of forms into the teaching of meaningful contextualised input (function). The grammatical competence needs to be acquired along with the communicative competence as “being able to use grammatical structures does not only mean using the form accurately but also meaningfully in semantics and appropriately in

pragmatics” (Nho, 2005:191). As for that reason, the attention on form focused instruction escalates over the years in order to offer the teaching and learning process which gives emphasis over the meaning-based activities without leaving behind the importance of forms of the language in order to develop the language proficiency.

2.5 The Form-Focused Instruction (FFI)

The deficiency of the CLT approach which proposes that comprehensible input and meaning-based activities are adequate in achieving communicative competence results in the emergence of form-focused instruction (FFI). Ellis (2001a:1) defines form-focused instruction as “any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form.” In FFI, language forms are integrated either covertly or overtly with the meaning-oriented tasks or activities which enable the language users to familiarise the forms used within the real context.

Laufer & Girsai (2008) describe two types of form-focused instruction which are focus on form and focus on forms. Focus on form allows the learners to be exposed to linguistic elements which are integrated into any communicative activities whereas the latter method is rather traditional as the linguistic elements are taught separately following the sequence of its importance. This approach underlines the role of the students as not merely language learners but the users of the language where language plays a prominent role as a tool for communication.

It is essential to figure out the types of tasks or techniques in FFI which may efficiently enhance language learners’ proficiency level as claimed by Ellis (2001b) cited in Andringa (2005:2) “FFI research has moved from the question of whether FFI is effective to the investigation of what kinds of FFI are effective.” A number of recent studies have brought to attention the issue of the amalgamation of contrastive analysis

(ie. contrastive grammar instruction) with the form focussed techniques. It is believed that the inclusion of contrastive linguistic input in form focused instruction may result in a significant development in second language learning. The conflict of whether L1 facilitates or impedes the learning process of L2 still remains debatable over the years. However, many studies (a few to be discussed in the subsequent topics of this chapter) performed did obtain compromising significant result when integrating form-focused instruction with contrastive grammar input (Laufer & Girsai, 2008).

2.6 The Role of the L1 (first language) in L2 (second language) Writing: A Cross-Linguistic Transfer

Many of the problems encountered in the phenomena of second language learning are due to the L1 interference into the learning process of L2 (Beardsmore, 1982; Bhela, 1999; Blum-Kulka & Levenston, 1983; Marlyna Maros et al., 2007; Mohideen, 1996). According to Beardsmore (1982) the differences identified in the structures of both L1 and L2 results in error production. Likewise, Blum-Kulka & Levenston (1983) indicate that most of the errors occur when the learners think in the native language when producing a response using the target language. Mohideen (1996) finds that for the native speakers of Malay especially, the mother tongue interference in the acquisition of L2 is one of the contributing factors or in other words a source of error production in L2 which is English. It is suggested that learners should instil the ability to think in the second language without any attempt of translating or finding equivalent words in L1 and L2 in order to be proficient in the second language.

Discussing on the issue of interference over time, Ellis (1997) points out that in second language acquisition, interference has been regarded unpopular as the views toward the role of L1 in L2 learning began to change from “interference” to “transfer.” The word “interference” denotes a negative connotation and symbolises the role of L1 as somewhat obstructing the learning of L2 without any effort in facilitating the

learning of the target language. “Transfer” on the other hand sounds more promising that leaves a positive connotation that the functions of L1 in L2 learning should not be seen in one perspective which results in negative transfer but also the positive transfer which enhances or rather develops the L2 learning.

Although the role of L1 in L2 learning has been clearly defined, more studies conducted in the past revealed the negative transfer effect (interference) of L1 in L2 learning without embracing in positive effects. For instance, in an exploratory study conducted with Vietnamese, Spanish, Italian and Cambodian speaking participants, Bhela (1999) concludes that when writing in the target language, the second language learners rely on the native language structures to produce a response which results in high frequency of errors as the structures of both languages possess differences. Moreover, in one of the recent empirical studies of errors in descriptive essays written by students from rural Malay secondary schools in Malaysia, Marlyna Maros et al. (2007) find that despite having a few years of learning English in school environment, the learners are still having difficulties in writing, which is assumed due to the interference of their L1.

Despite these views, Ellis’s (1997) stance over the role of L1 as no longer “interference” but “transfer” is justifiable as many researchers hold a view that the knowledge of L1 which is applied in L2 writing enables the second language writer to produce a good piece of writing in the language. As such, the strategies employed in L1 writing are also applicable in L2 writing when the rhetorical transfer results in positive effect rather than a negative one (Kamimura, 1996; Kubota, 1998; Mohan & Lo, 1985; Schwarzer & Luke, 2001 cited in Brooks-Lewis, 2009).

Looking into the perspective of applying strategies from L1 in L2 writing, Berman (1994) suggests that writers’ thoughts are transferable across languages provided that they are proficient in their second language. As such, the L2 writers are

able to transfer their writing skills from their L1 to L2 but it highly depends on the L2 grammatical proficiency. The influence of the L1 knowledge contributes to positive or rather facilitative impact if the learners are proficient in the target language but it results in an inappropriate use of the grammatical features if the learners are uncertain of the system of the target language (Cummin, 1991 cited in Cenoz, 2003). The use of L1 in L2 writings has become a common strategy for many of the L2 learners and, L2 writers either 'skilled' or 'unskilled' often switch alternatively between their L1 and L2 while composing in the L2 in order to overcome their limitations in the linguistic knowledge (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2008; Sabourin & Stowe, 2008; Uysal, 2008; Wang, 2003; Woodall, 2002).

This can be related to the phenomenon of bilingualism where Lambert (1974) cited in Cenoz (2003) suggests that the effects of bilingualism are seen in terms of its additive and subtractive values. The additive effect of bilingualism is evident when the language learners add a second language into their linguistic repertoire without abandoning the value of the first language whereas subtractive effect is realised when the acquisition of L2 is seen as a threat that could probably diminish the value of the L1 (Cenoz, 2003). Hence, when a bilingual learner is able to get access to the linguistic system of their L1, they are able to transfer their L1 skills to be used in their second language which facilitates L2 learning.

Norhakimah Khaïssa Ahmad (2007) believes that generally, language transfer from L1 to L2 facilitates the L2 learning but when the structures of both languages indicate differences, the transfer pattern results in ungrammatical sentence production. In contrast, Nambiar (2009) views the effect of L1 into the learning process of L2 as cross-linguistic transfer which allows the learners to adopt the learning strategies in L1 into L2. Nambiar's (2009) study suggests that learners who are proficient in the target language do not adopt the strategies or knowledge of L1 into L2 learning but it is

believed that cross-linguistic transfer plays a prominent role especially to learners who are less proficient in the target language to resort to L1 strategies that would be very handy to be used in L2 text comprehension. Accordingly, Paramasivam (2009) too highlights the importance of language transfer as a type of communication strategies that enhances the second language communication and learning. On the other hand, Suderman & Kroll (2006) propose that L1 does yield an effect in L2 learning without paying any attention to the learners' level of proficiency which means that both good and weak learners are able to adopt the same strategies in lexical processing of L2.

In the study of acquisition of grammatical items (i.e. articles) in second language, it is believed that the knowledge transfer from L1 into L2 and the comprehension of universal principles both result in effective learning of these grammatical items (Ionin et al., 2008; Sharma, 2005). Furthermore, Ansary & Babaii (2009) in a study conducted on the contrastive rhetoric in English editorials find that the cultural differences of the L2 writers do not affect the patterns of English writings and hence, the transfer of rhetorical patterns from L1 into L2 writing is not evident.

