

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

English used in the international contexts ranges from native varieties to non-native varieties. Native speakers of English are those born to the language such as British, American, and Australian. In contrast, English is not the mother-tongue for those non-native varieties of English such as Singapore and Malaysian English. Somehow, the native group has always been considered superior to the non-native group as Trudgill (1999) proposes that Standard English is a social dialect that has a greater prestige compared to other dialects of English, and is not associated with any accent.

2.1 English in a World View

The wide range of functions and uses of English as a global language in the education, economy, workplace, global media, youth culture, internet communication and international travel have made English language as a ‘world language’ or ‘global language’. According to Crystal (1997, 2003), the numbers of speakers who speak English as mother tongue and the special priority given to English have an important relation in making it a global language. He claims that global language is recognized in every country, and given priority in the second or foreign language teaching, or made as the official language of the country.

Kachru (1992) has suggested that the spread of Englishes around the world as three concentric circles, representing different patterns of acquisition and functions.

- The **inner circle** refers to the traditional base of English, where it is the primary language for countries such as the USA, UK, Ireland, Canada, Australia and New Zealand.
- The **outer circle** refers to countries where the language has become part of a country's chief instructions, and play and important 'second language' role in a multilingual setting: it includes Singapore, India, Malaysia and over fifty other territories.
- The **expanding circle** involves those nations that do not have a history of colonization by the member of inner circles, but they recognized the importance of English as an international language without given English any special administrative status. It includes china, Japan, Greece, Poland and others.

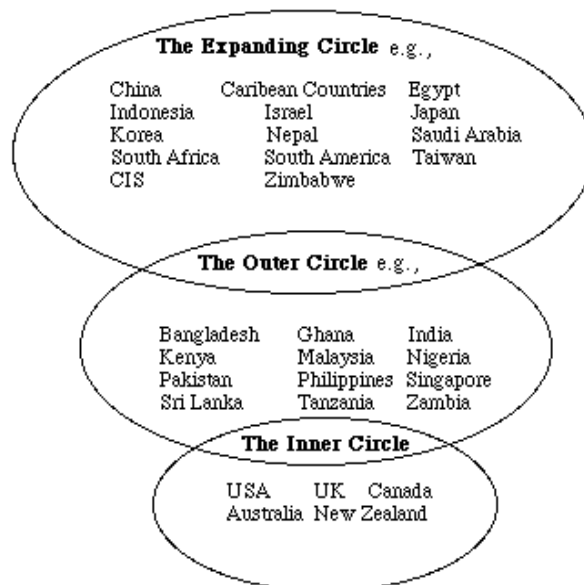


Figure 1 Kachru's three-circle model of World Englishes (Source: Kachru 1992: 356)

Jenkins (2003) points out that English spoken in countries in the Inner Circle plays the role of "norm-providing" as the standard of English is set, whilst the countries in the Outer Circle being 'norm-developing' where their varieties of English are developing in

their own right but adheres to the English varieties in the Inner Circle. Besides, the Inner circle also provides the standard model of English to the 'norm dependent' countries in the Expanding Circle.

2.2 Standard English

Standard English has always been equated with Standard British English and Standard American English; however they are one variety amongst many varieties of English. Trudgil (1984) claims that Standard English refers to grammar and vocabularies that are employed in writing and spoken by educated speakers of the language. This is supported by Strevens (1985) who also suggests that any accent of English is acceptable because pronunciation could not be labelled as 'standard'.

Tongue (1974) claims that Standard English is the variety that is taught in the education system, to students who learn English as second language (ESL) or English as foreign language (EFL). The grammar and vocabulary components are taught and learned without variation from the Standard English, though the pronunciation may differ from countries (Strevens, 1987: 56).

