

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

Globalization is being felt worldwide. Being one of the most influential languages, English has remarkably achieved the status of a worldwide *lingua franca* through globalization. As Fishman (1972) states,

“... it is the language of diplomacy, the predominant language in which mail is written, the principle language of aviation and of broadcasting, the first language of nearly three hundred million people and an additional language of perhaps that many more” (Fishman (1982, p. 7)

With the global spread of English, Fishman (1982, p. 15) indicates that “not only English is spreading but it is even being spread by non-English mother tongue interests”. This phenomenon facilitates the growth of indigenous non-native varieties due to the rapid spread of English around the world. In fact, Crystal (2003) suggests that English will become more influenced by non-native speakers because they have outnumbered native speakers of English. English now belongs not only to Native Speakers (NSs) but also to Non-Native Speakers (NNSs) (Widdowson, 1994).

Due to its diversified roles, English is not only used as a native language but also as a second language as well as a foreign language (Llamzon, 1981). In a country that mainly comprises multilingual speakers, English is acquired as a second language

alongside with the mother tongue. Its function extends beyond the confines of a language classroom, for instance politics, law, medicine and government administration. On the other hand, English as a foreign language serves a more educational and academic purpose but it does not serves internal communicative function in a country as Llamzon (1981, p. 99) explained that the main purpose of English as a foreign language is to “increase the ease of contact” between the natives of a country and foreigners.

The geographical spread of English has resulted in the emergence of numerous varieties of English due to the process of ‘indigenization’ (Moag, 1982) or ‘nativization’ (Kachru, 1990) that the native variety of English has gone through. This terminology refers to the process of change which the native variety of English has undergone as a result of the extended contact of the native variety with the various local languages, which has led to what is known as non-native or new Englishes.

Many users of English have found various ways to speak in any style that they find most convenient or effective by adding localized words into their utterances based on context and respondents whom they interact with. There is bound to be linguistic variation among the different Englishes since they are used in a wide range of geographical and socio-cultural contexts.

These new varieties of English can be differentiated from the native English based on several features and characteristics (Llamzon, 1981). For example, in multilingual communities where the new varieties of English are found, several

linguistic behaviors tend to take place such as code-switching, borrowing and semantic shift. They are very much culture-bound because their linguistic and cultural features are based on their domains of use such as the domains of home, friendship and recreation (Llamzon, 1981).

This present study focuses on describing the linguistic features of non-standard Malaysian English among students in a Chinese vernacular school. It also aims to identify the choice and usage of non-standard English and SME in formal and informal situations.

1.1 Background of the study

The influences of various local languages in Malaysia contribute to some of the most remarkable characteristics of Malaysian English (ME) today. The presence of features influenced by the languages of Malay, Chinese and Indian communities is widely interpreted as the result of linguistic acculturation, a process “by which English is equipped to function effectively in non-Western, multilingual speech communities” (Lowenberg, 1986, p. 72). Being one of the new varieties of English (Pillai, 2006), ME displays different pronunciation, vocabulary, grammatical and pragmatic features. Such varieties are often found in informal speech (Baskaran, 2005). The overriding influence of local languages has contributed to the different linguistic features in ME (Lowenberg, 2000).

After the Independence in 1957, a unified national system of education is introduced in Malaysia. Apart from the Malay language, English is made the national language and a compulsory language to be taught in schools respectively. Today, there is still no clear defined model of spoken English to be adopted in the classroom; it is difficult for teachers and students to say precisely why one form is acceptable. Although there are no materials for teaching functional [Malaysian] English, Standard Malaysian English is still regarded as a model (Talif & Ting, 1994). Since Malaysian Communicative Syllabus is introduced in the upper forms, Form Four and Five, less emphasis is given on grammar in lessons, and work towards creating situations for communicative- based activities. Students are expected to read and speak using correct pronunciation, intonation, word stress and sentence rhythm.

Although there is no prescriptive guideline, Gill (2002) indicates that the English spoken by an educated Malaysian with an unmarked accent (possibly SME or SE) is favored as a pedagogical model. Baskaran (2005) supports this viewpoint claiming the level that is aimed at in the pedagogical domain as a prescriptive norm in language instruction is the acrolectal form of ME. She claims that this form of ME is not native in which allows for some indigenized phonological and lexical features but it is near native as far as the syntactic features is concerned. In line with the KBSR syllabus (1977), Baskaran (2005) clarifies that

“Our aim of international intelligibility does not imply our students should speak exactly like an Englishmen. There would not be sufficient time to achieve this nor is it necessary. What is aimed at is that they should be able to speak with acceptable rhythm and stress, and to produce the sounds of English sufficiently well for a listener to be able to distinguish between similar words” (Baskaran, 2005, p. 20)

To benefit from globalization, the government was eager to signal a swing back to English-medium primary and secondary education in 2002, at least for Science and Mathematics. However, the cabinet decided the medium of instruction for Mathematics and Science to be reverted to Bahasa Malaysia in national schools and mother-tongue languages in national-type schools from 2012 onwards. In response to the question regarding the reversion of the policy by the government, Tun Seri Dr. Mahathir Mohamad commented that reversing the policy is a wrong move by the government. He said,

“Today, the knowledge is with the people who write in English. And for that reason we want to learn English to acquire knowledge, not to learn English, but Science has got a special English language for itself. It is important that we use English to study the Science and Maths” (Tun Seri Dr. Mahathir’s blog, refer to <http://chedet.co.cc/chedetblog/2009/07/the-teaching-of-maths-and-scie.html>)

It is important for students to learn to master formal language in schools because if one only learns to speak at the colloquial level, one can never rise up to the occasion to speak formal English when the need arises (Muniandy, 2010). Though the use of Standard English is very much desired especially in formal settings, the significance of other varieties of the language must not be dismissed. Morais (2001) believes that SME

co- exists with the nativised variety of the language. However, one must be conscious of the communicative functions of Manglish which refers to the non-standard Malaysian English due to its importance in social function of fostering ties. Baskaran (2005) points out that certain standard English lexemes would have been localized for informal use especially among students in school, at colleges and universities.

Since language is seen as a means of expressing culture where cultural expressions are norms in the Malaysian context, it is crucial and useful for a speaker to own linguistic flexibility which enables speakers to distinguish and switch between varieties depending on informal and formal contexts (Pillay, 2004). Lectal switching is a prominent feature of ME whereby acrolect speaker to move down the lectal scale and speak on a mesolectal or basilectal range depending on the people in interactions, social settings and purposes. Vethamani (1996) highlights the fact that “an acrolectal speaker would have the ability to move down the lectal scale and speak on a mesolectal or basilectal level” He also claims that the lect switch is “a unidirectional downward switch” which means that the mesolect speaker would be able to switch to the basilect. However, he adds that the basilect speaker would be unable to switch to either the mesolect or the acrolect.

Thus, it is important that individual must know where, when and why to shift lects. One must consider the sociolinguistics of his or her interaction before lect shifting (Gill, 2002, p.56). One of the best ways to instill lect shifting is education. Education plays a role, acting as a controller of lect shifting. As students are ensured exposure to

English through compulsory schooling for 11 years, syllabuses and teachers are essential in teaching students where, when, why and with whom to use Malaysian English lects.

Although the term ME is often used to refer to the colloquial variety spoken by some Malaysians, Morais (2001) clarifies that it actually encompasses all the sub-varieties of English used by Malaysians. According to Baskaran (1994) and Gill (2002), these sub-varieties can be described as within a continuum of ME with at least three distinguishable varieties. They are the *acrolect*, *mesolect* and *basilect*. It is not unusual for Malaysians to switch along the continuum according to contexts and respondents to achieve successful communication and mutual intelligibility.

However, various Malaysian socio-linguists uses the terms like *acrolect*, *acro-mesolect* and *mesolect* to distinguish the varieties of Malaysian English that are in use (Pillay, 2004) while other researchers such as Morais (2001) and Talif and Ting (1994) would use terms like *Malaysian Type I*, *Malaysian Type II*, and *Malaysian Type III* to represent the three sub varieties. Classification is also used to describe ME. Richards (1979) classifies ME into two: High Form (Rhetorical) and Low Form (Communicative) while Irene Wong (1981) describes ME in two classification: “Formal” (a standard form) and “Informal” (a colloquial form).

In Malaysia, the terms used to distinguish between the standardized norm (the model acceptable for official purpose, teaching in schools and official functions) and the

more communicative style used in speech are the *acrolect* and *mesolect* (Baskaran, 2005). However, in a study of attitudes towards Singlish in Singapore, Harada (2009) adopted Platt & Weber's (1980) definition of the three sub varieties which regarded both *acrolect* and *mesolect* as Standard Singapore English (SSE) while *basilect* as Singlish, the informal, non-standard English.

Many attempts have been made by linguists as well as non-linguists in describing the features of ME. Realizing the fact that there are so many terms and definitions in describing ME, Gupta (2005) stresses the importance of using the terms appropriately. Considering the above concern, the current study uses Pillay's (2004) definition on the terms Manglish (Pillay, 2004) and Standard Malaysian English (SME) (Pillay, 2004). According to Pillay (2004), these terms are used to distinguish the non-standard Malaysian English, informal and colloquial variety used during communication among friends, colleagues, and family members from the standard educated variety of Malaysian English.

The uniqueness of Manglish can be seen in terms of its lexical items (localization of certain lexical items) and syntax. Gupta (1998, p.22) believes that understanding the factors of usage of SME or Manglish is crucial because they provide essential explanations as to why certain language is preferred.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The development of the new varieties of English has raised some new concerns and problems for the users of the English language, both the native and non-native speakers. Such concerns and problems are often related to the issue of acceptability of the different varieties of English particularly the new varieties and the issue of mutual intelligibility of the language. In addition to these issues are the underlying “technical problems of description and typology, and about problems of the educational suitability of some forms of English” (Stevens, 1998, p.1).

Apart from that, the changes in Malaysia’s language policy have resulted to the rise and fall in the importance of English. It is not an uncommon phenomenon to find comments in newspapers about various inaccuracies in teachers’ use of English. The increased usage of non-standard Malaysian English among Malaysian students has led to a decline in spoken English (Murugesen, 2003).

Many second language acquisition (SLA) researchers have identified the difference between the new varieties from the native norms. They believe that the new varieties could be influenced by the interference from local languages or imperfect acquisition of the native variety. Some of the recent studies of new varieties of English shed some light into the differences between the new varieties and native speaker norms. This can be done by explaining and describing the different communicative norms and sociolinguistic functions of the language used by non-native users. For

instance, in the study of lexical transfer in ME, Lowenberg (1986, p. 71-82) attributed the use of new variety to the acculturation of English to fit strategies of communication in specific multilingual and sociocultural contexts of use. This provides an urgent need to study the use of the non-standard Malaysian English (Manglish) by looking at the linguistic as well as the functional dimensions of this particular variety of English concerned in order to gain an understanding on its characteristics and features.

The description of such variety is commonly done at the lexis level such as categorizing words (Manglish) into different part of speech and labeling them according to different type of lexis. Though Baskaran (2005) claims that the English in Malaysia is seen as “a distinct variety in its own right” (p.18), she believes that previous works on ME, “have not given full impetus on the structural features although it is in this very sphere that the most significant differences make ME what it actually is” (p.23).

1.3 Significance of the Study

Realizing the fact that real life speech data is invaluablely useful due to the spontaneity of spoken oral interaction, it could be significant to acknowledge the linguistic features of Manglish that occur in the real life communication. This study attempts to look at spoken English particularly the linguistic features because they are commonly found in the spoken informal English. Although the more formal (spoken and written) local variety has less syntactic variations from Standard British English, some hybrid lexical items are adopted as Standard English. They are also found in formal repertoire such as *rotan*, *kampong*. In this regard, this study is significant

because it documents the linguistic features found in the usage of Manglish and it provides an enhanced knowledge of the varieties of English used in Malaysia.

This study is also crucial due to its multiple research methods. Apart from closed-ended questionnaires which were the main tool used in Tan and Tan's (2008) and Harada's (2009) studies on Singlish, and Crismore, Ngeow and Soo's (2006) study on Malaysian English, this study incorporates open-ended questionnaires to gather additional information which is not obtained through closed-ended questionnaire. Open-ended questionnaires are used to reveal more in-depth information such as the students' usage of Manglish in formal and informal situation as well as the factors which influence their choice of language. An additional research tool is also included in this study. By incorporating video-recording, the study is able to shed light on how Manglish is being used by analyzing the linguistic features found in the students' usage of Manglish.

This study highlights the need for further research on the usage of ME by other types of Malaysian citizens. Some studies have addressed the attitudes towards non-standard English in workplace and university setting such as Crismore, Ngeow and Soo (1996; 2003); however, few contemporary studies have examined the usage of ME in the context of a primary school. Although many studies addressed the attitudes towards ME, few contemporary studies have examined the features of Manglish found in students' speech. The researcher intends to highlight the lack of contemporary research

exploring the primary school settings. However, this current study cannot be used to generalize about the usage of English language in the whole Malaysia.

Many previous studies focused exclusively on the linguistics features of ME and attitude towards ME. To name a few, recent studies such as Tan Siew Imm's (2009) examination of lexical borrowing from Chinese languages in Malaysian English and Crismore, Ngeow and Soo's (2003) examined the private and public sectors workers' attitudes towards standard English use in Malaysia. However, little research has linked the varieties (SME or Manglish) to context of use (formal or informal situation).

1.4 Aims and Objectives

In a multilingual society such as Malaysia, most Malaysians are able to communicate with two or more languages. As a non-native speaker of English, the researcher is able to see first-hand how students employ Manglish in their daily communications, especially in the academic setting. Therefore, it is not uncommon to find codemixing, codeswitching, borrowings, omission, and the use of slang and pragmatic particles in spontaneous informal interactions and at times, in formal interactions.

There have been extensive studies which mainly focus on attitudes towards non-native varieties, for example, the China English (Kirpatrick & Xu, 2002), Indian English (Kachru, 1979; Shaw, 1981) English and especially Singlish (Harada, 2009; Tan & Tan

(2008), including Malaysian English (Crismore, Ngeow & Soo, 1996, 2003). However, this study focuses mainly on the linguistic features such as the lexical and syntactic aspect of students' actual conversations. This study also investigates the students' choice of language (SME or Manglish) in formal and informal situations as well as the factors that influence their choice of language.

Based on the objectives and statement of problem discussed, the research questions to be addressed through the course of this study are:

- RQ1** What are the linguistic features found in the usage of Manglish?
- RQ2** What are the students' language choice (SME and/or Manglish) in formal and informal situations?
- RQ3** What are the factors (solidarity, identity and ethnicity, attitude, social status and medium of instruction) that influence the students' language choice in formal and informal situations?
- RQ4** What are the students' attitudes towards Manglish?

This study involves a combination of qualitative (video-recording and open-ended questionnaire) and quantitative (closed-ended questionnaire) methods. Quantitative data involves frequency counts gathered from the closed-ended questionnaire particularly to examine research questions 2, 3 and 4. Qualitative data involves the students' face-to-face oral interactions in order to identify the linguistic

features in the usage of Manglish (research question 1). Another qualitative data is the responses from teachers. These responses provide information which can be used to research question 2 and 3.