The role of L1 in learning L2 should not be overlooked as the cross-linguistic transfer does not entirely impede the learning process of L2 but rather facilitates it (Nation, 2003). Therefore, it highly depends on the linguistic knowledge of a speaker or writer or user of the language to be selective in transferring the knowledge of L1 into L2 provided that they are 'skilled' in both languages. Moreover, the absence of rhetorical transfer from L1 into L2 writing patterns too suggests that it is not the system of language (L1) which leads to the appropriate or inappropriate production of L2 but the level of knowledge that one has in both languages do so as language per se (regardless of L1 or L2) contributes no effect over the learning process but the language learners hold the authority to efficiently utilise it in daily discourse to convey messages competently.

2.7 Contrastive Grammar Instruction and the Meaning-based Approach

Contrastive Analysis (CA) has been a controversial topic overtime; topics range from, whether or not it needs to be included in foreign or second language teaching to descending it altogether. As early as in 1965, Hayes suggested that CA is useful, albeit to linguists and language teachers, not to students studying the target language. This view leads to an assumption that CA is important from a pedagogical perspective. That is, the teachers of a foreign or second language may use the knowledge of CA to equip themselves with linguistic knowledge of both their students' L1 and the target language before teaching the language to the students. This particular view supports that CA may not be seen as a material to be taught in the classroom but rather a source for material production for classroom use.

A number of studies in the past have also suggested that CA can be used as input in second language grammar instruction when highlighting the structural similarities and differences of both L1 and L2 to minimise the grammatical errors produced by the learners (Tan, 2001; White, 1991). In a study conducted on adverb placement between English and French, White (1991) found out that the learners who received instruction on how rules for adverb placement differ in English and French performed significantly better than learners in the control group who did not receive any treatment.

The role of L1 in the learning process of L2 which results in positive transfer suggests that the incorporation of L1 in the teaching and learning process of L2 in the classroom is very much valued. Tan (2001) asserts that in order to overcome the inappropriate transfer (if there is any) of L1 on L2, a thorough explanation of the structure of English and its differences from the students' native language will help the students to comprehend the system of the target language better. Additionally, the uses of certain items which exist in the native language but not in the target language, the similarities and differences in usage between the two languages and most importantly

the area of possible confusion need to be explained explicitly to the second language learners to develop their understanding of the language.

In a foreign language situation, it was found that most of the adult learners are optimistic in believing that the incorporation of L1 into L2 teaching and learning enhances the learning process as the explicit reference of L1 makes the second language learning more meaningful with comprehensible input (Brooks-Lewis, 2009; Widdowson, 2003). As for a contrastive grammar instruction to take place, the role of Contrastive Analysis (CA) albeit believed to be traditional, conventional and out of date, becomes more tangible. In a study conducted by Ghabanchi & Vosooghi (2006:123), CA was utilised not to predict difficulty or to explain errors but for the “definition of salient input.” In this experimental study, the learners who received explicit Contrastive Linguistic Input (CLI) for difficult grammatical forms achieved significantly better results in comparison with the control group learners who learnt the same structures implicitly without CLI. This result indicates that explicit comparison of L1 and L2 which is introduced to the L2 learners provides more opportunities to the learners to get familiar with the target items as learning which occurs implicitly in the learners’ minds is inadequate to develop their understanding and use of the grammatical item(s).

Likewise, Khazriyati Salehuddin et al. (2006) assert that even though Contrastive Analysis (CA) is not regarded as a popular approach, for Malaysian learners, it could be the best approach in teaching English determiners. Nor Hashimah Jalaludin et al. (2008) found that although BM and English share the same basic structure, which is ‘Subject-Verb-Object’ (SVO), there are many other structural differences of these two languages that need to be highlighted such as copula ‘be’, subject-verb agreement, determiners and relative pronouns. Hence, the researchers suggest that contrastive analysis of the two languages (L1 and L2) is inevitably crucial

to highlight the structural similarities and differences of these languages. Apart from that, Laufer & Girsai (2008) opined that form-focused instruction provides a significant positive result when it is integrated with the contrastive analysis of the target items and the learners' L1 translation options compared to content oriented tasks with no attention to target items and meaning-based tasks with attention to forms but without any contrastive linguistic input. According to Laufer & Girsai (2008) in order to make the target language features noticeable, the learners should be provided explicit cross-linguistic instruction. It is the salient role of explicit contrastive instruction to explicate the similarities and differences of L1 and L2 as it is not always easy to figure out the identical features (equivalence) of L1 in L2 or vice versa.

Based on an experimental study conducted among the Malay ESL learners writing skills, Govindasamy (1994) reveals that contrastive grammar instruction (between English and Malay) does serve as an important method of delivering input to improve the clarity and coherence of written work produced by ESL learners. In his study, the use of a functional approach with contextualised input to explain the grammatical features rather than a dependence on the formal traditional grammar explanation has produced positive results. In line with that, Hirose (2006) too finds that L2 learners need explicit instruction in paragraph elements especially to clearly identify the topic sentences and types of organisation patterns both in L1 and L2 writing to improve the writing style.

Another experimental study (Chen, 2006), which tested the presentation of contrastive grammar instruction of grammatical items with the computer assisted instruction (CAI) indicates that the knowledge of L1 (Mandarin) does affect the learning of L2 (English) although the differences found between the experimental group (which received the contrastive grammar treatment through a computer assisted instruction) and control group (which received a traditional classroom instruction) was

not significant. Moreover, Jiang (2004) identifies that based on the stages and processes of adult L2 vocabulary acquisition, the use of L2 words relies on the learners' L1 translations and exposure to contextualised input is rather helpful to develop the L2 meanings.

In this study, Contrastive Analysis instruction is introduced as a new paradigm to explicitly expose the students with the forms and meanings of determiners in both English and BM to lessen the inappropriate use of this grammatical device as it has been stated that "the term form must not only be limited solely to grammar points, but rather include all aspects of the L2, including vocabulary" (Doughty & Williams, 1998b cited in de la Fuente, 2006:266).

As one's knowledge of vocabulary includes its meaning and how it is used in various contexts, the meanings of words are equally important and they have to be highlighted in any grammar explanation. In a study conducted on the acquisition of the English article system by Malay students using the meaning-based approach, Sudhakaran (1999) cited in Jarina Abdul Rahman (2004) identifies that grammar features can best be taught by keeping an awareness of how the system works. As such, the meaning of the grammatical categories when integrated into its teaching, the context of their occurrence in real discourse gives way to the learners to absorb the functions of these grammar items as a system but not in isolation with rigid adherence to the rules. Sudhakaran (1999) cited in Jarina Abdul Rahman (2004) therefore believes that meaning is an important element that should not be abandoned but emphasised in order to enable the learners to use the grammatical categories appropriately to convey intended message.

Moreover, the use of the meaning-based approach in teaching the Subject-Verb Agreement for Indonesian EFL college students have developed the students' writing skills in producing messages coherently using the morphological identity '-Ø' and '-s'

which are attached to verbs and nouns (Rianto, 1999). In this experimental study, the students who were exposed to the meaning-based instruction were able to produce coherent messages which then yield to a conclusion that the interpretation of grammatical choices (i.e. grammatical number) is important to enable successful communication of messages.

