NATIVISATION OF MALAYSIAN ENGLISH LEXIS BY MALAYSIAN INDIAN PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHERS

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Abstract

Malaysian English (MalE), one of the non-native varieties of English, has reached the nativisation phase (Schneider, 2003, 2007) where lexico-grammatical restructuring mostly occurs. While previous finding are mostly based on spoken data, the mass media, literary works or a mixture of the aforementioned sources, the written language of young Malaysian adults has not been extensively researched. This study seeks to describe the nativisation of MalE lexis in four contexts of writing, and determine the differences in usage of nativised lexis in these contexts of writings. The primary data was obtained from nineteen pre-service English teachers of Indian ethnicity undergoing a foundation course in a teacher training institute. Within seven weeks, three sets of writing tasks were given to participants. In each set of task, they were asked to write a narrative essay and then to write about the same topic but in a formal context. These essays were analysed using Baskaran's (1994, 2005), Ooi's (2001) and Anthonysamy's (1997) frameworks. Then the extracted data were analysed for the differences of usage using four methods: contextual cushioning, flagging, outer/inner frame and number of MalE lexis per text per 1000 words. A secondary data, a questionnaire, was conducted on the same nineteen pre-service English teachers and six language educators to represent educated adult MalE users. Though based on a small sample, the findings corroborated the documented findings about MalE lexis and provided an in depth study of the differences of usage of the MalE lexis in the writings of educated young adult Malaysians and a way to refine Baskaran's (2005) broad and general description of MalE lectal continuum by incorporating Ooi's (2001) concentric model as the criteria for the three levels of lexical description.

Abstrak

Bahasa Inggeris Malaysia (Malaysian English) merupakan salah satu Bahasa-bahasa Inggeris Dunia (World Englishes) yang telah mencapai fasa pengaslian atau 'nativisation phase' (Schneider, 2003, 2007) di mana proses penstrukturan semula leksikal-nahu berlaku. Hasil dapatan kajian terdahulu kebanyakannya menggunakan data lisan, media massa, hasil penulisan sastera atau gabungan data-data ini. Namun, data penulisan di kalangan golongan awal dewasa Malaysia masih kurang diselidik. Kajian ini berhasrat mengenalpasti pengaslian leksis Bahasa Inggeris Malaysia dalam empat konteks penulisan, dan mengenalpasti perbezaan penggunaan leksis yang diaslikan di dalam penulisan-penulisan tersebut. Data utama dikutip dari sembilan belas orang guru pra-perkhidmatan Bahasa Inggeris berketurunan India yang mengikuti kursus persediaan di sebuah institut pendidikan guru. Dalam tempoh tujuh minggu, tiga set kerja penulisan diberikan kepada peserta. Dalam setiap set kerja penulisan peserta diminta menulis sebuah esei naratif and kemudian menulis tentang tajuk yang sama tetapi dalam bentuk format penulisan rasmi tertentu. Esei-esei ini dianalisa menggunakan rangka kerja Baskaran(1994, 2005), Ooi (2001) dan Anthonysamy (1997). Data dimurnikan lagi untuk mengenalpasti perbezaan penggunaan leksis dengan empat kaedah: 'contextual cushioning', 'flagging', 'inner/outer frame' dan bilangan leksis Bahasa Inggeris Malaysia setiap teks per 1000 patah perkataan. Data sekunder merupakan soalselidik yang dijalankan ke atas sembilan belas orang guru pra-perkhidmatan Bahasa Inggeris yang sama dan enam orang pengajar bahasa yang mewakili pengguna dewasa Bahasa Inggeris Malaysia yang berpendidikan. Walaupun kajian ini menggunakan sampel yang kecil, dapatan kajian didapati menyokong hasil dapatan terdahulu tentang leksis Bahasa Inggeris Malaysia. Malahan hasil kajian ini menunjukkan dapatan yang lebih terperinci tentang penggunaan leksis Bahasa Inggeris Malaysia di dalam penulisan golongan awal dewasa Malaysia dan kajian ini juga

mengusulkan cara pemurnian rangka kerja 3 tahap deskripsi leksis Baskaran(2005) yang

agak umum dengan menerapkan model lingkaran Ooi (2001) ke dalamnya.

Acknowledgement

My deepest gratitude is expressed to a number of people who have assisted me in one way or another in this endeavour.

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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

The following acronyms and terms will be used in this dissertation and need some clarification.

MalE   Malaysian English

ME Type I   Malaysian English Type I (Platt and Weber's (1980) description of

              MalE that is equivalent to the acrolectal variety of MalE)

ME Type II   Malaysian English Type II (Platt and Weber's (1980) description of

              MalE that is equivalent to the mesolectal variety of MalE)

ENL   English as Native Language

ESL   English as a Second Language

EFL   English as a Foreign Language

SME   Singapore-Malaysia English (Ooi, 2001)

ESM   English of Singapore and Malaysia (Tongue, 1979)

SBE   Standard British English

OALD   Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary International Student's Edition

TCEED   Times-Chambers Essential English Dictionary

OED   The Oxford English Dictionary

NAmE   North American English

SEUK   Standard English of the United Kingdom (Tongue, 1979)

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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of Study

> *A living language is like a man suffering incessantly from small haemorrhages,*
> *and what it needs above all else is constant transactions of new blood from*
> *other tongues. The day the gates go up, that day it begins to die.*
>
> *H.L. Mencken, 1919*
>
> *(as quoted in McRum, Cran & MacNeil, 1986)*

In 1907, E.H. Babbit predicted that at the year 2000 there would be 1.1 billion English users spread all around the world (McRum, Cran & MacNeil, 1986, p. 336). This noted McRum, Cran and MacNeil were "a remarkably accurate forecast".

Recent facts from the Internet show that English is the most widespread language compared to any other languages. Native speakers comprised more than 380 million while about 300 million speakers use English as a second language, and about 100 million speakers use English as a foreign language.[1] Meanwhile, Schneider (2011, p. 56) estimates that English as L1 countries make up around 350 and 380 million whereas global learners of English vary between 500 million and 1500 million. Crystal (2008) even estimates that the number of 'speakers' of English might be somewhere around 2 billion by today. These numbers vary simply for the fact that the precision of the notion of 'speak English' is difficult to determine. Nonetheless, these numbers reveal that the English language no longer belongs to the 'core group of nations – England and America' and now in the 21st century various countries utilise the language for various purposes.

In Malaysia, nearly a third of Malaysians are English speakers, whereas half of Singaporeans are English speakers (Bolton, 2005). In the Philippines there are 48 per

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[1] English Language, "English Language History" http://www.englishlanguageguide.com/english/facts/history/.

cent while in Brunei, there are 39 per cent English speakers (Bolton, 2005). Gill states that "mastery of the language gives them (the speakers) additional strength because it enables them to reach out effectively to various other countries on the international platform" (2002, p. 16).

English has a special role as an official language in more than seventy countries. It is also the most widely taught foreign language in over 100 countries (Crystal, 1997, p. 3). Smith (1983, p. 7) states that English is the language used for 'international aid and international mail' and further provides two possible reasons for its high frequency of use:

1. Native English-speaking countries wield power and influence

2. Much of the world communication either comes from a native English speaking audience or is directed to such an audience.

Smith's second reason is made more relevant with the advent of the Internet, where English is the main language. English is the top of the ten most used languages in the Internet in 2010 with 536.6 million users[2]. The fact that the media in the Internet are overwhelmingly American in origin also makes the case for English as an international language all the more overwhelming[3].

McCrum et al (1986, p. 373), meanwhile, observe that with the presence of mass communication, English will continue to grow at two separate levels - International Standard (internationally functional) and Local Alternative (locally functional).

When English is used in countries with different social, cultural and linguistic makeup, new linguistic features begin to develop and become widespread, and systematic. This gives rise to non-native varieties of English (Platt, Weber and Ho, 1983). These varieties are different in their phonology, syntax and semantics as opposed to the established native speaker varieties. The variety used in Malaysia is known as

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[2] Internet World Stats, "Internet World Users by Language: Top Ten Languages" http://www.internetworldstats.com/stats7.htm .
[3] English Language, "English Language Statistics" http://www.englishlanguageguide.com/english/facts/stats/

Malaysian English (henceforth, MalE) and it is one of these 'non-native' varieties of English.

It was Hugo Schuchardt who initiated a study on language contact which examines the properties of varieties of English in India back in 1891 (Meshtrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. xi). It is only in the 1980s that comparative studies led to the emergence of a subfield called 'World Englishes', thanks to the work of many scholars, one of whom is Braj Kachru.

Kachru describes the varieties of English in three concentric circles. They are termed the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle (1988, p.4). MalE is grouped under the Outer Circle along with other non-native varieties such as Indian English and Singapore English. Since Malaysia was once colonised by the British (British English is one of the varieties in the Inner Circle), it was natural that MalE developed through the colonial education. It is also argued as the language was used in a new context, socially and culturally, it evolved into "distinct non-native varieties of English."

Mufwene (2001, pp. 204 – 206) posits that the way a country was colonised influenced the way English developed there. He suggests three categories: 'trade colonies', 'exploitation colonies' and 'settlement colonies'. Malaysia, for example is an exploitation colony. The new language is introduced through education to a local elite and in the long run is nativised under the decreasing influence of native speakers while its use is expanded to new, internal communicative functions. On the other hand, Gupta (1997, pp. 53 - 56) proposes a five-pattern category of how English is transported and their sociolinguistics effects: 'monolingual ancestral English', 'monolingual contact variety', multilingual scholastic English', 'multilingual contact variety' and 'multilingual ancestral English'.

As its status as Malaysia's 'second primary language' (Asmah, 1996, p. 259), the English language has tremendous presence. It is used in the society, in the education community, legal circles, commercial as well as private sector (Doshi, 2012, p. 21). In fact according to Asmah (as cited in Doshi, 2012, p. 20) the status of English has continued to be 'significant' while Norizah and Azirah (2009, p. 39) label this language 'neutral' as it is used by different ethnic groups and as such performs an integrative function.

1.2 The Nativisation of English

The term 'nativisation' was originally used to refer to the innovation occurring in pidgin and creole language studies (Kachru, 1981). It was gradually extended to variation studies where it refers to the adaptation a language may experience when it is used in a different cultural and social context. Besides the term 'nativisation', scholars also used different terms for the same process: 'acculturation' (Stanlaw, 1982), 'indigenisation' (Richards, 1982) or 'hybridisation' (as cited in Pandharipande, 1987, p. 149). While some scholars view the term 'nativised' as a synonym for 'indigenised', Meshtrie and Bhatt (2008, p. 11) suggest a distinction be made between the two terms.

However, in the context of this study, Kachru's definition that nativisation refers to "the changes which English has undergone as a result of its contact with various languages in diverse cultural and geographical settings in the Outer Circle of English" is taken (Kachru, 1985). It is inevitable that this language is adopted by the indigenous communities through the process of adaptations and innovations from indigenous cultures (Kachru, 1990, p. 20). In other words, through nativisation, the English language is made "our own" (Schneider, 2011, p. 4).

The process of nativisation shows the impact of the local languages on English as it is used in the new settings. It manifests itself in the sound system, vocabulary and

sentence structure. It may also affect the conventions of speaking and writing (Kachru & Nelson, 2006, p. 31). These new forms and functions are systematic and productive in the new setting but would be considered deviant in Inner Circle countries (Lowenberg, 1984, p. 3). The English in India is one such example. Much of the grammar and patterns of local languages have been incorporated in the new language by the local speakers thereby altering some aspects of its phonology, vocabulary and grammar. It is now recognised as a distinct variety of English – Indian English.

The nativisation of English also takes place when English is used by non-native speakers without the influence of native speakers in non-native socio-cultural contexts. Furthermore, this process occurs when the non-native speakers are in constant contact with local languages (Kachru, 1986, p. 21). Schneider sees nativisation as a process that has 'strengthened' English in many localities and that the local way of speaking English have been recognised by many users as symbols of regional identities (2011, p. 53). Bamgbose also observes that non-native forms of English are seen as "an expression of identity and solidarity" (1998, p. 5).

Moag (1992) also asserts that the English used in Malaysia has gone through a process of 'indigenisation' and 'institutionalisation'. This is evident through the high number of words borrowed from the local languages (Tan, 2009a, p. 451). Borrowing is a manifestation of how English is made to function effectively in a multilingual speech community which is non-Western (Lowenberg, 1986).

Most importantly, Schneider cites Malaysia as well as the Philippines and Hong Kong as countries with a variety of English undergoing the third phase or **nativisation phase** according to his Dynamic Model (2007, p. 48).

1.3 The English Language in Malaysia

Malaysians consider English as a language for social communication. It is used in informal context where the syntax and the lexis are influenced by local languages used in the country – the Malay language, Chinese (and dialects of this language) and Tamil, thus giving rise to a new variety (Gill, 2002, p. 27). Many Malaysians are not aware that they are actually using MalE. In fact, there are even regional variations (Platt and Weber, 1980, p. 22).

MalE exists in a 'continuum' ranging from the acrolectal (Standard MalE), mesolectal (colloquial) and basilectal (broken) levels (Platt and Weber, 1980, p.23; Wong, as cited in Maniam, 1998, p. 4; Baskaran, 2005, pp. 19 - 20). The acrolectal form of MalE is the level aimed at language instruction (cf Wong, 1991, as cited in Maniam, p. 4; Baskaran, 2005, p. 19). This form is "not *native* in that it allows for some indigenised phonological and lexical features but is *near-native* in so far as the synthetic features still hold" (Baskaran, 2005, p. 19). MalE is most apparent in the mesolect level which is the informal communicative variety (Baskaran, 2005, p. 20). The basilect is the 'stigmatised' form, or the lowest level of the variety as it is the tool used by those who acquire the language informally (Baskaran, 2005, p. 20). However, MalE speakers can shift to any of the three lects depending on the types of lects that they have in their repertoire (Morais, 2000, p. 90).

The description of MalE is most commonly done at lexis level. It is the cultural environment of the country that influences the lexis (Gill, 2002, p. 27). Anthonysamy notes the lexical items become more nativised when the topics are closer to 'home' (1997, p. 103). Baskaran's (2005) work reflects this. She states that "after almost two centuries of nurturing and over 4 decades of nursing, the English language in Malaysia has developed to become a typical progeny of New Englishes: a distinct variety in its own right (p. 18)." She also observes that previous works on MalE "have not given full

impetus on the structural features although it is this very sphere that the most significant differences make ME what it actually is (p.23)."

Proposing this view, the researcher believes there is a need for a closer and more current examination of the lexis, particularly the nativised vocabulary, which is the building block of any language.

Schneider further emphasises this (2003, p. 245-246), in describing his model of 5-phase characterisation of the spread of English, and describes how indigenous languages influence the English spoken through lexical borrowing, firstly through toponyms and later in the second phase, through the incorporation of local lexis on local flora and fauna and words for cultural conventions, customs or objects are adopted. Based on his Dynamic Model Malaysia is undergoing the nativisation phase. In this phase, restructuring of English at the level of 'lexico-grammatical' mostly occurs (Schneider, 2003, p. 48).

Non-native lexis is the sole linguistic feature accepted into English language universally. Based on his model, Ooi notes that 'Core English' has been using foreign words that are now accepted globally (2001, p. 178-179). An example of this is the Malay word *orang-utan* which was cited by the Oxford English Dictionary as early as 1631 (Schneider, 2003, p. 52).

Vethamani (as cited in Thirusanku and Melor, 2012, p. 8) argues that nativisation of English in Malaysia occurs in two stages. First, a number of local words which are culturally specific and have no English equivalents are being included into the English language by non-native English speakers. Second, English is used as a lingua franca amongst the different ethnic groups. According to Moag (1982) the English language was the preferred medium in discussing unfamiliar topics or topics that are linked to culture. One of the earliest attempts at describing MalE and Singapore English was that by Tongue (1979).

Formal and written MalE is modelled after the standard formal and written British English (Wong, 1983 as cited in Damodaran, 1988, p. 5). The Standard British English is also referred to as the exonormative norm (Gill, 2002, p. 46). While Baskaran claims that the mesolectal level is where MalE is mostly featured, Rosli and Ting observe that ME Type II (Platt and Weber's description of MalE that is equivalent to the mesolectal variety of MalE) is making its impact in formal use such as in seminars and in the mass media. This, they claim is due to the rise of Mesolectal/ME II type of speakers in many professions (1994, p. 71). Even Gill asserts that the declining quality of the English spoken particularly belong to the younger generation who have gone through the Malay-medium education system (2002, p. 53). While Wong defends the type of English used by Malaysians by stating that non-native speakers should never be ashamed using their variety of English (as cited in Thirusanku and Melor, 2012, p. 9), standards should be maintained for, ultimately, English is not just for intra-national communication. Its main value is for international communication (Gill, 1999, p. 218). Thus, international intelligibility should be maintained at the acrolectal level not only in the spoken form but also the written. Interestingly, Baskaran also observes that some informal features particularly lexical items have appeared in 'rhetorical official form' (2005, p. 17). It is in this light of assertion that an investigation into the MalE lexis in the formal form, particularly the written form among a group of young Malaysians should be undertaken.

1.4 Statement of Problem

Wong (1983, as cited in Thirusanku and Melor, 2013, p. 19) believes the acrolectal variety or standard Malaysian English is a close resemblance to the standard formal and written native variety of English and Vethamani (1997) suggests that the acrolectal variety is the acceptable variety used in schools and higher institutions.

However, with the non-linear progress of English in the education policy in the past three decades, it is interesting to know if this is the case today of the variety of MalE used by educated young adult Malaysians.

After 1967, the role of the English Language was reduced as the Malay Language began to replace it in most formal and public domains resulting in users being exposed to the language mainly through the media and formal education. The need for acrolect English declined and the lack of exposure allowed the mesolect and basilect to flourish (Rajandran, 2011, p. 27). This raises questions over the ability of the present educated adult MalE speakers to speak and write in standard English which is the desired variety for intra-national and international intelligibility. This is manifested in 'the complaint tradition' over the standard of the English language as mentioned in the Dynamic Model which continues to prevail in the country. It is these very conditions that lend this study some import.

This study is made more relevant by Baskaran's prediction that local terms will gain more currency locally and internationally, so that "dialectal as well as international features can be said to be recognisably Malaysian or of Malaysian origin" (2005, p. 43). The study will also provide insight into the extent of MalE lexis infiltration into the acrolectal variety of MalE that is supposedly to be found the pedagogical domain as well as the written mode. By examining the lexical features, we can better understand the tendencies found in educated young adult Malaysians. The findings can be documented and shared and incorporated into the existing body of knowledge in the field of World Englishes. Raising awareness among the academia and the Malaysian public of this matter may help to reduce confusion when using English for intra-national and international communication and may allow MalE users to differentiate MalE lexis from standard English.

The choice of pre-service English teachers as the sample is to show that this particular group of educated young adult Malaysians are increasingly using mesolectal forms of lexis in the written mode. Crucially, these pre-service English teachers who happen to be of Indian ethnicity are the products of having learned English under the Teaching of Mathematics and Science in English phase (2003 to 2011). This means they had more exposure time to English in the classroom. Once they go out teaching, their command of the English language will in turn influence on the much younger generation of MalE users. Therefore, there is a pressing need to pay a scholarly attention on the nativised lexis as they are used in formal contexts of writings which in turn may assist the academia and policy makers chart the course of the English Language in Malaysia.

The future of MalE lies in the young generation of MalE users, therefore it is important to take a look at how they use the nativised English lexis in their writings. Young adult Malaysians may be unaware of the lectal variety of MalE they are using and the appropriate social context for which to use such a lectal variety. Preshous (2001, p. 53) considers the localised English as highly valued as it is an expression of cultural identity and pride especially among young people. Rajadurai even argues that colloquial MalE is 'often the preferred choice' even among the educated speakers as it is a sign of solidarity (2004, p. 54). It seems logical that an examination of the lexical choices in the written mode of this segment of MalE speakers be done.

1.5 Research Purpose

The focus of this study is on the written form of the educated variety of MalE used by a group of Malaysian Indian pre-service English teachers in a teacher training institute. This study aims to describe the use of MalE lexis in different contexts of

writings and examine how the MalE lexis is used in the writings done by the pre-service English teachers.

1.6 Research Questions

In relation to this, the research questions of this study are:

1.   What are the **features** of **MalE lexis** that can be found in the **four contexts of writings** done by the **Malaysian Indian pre-service English teachers**?

2.   Are there any **major differences** in the usage of features of MalE lexis between these contexts of writings?

1. 7 Definition of Terms

The following terms are used throughout the study:

The term **MalE lexis** is defined using Baskaran's (2005, pp. 21-22) description where the MalE is described using a three-tiered approach which also correlates with the lectal continuum: Official Malaysian English (Standard MalE or the acrolectal variety), Unofficial MalE (dialectal MalE or the mesolectal variety) and Broken MalE (patois MalE or the basilectal variety). Her description is broken down into three types of linguistic features, which are phonology, syntax and lexis. For this study, only the description of lexis is used:

Table1.1: Baskaran's three-tiered description of MalE lexis (2005, p. 22)

Official Malaysian English	Unofficial Malaysian English	Broken Malaysian English
Variation acceptable especially for words not substitutable in an international context (or to give a more localized context).	Lexicalisations quite prevalent even for words having international English substitutes.	Major lexicalisation – heavily infused with local language items.

The term **features** is defined as characteristics of MalE lexis as described by Baskaran's (2005) Local Language Referents (use of local lexicon in MalE speech) and Standard English Lexicalisation (English Lexemes with MalE usage), Ooi's (2001) five concentric circles for nativised Englishes, Baskaran's (1994) morphological processes and Anthonysamy's (1997) transfer and acronyms.

The term **lectal range** refers to the lectal continuum of MalE based on Baskaran's (2005, pp. 21-22) description of the lexis that ranges from the acrolect, or the Official MalE, and moves to the mesolect variety or the Unofficial MalE, and finally to the basilect variety, or the Broken MalE.

The term **Malaysian Indian pre-service English teachers refers to the intake of students comprising of nineteen Malaysians of Indian ethnicity who are undergoing a 3-semestar preparatory course for the** Bachelor of Education (TESL) programme (*Program Persediaan Ijazah Sarjana Muda Pendidikan*) in Ipoh Campus Teacher Training Institute (IPG).

The **four contexts of writings** refer to, firstly narrative recounts of events based on three given topics; the second, third and fourth contexts are formal writings in the form of a complaint letter, a newspaper report and a magazine article. All of these contexts were prepared by the researcher.

In this study, **standard English**, is referred to the linguistic forms of Malaysian Standard English normally used for government, commerce, academic and journalistic writing, public speaking and on the mass media (Lowenberg, 1992).

1.8   Scope and Limitation

The research was approached using the micro-sociolinguistic point of view. The investigation was also driven by the interest in language description. This study focused on the area of lexis. The phonological, syntactical features were not examined.

Names of places and people were excluded in the analysis. The data was confined to the written form, specifically the writings done by these pre-service teachers based on tasks given by the researcher, and were examined qualitatively.

The nature of the study itself poses some limitations. Since it is not possible to study the whole population of pre-service English teachers nor can the study be conducted extensively due to time and other constraints, only one intake of pre-service English teachers from one teacher training institute was selected for a seven-week study.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Models of New Englishes

As English becomes global and widely spoken by non-native speakers of English, it is inevitable that the language "will become open to the winds of linguistic change in totally unpredictable ways" (Crystal, 1997, pp. 130-131). The emergence of varieties of the language has led to the research of varieties of English are either referred to 'New Englishes' or 'World Englishes' (Meshtrie and Bhatt, 2008, p. 3). A more recent term 'Postcolonial Englishes (PCEs)' is proposed by Schneider (2007, 2011). It is the work of Braj Kachru, whom Gill calls 'the father of World Englishes' that other varieties of English have received recognition (2002, pg. 27). The present study will hereafter use the term 'World Englishes'.

Whether in the field of World Englishes or English Language Teaching or Second Language Acquisition, there has been the categorisation of the English-speaking community anywhere in the world into 3 groups: those to whom English is their mother tongue (ENL), those who use it as a second language (ESL), and those who speak English as a foreign language (EFL) (Vethamani as cited in Thirusanku & Melor, 2012, p. 1). Schneider (2003) notes that the varieties of English can be classified into two categories, each having three classes. The first category distinguishes ENL or English as a Native Language (for example Britain, the US, Australia) from ESL or English as a Second Language (Nigeria, India, and Singapore) and EFL or English as a Foreign Language (for example Taiwan, Egypt). The second category is Kachru's Three Circles model where the three circles do correspond with the ENL/ESL/EFL classes (Schneider, 2007, p. 13).

The oldest model explaining the spread of English is by Strevens in 1980 (1992). This map-and-branch model shows a world map with inverted tree diagram showing how the varieties of Englishes are linked to one another. This approach has both synchronic and diachronic implications (McArthur, 1998, p. 95). Other models appeared in the later part of 1980s.
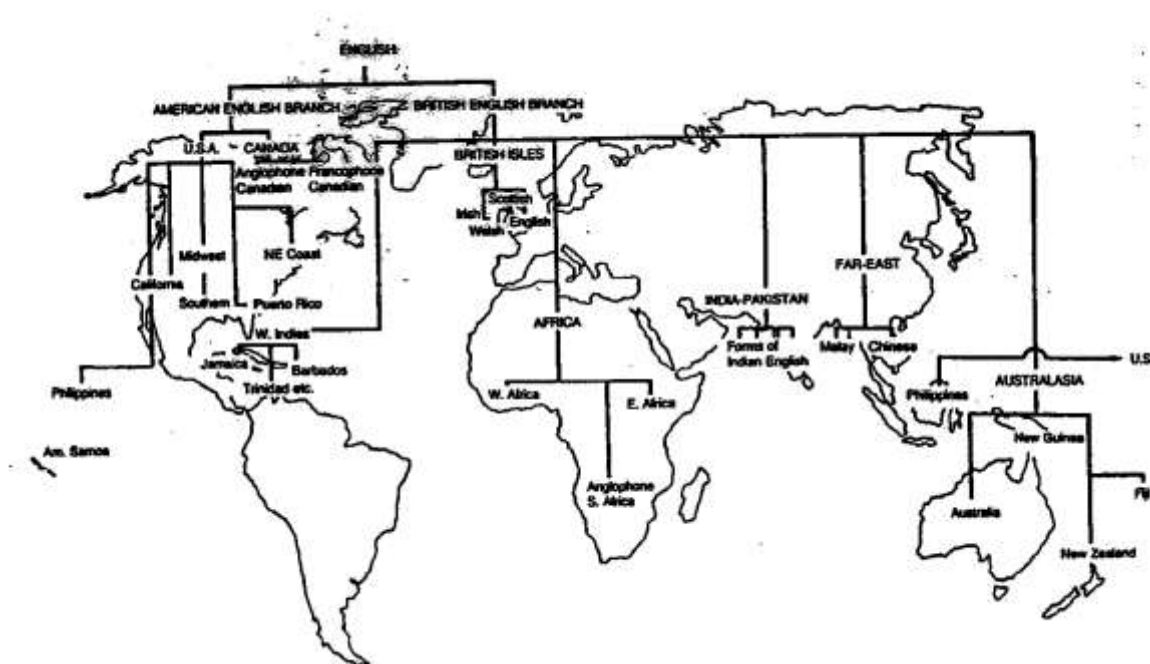
Figure 2.1: Streven's (1980) Map-and-branch Model

McArthur's "wheel model" came out in 1987. It conceives a 'World Standard English' variety, an idealisation which according to Meshtrie and Bhatt (2008, p. 27) can perhaps be best represented by 'written international English', though again the dichotomy of British and American norms continues. This model is not without its criticisms. A similar model to that of McArthur's is Manfred Görlach's Circle Model of English which appeared in 1988 (Meshtrie and Bhatt, 2008, p. 28), though less complete. This study will however look into three models in depth: Kachru's Three Circles Model of World Englishes (1988), Moag's Life-Cycle Model (1992) and Schneider's Dynamic Model (2003).