1.5 Scope and Limitation

The scope and limitation of this study can be stipulated as follows:

The focus of this study is limited to the description of lexical and syntactical features of Manglish rather than the phonological variables. Most parts of the description of the data are within the boundary of the two features (lexical and syntactical features) which is to be done with reference to previous works on ME lexical and syntactical features. To describe the characteristics of items in terms of contexts of use and the level of formality, the researcher uses the ME continuum model as a model. ME lexical items may switch from one sub-variety to another based on respondents and contexts. However, it is not the objective of this study to label each item exclusively as *acrolectal*, *mesolectal* or *basilectal*.

This study does not focus on phonological variables in detail due to time constraint. However, phonological explanations are provided for the analysis as they are important for explaining the particles and exclamations. Pragmatic functions, on the other hand, are also important for the purpose of interpreting the meaning of certain lexical items such as '*lah*', '*meh*' and '*ah*'.

The qualitative aspect of this study suggests that the analysis of data could be interpretative. Therefore, the analysis of the data is subjected to interpretation of the researcher. In relation to that, this limitation is minimized by adhering as close as possible to the previous works and framework as well as to the data.

This study only focuses on the spoken aspect as it is the most common variety one encounters which is likely to be found in the mass media, radio, television and everyday transactions where second language is used. Because of its spontaneous creation, it is prone to many regional variations, slang and borrowings. In fact, Pillay (2004) asserts that it is more *“intricately bound with one’s culture and personality, it is more prone to adopting unique socio-cultural features of individual which then gets categorized as one of the Englishes spoken in the world”* (p.4).

The analysis of the grammatical construct and vocabulary revealed that there was a substantial amount of features used by the participants during the video recording. However, it is not exhaustive since the context of the research was narrowed down to only inside and outside the classroom within the school parameter. This study can be further extended in a number of ways: longer duration of recordings as well as an increase in the number of contexts or settings, and the exploration of other linguistic elements of Manglish, such as its phonology and semantics, as a bigger corpus will make the research more significant and reliable.

The participants consist of students from a particular school, therefore the results of the study cannot be assumed to represent all primary six student population in schools situated in Malaysia. A bigger corpus is required to validate a representative study. For the purpose of this study, this study is conducted in a Chinese vernacular school. All the participants are Chinese. They consist of almost equal number of male and female participants in this study. However, it was not the objectives of this study to focus on the use of ME among ethnic groups, gender, age, language background factors in detail.

1.6 Summary

This dissertation consists of six chapters. The first chapter contains the introduction wherein the basic elements of the research are discussed. The second chapter discusses the previous studies and the related literature which are in relation with this study whereas the third chapter includes the methodology and the research design of this study. The fourth and fifth chapters are the fundamental part of this study. The fourth chapter deals with data analysis including identifying and explaining the features of Manglish found in students' oral interaction while the fifth chapter explains the students' choice and usage of Manglish in formal and informal situations. Finally, the sixth chapter contains the conclusion and recommendation of the research as well as some pedagogical implications that could be beneficial and useful for teachers to create awareness regarding the use of Manglish and SME in the school context.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature on English, background and issues of Malaysian English (ME), Standard and non-standard English. This chapter also discusses about multilingualism and bilingualism as well as code-switching and code-mixing. Besides, this chapter provides an account of the possible factors influencing the choice of language (or code) in different situations.

2.1 New Englishes

Several frameworks exist for the explanation of the spread of English around the world. One of the most influential model is Kachru's (1982) three concentric circles of English, comprising the inner, outer and expanding circles. It attempts to divide the Englishes around the world according to the context of their development.

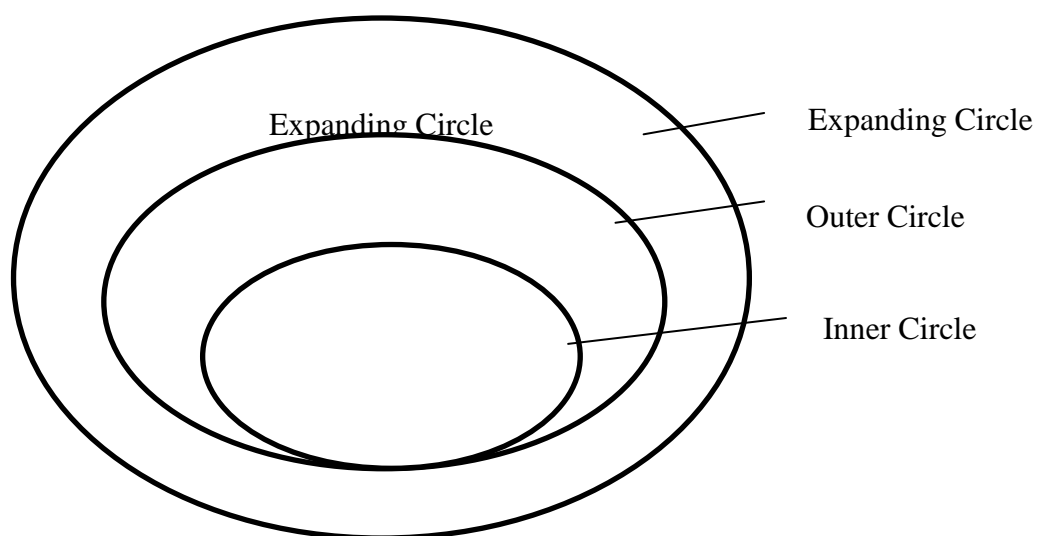


Figure 2.1: Kachru's (1982) Circles model of World Englishes.

Based on Figure 2.1, the inner Circle comprises the USA, UK, Canada, New Zealand and Australia where English is used as a Native Language. The Outer Circle refers to those countries in the earlier phase of the spread of English in non-native settings where English has become institutionalized. It plays an important role as a second language (ESL) along with other languages in countries like Singapore, Malaysia, Hong Kong, Philippines, India and some other countries belong to this circle. The Expanding Circle consists of countries where English is used as the main foreign language such as China, Japan, Indonesia, Saudi Arabia.

The non-native varieties in the Outer Circle are varieties that emerge in countries where English is not the first language. These varieties are referred to as ‘indigenous varieties’ (Moag, 1982, p.3) or ‘nativized varieties’ (Kachru, 1982, p.329). They are often very close to the native variety as strict steps are taken to ensure that they do not deviate much from the native variety. In the Outer Circle, the varieties of English have their own local histories, literary traditions, pragmatic contexts and communicative norms (Kachru, 1992). One of the examples of non-native varieties of English which have been receiving increasing recognition is Malaysian English (ME).

Unlike the previous models which categorized Englishes of the world such as Kachru’s Circles Model of World Englishes (1982), Ooi’s model is more linguistic specific in his categorizations of English as used in the Outer settings: Singapore and Malaysia. It aims to distinguish the varieties within a variety of English itself. This model which is known as the Concentric Circles of nativised Englishes focused on the

nativized linguistic features and is widely referred to the categorization of the Singapore-Malaysia English lexical items (Ooi, 2001, p. 178).

Speaking of lexical differences in Manglish (or Singlish) with that of SME, Ooi (2001) introduced a unique way of categorizing its lexis whether it borrowed or coined. Whether it is single or multiword units, this model has yielded at least five main groups of words (Group A to E) characterizing the range of language use in 'second language' contexts. Ooi's (2001) concentric circle model (see Figure 2.1) comprises 6 categories of words Singapore and Malaysian English.

Group A known as Core English includes English of most general function worldwide. It is associated with the notion of 'Standard English. Some of these non-English words are now incorporated into a number of recent English dictionaries such as COBUILD (Sinclair, 1993). Group B includes words or expressions of English origin that are accepted and understood by SME speakers in both formal and informal situations. Group C consists of SME/words or hybrids of non-English words accepted and understood by SME speakers in both formal and informal situations however, there are no English equivalents (without missing local associations). Group D and E contains words of English origin includes words of English origin acceptable in local informal situations (usually speech) only and regarded by highly educated SME speakers as 'Singlish', 'Manglish', or 'errors'. Group E contains borrowings from the substrate languages and dialects such as Hokkien and Bazaar Malay are found mainly in informal speech. Examples are shown in Figure 2.2.

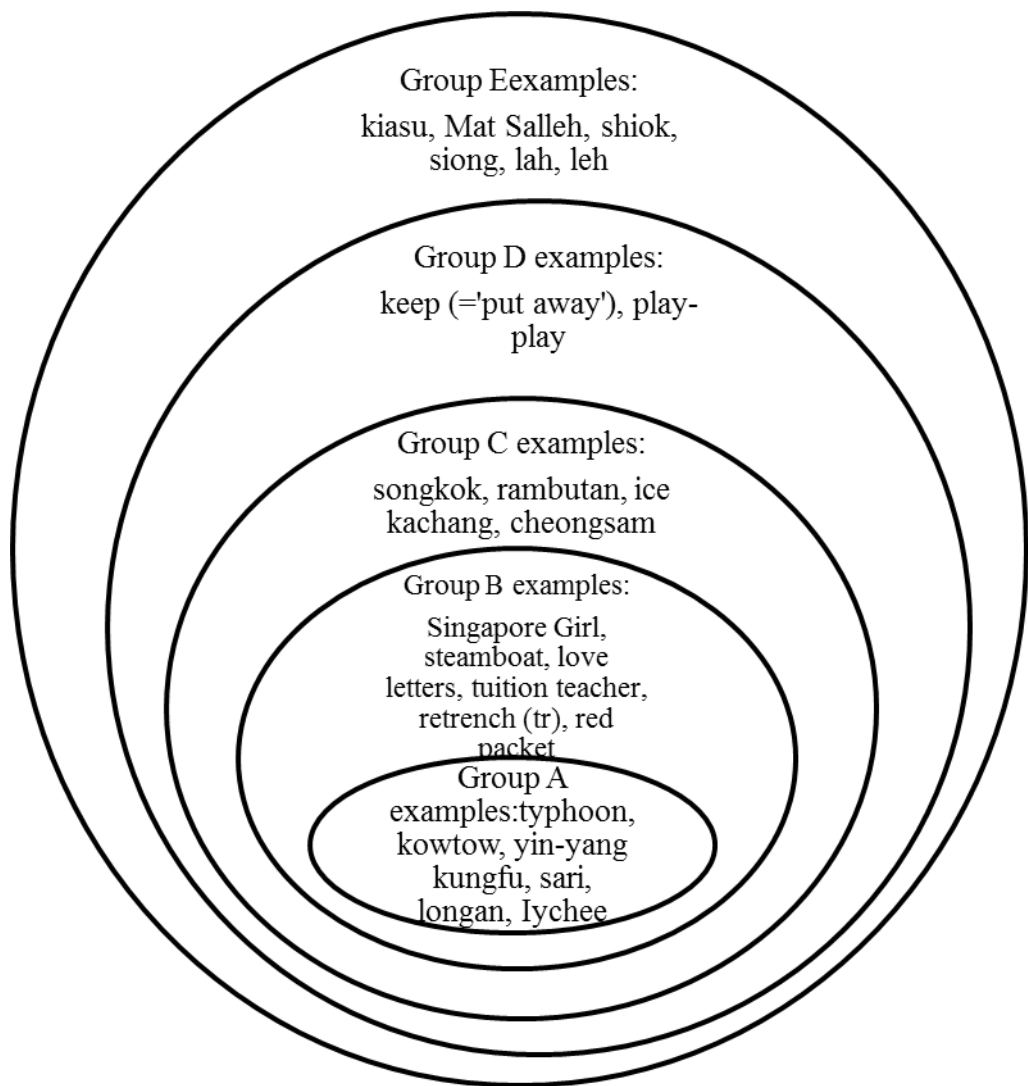


Figure 2.2: Concentric circles for nativised Englishes, including the SME variety (examples in this section are quoted from Ooi 2001, p.171-181)

The basis of this model is to avoid any wrong perceptions of words, especially those borrowed from other substrate languages commonly used in ME and SE as British equivalent. It is also to signal that these (borrowed and coined) are very informal items and are less established than the core ones. The contact between substrate languages and English has contributed to the development of Malaysian English (ME). It differs phonologically, syntactically and lexically from the established native speaker varieties,

for example British, American and Australian English.

Kachru's model describes the variety in Englishes whereas Ooi's model focuses on the categorization of Malaysian/ Singapore English lexical items. Ooi's model which is the extension of the expanding circle in Kachru's model was used as a reference or framework of this study. Malaysian English is one of the non-native varieties in the expanding circle. In this dissertation, the researcher focuses on the linguistic features of Manglish.

2.2 Background and Issues of Malaysian English (ME)

Malaysians are learning English increasingly as a language of international communication. The aim should continue to teach children to speak in such a way that they will be understood not only by Malaysians but also by speakers of English from other parts of the world. They should realize that it is no longer necessary or desirable to aim at a foreign standard of English.

Like India and Jamaica where the respective terms Standard Indian English and Standard Jamaican English are fully recognized, Malaysia has indigenised versions of English. Crystal (2005) and Ostler (2006) explain that the important development of non-standard varieties of English caused by the long presence of English in its adopted lands has resulted in nonnative traits emerging in English such as Malaysian English (ME).

However, many other Malaysians would not consider it to be up to “standard”. Malaysian English (ME) is not to be labeled as standard or non- standard as compared to the standard varieties such as SBE. It is also not to be regarded as an inaccurate language that needs to be corrected. Instead, it is one of the varieties of English resulting from various non- linguistic as well as linguistic factors (Zaaman, 2009). With the emergence of ME in the past 30 years or so through the process of nativisation, unique registers are revealed in both spoken and written texts. Hence, the knowledge of the historical as well as socio- linguistic background of English in the country is necessary in order to understand the emergence of ME.

In describing the notion “the continuum of ME” and the existence of different “strain”, Augustin (1980) explains by distinguishing three main types. They are (a) Anglo- Malay the formal variety, used by English- educated ‘older’ speakers, (b) Colloquial Malaysian English (CME) as informal variety which incorporates localized features of pronunciation, lexis and syntax, and (c) Malay-influenced ME containing a high degree of code- switching. Contrary to the view that ME is defined as one uniform ‘variety’, Platt, Weber and Ho (1984) points out that ME is simply divided into the “old kind” (English spoken by English-educated Malaysians) and the “new kind” (English spoken by the Malay- medium educated Malaysians). Subsequently, they redefined ME as a continuum ranging from acrolect to basilect variety. It also might be seen as a continuum from “slightly Malaysian” to “very Malaysian”.

Platt & Weber (1980) were amongst the first to define ME as an continuum ranging from the basilect, the lowest variety to acrolect, the highest variety of the continuum. Baskaran (1994) later proposed that ME is actually a continuum comprising at least three distinguishable sub- varieties such as the acrolect, mesolect and basilect. Baskaran (1994) explains that

“Acrolect, the ‘high’ social dialect that is used for official and educational purposes. Mesolect, the ‘middle’ social dialect and is used in semiformal and casual situations. Basilect, is the ‘low’ social dialect which is being used informally and colloquially” (Baskaran, 1994, p.27)

Baskaran (1994) notices that a distinctive ME is used at every social level, in various combinations and variation of three sociolects (social dialects). She adds that “the linguistic features of each sociolect are more or less clear- cut but occasional interlectal seepage are common; language is never in a freeze- frame”.