More recently, debates continue regarding the notion of 'Standard' about the English language. The standard varieties of English in the countries of Inner circle have always been regarded as world norms, and more prestigious than the other ENL, ESL and ENL countries. However, Crystal (1995, 2003b) argues that the Standard English of an English speaking country could be defined as a minority variety which is more prestigious and widely understood. In line with that, some world English scholars argue that the standard or acrolectal form of English in countries of the outer circle should be

seen as comparable with the Standard English of the Inner circle countries (Jenkins, 2009).

According to Trudgill (1984), colloquial and vernacular vocabulary, swear words and taboo expressions are also part of Standard English. However, some people tend to have the misconception that slang expressions or informal phrases are non-standard English. In fact, Standard English in Malaysia is used in line with nativized varieties of the language, based on the observation of Morais (2001) .

2.3 New Englishes

According to Kachru (1985 & 1986), new Englishes had undergone the nativization process which refers to deviation of a language from a parent source as a result of its contact with various languages in new cultural, geographical and sociolinguistic contexts including countries in the ‘expanding circle’ and ‘outer circle’. Hence, these new Englishes has undergone changes through the adaptations, borrowings and transfer of local linguistic features from the local languages and cultures (Kachru, 1990). In addition, Nelson (1985:244) explains that the process of nativization has led to the emergence of non-native varieties or New Englishes with their own unique linguistic features which usually vary from the native varieties in terms of phonology, lexical and syntactic.

On the other hand, Tay (1993) defines new English as non-native varieties of the English which have developed in many multilingual countries formerly colonized by Britain and the United States. However, Jenkins (2009) proposes that New Englishes emerge mostly because it is learnt as second language or as one language acquired

within a wider multilingual repertoire. Therefore, new Englishes such as Indian English, Filipino English, Nigerian English, Singapore English and Malaysian English share some similarities in their features but vary in terms of characteristics and usage due to the influence of local languages. Furthermore, these institutionalised varieties of English play important functions in the local education, administrative and legal domain.

At first, the acceptance towards these new varieties of English was rather low because they did not sound like native English. Nevertheless, these new English has recognized by vast numbers of people and becomes an essential tool of communication. In line with that, Jenkins (2009) proposes that New Englishes have their own features but should not be considered in terms of their differences from native varieties such as American English and British English. On the other hand, tongue (1974) claims that ‘new varieties of English’ is about locality and national identities of the speakers who speak these varieties.

Platt et al (1984: 2-3), proposes four criteria that could define a New English.

- (i) the new English emerged as the result of education system where English is taught as a subject or used as a medium of instruction in places where English is not the main language.
- (ii) it evolved in an area where most of the population do not speak native variety of English.
- (iii) English is written or spoken in the region where it is used to meet a range of functions.
- (iv) the English has been ‘localized’ or ‘nativised’ in terms of sounds, patterns, sentence structures, words and expressions due to the adoption of some language features of its own.

(Platt et al, 1984: 2-3)

2.4 Malaysian English

In Malaysia, there seems to be a situation where the older generation speaks and write a near native whereas the younger generations spoken English is much deviated from SBE. Platt and Weber, (1980) proposes that the stronger foundation of the older generation could be explained by the use of English as the medium of instruction in the earlier education system. From another point of view, there seems to be deterioration of English proficiency in the younger generation. The younger group tend to borrowed extensively from their mother tongue such as Malay Language, Cantonese, Hokkien, Mandarin and Tamil in terms of lexis and semantic.

As time goes by, these influences of other languages have contributed to the emergence of local lexical features. Furthermore, some indigenized lexical items are adopted as Standard English and used in formal repertoire. Besides, Baskaran (2005) assumes that some features in ME are the results of English accustomed to meet the needs of Malaysians for the local and indigenized uses among Malaysians. Therefore, the types of ME that are worth investigating will be discussed in the following sub topics.