2.1.1 Kachru's Model of Concentric Circles

One proposed model is by of Braj Kachru who introduced his Three Circles Model of World Englishes (1988).
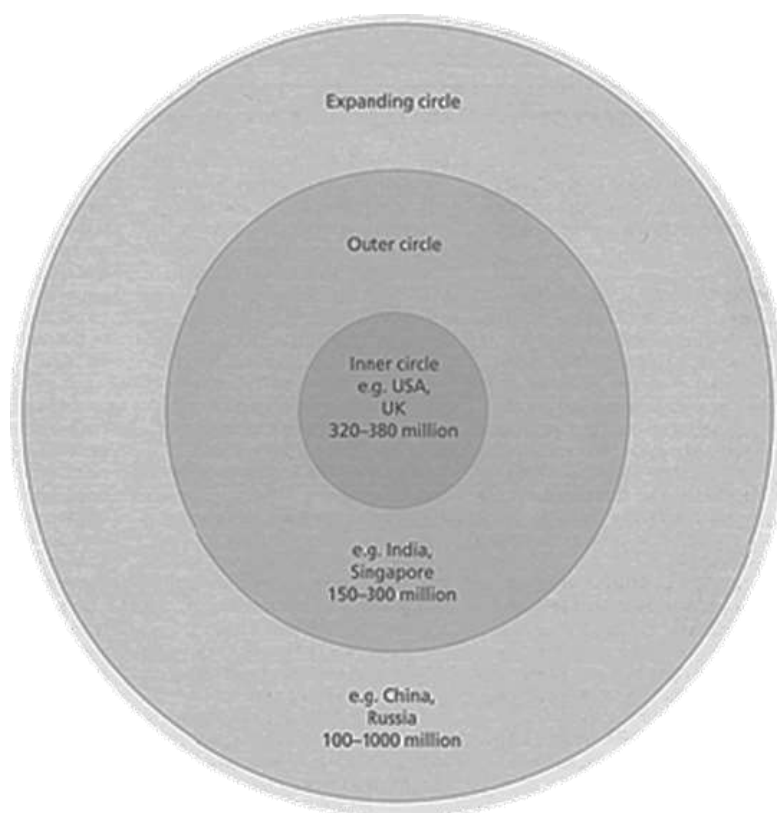
Figure 2.2: Three Concentric Circles of Englishes (Kachru 1994, p.1)

Kachru's three concentric circles attempt to divide the world according to historical contexts as well political (Meshtrie & Bhatt, 2008, p. 29). The innermost circle, the Inner Circle, is the 'traditional bases of English' (Crystal, 1997, p. 53). The second circle, the Outer Circle contains countries in the earlier stages of the spread of English in countries where English was once foreign and where English has become institutionalised, and where English functions as a second language (ESL). Malaysia, along with countries in South Asia such as Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, and some African nations such as Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, Tanzania, Zambia as well as the

Philippines and Singapore are classified as belonging in the Outer Circle.   Finally, the Expanding Circle contains countries where English is the main foreign language.

While this model has gained recognition, it is not without problems. The model does not explain varieties within a variety of English be it that of the Inner or the Outer Circle countries (Mesthrie and Bhatt, 2008, p. 30), and it is dated by now since there has been rigorous spread of English and changes of its status in countries which have made it difficult to place these countries into Kachru's classification (Schneider, 2011, p. 32). Jenkins (2009, p. 17) lists a number of changes, some of which are the increasing number of speakers in the Expanding Circle and the fact that about twenty countries are transitioning from EFL to ESL status. Nonetheless, Schneider recognises the value of this model for raising the self confidence of local varieties of English and influencing language teaching and applied linguistics in the Asian and African region (2011, p. 32).

2.1.2 Moag's Life-Cycle Model

Moag's (1992) descriptionl maps the historical development of New Englishes. It is a simple and 'interesting' model which gives a clear description of the dynamic changes occurring in MalE (Thirusanku and Melor, 2012, p. 4). From studying the Fijian English, five processes of linguistic development were identified by Moag and of that five processes, the first four phases are experienced by all varieties while the fifth phase is experienced by only some varieties of English (Thirusanku and Melor, 2012, p. 4). The first phase is called 'transportation', the second 'indigenisation', the third 'expansion in use and function', the fourth 'institutionalisation', and the fifth 'restriction of use and function'. The transportation phase is when English is transported to a place where the language has not been spoken before and the language remains in that place. The indigenisation phase is a comparatively long phase as the new variety of English begins to reflect the indigenous customs and culture. In the third phase - 'expansion in

use and function', the new variety is being used in more domains of activity and purposes. The growth in variation within the local variety is noted. The next phase, the 'institutionalisation' phase, is characterised by the local variety being used in schools. It is also during this phase that local literature will start to develop. Finally, the 'restriction of use and function' phase sees a decline in the use of English. Malaysia and the Philippines are the examples suggested by Moag that have reached this final phase. Both countries have promoted a local language as the official language resulting in a diminished use of the local variety of English.

It is interesting to note that Vethamani in 1997 proposed a sixth phase to Moag's model, 'reestablising of English' particularly in the case of Malaysian English (as cited in Thirusanku and Melor, 2012, p. 4). **Figure 2.3** provides a description of the modified model. This notion came about with the then-prime minister's vision of making Malaysia a developed country by 2020. In 2000, literature in English was introduced as component of the English subject for secondary schools (Subramaniam, 2007, p. 13).

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┌────────────────────────────────┐
│         Transportation         │
└────────────────────────────────┘
              ⬇
┌────────────────────────────────┐
│         Indigenisation         │
└────────────────────────────────┘
              ⬇
┌────────────────────────────────┐
│  Expansion in use and function │
└────────────────────────────────┘
              ⬇
┌────────────────────────────────┐
│       Insitutionalisation      │
└────────────────────────────────┘
              ⬇
┌────────────────────────────────┐
│  Restriction of use and function │
└────────────────────────────────┘
              ⬇
┌────────────────────────────────┐
│    Re-establishing of English  │
└────────────────────────────────┘
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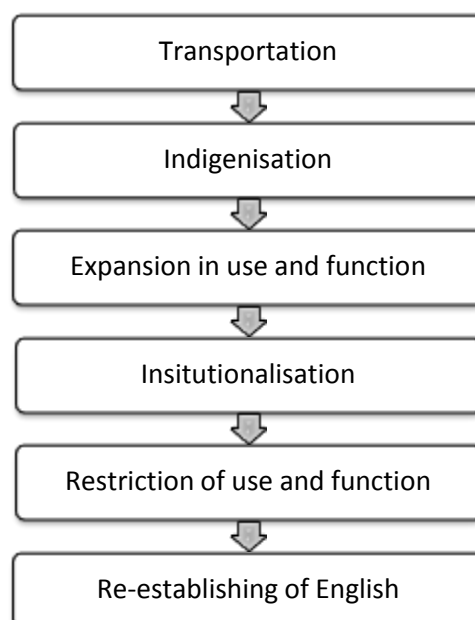
Figure 2.3: Moag's modified Life-Cycle of non-native Englishes (Thirusanku and Melor (2012, p.5)

The suggestion of a sixth phase in MalE remains unclear as in November 2011, the Malaysian announced the decision to revert the teaching of Maths and Science to *Bahasa Melayu* after the two subjects had been taught in English in schools since 2003. The rationale given by the Minister of Education was the move had failed to achieve its objectives and that the national language still dominates communication in the country. Pennycook was astute enough back in 1994 to observe that "the fortunes of English in Malaysia have waxed and waned and waxed again, and it never seems far from the centre of debate" (1994, p. 217).

2.1.3 Schneider's Dynamic Model

While Kachru's model is based on geographical and historical approach (Meshtrie and Bhatt, 2008, p.30), Schneider's model (2003, 2007, p. 32) takes sociolinguistics concepts where acts of identity are taken into account. Schneider proposes that the evolution of new Englishes involve five phases − **foundation**, **exonormative stabilisation** (example, Fiji), **nativisation** (example, Hong Kong), **endonormative stabilisation** (example, Singapore) and **differentiation** (example, Australia and New Zealand).

This model describes the sociolinguistic processes of the two participant groups, the settlers' or the colonisers' (STL) and the indigenous (IDG). Of the three models discussed in detail here, Schneider presents a more unified framework to track the development of the varieties of English in any country. This is because in every phase, the extralinguistic (socio-political) background, identity construction, sociolinguistic conditions and typical linguistic consequences (structural changes on the levels of lexis, pronunciation, and grammar) are used as parameters.

Schneider, like Moag, makes a special mention of Malaysia and the Philippines, two countries of which in his model have progressed into the nativisation (phase 3) phase. Socio-politically, countries under this phase have gained political independence or are working towards it, yet at the same time still "retain a close bond of cultural and psychological association with the mother country" (2007, p. 41). In terms of identity construction, the identity gap between immigrant and indigenous population reduces. The process of acculturation and linguistic assimilation occur due to widespread and regular contact. There is also an awareness of the deviance of language which will result in 'a clash of opinions' on the adequacy of the usage of the particular variety. This is known as the 'complaint tradition'. The most conspicuous linguistic changes are on the vocabulary level (2007, p. 44). Schneider observes that

> "the vocabularies of PCEs are characterised by lexical expansion … (including) borrowing from the IDG strand, coining new words using strategies of word formation, and adjusting the meaning of existing words to novel environmental conditions" (2007, p. 78).

During this phase too, processes such as new word formation, localised collocations and set phrases, and new verb complementation patterns take place (Schneider, 2007, p.46). Certain localised lexis might also be used with high frequency (Schneider, 2007, p. 91).

The speakers also have a marked local accent. In all, it undergoes structural nativisation. Schneider's categorisation of Malaysia undergoing the nativisation phase is reasonable. The frequent complaints on the falling standards of the language in the local English daily newspapers attest to this. There is also David's (2000) work that shows innovation among Malaysian youths in creating slang vocabulary and Leong's (2004) examination of Malaysian English in advertisements (Leong, 2004). Data from local English newspapers also show the presence of lexical borrowings from local languages (Malakar, 2004; Chalaya, 2007). These bear markings of the linguistic developments of a variety of the third phase.

While Malaysia has reached the nativisation phase as there exists a sizeable set of variety-specific words (2003, p. 262), the implementation of a national language policy has restricted the use of English. Schneider suggests that the cycle appears to become 'fossilised' (2003, p. 261; 2007, p. 57-58) meaning the developmental cycle 'stops somewhere along the road.'

This study will discuss the emergence of English in Malaysia in relation to Schneider's model in Section 2.4 of this chapter.

Table 2.1: Schneider's Dynamic Model (2011, p. 35)

Stage	History and politics	Identity construction	Sociolinguistics of contact / use / attitudes	Linguistic developments / structural effects
1: Foundation	STL: colonial expansion: trade, military outposts, missionary activities, emigration / settlement IDG: occupation, loss / sharing of territory, trade	STL: part of original nation IDG: indigenous	STL: cross-dialectal contact, limited exposure to local languages IDG: minority bilingualism (acquisition of English)	STL: koinéization; toponymic borrowing; incipient pidginization (in trade colonies)
2: Exonormative stabilization	Stable colonial status; English established as language of administration, law, (higher) education, …	STL: outpost of original nation, "English-plus-local" IDG: individually "local-plus-English"	STL: acceptance of original norm; expanding contact IDG: spreading (elite) bilingualism	Lexical borrowing (esp. fauna and flora, cultural terms); "-isms"; Pidginization / creolization (in trade / plantation colonies)
3: Nativization	Weakening ties; often political independence but remaining cultural association	STL: permanent resident of English origin IDG: permanent resident of indigenous origin	Widespread and regular contacts, accommodation IDG: common bilingualism, toward language shift, L1 speakers of local English STL: sociolinguistic cleavage between innovative speakers (adopting IDG forms) and conservative speakers (upholding external norm; 'complaint tradition')	Heavy lexical borrowing; IDG: phonological innovations ("accent," possibly due to transfer); Structural nativization, spreading from IDG to STL; innovations at lexis–grammar interface (verb complementation, prepositional usage, constructions with certain words / word classes); lexical productivity (compounds, derivation, phrases, semantic shifts); code-mixing (as identity carrier)
4: Endonormative stabilization	Post-independence, self-dependence (possibly after "Event X")	(Member of) new nation, territory-based, increasingly pan-ethnic	Acceptance of local norm (as identity carrier), positive attitude to it; (residual conservatism); literary creativity in new variety	Stabilization of new variety, emphasis on homogeneity, codification: dictionary writing, grammatical description
5: Differentiation	Stable young nation, internal socio-political differentiation	Group-specific (as part of overarching new national identity)	Network construction (increasingly dense group-internal interactions)	Dialect birth: group-specific (ethnic, regional, social) varieties emerge (as L1 or L2)

2.2 Errors versus Deviations

As discussed earlier in **Section 1.2**, the process of nativisation accounts for "deviations" in the non-native varieties of English. Kachru uses the term to refer to the 'linguistic and contextual nativeness' in the new varieties of English (1992, p. 61). A distinction needs to be made between a "deviation" and what one considers as a "mistake". Kachru says a "mistake" is when there is no justification for its existence in relation to the sociocultural context of a non-native variety, and it is not the outcome of the productive processes occurring in an institutionalised non-native variety of English (1992, p. 62).

A "deviation" is different from the norm. Brought about by foreign linguistic and cultural setting and a productive process marking the linguistic features of a typical variety, a deviation is systemic and not idiosyncratic.

Bamgbose terms the use of language which does not subscribe to native norms as 'innovations' and defines an 'innovation' as an acceptable variant whereas an 'error' is deemed as "a mistake or uneducated usage" (1998, p. 2).

Acceptance of innovations and deviations is important for a new variety of English to be recognised. Yet there is conflict between recognising and accepting these innovations and it is most evident in linguistic nativisation *(*Bamgbose, 1998, p. 6). Phonological, syntactic and morphological innovations are difficult to accept without the codification (where the usage is sanctioned) of this new variety of English. However, semantic and lexical innovations are easier to accept and according to Bamgbose, "even inevitable". Codification along with acceptance (the attitude of users and non-users to them) are the two most important factors for innovation to be accepted else these innovations will continue to be labelled as errors (Bamgbose, 1998, pp. 3 - 4).