Subsequently, Baskaran (2005) describes ME in another three-tiered approach using the terms: Official ME, Unofficial ME and Broken ME as illustrated in Table 2.1. ME continuum model is used as a model (among others) to describe the characteristics of items in terms of contexts of use and level of formality, thus further contributing to the defining features of ME.

Table 2.1: Baskaran's (2005) Sub-division of Malaysian English

	Official Malaysian English	Unofficial Malaysian English	Broken Malaysian English
	-Standard Spoken & Written -Formal Use -International Intelligibility	-Dialectal Spoken & Written -Informal use -National Intelligibility	-Patois Spoken Only -Colloquial use -Patois intelligibility & currency
Syntax	No deviation tolerated at all	Some deviation is acceptable although it is not as stigmatized as broken English (intelligibility is still there)	Substantial variation/ deviation (national intelligibility)
Lexis	Variation acceptable especially for words not substitutable in an international context (or to give a more localized context)	Lexicalizations quite prevalent even or words having international English substitutes	Major lexicalization- heavily infused with local language items.
Phonology	Slight Variation tolerated so long as it is internationally intelligible	More variation is tolerated- including prosodic features especially stress and intonation	Severe variation- both segmental and prosodic with intonation so stigmatized- almost unintelligible internationally

Using similar terms, Pillai & Fauziah's (2006) provides descriptions on the features of ME within the continuum shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Pillai & Fauziah's (2006) Sub- varieties of Malaysian English

	← Acrolect Standard ME	Mesolect Colloquial	Basilect Broken →
Syntax	+ standard	-Standard	Extremely simplified structures
Lexis	+localized lexical items accepted in formal an informal use	+ localized lexical items, including those not used in more formal contexts	Pidgin-like
Phonology	Can be ± marked ethnically	Usually, but not necessarily ±marked ethnic accent	Usually ± marked ethnic accent

Apart from being categorized in terms of formality, Morais (1997, p.90) indicates that lectal varieties of ME are also perceived as a result of the socio-economic and ethnic background of the speakers (see Table 2.3). Morais (1997) explains

“The varieties of ME used by Malaysians at home with friends, at school and at the workplace may be said to be indicators of their membership in different socio-economic and ethnic networks. Malay, Chinese and Indian members of the middle class have in their repertoire both the standard and the nativised varieties of ME” (Morais, 1997, p.90)

ME Type 1 (MEI) in Table 2.3 is described as a high variety generally used in formal interactions whereas ME Type II (MEII) is a colloquial variety used by the members of the white collar network in informal contexts.

Table 2.3: Morais's (1997) Categorization of ME varieties

Socioeconomic/Ethnic background	Varieties of ME
Middle class Malaysians (Malays/ Chinese/ Indians)	Standard Malaysian English (MEI, MEII)
Working Class Malaysians (Malays/ Chinese/ Indians)	Colloquial variety (MEII)

While some views ME as a variety that has sub-varieties (basilect to acrolect), some views it as an entity by itself. For example, Kow (2004, p. 5) observes, “ME is a variety with formal features that are different from those of established varieties. However, there are mixed views about ME. Platt, Weber and Ho (1980) and Wong (1982) refuses to regard ME as “substandard” while Llamzon (1983) compares ME to a seed that has grown into a tree with an identity and life distinct from those of its parent. Hamida Beebi Abdul Karim (1985) shares similar point of view when she says “Malaysian English should never be regarded as a sub-branch of BE; never should it be thought of as being inferior than the prevailing varieties of English”.

2.3 Concern for variety: The Non-standard English (Manglish)

Malaysian English (ME) has been defined subjectively by the general public. Many Malaysians perceive ME as Manglish. However, the abbreviated Malaysian English as Manglish would be an overgeneralization in the linguistic point of view. Malaysians tend to overlook that there are varieties within ME itself. Dewing (2005) stresses the importance of distinguishing the difference between Manglish known as the form of street Malaysian English spoken by most Malaysians and the standard ‘proper’ English which does not deviate significantly from ‘common’ English spoken by

Malaysian speakers. She adds that Manglish can be likened to pidgin English.

Unlike ‘proper’ English which is intelligible among English-speaking around the world, Manglish is usually barely understandable to most speakers of English, except Singaporeans who also speak a similar patois known as Singlish. A similar study using the term Singlish is by Harada (2009). In that particular study, Harada (2009) conducted an investigation on the role of Singapore Standard English and Singlish. In fact in the study, Harada (2009) regarded basilect as Singlish whereas acrolect and mesolect as Singapore Standard English.

Similarly, Pillay (2004), in her article with the title, “Muddied Waters: The Issue of Models of English for Malaysian Schools”, also adopted the use of the term Manglish as an indication of the non-standard English whereas Malaysian Standard English as the standard Malaysian English (SME). Based on this notion by Pillay (2004), this study has adopted the term Manglish to signify the colloquial ME as opposed to SME, the standard ME.

In relation to SME, Soo (1999, p. 20) observes, “SME, to mean the acrolect spoken by the English medium- educated in Malaysia, co-exist with ME, which refers to the non- acrolectal sub-varieties or nativised varieties of the language”. This group of English speakers, however, can effortlessly switch to the non- acrolectal sub-varieties in informal communication situations or when communicating with those who have not mastered the acrolect. SME can be considered the acrolect, the highest variety along the

continuum and it is the preferred choice of the language authorities. However, the basilectal variety of ME is the Colloquial Malaysian English (CME) or as Tan (2006, p. 31) and Pillay (2004) sometimes claim it as Manglish.

It seems clear that Manglish serves as a carrier of a distinctly Malaysian identity (a role which should be reserved for the Malay language). Because of that, Gill (2002) describes English in Malaysia as lacking of its former elitist character. Manglish has clearly become the natural language choice of everyday informal communication in many social contexts. Nair-Venugopal (2000) explains that Manglish is called for by social needs in some business training session in order to decrease social distance as well as strengthening rapport. The identification of Manglish is reflected by the distinct features which are distinctly Malaysian in form as described by Nair-Venugopal (2000), Manglish is “the English that is used by Malaysians to create rapport and establish our sense of identity” (p.150).

Manglish can be viewed as a variety that has “distinctive phonological, syntactical and lexical properties” (Baskaran, 2005). Some of these features are shared with other varieties especially those in close geographical proximity particularly, Singapore. However, many of the grammatical innovations in Manglish are proven at the interface of lexis and syntax Scneider (2003b, p.57). One of the examples gathered from Baskaran (2005) include “pluralization of mass nouns” (e.g. staffs, hairs, stationeries).

Many attempts have been made at describing Malaysian English. To name a few, Elaine Wijesuria's (1972) study on the grammatical structures of English and Malay- a contrastive analysis of phrase structure and Siew Yue Killingley's study (1965) on Malaysian English which deals with phonological, grammatical and lexical lines. In Baskaran's point of view, most of these studies are thorough in their approach to the topic, however, they still do not deal with Malaysian English syntax entirely. Baskaran (2005, p.23) made a remark that "the area of structural features has not been given full impetus although it is in this very sphere that the most significant differences make Malaysian English what it actually is.". However, they are attempts at describing some aspect of syntax in relation to English in the Malaysian context.

In that regard, Baskaran (2005) has particularly focused on the analysis of ME structural features in her book entitled 'A Malaysian English Primer: Aspect of Malaysian English Features'. She adds that "Malaysian English is not just a profusion of "errors" or "deviances" but rather a distinct system of its own, with grammatical rules and regular patterns and paradigms like language variety". Through investigating ME features from various texts and utterances (the real- life speech of Malaysians), she has outlined the structural, phonological, lexical as well as syntactical characteristics of ME in her book. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the scope of analysis is based on certain characteristics as presented by Baskaran (2005, p. 37- 49, 141- 161) and is laid out in the Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Baskaran's (2005) Characteristics of Malaysian English

Characteristics of ME	
Lexical features	Syntactic features
<u>Standard English Lexicalisation (English Lexemes with ME usage)</u> Polysemic variation Semantic variation Informalisation Formalisation Directional reversal Grammatical particles College colloquialism	<u>Clause Structure- Interrogative Clause variation</u> WH – Interrogatives Non auxiliary be Copula Ellipsis Absence of operator 'do' Yes- No Interrogative Tags: or not, yes or not, enclitic 'ah' WH- Imperatives: 'can or not' tag 'Isn't it', 'is it' tag Pronoun Ellipsis Substitution of there + be with the existential 'got'

Baskaran's (2005) framework has provided a significant basis for data presentation and analysis in Chapter 4 although not all features may be found in the data. The applicable features are to be presented as sub- titles in the presentation and description of data within the analysis. Other than that, word formation processes can also be used to describe ME vocabulary morphologically. Apart from compounding and affixation as being the most notable processes of word formation in ME (Baskaran, 2005), other processes such as reduplication, repetition and conversion are also discusses in describing some of the data in Chapter 4.

2.4 Concern for Standard Variety

The definition of Standard English is subjective. Trudgill & Hannah (2000) explains that it is rather surprising that there seems to be confusion in the English-speaking world, even among linguists about the notion, Standard English. Standard English is often considered the set of pronunciation, grammatical, and lexical choices. ‘Standard’ means that it encompasses the widest range of options because it has been forged to fit almost any communicative situation. It is commonly regarded as the most efficient and convenient variety for any occasion. Crystal (1997) adds that this linguistic object resembles more or less to the variety taught and learnt at school and used by intellectuals such as TV speakers and writers.

Malaysian English (ME) is described by Rajandran (2011) as vague. It is difficult to draw a line as to where acceptability begins and ends especially regarding the certain “usage” which the users think is standard but may not be comprehensible to non- Malaysians. However, the lack of a standard does not indicate an endnormative variety does not exist. It points to a lack of corpus planning and status planning which Gill (2002) later suggests that steps needed to be taken narrow this gap.

Apart from the issue of acceptance of the variety, it is also about whether the communication objective of the speech is successfully achieved in the particular situations involved and whether the variety can be interpreted by the listeners. Therefore, the difference between SE and ME as well as the communicative functions of each in various domains should be realized so that the varieties will be appropriately used based

on the situations.

If ME remains influenced by SBE (Clyne, 1994) and does not plan for Standard Malaysian English, its native traits are less noticeable that denies it the ability to distinguish itself as a valid standard (Zaaman, 2009). The endonormative standards have come from countries with English as the majority language such as in Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the USA. In India, Singapore or the Philippines where English is the second or foreign language, there are much remains to be done to recognize the endonormative standards. In the case of Malaysia, this endonormative standard is based on acrolect Malaysian English. However, a generally accepted norm for English is an attitudinally loaded question (Kachru, 2003, p. 438). Although Malaysia promoted its own endonormative standard, it has to deal with questions of authority and prestige, not only from outside the country but also from inside the country.

Questions are raised on whether Manglish should be considered as deviations from SE or merely an excuse of lack of knowledge (Gaudart, 1997). Deviations are variants which are permissible whereas mistake, according to Kachru (1982) is a linguistic manifestation that is not acceptable to a native speech community and to a nativised speech community. For a particular linguistic feature to be considered a mistake or not a mere deviation, both the criteria must be met (Kachru, 1982). Samuel (1997) echoes Kachru's view by stating that the mistake-deviation distinction is always a socio-psychological matter which is defined by a speech community's intuitive sense

of what is permissible in a particular context.

As far as the ESL education is concerned, the issue of “standard” can never be dealt lightly. Indicating that SE is not a complete norm, Gupta (1994) points out that there are features which are definitely standard or non- standard but it is not entirely bipolar. Orthography and number concord are used to illustrate how standard may be scalar. While some spellings and some types of concord can definitely be seen as non-standard, others are less stigmatized, or involve choices between standard alternatives. Gupta (1994) suggests that teachers and editors need to be aware of central areas of standard as identifying sentences require the greatest need of correction. After all, there has no indication claiming that the aim of English Language Teaching (ELT) in Malaysia is to produce a native-like speaker of English.

2.5 Bilingualism and Multilingualism

According to Crystal (2004, p. 38), “bilingual/ multilingualism, is the normal human condition,” for “well over half of the people in the world perhaps two third are bilingual”. Wardhaugh (1992, p.102) describes that a bilingualism, or multilingualism situation can produce other effects on one or more of the languages involved. This can result in either loss or in diffusion with features of one language spread to another language on a syntactic level. Bilingualism or multilingualism is integrally woven into its cultural fabric.

Rajandran (2011) suggests that pragmatism must be used with regards to language choice. Matter as to when and where to use English or Malay is in constant change. The fact that a speaker has a linguistic repertoire from which to choose a language variety appropriate to a particular situation, Rajandran (2011) articulates that the repertoire may include more than one language. In this current study, the participants are either bilingual or multilingual and English is mostly used as their second language (L2). Therefore, there is a tendency of code-switching and code-mixing. With Malaysia being multilingual nation, there is evidence of code-switch and code-mix with various reasons. The non-standard Malaysia English, also known as Manglish, for example, is loaded with the elements of code-switching and code-mixing tendencies which is the result of speakers and their languages encountering one another.

In regards to the educational development and language settings in Malaysia, Baskaran (2005) points out,

“With the various official statuses accorded to the four basic languages in the country such as Bahasa Malaysia, English, Chinese- Mandarin and Tamil) along with the diverse range of languages in actual currency amongst the people of Malaysia, it is small wonder then that the average Malaysian is at least a bilingual- regardless of educational or socioeconomic background. On the other hand, it is not unusual to find the trilingual or multilingual Malaysian either” (Baskaran, 2005, p.16).

In Malaysia, Malay language is the national and official language by the Constitution of Malaysia. However, the Malay language cannot carry out the global roles of English and most languages in the world share its fate. It is not only the national

language of Malaysia but also the national language of Indonesia, Brunei and Singapore. Malay language has been used as an agrarian, cultural, literary and religious language. Graddol (1997) believes that whilst English can be used as the transnational and transregional language, native languages like Malay are used for national and regional purposes. Likewise, Safran (2010) also suggests the functional differentiation of languages. Each language used for different functions can be divided into international communication for English and national communication for Malay. This solution specifies the roles demanded of both languages.

However, Malaysia's multilingual nature does not permit this. Malaysians use languages from Iban to Cantonese and Tamil. These languages promote ties for the ethnic groups that use them. Besides, Malay language is not exclusive to Malaysia. It is a standard variety promoted via the Brunei-Indonesian-Malaysian Language Council (MABBIM) that shares up to 70% mutual comprehensibility in the council's three member countries (Asmah, 2003, p. 170), making Malay a transnational and regional language. This is in contrary to the functional differentiation suggested by Graddol (1997) and Safran (2010). To solve this matter, Rajandran (2011) suggests that inclusive spaces that is based on contextual factors, either English or Malay can be used for international demands, regional demands, national demands and local demands as this would provide a flexible role for English and Malay as their use depends on people's context (Rajandran, 2011).