2.4.1 Standard and non-standard Malaysian English

A considerable amount of literature has been published on the description of ME and different views of ME have been made. The works on the varieties of ME in the general aspects, with an in-depth study of its features come from Tongue (1974), Platt and Weber (1980, 1984) Lowenberg (1986), Anthonusamy (1997), Govendran (2001), Ooi (2001) while Baskaran (1987, 1994 & 2005) is more descriptive of its structural aspect. Tongue (1974) and Platt and Weber (1980) were amongst the first to study English in Singapore and Malaysia (ESM). Tongue (1979) states that English in Malaysia and

Singapore are a dialect which has deviated from Standard British English (SBE) identified ESM as in two types, the standard and sub-standard. He explains that standard ESM is used by the educated and in formal contexts which is internationally intelligible; whereas the Sub-standard ESM is used by the uneducated and in informal contexts which is intelligible intranationally. However, Lowenberg (1984:21) does not recognize the colloquial English usage of Singapore and Malaysian and perceived them as 'unacceptable' and 'wrong'.

Unlike Tongue (1974), Platt and Weber (1980) in his study of analyzing the English of forty Malay-medium educated Malays categorized ME into ME type 1 (ME I) and ME type 2 (ME II). ME type 1 is The English of those English-medium educated which is also referred to as the Standard English or 'correct English'. Baskaran (1987) describes this type of English as 'acrolec' or "standard Malaysian English". On the other hand, ME type 2 is spoken by Malaysians who are Malay-medium educated and referred to as non-standard variety.

Though Singapore and Malaysia English (SME) are frequently perceived as of the same variety, but Tongue (1974) explained that political separation of Singapore from Malaysia in 1965 and phased out of the English as the instruction medium in the education system are the two main factors that made some distinction between Singaporean English (SE) and Malaysian English (ME). Lim (2001:135) who did his comparative study on the formal varieties of ME and SE agrees with Tongue and suggests that SE and ME should be separated because of the linguistic differences caused by the different educational and language policies in both countries.

On the other hand, Wong (1983) divided ME into two groups, namely Standard ME and colloquial ME. According to Wong, standard ME is 'near-native' but colloquial ME is

significantly influenced by the linguistic features of the local languages in Malaysia especially Malay and Chinese. However, Platt and Weber (1980) and Wong (1982) did not consider ME as ‘substandard’.

Baskaran (1994) summarises that acrolect is the standardised norm or ‘high’ social dialect that is used for official and educational purpose. Mesolect, the ‘middle’ social dialect or the informal style are always used among Malaysians in the semiformal and casual situations. Basilect is the ‘low’ social dialect which is often termed broken English. Baskaran (1994) identifies ME is used in every level and various combinations of three socialists (social dialect). This is supported by Soo (1999) who claims that the educated Malaysians could switch naturally from acrolectal in formal communication situation to the mesolectal English spoken with their friends and to those who speak basilectal English such as food hawker.

In this study, Baskaran (2005) Malaysian English continuum – acrolect, mesolect and basilect will be equated with Platt and Weber (1980) ME Type I and Type II to describe Malaysian English. Thus the subdivision in the description of Malaysian English would use the term acrolect (ME type I) which represents the Standard ME, Mesolect (ME type II) to represents the dialectal ME, and Basilect (colloquial ME) to represent the Broken ME or patois.

i) Acrolect

Standard Malaysian English which referred to as ‘acrolect’ is the highest variety and is the model acceptable for education purposes, official transactions and for international communication. The acrolectal English is used in official aspects like textbooks,

newspapers, magazines and news reading. It is stated to be ‘international intelligible’ and spoken by English-medium educated Malaysians in more formal situations (Wong, 1982; Chia, 1985; Soo, 1999). This acrolectal English is also equated with ME Type 1 by Platt & Weber (1980).

Baskaran (2005:19) claims that the acrolect in ME is closest to Standard British English and is the standard used in education, but it may not be termed as native English due to the localized lexical and phonological features. However, it is near-native as the syntactic features is maintained. As mentioned in Baskaran (2005), a distinguishing characteristic of acrolectal English is its lexicalization where items with a localized context such as ‘dusun’ and ‘kadi’, which are absent in British English.