2.8 The English Noun Phrase (NP)

The basic structure of a noun phrase in English usually has the following pattern: pre-modifier (s), a noun head and post-modifier (s). While all noun phrases have a noun head as the obligatory item, the occurrence of pre-modifier (s) and post-modifier (s) is not compulsory (as the noun head may stand on its own in a noun phrase) such as in the example illustrated below:

Noun head : Cats

Pre-modifier + Head : The cats

Noun head + Post-modifier : Cats from the jungle

Pre-modifier + Noun head + Post-modifier : The cats from the jungle

Baskaran (2005:73)

As the constituents of a noun phrase are the noun head and modifiers which act to explain and provide supplementary information about the noun head, it is important to illuminate the features of these modifiers as “semantically, modifiers add descriptive information to the head, often by restricting the reference of the head” (Quirk et al. 1985:65). According to Greenbaum & Quirk (2006:364) the pre-modifiers which are located before the head consist of determiners, adjectives and nouns. On the other hand,

post-modifiers which are positioned after the head are inclusive of prepositional phrases, non-finite clauses and relative clauses such as indicated below:

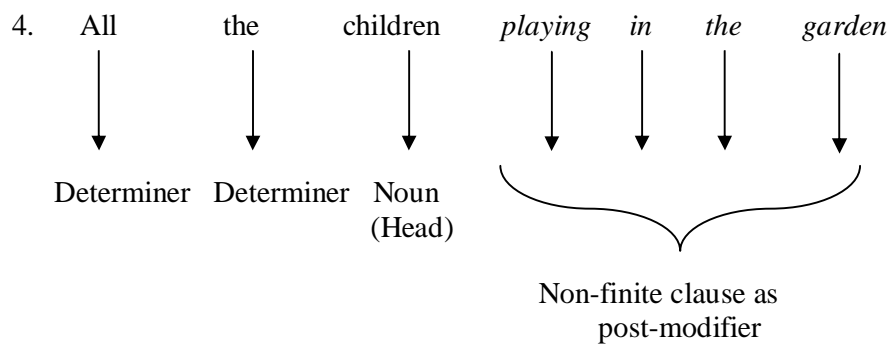
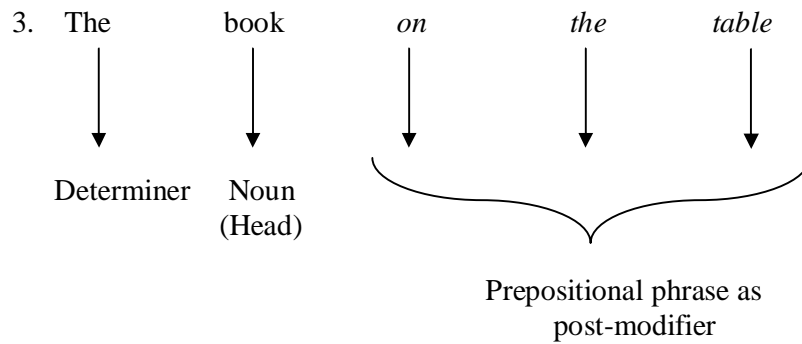
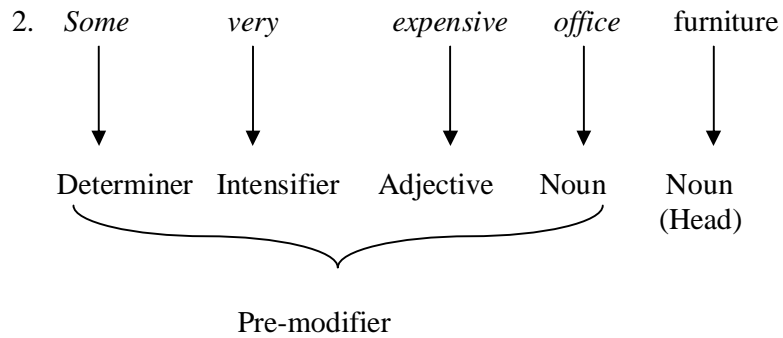
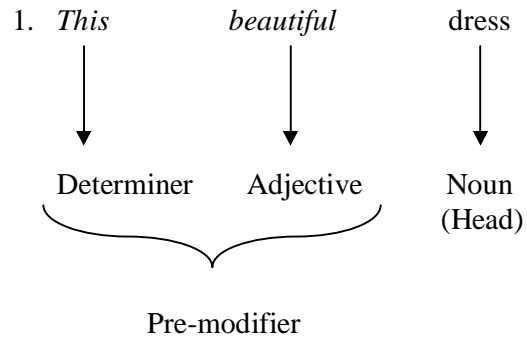


Table 2.8.1: The Countable Form of Uncountable Nouns

NON-COUNT NOUNS IN COUNTABLE FORM	
Non-count Noun	Countable Form
I'll have tea .	I'll have a cup of tea .
You need advice .	Let me give you a piece of advice .
Let's play tennis .	Let's play a game of tennis .
The stew needs more spice .	There are several spices in this stew.
Fruit is nutritious.	Many different fruits are grown in California.
USES OF NON-COUNT NOUNS	
Non-count Nouns in Uncountable Use	Non-count Nouns in Countable Use
I'd like some coffee .	Please bring us two coffees .
Cheese is produced in France.	Brie is a soft cheese .
The sun provides light .	I see a light in the window.

The types of uncountable nouns with examples are provided in the table below:

Table 2.8.2: The Categories and Examples of Uncountable Nouns

CATEGORIES	EXAMPLES OF NON-COUNT NOUNS
Solids	<i>Glass, gold, beef, plastic, steel, wool, yoghurt, etc.</i>
Liquids	<i>Coffee, shampoo, soda, juice, tea, milk, blood, etc.</i>
Powders and Grains	<i>Cereal, pepper, salt, sand, sugar, rice, dust, etc.</i>
Gases	<i>Oxygen, smoke, steam, fog, air, smog, etc.</i>
Names of Categories	<i>Furniture, clothing, jewellery, money, fruit, etc.</i>
School of Subjects and Languages	<i>Literature, science, history, biology, Spanish, Chinese, etc.</i>
Weather	<i>Darkness, light, rain, snow, hail, thunder, etc.</i>
Physical Force	<i>Electricity, magnetism, speed, gravity, etc.</i>
Abstract Nouns (things we cannot touch)	<i>Advice, beauty, peace, poverty, wealth, knowledge, etc.</i>

Broukal (2004:87)

Hence, it is apparent that the countability of a noun is not a fixed entity or pre-determined but relatively flexible to be changed or adapted depending on how the nouns (i.e. count and non-count nouns) are being referred to (i.e. the intended meaning) in a particular context.

2.8.1 Determiners

Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman (1999:19) define determiners as “a special class of words that limit the nouns that follow them.” In other words, as the term suggests, they are words that “determine” the nouns that follow them which means, in a noun phrase, determiners always precede the noun head. Determiners are the non-lexical category words and they serve as function words. Besides, determiners are closed class items as they are subsumed under the fixed category of words. Determiners are sometimes confused with adjectives as both function as pre-modifiers. One distinctive feature which distinguishes them is that adjectives provide qualitative information of a noun while determiners explicate the quantitative information of a noun (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

There are four main types of determiners that have been identified in English, namely articles, demonstratives, possessives and quantifiers (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999). The first group of words belongs to articles which are limited to ‘a’, ‘an’ and ‘the’. The distinction of use of these articles is depending on the noun referent whether definite or indefinite. Words like ‘his’, ‘my’, ‘her’, ‘your’, ‘their’, ‘our’, ‘Ali’s’ and ‘girl’s’ are categorised in the second group, possessives. Leech et al. (2009:404) suggest that possessives mean “the Y belonging to X” or “the Y of X” or “the Y which has some special relation to X.” The third group, demonstratives, consists of deictic information about the referent and in English, there are four words traced in this category; ‘this’, ‘that’, ‘these’ (plural form of ‘this’) and ‘those’ (plural form of ‘that’).