However, the attraction of English in Malaysia goes significantly beyond the limitations of formal, international and business uses. Apart from the Malay language, there are many other languages in Malaysia, such as the Chinese languages, the majority being Cantonese and Hokkien and Indian languages, the majority being Tamil. These native languages play a part in nativizing English in Malaysia (Baskaran, 2005). This suggests that English is not randomly nativized but it is nativized to suit the purposes of its users. Baskaran (2005) states the influence of Bahasa Malaysia plays an important role in the aspects of grammar in Manglish. Baskaran (2005) adds that the culturally distinctive terms or vocabulary has incorporated borrowings from indigenous languages such as *penghulu* ‘village chief’, *mee* ‘noodles’, hybrid local compounds such as syariah court, coinage such as *Datukship*, semantic shift such as cut ‘overtake’ as well as in-group slang which is regionally and socially restricted for example, *slambar* ‘relax’ and *chun* ‘nice’.

Therefore, it is inevitable that Malaysians are constantly faced with options of making meaningful language choices when they interact with people of different races within their own community and in their own country. Romaine (1989) indicates that code- changing often follows a change of addressee. In other words, Malaysians have the choice of using the language particularly to accommodate or converge with the linguistic ability of their addressee. Besides, they can also choose to code-switch by switching two languages or to code- mix by using more than one single lexical item in the other language, or by using at least one word in the second language. They can even practice divergence or exercise non- accommodation by using the language which is not

the addressee's preferred language.

David (2003, p.4) explains that language is a significant element of group identity in a multilingual setting. It is used to maintain inter- group boundaries. Code-choices and code- switching using the ethnic language can be used as communicative strategy and as a marker of ethnic group membership and identity.

2.6 Code-switching (CS) and Code-mixing (CM)

Empirical studies have shown that it is difficult to find classroom discourse fully in a single language. The communication amongst Malaysian could not be “the simple straightforward use of standard language” which is taught in the classroom especially being bilinguals or trilinguals living in a multilingual and multiracial country as well as having several languages and dialects at their disposal (Jariah, 2003). There is a tendency to code-switch from one language/dialect to another within an utterance.

Code-switching and code-mixing are commonly emerged as an unmarked communication device (David, 1999). In a multilingual and multi-ethnic country like Malaysia, it is not surprising to see the occurrence of code-switching and code-switching especially among the young who have particularly been raised in a multilingual family which occur on a regular basis.

Milroy and Musyken (1995, p. 7) defines code-switching as “the alternative used by bilinguals of two or more languages in the same conversation”. The switching of

languages can occur either at intersentential level (code-switching, CS), or intrasentential level (code-mixing, CM). Specifically, code-switching defined by Tay (1993, p.127) as the “embedding or mixing of words, phrases and sentences from two codes within the same speech event and across sentences boundaries”. CS is prompted by a particular function, the setting, the identity and the interlocutors which the speaker wishes to project. An example of code-switching taken from a tutorial class (Low and Brown, 2005, p. 50) is:

Student: Excuse me, Dr X, could you explain again what is meant by *behavioral process*.

Code-mixing (CM), on the other hand, as defined by Kachru as “the use of one or more languages for the consistent transfer of linguistic units from one language to another” (Low and Brown, 2005, p.51). The conversations given below are the examples of code-mixing which happen in a campus canteen. It is clear from the example given below that the dominant code is English and it is mixed with Hokkien and Malay.

A: Eh, please lah, you continue like that, really *jiat- lat a* (Hokkien ‘strength consuming’), wait *kena- bang* (*kena* Malay ‘get’, *bang* onomaopeic, thus ‘plans going awry’), then you really *pengsan* (Malays ‘faint’) ah!

Code-switching and code-mixing between the languages are common in classroom setting where other languages understood by the speakers may be used (Martin 2005; Mahadhir & Then, 2007). In an interview of the study of accents with the Malaysian students, Schneider (2003) found out that the Malaysian students expressed a strongly positive emotional attachment to the practice of continuously mixing the languages between English and Malay. The study revealed that code-mixing is the most direct expression of their personalities and it is only natural for them to use and choose between languages (Schneider, 2003). In addition, David (2000, p. 71) explains that this “mixed code” is assuming the role of a positive identity carrier, either in addition to or replacing mesolectal English and / or Malay in that social function.

Rollnick and Rutherford (1996) argue that code-switching and code-mixing helps the learners to explore their ideas. In their study investigating science classrooms, learners are able to expose their alternate conceptions of the subject learned by code-switching and code-mixing. Amin (2009) put forward that code-switching and code-mixing to students’ own languages allows them to draw on useful sense-making resources. This is in line with Hornberger’s (2005, p. 605) earlier suggestion that when they are allowed and enabled to draw conclusion from across all their existing language skills (in two languages), rather than being constrained from doing so by monolingual instructional assumptions and practices, “bi/multilinguals” learning is maximized.

Even in ESL classrooms, code-switching and code-mixing between English and a mother tongue are common. For example, Merrit et al. (1992) found that CS/CM

between English and the mother tongue in three Kenyan primary schools occurred when teachers wanted to reformulate information, bring new content information, attract students' attention and substitute words. Canagarajah (1995) reported on the micro- and macro-functions of code-switching and code-mixing in Sri Lankan ESL classrooms. The former includes classroom management and content transmission, and the latter includes social issues outside the classroom that may have implications on education.

In fact, code-switching and code-mixing have been the norm rather than the exception (Grosjean 1982) in some communities. However, there are varying attitudes towards this communicative behavior. For example, Sanchez (in Cheng & Butler 1989, p. 298) argues that code-switching or code-mixing could "take away the purity of the language". While Poplack (1980, p. 581) believes that it is "a verbal skill requiring a large degree of competence in more than one language, rather than a defect arising from insufficient knowledge of one or the other".

Positive attitudes towards code-switching or code-mixing have been attributed to communicative strategy and a source for effective communication (Yletyinen, 2004), social group reinforcements (Grosjean, 1982; Zuraidah, 2003) and social prestige brought by the value of the language(s) used (Asmah, 1992). Meanwhile, negative attitudes towards code-switching and code-mixing are associated with bad manners, language pollution and linguistic incompetence (Grosjean, 1982). Therefore, there have been arguments for and against the use of code-switching and code-mixing as bilingual pedagogy.

Despite the pedagogical validity of code-switching and code-mixing, there is a dilemma among teachers between “access to meaning and access to English” (Setati, et al., 2002, p. 140). Although they can reformulate the concepts in the students’ mother tongue, students need to receive and produce the content in English as it is the language that they will be assessed. The practice of CS/CM in class might risk students’ ability to answer examination questions in English.

Martin (2005, p. 88) reports “the use of a local language alongside the ‘official’ language of the lesson is a common phenomenon and it is used for a variety of reasons. However, it is often criticized as ‘bad practice’. Moreover, it is also associated with teachers’ lack of English-language competence. The practice of code-switching and code-mixing in Malaysia classroom has also been negative viewed by bilinguals themselves. Shin (2005, p. 18) notes that “bilinguals may feel embarrassed about their code-switching and attribute it to careless language habits”.

2.7 Choice in Language Usage in Malaysia.

In a multiracial and multicultural country such as Malaysia where over a hundred language and dialects are spoken daily by the people, one of the issues often arises is the choice of language (David, 2006). Evidently, language choice often occurs in the daily interaction and social setting of Malaysians, particularly the Malaysian students.

Children's linguistic choices are rather complex and unique because within each ethnic group is a variety of languages and dialects. Therefore, it is a common for speakers of a specific ethnic community in this country to know other language better than their own ethnic language (David, Naji and Kaur, 2003). There are even cases where children grow up not knowing how or very little knowledge to speak their parents' language.

The language choice is a very complex subject. The fact that the study of language choices is often linked to other studies like ethnicity, multilingualism, language maintenance and shift, gender and age, solidarity and power, the factors which might influence language choices are equally complicated. Bloomer (2005) classifies the factors which can cause language variation into two broad groupings. The first comprises characteristics of the language users themselves (user factors) whereas the second is made up of features of the situation in which language is used and what it is being used for (situational factors). The user factors focus on the characteristics of the individuals involved such as the users' age, gender, profession, class, level of education, nation, region of origin ethnicity, religion, disability, personality (Bloomer, 2005).

On the other hand, the situational factors are related to the situation that the language is used in and what it is used for (Bloomer, 2005). Language is likely to be used differently in different location. It is also likely to cause language variation depending on the topic and the purpose of communication.

Another scholar such as Gumperz (1982) presents a view of how language can be examined. According to Gumperz (1982), the social meaning of language choice depends largely on situational variables and the relationship between settings and participants. Giles (1977) who is known for his Speech Accommodation Theory provides different perspective that language choice can be explained in terms of a desire to reduce or increase social distance between interlocutors of different ethnic groups.

Social factors affect code choices in a community. Holmes (2001) indicated people may choose to use a particular code because it eases discussion on a particular topic regardless of where the discussion takes place. Apart from that, others may use different languages with different addresses because they share the same code, or the code is commonly used or as a way to emphasize on their common ethnicity. The factors and reasons affecting language choices may vary, but the fact remains that language choices have social meanings. A study of language choices can provide social and linguistic information about a speech community as well as how languages are closely dependent on a variety of social contacts. Therefore, when focusing on language choice, the factors that have contributed to the language choice should be given attention.

Lam (1992) stated that the reason why a person chooses to use one code rather than another cannot be explained using a single theory. Lam argued that a number of theories will have to be examined in order to derive a fuller understanding on this issue. Some of the factors which might influence language choices, as he posited are as

follows:

Following are some factors which potentially influence language choice:

- (1) domains
- (2) verbal repertoire of (a) speaker (b) listener
- (3) sense of solidarity
- (4) speakers' attitude toward (a) the language and (b) speakers of that language
and
- (5) Motivation (integrative and instrumental)
- (6) Influence of local languages and mother tongue
- (7) To meet expressive need of the speakers

2.7.1 Domains

Greenfield (1972) defines domains as classes of situations. Specifically, they are classes of congruent situations, for example Greenfield (1972) states “situations in which individuals interact in societally appropriate role- relationships with each other and in the societally appropriate locales for these role- relationships, discuss topics that are considered societally appropriate to these role- relationships and locales” (p.21). This concept of ‘domain’ is to specify the larger institutional role-contexts of habitual language use in multilingual settings. Fishman (1972) believes that a community is expected to be sensitive to the domain in which interactions take place. The choice of language used in a domain depends on the participants, their role relationships, the

setting and the topic under discussion.

Platt (1977) points out “it is possible to range domains along a scale from the public to more private and to attribute to them a degree of formality ranging from very formal to most informal in most communities” (p.368). For example, one would tend to consider the domain of employment to be more formal than friendship.

In Malaysia, the linguistic situation is polyglossic. Clear functional differences between codes are said to govern the choice of code. An example by Wardhaugh (1986) explains what it means for a typical Chinese child growing up in Penang, Malaysia. He says that,

“he or she will tend to speak Hokkien with parents and informal Malaysian English with siblings. Conversation with friends will be in Hokkien or informal Malaysian English (if they are from SR or SRK schools) whereas Informal Mandarin mixed with Hokkien with his sibling (for those from SRJK (C) schools) and Malay words with his siblings. However, Malaysian English, Hokkien, Bazaar Malay, Mandarin or mixed code may be used in informal conversation with friends in school depending on who the interlocutor is. Formal conversation will be in standard Malay or SME. Any religious practices will be conducted in the formal variety of Malaysian English if the family is Christian but in Hokkien or Mandarin if Buddhist or Taoist” (Wardhaugh, 1986, p.10)

Based on the example above, students in Malaysia are free to choose between formal SME and Mandarin (both belonging to the High variety) in the formal domain of school as both are school languages or the more informal variety of both these languages. Students are also free to choose to use mixed variety in school domain.

2.7.2 Verbal repertoire

According to Holmes (2001, p. 23), verbal repertoire is particularly useful in capturing broad generalizations about any speech community. It provides information about the patterns of language use in a particular community and descriptions pertaining to the code/ codes which are usually selected for use in different situations.

Verbal repertoire of a speaker may be defined as the linguistic varieties which are at a speaker's disposal (Platt and Platt, 1975). It has effect on one's language choice and use. In an investigation on the Sindhi community, David (2001, p. 24) provided an example of a non-English speaking grandmother's verbal exchange with her seventeen year old grandson. Malay as being a vital part of her grandson's verbal repertoire, she chose to speak in Malay as opposed to her ethnic language in order to accommodate her grandson's lack of competence in the Sindhi language as well as her own inability to speak English. David (2001, p. 32) added that there was a tendency for members of the first generation of Malaysia Sindhis who understood either Malay or English to accommodate the younger generation's language preference.

However, David (1996) emphasized that it must not be assumed that code-switching or language choice is always triggered by differing level of proficiency. Instead, situational factors such as who is talking to whom and pragmatic reasons warrant the use of mixed discourse in the legal setting. For example, to quote someone, the issue of directive, to emphasize a point made and to achieve the legal

communicative task such as to persuade the witness into providing the answer required. Language choices “are triggered to achieve a range of strategies and objectives” of the interlocutors (David, 2003, p. 19).

Language crossing is another example when speakers choose a code they have not fully acquired yet for a particular purpose. Language crossing, as described by Ben Rampton (1995), is the practice of using a language variety that belongs to another group. In a study on language crossing in Britain, Ben Rampton (1995) described how groups of multiracial adolescents in a British working- class community mix their use of Creole, Punjabi and Asian English. He further revealed that language crossing comprises an anti- racist practice. It was also a symbol of young people determining to redefine their identities. The purpose of the mixed code was to challenge racial boundaries and emphasize a new ‘de-racinated’ ethnicity.

2.7.3 Speaker’s attitude towards (a) the language and (b) the speakers of the language

The speaker’s attitude toward the language and the speakers of the language are some of the major factors in language choice. A language that is perceived positively is likely to be chosen than a language that is perceived negatively. For example, a speaker is more likely to use a language if the language is perceived by the speaker as a tool for economic mobility (David, Naji and Kaur, 2003) or as a marker of high social status and membership of an educated class (Jariah, 2003). On the other hand, a speaker is less

likely to choose language that is perceived as having a little social or economic value or low social status.

Moreover, it will be a motivation for members in the speech community to use a language if it is seen prestigious and desirable to use. In Malaysia, David and Naji (2000) reveals that it could be that new languages like English and Malay are seen as language of prestige, status and power, thus Malaysian women in the Tamil community switch from Tamil to English and/ or a mixed code of English and Tamil or a mix of English, Tamil and Malay. While Mandarin, English, Malay and Tamil share co- official status, English is perceived as being more prestigious. Comparing to the three languages, English functions as a high variety, hence it is more widely used (Ramachandan, 2000).

Besides, Cutler's study of language crossing behavior of a white suburban teenager in New York City showed that he uses features of African- American English to signal his membership with the hip- hop culture in New York. Language choice has different social meanings with different speakers in different settings. Wardhaugh mentions that,

“studies which correlate language attitude and language are not common. However, some good examples of cases where “code choice becomes a form of political expression, a move either to resist some other ‘power’, or to gain ‘power’, or to express ‘solidarity’” (Wardhaugh 1992, p.106)

Another example by Milroy (1982) cited in Ramachandran (2000) indicating that the speakers of Black English continue to use their own language as an identifying symbol. In contrary, Smolicz's study (1983) on the Italian Australians (a minority group) see their language as inferior with low social recognition and prestige and thus, choose not to use their ethnic language.