According to Tay (1982, as cited in Rosli and Ting 1994), the phonology features which distinguish acrolectal English from the SBE is the syllable-timed instead of stress-timed intonation pattern, and the absence of weak forms and liaison. Baskaran (2005), for example, points out that ME has phonological features like /θ/ instead of /ð/ in /wiθ/. Tay (1982) claims that speakers of ME Type I use a narrower pitch range as they are generally not aware of the beauty of intonation which could convey different meaning (Tay, 1982 quoted in Rosli and Ting, 1994).

ii) Mesolect

In this study, mesolectal English is equated to Platt & Weber (1980) ME type II. However, there is little variation in the description of these two types of varieties. According to Baskaran (2005), the mesolect ME is most representative of ME variety, which is the informal style used among Malaysians. She points out that mesolect is the

informal variety used in less formal and unofficial situations. In contrary, ME type II model from Platt & Weber (1980) is described as English spoken by Malaysians who are Malay educated as it has obvious features from Bahasa Malaysia. Thus, ME type II is less international intelligible as compared to ME type I. Nevertheless, the ME Type II is for formal use sometimes, especially in Malaysia.

According to Baskaran (2005), this indigenized variety is highly used because Malaysians feel comfortable using their own variety but not because of they do not know other varieties. An average educated Malaysian could speak the near British Standard English in the formal communication and switch immediately to mesolectal English when speaking to friends. Mesolect is the most common ME communication style which caters for Malaysians, and always used in friends and family domains, internet chat and blogs, and sometimes in radio and television programme.

As the mesolectal English is equated with Platt and Weber (1980) ME type II, Bahasa Malaysia has a great influence on the pronunciation and the spelling of most words originated from English words, such as *akademik* for *academic* and *biskut* for *biscuit*” (Rosli & Ting, 1994; 71). In terms of pronunciation, ME I and ME II speakers tend to shorten the vowel and to keep them ‘pure’. For instance, the vowel /ɛ:/ (as in RP bed) is changed to a short /ɪ/. Besides, there is a strong tendency to delete the final consonant, as in jus(t) and agen(t) where the consonant /t/ is not pronounced (Rosli & Ting, 1994; 71).

Furthermore, the syntax of mesolectal English is always influence by Bahasa Malaysia, for instance, “fonkad for phone card, and not enough tall for not tall enough” (Rosli & Ting, 1994; 71). In Platt & Weber (1980), it shows that speakers of ME type II tend to

use the unmark form of past tense when they speak more quickly. For instance, “I *go* to Malay primary school. I *took* no English – was only Malay”. Due to the increasing number of ME II speakers in different career, ME Type II has shown its impact in formal use such as in seminars and news broadcasts.

iii) Basilect

Colloquial Malaysian English (CME) or the basilect is spoken by not highly educated Malaysians. Baskaran (2005) terms this kind of speech communication as Manglish or broken English which considered as patois form of the new English. Basilect is used in the informal speech communication for casual purposes, such as friendship and transaction domain as it is more simplified and localised speech forms. Wong (1978) mentions that basilectal English is considered as non-standard due to the great deviation in terms of phonology, grammar and vocabulary from Standard English.

Where syntax is concerned, a feature common in both Malaysia and Singapore is pronoun copying like ‘my mother, she works very hard’. Another prominent feature is the use of fillers like “lah” as in “Come *lah*, *Jurassic* Park is a good movie”. (Rosli & Ting, 1994:71). As mentioned by Tongue (1974), these fillers fulfil the function of indicating emotional attitudes of the speaker, or simply to fill a pause in the stream of speech.