Lastly, quantifiers (i.e. 'many', 'a little', 'a few', 'much', 'a large number of', etc.) which also function to pre-modify a noun is used to express the quantity of the noun head.

The occurrence of a determiner which precedes a noun in a noun phrase is determined by the type of the noun head it modifies whether countable (i.e. singular or plural) or uncountable. Therefore, it is essential for any language users to analyse and determine the characteristics and function as well as the context of occurrence of the noun head in order to assign the appropriate determiners to form an appropriate noun phrase in an appropriate context.

2.8.1.1 Demonstratives

Dixon (2003:61) defines demonstratives as "a grammatical word (or occasionally, a clitic or affix) which can have pointing (or deictic) reference." Subsequent to the function of demonstratives as indicating deictic reference, Hayashi & Yoon (2006:490) find that this deictic reference is referring to the proximity of the noun referent where a noun which is identified near the speaker is believed to be a "proximal referent" and a noun which is located far from the speaker is called a "distal referent."

According to Botley & Mcenery (2001:9) demonstratives are not only revealing the deictic reference but the "anaphoric reference" and "syntactic function" of these words indicate that they may function either as the head of a noun phrase (which means pronoun) or as noun modifier (which means determiners). It is important to highlight that for the purpose of this study, the latter function of demonstratives is the only concern.

There are four types of demonstrative determiners identified in English which are 'this' (referring to proximal singular countable and uncountable noun), 'that' (referring to distal singular countable and uncountable noun), 'these' (referring to

proximal plural countable noun) and ‘those’ (referring to distal plural countable noun).

The sentences below indicate the function of these words as demonstrative determiners which indicate deictic reference:

1. *This book* should be returned.



proximal singular
referent

2. *That chair* is broken.



distal singular
referent

3. *These books* should be returned.



proximal plural
referent

4. *Those chairs* are broken.



distal plural
referent

(Adapted from: Hayashi & Yoon, 2006)

Although the use of the demonstrative determiners is seen as hassle-free and can be comprehended easily, the distinction between ‘this’ and ‘that’ and also ‘these’ and ‘those’ is subjective as the meaning inferred is depending on the speakers’ intention who may see or judge proximity of a noun differently (which means, a noun which is

identified as near to one speaker may not be identified the same way by the other and vice versa).

2.8.1.2 Quantifiers

Quantifiers are a fixed category of words which are used to express the indefinite quantity of a noun [which are used to quantify rather than to qualify a noun] (Celce-Murcia, & Larsen-Freeman, 1999). Although quantifiers are applicable to both countable and uncountable nouns, their uses in the noun phrase depend on the countability of the noun head as there are certain quantifiers which can only quantify countable nouns such as ‘many’, ‘a few’, ‘a couple of’, ‘a large number of’ and ‘a number of’ without any attention to the mass noun. At the same time, there are also some quantifiers which are only applicable to mass nouns (i.e. ‘a great deal of’, ‘much’, ‘a little’ and ‘less’). Likewise, the presence of the same quantifiers in both countable and uncountable noun phrases should also be noted where quantifiers, for instance, ‘plenty of’, ‘a lot of’, ‘more’, ‘enough’ and ‘any’ are used to quantify both count and mass nouns (Leech et al., 2009).

In this study, numerals (i.e. cardinals such as ‘one’, ‘two’, ‘three’, etc.) are perceived as quantifiers. Although these words are used to express the definite quantity of a noun (which does not correspond to the function of quantifiers to express indefinite quantity), cardinals do express the quantity (the number or the definite amount) of the noun head unlike ordinals (i.e. first, second, third, fourth, last, etc.) as they reveal the sequence or rank without any indication of the noun quantity (Greenbaum & Quirk, 2006). For that reason, ordinals are not included as quantifiers in this study. Various quantifiers which are commonly used with countable and uncountable nouns in English are provided in the appendix (see Appendix, Table 2.8.2.2.1, page 223).

In addition, Greenbaum & Quirk (2006:76) introduces multipliers as an additional item to the list of quantifiers. Words such as ‘twice’ or ‘double’, ‘thrice’ and ‘four times’ are some of the examples of multipliers. These words are determiners (as they pre-modify a noun) and they may occur before the definite article (i.e. ‘the’), demonstratives (i.e. ‘this’, ‘that’, ‘these’ and ‘those’) or possessives (i.e. ‘his’, ‘her’, ‘our’, etc.) such as the examples below:

1. *Twice / double* the length (which means ‘a length twice as great’)
2. *Four times* her salary (which means ‘a salary four times as large’)

Greenbaum & Quirk (2006:76)

The multipliers are also regarded as words which denote the measurement of frequency when they are followed by the indefinite article (i.e. ‘a’ and ‘an’) and other quantifiers such as ‘each’ and ‘every’ such as indicated below:

1. *Once* a day.
2. *Twice* each game.
3. *Three times* every year.

Greenbaum & Quirk (2006:76)

All in all, the recognition of the distinctive features of these quantifiers based on its occurrence with countable, uncountable or both types of nouns is not sufficient to instil the understanding on how these words are being employed in communication to convey intended messages. Despite being similar in certain characteristics, it would be interesting if at least a slight difference (if not significant) is traced in the use of each of these words when communicating messages. Thus, the identification of the single invariant meaning for these lexical items would be able to reveal the differences of

these quantifiers as suggested by Saussure, each word in a language is a sign which conveys a vague or abstract meaning. As far as the researcher is concerned, there are not many studies (if there is any) which have highlighted the invariant meaning of the quantifiers in English. Hence, in this study, the researcher takes a stance to figure out these meanings in order to expose them in the process of teaching and learning in the classroom to make the learning of this grammatical category which is regarded as one of the most confusing elements in English, much easier.

2.8.1.3 Partitives

There are circumstances where the English mass nouns become quantifiable. Sew (2007:28) says that English mass nouns “are bounded, either by mensural classifier or unitiser.” Mensural classifiers provide units of measurement to the mass nouns to be counted as bounded entity. For instance, ‘a gallon of water’, ‘a litre of oil’, ‘a kilogram of sugar’ are the units of measurement which signify these mass nouns as count referents and the “external qualities of the referents (i.e. quantity, price and weight)” are taken into account in producing them (Sew, 2007:28). On the other hand, unitisers too offer expressions of quantity to mass nouns. Unitisers do not provide units of measurement but expressions such as ‘a drop of water’, ‘a cup of coffee’, ‘a bottle of vinegar’, ‘a piece of cake’ are commonly used to quantify the mass nouns as bounded entities and the choice of the unitisers are indeed flexible as it depends on how the mass nouns are referred or identified by the speakers in the real context.

Greenbaum & Quirk (2006) however, believe that these quantifying units of mass nouns (i.e. mensural classifiers and unitisers) serve partitive functions as they denote part of a whole feature of the mass nouns by relating to both quantity and quality information of the nouns. Hence, in this study, partitives are subsumed under the category of quantifiers due to their quantifying function. The information on how the

mass nouns are made quantifiable by utilising the quantity partitives are provided in the appendix (see Appendix, Table 2.8.2.3.1, page 225).