Now that it is determined that nativized English has deviations, the next pertinent questions are dealt by Pandharipande (1987, p. 155), *"should we treat all deviation alike? Should deviation in creative writing, ordinary speech, and mistakes all be treated in similar fashion?"* She suggests a categorisation of deviation as depicted in the diagram below:

```
                          ┌───────────┐
                          │ Deviation │
                          └───────────┘
              ┌──────────────────┴──────────────────┐
        ┌─────────────┐                      ┌───────────────┐
        │ Intentional │                      │ Unintentional │
        └─────────────┘                      └───────────────┘
       ┌───────┴────────┐                   ┌────────┴──────────┐
┌────────────────┐ ┌──────────┐   ┌────────────────────┐  ┌──────────┐
│ Creative writing│ │Newspaper │   │    Principled/     │  │ Mistakes │
│                 │ │ register │   │  institutionlized/ │  │          │
└────────────────┘ └──────────┘   │   contextualized   │  └──────────┘
                                   └────────────────────┘
                              ┌──────────────┴──────────────┐
                        ┌──────────┐              ┌──────────┐
                        │  Formal  │              │ Informal │
                        │  style   │              │  style   │
                        └──────────┘              └──────────┘
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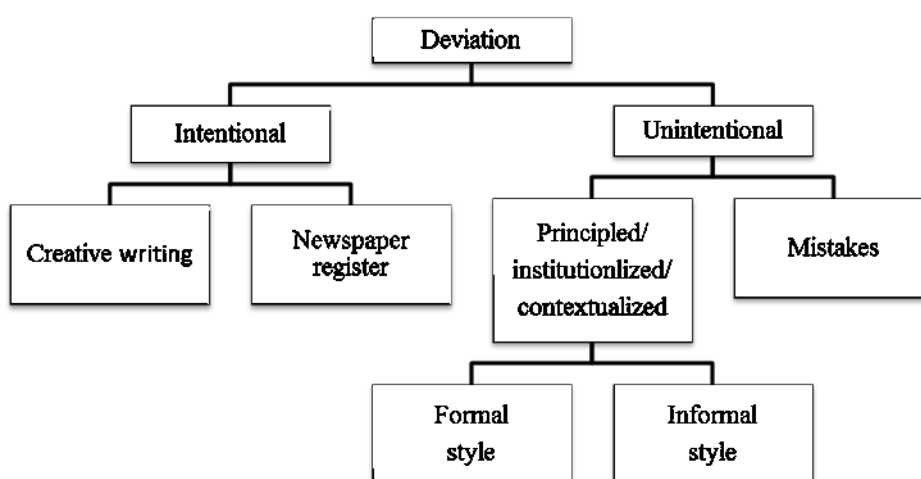
Figure 2.4: Phandharipande's (1987, p. 155) categorisation of deviation

There are two types of deviations: intentional and unintentional.   Pandharipande defines intentional deviation as the deliberate use of deviation for a particular purpose. This is evident in the creative writing in non-native Englishes where a writer employs deviation "as linguistic device to create an appropriate extralinguistic effect" (1987, p. 155). The unintentional deviation refers to deviations a speaker of a new variety of English does not have any control over and is unconsciously using them (1987, p. 156). The cause of deviation is unintentional transfer of indigenous structures into English. When these structures are commonly shared by a particular speech community, they are labelled as contextualised or institutionalised (1987, p. 152). This deviation is regular, systematic and productive. This study will examine both intentional and unintentional deviations.

2.3 Processes in Nativising the Lexis

Nativisation at the lexical level is where the "New Englishes best assert themselves" (Jackson and Zé Amvela, 2001 as cited in Hajar, 2008, p. 4). The presence of local lexis is necessary in World Englishes to explain the local "cultural and natural environments" where a variety of English functions and to fill a linguistic gap (Gramley, 2001 as cited in Hajar, 2008, p. 5).

It is relevant to study the process of nativisation on the lexical level as not only is the lexis "the least unified area" of any language but it is also the "most open to processes of systematic and/or idiosyncratic development" which may affect all or only some varieties of a language (Leitner, 1992, p. 215). Nativisation does not just occur in new varieties of English but it is "a process that can be traced back to the times of the Anglo-Saxons and that has turned English into a language with the greatest number of words and, at the same time, into one that is most mixed of all." (Scheler as cited in Leitner, 1992, p. 215)

A living language is always evolving, meeting needs of its users and lexical borrowings and innovations are the processes needed by any language users to use a foreign language to suit local needs.

Based on the discussions above, the researcher agrees with the need to discern the difference between error and deviation in light of World Englishes. Bamgbose (1998) is right in stressing the importance to recognise what he terms 'innovations' in order to accept a new variety of English. However, acceptance takes time from the general population of MalE users. Despite the fact that the English language in Malaysia has been used in an 'un-English linguistic and cultural setting' for more than a century, the researcher predicts that MalE will not move beyond Schneider's nativisation phase in the foreseeable future not when there continues to be tension between the national language, backed by nation building agenda and political might,

and the English language which many Malaysians have adopted as a language for social communication (Gill 2002, p.27).

2.3.1   Previous Studies on Nativisation

There are studies on aspects of nativisation in other varieties of English have been done. In Cameroon English, Nkemleke (2006) examines some characteristics of expository writing among post-graduate student teachers. He also looks at the writing styles of university students in their job application and complaint letters (2004). Chiluwa (2010) looks at the features and manifestations of Nigerian English in informal emails received or sent within a seven-year period from Nigerians of varying ages.

In Singapore, Deterding (2000) studies three possible influences of Chinese: lexical, syntactic and discourse, in the written English of Singapore by examining examples which were mostly taken from trainee teachers. Following Deterding (2000), Poedjosoedarmo (2000) looks at how Malay influenced the same three elements in undergraduates.

Pioneering research into the nativisation of the varieties of MalE are done in the area of the lexico-semantic and phonological by Platt and Weber (1980), Wong (1983, 1991), Baskaran (1987) and Anthonysamy (1997) (as cited by Gill, 1999, p. 218). Later research done in MalE are, for instance pronunciation (Pillai, 2008), and lexical borrowings by Tan (2009a; 2009b) who uses a newspaper corpus. Ramakrishna (2009) looks at how lexical borrowings are used as a stylistic device in 184 short stories written by Malaysians and Ramakrishna (2012) examines content words, titles and pejoratives in a series of published short stories. A dissertation by Anandan (2000) looks into the attitudes of teachers towards the use of MalE and Standard British English (SBE) in the language classroom while Noor Firdaus (2009) looks at the views on acceptability of MalE lexis between rural and urban school teachers. Malakar's (2004) dissertation

describes features of MalE in the creative writings of two Malaysian writers while Pritam Singh (2004) and Chalaya (2007) look into lexical borrowings and lexical variations in Malaysian daily newspapers. Leong (2004) examines the use of MalE in radio advertisements while Su (2006) analyses the lexeme 'handphone'. The area of intelligibility is also popularly researched (cf Pillai, Zuraidah and Knowles, 2012). Maniam (1998) looks at tolerance towards both spoken and written MalE among pre-service and in-service teachers while Damodaran (1998) describes the predominant lectal range and MalE features found in written compositions of a group of secondary students. Meanwhile, Ong and Yuen (nd) attempt to describe the usage and new meanings of lexical borrowings written by young adult Malaysian bloggers. Thirusanku and Melor (2013a) attempt to identify the dominant lect in the compositions of Form Two students and categorise the lexical borrowings found in the writings while in another paper they study the range of usage of standard MalE lexis of two hundred and three ESL teachers and attempt to identify the types of lexical borrowings from the main local languages in Malaysia (2013b). Jaya Balan's (2012) dissertation looks into the work of writer Preeta Samarasan for the use of MalE lexical terms.

The favoured data chosen by many local scholars has been literary works and daily newspapers while others used audio recordings, surveys, blogs and secondary school compositions. While they do provide the necessary data, the written data in newspapers and literary works have to go through the editor for editing. Therefore, the writings may not truly represent the actual language of the writer or participant. Using much younger participants may include the variable of learner error in the findings. Research looking into the attitudes, views and beliefs of a group of respondents is merely looking at tendencies (Black, 2005, p. 216) and not the actual use of the language. So far, however, there has been little investigation into the various contexts of writings of young adult Malaysians, particularly pre-service teachers.

2.4 Background of English in Malaysia

Any discussion on MalE is incomplete without looking into Malaysia's diverse culture and regional differences. The Peninsular Malaysia and the state of Sabah and Sarawak make up the country with a population of about 28.3 million. The Malays or the Bumiputras constitute the largest ethnic group (67.4%), followed by the Chinese (24.6 %) and the Indians (7.3%) and other minority groups (0.7%) (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2010, p.5). Dominant influence of the Malay language, as well as Chinese (and its dialects) and Tamil with their cultural diversity affect MalE. With the coexistence of these three major races, it is no surprise that a Malaysian usually possesses a verbal repertoire that consists of more than two languages and varieties of the same language. Each language has its own syntactical, semantic, rhetorical and sociolinguistics rules and conventions. As a result, institutionalised varieties of English in the Malaysian context have developed, where they are influenced by the cultural and linguistic contexts. This diverse population contributes to the 'rich tapestry' of MalE.

Gill (1999, p. 216-219) traces the development of MalE into three phases: **the dependent phase** which is the starting point of the use of English in Malaysia and it is characterised by its exonormative standard of the colonial master, **the independent phase** where the English language expands into Malaysian culture. This phase provides recognition for the use of a non-native variety of English for intra-national communication, and the speakers have confidence in using it. Investigations by scholars in the area of lexico-semantic and phonology have most often been based on informal, social contexts. **The pragmatic post-independence phase** is indicated by the use of English by Malaysian speakers in global context for the purpose of development.

The present study situates itself in the sociolinguistics framework, and based its perspective on the more recent and comprehensive model proposed by Schneider. Schneider (2007) places Malaysia as one of the nativisation-phase case studies of his

Dynamic Model (pp. 144 – 153).   The following discussion on the background of English in Malaysia is based on his approach.

2.4.1   Emergence of Malaysian English: Phase 1 and 2

Though it is impossible to give an exact date (Platt & Weber, 1980, p. 17) English was introduced to the country by the British in the then Malaya in the 18[th] century (Doshi, 2012, p. 18). During this period, the variety of English here is termed 'Singapore-Malayan English' (SME). Asmah notes that the presence of English in the country has been made possible by two processes, imperialism and voluntary acceptance (1994, p. 242).   In terms of formal education, English in education began in missionary schools, such as the first English school, Penang Free School which was open in 1816. Among the indigenous ruling class: the royal and noble families, the establishment of schools like the Malay College of Kuala Kangsar nurtured the children from these elite class to be civil servants and top administrators (Asmah 2000, p.12). Before independence, English had a prominent status in the British Administration therefore a language of the ruling class (Bhathal as cited in Rosli and Ting, 1994, p. 70). By the 1950s, English became the prevailing language used among the non-European elites as the language of prestige and power, and as an inter-racial link language (Lowenberg, 1986, p. 73).   Asmah (1994, p. 243) also notes that before independence "there was a small group of people with significant social and political stature who could speak English better than the tongues of their ancestors" making English 'an exclusionist-cum-divisive function'. Platt and Weber (1980) term the variety of English spoken by this small population of people 'Malaysian English I' (ME I). This variety is on the decline (Asmah, 1994, p. 244) as this small population of speakers grow older. In the 1960s and 1970s, the majority of English speakers were those who went through English-medium schools education. The situation changes in the 1980s and 1990s.

There are now a significant number of mesolect and basilect speakers of English owing to the change in the medium of instruction, making English as simply one of the subjects taught in schools.

The changing scenario is best depicted by Gill's (2002, p. 52) diagrammatic explanation of the changing number of speakers in the three sub-varieties.
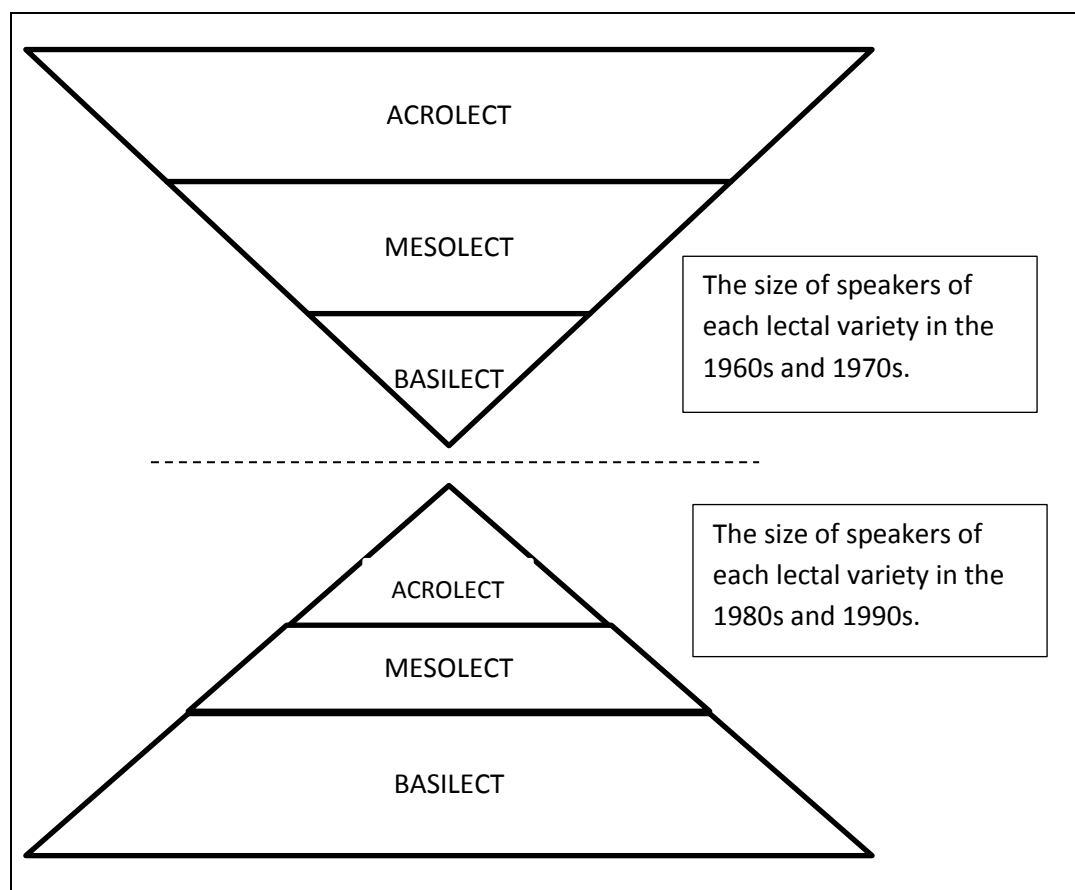
Figure 2.5: Gill's (2002, p. 52) explanation of the changing numbers of speakers of MalE

Sociolinguistically, the Chinese and Indians, along with the ethnic Malays are viewed by the global British perspective as the Asian, indigenous population. The upper-echelons of the Chinese and Indian communities are unified in their orientation toward British education and culture. Both communities have accepted English more readily than the majority Malays (Schneider, 2007, p. 147).

Schneider also states that the structural effects associated with phases 1 and 2 are applicable to Malaysia. This is evident in the earliest and enduring foreign elements

that entered the English lexicon. They are largely toponyms like Georgetown and Cameron Highlands. Borrowings of indigenous names of flora and fauna soon followed, as well as culturally significant names. The role of English was curtailed with the constitution of 1957.

2.4.2   The Effect of Malaysia's Nationalist Language Policy

With independence, English continued to be used as a co-official language along with Malay but there was a clear intention of making Malay into a national language after a transitional period. The official status of English was gradually removed beginning with peninsular Malaysia in 1967, in Sabah in 1973, and in Sarawak in 1985 (Asmah, 2000, p. 15). The National Language Act of 1976 accorded the Malay language the status of the sole official language and "disestablished English as the joint official language" (Gill, 2002, p. 25). It is also during this period, specifically after 1965, with Singapore becoming a republic and adopting a different educational policies and attitudes to languages that the English in Malaysia is viewed as a separate variety – Malaysian English (MalE) (Platt & Weber, 1980, p. 43).

From the government's standpoint, the move to deprive English of its status was logical and unavoidable, as Gill (2002) observes, for having two co-official languages would leave no room for the full development of *Bahasa Malaysia* (Schneider, 2007, p. 147-148). Beginning in 1969, the Ministry of Education implemented the new policy of turning all English-medium schools into Malay-medium and by 1983, the policy reached tertiary level. *Bahasa Malaysia* has now been regarded as a truly national language (Jernudd, 2003, p. 59).

Perhaps the sense of security and success of *Bahasa Malaysia* as the national language being entrenched in the nation that allowed a partial redirection of the nation's Education Act of 1996 where technical subjects were again began to be taught in

English.   There was resistance from the Malay intelligentsia. A major shift came in

2003 when the new English-medium policy for teaching Maths and the Sciences in

schools was put into effect. Malaysia's recent language policy changed again when it

was decided that the medium of instruction of these subjects was reverted back to

Bahasa Malaysia in 2011.

2.4.3   Phase 3 (1957 -)

Despite the challenges, Malaysia has proceeded "substantially into phase 3:

nativisation" (Schneider, 2007, p. 148). English is still popular and has gained ground

in the nation especially in urban environments (p. 149). In interethnic communication,

English still prevails. Gill notes that the mesolectal variety is the variety used in intra-

national communication (Gill, 2002, p. 52). In urban areas, English is being acquired as

a mother tongue by some Malaysians (David, 2000, p. 65).

English is highly accessible in terms of passive acquisition.   It is very common

in the mass media, through radio, TV, and newspapers (Nair-Venugopal, 2000, p. 48;

Gill, 2002, p. 85). In rural areas, small children acquire English, although passively,

through watching popular TV blockbusters (Asmah, 2000, p. 19). It is also noted that

even early informal learning of English within non-English speaking families does take

place through the influence of older siblings (Platt, Weber, and Ho, 1983, p. 9). Among

blue collar workers, the basilectal English is used (Morais, 2000, p. 104).

In many social contexts an informal register of MalE has clearly become an

unmarked language of everyday informal communication (Gill, 2002, p. 150). English

has lost much of its former elitist character (see also Gill, 2002, p. 91). In fact,

colloquial MalE in its natural settings enjoys covert prestige as noted in **Section 1.4** by

Preshous (2001) and Rajadurai (2004). MalE has also reached the state of being subject

to its own complaint tradition (Schneider, 2007, p. 151). Laments on "falling standards

of English" (Asmah, 1996, p. 520; see also Nair-Venugopal, 2000, p. 17; Gill, 2002, p. 53-54) are often printed in English-language newspapers.

Malaysia has undergone structural nativisation on all levels of language organisation (Schneider, 2007, p. 151). While some features are shared with other varieties, there are also features that may be unique to Malaysian usage. In terms of lexis, the local vocabulary has accepted borrowings from local languages (Baskaran, 2004, 2005), hybrid local compounds, coinages, banner words (Lowenberg, 1991, p. 367-369), and in-group slangs (David, 2000).

The emergence of code switching and code mixing as a communicative device is also another feature characteristics of the nativisation phase. Works by Lowenberg (1991, p. 372), Nair-Venugopal (2000, p. p. 55), David (2000, p. 71), and Schneider (2003, pp. 61- 62) attest to the role of code-switching as a 'positive identity carrier'.

2.4.4   Beyond Phase 3

Schneider notes that while it is 'futile' to claim that Malaysia has moved beyond phase 3, traces of later phases are observed. Halimah and Ng (2000) discuss the issue and possibility of accepting certain features of MalE usage as correct in the education domain. Gill (1999) calls for the development of endonormative standards, and Gill (2002, p. 28) argues for a possible codification of MalE, stating the need to develop "our own standards, for example, Standard Malaysian English." At the same time, she argues for the move to make educated non-native English as a pedagogical model (pp. 58 – 61) and the existence of a "pragmatic post-independence/endonormative phase" of MalE (pp. 69 – 71). There has also been a documentation of literary creativity in MalE by Ramakrishna (2009) and Jaya Balan (2012). A trace of codification is found though not yet in an exclusive dictionary of MalE, but together with Singaporean English, in the publication of the second edition of Times-Chambers Essential English Dictionary

(1997) which is now out of print, and with the presence of words of Malaysian origin in the Macquarie Junior Dictionary in 1999 and the Grolier International Dictionary in 2000 (Schneider, 2007).

2.5 The Lectal Continuum

An earlier description by Tongue (1979) classified the Singapore English and Malaysian English (ESM) into two categories. Standard ESM is the variety used by the educated group and in formal contexts and thus, it is internationally intelligible. The second category, the sub-standard ESM, is used by the uneducated speakers and in informal situations. It is intelligible intra-nationally.

Tongue (1979) views the English used in both countries as not a new non-native variety of English, but as a dialect which has deviated from Standard British English (SBE, henceforth).

Platt and Weber (1980) referred to Singapore-Malayan English (SME) as Malaysian English Type I (ME I) as the variety spoken by English-medium educated speakers who were taught English language which was modelled after British English. This could be used in both spoken and written formal variety of MalE. Baskaran (1987) describes this acrolect as 'standard Malaysian English' as it is internationally intelligible. Malaysian English Type II (ME II) is used by Malaysians who went through their formal education in Malay since 1971 (Talif & Ting, 1994, p. 70) due to the implementation of the National Language Policy (Asmah, 1994, p. 244). This type of MalE has pronounced interference from *Bahasa Malaysia* in many features, is more common in informal contexts, and thus is considered the non-standard variety. Platt and Weber base their categorisation on educational background and the degree of functional value that English still holds for the speaker (1980, pp. 167 – 170). In comparison, Benson (1990) labels MalE into 3 main types: Anglo-Malay MalE, Colloquial MalE and

Malay-influenced MalE. Anglo-Malay refers to the formal variety of MalE while at the other end of the spectrum, Malay-influenced MalE has a high tendency of code-switching.

With sociolinguistic approach the English as used in the Malaysian context can be described in a three-tier lectal range: acrolectal, mesolectal and basilectal (Baskaran, 1987, p. 4; Platt & Weber, 1980, p. 23). The acrolect is likely to follow the SBE although it does not conform entirely to the SBE pronunciation, intonation and it tolerates local influence to its lexis (Baskaran, 2005, pp. 17-18). This is the variety that is the norm in formal and official functions including language instruction. It is for international intelligibility as only slight variation is tolerated. In Baskaran's work, the acrolectal is defined as the standard MalE. Wong (1983, as cited in Thirusanku and Melor, 2012, p. 8) states that the acrolectal models itself after the standard native speaker variety of English.

The mesolect (the informal variety) is according to Baskaran "very much the Malaysian variety" because she notes that it is this variety that MalE "is most predominantly featured" (2005, p. 20). An average educated MalE speaker can easily switch from the acrolect into the mesolect which has systematic phonological, syntactic and lexical features. Wong states the mesolectal variety is "structured to promote social interaction and rapport among MalE speakers and listeners" (1982, as cited in Subramaniam, 2007, p. 16). More variation is tolerated; therefore it is for national intelligibility (Gill, 1999, p. 222) and intra-national communication between the various indigenous communities as a medium of local communication (Gill, 2002, p. 52). A speaker of MalE can move up or down the MalE lectal continuum depending on the range of his repertoire of sub-lects (Morais, 2000, p. 90).

The third lect is the basilect, considered as *patois* form of the new Englishes. It is also called bazaar MalE, or what Malaysians called 'broken English' as it is used by

'the man-on-the-street' consisting of limited English vocabulary, thus filled with a high degree of deviation in all lexical levels, be it phonological, syntax and lexis (Baskaran, 2005, pp. 18-20). It only appears in the spoken form (Baskaran, 1987).

Gill (1999, p. 223) in her study into the perceptions of the standard of English in the Malaysian workplace suggests that there is a need of a new category in the upper range of the lectal continuum – the acro-mesolectal category. This category describes MalE speakers with a marked Malay accent and a moderate variation of syntactical features. However, Gill seems to overlook the need to describe the variation in the lexis level.

2.6 Lexical Features of MalE

Nativisation can be realised in two ways: through the borrowing of words from local languages, and through "the more innovative process of creating new words from existing English words" (Hajar, 2008, p. 5). There are also morphological processes that take place that has been described by Haugen (1950) and others. In the next sections are three approaches taken to describe MalE lexis: the semantic approach (Baskaran, 2005), the morphemic approach (Baskaran, 1994; Anthonysamy, 1997) and the context-based approach (Ooi, 2001). Descriptions by other scholars will be discussed in relation to these three approaches. These descriptions concur with Kachru's (1992, p. 56) observations that the lexis of a variety of English have nativised in two ways: native lexical items will be used in localised registers and styles to place the language in its context; and English lexical items may acquire extended or restricted semantic markers.

2.6.1   Local Language Referent (Baskaran, 2005)

Baskaran (2005, p. 37) categorises the two types of lexical features. They are Local Language Referents and Standard English Lexicalisation, which will be discussed in **Section 2.6.2**. While the morphological processes in lexical items under Local Language Referents do follow the basic processes like borrowings and hybridisation (word blends and compounds), Baskaran foregrounds the semantic relationship of these words.

This category refers to the use of local lexicon, taken from the major local ethnic languages namely Malay, Chinese (and dialects of this language) and Tamil, and used in MalE speech. Baskaran explains that while using English translational equivalents could have been enough for non-native English users, "the degree and nature of the sameness of meaning (between the local lexeme and its English equivalent) is variable" making it necessary to keep using the local term (p. 38). She further divides this category into six sub-categories. The sub-categories are **institutionalised concepts**, **emotional and cultural loading**, **semantic restriction**, **cultural/culinary terms**, **hyponymous collocation** and **campus/student coinages**.

Institutionalised concepts, according to Baskaran (2005) are words that have no equivalents in Standard English and they become 'institutionalised', at least in local context, as attempts to paraphrase them fail to effectively and exhaustively convey the meaning that the local term has. She gives examples like *bumiputra*, *gotong-royong*, *khalwat* and *rukun-tetangga*.

Words categorised under **emotional and cultural loading** are borrowed words. If translated, these words would lose 'their culture-bound association' (p.39). These words refer to contexts not usually present in native English contexts. Words like *kampung* (village), *dusun* (orchard) and *pantang* (taboo) lend themselves a more Malaysianised character.

Semantic restriction refers to local words with possible English translations but is used in a 'semantically restricted field' (p.40). Two such examples of words under this sub-category are *dadah* (drugs), and *haj* (pilgrimage, specifically Muslims, to Mecca).

Cultural and culinary terms are local referents to culinary and domestic items which are specific to a local origin and ecology (p.41). Some examples are *durian* (a thorny fruit), *satay* (barbecued meat using a coconut-frond skewer), *angpow* (red packet of money given away during Chinese New Year), *kuali* (the wok) and *sambal* (hot chilli paste).

Hyponymous collocations are "the presence of local words collocated with the English superordinate term" (p. 41). Some examples are *meranti wood* (*meranti* – a species of hardwood used for furniture), *orang asli people* (*orang asli* – aboriginal people), *batik cloth* (*batik* is waxed printing in cloth), *path da bhog ceremony* (*path da bhog* – memorial service), and *syariah court* (*syariah* – court for Muslims).

Campus/student coinages, according to Baskaran (2005) have only entered MalE recently due to the transition of Bahasa Malaysia being the medium of instruction in education and its strong influence has helped to transport some local referents used among school-going and university students. Some examples are *lecheh*, *teruk* and *doongu*. The latest Malay word getting an entry in the Oxford dictionary is the word *lepak*.[4]

2.6.2 Standard English Lexicalization (Baskaran, 2005)

This second category of nativised words refers to English lexemes with local usage (p. 44). Just as other varieties of English, Baskaran observes that Malaysian speakers tend to use some standard English lexemes in a particular manner. She

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[4]http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/lepak?q=lepak

describes the lexical variation in six basic characteristics: **polysemic variation**, **semantic variation**, **informalisation**, **formalisation**, **directional reversal** and **college colloquialism**. These characteristics are viewed from semantic importance. Processes like semantic widening (**polysemic variation**), semantic shift (**semantic variation**), register shift (subsumed under **informalisation** and **formalisation**) are viewed through the semantic lenses.

Words categorised under **polysemic variation** are standard English lexemes that not only have the original sense of the English meaning but also an extended semantic meaning not found in standard English. One example is the verb *cut*. Besides carrying the original Standard English meaning of 'slicing', in MalE this word can carry different meanings such as 'to overtake a vehicle', 'to beat an opponent by points' and 'to reduce an amount of money'.

Other examples where the words have semantic extensions are *open*, *call*, *aunty/uncle*, *occupy*, *bungalow*, *shillings*, *chase*, *students*, and *outstation*. This categorisation is similar to **exaption** and is also called 'functional reallocation', in which a form is 'recycled' to adopt a new function (Schneider, 2011, p. 195). It is a cognitively motivated principle of language change. For example, in Cameroon English, *fit* is said to express a polite request (We *fit go sinema*? 'Shall we go…?').

The second category is Standard English words with **semantic restriction**. In MalE, these words are used in a narrower sense, confined to specific referents only (p. 45). Examples given are the words *windy*, *heaty* and *cooling*. They are applied to food and drinks. Other examples given are *tuck-shop*, *coffee-shop*, *five-foot way*, and *one kind* meaning 'weird or peculiar'.

Informalisation refers to the use of informal or colloquial substitutions of standard English words (p. 46). Words such as *kids* or *hubby* were observed by Baskaran appearing in headlines in local English dailies.

Formalisation occurs when MalE speakers use more formal words in an informal context (p. 47). Examples given are to furnish instead of to provide, witness instead of see or shifting house instead of moving house. Baskaran (2005) suggested that such use may be a "matter of collocational confusion".

In **directional reversal**, it is observed that MalE speakers tend to use verbs in reverse direction (p. 47). Verb pairs like 'go/come' and 'borrow/lend' tend to be confused as such pairings are absent in local languages.

The sixth category, **college colloquialism**, refers to nativised words used among the student population. They have localized certain Standard English lexemes for informal use. Instances of college colloquialism are clippings like *frus* (frustrated), and *sabo* (sabotage).

2.6.3   Anthonysamy (1997)

Anthonysamy (1997) shows that there are eight categories of deviation from native standard English. She bases her categorisation on works done on lexico-semantic variation in Nigerian English such as Edegbija (1989) and Bamiro (1994). They are coinages, acronyms, semantic shift and extension, transfer, semantic underdiffirentiation, lexico-semantic duplication, ellipsis and analogy. Because many of the categories are similar to that of the other researchers, only two categories - **transfer** and **acronyms**, are used in this study. **Transfer** (also known as *calque*) refers to words which are directly translated from local words by using English words. Some examples are 'low cost house' (*rumah murah*), 'open house' (*rumah terbuka*), and 'petrol pump' (*pam petrol*). Indigenous languages exert indirect influence by motivating calques, i.e. word-by-word translations. In Hong Kong, the phrase 'lucky money' is used (Schneider, 2011, p. 199).

The other, **acronyms**, are formed from initial letters of words that make up a proper name. They can be pronounced as sequence of letters like TNB, or pronounced as words, such as MAS.

2.6.4   Ooi (2001)

Ooi (2001) proposes a concentric circles framework to describe the types of English words used in Malaysia and Singapore (SME) based on a computer corpus analysis. According to him, there are five main groups "typifying the range of language use in so-called 'second language' or 'nativised' contexts where English is used in a stable, native-like manner by the local speech community (p. 178)." Ooi places importance on the location and acceptance of use in forming his framework.

In the centre of the concentric circles is **Group A: Core English** words group. This group consists of English words which are associated with the notion of 'Standard English'. Ooi notes that there are also many foreign words originating from German, Latin, or French that have now been accepted globally.   In terms of non-English words of SME origin words like *amuck/amok*, *sari* and *kowtow* have been incorporated into dictionaries.

Group B: SME/words of English origin/formal consist of words or expressions of English origin that "are accepted and understood by SME speakers in both formal and informal situations." Ooi notes that some of these words may gradually come into Group A over time, such as *amuck/amok*. Examples of words under this group are *airflown* (air transported), *cooling*, *heaty*, and *love letter* (a type of triangle-shaped wafer).