However, participants' attitude towards a language may be different from the attitudes towards the speakers of the language (Lam, 1992). A speaker's choice of language may be determined by his attitude towards the listener's language- group. Social relationship between people also affects language choices. The choices of language are based on how well we are with the speaker as well as their status in the community. Speakers tend to choose their words carefully according to whom they are talking to.

Lam (1992) believes that the participants may be cautious about expressing their feelings which make standard attitude tests ineffective. Therefore, Lam suggests that the matched-guise technique is an indirect measure of attitude towards speakers of a language which was adopted in this study (TUMS). This technique was used by researchers such as Anisfield and Lambert (1964), Lambert, Frankel and Tucker (1966).

2.7.4 Integrative and Instrumental Motivation

Another significant factor influencing language choice is motivation as Brown (1994, p.34) asserts “motivation is the extent to which you make choice about (i) goals to pursue (ii) the effort you will devote to that pursuit”. In other words, motivation can be regarded as the desire and need which encourages a person to choose a particular language or code.

According to Gardner and Lambert (1972, p.13), the integrative motive is the learner’s desire to be like the representatives member of the other language community by mastering a second or foreign language. Instrumental motivation, on the other hand, is defined as ‘one characterized by a desire to gain social recognition or economic advantages through knowledge of a foreign language’ (Gardner and Lambert, 1972, p. 13).

2.7.5 Sense of solidarity

Language as a marker of solidarity allows speakers within a conversation to identify with each other, knowing that they belong to the same culture and community (Martin, 1996 in Svalberg, 1998). Lee (1998) explains that in an informal setting, a speaker wishes to speak casually chooses Manglish as opposed to SME. This is reflected in the distinct phonology influenced by their ethnic tongues, syntactic structures and lexical items. Manglish is often the preferred choice, as a sign of solidarity and camaraderie, even for speakers who are highly proficient in standard

English.

Language choice can function as a mark group identification (Landweer, 2007). However, the inability to use that language or dialect may result in exclusion from that community of speakers. Even the educated speakers of English who have the ability to speak the standard variety do not wish to speak in SME at all times.

Lee (1998) states that most Malaysians who speak proper English tend to switch to Manglish according to situations. Moreover, Kachru (1990) says that it is a desire of a non-native speaker of English to identify with the other members of a group whenever a conversation take place in order to avoid being regarded as an outsider. To fulfill that purpose, localized linguistic items are added to that English language discourse of a non-native speaker which eventually reflects a sense of group identity among the speakers.

While language choice can serve as a marker of ethnic identity, a strong ethnic identity can influence language choic (Landweer, 2007). For example, in a study on the issue of threat of ethnic identity as a moderator of second-language learning in Canada, Taylor, Meynard and Giles (1977) found that “those whose felt their cultural identity is threatened were less fluent in the second language” (p.116).

2.7.6 Influences of the local languages and Mother Tongue

Lowenberg (1992) mentions that English used in the socio-linguistic context of Malaysia has long diverted from Standard English especially since there is a 'relative absence' of its native speakers. As a multilingual country, there is also constant contact and influenced by its local languages often used by different ethnic group in Malaysia. According to Baskaran (1988), the local languages such as Malay, Chinese and Tamil are among the factors that brought to the formation of Malaysian English. Borrowing is one of the different forms of nativisation of English. Borrowing usually occurs when a local word does not have an equivalent in English and extend the meaning of a word beyond its lexical definition using localized particles. These processes of nativisation may be caused by the transfer of local languages or the mother tongue of the non- native speaker of English.

Direct translation from the local languages of Malaysia such as Bahasa Malaysia and Hokkien is also evident in Manglish. Although these nativised terms may not be understood by native speakers of English, these terms with local element enable the Malaysians to achieve the effective communicative faster (Baskaran, 1988) and convey intended message effectively and accurately to the listener. Baskaran (1988) provides examples indicating direct translation such "cut" and "deep". "Cut" is used to mean "overtake" which is a direct translation from the Bahasa Malaysia word "potong". Other than that, the word "deep" is a direct translation from its Hokkien equivalent "chim". The word "deep" is used in the context of language fluency as in "your English is very

deep”. This statement implies that the person is speaking the formal or educated variety of English (Platt, 1984, p.396).

2.7.7 To meet expressive needs of the speakers

There are many things and expressions that cannot be explained or described accurately in Standard English. Therefore, when speaking among themselves, non-native speakers would use the nativised variety of English (Svalberg, 1998) which reflects the local cultures of their speakers.

Nativized processes such as loanwords exist in attempt to achieve communicative competence in which speaker is able to express himself/ herself more efficiently and accurately in order for the listener to comprehend better. However they are restricted to a non- native context. In Malaysia, for example, “tackle” is used instead of “court” when they are referring to how a male is trying to win the favour of a female. Toh (1979) explains that “tackle” is often used by Malaysians as it gives indication that the male is persistently pursuing the female by showing her with gifts and flowers. The persistence of the male cannot be identified using the more formal term, “court”.

According to Pride (1981), nativization is more evident in the lexical and semantic features. It is also a communicative strategy for non-English speakers of English to maintain certain features of their native language in English so that “successful everyday speech functions can be achieved” (Pride, 1981). Nativization is

crucial as it enables a speaker to express better by using nativized English terms which reflects the cultural uniqueness of a particular language community. The new varieties of English are mainly used by non-native speakers of English who are bilinguals or multilinguals living in a community where various languages are used. The nativised English may not be understood by native speakers of English but it is crucial to realize that this type of new varieties of English functions as “the grease to make the wheel of bilingual communication or multilingual communication” turns smoothly (Sridhar and Sridhar 1986 in Svalberg 1998, p. 341).

2.8 Research in Malaysian English

A review of research studies on the use of Malaysian English in various schools and institutions revealed that English in Malaysia has come in contact with a range of diverse, distinct languages. There was a strong influence of the local languages such as Malay and Chinese dialects have influenced the lexicon of Malaysian English (ME).

According to Lowenberg (1986) and Morais (2001), Malay has contributed to some of the most remarkable characteristics of this variety of English. Related studies such as Tan (2009) who conducted a study exploring how the English-Malay contact has resulted in the incorporation of Malay features into the lexicon of ME. The study analysed a wide- range of borrowed features extracted from the author’s Malaysian English newspaper Corpus (MEN Corpus) and categorized them under various linguistic processes. A five million words corpus of newspaper articles (over a six-

month period from August 2001 to January 2002) gathered from The STAR and the New Straits Times.

The total of 264 lexical features of Malay origin were identified, examined and classified under various processes which involved loanwords (n=222), compound blends (n=34) and loan translations (n=8). Lexical borrowing in ME is motivated by very specific linguistic and social needs of the multilingual speech community that uses English to communicate aspects of their sociocultural milieu. Among lexical features which related to practices and events were categorised under loanwords (such as *Hari Raya*, *Hari Raya Puasa*), compound blends (such as *Ishak prayer*, *Subur Prayer*) and loan translations (such as *Friday Prayer*). Other examples of lexical features relating to space would be *kampung* (loanwords) and *kampung house* (compound blends).

In a related work, researchers like Marlyna Maros, Tan Kim Hua, and Khazriyati (2007) conducted an investigation related to the syntactic structure of ME. They explored the interference effect of Malay language as an important inhibiting factor in the acquisition of English literacy among Form One students. Using error analyses and contrastive analysis, the study examined errors made by 120 students from 6 rural schools in Pahang, Selangor and Melaka. Based on the errors in the students' essays, the learners had difficulties in using correct English grammar in their writings. Three most frequent errors were the wrong use of articles, subject-verb agreement, and copula 'be'. The study claimed that although not all errors were due to mother tongue interference, a large number of errors identified suggested interference of the Malay grammar.

In a similar study, Nor Hashimah Jalaludin et al. (2008) conducted a study investigating the morphological and syntactical differences between the Malay language and English on 315 Form Two students. The study concluded that the linguistics differences were shown to be one of the major factors influencing students' inability to successfully acquire English literacy. It revealed that the most apparent weaknesses of the students' language ability lay in the area of grammar, particularly morphology and syntax. Other than that, students faced problems with affixes and plural inflections as these linguistics variables did not exist in Malay language. The study also confirmed that the wrong use of copula 'be', subject-verb-agreement and relative pronouns was due to the differences in the syntactical structures between the two languages.

Other researchers such as Thirusanku and Yunus (2013) focused on the lexical borrowing among Malaysian ESL teachers. Unlike the previous studies mentioned above, this particular study did not exclusively focused on analyzing one particular language, the Malay language. It also aimed to detect and categorise the types of lexical borrowings from Malay, Chinese and Indian languages used by the ESL teachers as well as to what extent these lexical borrowings were used and the reason for using them. Based on the written and spoken discourse of 203 English as Second Language (ESL) teachers in 38 National Secondary Schools in the Klang district in Selangor, this study has identified and collected 483 lexical items over a period of one year (December 2011 to November 2012).

Subsequently, Zaaman (2009) mainly addressed the linguistic features of Manglish. She examined the lexical and syntactical structures of Malaysian English as used in a locally produced English movie, “Ah Lok Café”. The dialogues were transcribed and analysed qualitatively based on some features of Malaysian English established by Baskaran (2005). It was found that 462 instances of lexical items and 75 syntactic items were identified and described as ME features. Some of the common and evident lexical features used in the movie are Local Language Referents which represents culinary terms (*tapao ong, teh Tarik, tongkat ali*), Standard English Lexicalizations (*Uncle, Blur, Spend*), the use of particles (*‘ah’, ‘lah’, ‘one’*), and word formation (*affixation ‘Datukship’, compounding ‘Handphone’*), exclamations (*aiyoh, wah*). Meanwhile, some of the syntactic features found are Noun Phrase Structure-Pronoun Ellipsis, Absence of Operator *‘do’*.

2.9 Summary

On the whole, the review of literature has given comprehensive insight concerning issues, concepts and models that are relevant to the study. This chapter provides a historical as well as Malaysian English background. Moreover, this knowledge gives understanding of ME as one of the varieties of English especially Manglish. This chapter discussed mainly about issue relating to the standard and non-standard variety as well as the possible of students’ language choice will be discussed.

The previous studies on linguistic features of Malaysian English are presented. The review of these studies helps provide information about features of ME which are present in the data and therefore enhancing the understanding of Manglish.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 Introduction

This study attempts to investigate the linguistic features found in Manglish used by students. This study also seeks to find out the students' language choice (SME or Manglish) and usage in formal and informal situation. In this chapter, three main objectives are presented in this chapter: (i) to present and describe the source of data (background of the school and participants of this study), (ii) to lay out the tool and data collection procedure and (iii) to discuss the method of data analysis used in this investigation.

3.1 Research design

This study is a qualitative study as its main focus is to analyze the students' usage of SME and/or Manglish in formal and informal situations. It analyzes the students' oral interaction by describing the lexical and syntactic features of the Manglish used by the students. Also the study also uses simple frequency count and percentage to describe the occurrence of Manglish usage and factors related to the choice of using Manglish, it is not a qualitative study as no statistical and quantitative formulas or software are used to analyze the data. The current study attempts to identify the variables and features of Manglish used by the students. As the study involves only a targeted and available group of students, it does not attempt to achieve representative objective. In other words, the study is neither a quantitative nor mixed method study. It is a qualitative study.

3.2 Source of data: Background of school

The researcher of this study has started off by getting the permission to carry out the research through the District Education office. However, when the targeted Chinese schools under the Pejabat Petaling Perdana District were approached, many of them rejected the permission to carry out the research. Only one school gave the permission to conduct the research. Due to time constraint, the researcher can only have access to conduct research on one urban school in Damansara. The headmaster has allowed the researcher to conduct the research only in three different classes. The sample of this study came from one of the Chinese vernacular schools in Malaysia known as SRJK (C) Damansara.

There were 2235 students in the school and 15 teachers at the time of the study. The school consisted of students from primary one to six. The medium of instruction in this primary school is Mandarin whereas English is taught as a second language. English is also being used as the medium of instruction for Science and Mathematics subjects.

3.2.1 Background of Participants

The participants of this study comprised of students and teachers. There were 81 Primary Six students (42 females and 39 males). There were also nine teachers of SRJK (C) Damansara volunteered to participate in this study.

3.2.2.1 Background of Survey Participants

All the participants were age of 12. Most of the participants were from Chinese background. Primary six students were selected for the study as they would have acquired sufficient input in using both SME and Manglish compared to students from other levels (Primary six students would be better participants than Primary one due to their ability to understand and respond to the questionnaires). They may have a higher input of SME and Manglish. This consideration provided more control on the type of participants as different level of students may have different attitude towards the use of Manglish. Primary six students may be more aware of the distinctions between SME and Manglish and their usage. Due to the time constraints, the researcher was not able to include all students from Primary Six.

100 questionnaires were given out to the students. Only 81 volunteered participants from three Primary Six classes (6H, 6E, 6M) which were available at the time of the study participated in the study. They also took Chinese as one of their subjects in PMR.

In a study on ethnic variation in Singapore English by Deterding & Poedjosoedarmo (2000), individual ethnic features tend to appear only during informal situations in comparison to formal situations. Furthermore, Lim's (2000) displayed graphically the relationship between style of speech and ethnicity in Figure 3.1. According to Figure 3.1, the diverging points at the bottom of the inverted triangles represent the increase in ethnically distinct features as the style of speech becomes less

where as the merged tops of the inverted triangles illustrate the reduction in ethnically distinct features in formal style.

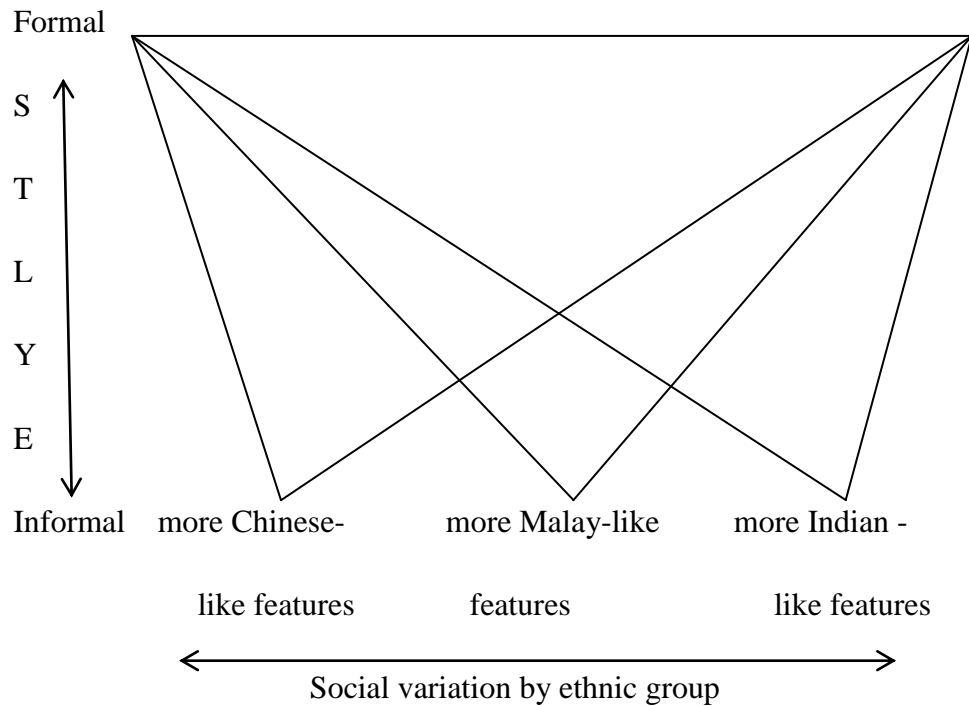


Figure 3.1: Inverted triangles of ethnic variation by Lim (2000) (adapted from Low and Brown, 2000: English In Singapore: An Introduction)

Apart from proving the existence of ethnic features in informal situations, Lim (2000) also proved that it was easiest for listener to identify Chinese speakers of English, followed by Malay and then Indian speakers (see Figure 3.1). This results, therefore has become one of the motivational drives in the selection of the participants (e.g Chinese students) in this study.