2.9 The Malay Language

The Malay language developed sometime in the past as a member of the Western or Indonesian and it is the branch of the Austronesian (Malayo-Polynesian) language family which is spoken today as a native language by millions of people distributed over the Malay Peninsula and Sumatra. It was well known as the *lingua franca* for many traders in the East Indian archipelago who were active in merchandising as it served the function of a shared tool of communication (Nik Safiah Karim, 1995; Nik Safiah Karim & Wan Malini Ahmad, 2006; Nik Safiah Karim et al., 2008).

In Malaysia, this language albeit primarily known as the native language or the mother tongue of the Malay native speakers, serves the role as the first language for many of the Malaysian speakers regardless of their ethnic background (i.e. Chinese and Indian). In addition, as Malaysia is associated with or known as a multiracial country, the Malay language is accepted as the national language that is used as the medium of communication in every official matter and also as medium of instruction in Malaysian primary and secondary education system. This is in accordance with the mission of the government to shape a united nation with united multiracial citizens.

2.9.1 The Bahasa Malaysia (BM) Noun Phrase (NP)

The BM Noun Phrase (NP) consists of a word which is a noun as the head (tr. *inti*) or more than a word. The noun phrases in Malay “have elements occurring preceding the noun head and elements following the noun head” (Rogayah Hj. A. Razak, 2003:38). In plain words, noun phrase in Malay comprises pre-modifiers and post-

modifiers which function to modify (explain) the noun head. For instance, in the example below, '*banyak buku cerita*' (tr. many story books) is the NP with the noun head '*buku*' (tr. book). The word '*banyak*' (tr. many) acts as the pre-modifier whereas '*cerita*' (tr. story) post-modifies the noun which indicates the type of book.

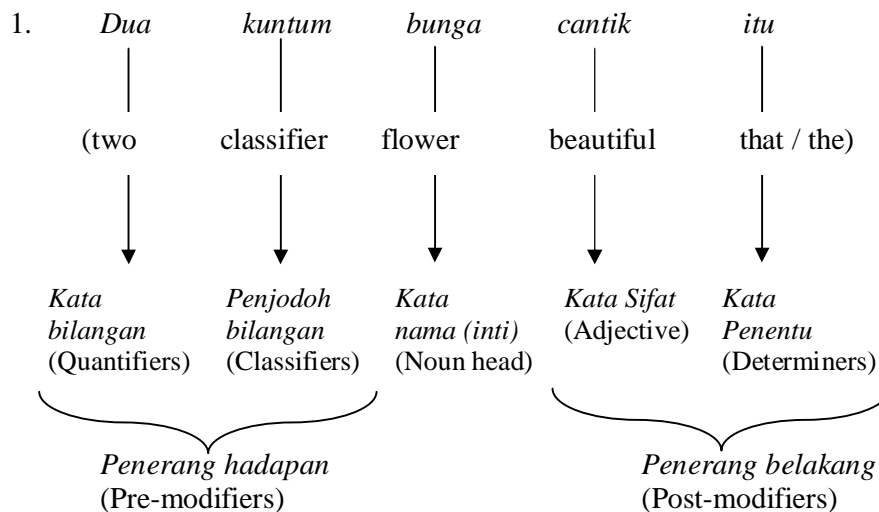
Saya mempunyai banyak buku cerita.

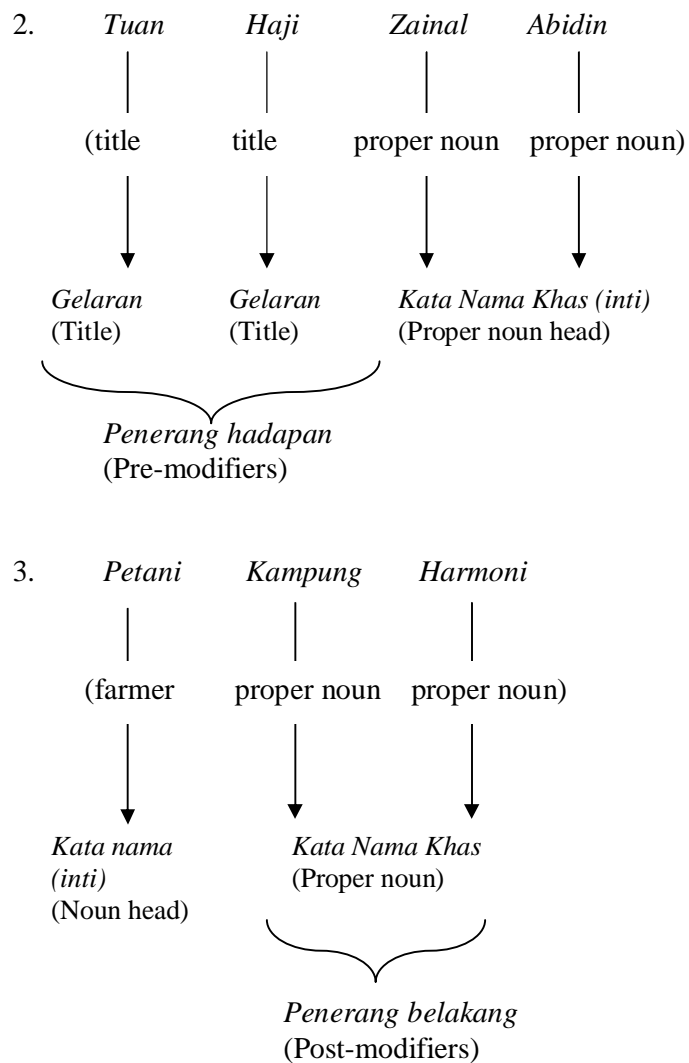
(I have many book story)

I have many story books.

Abdullah Hassan (2003) says that the constituents of a noun phrase are the modifiers as well as the noun head. The modifiers which are called '*penerang*' in BM are divided into four types that are '*penentu*' (tr. determiners), '*kata bilangan*' (tr. quantifiers), '*penjodoh bilangan*' (tr. classifiers), '*gelaran*' (tr. titles) and '*sifat nama*' (tr. adjectives).

This is shown in the examples below:





(Adapted from: Abdullah Hassan, 2003:266)

Nik Safiah Karim (1995) says that BM nouns are classified into three types which are proper nouns (i.e. Ali, John, Malaysia, Kampung Harmoni), common nouns (i.e. *meja* [tr. table], *buku* [tr. book], *sekolah* [tr. school]) and pronouns (i.e. *dia* [tr. he/she], *saya* [tr. I], *mereka* [tr. they]). Unlike English nouns which are divided into countable and uncountable nouns, the BM nouns are divided into two main categories which are animate (i.e. human and non-human) and inanimate nouns (see Appendix, Figure 2.9.1.1, page 226). The table below indicates the examples of animate and inanimate nouns in BM:

Table 2.9.1.1: Animate and Inanimate Nouns in BM

ANIMATE NOUN				INANIMATE NOUN	
Human		Non-human			
Proper Noun	Common Noun	Proper Noun	Common Noun	Proper Noun	Common Noun
Selvi	<i>Pelajar</i> (student)	‘Vanda Diana’ (orchid)	<i>Gajah</i> (elephant)	Bahasa Melayu	<i>Kerusi</i> (chair)
Hasan	<i>Hakim</i> (judge)	Jibrail	<i>Cacing</i> (worm)	Universiti Malaya	<i>Pendapat</i> (opinion)
Tun Tan Cheng Lock	<i>Guru</i> (teacher)	‘Hervea Brasillia’ (rubber tree)	<i>Pokok getah</i> (rubber tree)	Proton Iswara	<i>Keadilan</i> (justice)