Group C: SME/words or hybrids of non-English origin/formal comprise words of "non-English origin accepted and understood by SME speakers in both formal

and informal situations." He also notes that the words under this group have no English equivalents. *Ice kachang*, *rambutan* and *songkok* are under this category.

Group D: SME/words of English origin/informal refers to "words of English origin acceptable in local informal situations (usually speech) only." Among the educated speakers of SME, these words are perceived as 'Singlish', 'Manglish', or 'errors'. Words such as *cut* (to overtake), *keep* (put away), and *playplay* (joke/tease) fall under this group.

The outermost circle consists of words under **Group E: SME/words or hybrids of non-English origin/informal**. Many words under this group are borrowings and are regarded as 'Singlish', 'Manglish', or 'errors'. Particles like *ah*, *lah*, or words like *kiasu* and *Mat Salleh* are some words categorised under this group.
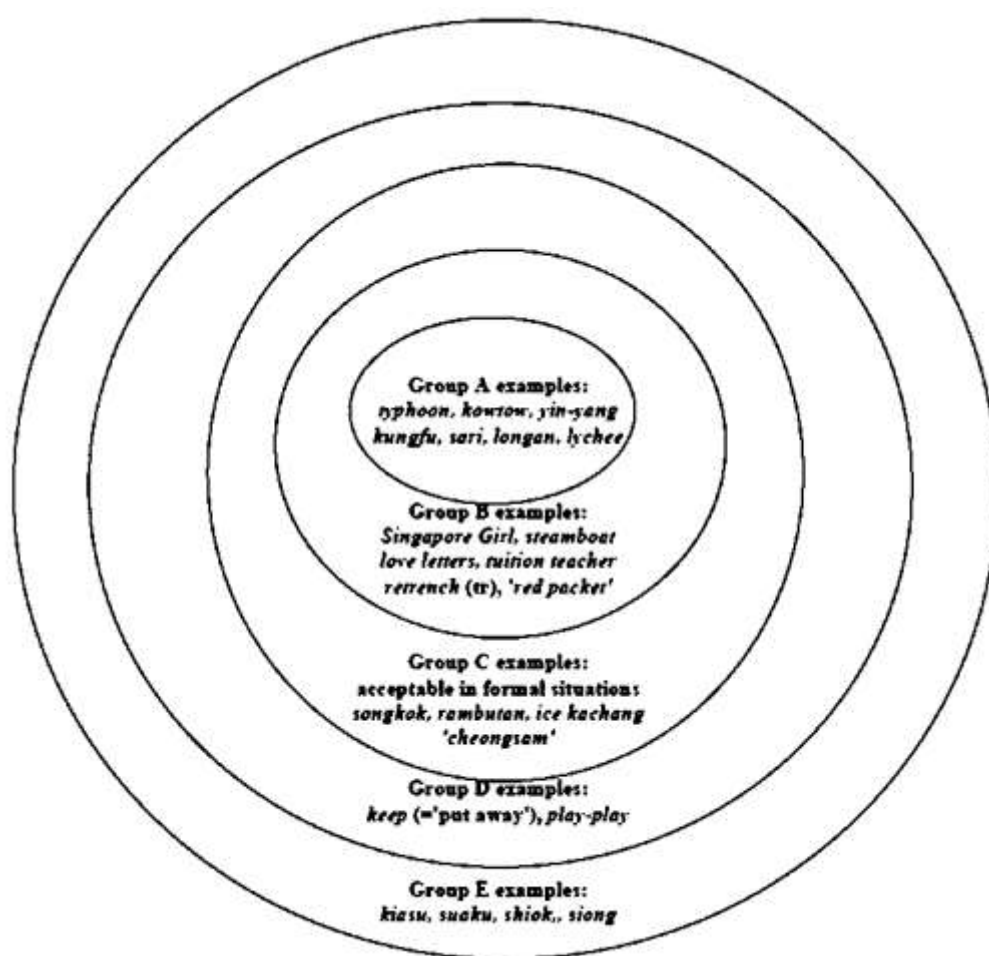
Figure 2.6: Ooi's (2001, p. 180) Concentric Circles of SME words

2.6.5 Baskaran (1994)

Baskaran (1994, p.31-32) describes the morphological processes of word formation in MalE. They are **compounding** (*police pondok*), **suffixation** (*datukship*), **pluralisation** (*pengarahs*), **past-tense inflection** (*jagaed*), **gerund formation** (*jagaing*) and **conversion** (*ulu*, *makan*).

It seems that Baskaran's (1994) description of morphological processes of the word level is clear and suitable for the study as the researcher believed it can capture the data in the written mode. However, the existing description fails to include the use of particle 'lah' or 'meh'. It is safe to presume that these particles will be less exhibited in the written form in the classroom setting. Some of Anthonysamy's (1997) categories are more suited to spoken data, for example lexico-semantic duplication. Baskaran's (2005) morphemic approach does not cover slangs, idioms and particles although her sources of data were varied and wide ranging.

2.7 Summary

So far in this chapter, models on the World Englishes, underlying theories such as errors and deviation, the lectal continuum and lexical features of MalE , the history and evolution of MalE and scholarly works related to this variety of English. The frameworks of Baskaran (1994, 2005), Anthonysamy (1997) and Ooi (2001) are also looked into.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 METHODOLOGY

This study aims to investigate the nativisation of MalE lexis in the writings of a group of Malaysian Indian pre-service English teachers. This study is exploratory and descriptive. It is also a case study as it examines a small group of young adult MalE users. In this chapter the methods used to collect the data and the framework employed to analyse it are described in detail.

The present study adopts a qualitative approach. In such approach a qualitative researcher examines things and attempts to interpret the phenomena and the meanings people see in them (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005, p. 3). The researcher aims to investigate the nativisation of MalE lexis in the written mode by a segment of a speech community in a natural setting. By gathering the data, the researcher could look for patterns and interpret the findings. The qualitative approach is also thought to be appropriate as the present study involves gathering and analysing a text database, which is typical of such an approach (Creswell, 2012, p. 18).

3.1 Source of Data

Acting upon the consent given by the Director of the teacher training institute, and the cooperation of a teacher educator, the researcher came to a decision to select a whole class of trainee teachers based on availability. Because the more senior pre-service English teachers were away for their practical teaching, a class comprising nineteen pre-service English teachers undergoing a 3-semester foundation programme for Bachelor of Education (TESL) was selected. It was pure coincidence that all nineteen pre-service teachers happen to be of Indian ethnicity. Furthermore, their teacher educator was the only one who responded positively to allowing the researcher

to conduct the study on her students. These nineteen participants would then be asked to produce essays based given tasks. It was therefore purposeful sampling because by selecting the site and the people, the researcher can develop a detailed understanding of the phenomenon (Creswell, 2012, p. 206).

Besides having essays as the primary data, responses from a questionnaire prepared using data taken form the essays were also collected. The questionnaire was given to two groups of respondents: the nineteen pre-service English teachers from which the primary data was collected, and six English language educators. The language educators are a convenient sample. They were selected by the researcher as they were willing and available.

3.2 Data Collection and Management

After obtaining permission to conduct the study from the Ministry of Education, the researcher proceeded to get the consent from the Director of the Teacher Training Institute to collect data provided that the data generation and collection would not interfere with lessons. With the teacher educator's assistance, prepared essay tasks were given to the pre-service English teachers (henceforth, the participants) through a course of three weeks during lessons called 'Language Development'. However, due to constraints of the teacher educator having to complete the course syllabus and college activities taking up class time, the essays were given as home assignments. In short, the collection process lasted seven weeks, from March 5, 2013 to April 19, 2013.

3.2.1 Task Design

In order to obtain data for the two research questions, the researcher decided to prepare essays tasks designed to facilitate the use of MalE lexis. The choice of topics was influenced by Nkemleke's observation that students write better and more

satisfactorily when the topic of their writing is related to them personally, while they find it more difficult to write when the topic is objective and is removed from them (2004, p. 28). Therefore it seems reasonable that controlling the topics may facilitate the use of nativised lexis. Furthermore, this can help the researcher to examine the difference of usage of MalE lexis, if any.

The researcher decided to choose three topics, areas of experience that have close proximity to the participants' own personal and cultural experience. These topics were an encounter with poor service (Task A), an account of a religious festival (Task B), and an account of the first month of college life (Task C). Relating an experience dealing with poor service was deemed a common occurrence which participants may have experienced first-hand or an experience which they may have obtained from a secondary source. Recounting a religious experience was also considered appropriate since at the time of the data gathering, the country recently celebrated some major Malaysian cultural and religious events, such as Christmas, Ponggal, Thaipusam and Chinese New Year. Furthermore, the participants were just into the second semester of their foundation programme. Therefore, the cultural and personal experience may still be fresh in their minds.

To generate the needed data, the participants were asked to write two essays for each topic. It is here that the different contexts of writing were incorporated. Table 3.1 depicts the three tasks:

Table 3.1: The Sets of Tasks and Contexts of Writing

Context	Topic		
	Task A	Task B	Task C
Narrative	Task A1: A narrative account where the writer experiences poor service.	Task B1: A narrative on how the writer celebrates a religious festival.	Task C1: A narrative recounting the writer's first month as a college student.
Different contexts of writing	Task A2: A letter to the editor complaining of poor service as experienced in A1.	Task B2: A newspaper report of the religious festival as described in B1.	Task C2: A magazine article on what to expect when someone becomes a college student.

The participants were already exposed to these contexts of writing in their secondary school education.   This is based on the Form Five English Language Curriculum Specification (http://web.moe.gov.my/bpk/sp_hsp/bi/kbsm/hsp_bi_f5.pdf). One of the Learning Outcomes is students are able to present information in many writing formats (ibid, p. 15). The selected contexts of writing demand more formality of language structure and, more importantly, choice of words.   By having the participants write a narrative on a topic, and then getting them to write on the same topic but in a different context, the researcher hoped this could facilitate the likelihood of participants making changes to the choice of words, particularly MalE words. The data collected from all the writings would help answer the first research question, while examining the difference of usage of MalE lexis between the narrative and the different context of writings would assist the researcher to answer the second research question. Furthermore, the two-type task design can help the researcher examine the participants' ability to change style and register, from informal to formal writing, thereby enabling the researcher to detect the difference in the use of the MalE lexis, if any.

3.2.2 Data Collection Procedure

Within seven weeks, three sets of writing tasks, each requiring the participants to write an original narrative essay and then to write about the same topic but in a formal context, were given. The six essays produced by each participant were then analysed using Baskaran's (1994, 2005), Ooi's (2001) and Anthonysamy's (1997) frameworks. The researcher expected to collect essays totalling at one hundred and fourteen from the nineteen participants, but some did not return the essays, and there were essays which were deemed not the original work of the participants. This could affect the result of the analysis and so they were excluded. In the end only ninety six essays were used to form the text database.

During the first meeting, the researcher explained the aim of the study to the participants. The participants then signed the consent forms and completed their demographic information. The researcher then distributed the task sheets attached with blank sheets of paper for the essays.

The researcher explained how the participants should go about completing the three sets of tasks. When the first set of task was given (Task A1 and A2), the participants were to attempt the narrative writing task first. Once done, they could then begin writing the formal writing task of the same topic. They could refer to the first essay of the same topic. The two essays had to be completed within the same week. The need for originality and the fact that referring to dictionaries were discouraged were also impressed upon the participants. These were to ensure that whatever MalE lexis found in the essays reflected the true MalE lectal range of the participants. The following week, the second set of task was given (Task B1 and B2), and the final week the third set of task was given (Task C1 and C2).

The teacher educator who teaches a course called 'Language Development' was entrusted with the distribution of the next two tasks and the collection of all the essays.

The tasks were initially planned to be given during the Tuesday and Thursday course sessions for three consecutive weeks. At the end of those weeks the essays were collected and handed over to the researcher. However, the whole process was stretched to seven weeks to complete due constraints such as a sporting event, a-week long English Camp, and a week of mid-semester holiday.

For triangulation, a questionnaire was used to gauge the acceptability of MalE lexis in the two types of writings. A close-ended questionnaire was designed and prepared using the MalE lexis obtained from the text database. It was then given to the participants and a small number of language educators. The questionnaires for the participants were administered on the first week on May 2013 while the questionnaires for the language educators were administered from May 2013 to October 2013. Refer to **Section 3.4.3** for more explanation on the questionnaire. All the participants were given a small token of appreciation for their cooperation.

3.2.3 Managing Texts

Once the essays were collected, they were tagged according to the task and the participant. From this point on the essays are referred to as 'texts'. The texts were identified by the task and followed by the code of the participants.

Table 3.2: Tagging of tasks and Participants Code

Tagging for Tasks		Participants Code			
Narrative	Formal				
A1	A2	P1	P6	P11	P16
B1	B2	P2	P7	P12	P17
C1	C2	P3	P8	P13	P18
		P4	P9	P14	P19
		P5	P10	P15	

The nineteen participants were coded in random order. This is to provide anonymity to the participants. Each text was then identified with the coding as shown by the example below:

Task – A1   Participant - number 3

A 1 P 3
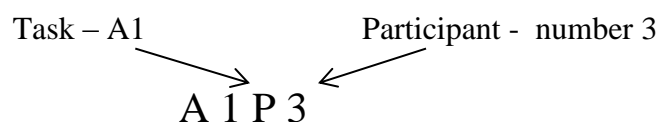
Figure 3.1: Example of coding a text

The same coding was used when the texts were converted into Word document and txt files for the *AntConc* concordance. However, for a sampling of the original essays, refer to **Appendix B** to **Appendix G**.

3.3 Generation of Data

From the text database, data was generated to answer the two research questions proposed in this research. The analyses were grounded in the analytical framework of Baskaran's (1994, 2005), Anthonysamy's (1997) and Ooi's (2001). In addition, this research utilised four methods of looking at how these nativised words were used in the two types of writings. From these methods, basic statistical figures were calculated and presented for the purpose of summarising the data and as a means of looking at the data at both micro and macro level. Having done that, the researcher could finally able to draw inferences from them.

3.3.1 Method of Analysis for RQ1

The first research question aims to describe the features of MalE lexis in the four contexts of writings produced by Malaysian Indian pre-service English teachers**.**

To carry out the analysis, the categorisation of Baskaran's (1994, 2005), Anthonysamy's (1997) and Ooi's (2001) were employed.   They are relevant and

appropriate for lexical analysis in the Malaysian context. Furthermore, since this study is exploratory in nature, these three typologies complement and overlap each other thus providing a more comprehensive description of MalE lexis that can be found in a small sample. Typologies are not exhaustive and, as Adegbija (1989, p. 171) points out, "never fool proof" and that "several of these variations most likely spring from a variety of sources that would bedevil any systematic attempt at classifying them."

The analysis involved the discussion of any lexical items classified as MalE lexis based on the twenty-five categories which are shown in **Table 3.3** below:

Table 3.3: Analytical Framework

No	Features	Baskaran (2005)	Baskaran (1994)	Ooi (2001)	Anthonysamy (1997)
1	Institutionalised concepts	x			
2	Emotional & cultural loading	x			
3	Semantic restriction	x			
4	Cultural/culinary terms	x			
5	Hyponymous collocation	x			
6	Campus/Student coinages	x			
7	polysemic variation	x			
8	Semantic variation	x			
9	Informalisation	x			
10	formalisation	x			
11	Directional reversal	x			
12	College colloqualism	x			
13	Compounding		x		
14	Suffixation		x		
15	Pluralisation		x		
16	Past Tense Inflection		x		
17	Gerund Formation		x		
18	Conversion		x		
19	Transfer				x
20	Acronym				
21	Group A: Core English			x	
22	Group B: Words of English origin/formal			x	
23	Group C: Words or hybrids of non-English origin/formal			x	
24	Group D: Words of English origin/informal			x	
25	Group E: Words or hybrids of non-English origin/ informal			x	

A closer look at the table will reveal that some categories belonging to the same descriptive framework overlap with another. This is made clear with the **Figure 3.2** below:
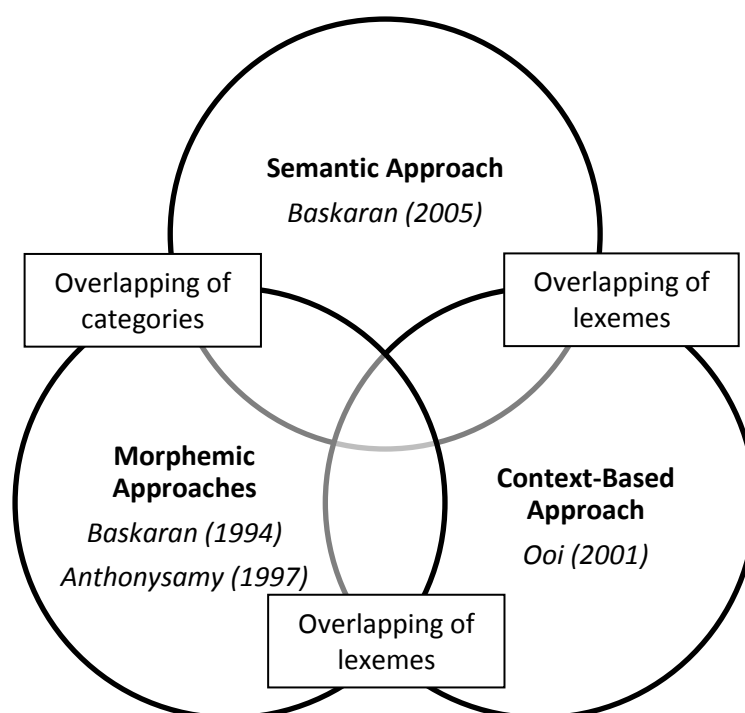
Figure 3.2: Diagrammatic Representation of Analytical Framework

The rationale behind the amalgam of framework and categories is to strike a balance between Baskaran's (2005) and Anthonysamy's (1998) categories and Ooi's (2001) framework. The categories describe local usage while the framework provides a bigger picture of MalE lexis and situates the categories within the context of use. This is not dissimilar from the method adopted by Jaya Balan (2012) who set precedence by identifying MalE lexis using Baskaran's (2005) and Menon's (2003) description, both of which describe words from the semantic angle. In fact, the current study goes a step further in describing the mined data from three important angles in which, while they are not exhaustive, may provide an inclusive and a more comprehensive attempt to describe the data. In doing so, the researcher hopes to detect any morphological innovation in the written form, awareness of context of use, and study the degree of

changes of the meaning of local referents and standard English words as they are used by participants.

Both Baskaran's (1994, 2005) and Anthonysamy's (1997) description are relevant choices for the Asian context and for the fact that their descriptions were founded on local data.

These steps were observed in order to extract the data:

1. The texts were first screened for originality. Three criteria for detecting unoriginal work were used. First, each participant produced six texts. When any one text produced by a particular participant stood out as exceptionally well written compared to the rest of his or her work, especially in terms of vocabulary, grammar and style, it became suspect of unoriginality. Second, when the texts used cultural referents which are not familiar in Malaysian context, such as the bull race during Ponggal Festival or having parties during the first month of college, they also became suspect of having been copied from another source. Finally, when it was found that any two texts or part of the texts from two different participants bear striking similarities, therefore, those texts were excluded from the sample. These criteria reduced the initial sample of one hundred and fourteen texts to only ninety six.

2. All possible MalE lexis was first identified manually based on the analytical framework. The researcher also relied on the context within which the lexical item appeared in the text to confirm whether the lexical item can be determined as nativised. They were then checked against examples cited by other scholars.

3. The lexical items were also checked against two dictionaries: Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary International Student's Edition (eighth edition, henceforth OALD) for the standard English usage, and Times-Chambers Essential English Dictionary (second edition, henceforth TCEED) for SME usage. The Oxford

English Dictionary (OED) and an online dictionary (http://dictionary.reference.com/) were also used when a word does not have any entry in the two main dictionaries. Deviations in collocations usage were checked using an online collocation dictionary website (http://prowritingaid.com/Free-Online-Collocations-Dictionary.aspx#.UwuCyaFXhjq).

To lend more credence to the findings and avoid claims of idiosyncratic occurrences which may be construed as learner error and not deviation, parameters were put in place.

a) A nativised lexical item is categorised as MalE lexis using a threshold. The lexical item must occur in more than one text on condition that they were not written by the same writer.

b) In the second condition, a lexical item might be accepted as MalE lexis even when it occurred only once in a text provided it has been cited in previous studies on MalE and Singapore English. The lexical item may also appear in TCEED and may be recorded as SME, or may appear in AOLD as Ooi's (2001) Group A: Core English word.

4. Finally, the identified MalE lexical items were tabulated. The lexical items would be discussed in depth with the help of the *AntConc* Concordance which will be explained in detail in Section 3.4.2. The researcher looked for patterns or trends based on evidence as well as based what was conspicuously absent from it.

Once the analysis for the first research question was done, the researcher drew inferences and used the data to proceed answering the second research question.

3.3.2 Method of Analysis for RQ2

The second research question aims to investigate the major differences in the usage of features of MalE lexis between these contexts of writings produced by this particular group of Malaysian Indian pre-service English teachers.

To demonstrate the differences in the usage, the term '**usage of features of MalE lexis**' was operationalized in four ways. They are

a) Contextual cushioning

b) Flagging

c) Outer and Inner frame

d) Number of MalE lexis per text per 1000 words

While previous studies used selected analytical frameworks to identify features of MalE lexis, this study aimed to go beyond mere identification and delve deeper into the usage and the manner in which the MalE lexical items were presented in narrative and the other contexts of writings. All four ways were found used in describing the use of lexis in World Englishes most notably lexis found in the written mode either for literary or non-fiction works. Contextual cushioning, flagging and outer/inner frame can indicate the level of awareness among the participants of MalE lexis as opposed to standard English lexical items. The final method was deemed necessary for this study to give more quantitative weight to the research method. Taken together, these findings can show the prevalence of nativisation in the written mode among the participants of this research.

The first approach is called **'contextual cushioning'**. It is used by creative literary writers to make nativised words intelligible to the international reader in which the reader is given clues of the general meaning through the surrounding text (Dasenbrook, as cited in Lowenberg, 1992, p. 255).

Second, the MalE lexis was checked for the use of **'flagging'** using quotation marks (Dumanig and David, 2012). Since nativisation involves lexical items of local language origin being incorporated into the English language environment, words falling under Baskaran's (2005) Local language Referents and Ooi's (2001) Group C may be highlighted with quotation marks. Its use was noted to look for any pattern that may run through all tasks or types of writing.

Another important element was the technique used to analyse the writings of three Nigerian writers called **'outer frame'** and **'inner frame'** (Bamiro, 1994, p. 58). Somewhat similar to indirect address and direct address (cf. Leong, 2004), Bamiro's terms are more appropriate for this study as the samples are creative writings based on given topicsand contexts. **'Outer frame'** refers to the language the writer used to communicate with the readers and **'inner frame'** is the language used by the characters to communicate with each other.

The ninety six texts in this study were of unequal lengths and contained varying numbers of identified MalE lexis. In order to compare and evaluate the texts and tasks on an equal footing, the fourth and final approach used by Gupta who identifies non-standardisms per text per 1000 words in Singapore English was adopted (1986, p.82). In comparison, Thirusanku and Melor's (2013b, p. 22) approach was to label each sentence in twenty essays written by Form Two students as either acrolectal, mesolectal or basilectal sentence. While their work is more recent, syntactical elements are included in the identification of sentences but the varying lengths of the essays are not considered in the analysis. Therefore, Gupta's approach was considered more appropriate for this particular study.

The researcher counted the number of identified MalE lexis that was identified in each text against the total number of words used in the said text. The counting was made easy by converting the texts into Word documents.

MalE lexis that comprised more than a word such as 'go back' or *rangoli kolam*' was counted as one word. Then, the total number of words in each text was proportionately converted to per 1000 words and with that the number of MalE lexis was also converted. In order to have a common denominator (per 1000 words) each text was multiplied to a scalar number (*y*) which changes according to the actual number of words in each text. Therefore, if a text has 200 words and it contains one word identified as MalE lexis, it will be multiplied by the scalar number '5'. The formula is shown below:

$$\frac{\text{Total occurrences of MalE lexis in a text}}{\text{Actual number of words in a text}} \times \frac{y}{y} = \frac{\text{Converted number of MalE lexis}}{\text{per 1000 words}}$$

Figure 3.3: Formula for Converted Number of MalE Lexis per text per 1000 Words

The average number of MalE lexis per task was also calculated. These numbers were then tabulated and analysed. This becomes useful because it provided a quantifiable description of the occurrences of MalE lexis.

At this point, the findings from the analyses for both research questions were examined at the macro level for a final evaluation that quantifies the data and detects the lectal range of the participants.

In order to determine the lectal range of this particular group of participants, each text that they produced was first identified as either a text having 'Official MalE', 'Unofficial MalE' or 'Broken MalE' lexis. Only then can the researcher extrapolate the lectal range of this particular group of MalE users.

To this end, Baskaran's three-tiered description of MalE, specifically the description of the lexis was employed (2005, p. 22). However, the researcher found that the description was very brief and too general thereby rendering any conclusions made

to be seen as too interpretive rather than one made with strict and rigid criteria. To overcome this, the researcher evaluated each text through the lense of Ooi's (2001) five groupings of nativised words that are framed within Baskaran's description of MalE lexis. **Figure 3.4** below shows this overlap and how Ooi's (2001) framework can assist to refine Baskaran's (2005) explanation of the lexis of each lectal range.

	Official MalE	Unofficial MalE	Broken MalE
Baskaran (2005)	Variation acceptable especially for words not substitutable in an international context (or to give a more localised context).	Lexicalisation quite prevalent even for words having international English substitutes.	Major lexicalisations – heavily infused with local language items.
Ooi (2001) Compulsory	**Group A**: core English and/or contain **Group B**: words of English origin accepted in both formal and informal situations and/or contain **Group C**: words of non-English origin accepted in both formal and informal situations.	**Group A**: core English and contain **Group D**: words of English origin acceptable in local informal situations (usually speech) only	**Group A**: core English and contain **Group E**: borrowings from substrate languages found mainly in informal speech
Optional		and/or may contain **Group B**:words of English origin accepted in both formal and informal situations and/or may contain **Group C**: words of non-English origin in both formal and informal situations.	and/or may contain **Group B**:words of English origin accepted in both formal and informal situations and/or may contain **Group C**: words of non-English origin in both formal and informal situations. and/or may contain **Group D**: words of English origin acceptable in local informal situations (usually speech) only

Figure 3.4: Modified Lexis Description of MalE lexis based on Baskaran (2005) and Ooi (2001)

A text was marked as having 'Official MalE' lexis when the identified nativised lexis was of Ooi's (2001) **Group A**, **B** or **C** words. Texts where no MalE lexis was found were also marked as having 'Official MalE' lexis. 'Unofficial MalE' texts were texts containing Ooi's (2001) **Group D** and **Group A** words. They may also contain **Group B** or **C** words. 'Broken MalE' texts were texts containing Ooi's (2001) **Group E** and **Group A** words, and they may also contain **Group B**, **C**, or **D** words. As long as there was one MalE lexical item in a text, it was classified as any of the three descriptions in **Figure 3.4**.

Based on the criteria in the table above, the ninety six texts were identified accordingly. They were then totalled, converted to percentages and compared. The findings were then used to help the researcher to draw conclusions on the nativisation of MalE lexis in the writings of the participants in this present study.

3.4 Other Instruments

Besides the primary data – the texts of the participants, other instruments were designed and used to assist in the analysis.

3.4.1 Consent Form and Demographic Information Sheet

Before the generation and collection of texts, the participants were asked to complete a consent form and a demographic information sheet on 5 March 2013. The demographic information was used to clarify certain findings or patterns found in the analysis of the texts and the findings of the questionnaire. Refer to **Appendix J** for a copy of the consent form and the demographic information sheet.

3.4.2 AntConc Concordance

A concordancing program is normally called concordance. A concordance permits different and faster ways of assessing texts. A concordance software can select, sort, match, count and calculate (Hunston & Francis as cited in Römer & Wulff, 2010, p. 103). It is designed to allow the user to search for a specific target word or phrase in a corpus, providing exhaustive lists for the occurrences of the word in context. It thus enables the analysis of lexical collocations, and also provides frequency information.

The present study used a concordance called *AntConc*. Developed by Laurence Anthony of Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan, *AntConc* was developed originally for technical writing classroom (see Anthony, 2006). The software is free and can be downloaded from the Internet. In the present study the ninety six texts were converted to txt files to enable them to be exported to the concordance. *AntConc* was used to present a list of occurrences and a convenient checking tool for the researcher.

3.4.3 Questionnaire

Triangulation reflects an effort for a deeper comprehension of the phenomenon being investigated (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005, p. 5). This will lead to greater knowledge of the phenomenon being investigated.It is also the process of confirming evidence from different subjects, types of data or methods of data collection in qualitative research (Creswell, 2012, p. 259).

The present research is qualitative and interpretative in nature. The questionnaire was built to ascertain the level of acceptability of the use of the nativised lexis by the participants. The researcher interprets the findings based on the analysis framework, but in order to validate the findings, the researcher not only got the writers of the texts to corroborate the evidence but also six language educators to share their views on the extracted data.

Whilst the primary data could be examined for identification of MalE lexis and patterns of use, it could not document the voice or views of the participants who used such lexis. Obtaining the responses of another group representing adult educated MalE users which could be compared to that of the participants who are young adult MalE users can augment and strengthen the findings of this study. Therefore, a questionnaire was judged to be the best method to document the views of the participants and the language educators in the hope that it could unearth new findings or support a long-standing observation.

Once the initial analysis was done, a number of lexical items, representing all the twenty five categories of MalE lexis were extracted. A total of forty seven examples of MalE lexis were included in the questionnaire. They were presented in sentence form. The sentences were taken from the texts but grammatical corrections and certain adjustments were made. Then the identified lexis was underlined to highlight them.

The nineteen participants and the six language educators were asked to choose only one out of four options in response to the question "When can the underlined word or words be used?" They were to decide if the lexical item can be used in **formal writings** (formal letters and emails, reports, articles, academic examination papers), **informal writings** (personal letters and emails, creative essays, novels), in **both formal and informal writings**, or the word cannot be used in the written form but may be used in oral settings (referred to as **none**). The questionnaire for the language educators had two open-ended questions added. The questions centred on how the language educators would explain to their students the presence of MalE lexis found in writings. Refer to **Appendix H** for a copy of the complete questionnaire.

The responses were calculated and converted into percentages. The data can then be analysed and compared with the primary data.

3.5 Summary of Methodology

This chapter covers the qualitative approach used to collect the data and the description of the analytical framework. Data collection, management and task design were explained. The main data come from written essays based on three tasks. Parameters were then explained. To generate data the essays were analysed using the twenty five categories frameworks with the help of *AntConc* Concordance. The generated data then were analysed using the four approaches for an in depth look at the differences of usage of the MalE lexis. They were finally complemented with data from the questionnaire which were given to the same nineteen participants and six language educators. **Figure 3.5** summarises the methodology of this research.
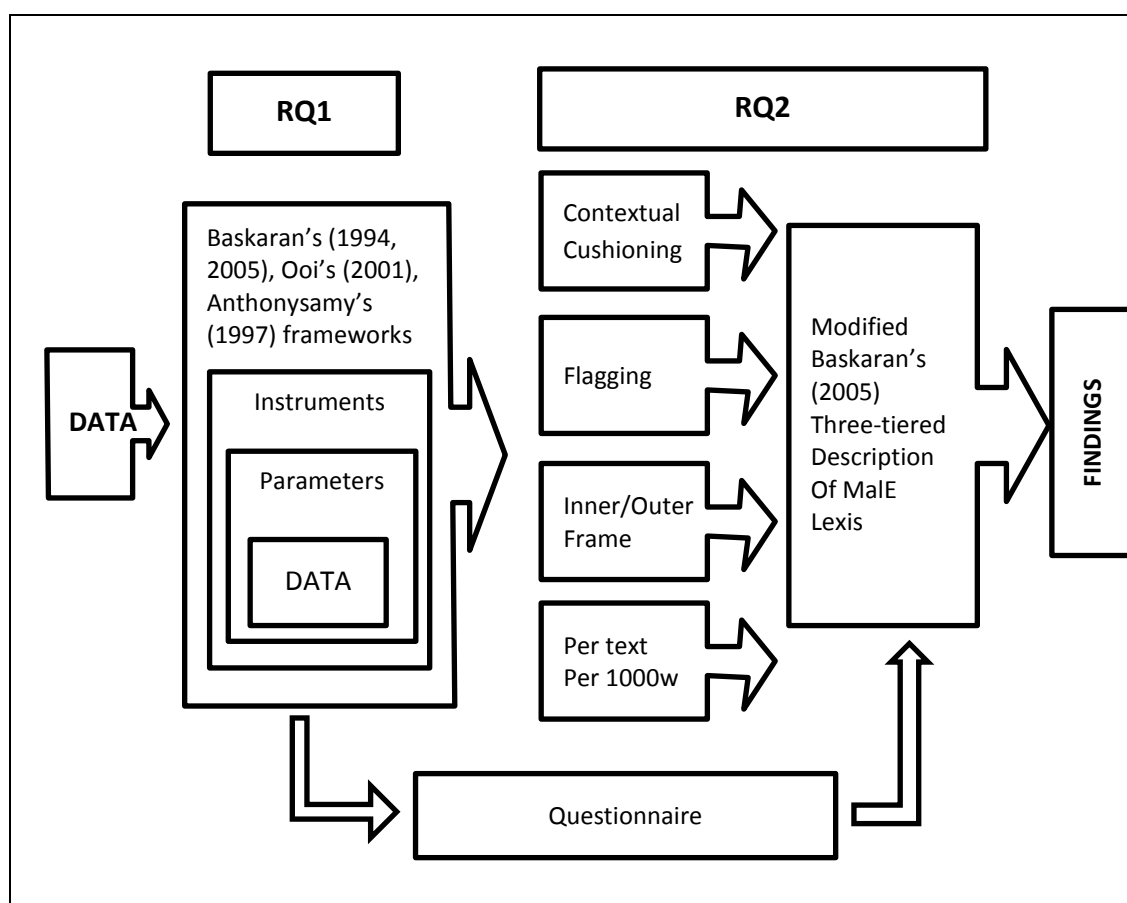
Figure 3.5: Summary of Methodology

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS

The previous chapter described the methodology used in this study. This chapter analyses the data collected from a group of Malaysian Indian pre-service English teachers. The aim is to describe the use of MalE lexis in creative and formal writings and how the MalE lexis is used by the pre-service English teachers. Nativised lexical items were identified according to Baskaran's (1994, 2005), Anthonysamy's (1997) and Ooi's (2001) frameworks. They were tabulated, added and totalled, and converted into numbers (average and percentages). Some lexical items exemplifying the twenty five categories were presented using *AntConc* concordance and discussed in detail. Findings extracted using the four methods to detect the differences of usage are also presented and discussed. This is to answer the second research question.

This chapter also presents the demographic data as well as data mined from the questionnaire to triangulate the primary data stated above. Interpretations are made on the data on both micro and macro level before arriving at a conclusion or conclusions.

4.1 Demographic Information

The breakdown of the participants' demographic information based on the consent form is as follows:

There were nineteen participants consisting of **seventeen** females and **two** males, all of whom are of Malaysian Indian ethnicity. The average age of the participants is **19.3** years with the oldest aged twenty one and the youngest (**sixteen** participants) are nineteen years old. Their highest academic qualification is *Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia* (SPM). Two participants scored A+, eleven participants scored A and three scored A- in their SPM119 English Language paper. The remaining three participants scored B in the same paper.

Eighteen out of nineteen participants stated that Tamil was their most dominant language and thirteen out of nineteen participants stated English was their second most dominant language.

When asked on how they rate they level of proficiency in speaking, two participants stated that they are '*proficient*', twelve participants are '*fairly proficient*' while the remaining five stated that they are '*moderately proficient*'.

In terms of writing proficiency, only one participant stated that she is '*proficient*', nine stated that they are '*fairly proficient*' and the rest believed that they are '*moderately proficient*'.

Besides the nineteen participants, a small group of six language educators were asked to participate in the survey that was built based on the primary data. The responses from these educators could further validate the findings. Four of the educators have obtained their doctorate, two educators hold a master's degree and one educator holds a bachelor's degree. When asked about their teaching experience, four out of the six educators have more than 20 years of experience teaching English language while the other two educators have taught English from 11 to 20 years.

4.2 Features of MalE Lexis

In total, this study identified **seventy one** nativised lexical items from ninety six accepted texts. **Table 4.1** on the next page shows the number of identified items according to the analytical frameworks.

Table 4.1: The Number of Identified MalE Lexis According to Analytical Framework

No	Features	Baskaran (2005)	Baskaran (1994)	Ooi (2001)	Anthonysamy (1997)
1	Institutionalised concepts	-			
2	Emotional & cultural loading	1			
3	Semantic restriction	-			
4	Cultural/culinary terms	23			
5	Hyponymous collocation	1			
6	Campus/Student coinages	-			
7	polysemic variation	9			
8	Semantic restriction	5			
9	Informalisation	3			
10	formalisation	2			
11	Directional reversal	6			
12	College colloqualism	4			
13	Compounding		1		
14	Suffixation		-		
15	Pluralisation		1		
16	Past Tense Inflection		-		
17	Gerund Formation		-		
18	Conversion		-		
19	Transfer				4
20	Acronym				2
21	Group A: Core English			2	
22	Group B: Words of English origin/formal			9	
23	Group C: Words or hybrids of non-English origin/formal			25	
24	Group D: Words of English origin/informal			33	
25	Group E: Words or hybrids of non-English origin/ informal			1	

The data collected shows that under Baskaran's (2005) framework, the majority of items (twenty three) are classified under cultural and culinary terms. This is followed by items under polysemic variation (nine) and directional reversal (six) category. There are four items grouped under college colloquialism. The other six categories have the occurrence of words ranging from one to three words.

Under Baskaran's (1994) framework, there are only two out of six categories that have words identified under them. Both compounding and pluralisation have a word each identified. The two categories under Anthonysamy's (1997) framework – transfer and acronym have four and two words identified respectively whereas Ooi's (2001) concentric circles framework have two words under Group A, nine words under

Group B, twenty five words under Group C, thirty three words under Group D, and one word under Group E.

For a complete list of the seventy six identified MalE words according to the parameters explained in 3.3.1, refer to **Appendix I**.

Based on the findings above, the following sections show how the lexical items from eighteen categories are used. The instances cited in each category are intended to be illustrative rather than exhaustive.

4.2.1 Emotional and cultural loading

In this category, the lexical items are borrowings from the local languages. They have English equivalents. However, these words would lose their cultural association if they are translated (Baskaran, 2005, p. 39).

Hit	KWIC	File
1	essed up nicely to go temple to attend a special pooja or to p	B2P5.txt
2	essed up nicely to go temple to attend a special pooja or to p	B1P5.txt

Figure 4.1: Sentences containing the lexical item *pooja*

From all ninety six essays, only one lexical item was categorised and it was used by participant P5. The word *pooja* is borrowed from Tamil and can be translated as 'to pray'. While the participant included the English translation in the text, the concept of praying in the Hindu religion will be lost if it is not used in the context of describing a religious festival.

4.2.2 Cultural and culinary terms

Many of these lexical items identified under this category are mainly found in Task B essays which centred on religious festivals. The majority of participants wrote about Hindu celebrations while only two wrote on Christian celebrations. The high

number of nativised words does reflect Wong's observation that more nativised lexical items are used when the topic is closer to 'home' (as cited in Anthonysamy, 1997, p. 103)." To convey the intended meaning of the users, these words are used to fit into the communicational strategies of the English Language which is functioning in a specific non-western, multilingual and sociocultural context of use (Lowenberg, 1986, p.79)".

Many of these words were observed by other scholars. Culinary terms such as *murukku* and *vadai* were noted by Chalaya (2008) and Ramakrishna (2012) respectively. The words *sari* and *dhoti* refers to traditional Indian clothing worn. *Sari* was observed by Ramakrishna based on her samples on short stories. It seemed these two words have been nativised over time and they appear in AOLD (*sari* p. 1309, *dhoti* p. 401) as standard English words. Due to this, these words are also classified in Ooi's (2001) framework as Group A words.

Hit	KWIC	File
1	ns will buy new clothes for small kids or give angpow to kids.	B1P9.txt

Hit	KWIC	File
1	s together with them. Similar to chinese culture Angpau will b	B2P7.txt
2	by married people. Children enjoys getting this Angpau. On t	B2P7.txt
3	e together with them. Similar to chinese culture Angpau will b	B1P7.txt
4	d by married people. Children enjoy getting this Angpau. On t	B1P7.txt

Hit	KWIC	File
1	elatives on Deepavali. In addition, ang pau which also will	B2P5.txt
2	ll serve food for them. In addition, ang pau which also will	B1P5.txt

Figure 4.2: Sentences containing the lexical item 'angpow'

Interestingly, the Chinese word *ang pau* is used to describe the practice of giving money to children during Deepavali celebration. *Angpow* made its way in TCEED to mean a red packet (p. 36). Worth noting is that the participants deliberately used the Chinese word instead of the Malay term *duit raya*. A check with a Tamil

native speaker revealed that there is no equivalent Tamil term for this practice. Evidently, being a muti-cultural society, the practice of giving money to children during celebrations has been adopted by the Indian society.

4.2.3 Hyponymous collocations and Compounding

Hyponymous collocations are local words collocated with English words. The local words are the subordinate and the English equivalents are the superordinate referents. From a morphemic approach, compounding creates coinages such as *police-pondok* and *satay-house*, and is described as a very productive process (Baskaran 1994, 2005). Due to the similar nature of the two categories, they are discussed together. Interestingly enough, only one example identified – *punjabi* suit.

Hit	KWIC	File
1	ng. Christians usually buy either punjabi suit or dress. Althou	B2P12.txt
2	me of us, will buy at least one Punjabi suit for girls and Dho	B1P5.txt
3	hat is shopping. We usually buy Punjabi suit and my favourite	B1P12.txt
4	e so I remain with it and I wear Punjabi suit. Shopping is no	B1P12.txt
5	boring. Besides, if I choose a Punjabi suit, it may high in	B1P12.txt

Figure 4.3: Sentences containing the phrase *Punjabi* suit

The same lexical item is noted by Anthonysamy (1997, p. 72). *Punjabi* suit is a combination of a local word as the subordinate (*Punjabi*) and the English word as the superordinate referent (suit).

4.2.4 Polysemic variation

Baskaran (2005, p. 44) states that polysemic variation are standard English lexemes. Besides having the native English meaning, these lexemes have an extended semantic range of meanings not originally found in standard English.

Hit	KWIC	File
1	t managed to get a seat in the passengers waiting side. So, w	A1P7.txt

Figure 4.4: Sentence containing the lexical item 'side'

The lexical item 'side' was noted by Platt and Weber (1980, p. 91) to mean 'in the direction of' or 'in the general area'. Based on the context of the sentence, participant F7 intended the phrase 'passengers waiting **side**' to mean 'passengers waiting **area**', very similar to Platt and Weber's second meaning of the said item.

Hit	KWIC	File
1	ront of my parents. After took shower I take breakfast. As a f	C1P1.txt
2	ial day. When they come back home, they take breakfast togethe	B2P10.txt
3	ets for all. When go back homr, we will take breakfast togethe	B1P10.txt

Hit	KWIC	File
1	lunch were ready for us. We take our lunch but the food wasn'	C1P5.txt

Figure 4.5: Sentences containing the phrase 'take breakfast/lunch'

The use of 'take' instead of 'eat' to refer to food was also noted by Platt and Weber (1980, p. 93) and Tongue (1979, p. 100). Tongue further suggested that the use of 'take' could well be a matter of register, which is determined by what one is talking about, and it may be an extension of common standard English expression of "I don't take sugar in my tea." While these two works used samples from informal spoken language, these words have entered the writings of this group of English pre-service teachers.

There are other previously cited items such as 'keep' to mean to put away was observed by Tongue (1979, p. 75) and the lexical item 'blur' to mean 'being vague about something happening'. 'Blur' is recognised as informal SME lexis in TCEED (p. 108). These items were noted in speech but were now found in the writings of the participants.

This study has also uncovered novel lexical items which are nativised under this category. One such example is 'finished'.

Hit	KWIC	File
4	because the ticket to my location was finished. But then, t	A2P10.txt
5	d to me that all the other blankets is finished because all th	A1P18.txt

Figure 4.6: Sentences containing the lexical item 'finished'

The word 'finish' in AOLD means 'to stop doing something because it is complete, or comes to an end, or to be in a position at the end of a race or a competition (p. 556). Instead, in A1P18 the word seems to convey that the hotel had 'run out' of blankets or that 'all the blankets were used up'. In A2P10, 'finished' has the extended meaning of 'sold out'. However, more evidence should be documented in both written and spoken in order to verify this finding.

Hit	KWIC	File
4	ndly with seniours. The juniours should wish the seniours. It	C2P2.txt
6	rs and lecturers. We should respect and wish them. They are mo	C2P8.txt

Hit	KWIC	File
1	er and cried, "It is my birthday today."She wished me. Then, a	C1P6.txt
2	shed me. Then, all the students in the hall wished me. The guy	C1P6.txt
3	e. The guy beside me gave me a odd look and wished me. The nex	C1P6.txt

Figure 4.7: Sentences containing the lexical item 'wish'

The verb 'wish' is a ditransitive verb which has a direct and an indirect object. As a verb, 'to wish' in Standard English can mean 'to want something to happen, or to want to do something, or to say that one hopes that somebody will be happy, lucky etc.' (AOLD, p.1707). The evidence from the database shows that participants dropped the indirect object.

'Wish' in MalE has an extended meaning. In TCEED, it is accepted as informal SME (p.1158). In C2P8 and C2P2, the word 'wish' carries the meaning 'to formally greet somebody' concurring with the explanation in TCEED. However, in C1P6, the idea to convey the message that one hopes the other person will be happy on his or her birthday was encapsulated in just the word 'wished' + 'me' (the direct object). Note the fact that TCEED recorded the item as a word for informal situations. What the database revealed is that the word has entered the written form of English.

4.2.5 Semantic restriction

According to Baskaran (2005) there are some words in MalE which are used in a narrower sense and are confined to specific referents only.

Hit	KWIC	File
1	r the bus for four hours. Somemore, the bus that arrived also	A2P9.txt
2	ed and frustrated feelings somemore. The tiredness that I fel	A1P11.txt

Figure 4.8: Sentences containing the lexical item 'somemore'

Leong records the use of 'somemore' in radio advertisements (2004, p. 80). In A1F11 the word is located at the end of the sentence while in A2F9 'somemore' is placed in the beginning. 'Somemore' has the same semantic meaning as 'furthermore', 'on top of that' or 'in addition', similar to the Malay phrase *tambahan pula* when used to begin a sentence. When placed at the end, it has the same semantic meaning as the Malay word *lagi*.

Hit	KWIC	File
1	iniors and lectures, must wear cover shoes to class, and many.	C1P1.txt
2	ay, wearing my baju kurung and cover shoes, it was totally dif	C1P15.txt

Figure 4.9: Sentences containing the phrase 'cover shoes'

The lexical items 'cover shoes' is a novel lexical item. It refers to 'court shoes'. OALD (p.337) explains that 'court shoes' are a woman's formal shoe that is plain and does not cover the top part of the foot. 'Cover shoes' in MalE refers to all kinds of women footwear that hide the toes and heels. This means that wedges, sandals and flip-flops are frowned upon in formal functions. Similar to the lexical item 'finish', future studies can help verify that this finding is prevalent.

The word 'one kind' (Baskaran, 2005), 'last time' (Platt & Weber, 1980, p. 89; Lowenberg, 1984, p.123; Hughes & Heah, 2006, p.193) and 'tackle' have also been identified and placed under this category.

4.2.6 Informalisation

Words under this category tend to be informal substitution of standard English words (Baskaran, 2005, p. 46).

Hit	KWIC	File
1	college student we have to stay in hostel rooms, where we need	C2P8.txt
2	h our roommate as they are stay with us all the time. And we m	C2P10.txt
3	l I can't forget the day I stay without my family members, and	C1P2.txt
4	friends. The first day, I stay with a person who I never know	C1P2.txt
5	nto 'Block L' where we are staying now. My father said that sh	C1P4.txt
6	way because I was no more staying at home to let my mother to	C1P4.txt
7	e. I thinks that I have to stay with her everyday. In the even	C1P5.txt
8	m my parents and I have to stay alone. Then, I get to realise	C1P5.txt
10	ally felt uncomfortable to stay in the room since I'm always l	C1P8.txt
11	place where I am going to stay later. I have meet many stude	C1P10.txt
12	meet my roommate who will stay together with me. When the fir	C1P10.txt
13	e first time I am going to stay away from my parents. I could	C1P10.txt
14	unacceptable that I should stay alone without my parents. Then	C1P10.txt
15	first experience for me to stay with a stranger from a differe	C1P14.txt
16	ng. There are some advance stay in hostel too. Fell free to do	C1P15.txt
17	elt very uncomfortable for staying at hostel at first. This is	C1P17.txt
20	since many of my relatives stay at Ipoh, I was happy to be pla	C1P19.txt
21	ple looked strange for me. Staying at Ipoh for the next five y	C1P19.txt
22	to give me the strength to stay here, and to overcome all my f	C1P19.txt
23	ople in the family who are staying far from their family, will	B2P7.txt
24	younger generation who are staying far from their family will	B1P7.txt
30	. They actually ask us to stay 8 persons in a room but the ba	A2P11.txt
32	yachanthrika d/o Rajamanik stays near Bercham Restoran Che Wah	A2P15.txt
36	Last week, my aunty who is staying in Canada sent an amount fo	A1P12.txt

Figure 4.10: Sentences containing the lexical item 'stay'

Eleven participants used the lexical item 'stay' to refer to permanent residence at a particular place, instead of the standard usage of 'live'. Tongue (1979, p. 76) observed that the word 'lives' is not often heard except for referring to the country of domicile. Even this was not adhered to, as demonstrated by A1F12 in her sentence 'my aunty who is *staying* in Canada'. It is worth pointing out that the tendency to use 'stay' instead of 'live' in MalE is similar to the Scottish English usage of 'stay' (Preshous, 2001, p. 50). Hughes and Heah (2006, p. 194) stated that 'stay' suggests a temporary arrangement and therefore not acceptable in standard English.

Hit	KWIC	File
17	e with us and my two sister follow us. After two hour journey	C1P1.txt
18	d take the room key. A girl follow me to the room. She was ver	C1P1.txt
19	and look older than me. She follow her brother to college. Fi	C1P1.txt
21	t time I thought I also can follow them. After that, I started	C1P11.txt
23	family, my uncle and aunty follow me to Ipoh. So, my aunty ha	C1P16.txt
24	e to Ipoh. So, my aunty had followed my to hostel. My room was	C1P16.txt

Figure 4.11: Sentences containing the lexical item 'follow'

In standard English, when one follows someone, one goes along behind. In TCEED, the word 'follow' when used in context as in C1P1 and C1P16, it is classified as SME and used informally (p.382). It means to accompany or go with. It is mentioned by Platt and Weber (1980, p. 88). Hughes and Heah (2006, p. 192) considered it as unacceptable in standard English.

4.2.7 Formalisation

There are also occasions where MalE users have the tendency to use more formal words in an informal context. Baskaran postulates that the use of such words may be a matter of collocational confusion.

Figure 4.12: Sentence containing the lexical item 'leave'

In A2F9, the item 'leave' was used to refer to a period of public holiday. Hughes and Heah (2006, p.196) list 'leave' as a word dating from colonial times but not used in the UK. It is used for the armed forces only. This is further corroborated in TCEED (p. 559).

4.2.8 Directional reversal

MalE users tend to use certain lexical items in reverse direction. Baskaran attributes this to the absence of two separate lexemes in the local languages (2005, p. 47). This is further explained by Platt and Weber (1980, pp. 93-96). There were six lexical items identified in this category.

Figure 4.13: Sentences containing the phrase 'go back/went back'

The lexical items 'go back' or 'went back' is noted by Tongue as MalE lexis. Note that there is no direct object after the verb phrase. Tongue (1979, p.74) observes that SEUK speakers would instead use 'to return' or 'to go home'. While there were occurrences in the database where 'go back' was followed by a direct object, the researcher noted that five participants used the nativised 'go back' in their writings.

Hit	KWIC	File
2	pecially my mom as she will bring us with her wherever she goe	C1P7.txt
9	or the section. The worker bring me to the perfume section.	A2P2.txt
12	initiative owner willing to bring my brother to the clinic. 5.	A2P5.txt
14	me very weak. I ask him to bring me to hospital to take medic	A1P1.txt
15	at had been happened. They bring me to hospital. There I too	A1P1.txt
17	ner also take initiative to bring my brother to the clinic. T	A1P5.txt

Figure 4.14: Sentence containing the lexical item 'bring'

Another visible example of directional reversal is 'bring' (Tongue, 1979, p. 71). It was used by four participants. It was used to mean 'take'.

Hit	KWIC	File
1	er, aunt,uncle and little nephew came with me to send me off.	C1P8.txt

Figure 4.15: Sentence containing the phrase 'send off'

In MalE the person who 'sends' another person accompanies the other to the destination, unlike the intended meaning in standard English where the 'senders' are not involved in the movement. This was mentioned in TCEED (p. 881). In OALD (p.1343) the verb 'to send somebody off' is used in sports game to mean to order somebody to leave the field for having broken the rules of the game. As a noun a 'send-off' is an occasion when people come together to say goodbye to somebody who is leaving. Participant P8 seemed to use 'send off' as a verb but to have the nativised MalE meaning instead.

Besides 'bring' and 'send', Baskaran (2005) notes the confusion of bi-directional verbs such as 'come', 'take' and 'fetch'. All these items were also found in this study.

4.2.9 College colloquialism

Words under this category are related to studies, examinations and youth. They may be abbreviated or idiomatised and are used in context-specific situations (Baskaran, 2005, p.48).

Hit	KWIC	File
1	d to group according to our option. My option is TESL. When in	C1P1.txt
2	according to our option. My option is TESL. When in group I fo	C1P1.txt
3	her. This is because it our option. After one week orientatio	C1P1.txt
4	started with classes. TESL option have four major subject. Th	C1P1.txt
5	aving TESL in SJK(T) as our option in studies. We were gratefu	C1P3.txt

Figure 4.16: Sentences containing the lexical item 'option'

In OALD (p.1033) one meaning of 'option' is a subject that a student can choose to study, but that they do not have to do. Contrary to the standard English meaning, 'option' in MalE context means a course (BrE) or programme (NAmE) where students 'major' on or concentrate on a particular subject, in this context Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL).

Hit	KWIC	File
1	hing that welcomes me as a freshie is the seniors. The moment	C1P18.txt
2	ches me with a slow pace. "Freshie?" he asked. "Yes" "oh hi I	C1P18.txt

Figure 4.17: Sentences containing the lexical item 'freshie'

The lexical item 'freshie' is similar to American English 'freshmen' (Platt & Weber, 1980, p.88, Lowenberg, 1984, p.123). It is considered as SME and an informal term in TCEED (p. 397). In MalE and in particular this study, it means a new university or college student.

Figure 4.18: Sentences containing the lexical item 'ragging'

While the lexical item 'ragging' does not appear in either AOLD or TCEED, OED (vol. XIII p.115) recorded it as 'rag' (a university slang for a noisy disorderly conduct in defiance of authority or discipline) and on page 119 as 'ragging'(the action of scolding, annoying, etc.). Examples sentences given for 'ragging' were related to the army. Interestingly, the MalE usage appears to be a semantic modification of the two meanings. It is a university slang, but instead of college students displaying noisy disorderly conduct, it is an action of scolding new students and harassing them with unpleasant tasks. It is very similar to American English 'haze' or 'hazing' which conveys the meaning being subject to harassment or ridicule as a condition for entering a fraternity or sorority.

4.2.10 Pluralisation

Local terms can take up inflectional processes such as pluralisation.

Figure 4.19: Sentences containing the lexical item *kavadis*

A *kavadi* is a 'burden' that a Hindu devotee offers to his God as a way to extract penitence. The devotee then carries a structure or pulls a chariot or simply carries a milk pot on his head. During Thaipusam, there are many devotees performing this act of

penitence, therefore each person performing the ritual is carrying a *kavadi* thus affecting the need to conform to the English grammar rule of pluralising countable nouns. Participant P11 added the inflectional 's' suffix. *Kavadis* made it into TCEED (p. 535) and is classified as SME.

4.2.11 Transfer

Anthonysamy (1997, p. 63) states that in transfer the meaning of the local word is foreign to English. It is then directly translated to English. This process helps to convey social-cultural meaning in a particular society. Some examples of transfer from Tamil Language are 'head bath' and 'punjabi suit' while transfers from Chinese dialects are 'dump out things', 'last time' and 'that time' (1997, pp. 102-103).

Anthonysamy (1997, p. 83) and Chalaya (2008, p. 101) claimed that 'open house' is a transfer. However, checks in both OALD and TCEED indicate that it is a standard English word. In OALD (p. 1029), besides two other meanings, 'open house' is a place or a time at which visitors are welcome while in TCEED (p. 673), it conveys a similar meaning to that in OALD and is not indicated as SME. While the Malay phrase '*rumah terbuka*' does translate into 'open house', the issue whether the phrase 'open house' carries the same socio-cultural meaning as the Malay phrase '*rumah terbuka*' is open for debate and further investigation.

An example of transfer in this study is the phrase 'oil bath'. It was used by eight participants. It is culturally specific to Indian customs and practices. The Tamil term is '*yenna kuliyal*' which directly translated into 'oil bath'.

Hit	KWIC	File
1	a indication of birth of Lord Muruga, one of indians goddess.	B2P11.txt
2	nksgiving celebration to Lord Murugas spritual blessings. In M	B2P11.txt
3	ot event where statue of Lord Muruga bought all over Kuala Lum	B2P11.txt
4	nd mesmerised view where Lord Muruga decorated with expensive	B2P11.txt
5	The glorious statue of Lord Muruga will be decorated and the	B2P11.txt
6	receive the blessings of Lord Muruga. So it does not a matter	B2P11.txt
7	a indication of birth of Lord Muruga, one of indians goddess.	B1P11.txt
8	nksgiving celebration to Lord Murugas spritual blessings. In M	B1P11.txt
9	vent where the statue of Lord Muruga bought all over Kuala Lum	B1P11.txt
10	nd mesmerised view where Lord Muruga decorated with scented fl	B1P11.txt
11	tess there. We prayed to Lord Murugas glorious statue, which i	B1P11.txt
12	gs of the main statue of Lord Muruga. Although 272 stairs is q	B1P11.txt
13	receive the blessings of Lord Muruga. So, it doesnt matter for	B1P11.txt
14	ng over to presented to Lord Muruga as their tribute to Lord M	B1P11.txt
15	ruga as their tribute to Lord Murugas blessings. The colourful	B1P11.txt
16	to receive blessings of Lord Muruga. It was really happy and	B1P11.txt

Figure 4.20: Sentences containing the phrase 'Lord Muruga'

'Lord *Muruga'* is directly translated from the Tamil words '*dewam Muruga'*. The title 'Lord' is used to refer to God or Christ in the English world. 'Lord *Muruga'* is the deity that Hindus pray to during Thaipusam.

Hit	KWIC	File
1	that I have to wear dresses like what the white people wear.	B1P12.txt

Figure 4.21: Sentence containing the phrase 'white people'

The Malay term for 'white people' is *orang putih*. A direct translation of this term is 'white man', or in the case of B1P12 'white people'. In standard English the word 'white' is used to refer to members of a race or people who have pale skin (OALD, p. 1696) or one who belongs to the fair-skinned European races (TCEED, p. 1151). Participant P12 wrote about how she celebrated Christmas and the sentence appears to convey that even though she is a Christian, she did not need to wear clothes that westerners wear.

4.2.12 Acronyms

Acronyms are formed using the initial letters of words that make up a phrase or a proper name (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik, 1972, p. 1031). Some local examples are *TNB* (pronounced as sequence of letters) and *MAS* (pronounced as words).

Hit	KWIC	File
1	re also treated badly by the JPP members as they scold and bul	C1P3.txt
2	dings from the lecturers and JPP commitee members. We were ha	C1P3.txt
3	atankuasa Perwakilan Pelajar(JPP) in IPG; so I had to search f	C1P17.txt

Hit	KWIC	File
1	r in fueture you should behave good in IPG". My IPG is in Ipoh	C1P1.txt
2	ure you should behave good in IPG". My IPG is in Ipoh where ve	C1P1.txt
3	h where very far from other states. As IPG student I learned a	C1P1.txt
4	ed alot in one month. Every student in IPG should behave thems	C1P1.txt
9	in Dewan Tanjung, the centre point of IPG and the butterflies	C1P4.txt
14	Besides that, I had a joyful time in IPG. I make new friends	C1P16.txt
15	, I realy enjoy my first month in this IPG and I will remember	C1P16.txt
16	awatankuasa Perwakilan Pelajar(JPP) in IPG; so I had to search	C1P17.txt
17	to maintain my good name, position in IPG. Since we are the j	C1P17.txt
18	gerly waited to went back to home. In IPG, we had a lot of ru	C1P17.txt
19	ficial programme that were verified by IPG. At first, I had a	C1P17.txt

Figure 4.22: Sentences containing the acronyms 'JPP' and 'IPG'

From the database, '*JPP*' is the abbreviated words of *Jawatankuasa Perwakilan Pelajar*, a council representing the students in the teacher training college. They are collocated with 'member' and 'committee members'. The acronym 'JPP' was used by two participants.

'*IPG*' stands for *Institut Pendidikan Guru* or teacher training institute. The researcher excluded any references of IPG as a toponym and only included the use of 'IPG' as a reference to an institution or when it is collocated or compounded with standard English word such as used in C1F1 (IPG student). In total, four participants used the acronym 'IPG'.

4.2.13 Ooi's Concentric Circle framework (2001)

The emphasis on the context of use and origin of words of Ooi's (2001) framework enabled the researcher to list all the idenfieid MalE lexical items into five groups. *Saree* and *dhoti*, both borrowed from the Indian language have entered the core called Group A: Core English. Local words referring to cultural and culinary terms fall under Group C. So are hyponymous collocations and acronyms. Transfers can be group under Group B or D depending on the context of use. Of the five groups, words falling under Group C (twenty five words) and Group D (thirty three words) constitute the highest number of nativised words. While there is overlapping of many items in the twenty five categories framework, some lexical items cannot meet Baskaran's (2005) criteria, and therefore can only be placed in Ooi's (2001) framework. . Here are those words:

Table 4.2: Other MalE lexis identified using Ooi's (2001) Framework

Group	Identified MalE
Group B	handphone scold* beside search for/searching for join
Group D	at last cure sir get down get into means how went to sleep/ going to sleep sleep late
Group E	*dewan*

Note:
The asterisks indicate the words appear in many tense inflection forms, plural forms.

Hit	KWIC	File
1	alarms starts at 4.30 a.m. until 6.30 a.m. in my handphone un	C1P4.txt
2	well. Both of them were busy playing with their handphones.	A2P14.txt
3	unter. Both of them were busy playing with their handphones.	A1P14.txt

Figure 4.23: Sentences containing the lexical item 'handphone'

Leong (2004, p.70) finds the word 'handphone' is used in radio advertisements. It is a coinage and it is suggested to be classified under Ooi's Group B. The term is made up of words of English origin and it is accepted and understood by MalE users in both formal and informal contexts. This is further supported by Su (2006) who focuses her dissertation solely on the word 'handphone' and has extensive data ranging from printed advertisements to students' essay. She recommends that 'handphone' be grouped under Group B instead of Group D (p. 146). Checks in the two dictionaries found no entry for this item. An Internet search in dictionary.com found that 'handphone' is a term for mobile phone in South East Asian English. This research further reinforces this observation. The data shows that no participants made attempts to use other standard terms such as 'mobile phone' or 'cell phone'. The only two participants preferred to use the word 'handphone' instead.

Hit	KWIC	File
1	college student My father scold me to slep early at night be	C1P1.txt
2	by the JPP members as they scold and bully us during the orie	C1P3.txt
3	s with alot of speeches and scoldings from the lecturers and J	C1P3.txt
4	rs in the campus. They also scolded us for not respecting thei	C1P3.txt
5	r of the hotel. 4. The man scold his workers for their poor s	A2P13.txt
6	mplained to the owner. She scolded the servent and ask me to	A1P2.txt
7	cry loudly. The waiter was scolded by my parents. Then, the	A1P5.txt
8	o the reception and started scolding the receptionist in front	A1P13.txt

Figure 4.24: Sentences containing the lexical item 'scold'

'Scolding' is another example of how a nativised lexical item does not fit into Baskaran's framework. Platt and Weber (1980, p. 98) suggested that the word has become dated. The word is formal in standard English. In Hughes and Heah (2006, p.197), it is categorised under words that are used differently in the United Kingdom. 'Scold' in OALD is directed to children, not adults or a colleague (p.1321). Evidence shows that participants used the word 'scold' to tell off adults, such as by the employer to the servant (A1P2). The TCEED (p.865) explains in SME, 'scold' is synonymous with *rebuke* or *reproach*, and one can scold an equal or a colleague.