Baskaran (2005: 44) mentions that some features of CME are internationally unintelligible because its lexical items have acquired new meanings and characteristics which are only understood among Malaysians. For instances, the word ‘open’ in ‘open the radio’ indicates switch on and ‘open the cloth’ means take off (Baskaran, 2005: 44). However, the ability of speaking English even if it is ‘broken English’ is an added

advantage for the man-on-the-street such as taxi driver, pedestrian pedlar, food hawkers, florist and food caterer to survive in this world where English has the global status (Baskaran, 2005: 20).

2.4.2 Studies on Malaysian English

Numerous studies have attempted to explain ME in different domains. Non-native features of lexico-semantic variations in ME have been studied by Anthonysamy (1997), Bamiro (1994) and Menon (2003). Non-native elements of English such as acronyms; ellipses; semantic shifts or extension; lexico-semantic redundancy and duplication; coinage; transfer; borrowing analogy; derivational and collocational variations are found in their studies. The diverse population in the multinational and multicultural country as well as the multilingual contexts has contributed to the lexico-semantic variation in ME.

Studies of ME in the genre of newspaper have been done by Romarani (2003), Tota Singh (2003) and Chalaya (2008). Their study have identified the types of lexical borrowing and the use of localised ME lexis in local English newspapers. Govendan (2001) investigates ME in creative writing and adopted Baskaran's (1987) English lexemes with Malaysian English usage. He concluded that ME lexis was used extensively in creative writing.

Another related study is Firdaus's (2009) study on teachers' opinion regarding acceptability of Malaysian English lexis in formal and informal situations. Firdaus (2009) adopted ten of Menon's categories and uses sample sentences from Menon's

corpus as the data of her study. Firdaus (2009) concludes that all the categories of Menon were accepted either in the formal or informal context.

This study looks at the ME lexicalization in blogs and attempts to fill the gap of Firdaus's (2009) study in terms of the variety of English used besides the context of encounter and usage. The researcher has first selected the sample English which resemble ME from blogs. Then the researcher studies the perceptions of ESL teachers and postgraduate students on the variety of the samples selected. Subsequently, the consistency between the variety as being perceived and the context of encounter and context of usage are examined. The study of types of context encounter and usage has added validity to the usage of ME in the formal and informal context, which termed as 'the acceptability of ME' as proposed as by Firdaus (2009). The findings have proved that most of Menon's categories were ME and used in informal context.

2.5 Studies on Malaysian English Lexis

Menon (2003) has combined and adapted previous categories of other researchers and developed 13 lexico-semantic categories. The present researcher adopted Menon's lexico-semantic categories as the framework for this study of ME lexicalization and nine categories were found among the ten selected blogs.

The nine categories found were:

1. Lexico – semantic Reduplication
2. Lexico – semantic Redundancy
3. Lexico – semantic Substitution

4. Semantic Shift
5. Semantic Extension
6. Semantic Transfer from Mother Tongue
7. Local Compound Coinage
8. Ellipsis
9. Derivational variation

2.5.1. Lexico – semantic Reduplication

Anthony Samy (1997) explains ‘Lexico-semantic Reduplication’ as the repetition of words juxtaposed within the same sentence, as in ‘long-long time ago’ and ‘different-different countries’. Menon (2003) has developed four new sub-categories, namely ‘Juxtaposed Reduplication’, ‘Non-juxtaposed Reduplication’, ‘Root-Sound Reduplication’ and ‘Lexical ‘Double Effects’’. Menon (2003) also explains the three main purposes of Lexico-semantic Reduplication.

According to Menon (2003), the first purpose is to show a sense of intensity, as in the example ‘He was a very very young man.’ Second purpose is to show a sense of abundance, as the example of non-native repetition of ‘beehive beehive’ discussed by Platt and Weber (1990) in the study of Singaporean English. Lastly, it can show the sense of frequency as in the example ‘I think it over and over.’