(Adapted from: Nik Safiah Karim, 1995:89-91)

Although the functions of nouns in BM are derived from the two main categories such as animate and inanimate nouns, the distinction between the count (countable) and mass (uncountable) nouns in BM is an essential element that needs to be identified when describing the semantic features of these nouns. Asmah Hj. Omar (1980), (1993) cited in Sew (2007) explains that the idea of countability in BM nouns is indeed ambiguous as it depends on how the hearer perceives the meaning of the nouns uttered in a sentence. For instance, when a person says ‘*Dia ada rumah* (tr. He/She has (a) house(s)), the word ‘*rumah*’ which means ‘house’ is possibly interpreted as ‘ONE’ or ‘MORE THAN ONE’ as the indicators of plurality in BM nouns do not exist in terms of inflections as it is seen in the English language. Hence, in order to indicate plurality, the nouns in BM undergo complete reduplication or co-occur with numerals with classifiers or quantifiers as pre-modifiers. The words listed below are reduplicated nouns which function as indicators of plurality:

Singular / One

Buku (book)

Perkara (matter)

Hospital (hospital)

Plural / More than one

Buku-buku (books)

Perkara-perkara (matters)

Hospital-hospital (hospitals)

Sew (2007) reveals that only the count nouns reduplicate to denote a plural referent which is called simple complete reduplication which does not exist in mass noun. In other words, the mass nouns are not reduplicated to indicate plurality, for instance, '*garam*' (tr. salt) can never be reduplicated as '*garam-garam*' (tr. salts) to designate plurality. Another example which is '*gula*' that means 'sugar' is a mass noun which Nik Safiah Karim (1995) identifies as an indicator of similarity when it is reduplicated as '*gula-gula*' which no longer means 'sugar' but 'sweets'. The meaning of this reduplication is recognised as an indicator of similarity as 'sweets' connotes the idea of 'something which is sugary' (similar meaning). Thus, there is no indication of plurality.

Sew (2007:23) albeit does not see '*gula-gula*' (tr. sweets) as pluralisation, opined that this is an "idiomatic lexicalisation." Moreover, Sew (2007) suggests that the reduplications of count nouns in BM designate mass plurals. For instance, '*meja*' (tr. table) which is a count noun when reduplicated (i.e. *meja-meja* [tr. tables]) to indicate plurality does not disclose the number of tables as it could be interpreted as two, three, ten or even one hundred. In this circumstance, the count noun which is pluralised functions as a mass referent.

It is undoubtedly evident that the functions served by each noun cannot be described or explained by traditional grammarians, merely by using the analysis of syntactic patterns in which the noun has been formed. The need to go beyond the syntactic structure and look for the meaning based on the use of these nouns in real

context is rather more beneficial to identify the features and functions of these lexical items.

2.9.2 Determiners

Determiners or '*kata penentu*' in BM means closed class words which function to determine the words which either precede or follow the noun head. These words are classified as non-lexical categories, function words and closed class words as they are fixed category of words. Nik Safiah Karim et al. (2008) indicate two types of determiners in BM (i.e. *kata penentu hadapan* and *kata penentu belakang*). '*Kata penentu hadapan*' (tr. pre-determiners) in BM noun phrase are subdivided into '*kata bilangan*' (tr. quantifiers) such as '*semua*' (tr. all), '*banyak*' (tr. many), and '*setiap*' (tr. each) as well as '*penjodoh bilangan*' (tr. classifiers) such as '*-ekor*' which literally means 'tail' and used only for animals and '*-orang*' which means 'person' and specifically used for human beings. These words occur before a noun head and functions to modify it. On the other hand, '*kata penentu belakang*' (tr. post-determiner) is used to post-modify the noun head. In BM, there are only two post-determiners identified that are '*itu*' (tr. that / those / the) and '*ini*' (tr. this / these / the) which are called demonstratives (as it functions to denote the noun referent in terms of proximity and definiteness).

2.9.2.1 Demonstratives

As it was stated above, the demonstrative determiners in BM are '*itu*' and '*ini*'. These two words are used to indicate the proximity of the noun referent whether it is near the speaker or far from the speaker. '*Itu*' (tr. that / those / the) is utilised to indicate or point to a noun which is located far from the speaker or in other words to indicate

'distal referent' whereas '*ini*' (tr. this / these / the) shows proximal referent by referring to a noun which is situated near the speaker.

It is believed that the use of these demonstratives in real life situation in fact depends on how the speaker and hearer perceive them hence by taking into consideration their deictic functions as well as definiteness (Bee & Soh, 2007; Carson, 2000; Nik Safiah Karim, 1995). Although some may interpret sentence 1 and 2 below as using demonstratives which serve the deictic function, it may also be understood differently by some as the function of the demonstratives may also be seen as the marker of definiteness. Since the meanings of these demonstratives may vary according to the various interpretations that can be made by the readers, it is useful to determine the functions of these demonstratives based on the intended meaning by the interlocutors.

Sentence 1:

Buku itu mesti dipulangkan.

(Book that must return)

That book must be returned.

Sentence 2:

Cawan ini diperbuat daripada plastik.

(Cup this is made of plastic)

This cup is made of plastic.

Nik Safiah Karim (1995:15), however states that '*itu*' and '*ini*' may sometimes be perceived as both deictic and definiteness marker (i.e. used as definite articles) such as the sentence below:

Pelukis itu rakyat Australia.

(Artist the / that citizen Australia)

That / The artist is an Australian citizen.

Therefore, the function of *'itu'* and *'ini'* as definiteness marker indicates the use of these words to mark nouns as specific (i.e. 'the' in English) rather than generic (i.e. 'a' and 'an' in English) as it is referring to information which has been formerly addressed or discussed or shared by the interlocutors.

2.9.2.2 Quantifiers

Quantifiers or *'kata bilangan'* in BM is a type of determiners (i.e. *'kata penentu hadapan'*) which pre-modify a noun (i.e. it precedes the noun head in a noun phrase). 'Quantifiers' as the name indicates, is used to quantify a noun rather than expressing its quality (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999). Nik Safiah Karim et al. (2008) classify the types of quantifiers in BM into five main categories. These categories were identified based on the functions or rather the meaning of these quantifiers. The types of quantifiers with examples are provided in the appendix (see Appendix, Table 2.9.2.2.1, page 227). Alternatively, Sharifah Nor Syed Abd. Rahman et al. (2008) opined that there is another type of quantifier that needs to be added into the primary list which is *'kata bilangan tingkat'* (tr. ordinals) such as the examples provided in the appendix (see Appendix, Table 2.9.2.2.2, page 229).

Nevertheless, for the purpose of this study, *'kata bilangan tingkat'* (tr. ordinals) which can be seen from Table 2.9.2.2.2 (see Appendix), are not regarded as quantifiers as it merely functions to indicate the rank or position (i.e. qualify a noun) but not denoting the quantity of the noun (i.e. quantify a noun). For example, the sentence *'Anak ketiga En. Maniam telah menjadi seorang doktor'* (tr. The third child of Mr.