Internet checks on Malaysian newspapers and online websites suggest that the use of the nativised word 'scold' in the headlines has been accepted in the formal context. Headlines on online newsletter and newspapers such as "*Lawyers scolded for bad behaviour*"[5], or "*Woman attempts suicide after a scolding by husband's employer*"[6] support this.

Hit	KWIC	File
2	addition, you should not sleep late on night. This is cause y	C2P19.txt
4	morning. I tried alot to sleep early but as a result I could	C1P1.txt
6	'clock, early morning and sleep about 1 o'clock morning. The w	C1P2.txt
8	oomate and I was going to sleep. Suddenly all our class girls	C1P2.txt
15	most daily they let us to sleep late throught out of the orien	C1P19.txt
18	door again. 4. I went to sleep earlier than usual because I w	A2P3.txt
19	topped and I went back to sleep. 5. The next day, I decided n	A2P3.txt
20	pass by quickly I went to sleep. At about 12 oclock I wake up	A2P18.txt
23	stopped and I went to my sleep again at late night. The next	A1P3.txt

Figure 4.25: Sentences containing the phrase 'go to sleep' and 'sleep late'

There is a distinct tendency among the participants in this study to use 'go to sleep' instead of the standard English *go to bed* (see Tongue, 1979, p.78; Platt & Weber, 1980, p. 91). MalE users also have a different conceptualization of 'sleep late'. While in standard English, 'sleeping late' means a morning activity where a person stays longer in bed, in MalE, it is a night activity where a person goes to bed late.

Hit	KWIC	File
1	ove. I would like to inform Sir that this letter is about a p	A2P1.txt
2	to suggest an idea. I need Sirs help to activate this idea.	A2P1.txt
3	TLDM Programme. I hope that Sir will understand my words in t	A2P1.txt

Figure 4.26: Sentences containing the lexical item 'Sir'

The word 'sir' has been categorised in Ooi's framework and not as Formalisation under Baskaran's framework because words that are formalised are used in informal context. However, in the case of A2F1, it was used in a formal letter.

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[5]http://www.malaysianbar.org.my/bar_news/berita_badan_peguam/lawyers_scolded_for_bad_behaviour.html
[6] http://thestar.com.my/metro/story.asp?file=/2011/10/24/sarawak/9758820

Tongue (1979, p. 69) observed that the term was used in schools to refer to male teachers. Instead of using the pronoun 'you' when addressing a male teacher, students use 'sir'. This tendency may be influenced by the Malay language. In Malay, it is polite to address teachers as *cikgu*, and not the pronoun *awak*. The practice seemed to have crossed over into writing especially when the term of address in formal letters is 'dear sir'.

Hit	KWIC	File
1	ed there before me and fetch me as I get down from the bus. I	A1P10.txt

Hit	KWIC	File
3	twenty minutes, the bus arrived and we manged to get into the	A2P7.txt
4	t numbers respectively. Eventhough we managed to get into the	A2P7.txt
6	twenty minutes, the bus arrived and we managed to get into the	A1P7.txt
7	s respectively. At last, eventhough we managed to get into the	A1P7.txt

Figure 4.27: Sentences containing the phrase 'get down' and 'get into'

The phrases 'get down' and 'get into' are used to explain the action of boarding and leaving a vehicle, particular the bus. The TCEED recorded 'get down' as an informal SME (p. 414). The standard English usage is to 'get off' and 'get on' (cf. *board* in OALD p.150). Tongue however claims that in standard English, the normal expression is to 'get out' of a vehicle (1979, p. 74).

Hit	KWIC	File
1	orking. If it is an old man or an old lady means how? Are th	A2P12.txt

Figure 4.28: Sentence containing the phrase 'means how'

Leong suggests that the phrase 'means how' has the same structure as 'so how' (2004, p. 78). It is used after a declarative statement to suggest a Wh-question. It is very similar semantically to the Malay phrase *macam mana*. As observed by Leong, the phrase is used in daily conversations. However, its use has crossed over into formal

writing, and in this case, a letter of complaint. Because of this, the phrase was identified as a MalE word under Group D category.

Two other lexical items placed in Group B are 'ragging' and 'seniors'. They are also group under Baskaran's (2005) framework. Internet checks showed that Malaysian online newspapers and reports in websites used these lexical items. Headlines such as *"Ragging, a nagging issue now"*[7] and *"Three charged with assault during ragging"*[8], an incident which occurred in an industrial training institute, used the word 'ragging'.

In MalE, the lexical item 'seniors' has a larger meaning than just a high rank or status. In OALD (p. 1344) in the area of school and college, a senior in BrE is defined as an older child whereas in the US, a senior is the student in the last year at a high school or college. MalE users, interestingly, combine the two meanings so that a 'senior' means an older student from any programme or course of study. An internet search was done to support this interpretation. In a local public university (University of Technology Malaysia) academic brochure, 'senior' students were defined as "those who have undergone and passed a minimum of one semester of study at the university"[9]. Meanwhile a report in a Malaysian embassy website had to differentiate between the 'seniors' and the students who were in the fifth and final year by using the term 'most senior'[10] . The fact that all the participants used the lexical item 'senior' supports the researcher's decision to classify this item in Group B.

It is worth pointing out that out of the twenty five categories, there were no examples found for seven categories: institutionalised concept, semantic restrictions, campus/student coinages, suffixation, past tense inflection, gerund formation, and conversion.

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[7] The headline in a report on 5 July, 2010 in http://www.asiaone.com/News/Education/Story/A1Story20100705-225316.html.
[8] The headline dated 27 January 2012 in http://mystar.newspaperdirect.com/epaper/viewer.aspx
[9] http://fbb.utm.my/~webfbb_j1514/images/undergraduate_biosains/academicregulations.pdf
[10] http://www.kln.gov.my/web/pol_warsaw/home/-/asset_publisher/8pPT/blog/meeting-with-malaysian-students-in-krakow-poland?redirect=%2Fweb%2Fpol_warsaw

4.3 Distribution and Frequency of MalE lexis

This study identified a total of seventy one nativised lexical items from ninety six accepted texts. **Table 4.3** below shows the all the identified items and the distribution according to the number of participants and the texts. The lexical items are presented in alphabetical order.

Table 4.3: Distribution and Frequency of MalE lexis according to the number of participants and texts

No	Identified MalE	Parti-cipant	Texts
1	Achi Muruku / Achu Murukku	2	B1P12, B2P12, B1P5, B2P5
2	Aipasi / Ippasi	3	B1P2, B2P2, B1P4, B2P4, B1P7, B2P7
3	angpow / ang pau / angpau	3	B1P9,B1P5, B2P5, B1P7, B2P7
4	Athirasam / adhirasam	2	B1P8, B1P12, B2P12
5	attend	1	B1P5, B2P5
6	at last	1	A1P2, A2P2
7	baju kurung /bajukurung	8	C2P2, C1P4, C1P6, C1P8, C1P11, C1P13, C1P15, C1P16
8	beside	6	A1F4, A1F14, C1F3, C1F5, C1F6, C1F13
9	blur	1	A1P16
10	bring	4	A1P1, A1P5, A2P5, A2P2, C1P7
11	come	1	A1P15
12	cover shoes	2	C1P1, C1P5
13	cure	1	A1P1
14	Deepavali	9	B1P2, B2P2, B1P4, B2P4, B1P5, B2P5, B1P7, B2P7, B1P8, B2P8, B1P9, B2P9 B1P10, B2P10, B1P14, B2P14, B1P16, B2P16
15	dewan	2	C1P17, C1P19
16	dhoti	3	B1P4, B2P4, B1P5, B2P5, B1P7, B2P7
17	felt sorry for sb.	2	A1P16, A2P9
18	fetch*	2	A2P8, A1P10, A2P10
19	finished	2	A1P18, A2P10
20	follow	3	C1P1, C1P11, C1P16
21	freshie*	1	C1P18
22	get down	1	A1P10
23	get into	1	A1P7, A2P7
24	go* back / went back	5	C1P10, B1P10, C1P19, A2P4, C1P6, C1P9
25	handphone*	2	C1P4, A1P14, A2P14
26	idli / itali/ italizi	3	B1P9, B2P9, B1P12, B2P12, B1P16, B2P16
27	IPG	4	C1P1, C1P4, C1P16, C1P17
28	jelebi	1	B1P12, B2P12

Table 4.3, continued

29	join	1	A1P1
30	JPP	2	C1P3, C1P17
31	kavadis	1	B1P11
32	keep*	2	A1P2, A2P9
33	kolam	3	B1P4, B2P4, B1P8, B1P9, B2P9
34	laddu	4	B1P5, B2P5, B1P8, B1P12, B2P12, B2P9
35	last time	1	A1P10, A2P10
36	leave	1	A2P9
37	Lord Muruga	1	B1P11, B2P11
38	means how	1	A2P12
39	mingle / mingglel/ minggel / mingkle	3	C2P8, C1P1, C2P1,C1P11
40	muruku / murukku	10	B1P2, B2P2, B1P8, B1P12, B2P12, B1P4, B2P4, B1P5, B2P5, B1P7, B2P7, B1P9, B2P9, B1P10, B2P10, B1P14, B2P14, B1P16
41	oil bath / oilbath / oil bathing	8	B1P2, B2P2, B1P7, B2P7, B1P8, B2P8, B1P9, B2P9, B1P10, B2P10, B1P14, B2P14, B1P16, B2P16, B1P4, B2P4
42	one kind	1	C1P15
43	option	2	C1P1, C1P3
44	paalkudam	1	B1P11
45	payasam	1	B1P12, B2P12
46	Ponggal	2	B1P2, B2P2, B1P3, B2P3,
47	pooja	1	B1P5
48	pool cova	1	B2P9
49	Punjabi suit / Punjabi shot	3	B1P5, B1P12, B2P12,C2P2
50	ragging*	5	C1P2, C1P6, C1P7, C1P8, C1P17
51	Rangoli Kolam	2	B1P8, B2P9
52	sambar	2	B1P9, B2P9, B1P16, B2P16
53	saree/sari	3	B1P4, B2P4, B1P7, B2P7, B1P5, B2P5
54	scold*	5	A1P2, A1P5, C1P3, C1P1, A1P13, A2P13
55	search for/searching for	6	A1P14, A2P18, B1P16, C1P17, C1P16, C1P12
56	send off	1	C1P8
57	senior*/seniour*/siniors	19	A1P11, C1P11, C2P11, C1P1, C1P2, C2P2, C1P3,C2P3, C1P4, C1P5, C2P5, C1P6, C1P7, C2P7, C1P8, C2P8, C1P9, C1P10, C1P12, C2P12, C1P13, C1P14, C2P14, C1P15, C1P16, C2P16, C1P17, C2P17, C1P18, C2P19
58	side	1	A1P7
59	sir	1	A2P1
60	sleep late	1	C2P19, C1P19

Table 4.3, continued

61	somemore	2	A1P11, A2P9
62	stay*	11	C1P8,C2P8, C1P10, C2P10, C1P2, C1P4, C1P5, C1P14, C1P15, C1P17, C1P19, A1P1, B1P7,B2P7
63	tackle	1	C1P15
64	take breakfast / take lunch	4	B1P8, B1P10, B2P10, C1P1, C1P5
65	Thaipusam	2	B1P2, B2P2, B1P11, B2P11
66	thosai / tosai	3	B1P9, B2P9, B1P12, B2P12, B1P16, B2P16
67	took	1	A1P1,A2P1
68	vadai	3	B1P9, B2P9, B1P12, B2P12, B1P16, B2P16
69	went to sleep / going to sleep	3	A2P18, A2P3, C1P2
70	white people	1	B1P12
71	wish*	3	C2P2, C2P8, C1P6

Note:
The asterisks indicate the words appear in many tense inflection forms, plural forms.

Topping the list is 'senior'. It was used by all nineteen participants in both types of writings. The lexical item 'stay' was used by eleven participants, *muruku* (ten), Deepavali (nine), *baju kurung* (eight), oil bath (eight).

Table 4.4 on the next page shows the list of the identified MalE lexis in the database according to texts. This table also shows all the items that were flagged using quotation marks as indicated in the original essays.

Table 4.4: List of Identified MalE Lexis According to Texts

	Task A1	Task A2	Task B1	Task B2	Task C1	Task C2
P1	bring(4) join cure took	sir(3) took	none	none	scold take breakfast follow siniors(5) mingglel cover shoes option(4) IPG(4)	minggel
P2	at last scolded keep(2)	at last bring	*'Pongal' 'Thaipusam' 'Deepavali'* ^ (8) *'Aipasi'* oilbath *'muruku'*	*Pongal Thaipusam 'Deepavali'* ^ (6) *'Aipasi'* oil bath *'Muruku'*	stay(2) *baju kurung* ragging(4) seniour* (14) going to bed	*'baju kurung' 'punjabi shot'* seniours (6) wish
P3	went to sleep	went to sleep(2)	*Pongal*	*Pongal*(4)	JPP(2) scold*(3) seniors(4) beside(2) option	seniors (2)
P4	beside	went back	*Deepavali* (3) *'Aipasi' 'murukku' 'kolam'* oil bathing (2) *'dhoti' 'saree'*	*Deepavali* (4) *'Aipasi' 'Murukku' 'kolam'* oil bathing (2) *'dhoti' 'saree'*	*baju kurung*(2) staying handphone seniors(3) IPG(1)	not original
P5	scolded bring	bring	*Deepavali* (6) *'Sari' 'Dhoti' 'Punjabi suit' 'Murukku' 'Achu murukku' 'laddu' 'pooja'* attend(2) *'ang pau'*	*Deepavali* (5) *'Dhoti'*(2) *'Sari'*(2) *'Murukku' 'Achu Murukku' 'Laddu' 'pooja'* attend(2) *'ang pau'*	senior*(2) beside stay take lunch	seniors(6)
P6	came back	none	not original	not original	*baju kurung*(2) seniors(7) ragging went back beside(2) wished(2)	not original

Table 4.4, continued

P7	side get into(2)	get into(2)	*Deepavali* (6) *'Aipasi'* staying *murukku* 'oil bath' *saree* *dhoti* *'Angpau'*(2)	*Deepavali* (7) *'Aipasi'* staying *murukku* 'oil bath' *saree* *dhoti* *'Angpau'*(2)	ragging seniors(4) bring	seniors(2)

P8	none	fetched	*'Deepavali'*
			(3)
			oil bath
			Rangoli
			  Kolam
			take
			  breakfast
			Muruku
			Athirasam
			laddu
				'Deepavali'
				^(4)
				oil bath(3)
					send off
					baju
					  kurung
					stay
					rag*(3)
					seniors(2)
						stay
						seniors(2)
						mingle
						wish

P9	none	leave somemore keep felt sorry for sb.	*Deepavali* (7) *murukku*(2) *thosai* *idli* *vadai* *sambar* *kolam* (2) oil bath(2) *'angpow'*	*Deepavali* (5) *'murukku'* *'laddu'* *'pool cova'* *thosai* *idli* *vadai* *sambar* *rangoli* *kolam*(1) oil bath(2)	went back (2) seniors	none

P 10	last time
	fetch
	get down
		last time
		fetch
		finished
			Deepavali
			(7)
			Murukku
			going back
			oil bath
			take
			  breakfast
				Deepavali
				(5)
				'murukku'
				oil bath
				take
				  breakfast
					stay(4)
					seniors(3)
					go back
						stay

P 11	senior(3) somemore	none	*'Thaipusam'* ^(4) Lord Muruga(10) *'kavadi's*(2) *'paalkudam'*	*'Thaipusam'* ^(3) Lord Muruga(6)	seniors mingkle *baju* *kurung* follow	seniors

Table 4.4, continued

P 12	staying	means how	*'muruku'* *'achi muruku'* *'adhirasam'* *'laddu'* *'jelebi'* *'payasam'* *'vadai'* Punjabi suit (3) *'thosai'* *'idli'* white people	*'muruku'* *'achi muruku'* *'adhirasam'* *'laddu'* *'jelebi'* *'payasam'* *'vadai'* Punjabi suit *'thosai'* *'idli'*	seniors(2) searching for	seniors (4)
P 13	scolding	scold	not original	not original	*'baju kurung'* senior*(4) beside	none
P 14	beside search for handphones	handphones	*Deepavali* (9) *'Murukku'* oil bath	*Deepavali* (7) *'Murukku'* oil bath	stay seniors(2)	seniors (2)
P 15	come(2)	stays	not original	not original	*baju kurung* cover shoes senior one kind	none
P 16	blur felt sorry for sb.	searching for	*Deepavali*(9) *'Ippasi'* *'murukku'* oil bath *'itali'* *'tosai'* *'Sambar'* *'vadai'* searching for	*'Deepavali'* ^(4) *'Ippasi'* 'oil bath' ^(2) *'italizi'* *'tosai'* *'sambar'* *'vadai'*	searching for follow*(2) *'baju kurung'* seniors(4) tackle IPG(2)	seniors (3)
P 17	not original	not original	not original	not original	seniors JPP IPG(4) search for ragging *dewan* staying	seniors (3)
P 18	finished	went to sleep searched for	-	-	freshie*(3) senior*(3)	none
P 19	-	-	not original	not original	stay*(2) *Dewan* go back sleep late	seniors(4) sleep late

Note: The symbol – means no text was submitted
The symbol ^ indicates that in the item was not flagged all the time.
Numbers in brackets indicate frequencies of more than one.

4.3.1 Contextual Cushioning of MalE lexis

As explained in Section 3.2.5 this study looked at any attempts of **contextual cushioning** (Dasenbrook, as cited in Lowenberg, 1992, p. 255) in which the participants provide clues of the general meaning through the surrounding text.

Evidence shows there was little attempt to explain the nativised words although many cultural and culinary terms were used in Task B1 and B2. Many participants listed the traditional foods, but only used the phrase 'sweets and biscuits' to explain snacks such as *jelebi*, *payasam* or *laddu*. In fact, they wrote about savoury dishes such as *sambar* and *thosai* without explaining what kind of dishes they are. Also, a few participants explained that the Deepavali celebration is held in the Indian month called *Aipasi*. In one of the only two texts describing Thaipusam (B1P11), there were also no contextual clues as to what *kavadis* and *paalkudam* are.

The researcher looked for any attempt by the participants to rephrase a nativised MalE lexis in the formal writings in Task A2, B2 and C2. Only participant P18 rephrased the passive verb 'finished' in Task A1 into 'run out of blankets' in Task A2 while participant P9 rephrased 'ang pow' in Task B1 into 'give gift in the form of money' in Task B2. Aside from these two examples, evidence shows that there was no attempt at all to give contextual clues to MalE lexis under Baskaran's (2005) Standard English Lexicalisation description.

It can be concluded that being young adult MalE users, the majority of participants did not use contextual cushioning to help the readers deal with nativised words. They are probably not accomplished writers and in their own perception, judged their own writing proficiency at 'moderately proficient'. In general, it seemed that the participants had assumed that readers would readily understand the cultural and culinary terms as well as the words and phrases that comprise English words but are not used in standard English.

4.3.2 Flagging of MalE lexis

Another observation is the inconsistent use of italics or **flagging** using quotation marks of borrowed words from local languages. From the ninety six essays, words categorised under Standard English Lexicalisation were not flagged. However, there were inconsistencies in flagging the nativised words that are identified as Local Language Referents. Some participants flagged the name of religious celebrations ('Deepavali', 'Thaipusam', 'Pongal') and the practices ('*pooja*', '*kavadis*'). Some flagged the culinary terms ('*murukku*', '*laddu*') while others do not. The term Chinese word '*ang pow*' was flagged by all three participants (B1P5, B1P7, B2P7, B1P9) while only two out of eight participants flagged the Malay word '*baju kurung*' (C1P13, C1P16). Participants also flagged traditional clothes ('*punjabi* suit', '*dhoti*', '*saree*'). The term 'oil bath' identified as a transfer was flagged by two (B2P7, B1P16) out of eight participants. This could be to highlight the distinctness of the practice of applying oil onto the body in the Indian culture. The participants also made attempts to explain the benefits of this practice.

This possibly indicates that the majority of participants are aware that words which do not belong to the English vocabulary should be highlighted. However, the participants seemed oblivious to the deviations of words under Standard English Lexicalisation and did not flag them or rephrase them. Based on the data in **Table 4.3,** these words were found in all three tasks and in both creative and formal writings. This could mean that the participants accept the words identified as Standard English Lexicalisation, Acronyms, Transfers and those identified under Ooi's Group B and D as standard English language.

4.3.3 'Outer Frame' and 'Inner Frame'

From the ninety six accepted essays, the researcher found that the **outer frame** was the favoured frame used by the participants in all contexts of writings. **Outer frame** refers to the language used by the narrator or author to communicate with the reader. Of the seventy one identified MalE lexis in the essays, there were only three instances where MalE lexis was used in the **inner frame** (language used between the characters in the narrative): 'freshie' (C1P18), '*IPG*' (C1P1) and *baju kurung* (C1P6).

While Bamiro (1994) finds that more than half of Nigerian English lexical items used by the three authors appear in the **outer frame**, the findings in the present study more than corroborate that of Bamiro's. **Nearly 95% of the identified MalE lexis occurred in the outer frame.** Bamiro implies that Nigerian English usage is evident throughout various social and educational domains as well as first language backgrounds (1994, p. 58). **MalE lexis usage seems to be entrenched in the written English of this group of young Malaysians. They appear to cut across both types of writings as they are assumed to be accepted and understood by the reader.**

4.3.4 MalE Lexis per text per 1000 words

The next table shows the number of occurrences of MalE lexis in each text and the converted numbers per text per 1000 words. The average occurrence in each task and each participant are also calculated and presented.

Table 4.5: Number of MalE lexis per text per 1000 words

	A1		A2		B1		B2		C1		C2		Ave.
	per no. of w	per 1000w	per no. of w	per 1000w	per no. of w	per 1000w	per no. of w	per 1000w	per no. of w	per 1000w	per no. of w	per 1000w	
P1	7/670	10.444	4/536	7.46	0/648	0.00	0/663	0.00	18/677	26.586	1/380	2.631	7.853
P2	4/459	8.712	2/314	6.368	13/545	23.842	11/398	27.632	22/646	33.034	9/394	22.842	20.571
P3	1/548	1.824	2/449	4.454	1/503	1.988	4/508	7.872	12/613	19.572	2/368	5.434	6.857
P4	1/405	2.469	1/312	3.205	10/508	19.680	11/486	22.627	8/674	11.864	not ori.	not ori.	11.969
P5	2/434	4.608	1/307	3.257	16/537	29.792	16/392	40.816	5/537	9.31	6/353	16.992	17.462
P6	1/572	1.748	0/472	0.00	not ori.	not ori.	not ori.	not ori.	15/846	17.73	not ori.	not ori.	6.492
P7	3/421	7.125	2/444	4.504	14/518	27.02	15/555	27.015	6/634	9.462	2/375	5.332	13.409
P8	0/537	0.00	1/346	2.890	9/438	20.547	7/288	24.304	8/612	13.064	5/538	9.29	11.682
P9	0/387	0.00	4/361	11.08	18/641	29.304	15/554	27.075	9/609	14.778	0/352	0.00	13.706
P10	3/462	6.492	3/358	8.379	11/452	24.332	8/468	17.088	8/605	13.216	1/422	2.369	11.979
P11	4/727	5.5	0/255	0.00	17/547	31.076	9/238	37.809	4/559	7.152	1/208	4.807	14.391
P12	1/569	1.757	1/357	2.801	13/637	20.397	10/518	19.3	3/456	6.576	4/450	8.888	9.953
P13	1/492	2.032	1/370	2.702	not ori.	not ori.	not ori.	not ori.	6/586	10.236	0/265	0.00	6.301
P14	3/386	7.77	1/189	5.291	11/366	30.052	9/362	24.858	3/579	5.181	2/269	7.434	13.431
P15	2/348	5.746	1/260	3.846	not ori.	not ori.	not ori.	not ori.	4/687	5.82	0/232	0.00	3.853
P16	2/574	3.484	1/377	2.652	17/526	32.317	11/327	33.638	11/739	14.883	3/397	7.554	15.754
P17	not ori.	not ori.	not ori.	not ori.	not ori.	not ori.	not ori.	not ori.	9/630	14.283	3/434	6.912	11.391
P18	1/304	3.289	2/382	5.234	-	-	-	-	5/410	12.195	0/321	0.00	5.789
P19	-	-	-	-	not ori.	not ori.	not ori.	not ori.	5/472	10.59	5/440	11.59	11.090
Ave.		4.235		4.360		22.334		23.848		13.713		6.592	

The average of number of MalE lexis per text per 1000 words in Task A1 (narrative) is 4.235 while in Task A2 (formal – complaint letter), it is 4.360. In Task B1 (narrative), the average number of MalE lexis per text per 1000 words is 22.334 while in Task B2 (formal – newspaper report), it is 23.848. Finally, In Task C1 (narrative), the average number of MalE lexis per text per 1000 words is 13.713 while in Task C2 (formal – magazine article), it is 6.592.

There is only a slight difference in the numbers in Tasks A and B with, interestingly enough, the average in the formal writings edging slightly over the averages of the narrative writings. The averages of Tasks C bucked the trend of the other two tasks with the narrative writing texts having more occurrences of MalE words on average than that of the formal writing. In fact, there is a considerable difference between the averages. The averages of the MalE lexis used across the six texts submitted by each of the nineteen participants range form as high as 20.571 (participant P2) to as low as 3.853 (participant P15).

The occurrence level of MalE lexis in Tasks A is low. It hovers at around 4 words per text per 1000 words in both tasks. The types of lexis found were classified under Standard English Lexicalisation and Group D. The pattern changes in Tasks B. The averages are higher, due to the repetitions of certain words under the Local Language Referents description such as the name of the religious festivals (Deepavali, Thaipusam) and certain cultural referents (Lord *Muruga*, *murukku*) in the same text. They were then repeated in the formal writings in Task B2.

The lexical items found in Tasks C have more occurrences of Standard English Lexicalisation items particularly college colloquialism. Evidence show that unlike Tasks A2 and B2 where participants somewhat retold what had been described in the narrative essays, the participants did not include their personal experience in Tasks C2. Instead, the majority of participants wrote about general advice and tips to prepare

oneself to be a college student. This could explain why there is a high average of MalE words in Task C1 but the number dropped considerably in Task C2.

Taking all three tasks into account, it can be seen that, with the exception of Task C, there is only a slight difference in terms of the occurrences of MalE lexis between narrative and formal writings.

With a small sample size, the data shown in **Table 4.5** must be taken with caution. Using a common denominator of 1000 words made it easy for the researcher to compare the data. Therefore, it is not a real representation of the actual use of MalE lexis, but merely a projection. In addition, not all participants submitted the complete six essays. Even then, a few submitted texts had to be rejected due to concerns over their originality that might influence the analysis of this study. The findings cannot be extrapolated to all young adult Malaysians.

4.3.5 Detecting the lectal range of participants

To further complement the findings to detect the differences of usage of MalE lexis, the researcher devised a way to reflect the lectal range used by the participants in their texts. The data presented in **Table 4.4** in Section 4.3 was used to this end.

Baskaran's (2005, p.22) three-tiered description of the MalE lexis was employed and refined using Ooi's (2001) five groupings of nativised words. Based on the modified description explained in **Section 3.3.2** and **Figure 3.4**, each text was examined and marked as having 'Official MalE', 'Unofficial MalE' or 'Broken MalE' lexis.

Texts having 'Official MalE' lexis were texts containing nativised lexis under Ooi's (2001) Group A, B or C words. Texts where no MalE lexis was found were also marked as having 'Official MalE' lexis. 'Unofficial MalE' texts were texts containing Ooi's (2001) Group D and Group A words. They may also contain Group B or C

words. Texts having 'Broken MalE' lexis contained Ooi's (2001) Group E and Group A words, and they may also contain Group B, C, D or D words.

Using this description the researcher could then extrapolate the lectal range of this particular group of MalE users and determine whether there are differences in the usage of the lexis between the two types of writings. The data were presented as below.

Table 4.6: Identification of 96 texts according to Baskaran's modified description of MalE lexis

	Task A1	Task A2	Task B1	Task B2	Task C1	Task C2
P1	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	*Off. MalE*	*Off. MalE*	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE
P2	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE
P3	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	*Off. MalE*	*Off. MalE*	Unof. MalE	*Off. MalE*
P4	*Off. MalE*	Unof. MalE	*Off. MalE*	*Off. MalE*	Unof. MalE	-
P5	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	*Off. MalE*
P6	Unof. MalE	*Off. MalE*	-	-	Unof. MalE	-
P7	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	*Off. MalE*
P8	*Off. MalE*	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	*Off. MalE*	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE
P9	*Off. MalE*	Unof. MalE	*Off. MalE*	*Off. MalE*	Unof. MalE	*Off. MalE*
P10	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE
P11	Unof. MalE	*Off. MalE*	*Off. MalE*	*Off. MalE*	Unof. MalE	*Off. MalE*
P12	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	*Off. MalE*	*Off. MalE*
P13	*Off. MalE*	*Off. MalE*	-	-	*Off. MalE*	*Off. MalE*
P14	*Off. MalE*	*Off. MalE*	*Off. MalE*	*Off. MalE*	Unof. MalE	*Off. MalE*
P15	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	-	-	Unof. MalE	*Off. MalE*
P16	Unof. MalE	*Off. MalE*	*Off. MalE*	*Off. MalE*	Unof. MalE	*Off. MalE*
P17	-	-	-	-	Bro. MalE	*Off. MalE*
P18	Unof. MalE	Unof. MalE	-	-	Unof. MalE	*Off. MalE*
P19	-	-	-	-	Bro. MalE	Unof. MalE

Once this was completed, the texts were separated into the two types of writings and sorted according to the three lectal range. This is done to analyse the differences of lexis usage between the contexts of writings.

Table 4.7: Official, Unofficial and Broken MalE Texts in narrative writings

Lectal Range of lexis	Task A1	Task B1	Task C1	Total	Percentage
Official MalE	5	7	2	14	28.6%
Unofficial MalE	12	6	15	33	67.3%
Broken MalE	0	0	2	2	4.1%
Total	17	13	19	49	100.0%

Data from **Table 4.7** show that Unofficial MalE lexis was the most prevalent in the narrative writings as it was used in the two-thirds of the narrative texts. The gap between narrative texts with Unofficial MalE lexis (67.3%) and narrative texts with Official MalE lexis (28.6%) is very pronounced. This implies that there seems to be a higher occurrence of Unofficial MalE lexis in narrative writings. This is reflected by the overwhelming thirty three texts found using Unofficial MalE words as opposed to only fourteen texts across all three tasks using Official MalE words.

Table 4.8: Official, Unofficial and Broken MalE Texts in formal writings

Lectal Range of lexis	Task A2	Task B2	Task C2	Total	Percentage
Official MalE	5	8	12	25	53.2%
Unofficial MalE	12	5	5	22	46.8%
Broken MalE	0	0	0	0	0.0
Total	17	13	17	47	100.0%

In **Table 4.8** data show that in formal writings Official MalE lexis was more prevalent (53.2%) and it is closely followed by texts using Unofficial MalE lexis (46.8%). Note that texts with Official MalE lexis account for slightly more than half of the accepted formal texts. No text was found to have been written using Broken MalE lexis in all three tasks of formal writing be it in the letter, newpaper report or article.

Therefore, in general, the data suggest that the use of MalE lexis corresponds with the contexts of task. Although more Official MalE lexis were prevalent in formal texts, a lot of unofficial MalE lexis do occur.

Taken together, both sets of data spell out a significant finding. There seems to be a noticeable presence of Unofficial MalE lexis in the writings of the participants.

Again the data here must be approached with caution. While this approach does help the researcher analyse the texts at the macro level, bear in mind that this study only looked at one linguistic element of MalE. Other areas such as the syntactical and rhetorical aspects were not studied here. The fact that the texts are first drafts,

containing many what would term as errors in spelling, syntax and structure across all

the texts, and the strict parameters in extracting the primary data should be considered.

All of these might have affected the analyses and the findings.

4.4 Novel MalE Lexis

Because this study set conditions to avoid claims of idiosyncratic occurrences,

one-time occurrences of novel and new MalE lexis were excluded. However, the

researcher believed they can prove valuable for further investigation in future research.

Table 4.9: List of novel MalE lexis

Category	novel MalE lexis
polysemic variation	innocent (B1P11, B2P11) for 'pure' small talk/briefing/conversation (C1P3, C1P2) for 'short' plaster (A1P1) as verb mark (A1P1, A2P1) for 'scar' cost (A1P2, A2P2) for 'price' polysterene (A1P4) for 'container' stairs(B1P11) for 'steps' change (A1P12) for 'redeem'
College Colloquialism	super seniors (C1P3)
Transfer	evil eyes (B1P3, B1P3) milk rice (B1P3, B2P3) sains school (A1P1) Lord Krishna (B1P8)
Acronyms	SJK(T) (C1P3) PPISMP (C1P17) TLDM (A1P1) KU (C1P19)
Hyponymous collocation	*Deepavali cards* (B1P2) *Punjabi clothes* (B2P5)
Cultural and culinary terms	*Alva* (B2P5) *padaiyal* (B1P7, B2P7) *thavani* (B2P7) *TaleDeepavali* (B2P7) *pirasatham* (B1P9, B2P9) *Marghazi* (B2P3) *Bhogi* (B2P3) *Thai pongal* (B2P3) *Matthu pongal* (B2P3) *kanni pongal* (B2P3) *Janggri* (B1P5) *Omapudi* (B1P8) *arathi* (B2P3) *urundai* (B2P9) *italizi* (B2P16) *chattni* (B1P16, B2P16) *sepak takraw* (C2F8)

4.5 Analysis of Questionnaires

As triangulation a questionnaire was prepared using the identified MalE lexis found in **Section 4.2**. The purpose is to ascertain the level of acceptability of the use of the nativised lexis by the participants who actually used these lexical items in their writings, and a group of language educators who represent educated adult Malaysians.

A total of forty seven examples of MalE lexis were included in the questionnaire. They were presented in sentence form. The sentences were taken from the database but grammatical corrections were made. Then the identified lexis was underlined. Participants and language educators were asked to choose one out of four options in response to the question "When can the underlined word or words be used?" They were to decide if the lexical item can be used in **formal writings** (formal letters and emails, reports, articles, academic examination papers), **informal writings** (personal letters and emails, creative essays, novels), in **both formal and informal writings**, or the word cannot be used in the written form but may be used in oral settings (terned as **none**). Two open-ended questions were added in the questionnaire for the language educators. Refer to **Appendix H** for the complete questionnaire.

The responses of each MalE lexical item of the participants were totalled and shown in **Table 4.10**. The lexical items which had no responses were also indicated. The highlighted numbers show the highest number to participants and language educators choosing the option.

Table 4.10: Detailed Score of Questionnaire Responses

No.	MalE Lexis	Formal		Informal		Both		None		N/R	
		P	LE	P	LE	P	LE	P	LE	P	LE
1	pooja	1	0	**11**	6	5	0	2	0	-	-
2	baju kurung	4	0	**10**	3	4	3	1	0	-	-
3	marukku	4	0	**8**	4	4	2	3	0	-	-
4	Punjabi suit	3	0	**8**	1	7	5	1	0	-	-
5	were finished	3	0	3	1	6	0	6	5	1	-
6	keep	0	1	3	0	**15**	3	0	2	1	-
7	one kind	0	0	7	0	1	0	**11**	6	-	-
8	somemore	0	0	3	0	4	0	**12**	6	-	-
9	took our lunch	5	0	4	4	**9**	0	1	2	-	-
10	stay	4	0	3	1	**12**	2	0	3	-	-
11	attend	4	0	1	0	**11**	0	2	6	1	-
12	Sir	**10**	0	0	1	2	0	7	5	-	-
13	brings	5	0	4	1	**9**	0	0	5	1	-
14	came	5	0	0	2	**12**	0	1	4	1	-
15	freshie	3	0	**10**	3	4	2	2	1	-	-
16	option	5	0	0	1	**11**	3	3	2	-	-
17	kavadis	3	0	**8**	1	4	4	4	1	-	-
18	oil bath	5	0	7	0	7	4	0	2	-	-
19	IPG student	**7**	1	5	1	6	2	1	2	-	-
20	handphones	3	0	1	2	**15**	2	0	2	-	-
21	scolded	3	0	7	3	**8**	2	1	1	-	-
22	get into	1	0	8	3	**9**	2	1	1	-	-
23	dhoti	4	0	**8**	1	7	4	0	1	-	-
24	wish	4	0	**8**	4	6	0	1	2	-	-
25	mingle	4	0	6	2	**7**	1	2	3	-	-
26	ragging	0	0	**13**	1	5	1	1	4	-	-
27	cover shoes	6	0	4	0	**9**	0	0	6	-	-
28	tackle	0	0	**11**	1	1	0	7	5	-	-
29	followed	4	0	5	1	**7**	2	2	3	1	-
30	went back	3	0	**8**	3	5	1	3	2	-	-
31	send	1	1	6	4	**12**	1	0	0	-	-
32	seniors	5	0	1	3	**11**	2	2	1	-	-
33	JPP	2	0	**10**	2	1	2	6	2	-	-
34	sleep late	0	0	**9**	4	1	0	9	2	-	-
35	beside	2	1	7	1	**8**	1	2	3	-	-
36	searched for	1	0	**9**	1	8	2	1	3	-	-