2.5.2. Lexico – semantic Redundancy

Bamiro (1994:51) has used ‘Lexico – semantic redundancy’ in his study on Nigerian English with reference to the novels of three prominent Nigerian authors, while

Anthony'samy (1997:87) and Menon(2003) have used it in their studies on ME. Bamiro and Anthony'samy's definition were similar, which it is referred as duplication of lexical items belongs to the same semantic field. Bamiro added that it also functions as superfluous modifier for emphasis, as in 'I have no time to fun fool around with anybody' to mean 'to fool around' (Bamiro, 1994:51).

Menon (2003) in her framework of 13 lexico-semantic categories has adapted Anthony'samy's (1997) lexico-seantic Redundancy and sub-divided it into redundant synonym, redundant superordinates and redundant expressions. Redundant synonym happens when a word which was mentioned earlier is reduplicated. An example of the redundant synonym is 'I will go on a fasting diet' which the word 'fasting' seems to be redundant as 'diet' implies to some extent of the concept of 'fasting' (Menon, 2003:129).

According to (Menon, 2003:143), the example of 'Even though the cost is a bit expensive', the subordinate term 'expensive' is said as redundant in native English because it covers the superordinate term 'cost' which can be replaced by 'it'. However, from the viewpoint of ME user, Firdaus (2009) sees this sentence as the direct translation from Malay language "Walaupun kosnya agak mahal".

2.5.3. Lexico – semantic Substitution

Menon's (20003) study of non-native lexis of ME has proved that lexical Substitution is used frequently by Malaysians, and it refers to words that sound similar to the native word but have totally different meaning from the appropriate one. She adapted Crewe's category of 'Similar Word Confusion' in her framework of 13 lexico-semantic

categories and has sub-categorised this category into two categories, namely, 'Similar Word Substitution' and 'Similar Expression Substitution'.

One of the examples for Similar Word Substitution in Menon (2003: 157) is 'She is easily available.' The word 'accessible' has been substituted by 'available'. The speaker "was praising someone who had been very helpful to others and had meant that she was 'accessible' or could be contacted at any time" (Menon, 2003: 159). Another example for Similar Expression Substitution is 'I declare that this conference has come to an end.' The expression 'come to an end' appears non-native and could be replaced by 'officially closed (Menon, 2003: 159).

2.5.4. Semantic Shift

In Cameroon English, lexico semantic shift is considered as the remarkable type of lexical innovation which the words acquire a meaning altogether different to its original meaning (Bobda, 1994). In the study of ME by Anthony Samy (1997:78), 'Semantic Shift or Extension' refers to the meaning of lexical items have been restructured, shifted or extended. She explains three possible reasons for the acquisition of new meaning or shifted meaning of lexical items. The main reason was because of the Malaysian value, system and life style. By referring to Menon (2003), 'baby-sitter' in Malaysia context means someone who is responsible to take care of the children during the parents' working hour. However, the original meaning is someone who paid to look after a baby for a short period of time.

Another reason for the shifted of meaning in ME is to fit into the Malaysian context. In ME, 'not up to date' means 'unsatisfactory in up keeping' while the dictionary's

explanation is 'it is not the newest of its kind or latest information' (Menon, 2003). Besides, the meaning is extended in ME to cover other lexical item of the standard variety. For example, 'price' which refers to 'the amount of money that one must pay' is extended to mean 'fare' and 'rate' in ME (Anthony, 1997:78).

Menon (2003: 267) who explains semantic shift as lexical items that have lost their native meaning and show the non-native variations in ME have sub-categorised them into 'Denotative Semantic shift' and 'Connotative Semantic Shift'. 'Denotative Semantic shift' involves variation in meaning as in the example 'itinerary' which means 'the plan of a journey where the route and the places that will be visited' have shifted to mean 'items on a dinner programme' in ME. 'Connotative Semantic Shift' involves variations in connotative meanings when used in a non-native meaning. In native English, 'eyes' means looks at someone carefully or suspiciously, but it means sets a target to achieve a goal in ME (Menon 2003: 267).