Ethnicity was considered one of the variables which may be responsible for the students' choice of language, however only students from the same ethnicity are chosen to minimize biases in the data. It is also not the intention of this study to investigate the influence of ethnicity in the students' choice of language.

In an attempt to investigate the use of Manglish among the students, it was crucial to include the opinions of the teachers as they were believed to be the person who best aware of their students' daily communicative encounters. Therefore, another set of participants involved in the survey (open- ended questionnaire) was the teachers of SRJK (C) Damansara. The nine primary school teachers who volunteered to participate in the survey consisted of Science (n=4), English (n=3) and Maths (n=2) teachers. All the teachers were Chinese.

3.2.2.2. Background of the video-recording participants

Five participants (n=5) were recruited during the survey stage to volunteer in the video-recording. The convenience sampling method was used for selecting the participants to form a focus group.

3.3 Data Collection

Two research tools were incorporated in this study. They were described schematically in Figure 3.2.

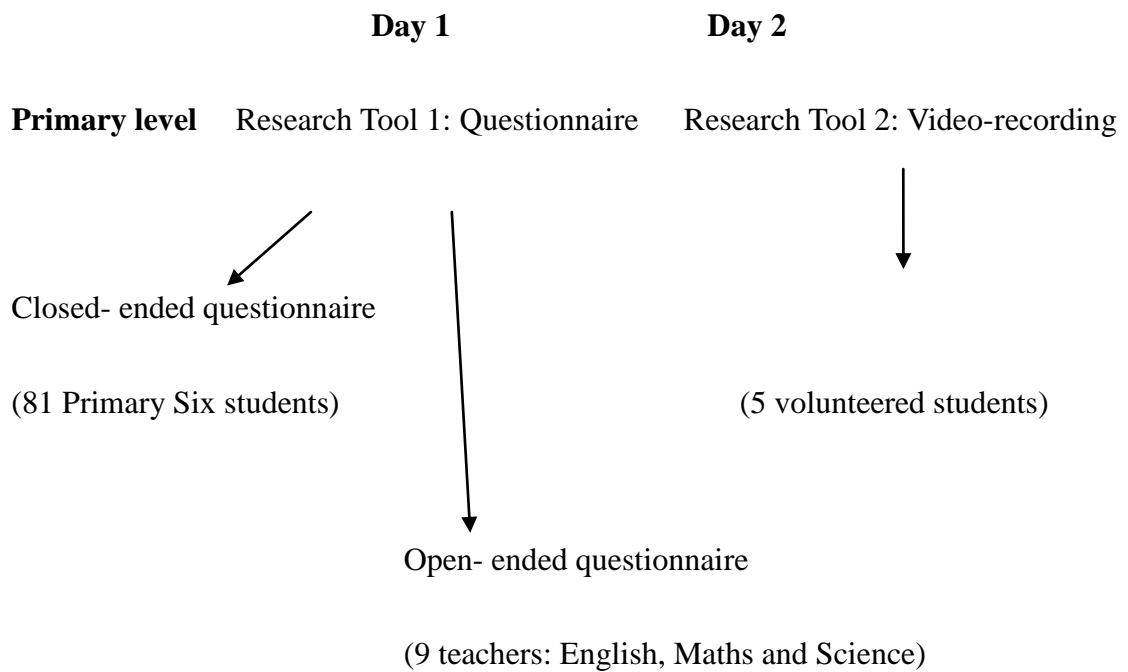


Figure 3.2: Research Tools and Procedures

As reflected in Figure 3.2, a combination of quantitative (closed- ended questionnaire) and qualitative (open-ended questionnaire and video-recording) approach were used in this study. The qualitative data in this study was used to triangulate and contextualize the quantitative data.

According to Figure 3.2, the distribution of questionnaires was conducted in Day 1 whereas video- recording was conducted in Day 2. Questionnaires consisting of closed- ended and open- ended questions were circulated to the students and teachers whereas video- recordings were conducted with students.

3.3.1 Tools and Procedure 1: Questionnaire (open- ended and closed-ended)

(a) Closed-ended Questionnaire for Students

While various researchers have extracted information about language attitudes from questionnaire (e.g Kamwangamalu, 1992; Crismore Ngeow and Soo (2003), more indirect (matched-guise technique) studies of language attitudes have not been widely used (Cavallaro and Ng, 2009). This study employed the matched- guise technique as a way of eliciting information about attitudes to language without explicitly drawing attention to the language itself. The closed-ended questionnaire includes three parts.

Part 1 : Demographic profiles of students (8 questions)

Part 2 (a), (b) : Direct method or questionnaire (24 questions)

Part 3 A (a), (b), (c) and B (a), (b), (c) : Indirect method or matched- guise technique (26 questions)

Part 1 consisted of eight demographic questions. Part 2 (a and b) was a direct approach which allowed for direct access to people's view regarding the spoken SME and Manglish. Part 2 can be classified into two categories: Part 2 (a) comprised of 16 questions which enabled participants to express their acceptance of Manglish and SME (adapted from Crismore, Ngeow & Soo, 2003) and Part 2 (b) which consisted of 8 questions was more direct that the participants were directly ask about where and to whom they use Manglish (adapted from Tan & Tan, 2008). Options were laid out on a

four- point Likert scale (Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree, Strongly Disagree) as well as Yes and No questions (see Appendix 2).

However, some questions were partly modified to satisfy the research questions. For example, examples were provided in question 10 (Inserting words from our own cultures (Malay/ Chinese/ Indian) makes our type of English better) in order for the participants to have better understanding of the question (see question 10 in Appendix 2). In question 12, additional information was added in the question. For example, I use Manglish most of the time because it helps to build solidarity and rapport with others instead of the original sentence “I use Manglish most of the time”. These changes allowed better understanding of the use of Manglish as well as their attitudes towards Manglish.

Part 3 of the survey contained indirect method or the matched- guise questionnaire. Ajzen (1988) and Kalaja (1999) note that direct and indirect methods were originally designed to measure language attitudes towards any language or its varieties from an individual’s point of view. For example, a participant’s attitudes towards British English as well as the speakers of the language. Part 3 was divided into two sections: A and B. Each part comprised of (a), (b) and (c) respectively. In this study, it is the students’ attitudes were measured by the extent of agreement or disagreement with a closed-ended questionnaire consisting of 26 questions and a four- point Likert scale. (see Appendix 2). According to Lambert (1967), matched- guised technique “appears to reveal judges’ more private reactions to the contrasting group than

the direct questionnaire do. Within the sociolinguistic research, matched- guise technique was employed with the attempt to minimize biases due to differences in speech quality in voice evaluation tasks (Lambert et al. 1960). The current study therefore used speech samples that were matched with regard to speech features (features of SME and Manglish) and was done primarily by using two speech samples from the same speaker.

Ryan and Giles (1982) points out that this technique aims to investigate participants' reactions to recordings which feature different languages or dialects spoken. It defines the speaker's personality and intelligent based on how they speak (Kalaja, 1999). The current (TUMS) study embraced the matched- guise technique by examining the reactions of participants to speech samples (for example Manglish and SME varieties) as well as to evaluate speaker based on different characteristics such as intelligent, fashionable and approachable (Part 3 A and B of Appendix 2)

The insertion of a direct measure at the beginning (constituting Part 2 a and b of Appendix 2) of the questionnaire was to capture the perceptions of the participants without stimulus from the prior knowledge of the subject matter. This method invited large number of people or representative sample to express their attitudes freely towards the object in question (Tan and Tan, 2008). This method was deemed appropriate as it was able to collect information about the students' attitudes towards Manglish from the survey participants. This technique was used in many recent studies such as Saravanan, Lakshmi and Caleon's (2007) study on teachers' attitude towards varieties of Tamil in

Singapore; Cavallaro and Ng's (2009) study on Singaporeans and non- Singaporeans' reactions towards Standard Singapore English (SSE) and Singapore Colloquial English (SCE), also known as Singlish.

Prior to the administration of the matched-guise questionnaire in this study, a Malaysian male speaker (MB) was asked to read two passages (next paragraph) written in SME and Manglish (see Appendix 1) adopted from Tan and Tan's (2008) study on students' attitudes on Singlish. Both of the passages conveyed the same content. This passage was relevant as it reflected the concerns and preoccupations of teenagers. Giles et al (1983) stated that this technique allows for the isolation of particular languages as variables influencing the language attitudes of students in this study. By employing the same speaker in various 'guises', this technique allowed for the elimination of additional variables, so the listener did not respond to timbre and resonance, achieving more conclusive results.

Description of the situation for Recording A and B: Mary, a student, is excited about her plan to the mall with her friend. However, her plan to the mall is cancelled due to the bad weather. She confides to her sister, Margaret and describes how the bad weather has ruined her plan of going out. Mary feels bored; therefore she asks Margaret about the time of her appointment, so she could invite Margaret for a drink the next day. Then, she ended her conversation by telling Margaret that she has finally received her results and reveals that her results are unsatisfactory (see Appendix 1).

Recording B in Appendix 1 employed Manglish style vocabulary (*sian, yum cha*) and pragmatic particles (*mah, leh, la*) grammar (*omission of subjects, absence of the verb 'to be' from the first clause*) whereas Recording A was in Standard Malaysian English and maintained an informal style with the regular use of weak forms (*I've rather than I have*). It was also important to note that the non-standard orthography in Recording B was used to signal to the Malaysian pronunciations of items.

Based on the above audio-recordings A and B, participants were required to rate each variety and the speaker according to (a): affinity, friendliness and intelligence. According to (b), participants were required to rate the speakers as their teachers according to intelligence appropriateness, fashionableness and approachability. This aimed to find out whether the type of varieties of English heard would result in participants' positive or negative preference to have the speaker as their English teacher. It was also important to limit the question in such a way and to specify that the preference the participants were being asked to make at that point would only be applicable to their preferred English teachers (and not for other purposes such as the English varieties that they preferred to use in the home, in professional/academic settings, or among friends). Contextualizing the question in such a manner was necessary as not all of the varieties were appropriate for every setting and particular varieties have their special uses. The question in (c) required participants to identify what variety is being spoken by the speakers in the recordings (SME or Manglish).

In her study on linguistic attitudes in Scotland, Suzanne Romaine (1980) found out that the listeners were rarely aware of the linguistic prejudice. In fact, it was very difficult for the informant to vocalize such stereotypes without the linguistic terminology, thus the adjective scale is used in matched-guises studies as a valuable tool in attitude measurement. In this regard, (a) and (b) of recording A and B used a five-point Likert scale measuring adjectives to describe personality characteristics of the speaker in the recording. Meanwhile, (c) of recording A and B can be answered by choosing one of a series of 'scaled' answers. Part 3 was necessary in this study as it accommodated the idea that evaluation could happen unconsciously, or that judgments could be made about English varieties even without the participants actually knowing which variables caused their reactions (Labov, 1966, in Preston, 2004, p. 46).

Apart from the closed- ended questionnaire for the students, this study also embraced the open- ended questionnaires which specifically aimed at teachers (Appendix 3). The purpose of this questionnaire is to gain contextual understanding of the students' usage of Manglish in formal and informal situation.

In the data gathering phase, the main steps involved were (1) **preparatory phase** and (2) **data- gathering phase**. The preparatory phase included surveying, selecting, and developing the instrument (for example, the speech samples and the four parts of the closed- ended questionnaire) to meet the objectives of the present study. Overall, the data gathering for this study lasted approximately for 2 days.

In the data- gathering phase, the administration of the five- page questionnaire (see Appendix 2) was conducted in Day 1 of the study. The survey was administered in three classrooms at a different period of time. Questionnaires were distributed to the participants (students) during the first or last 20 minutes of classes. The survey was administered in classrooms before and after class hours to prevent distractions by the subject currently taught by their teachers. Prior to conducting the research, the teachers were contacted and arrangement was made to meet in class to conduct the survey.

Initially, the participants were briefed about the topic and the purpose of the study. Because the study involved both the indirect and direct method, a general introduction of the task is directed to the participants. The introduction explained the order of the parts in the questionnaire: Part 2 A and B, the description of the situation for the Recording A and B before presenting the recording A and B (the speech samples) for the students to answer Part 3.

The researcher was always present throughout the survey to provide well-informed answers when questions were raised. Moreover, survey participants were informed that their participation was voluntary and their responses were kept strictly confidential. Upon completion of the questionnaires, the researcher collected the questionnaires from the students. The whole procedure was conducted in English.

(b) Open-ended Questionnaire for Teachers

Another survey (open-ended questionnaire) would be conducted only with those who were teaching the students at the time of data collection or had prior teaching experience in the secondary schools. Since the purpose was to focus on the students language use during English classes, it was crucial to obtain the opinion regarding the students' language use from these teachers from to their experience communicating with students.

The researcher believed that involving the teachers in the survey was important as they were able to gain useful information of students' language use in classroom from the teachers' point of view. The open- ended questionnaire consisted of questions requiring the teachers to (i) express their general opinions about Manglish (ii) indicate the students' choice of language (SME, Manglish or other choice of code) used while students were in their classroom (during English period) and outside of the classroom. The next part of the questionnaire required the teachers to (ii) write down the reasons why they use a particular language in both situations which could assist in identifying the factors of influencing the use of Manglish. Besides, teachers were required to (iii) identify the features of Manglish found in their students' utterances (iv) indicate the students' other choice of language when speaking to the teachers.

Along with the students' questionnaires, the dissemination of the open ended questionnaire is also conducted in Day 1 of the study. Prior to sending the questionnaire,

teachers were first informed about the survey. The researcher reconfirmed the teachers' willingness to participate in the survey. Teachers were further assured that confidentiality would be kept by having their names and the school names remain anonymous. Then, they were asked to complete and submit the questionnaire by Day 2 due their busy schedule. Given this, the questions (Appendix E) were formed in accordance with the research question 2 and 3 which attempt to find out where, when and why students use SME and Manglish.