37	dewan	0	0	3	2	2	0	**13**	4	1	-
38	felt sorry for	3	0	6	2	6	3	4	1	-	-
39	At last	4	0	4	1	**7**	0	4	5	-	-
40	Last time	3	0	**7**	2	6	0	3	4	-	-
41	join	4	0	4	2	**11**	2	0	2	-	-
42	kolam	0	0	**12**	0	0	3	7	3	-	-
43	vadai	1	0	**10**	1	2	3	6	2	-	-
44	Thaipusam	**9**	1	2	1	8	4	0	0	-	-
45	angpow	5	0	**8**	1	5	3	1	2	-	-
46	white people	2	0	6	2	4	0	**7**	4	-	-
47	went to sleep	1	0	**10**	2	5	1	3	3	-	-

P: Participants

LE: Language educators

N/R : No response

There are observable patterns found in the responses. Among both groups of participants and language educators, lexical items borrowed from local languages were generally accepted in one type of writing or both. Lexical items such as *Punjabi* suit, *baju kurung* and *angpow* were either accepted in informal writings or accepted in both formal and informal writings. However, high numbers of respondents in both groups agree that *dewan* is not acceptable in the written form.

Another interesting observation is the fact that while there were only four lexical items chosen by the highest number of participants as unacceptable in written contexts ('one kind', 'somemore', *dewan*, and 'white people'), the number of words deemed unacceptable by the highest number of language educators rose to twenty items. Nearly all the words chosen as words that language educators felt cannot be used in written contexts are categorised under Ooi's Group B and Group D, or words categorised under Baskaran's (2005) Standard English Lexicalisation. In short, borrowed words were generally accepted in the written form of English language by both participants and language educators. However, language educators were more critical of words of English origin which were not used according to standard form.

There were also some observable patterns found in the two open-ended questions. In response to the first question on how do the educators explain to students the use of borrowed words from local language in the context of the English language, four of the educators used phrases indicating the need to explain the local terms, such as 'some kind of elaboration', 'explained in the following sentence', 'along with description', and 'the use of borrowed words … will be explained and illustrated'. Clearly the majority suggested the use of contextual cushioning. Two language educators suggested the use of quotation marks, which refers to flagging, while one said that they should be treated as proper nouns and there is no need to change or translate them. Another educator was aware that translating the borrowed words would change

the meaning and would not have the same impact. This means that the majority of language educators were aware of the two methods used in the written mode when a writer introduces a nativised word from local languages. None of the language educators made any mention of discouraging the use of borrowed words in the English Language. This means that borrowed words seemed to be tolerated by the educators.

The second question asks the language educators on how to explain the use of English words that are not found in 'standard English', such as 'handphone' and 'one kind'. It was observed that half of language educators mentioned the need to be aware of 'setting', of the dichotomy of informal conversation versus formal contexts and of avoiding the words in academic written work. Two responses had the idea of providing 'correct English term' and that the words were 'not in standard English'. One suggested that the words are influenced by the user's first language or the influences of the environment or society. It can be said that half of the educators viewed the need to be aware of context of usage. Deviations seem to be acceptable in informal contexts. The need for 'correct' and 'proper' terms were expressed by half of the educators, thus indicating that exonormative standards still apply in formal contexts among this group of language educators.

4.6 Summary of Findings

The findings of this study can be summarised in the seven statements below:

1. The data indicate that the participants use a wide range of MalE lexis in their writings. However, they use very few morphological processes with the local borrowings found in the writings.

2. The majority of participants do not use 'contextual cushioning' to help the readers deal with nativised words.

3. The majority of participants make attempts to flag borrowed words from local languages. However, words under Standard English Lexicalisation and Group D are not flagged or rephrased indicating that they are accepted as standard English words.

4. Nearly 95% of the identified MalE lexis occurs in the 'outer frame' indicating that the usage seemed entrenched in the written English of this group of young adult Malaysians.

5. In general, with the exception of Task C, there seems to be a slight difference in the occurrences of MalE lexis per text per 1000 words between narrative and the other three contexts of formal writings.

6. In general, the data suggest that the use of MalE lexis corresponds with the contexts of task. Unofficial MalE lexis is more prevalent in narrative writings while Official MalE lexis is more prevalent in formal writings. However, in general there is a noticeable presence of Unofficial MalE lexis in the writings of the participants.

7. Findings from the questionnaire indicate that words and hybrids of non-English origin are generally accepted in the written form by both participants and language educators. However, language educators are more critical of words of English origin (Group B and D) which are not used according to standard form. The majority of language educators propose certain methods used to introduce a nativised word from local languages. They also express the importance of context of use and the need for 'correct' use of words which are not used according to standard form, indicating adherence to exonormative standards.

To conclude, this chapter has presented the demographic information of the nineteen participants of this study. More importantly, the features of MalE lexis found in the ninety six texts were analysed and this researcher identified seventy one MalE lexis using the amalgam of frameworks of Baskaran (1994, 2005), Anthonysamy (1997) and Ooi (2001). With the help of *AntConc* Concordance, some examples for the

eighteen out of twenty five categories were exemplified and discussed. The data were also analysed using four approaches to identify the differences in the usage of MalE lexis in formal and creative writings. Finally, data from the questionnaire were also analysed and discussed at micro level. Based on all the data, the researcher arrived at seven findings. Chapter Five will provide a summary of this study and present an in depth discussion on the findings, their implications, recommendations and conclusions in light of the research questions of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter summarises and rounds off the findings of the study in relation to its objectives. In the following sections, the entire study is briefly reviewed. The research questions are then addressed and the findings are discussed. Implications of the study to the related field as well as recommendations for future research are also incorporated, all of which contribute towards in achieving the aims of the study.

5.1 Recap on Findings

With the flip-flop progress on the status of the English language in the Malaysian education policy that may halted the dynamic development of English in Malaysia (Schneider, 2003, p. 262), a study into the use of MalE lexis among a segment of the young Malaysian generation may shed some light in this matter. As Malaysia is proceeding substantially into the nativisation phase (Schneider, 2003, p. 260; 2007, p. 148) it was hoped that this study would be able to further document the nativisation of lexical items found in written form among young adult Malaysians thereby providing an enhanced and a more current knowledge of the variety of English used in Malaysia. Unlike previous studies, the present study took a step further by extending the type of data to narrative and formal writings of young adult Malaysians, particularly pre-service teachers who are products of the now-defunct teaching Maths and Science in English policy.

While some research has been done on the spoken variety of MalE, research on the written form used by young Malaysians is still very much an unexplored area. The majority of the existing literature generally agree that colloquial English or communicative or the mesolect variety of English is the preferred choice among speakers (Rajadurai, 2004; Baskaran, 2005). This is supported by Gill's (2002) claim

that the quality of spoken English among the Malay-medium educated young Malaysians is on the decline. Is there a parallel trend in written English? Therefore, this study was intended as a contribution to fill this gap.

The researcher set out in the study to investigate the nativisation of MalE lexis in the written mode. The data were collected from nineteen Malaysian Indian pre-service English teachers who produced a total of ninety six essays on three given topics in the course of seven weeks. The nativised MalE lexis was analysed using an amalgam of Baskaran's (1994, 2005), Ooi's (2001) and Anthonysamy's (1997) frameworks. This study delved deeper by using four methods of analysis showing the differences of MalE lexis usage in the writings. Then a modified description of MalE lexis was used to identify each essay as a way to complement the findings. To better understand the acceptance of the MalE lexis in the written mode and to triangulate the primary data, a questionnaire was given to the same participants and a small group of language educators.

The next sections discuss the two research questions of the study.

5.1.1 Research Question One

What are the **features** of **MalE lexis** that can be found in the **four contexts of writings** done by the **Malaysian Indian pre-service English teachers**?

Using parameters to exclude idiosyncratic occurrences of MalE lexis, the study identified seventy one nativised lexical items based on Baskaran's (1994, 2005), Ooi's (2001) and Anthonysamy's (1997) frameworks. Of the twenty five categories pooled together in the frameworks, the researcher found evidences of MalE lexis in eighteen categories. There was no evidence of MalE lexis in the remaining seven categories. Four of the seven unused categories were those that described morphological processes.

There is little morphological innovation in locally borrowed words found in the database. To understand why some categories were not represented in this data, an indepth look into the frameworks at this point is required.

Baskaran (2005) used a broad spectrum of both spoken and written sources to form her primary data, while Anthonysamy (1997) culled hers from twenty hours of Malaysian TV programmes and one radio station, making her data primarily spoken based. Compared to the data source of these two scholars, the present study anchors its data entirely on one mode of the language, which is the written. It was set in a classroom setting with only nineteen participants. Therefore, there might be a level of awareness on the part of the participants that a standard way of writing in English was required. To add to this, the task design made it so that the participants had to write about three topics within the given contexts, thus providing less room for the participants to be innovative with the choice of words or deviate much from the standard form of the language. True enough, Davies (2009, p. 82) did observe that the written language is more stable than the spoken language and that there is a high probability of participants using the norm of standard English when writing. This could explain why certain MalE lexis and categories described by Baskaran (2005, 1994) in both her works and Anthonysamy (1997) either occur so randomly or are not at all detected in this present research.

Therefore, it can be said that the participants use a wide range of MalE lexis in their writings. However, there is little innovation as very few morphological processes are observed in the local borrowings found in the writings.

It can be concluded that the variety of English used by the Malaysian Indian pre-service English teachers has gone through nativisation at the lexical level thus agreeing with what has been observed in the existing literature.

5.1.2 Research Question Two

Are there any **major differences** in the **usage of features of MalE lexis** between these contexts of writings?

Based on the usage of the features of MalE lexis, this study finds that there are no major differences. This is based on the four findings below.

The first findings showed that the majority of participants did not use **'contextual cushioning'** to help the readers deal with nativised words. Most of the time there was little attempt to explain the borrowed lexical items referring to traditional events, customs and food. The same trend was observed for words of English origin which are used with MalE usage. This trend cut across both creative and formal writings.

It is worth pointing out that the participants are not accomplished literary writers and in their own perception, judged their own writing proficiency at 'moderately proficient'. It seemed that the participants had assumed that the meanings of cultural and culinary terms would be familiar to all readers. The same assumption goes to the words and phrases that comprise English words but are not used in standard English.

The second findings indicated that the majority of participants made attempts to **flag** borrowed words from local languages. However, words under **Standard English Lexicalisation** and **Group D** were not flagged or rephrased indicating that they were accepted as standard English words. The participants seemed aware that borrowed lexical items should be highlighted but they were inconsistent in flagging them, while at the same time lexical items that deviated from standard English seemed to be accepted in the written form and were not flagged. Even instances of **acronym** and **transfer** were not flagged at times. Again, the pattern of flagging local borrowings and

unflagging of non-standard English words were found in all three tasks and all four contexts of writings.

The third findings showed that nearly 96% of the identified MalE lexis occurred in the **'outer frame'**. This is the authorial voice, the voice that the writer (in this study the participant) uses to 'speak' to the readers. The fact that only three lexical items (*freshie, IPG* and *baju kurung*) out of seventy one identified MalE lexis were used in the **inner frame** indicated that the participants readily assumed that the readers are familiar with the nativised words. Corroborating the earlier finding, the use of MalE lexis seemed entrenched in the written form of this group of young Malaysians.

The fourth finding indicated that in general, with the exception of Task C, there seemed to be a slight difference in terms of the occurrences of MalE lexis between the narrative and the three formal contexts of writings. Using the adapted approach from Gupta (1986) where texts were converted per text per 1000 words, the ninety six texts were examined on an equal footing. What was surprising was that, though the numbers were small, the occurrences of MalE lexis in formal writings in Task A2 (around four words per text per 1000 words) and B2 (around twenty three words per text per 1000 words) were higher than the corresponding narrative writings in Task A1 and B1.

However, the averages in Task C were obviously different from the other two tasks. The deliberate change in the rubric of Task C2 was done to see if participants continue the trend of lexis that would be observed in Task A2 and B2 or if participants would write and use lexis according to the context of the task. The MalE lexis average was at around thirteen words per text per 1000 words in Task C1, and dropping to six words per text per 1000 words in Task C2. Task C2 made no reference to what was experienced in Task C1, therefore the participants wrote articles which did not include their personal experience and that has resulted on them using less MalE words. This indicated that the participants were somewhat conscious of the need to write in formal

terms provided that the topic is not too personal in nature. This does explain the differences in numbers while at the same time supports Anthonysamy's (1997) observation that more nativised lexis is used when the topics are closer to home.

To further complement the findings to detect the differences of usage of MalE lexis, a modified description of the MalE lexis was used where each text was examined and marked as having 'Official MalE', 'Unofficial MalE' or 'Broken MalE' lexis. It is a way to reflect the lectal range used by the participants in their texts.

In general, the data suggested that there is no dominant lectal range found in the writings of the participants. Data showed the use of MalE lexis corresponds with the types of task. Unofficial MalE lexis was more prevalent in narrative writings while Official MalE lexis was more prevalent in formal writings. The gap between Unofficial MalE lexis (67.3%) and narrative texts with Official MalE lexis (28.6%) in narrative texts was very pronounced. However, what is striking is the gap was much reduced in formal texts. Texts with Official MalE lexis account for slightly more than half of the accepted formal texts (53.2%) and texts with Unofficial MalE lexis were close behind (46.8%). This suggests that the use of Unofficial MalE lexis was growing in formal texts. All these findings contribute to the conclusion that there seems to be no major difference in usage of MalE lexis in the four contexts of writings. However, there is a noticeable presence of Unofficial MalE lexis in the writings of this particular group of MalE users.

The findings of the two research questions point to the fact that nativisation at the lexical level does occur in the writings of the participants. and using the methods described previously to examine the manner the lexical items were used, this study proved that there is no major difference in the usage between narrative and formal writings of this group of Malaysian Indian pre-service English teachers.

Data from the questionnaire seemed to corroborate these findings. Administered to the participants themselves who represent the young adult MalE users, and six language educators who represent educated adult MalE user, the data showed words and hybrids of non-English origin (**Group C**) were generally accepted in the written form by both participants and language educators. However, language educators were more critical of words of English origin (**Group B** and **D**) which were not used according to standard form. It is safe to conclude that there is a level of acceptability among the participants and language educators of nativisation of the lexis in the written form.

5.2 Discussions on Findings and Conclusions

On the basis of the findings and conclusion stated above, it can be claimed that the present study helped to improve the understanding of MalE. Based on a small population and by having the participants write creative and formal essays on three topics situated in a continuum comprising personal, neutral and culture-specific themes, this study has helped advance the method of research. It also provided a way to help refine Baskaran's (2005) broad and general description of MalE lectal continuum by incorporating Ooi's (2001) concentric model as the criteria for the three levels of lexical description (refer to **Figure 3.4**).

The study found a wide variety of lexical items based on semantic, context-based, and morphemic approaches which were identified through strict parameters. The findings support Baskaran's (2005) view that MalE is indeed a distinct variety of World Englishes 'in its own right' and Schneider's (2003, 2007) view that MalE is undergoing the nativisation phase in the Dynamic Model. Using written samples, the study provided evidence for the element of preferences (Schneider, 2007, p. 91) whereby certain nativised lexical items were found to be used with exceptional frequency. New

word formation (*Punjabi* suit, handphone), localised collocations and set phrases (means how, somemore, get in, get down) and innovative assignments of verbs complementation patterns to individual verbs (wish) are some features occurring in a language variety undergoing nativisation (Schneider, 2007, p.46).

Some words and expressions observed from the 1970s and 1980s in the speech mode have found their way into the written samples of this study. Some of them were unmarked with no attempt at contextual cushioning, suggesting that these are deviations of unintentional category where the user is not conscious that the way the use the lexical items 'deviate' from the norm.

Also, the findings have strengthened Baskaran's (1994, 2005) assertions that informal lexical items have crossed over to 'rhetorical official form' and that they have seeped into the writings as observed in the writings collected in this study. Despite the small sample, the narrow gap between the number of essays using Official and Unofficial MalE in formal texts is telling. It is important to note that this seepage has been observed since the 1980s when Lowenberg noted that formal documents were increasingly characterised by nativised forms of English (1984, p. 101). This seems like a natural progression that the lexis from the spoken variety has found its way into the written variety of English. This is compounded by the level of acceptance of the lexis among the respondents particularly the participants who are young adult MalE users. This is in line with Schneider's assertions that "in the course of time, the readiness to accept localised forms, gradually also in formal contexts, increases inexorable (2007, p.43)."

The presence of local terms and uses in the written works of young adult learners in a classroom setting where standard English should be the norm proved that local terms have gained more currency locally, thus supporting Baskaran's (2005)

prediction. The occurrence of Ooi's (2001) **group D** words, **unflagged** borrowed words and the use of MalE lexis in **outer frame** all point to this direction.

Another consideration is the inconsistency of **flagging** of borrowed words. While "using quotation marks would have distanced the author from the language, invoking the traditional biases (Canagarajah, 2006, p. 604)", they can point to something else. The removal of flagging of local major events in time will make "these words (to social events) become institutionalised and will become entrenched (David and Dumanig, 2012, p. 11)".

In terms of college compositions, Canagarajah argues that while the use of World Englishes for personal or creative writing is permitted and it is only for the characters' voices in the text, it is appreciated if the authorial voice (similar to the term **outer frame**) remains standard English (2006, p.594). This is concurrent with the prevailing opinion of maintaining standard English in the classroom and education contexts. Feedback from the questionnaire indicated that half of the language educators responded by stating the need for 'correct' and 'proper terms' when asked about the use of English words that deviated from the standard English. This suggests that this group of language educators who represent adult MalE users still follow exonormative standards. However, the data shows that the participants use MalE lexis largely in the authorial voice or **outer frame**. This suggests that young adult Malaysians are finding it more difficult to differentiate the context of the use of the MalE lexis in either narrative or formal writing and thus, may not be aware of the endonormative-exonormative dichotomy. If this divide remains between the young MalE users and adult MalE users, the debate over the standard of MalE will continue and this variety may continue to be viewed as sub-standard by the general public. It will remain in Schneider's nativisation phase as this variety has not reached a stabilised form of use accepted by all members in the speech community.

It is worth considering Rajandran's (2011, p. 28) suggestion that MalE users must know where, when and why to shift lects. This study showed that the participants were, to some extent, able to switch lects according to the context of the writing. On the other hand, the considerably high number of Unofficial MalE lexis/mesolect lexis in formal essays suggests that there were participants who seemed to be unable to switch lect. This is the trickle down effect of the Malaysian education policy resulting in more mesolect speakers/users than acrolect speakers/users (Gill, 2002). Gill claims that the ratio of the acrolect speakers who are able to switch appropriately when the need arises is reducing in numbers and, in a resigned tone, adds that "many Malaysians, educated or otherwise, may simply not be able to switch from the basilectal and mesolectal varieties to the acrolectal variety (2002, p. 56)." With only ninety six written texts as the database and with the scope limited to the written lexis, it is insufficient to support Gill's claim conclusively. However, it does raise some pertinent questions. What is the lectal variety found in the educated young adult Malaysians today? Can they easily switch from mesolect to the acrolect as what has been observed previously? Or does the fact that they are the product of the current education policy have narrowed their range of sub-lects repertoire? On the flip side, does the frequency of some informal MalE lexical items in the written form indicate that they are gaining currency and therefore, moving up to the acrolectal level?

The fact that the participants of this study are future English teachers speaks volumes. Whilst this study merely focused on the language in one linguistic mode in that the syntactical, structural and rhetorical elements of the language were not examined, the lectal variety demonstrated by the participants is open to question given the fact that they are expected to be the 'custodian of standard' (Tickoo, 1993, p. 193) and 'gatekeepers of language standards' (Pang, 2003, p. 15). An inclusion of the syntactical, structural and rhetorical elements can provide a clearer picture of the lectal

range that these teachers have. Consider the study by Khaw (2011) which found that syntactical variation detected in job application letters written by Malaysian final-year tertiary students are in line with some syntactic features of Malaysian English at the mesolectal level found in the existing literature and echoes the findings in the present study, that is unofficial malE lexis is creeping into formal writing.

It is no surprise that with the presence of MalE lexis in the written mode of English any prescriptivist may adopt what Schneider called the 'complaint tradition' (2003, 2007, p. 151), bemoaning the falling standard of English among young Malaysians.

5.2.1 Limitations of the Study

With a small sample size, the data collected and generated must be interpreted with caution. With respect to data collection, not all nineteen participants submitted the complete six essays. Even then, a few submitted texts had to be rejected due to concerns over their originality that might influence the findings of this study. Thus, the researcher had only ninety six essays to work with instead. This made the database even smaller. Due to the small database and the purposeful sampling, the findings may not be generalizable beyond the specific population from which the data was drawn.

Gender was not factored in the study. This study used a purposeful sampling and the cohort of students the researcher was given access to comprised two male participants and seventeen female participants. A more equal representation of both genders would have made it more possible to include this variable in the study.

Another limitation is time. The study was conducted over seven weeks and so the data was merely a snapshot dependent of conditions occurring during that time. Also, the data were dependent on the topics of the writing. Given the limited time, only three topics that were thought could best facilitate the use of MalE were given.

In compliance with the gatekeepers' requests, the essays were given as home assignments where the researcher had no control over how independent the participants were in producing the essays and the time they took to complete the six assignments. Also there was no way of controlling whether the participants did edit their essays or refer to dictionaries. Though the researcher emphasised the need for the participants to submit essays that were of their own work, there were participants who did not appear to do so.

This study attempted to quantify the identified lexis and group the lexical items together according to categories. This approach overlooked the fact that the lexis is not a fixed entity, but it can be extended, and that each individual speaker most likely possesses a unique pool of vocabulary (Durkin, 2012, p. 6). This was the very reason why the researcher resorted to use an amalgam of four frameworks. There were lexical items which did not fit into Baskaran's (2005, 1994) frameworks but could fit into Anthonysamy's (1997) and Ooi's (2001).

The parameters for identification of MalE lexis which were put in place to avoid claims of idiosyncratic occurrences could have ironically worked against the findings of the study. While they lend credence to the data, they also limited the chance of identifying new and novel MalE words which occurred only once.

Next is the use of averages which was based on a common denominator of 1000 words. While this made it easy for the researcher to compare the data, it was merely a projection and was not a real representation of the actual use of MalE lexis. Also the assignation of the texts having one of the three-tiered descriptions of MalE lexis was at times hinged on a sole lexical item, which may be argued by some as being too presumptuous on the part of the researcher.

Lastly, the need to consolidate triangulation was hampered by time-constraint. The researcher was unable to interview the participants and teacher educators on their

motivations or reasons for choosing the questionnaire answers the way they did. This could have strengthened the findings.

5.3 Implications of Findings

Taken together, these findings support the idea that while MalE is well into the Nativisation phase, codification and acceptance are the final two 'pieces of puzzle' needed for this variety to progress under the Dynamic Model. More needs to be done to document the grammar and the lexicon of MalE. One must understand that while lexical and semantic innovations are easier to accept and are inevitable (Bamgbose, 1998, p. 6), the same cannot be said for syntactic, structural and rhetorical innovations and deviations. In the matter of codification of MalE, Bolton and Butler's summing up of Quirk's (1990) view best summarises the situation of MalE variety:

> "(…) it is only when a world variety of English is supported by codification (chiefly expresses through national dictionaries) that one can make the claim that a variety is 'Institutionalised'." (2004, p. 92)

Dictionaries with MalE usage like the TCEED have been produced, but a more current and locally produced dictionary on MalE usage will lend credence to this variety of English among the general populace.

With a wider base of mesolect speakers and users who value the 'more colloquial' MalE as a sign of 'solidarity and camaraderie', as well as its use being associated with the 'growing sense of pride and affinity' (Preshous, 2001; Rajadurai, 2004, p. 54), this may certainly proliferate calls for acceptance and codification among the academia and the Malaysian public on this matter.

5.3.1 Pedagogical Implications

The implications of these results for the teaching of English and teacher education are very clear.

Students need to be sensitised on the Malaysian variety of English as opposed to the standard English. They need to be aware of the when, where and why MalE is tolerated. It should be 'an informing exercise' instead of pointing out of 'errors' (Habibah, 2000, p.62). Only by understanding the differences between the lects can students use them in the right contexts. Once students are adept at switching between the lects, it is possible to that the English that they are taught and learned can meet their communicational needs at any communicative setting.

English language teachers need to be linguistically aware of the lectal continuum in order to inform their students on it. It is worth noting that teachers are faced with the challenge of promoting the highest standard of English when their students are already at ease with their own lect, whichever level that may be. The classroom is, after all, the place where the most acceptable variety of English is promoted and the teachers are the executors of the policy framed by the socio, cultural and political makeup of the country.

As for the policy makers, they are faced with difficult decisions. Is the target norm the endonormative standard or exonormative standard? They must figure out a way to strike a balance between meeting intra-national communicative needs and the need for achieving international intelligibility and marketability of its labour force. It is worth considering the fact that many English teachers today are also products to the Malay-medium of instruction policy which began in the 1970s and their lectal range may have been reduced as suggested by Gill (2002, p. 56).

On the teacher education front, the incorporation of the concept of World Englishes into the programmes, be it the foundation, pre-service and in-service level, is a move in the right direction. Models used in teacher education or pedagogy in all three circles of Englishes must take the local context into account (Baumgardner and Brown, 2003, p. 249). A 'reorientation of attitudes' among in-service teachers measuring local

norms against unrealistic external norms may prove helpful to this cause (Bamgbose, 1998, p. 9).