2.5.5. Semantic Extension

Platt and Weber (1980) refer this category as 'meaning changes' as the standard English word is used with the original meaning and the extended meaning which was not originated from Standard English. Baskaran (1987:44) who found this feature in her study uses the term 'Polysemic Variation' to refer to Standard English lexemes that have retained the original meaning and have acquired some extended non-native meanings. One of the examples of such semantic extension is the verb 'cut' which means overtake vehicle when driving, besides the original meaning of slicing.

The term ‘Semantic Extension’ is used by Menon (2003) in her study of non-native features in ME lexis. Examples of this in her study are ‘deep in my heart I want you to be a better person’ and ‘I’ll guarantee you you’ll improve to be a better person than who you are today’ (Menon 2003: 314). The meaning of ‘better’ in the two examples has been extended to indicate ‘more accomplished’ or materially successful in life, whereby the word is used as a comparative form of good in native English.

Bobda (1994) also uses this term in his study of non-native Cameroon English. However, one of the examples given was taken from ME and also used by Malaysians. I have given the shopkeeper a 5,000F note and I am still waiting for the balance. In Malaysian context, balance refers to ‘change of money’.

2.5.6. Semantic Transfer from Mother Tongue

‘Loan translation’ or ‘Calques’ is used by Heah (1989) while ‘translation equivalents’ is used by Bamiro (1994) to refer to English language equivalent of translation from the mother tongue. Anthonysamy (1997:81) who uses ‘Semantic transfer’ in her study defines it as words that share similar meaning with Standard English but the usage was different in that context. ‘Put down the window’ is one of the lexical items which was directly translated from Malay language as in ‘turunkan cermin kenderaan’ where wind down the windscreen was more appropriate (Anthonysamy , 1997:81).

Menon (2003:249) has subcategorised the elements of ‘Semantic Transfer from Mother Tongue’ into ‘Semantic Underdifferentiation’, ‘Word Omission’ and ‘Loan omission’. Synonyms of native adjective are used in ‘semantic underdifferentiation’ as there are

fewer terms for the same entities in the vernacular language. For instance, the word 'higher' in the example 'Can you make the fan 'higher?'' means 'faster' in mother tongue.

Besides, omission of words is common in this category as the equivalent could be considered as redundant in mother tongue. For example, 'don't play water' is direct translation from Mandarin, where the preposition 'with' is omitted. On the other hand, 'Loan translation' in the translation of local idioms from mother tongue to English, as the example 'Don't twist and turn your story' quoted from Menon (2003:258). This is the translation from Malay language 'Jangan memutar belitkan cerita itu).

2.5.7. Local compound Coinage

Bobda (1994), Anthonysamy (1997) and Menon (2003) look at local compound coinage from different aspect and use different terms for this category. Bobda (1994:257) terms it as 'Intralingual Compounds' which involve elements of English without influence of other languages. However, Anthonysamy (1997:68) refers it as 'Coinages or Neologism' in which the lexical items are creatively compounded and carry nativized meaning.

According to Anthonysamy (1997:68), there are three types of innovations, namely, the existing lexical stock in English with new meaning, existing lexical stock in mother tongue and the hybrid of lexical stock of local languages and English. The example for the existing lexical stock in English with new meaning is 'eating stall' which refers to stalls that sell snack and complete meal. The use of Malay titles in ME is representative

of the existing lexical stock in mother tongue while ‘chilipadi’ is the example for the hybrid of lexical stock of local languages and English.

Menon(2003:261) found that the emergence of ‘local compound coinage’ may due to the Malaysian lifestyle habit and socio-cultural value of attitudes. The example ‘look see’ can show the Malaysians lifestyle habit where they like to look around at the shopping complex without buying much. Besides, Malaysians tend to have negotiations between two parties to solve a dispute, therefore the coinage of ‘table talk’ or ‘slow talk’ occur.