3.2.2 Tool and Procedure 2: Video-recording

Video-recording was used as a method for collecting qualitative data in this study. It was used to obtain a contextual understanding of the students' usage of Manglish. Therefore, gaining a contextual understanding was thought highly pertinent as stated by Ervin – Tripp, 'studies conducted in a natural setting like those of Labov and Cohen and Mitchell proved to be valuable' (Sampson. 1971, p.56). To ensure the authenticity and reliability of the data, this study chose to examine the actual spoken discourse of students from a Chinese vernacular school which was a potential useful source of data as it is not staged, planned or scripted.

Students' oral interactions in the presence of an English teacher in a classroom (formal situation) and without the presence of a teacher outside a classroom (informal situation) were recorded. The formal situation referred to the school domain where the conversations took place between the participants with the presence of their teacher in the classroom. Only actual conversations which were clearly recognizable and audible

are transcribed and analyzed.

A camera and smartphone (for backup purposes) were used to record the students' conversations. However, only data collected from the camera was used due to the poor sound quality of the smartphone. Two oral conversations were collected for this study. The conversations were taped from five participants who spoke in a formal and informal situation at a different period of time depending on the students' and teacher's availability.

Prior to the video-recording (formal situation), the researcher ensured that each participant was informed about the purpose of the study before the discussion so that they would not be subjected to any kind of test anxiety. Participants were told that their identities, conversations and name of school would be kept in strict confidence. They were reminded that their conversation would not be judged.

The first video-recording was conducted in an English classroom in the presence of an English teacher. They were told that their conversations will be recorded but they were not told actual recording would take place. During the recording, the researcher sat in the back of the classroom in the least obtrusive place.

Subsequently, the same group of participants was grouped together and they were asked to discuss on any topic while their conversations are taped. The second recording was conducted outside the classroom without the presence of a teacher. The

conversations in both contexts lasted for 25 minutes and 38 seconds.

The purpose of the study was to identify and describe the features of Manglish found in their utterances based on proven characteristics of ME which was deemed to answer research question 1.

3.3 Data Analysis

To substantiate the analysis and discussion of the quantitative data (students' language attitude towards Manglish), the numerical data collected through the questionnaires were processed using frequencies and percentages. Then, the findings from Part 2 (a), (b) and (c) as well as Part 3 A and B are carefully tabulated for discussion.

Although this study took on a quantitative and qualitative approach to the analysis of the data, much emphasis was given on the qualitative approach as it was required to solve the main concern of this study (e.g to examine the linguistic features of Manglish in students' conversation in formal and informal situation).

The qualitative data collected through open-ended questions were carefully examined to identify common themes. The major patterns and trends were identified and categorized. The findings were reported, summarized and discussed descriptively by incorporating comments directly from the teachers to exemplify the major themes. Analysis and interpretation of open-ended questionnaire responses were conducted

through content analysis.

The qualitative data gathered was the students' utterances. The recorded conversations were viewed using Windows Media Player on a laptop. The conversations were transcribed using regular English orthography by listening through a headset. To ensure clarity of the utterances, a number of pauses and repetitions were required. For easy reference of the analysis, each line of utterance was numbered with a bracket containing the initial S for Situation and L for Line (S1, L1) which indicated that the utterance occurs in Situation 1, and Line 1 (refer to Appendix 4). Each conversation was analyzed as a complete discourse so as to be able to provide a basis for context-bound interpretation. According to Brown (2005), a language should be described or analyzed in the context of its use and not in isolation as the meaning of the language was dependent on the context where it was found.

Based on the established characteristic and framework such as Baskaran's (2005) categorisation of linguistic features of ME (refer to Chapter 2), the linguistic features were identified within the transcribed utterances. Some lexical features (vocabulary) of Manglish such as the word formation, exclamations, particles, local language referents were identified. Other than that, the syntactic features (sentence structure) of Manglish also were identified. The data were presented and described under each sub-type of lexical or syntactic features in comparison to the usage of SME or SBE when necessary.

As far as the linguistic features were concerned, the lexical and syntactic elements of the utterances were included in the discussion. However, this was not to suggest that phonological aspects were not considered in the analysis. Certain phonological factors such as intonation and pitch were taken into account in the interpretation of meaning and pragmatic. For example, the functions of particles and exclamations which required some pragmatic and phonological associations. They were imperative in an attempt to describe the usage of certain items such a particles and exclamations. Pragmatic functions are crucial in the interpretation of meaning of certain lexical items such as ‘*ah*’, ‘*lah*’.

This part of this study was interpretative, therefore it was inevitable that the analysis of the data was subject to biases. Therefore, these biases were kept to a minimum by adhering as closely as possible to (a) the framework of existing literature in this field (previously mentioned in Chapter 2), (b) the transcriptions of students conversations, (c) the Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary (2005) as a reference, (d) grammar references by Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) and Leech and Svartvik (1975), (e) Low and Brown (2005), Lim (2007) and (f) Low and Deterding (2003).

3.4 Summary

To conclude, this chapter has explained the framework that guides this research and provided information about the research design, setting, participants, instruments and procedures as well as the way data were collected and analysed.

All in all, the design and method for this research have been carefully selected to answer the research questions. The survey and video-recordings have been successfully carried out to aid the researcher in answering the research questions. The findings are reported and discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

LEXICAL AND SYNTACTIC FEATURES IN MANGLISH

4.0 Introduction

One of the main purposes of this study is to identify the linguistic features of Manglish among students in a Chinese vernacular school. This chapter focuses on the presentation and analysis of the transcription of students' oral interactions gathered from the video-recording based on Baskaran's (2005) Characteristic of Malaysian English features framework. This chapter intends to answer research question 1: What are the linguistic features found in the usage of Manglish?

The flow of this chapter begins with the description of the participants and the context which is discussed in section 4.1. The analysis of the identified lexical features is presented in section 4.2. In the sub-sections of 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.2.3 and 4.2.4, each feature is described semantically and/or pragmatically (to a certain extent, where discourse is concerned). For the purpose of distinguishing the localisation of some items, Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2005) and Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary (2005) are used as a reference. Another way of describing them is by analysing the types of word formation involved based on reference by Low and Deterding (2003) as well as Low and Brown (2005). There are various processes of word formation in the English morphology. Thus, the description focuses on the word formation processes involving some of the Manglish features and was discussed in 4.2.3 of this study. The analysis of the syntactic features (grammar) is discussed in 4.3.

4.1 Participants' characteristics and contexts of the study

This part of the study reports the results from the qualitative data obtained through the video-recordings. Most of the students were reluctant to be observed due to the tight schedule for the upcoming UPSR examination. However, the researcher managed to observe five students who were in Primary Six. The conversations of the five volunteered participants were analysed by focusing on 1) linguistic features of Manglish, 2). They consisted of three males and two females who volunteered to participate in this study. They are from the same class.

4.2 Lexical Features in Manglish

This study adopted Baskaran's (2005) framework on the categorisations and characteristics of ME established in previous studies (reviewed in Chapter 2). The data was carefully analysed focusing on the lexical features. Each item is categorized and described under a respective category or a lexical feature of Manglish: Local Language Referents, Standard English Lexicalisation, Standard English Lexicalisation (English Lexemes with Local Usage), Morphological processes, Particles and Exclamations (Low and Deterding, 2003).

4.2.1 Local Language Referents

Local Language Referents are local terms that have been assimilated into spoken as well as written English in the country. Baskaran (2005, p. 37) states that the lexicon of Manglish has many local terms such as *kampong* and *pasar malam*. Although these terms can be translated as 'hometown/ village' and 'night market', the nature and degree

of the sameness of meaning between the local lexeme and its English equivalent can vary which warrant the use of the local term (Baskaran, 2005). Under the characteristics of the local language referents, only few of the characteristics such as cultural/ culinary terms, emotional/ cultural loading terms, semantic restriction and hyponymous collocations were found in the data.

4.2.1.1 Cultural/ Culinary terms

Baskaran (2005, p. 41) defines these terms as “native (local) culinary and domestic referents specifically akin to a characteristic of local origin and ecology”. The following were based on their culture-bound effects and association with the local delicacies.

Tan (2009) points out that the use of these local lexical items is due to the need to refer to local things and culturally related elements where there are no English equivalents. For example, nasi lemak is commonly found in Malaysia where it is considered a popular Malay dish among Malaysians and non- Malaysians. It is the local culinary and domestic referent which is referred to a particular local fragrant rice dish cooked in coconut milk and pandan leaf with sambal and various side dishes. The ongoing relevance of the native things and cultural aspects shows that there is a requirement to use them in daily communication. It is unusual to find Malaysians using substitution or translation in English such as ‘oily rice’ to refer to this dish. This usage by the students showed there is ‘solidarity’ and ‘unity’ in understanding and using these nativised lexical items among Malaysians.

- *Nasi lemak* (S1, L61; S1, L76; S1, L78; S1, L88, S2, L306; S2, L409)
- *Kopi O* (S1, L61)
- *Teh* (S1, L61)
- *Teh ais* (S1, L74)
- *Teh O ais limau* (S1, L74)
- *Rambutan* (S2, L286)

4.2.1.2 Emotional/ Cultural loading terms

Words may have a different meaning if directly translated into English due to their culture-bound association. Although they can be translated into English, these words tend to lose their culture-bound association because such referents with identical meaning are not usually present in native English contexts. Interestingly, the word *kopitiam* (S1, L75; S1, L76; S1, L78) found in the data was labelled under this category.

Kopitiam is a local traditional coffee shop patronised for meals and beverages. The word *kopi* is a Malay (borrowed and altered from Portuguese) word for coffee and *tiam* is the Hokkien dialect word for shop. Thus, these local words give the language a local character. In this manner, it lends more to the Malaysianised nature of the English produced (Baskaran, 2005). Another word categorised under this category was *pondan* (S1, L54). It is a Malay term referring to a man who dressed and acted like lady. It is included in the same category as it is indeed Malaysianized (understood by Malaysians of various races, yet such referents with identical meaning are not present in SBE).

4.2.1.3 Semantic Restriction

Words under this category are local words with possible English translation but used in a semantically restricted field. One of the lexemes with such semantic restriction found in the data was *kungfu* (the Chinese art of self-defence) compared to the other equally prevalent martial arts like *Karate*, *Taekwondo*, *Jujitsu* and *Taichi*. *Kungfu* (S1, 102; S1, 104) did not mean martial arts in general but was confined to the Chinese martial arts. *Kungfu* is originated from China. Although it does not represent the Malaysian culture, it is commonly known amongst Malaysians.

4.2.1.4 Hyponymous Collocations

Another type of indigenisation in Manglish is the presence of local words collocated with the English superordinate term (hyponymus terms) where the English equivalent is the superordinate and the local word is the subordinate referent, for example, *batik cloth* (batik-waxed printing designed cloth), *syariah court* (syariah-court for Muslims). Other examples found in the gathered data were *botak hair* (S1, L62; S1, L63) and *pandan leaf* (S1, L79). *Botak* is a Malay word which carries the meaning of bald. According to Low & Brown (2005), the example, *botak hair*, involves more than one word process including compounding and borrowing as mentioned above. Hence; it could also be explained under the successive processes.

4.2.2 Standard English Lexicalisation (English Lexemes with Local Usage)

Apart from Manglish, Malaysian speakers tend to use some of the standard English lexemes which displays the characteristics of ME as indicated in Baskaran

(2005). Words under this category are originally English words that carry a different meaning (other than the meaning in SBE). Furthermore, these words can be described under certain characteristics. Among the basic characteristics of lexical variation (of standard English) in Manglish, only certain characteristic lexical variations in the usage of Manglish such as,

- Informalisation
- Directional reversal
- Polysemic variation

4.2.2.1 Informalisation

Baskaran (2005, p. 46) states that “many of the lexemes used by the Malaysian speakers tend to be informal (colloquial) substitutions of standard English words”. It is not uncommon to find many lexemes signifying a more informal style and register in ME, for instance words like “kids” for children, “hubby” for husband, “spend” for giving someone a treat for something. Other examples of words from the data under this category were explained below.

(a) See (for watch)

(S2, L181) B: I see, I **see** in the internet, the America right the America is the least, Korea is the most.

(S1, L58) B: ...You **see** KL style, right?

(b) Damn shit

‘Damn shit’ is an informal and impolite way of showing extreme annoyance at something. The word ‘damn’ in this example was used as an adjective to emphasise something negative, while ‘shit’ in this context is used to refer to something bad or of bad quality, or a bad situation.

(S1, L118) A: Yalah, the stretch from where you know, from Baskin Robin to Isetan
you know.

(S1, L119) that long, you know.

(S1, L120) B: **Damn shit.**

(S2, L121) A: Yalah damn long.

(c) Shit

(S2, L201) A: Take your **shit**.

(S2, L202) B: This is recording.

(S2, L203) A: [laughing] No, I mean take your shit.

(d) Sucks

‘Sucks’ is an informal and impolite expression of defiance or derision. Referring to the example S1, L47, the word ‘sucks’ was used when the speaker disliked something very much or thinks something was very bad.

(S1, L47) D: I don't like the book one. I don't like the book. Don't watch the movie
cause it's...

(S1, L48) **sucks** bad.

(e) Something

The word ‘something’ is usually used in spoken form to mean a particular thing when the speaker does not know its name or does not know exactly what it is.

(S2, L181) B: I see. I see in the internet, the America right the America is the least, Korea is the most

(S2, L182) D: Ah, Gangnam will be more than Justin Bieber Baby one

(S2, L183) A: Soon

(S2, L184) B: I know

(S2, L185) D: Justin Bieber is like seven million **something**.

(f) Last time

In Manglish, ‘last time’ is a substitute for formerly, previously or some time ago in SBE. ‘Last time’ refers to the occasion before the present one. E.g. ‘On this trip we’re staying at the X hotel. **Last time** we stayed at the Y’.

(S1, L22) B: Fake lah you. I thought you say you play before last time

(S1, L78) A: **Last time**, I go inside the kopitiam they sell nasi lemak don't buy you know. They...

(S1, L79)... put instead of they putting pandan leaf and banana leaf, do you know what kind of...

(S1, L80) ...leaf they use?

(g) Your head

In Manglish, ‘your head’ is a phrase used to talk about someone being crazy or very stupid instead of ‘be off your head’. The sentence in the bracket indicates SBE.

(S1, L102) A: Don't lie. Your Facebook profile picture is up. You kicking kungfu.

(S1, L103) C: **Your head.**

(You might be off your head)

(h) Heck

‘Heck’ is another way to mean ‘hell’ to show annoyance or emphasise what someone is saying. A common phrase with the word heck is ‘what the heck’ (e.g. It’s rather expensive but what the **heck**).

(S2, L228) C: No, no. Is that guy.

(S2, L229) E: Ian Zheng.

(S2, L230) A: What the **heck**?

4.2.2.2 Directional Reversal

Words under this category are mostly verbs. Manglish speakers tend to use in reverse direction. For example, the frequent phenomena with converse pairs such as go/ come, bring/ send, borrow/ lend and fetch/ take. In Standard English lexicon, the verb ‘go’ means action away from the place while ‘come’ would indicate action towards the place. One of the interesting examples from the data was:

(a) Go

(S2, L298) A: Dance, dance, dance, dance, dance!