There is also a need to ensure that the teacher education programmes are able to produce teachers who are able to not only handle the local variety of English but also handle other varieties of English too. If Malaysia is to make it as an education hub in the international arena, this criterion must be met. Crystal (1999, p.20) said

> "the chief task of ELT is how to devise pedagogical policies and practices in which the need to maintain an international standard of intelligibility in both speech and writing, can be made to comfortably exist alongside the need to recognise the importance of international diversity, as a reflection of identity, chiefly in speech and eventually, perhaps, in writing."

5.4 Future Directions

Whilst this study contributes to the concept of nativised lexis in the field of World Englishes, further work needs to be done to establish the status of MalE. Research can be done in the following areas:

1. The collection of a larger database from a larger population of young adult Malaysians which may provide a good representation of the changes and innovations occurring in MalE lexis and the lectal range of these Malaysians.

2. Further studies should consider using subjects comprising the three major ethnicities of MalE speech community. This may assist future research in extrapolating the findings into the larger Malaysian population.

3. An equal representation of both genders among the participants which may assist future research in MalE on determining whether gender correlates with the propensity to use a certain lect according to context.

4. Further studies should also include the age variable. Comparing the usage of MalE lexis of young Malaysians to that of older and educated Malaysians may help detect evidence of stabilisation and homogeneity of usage, if any, which

indicate progression into the next phase according to Schneider's five-phase Dynamic Model.

5. More diverse range of topics can be introduced to the topic continuum which provides a more comprehensive description of commonly used nativised lexis employed by MalE users.

6. Studies on innovative use of MalE lexis in social networks such as facebook and Twitter may give further insight to this variety of English language.

7. Further research documenting MalE lexis of the mesolect and basilect level gaining more currency is worth exploring for the findings can advance views of MalE progressing in Schneider's Dynamic Model.

5.5 Conclusion

Be it the adoption of descriptive or prescriptive view, what is certain is that once a language is used in a foreign land, used by speakers whose mother tongue is that of another language, to denote referents which are local and inherent to the customs, cultures and conceptualisation of the foreign land, the introduction of new vocabulary, structures and syntax are bound to happen. For a language to survive and function in such context, 'going native' is the obvious conclusion. English has gained grounds into many domains of life in multi-lingual Malaysia and its evolution will continue to hold sway over its population.

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APPENDIX A : Consent letter from *Institut Pendidikan Guru Malaysia*

INSTITUT PENDIDIKAN GURU MALAYSIA
Institute of Teacher Education Malaysia
KEMENTERIAN PELAJARAN MALAYSIA
Ministry of Education Malaysia
ARAS 1, ENTERPRISE BUILDING 3, BLOK 2200
PERSIARAN APEC, CYBER 6,
63000 CYBERJAYA

Tel : 03-8312 6666
Fax : 03-8312 6655

IPG

"1 MALAYSIA : RAKYAT DIDAHULUKAN, PENCAPAIAN DIUTAMAKAN"

Ruj. Kami: KP(IPG)8484/800/4 Jld.2(9₁)
Tarikh : / April 2013

Nur Aida binti Ahmad Nazeri
7, Persiaran Bandar Baru Tambun 5,
Bandar Baru Tambun,
31400 Ipoh,
Perak

Puan

KELULUSAN MENJALANKAN KAJIAN DI INSTITUT PENDIDIKAN GURU

Dengan segala hormatnya saya merujuk kepada surat puan bertarikh 25 Februari 2013 mengenai perkara di atas.

2.   Sukacita dimaklumkan bahawa Institut Pendidikan Guru Malaysia (IPGM) tiada halangan berdasarkan kelulusan daripada Bahagian Perancangan dan Penyelidikan Dasar Pendidikan Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia dengan rujukan KP(BPPDP)603/5/Jld.02 (24) bertarikh 18 Februari 2013.

3.   Walaubagaimanapun, adalah diharapkan penglibatan guru-guru pelatih ini sewajarnya tidak mengganggu proses pengajaran dan pembelajaran serta pelaksanaan aktiviti-aktiviti lain di IPG dan tertakluk kepada kebenaran Pengarah IPG berkenaan.

Sekian, terima kasih.

"BERKHIDMAT UNTUK NEGARA"

Saya yang menurut perintah,

(Dr. LEE BOON HUA)
Timbalan Rektor
Institut Pendidikan Guru Malaysia
Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia

s.k. Rektor

C:\WBM\YA/Kelulusan Menjalankan Kajian IPG 2013

APPENDIX B: Original Text A1P16

A1(P16)

That was the first time I felt very dissap deppressed. The service which was I received was very worst. That is a very famous restaurant in Bidor, Perak. Many of them have their own opinion about that restaurant either good or neither bad. There were many compliment about this restaurant.

Last week Sunday, I went to the Bidor to visit my relations with my family. It was too late when we leave their house and at the same time we felt very hungry. On the way back to home, we were looking for a restaurant to have our dinner. That time we found the 'famous' restaurant and we planned to have our dinner there. I was telling in my heart that I'm going to enjoy my dinner at there.

When we entered the restaurant, the waiters wecomed us very well. We was so happy of it. As we know, it was a very famous restaurant, it was very difficult us to find a table with six chairs. So, my dad was calling a waiter to help him to find a table, but the waiter just ignored him. My dad thought his voice was not that loud to reach his ears, so what I did was, I started to call him and this time my voice is loud but still he was ignoring us. I was angry and started to move out from that restaurant. Then comes the waiter by near us by showing an empty table at a corner of the restaurant's door. At last, I was happy because there was a table for my family so that I can have a dinner there.

Then, we settled ourselves on at the table. We were talking and talking and talking, but no one comes to take and order. In addition, the menu card was not dissappears at our table and so we was waiting for a waiter to give a menu card to us or to take the order. We After some moment, we realised that we was just sitting

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for twenty-minutes. I was very dissappointed with that service. I started to show my colours by anger. My face was full with angerness, and I Suddenly a waiter passed by my side, and I called him "hey. boy" and he stopped and looked at me. He was very blur when I called him in such a way. But he was very nice to us eventhough I was a little bit rude to him. My dad was complaining about the service in restaurant and he was blamming the one who works all the works. Then he appologized to us and took the order.

Therefore we was waiting for the food to be served. It was already 30 minutes we waiting for the food and not even one of the item is served to us. I was very angry because I was We were very angry because we was it was too late and we were hungry. After waiting for a long time, at last the food is served and We was fed up to complaint about the service, so we just ignored it, and had led our meals.

After finish eat having our dinner, we went to the cashier to pay money. That time, I told what I feel about the service which in the restaurant and ask them to improve on that. The manager was felt sorry for us and asked appologized sorry to us. This is the worst service which I have received. I feel very angry when people don't respect us and ignoring us. I had a great dinner but had a bad time. I started to tell my self to not to go in the that 'famous' restaurant ever.

APPENDIX C: Original Text A2P16

A2P16

No 4 BLOCK D,
SME QRTS,
48100 Batu Arang,
Selangor

Editor News Strait Times
No- 4 Taman Bunga Raya,
31150 Hulu Kinta,
Perak.   6th March 2013

SIR,

   POOR Service At Restaurant

   As stated above, I am K   %o C   I would like to own
the post. I like to share my experience and feelings about
the poor service at restaurant.

2.   Last week Sunday, I and my family went to visit our relation
at Bidor, Perak. It was already too late and we were searching
for a restaurant to have our dinner. At last we found a famous
restaurant at Bidor and we decide to have our delicious
dinner there. I thought I will have a great time at the
restaurant.

3.   As I stepped into the restaurant with my family, the
waiters welcomed us very well. As I stated above it was a
famous hotel, so we there were many of them in the restaurant.
This make us very difficult to find a table of 6 six person
for our family. So, my father just called a waiter for the
sek of finding a table, but the waiter ignored him. My dad
thought his voice was not that clear and what I did was,
I started to call him. But this time also he never response

STANDARD
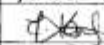
to me. We all get deppresed and we started to get out of the restaurant. That time comes a waiter by showing us a table of six at the corner of the door and then we settle ourselves there

4. Second thing, which make me angry was no any of thex waiters come to take on order. In addition, there was no any menu card on the table. We were waiting for so long and there was no any response from them. This make me very angry because we were we were hungry. At last, I called a to waiter to take an order. Only after that, h he realized that no one come to take order at our table

5. Best furthermore, after ordered the food, we were nearly waiti waited about twenty minutes. After some time, the food was served served to us. We have a great dinner but not a good time. I felt very dissappointed because of the workers attitude. I think they should charge theirselves to attract more customers. This are These are some things which make me angry. I hope that the restaurant management should charge to improve their quality.

Thank You.

Yours Faithfully,

Ch-   D/o

APPENDIX D: Original Text B1P8

⚜ Deepavali ⚜

"Deepavali" is a festival of light celebrated by Hindus. As an Indian, I will celebrate this festival every year. The house full of lights, and children's cheers and smell of sweets. Festival of light begin with morning preparations. Everyone will take oil bath in the early morning and will wear new cloths. The ladies will draw colourfull Rangoli Kolam infront their house. The mango leaves will be tied in doors as a sign of purity. Then, house wives will cook breakfast for their family. Before they take their breakfast, they family will pray for the giant 'Naragaswaran' who had been killed by the Lord Krishna. The killing of 'Naragaswaran' is celebrated by people because he was such a arrogant giant who tortured the village people.

After their breakfast, the family will visit temples nearly their home. They will do some prayers and rituals on that day. The children will get blessings from their parents. After the prayers, they will start to visit their friends and family. They will enjoy the day by celebrating with their friends and relatives. Ofcourse, they will enjoy crunching traditional biscuits prepared Indian's favourite and traditional biscuits are such as Muruku, Athirasam, laddu, and omapudi. are very tasty to eat. Usually, Indians will start to make this biscuits, about fifteen days ago. children will help their mother to make biscuits and will be waiting till the festival day to taste them. It is principle 'not to Eat or touch' the biscuits before the prayers on Deepavali.

Then later at night, friends and relatives will come to visit the family. obviously, the family will get busy, treat their guest. The children will get busy themself in playing fire crackers. While, the others will chat and have fun with their family members. Those who couldn't make a visit to a temple on that morning, will go at night to do their prayers. Then, they will enjoy their dinner with fellow family members. We can see the house shine with electrical lights, bright colours and cheerful people. The night continues as the friends and relatives make visit to the house.

A day before Deepavali, families are used to visit their elder's grave. Usually they will clean their grave and carry out some rituals. They will serve some foods and will do prayers their prayers. They believe they will get the elder's blessings to celebrate their religious festivals. Then, they will also carry out the prayers at night,

STANDARD

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Praying for elders who have been passed away.

Deepavali is also a wonderful festival where all the family members gather and have fun together. It is a festival which bond a good relationship among the family members.

APPENDIX E: Original Text B2P8

B2P8

Deepavali Celebration

By:

25th October 2012

Taiping, Perak Darul Ridzuan.

"Deepavali" is festival of light celebrated by Hindus. Our Malaysian Indians have celebrated Deepavali yesterday, 24th October 2012. The death of giant 'Naragaswaran' is celebrated as festival of light, 'Deepavali'.

The morning will start with oil bath. All family members will take oil bath in the early morning. Oil bath is taken for get rid the sin. Oil bath is taken to get rid of sin from our body and to fresh up our mind. The morning of the light festival will begin with fresh mind and good health. Everyone will wear new clothes and get blessings from their elders. Then, all the family members will do the prayers at home for 'Naragaavara'. Some of them will make a visit to a temple near by and carry out rituals and prayers.

Then, everyone will start to visit their relatives and friends. Welcoming guests is one of the good culture of Indians. The relatives and friends will give warm welcome to their guest and treat them by serving variety of foods. Traditional biscuits that prepared a month ago will be tasted by guest. As thanksgiving, the guest will give small gift like money, fruits and biscuits to the children. Everyone will mingle with family members, relatives and friends on that prosperous day.

At night, children will play firecrackers with their family and relatives. Then everyone will have dinner together. They also treat their relatives and guest as well. The festival of light is a big gathering of family. Some people will go to temple with their family at evening, well some people prefer to go to temple in the morning. Getting blessings from God is of something precious.

The festival of light will end with joyous, cheers and cheers of fellow family members, relatives and friends. Deepavali is festival of light that brightens the life.

APPENDIX F: Original Text C1P1

C1P1

First month as a college student.

My father scold me to slep early at night because I won't looked herd in early morning. I tryed tried alot to step sleep early but as a result I could not sleep well whole the night. I were thinki was thinking the next that I whispered, alone on my bed about what I forget to pack to take with me. Suddenly a shadow crossed my room. I wake up and looked. It was my mother. She come to wake up me because it times up I was nervous abit but did'nt show infront of my parents. After took shower. I take breakfast. As a family we pray a family prayer before we leave from the house. My uncle took come with us and my two sister follow me us.

After two hour journey we reach our destiny. My heart beat start to beat fast, when enter I saw many students wore dres same attire as me, standing near to a building. I found that it was the place where should I gathered. About 2 hours was took to finish the registration and talks to by a speech by the director of the college. After finish I and my family went to take the room key to put back my things. I found many people standing at a room and coming out with a keep key. That was the room where I should that take the room key. A girl follow me to the room. She was very tall, wear spectacle and look older than me. She follow her brother to college.

Finally she and both out of us get one room. My parents and sisters helping me to clean the room and arrange the things that I bou brought from home. It time to leave my parents. A long huge hug and sweet kiss from my mother make me feel sad to leave them. But I show my happy face to them. Later I chit talk with my roommate then only I found that she my relative but not a close relative. Our orientation starts on that night. We get to know our malay sniors. They with us whole the night until 12.00 am. We have "ais breaking" first night. We started to minggle! with different friend. In our badge there is no malay students. 40 students ledtangs Indians and 60 students were chinese.

We learned alot in one week orientation. Our siniors thought o us the visi and moto of the college. We to I learned the college song. My siniors tell about the rules and regulation of the college. I found that the rules were very to difficult to follow. We need to do everything by our ownself. We should not depend on other people. Even in our hostel we need to wash our cloths, keep alt clean the room always, always always be on time to class, should respect the siniors and lectures, must wear cover shoes to class, and many. If it we done one mistake it it will destroye our name becure the news spread very fast in college. We should think before do something. food

Food were provided free for one week. I thought it will be given free for until the end of the foundation. But it not. We passed through many activities with our siniors. At the last day of the orientation week we started to group by according to our option. My option is TESL. When in group I found my classmate and my roommate also or m become my classmate. I get a well with my classmate. Only two guys in my class and all of us are Indians. Although we Indians we should interect in English with each other. This is because it our option.

After one week orientation we started with classes. TESL option have four major subject. The teaching in college is more different compare to school. We always get advise that "If you wants to became o good teacher in future fueture you should behave good in IPG". My IPG is in Ipoh where very far from other states. As stu IPG student I learned alot in one month. Every student in IPG should behave themselve as a teacher. Being teacher need alot of positive character that we should adapt and adopt into our life.

APPENDIX G: Original Text C2P1

C2P1

What to expect when you become a college student.
By: J e

Students think that University life would would be so
intresting compare to college life. I prefer college life is more best
because it excually mold a student to become as we what they
should be. I'm not telling that university life is not best. University
life is abit freedom that students can do what they can choose to
be who they are. If in college the rules where very strick and all
must follow the rules.

College life is very enjayble and intresting. This are teens
love to be. When a student come out from home and studying in
a college they should learned to be manage their self without their
parents help. Example of self mangements are wash their cloths by
their own, iorn the cloths themselves, keep clean the hostel room, learn to
make dr hot drinks in room, save money so that can servive with their
the expendicuter expenditure.

furthermore when a student studing in a college they will minggel
with many kind of characters. There are enjoying people enjoying
characters, lazy characters, bad thoug negative and positive characters.
We as a college student should think visely when choose a good
buddy who will help us in our studies and life. When we fail to choose a
good friend then we will fail in every activity that we perform to others.
Therefore don't be so careless in choosing your best buddy.

Besides students also must have a good communication skills
when they or become a student in college. This very important to a student
because good communicating st communication with their lecterers or with
student their friends will create a strong confident on them. Therefore
it will more help them to become a best and good student who will always
sporting. The student should be polite and humble when having communication
with others expecially to lecterers.

As a college student, they also must learn how to work in group activity. Group act activity lead us to improve our cooperating skills, helping skill, sharing ideas, make our work easy and very useful to our studies. Many of them hate work in group because no cooperation from team members. Thats why the coursework include group work to create a co-operating students in studies.

As conclusion, a college students must have a proper positive character to achieve in their future life. College life create a new destiny to today's youngsters.

APPENDIX H: List of Identified MalE Lexis according to Categories and Parameters

No.	Category	Parameter A – occur in more than 1 text & not written by the same writer	Parameter B – occur once, cited in previous studies & dictionaries
2	Emotional & cultural Loading		pooja (1)
4	Cultural & culinary terms:		
	religious terms	Deepavali Ponggal Thaipusam	kavadis paalkudam
	culinary terms	muruku / murukku Achi Muruku / laddu Athirasam / adhirasam thosai / tosai idli / itali vadai sambar	pool cova payasam jelebi
	cultural terms	Aipasi / Ippasi kolam Rangoli Kolam angpow / ang pau / angpau	
	clothing	saree/sari dhoti baju kurung/ bajukurung	(23)
5	hyponymous collocation	Punjabi suit / Punjabi shot	(1)
7	Polysemic variation	finished felt sorry for sb. take breakfast / take lunch wish* mingle / minggel / mingglel/ mingkle keep*	side blur at last (9)
8	Semantic restriction	somemore cover shoes	one kind tackle last time (5)
9	Informalisation	stay* follow went to sleep / going to sleep	(3)
10	Formalisation		leave attend (2)
11	Directional reversal	bring go* back / went back fetch*	send off took come (6)
12	College Colloqualism	senior*/ seniour*/ sinior* option ragging *	freshie* (4)
13	compounding	Punjabi suit / Punjabi shot	(1)
15	pluralization		kavadis (1)
19	Transfer	oil bath / oilbath / oil bathing	white people Lord Muruga last time (4)
20	Acronyms	JPP IPG	(2)
21	Group A	saree/ sari	

		dhoti		(2)
22	Group B	oil bath / oilbath / oil bathing handphone ragging senior*/ seniour*/ sinior* beside search for/ searching for scold*	white people join	(9)
23	Group C	Deepavali Ponggal Thaipusam Aipasi / Ippasi muruku / murukku kolam Rangoli Kolam Achi Muruku / Achu Murukku laddu Athirasam / adhirasam thosai / tosai idli / itali vadai sambar angpow / ang pau / angpau baju kurung/ bajukurung Punjabi suit / Punjabi shot JPP IPG	Lord Muruga kavadis paalkudam payasam jelebi pooja	(25)
24	Group D	finished felt sorry for sb. take breakfast / take lunch wish mingle / minggel / mingglel/ mingkle keep somemore cover shoes stay* follow bring go* back / went back fetch option	side blur cure come last time get down get into keep sir means how sleep late one kind tackle leave attend send off took freshie* at last	(33)
	Group E	dewan		(1)

Note:
The asterisks indicate the words appear in many tense inflection forms, plural forms.
The numbers in brackets indicate the total number of words in each category.
Sample Questionnaire for Language Educators

APPENDIX 1: Questionnaire: Study on Nativisation of Malaysian English Lexis by Malaysian Indian Pre-service English Teachers.

I am currently doing a study on Nativisation of the English language among pre-service English teachers as partial fulfilment for my Masters of English as a Second Language (MESL) programme. The objective of the study is to describe the use of Malaysian English lexis in the written form. It is a qualitative research and it is conducted in a teacher training institute.

In order to complete my triangulation, views from educated Malaysian English users who are teacher educators are much needed. Your cooperation is highly appreciated.

Thank you.

Nur Aida binti Ahmad Nazeri
Researcher
Mobile No: 013 3649490
Email: amedasy3@yahoo.com.my

Section A: Demographic Information
Please tick (√) where appropriate.

1. Highest academic qualification	Bachelor's Degree	
	Master's Degree	
	PhD.	

2. Years of teaching English	1 – 10 years	
	11 – 20 years	
	More than 20 years	

Section B: The sentences below have been taken from a group of pre-service English teachers' essays. In each sentence, there are underlined word(s) which have been identified as nativised and are categorized under Malaysian English lexis.

Understand the meaning of the underlined words in each sentence and give your response to this question:

> When can the **_underlined word or words_** be used?

You have a choice of four options (see below):

	Option
Formal writings (formal letters & emails, reports, articles, academic examination papers)	Formal
Informal writings (personal letters & emails, creative essays, novels)	Informal
Both formal & informal writings	Both
The word(s) cannot be used in both written contexts but may be used in oral settings	None

You are to put a tick (√) in the column provided. You can **choose only one response** for each sentence.

1	They dress up nicely to go to the temple to attend a special <u>pooja</u>.		
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

2	The girls wore <u>baju kurung</u> while the boys wore formal attire.		
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

3	We will start to prepare <u>murukku</u> or sweets.		
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

4	Some of us will buy at least one <u>Punjabi suit</u>.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

5	She explained to me that all the blankets <u>were finished</u> because all the other rooms were occupied.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

6	The place where we <u>keep</u> our bags and luggage was full.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

7	Everyone looked at me like <u>one kind</u>.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

8	I felt depressed and frustrated <u>somemore</u>.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

9	We <u>took our lunch</u> but the food wasn't that tasty.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

10	Since many of my relatives <u>stay</u> in Ipoh, I was happy to be placed there.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

11	They invite their friends and relatives to <u>attend</u> their home for lunch.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

12	I would like to inform <u>Sir</u> that this letter is about a poor service that I experienced.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

13	My mother <u>brings</u> us with her wherever she goes			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

14	It was a normal fine night when we <u>came</u> there.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

15	The first thing that welcomed me as a <u>freshie</u> was the seniors.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

16	The lecturers explained the importance of the English Language since we are taking TESL as our <u>option</u>.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

17	The colourful <u>kavadis</u> are one of the best views during Thaipusam.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

18	We will also welcome people for an <u>open house</u> during Deepavali.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

19	Everyone will take an <u>oil bath</u> in the early morning and wear new clothes.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

20	As an <u>IPG* student</u> I learned a lot in one month.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

IPG is the Malay acronym for Institut Pendidikan Guru

21	Both of them were busy playing with their <u>handphones</u>.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

22	The waiter was <u>scolded</u> by my parents.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

23	Even though we managed to <u>get into</u> the bus, we were very unsatisfied with its condition.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

24	Some of us buy Punjabi suit for girls and <u>dhoti</u> for boys.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

25	We should respect and <u>wish</u> the seniors whenever we meet them.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

26	We should choose our friends carefully and <u>mingle</u> with good people.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

27	Our seniors started <u>ragging</u> us as lessons began the week after orientation.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

28	We must wear <u>cover shoes</u> to class.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

29	I tried to <u>tackle</u> him who is a senior.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

30	My uncle came with us and my two sisters <u>followed</u> us.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

31	After my parents <u>went back</u>, I went to my room.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

32	My little nephew came with us to <u>send</u> me off.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

33	There are also <u>seniors</u> who help you with information about the campus.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

34	We were also treated badly by the <u>JPP</u> members.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

35	They let us <u>sleep late</u> throughout the orientation week. Many of us were sleepy during lectures.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

36	A stranger told us to be in a block <u>beside</u> our hostel.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

37	We went to the hostel block and <u>searched for</u> the room.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

38	We were required to go to the <u>dewan</u> at around 6 o'clock in the evening.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

39	The manager <u>felt sorry for</u> us and apologized to us.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

40	<u>At last</u>, I hope the management will take action on this.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

41	<u>Last time</u>, when I wanted to return home I bought the ticket earlier.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

42	After it was over he asked me to <u>join</u> the activities.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

43	Teenage girls wake up early to draw a beautiful <u>kolam</u> in front of their house.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

44	We also make <u>vadai</u> on that day.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

45	<u>Thaipusam</u> is one of the religious festivals celebrated by Indians in Malaysia.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

46	Some relations give new clothes or <u>angpow</u> to kids.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

47	Being a Christian doesn't mean I have to wear what the <u>white people</u> wear.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

48	Consoling myself that the night would pass by quickly I <u>went to sleep</u>.			
	Formal	Informal	Both	None

Section B: In this section, please write your responses in the space provided.

1. How do you explain to your students the use of words borrowed from local languages (*baju kurung, vadai, angpow*) in the context of the English Language?

2. How do you explain to your students the use of English words that are not found in "Standard English", such as '*handphone*', '*one kind*', '*tackle'* or '*freshie*'?

Thank you for your participation.

APPENDIX J: Participant Consent Form and Demographic Information

Study on Nativisation of Malaysian English Lexis by Pre-service English Teachers
2013

Consent Form and Demographic Information

I am currently doing a study on Nativisation of the English language among pre-service English teachers as partial fulfilment for my Masters of English as a Second Language (MESL) programme. In order to complete my study, you are invited to participate. The objective of the study is to describe the use of English lexis in the written form. It is a qualitative research and is conducted in this teacher training institute.

There are no known risks if you decide to participate in this research study, nor are there any costs for participating in the study. The data needed is in the form of written samples. I require you to write 4 essays based on prepared tasks which will be given to you within 2 weeks. The information you provide will help me understand how a segment of Malaysian youths use English in their writings. The information collected may not benefit you directly, but what I learn from this study should provide general benefits to education policymakers, teacher educators and researchers. For more clarification, feel free to contact me at the mobile number provided below.

This survey is anonymous. Only the researcher will know your identity. If you choose to participate, do not write your name on the demographic information sheet. Your participation in this study is voluntary.

Please sign this form as proof of agreement. Your cooperation is highly appreciated.

Thank you.

Nur Aida binti Ahmad Nazeri
Researcher
Mobile No: 013 3649490

I agree to participate in the above study. I understand that my participation is voluntary and I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reason. If chosen for the interview, I agree to be audio recorded. I also agree to the use of anonymised quotes in publication.

Participant's Name:

Signature   :

Date   :

Please fill in the necessary information in the space provided.

Age		Today's date	
Ethnicity		Male ☐	Female ☐
Education	(State your result)	Score of SPM English 1119 Paper	☐
	(Academic qualifications other than SPM)	email address:	

1. Please list all the languages you know in **order of dominance**:

	Language A	Language B	Language C	Language D
List language here				

2. Please rate your level of proficiency in speaking and writing in the English language:

Speaking	*Very proficient*	*Proficient*	*Fairly proficient*	*Moderately proficient*	*Poorly Proficient*
Writing	*Very proficient*	*Proficient*	*Fairly proficient*	*Moderately proficient*	*Poorly Proficient*