2.5.8. Ellipsis

In ellipsis, certain lexical items which would normally be present in the native English are omitted (Menon, 200:335). Menon has sub-divided ‘Ellipsis’ into nine categories, but only four of them are discussed due to the scope of this study. They are :-

- (i) Word Omission from Multi-word Units
- (ii) Omission of Preposition form Phrasal Verbs
- (iii) Omission of Preposition
- (iv) Omission of Pronoun

Menon (2003:336) mentions that lack of awareness of appropriateness of the original word-units and lack of attention to details, namely the original words of expressions could be the main reasons for the ‘Word Omission from Multi-word Units’. In this category, certain words from native multi-word units used in spoken discourse are omitted. In the example “after they say good-bye, they parted \.” The word that has been omitted is ‘ways’.

On the other, omission of preposition from phrasal verbs is very common. It is reflected in the example “...so t won’t cater \wedge all the students” in which the preposition ‘to’ is omitted in the phrasal verb ‘cater to’. Besides, the omission of preposition at the sentence level is shown in the example “I applied \wedge this course” which the proposition ‘for’ is missing. Omission of pronoun is shown in the example “it not worth \wedge going into it at this time.” The pronoun ‘it’ is present in the correct sentence (Menon, 2003:336).

2.5.9. Derivational Variation

Menon (2003) defines ‘Derivational variation’ as non-native affixation whereby the words are creatively changed to verbs in ME through affixation. However, these creative creations are considered as error in native English. She has created eight sub-categories of Derivational Derivation, namely ‘Non-native Abstract Noun’, ‘Non-native Personal Noun’, ‘Non-native Adjective’, ‘Non-native Superlative’, ‘Non-native Adverb’, ‘Non-native Verb Creation’, ‘Derived Irregular Verbs’ and ‘Truncated Derivatives’.

Among all the derivational variations, the non-native verb creative is most frequently used in ME, for example ‘Well, car-pooling is alright, but ideally we should promote bicycling.’ (Menon, 2003:365). The word ‘bicycling’ is a non-native gerund used by Malaysian, whereby the native speakers would say ‘bicycle ride’ or ‘riding a bicycle’.

This category is also used in Cameroon English which it is referred to ‘Derivation’ by Bobda (1994). ‘Destool’ means to remove somebody from his post is an example of prefixation, ‘lengthily’ which refers to ‘at length’ is example of suffixation. Besides, ‘to

chairman' means 'is presided over' is under 'Conversion' while 'edit' which refers to a short form of editor is an example of 'Back Derivation'.

2.6 Blogs

'Weblog' first emerged as a unique form in the World Wide Web for over a decade. According to Tan & Ibrahim (2008), the terms were initially adopted to identify websites with particular look and feel like a live journal with a format dated entries. Today, the blogs are normally linked with "short-term journals" as the manifestation by the birth of Blogger (the web-based tool for blogging)

According to Bhatt (2005) who cites the *Routledge Encyclopedia of Narrative Theory*, the definition of weblog or blog is adopted from a blogger named Jill Walker. He defines Weblog or blog as websites with dated entries in the chronological orders and frequently updated by the bloggers. Generally, the owner of blogs are able to publish texts, images, audio, video, and other forms of multimedia on the internet by using free web-based applications such as Blooger, Live Journal, Xanga and so on. Blogs are mainly used for writing personal diaries, and now it extends to any purposes ranging from marketing products, fan page to writing fiction (Bhatt, 2005).

Mayfield (2004) proposes that the types of network developing among weblogs can be divided into creative, social and political networks. According to Mayfield (2001), top-ranking blogs are very influential, whereas blogs from social networks may receive more attention than the other; while creative networks usually renowned among few close-knit members. Blogs are said as potentially powerful because the information is able to transcend boundaries between Mayfield's clusters.

Ooi (2007) has done a related study of ME on online communication. His study shows that ME is highly used and represented from the perspectives of both online chatrooms and weblogs (blogs). According to him, understanding the nature of cyber English could add advantages in the understanding of the global nature and spread of English, including the Internet.