Maniam has become a doctor) does not convey the same meaning as '*Ketiga-tiga anak En. Maniam telah menjadi doktor*' (tr. **All three** children of Mr. Maniam have become doctors). The difference is rather obvious as in the first example, the word '*ketiga*' (tr. third) does not signify the quantity or the number of children Mr. Maniam has; while the latter signifies the quantity or the number of Mr. Maniam's children.

Carson (2000) says that quantifiers in BM can be used with or can co-occur with or without reduplication. This view seems to be questionable as in BM, according to Nik Safiah Karim et al. (1995:135) the quantifiers such as '*semua*' (tr. all), '*segala*' (tr. all), '*para*' (tr. many), '*banyak*' (tr. many), '*beberapa*' (tr. some), '*sekalian*' (tr. all) are indicating plural and therefore, the noun head which follows these words are not reduplicated to denote plurality. For instance, the sentences below which is pointed out as acceptable by Carson (2000:109) is ungrammatical:

Semua budak-budak itu telah mengepong anjing itu.
(All Child-pl the already surround dog the)
All the children surrounded the dog.

The sentence above is in fact ungrammatical as the noun head '*budak*' should not be reduplicated as the presence of the quantifier '*semua*' which means 'all' denotes plurality. This is different from English where the nouns are inflected (mostly) to co-occur with quantifiers which indicate plurality (i.e. all books and all children). Moving on to another example provided by Carson (2000:110) (such as provided below), the quantifier '*setiap*' (tr. every/each) is used with reduplicated noun head which again is debatable. The word '*setiap*' should not be paired with reduplicated nouns as it refers to individual / discrete entity of the noun which means the noun is not referred as a whole referent.

Setiap buku-buku itu sangat berat.

(Each book-pl the very heavy)

Each book is very heavy.

However, the sentence above is grammatical when it is used such as below:

Setiap buku daripada buku-buku itu sangat berat.

(Each book of book-pl the very heavy)

Each of the books is very heavy.

The quantifier '*setiap*' is used to refer to each individual entity as a part of the whole entity which has been referred (i.e. the noun head).

In BM, quantifiers are used for both count and mass nouns. However, this is not applicable for mass referents as quantifiers “do not modify reduplicated nouns as they are unbounded mass referents” (Sew, 2007:24). This is acceptable as reduplicated nouns (although count nouns) signify mass referents which means uncountable or indefinite number of nouns. Sew (2007:47) provides a list of BM quantifiers which has been reclassified (by adding another criterion which is countability to see the link between quantification and countability in BM) based on Asmah's (1980:88-89) detailed classification of BM quantifiers (see Appendix, Table 2.9.2.2.3, page 229).

2.9.2.3 Classifiers

BM is a language which utilises the concept of classifiers. Classifiers or '*penjodoh bilangan*' are words or rather label which are used to indicate the category of objects in the surroundings and “numeral classifier systems share some universal aspects in their classification of nouns by classifying objects based on primary parameters (i.e. distinctions between animate and inanimate objects and between human

and non-human distinctions” (Adams & Conklin, 1973 cited in Khazriyati Salehuddin & Winskel, 2009:290 ; Alan, 1977 cited in Khazriyati Salehuddin & Winskel, 2009:290).

For the purpose of this study, the classifiers are subsumed under the category of quantifiers as these words function to quantify the noun head whether a count or mass noun. Craig (1999) cited in Sew (2007) believes that classifiers do not occur independently without the presence of numerals and quantifiers but numerals are not depending on classifiers all the time to be utilised in discourse. The sentences below indicate the examples of use of a classifier with numeral and quantifier:

1. *Tiga orang pelajar telah diselamatkan.*

(Three person-cl student already rescued)

Three students were rescued.

2. *Beberapa orang pelajar telah diselamatkan.*

(Some person-cl student already rescued)

Some students were rescued.

Nevertheless, Nik Safiah et al. (2008) identify a number of quantifiers which cannot be paired with classifiers when they are in use. For instance quantifiers which denote indefinite characteristics such as ‘*semua*’ (tr. all), ‘*segala*’ (tr. all), ‘*sedikit*’ (tr. a few / a little), ‘*sekalian*’ (tr. all), ‘*para*’ (tr. many), ‘*seluruh*’ (tr. entire) and ‘*banyak*’ (tr. many) that co-occur with classifiers are viewed as ungrammatical such as the noun phrases below:

1. **Semua orang pelajar*

(All person-cl student)

All students

2. **Sedikit cubit garam*

(A little pinch salt)

A pinch of salt

Another significant point to highlight is that, in BM, the noun head needs to appear in its singular form when it co-occurs with numeral classifiers (Khazriyati Sallehuddin & Winskel, 2009).

The classifiers in BM are primarily divided into two types; sortal classifiers (which enable the noun referent to be counted in units, for instance '*sekuntum bunga*' [tr. a flower], and '*seekor burung*' [tr. a bird]) and mensural classifiers (which enable the noun referent to be quantified in a measuring term such as '*seliter air*' [tr. a litre of water] and '*sekilogram ikan*' [tr. a kilogram of fish]) (Chierchia, 1998; Craig, 1999 cited in Sew, 2007). It is essential to highlight here that '*se*' in BM also means '*satu*' which means 'a' or 'one'.

Numeral classifiers function to quantify indefinite noun referents and as suggested by Carson (2000), classifiers are used to mark indefiniteness such as 'a' and 'an' in English. Elaborating on its use with a count and mass noun, classifiers in BM may occur with both types of nouns but "only Malay count nouns are preceded immediately by a basic numeral without any classifier" (Sew, 2007:28). Hence, classifiers are used with mass nouns to designate count referent which means classifiers make the mass nouns countable.

1. *Dua buah buku*

(Two fruit-cl book)

Two books

2. *Lapan orang pelajar*

(Eight person-cl student)

Eight students

The count noun head above which are ‘*buku*’ (tr. book) and ‘*pelajar*’ (tr. student) can be preceded by a numeral without any classifier too but this is not applicable for a mass noun as it is obligatory for the classifier to occur before the mass noun head which is preceded by a numeral. For instance, sentence 1 and 2 below are grammatical although the classifiers do not present but sentence 3(a) is ungrammatical due to the presence of a mass noun:

1. *Dua buku*

(Two book)

Two books

2. *Lapan pelajar*

(Eight student)

Eight students

3(a) **Tiga minyak*

(Three oil)

But

3(b) *Tiga sudu minyak.*

(Three spoon oil)

Three spoons of oil

According to Othman Sulaiman (1975:24-5) the most commonly used classifiers in BM are ‘*orang*’ (tr. literally means human), ‘*ekor*’ (tr. literally means tail),

'*batang*' (tr. literally means stem), '*buah*' (tr. literally means fruit), and '*biji*' (tr. literally means seed). The list of classifiers in BM with its meaning, function and examples of use is provided in the appendix (see Appendix, Table 2.9.2.3.1, page 230). On the other hand, Khazriyati Salehuddin & Winskel (2009:291) reveal that the categorisation of BM classifiers depends on the shape (i.e. rigidity, dimensionality and size) or specific attributes of the objects (i.e. inanimate count nouns) (see Appendix, Table 2.9.2.3.2, page 231). At the same time, classifiers such as '*cubit*' (tr. literally means pinch), '*titik*' (tr. literally means drop), '*guni*' (tr. literally means sacks) and '*baldi*' (tr. literally means pail) are sorted out as the indicators of count referents for the mass nouns. Craig (1986) cited in Khazriyati Salehuddin & Winskel (2009:291) believes that numeral classifiers function as "a means to communicate a few especially important classes that objects fall into in the manner they are perceived by the speech community." Thus, the classifiers are not fixed category of words as they may be changed or altered to suit the context depending on the nouns which are being referred to by the interlocutors.

2.10 The Entity Number System

Tobin (1990:51) describes meaning and message as two different entities where "the same linguistic sign with a single invariant meaning can be inferred to have many and diverse messages as well as multiple syntactic and pragmatic functions within different discourse contexts." The distinction between meaning and message needs to be highlighted in any linguistic analysis as different linguistic signs may be interpreted or perceived differently by different people. Tobin (1990) further suggests that each linguistic sign or lexical item of a language conveys an abstract or a vague meaning which is called invariant meaning and this single meaning is universal as it should be applicable in various contexts of its use.

The single invariant meaning of a linguistic sign is not pre-constructed but rather postulated by synthesising from the various examples of its use in the real context. In this study, the invariant meaning of the demonstratives and quantifiers are postulated based on the Entity Number System (Reid, 1991; Tobin, 1990). The noun entity according to Tobin (1990) and Reid (1991), carries a grammatical number which is identified through the occurrence of a zero (-Ø) signal (i.e. entity-Ø) and '-s' signal (i.e. entity-s) which signify the meaning of 'ONE' and 'MORE THAN ONE' entity respectively. Eberhard (1999) says that a noun's conceptual number corresponds to whether it is a singular or plural entity and this is most of the time traced through its morphological identity as in 'blanket-Ø' (i.e. singular) and 'blanket-s' (i.e. plural).

Nonetheless, the signals ('-Ø' and '-s') of a noun entity do not always resemble the meaning of 'ONE' and 'MORE THAN ONE' entity. For instance, in the case of 'person-Ø' and 'people-Ø', although the latter does not signify an '-s' morpheme (i.e. an indicator of 'MORE THAN ONE' entity) but a zero (-Ø) signal, this lexical item is identified as a plural noun referent (Reid, 1991:56). The identification of the semantic value of the lexical item based on data extracted from natural language use and also its relation to the message which is being communicated is able to resolve the problems in contrasting Entity Number signals (Reid, 1991). "Noun status is imposed upon a word by the context rather than being an inherent linguistic property of the word itself and hence, the term 'entity' designates the conceptual status of a word on an individual occasion, not a fixed class of words" (Reid, 1991:47). Hence, based on its use in various natural contexts, 'person-Ø' is identified as 'human being' whereas the meaning of 'people-Ø' although carries a zero signal, is realised as 'an aggregate of human beings' which means 'MORE THAN ONE' entity (Reid, 1991:65).

The zero signal (i.e. -Ø) which indicates 'ONE' entity is not only applicable as the morphological identity for count noun referent which is singular but also to the mass

referents. “A mass referent can be regarded as ‘ONE’ merely by virtue of being an unstructured whole, like the unbounded but singular surface of a sphere” (Reid, 1991:77). Consequently, the morphological identification for mass referents is realised as ‘-Ø’ which signifies the meaning of ‘ONE’ although no physical discrete boundaries are evident in these referents.

Apart from the contrasting Entity Number signals, another area of confusion in positing the grammatical number for a noun referent is the classification of this lexical category in terms of countability. Wierzbicka (1985) cited in Reid (1991:67) says that size and presentation, salience of shape and non-taxonomic categories are important elements in determining the semantic properties of a noun referent whether ‘count’ or ‘mass’. The size factor of the noun entity and its manner of presentation (i.e. how the objects are normally encountered in real context) are prominent to reveal its countability as suggested by Reid (1991:70), the circumstance where certain nouns may take a form to occur in count and non-count context is unavoidable. In the examples provided (i.e. ‘sand’ versus ‘pebbles’), Wierzbicka (1985) cited in Reid (1991:67) claims that these words are referred as “multiplicities of discrete objects composed of the same physical substance.” However, ‘sand’ is realised as a mass referent due to its semantic properties which are typically identified as individual grains that are too small to be counted. On the other hand, ‘pebbles’ that is identified as typically distinguishable individual objects is realised as a count referent.

“Mass nouns designate objects whose shapes are not cognitively salient” (Wierzbicka, 1985 cited in Reid, 1991:70). Thus, ‘unbounded’ objects which do not have fixed position like ‘water’, ‘butter’, ‘air’ and ‘meat’ are classified as mass nouns. Although the shape of butter is cognitively salient as it has discrete physical boundaries, this noun entity is identified as a mass referent. According to Wierzbicka (1985) cited in Reid (1991) an object which maintains its physical properties despite transformation is a

mass noun. As it was mentioned earlier, count nouns possess cognitively salient shapes. Some of the words like ‘furniture’, ‘crockery’ and ‘cutlery’ however serve as problematical to be posited with the meaning of ‘MORE THAN ONE’ as they are always identified as singular referents although they have cognitively salient shapes. This confusion was resolved by Wierzbicka (1985) cited in Reid (1991:71) who grouped these lexical items as non-taxonomic categories which means “objects of different kinds, sharing no similarity of form and only a general similarity of purpose” and therefore cannot be counted together.

In addition, Reid (1991:80) identifies a group of words that has spanned the semantic opposition between the meaning of ‘ONE’ and ‘MORE THAN ONE’ such as ‘politics’, ‘economics’ and ‘acoustics’. The occurrence of ‘-s’ signal does not signify the plurality of these noun referents but to illustrate them as noun entities. These words without the presence of ‘-s’ are employed as adjectives as in ‘politic’, ‘economic’ and ‘acoustic’. Hence, these words are mass referents which signify the meaning of ‘ONE’ through the occurrence of zero signal (i.e. politics-Ø, economics-Ø and acoustics-Ø). Besides, words which are categorised as *pluralia tantum* words (i.e. words which always appear in pairs) like ‘scissors’, ‘trousers’, ‘tights’ and ‘pliers’ are also seen as another group of words which has spanned the semantic opposition. As these objects comprise two identical parts, Reid (1991:75) suggests that the component parts of these objects are sufficiently alike and therefore they are countable as ‘MORE THAN ONE’ entity.

Overall, Reid (1991:73) concludes that in order to perceive a noun as a countable referent, the objects ought to be “sufficiently similar” that means neither “too similar” (i.e. individual grains of rice) nor “too dissimilar” (i.e. a table and a chair). This concept seems to be applicable to certain extent in the analysis of the Entity Number System. However, how the physical properties of these objects are perceived and later

justified by someone in the speech community could be another problem which arises in the process of positing the semantic value of a noun referent. A detailed discussion and disputes on the problem areas of Entity Number, contrasting Entity Number signals and the spanned opposition are presented in Chapter IV along with the data analysis.

2.11 Conclusion

This chapter has highlighted various approaches in the teaching of grammar. Besides, the syntactic properties and to some extent, the semantic properties of English and BM noun phrases as well as the Entity Number System have also been illustrated throughout. As it was discussed, each of the methods (i.e. implicit and explicit grammar, CLT approach, contrastive grammar instruction and meaning-based approach) is significant in its own way. In this study however, the integration of meaning or semantic-based approach with explicit contrastive grammar instruction was exploited to see if it might be able to develop the appropriate use of demonstratives and quantifiers among the Malay ESL learners in their writings. The subsequent chapter describes the methodology employed for the data collection.