(S2, L299) B: K Pop!

(S2, L300) E: **Go** lah

(S2, L301) D: **Go** lah... just go

(S2, L302) B: Come on lah... **go**

4.2.2.3 Polysemic variation

Lexemes under this category are standard English which have the original English meaning. They have an extended semantic range of meanings not originally in standard English, for example 'cut'. Besides its original meaning of slicing, it carries these meanings (Low and Brown, 2005):

- Overtake (of vehicles as well as in running)
- Beat (to beat opponent by points or marks)
- Reduce (an amount of money)

An example obtained in the data with such semantic extension is shooting (verb).

- To kill or wound with a bullet or arrow
- To fire a gun
- To move swiftly and suddenly
- To aim a ball at a goal
- To film or photograph

Based on the examples below, speakers B and C were trying to warn their addressee (E) against throwing the rambutan at them. They used the word shoot to replace ‘throw’ which was used to indicate an act of directing an object in a particular direction.

(S2, L283) B: Oh stop **shooting** at my face!

(Please stop throwing the rambutan at my face)

(S2, L284) C: Stop **shooting** eh.

(Can you please stop throwing the rambutan at my face?)

4.2.3 Morphological processes

Apart from the various characteristics that warrant the use of the local terms, Baskaran (2005) also suggests the categorisation of various processes by which words have been formed in English. The notable processes were compounding, conversion, acronym, clipping, repetition and reduplication. Illustrations gathered from the data were not only examples from standard English but also peculiar in Manglish. The following are examples:

4.2.3.1 Compounding

Compounding is the process of taking two existing words and combining them to form a new word. The compounds may be spelt as one word or spelt as two words. For instance, ‘eyeshadow’ for the make-up that women put on their eyelids.

Botak hair (S1, L62; S1, L63) was a compound that is spelt as two words. *Botak hair* was a combination of Malay (*botak* as in bald) and English (*hair*) elements. Another example from the data was *kopitiam* (S1, L75; S1, L76; S1, L78) which was the combination of Malay and Hokkien words. *Kopi* is a Malay word for coffee while *tiam* is a Hokkien word for shop.

Another interesting example is ‘facebook’ (face+book). When both words are combined to form the word ‘facebook’, it conveys a different meaning from the words in isolation (‘Facebook’ is the most used social networking service).

4.2.3.2 Conversion: Verbalisation of Noun

Conversion is the process of changing a word’s grammatical category but without changing the form at all. For instance, the noun ‘arrow’ is converted into a verb meaning ‘pick on someone to do a job’. According to Quirk, Randolph & Greenbaum (1987, p. 441), “conversion is the derivational process in which an item changes its word-class without the addition of an affix”. A Manglish example from the data was ‘conversation’, a noun that is converted into a verb, giving the meaning of ‘talk’.

(S1, L98) B: Don't **conversation** me.

(Don't talk to me)

Another interesting example of conversion often used was the word ‘friend’. ‘Friend’ is a noun which means someone who you know and like very much and enjoy

spending time with. In the data, however, 'friend' was converted into a verb as illustrated in the example below:

(S2, L250) C: And he's also **friend** with Ka Soon.

(He is also a friend of Ka Soon/ He is Ka Soon's friend)

4.2.3.3 Acronym/ Abbreviation

Acronyms are sets of initials used in order to avoid saying or writing a much longer expression. Examples found in the data were as follows:

- **KL** for Kuala Lumpur (S1, L58; S1, L60; S1, L64; S2, L172; S2, L173)
- **KLCC** for Kuala Lumpur Convention Center (S1, L64)
- **MTV** for Music Television (S2, L174; S2, L197)
- **K Pop** for Korean Pop (S2, L299)
- **LRT** for Light Railway Transit (S1, L61)

4.2.3.4 Clipping

Clips are an abbreviated version of longer words with the same grammatical category such as air-con from 'air-conditioning'. An illustration from the data is *dy* from the word 'already'.

(S2, L164) B: Lin Dan also married **dy**

(S2, L165) D: Lin Dan married quite long **dy**. Chong Wei married few years ago **dy**

4.2.3.5 Reduplication

Reduplication is the process whereby words or parts of words are repeated. They are often with slight variations to add some extra meaning to the basic word. Reduplication is productive in Manglish and it involves repetition without any change in the vowels or consonant (Lim, 1997). Reduplication in Manglish can occur with words from other languages such as *jalan-jalan* as in 'walk' (Malay). The data from this study was described using Lim's (1997) rules of reduplication:

- (a) To **express continuity** (if double reduplication applies to verbs)

(S1, L31) B: It's like **build build build**... [and then it's over]

(S1, L32) A: [Blocks only, it's like **tick tick tick tick**]

(S2, L298) A: **Dance, dance, dance, dance, dance!**

- (b) To **express intensification**

(S2, L140) B: Yeah I forgot. **Sorry, sorry**. She's twenty two right?

4.2.3.6 Borrowing

Malaysian English has many borrowed words since Malaysian speakers are usually multi-lingual or bilingual. Many words have been borrowed from Malay, in particular *rojak*, *makan*, *kena* and Hokkien such as *as kay poh*, *chin chai*. Another striking piece of evidence of borrowing from other languages would be:

(a) *Perfecto*- a word which is of Spanish origin, meaning ‘perfect’ was used in the conversation.

(S1, L95) A: **Perfecto.**

(b) *Oppa Gangnam Style*- *Oppa Gangnam Style* is an animal-inspired dance move popularised by a K-pop singer, Psy. The phrase "*Gangnam Style*" is a Korean neologism that refers to a lifestyle associated with the Gangnam District of Seoul where people are trendy, hip and display a certain supposed class. *Oppa Gangnam style* has been translated as "Big brother is Gangnam style", a Korean expression used by females to refer to an older male friend or older brother.

(S1, L65) C: He always memorises songs like *Oppa Gangnam Style*. He always memorise one

Apart from that, the teachers in this study described the features of Manglish in terms of its grammar and vocabulary. It was indicated that borrowing was also used in formal and informal situations as proven in the findings below. Whenever two or more languages are in contact, there will be mutual borrowing, assimilation and adaptation from one to the other (Low and Brown, 2005).

“Lah” at the end of the sentence and borrowings from Mandarin (informal)

Slang, use of particle “lah” and borrowings (formal)

Borrowing is one of the significant features used by Malaysians. Therefore, it is important to understand that Manglish is not a substandard of British English and neither should it ever be thought of as inferior to other prevailing varieties of English. Instead, it is a "localised" or "nativised" variety with some language features of its own, such as sounds, intonation patterns, sentence structures, words and expressions (Platt et al., 1984).

4.2.4 Particles

Previous studies relating to particles in Singapore and Malaysian English have been conducted extensively. To name a few, Platt & Weber (1980), Platt & Ho (1989), Gupta (1992) and Low & Brown (2005) have focused at the syntactical positions of the particles that could account for their existence and their pragmatic or discourse functions. They are important in the description of Manglish intonation because the communicative functions they serve mirror the roles that intonation plays in conveying the communicative intent of the speakers (Platt & Ho, 1989).

In communication of English in Singapore (applicable in ME as well), the meanings and functions of the particles (*lah*, *lor*, *meh*, *hor*) have been the subject of previous discussion (e.g. Kwan-Terry, 1978; Platt, 1987; Gupta, 1992; Pakir, 1992). According to Gupta (1992), pragmatic particles are used to indicate the attitude of speakers to what they are saying. They are a small set of words, mostly loaned from Southern varieties of Chinese, and they often appear at the end of an utterance to show contradiction ('*what*'), assertion ('*lah*') or add a sense of tentativeness ('*ah*'). Baskaran

(2005) refers 'one', 'what' and 'lah' as grammatical particles as they are polyfunctional (serve a range of functions). The Manglish particles that are evident in the data may include 'ah', 'lah/la', 'one', 'what', 'mah', 'meh', and 'lor', 'oh' and 'eh' which are described and explained in the following sections.

These particles are regarded as most typically Malaysian. Mary Tay (in Crewe 1977, p. 55) describes it as "a code-mark which marks that the speech act is one involving dimensions of informality, familiarity, solidarity and rapport between participants". Nevertheless, these particles are difficult to carry into the standard English due to the fact that there are certain intonational patterns with which these particles are used in Manglish speech. Baskaran (2005) explains that it is rather difficult to define the confined usage of such particles even though they are clearly used only in informal speech.

4.2.4.1 *Lah*

The most well-known particle in Manglish is the particle *lah* has been variously analysed as a marker of rapport or solidarity (Pakir, 1992; Wee, 2004) and emphasis (Wee, 2004, p.119). In the early study of the *lah* particle, Tongue maintained *lah* can function as an "intensifying particle, as a marker of informal style, as a signal of intimacy, for persuading, deriding, wheedling, rejecting and a host of other purposes" depending on the way it is pronounced (Tongue, 1974, p.114). Tongue's study of *lah* marks the beginning of treating the particle as characteristic of Singapore Colloquial English.

Lah was seen as an entity communicating a range of different attitudes, such as obviousness, persuasion and impatience. Other functions attributed to the particle include an expression of friendliness or of the opposite attitudes, such as hostility or annoyance, indicator of enthusiasm and assertion or as a word communicating the attitude of objection. Gupta (1992) describes *lah* as “belonging to the assertive group on a scale (expressing varying degrees of commitment to an utterance) with three main categories: contradictory, assertive and tentative”.

Past researchers such as Platt and Ho (1989) recognise the various pragmatic functions of *lah* and further explained that the different pragmatic functions of particles can be used to indicate obviousness, disapproval or intimacy and to highlight a particular lexical item.

a. **To express contradiction/disagreement**

(S1, L22) B: Fake *lah* you. I thought you say you play before last time

(S2, L168) C: I thought today

(S2, L169) B: Few days ago *lah* you

b. **To approve/suggest**

(S2, L210) A: The teachers will never care

(S2, L211) B: Bad *lah*

(S2, L331) B: *Yalah* true so true you know

(S2, L409) B: Yah belanja you something anything also can lah nasi lemak or
whatever

c. **To persuade**

(S2, L300) E: Go *lah*

(S2, L301) D: Go *lah* just go

(S2, L302) B: Come on *lah* go

(S2, L313) B: You think we ... go *lah*. Give you one more thing to choose

d. **To express obviousness**

(S2, L355) C: Of course *lah* you see you see how many things are posted on Facebook

e. **To express annoyance**

(S2, L395) A: Bian *tailah* you

f. **To express a matter-of-factness**

(S2, L334) A: I, I heard ah their pepperoni ah made of made of those... I don't know
lah.

4.2.4.2 Meh

In regards to a question particle, *meh* is said to question a presupposition (Gupta, 1992) or indicate that the opposite of what was thought is true (Wong, 2000, p. 21), In fact, it expresses scepticism (Wee, 2004), and it is always realised with high level pitch

(Lim, 2005).

a. **To question a presupposition**

C: She's eh my fake sister

(S1, L15) C: Can *meh*? What?

(S2, L142) B: Got *meh*? [overlap with A]

(S2, L249) A: Really *meh*? Looks like Ka Soon *meh*? Aiyo...

(S2, L250) C: And he's also friend with Ka Soon.

(S2, L251) A: Really *meh*?

(S2, L322) A: Really *meh*? Really belanja *meh*?

(S2, L390) A: Aiyo... really *meh*?

4.2.4.3 Ah

Another question particle, *ah* [a] is commonly found at the end of a declarative. If this particle has a mid-fall or low pitch, it marks it as a question where a response is required from the interlocutor. However, Lim (2004) explains further that the question becomes rhetorical and is usually just to check a fact without seeking for a response from the interlocutor if the particle has a rise (Lim, 2004). The rising of the particle *ah* can be used to check whether the interlocutor is following the conversation, narrative or explanation (Gupta, 1992) or to signal continuation of the utterance, as illustrated in the following examples.

a. **To mark a question; response is required from interlocutor**

(S2, L206) D: [Overlap with A] Eh who like Justin Bieber? You like Justin Bieber *ah*?

(S2, L368) D: You know Dell *ah*? Got one...

(S2, L387) A: If Iphone and Samsung *ah* which one you say win which one win?

(S2, L399) B: Serious *ah*? You serious *ah*?

(S2, L401) B: You serious *ah*? Really?

b. **To signal continuity or explanation**

(S1, L180) D:Gangnam style *ah* total like six million dy. Six million six million.

(S1, L182) D: *Ah*, Gangnam will be more than Justin Bieber Baby one.

(S2, L333) B: The other day *ah* they give me fake one.

(S2, L334) A: I, I heard *ah* their pepperoni ah made of made of those I don't know lah.

(S2, L341)A: You know *ah* next time you go Domino's I tell you recently I go Domino's
nobody

(S2, L248) C: Like one day I went to eat there *ah* waited like almost a hour you know.

(S2, L371) D: Eh... Dell now *ah* Dell now got one computer can make the screen 360
degree turn one.

4.2.4.4 *Eh*

The particle *eh* is usually said on a falling tone to establish rapport and to indicate the likelihood of an agreeable response. Meanwhile, there is also a variant with a rising tone used to express surprise or disbelief.

(a) **To establish rapport and to indicate the likelihood of an agreeable response**

(S1, L64) B: KLCC, KL city, *eh* whatever ah.

(S1, L74) A: *Eh*, do you all like teh ais, teh o ais limau?

(S2, L192) B: *Eh* you got Astro right?

(S2, L206) D: [Overlap with A] *Eh* who like Justin Bieber? You like Justin Bieber ah?

(S2, L367) A: You know the new *eh* Dell Alienware? Lousy.

These speakers use *eh* as an attempt to establish rapport with their addressees. *Eh* were used by these speakers with the intention to gain attention from their friends instead of referring them by their names.

(b) **To express surprise or disbelief**

(S2, L283) B: Oh stop shooting at my face!

(S2, L284) C: Stop shooting *eh!*

(S2, L371) D: *Eh* Dell now ah... Dell now got one computer can make the screen 360 degree turn one.

In the example (S2, L284), speakers B and C expressed shock and annoyance when their friend threw things at them. Meanwhile, speaker D expressed surprise and excitement when talking about the screen of the computer which can turn 360 degrees.

4.2.4.5 *Mah*

According to Kwan-Terry (1991) and Wee (2004), the particle *mah* [ma] presents a piece of information or advice as obvious to the addressee. It occurs with a mid-level tone.

(a) **To state the obvious**

(S2, L141) C: She's eh my fake sister.

(S2, L142) B: Got meh? [overlap with A]

(S2, L143) C: My bestfriend ***mah***.

(S2, L144) B: Fake sister, come on.

(Speaker C's use of *mah* was to state the obvious that the girl she was referring to was not her sister. Instead, she was her best friend

(S2, L174) C: MTV they always show Oppa Gangnam Style one.

(S2, L175) B: Famous ***mah***. Fame and fortune.

(Speaker B uses *mah* to indicate that Oppa Gangnam style is in fact famous because it was often aired on the MTV channel)

4.2.4.6 *One*

Apart from indicating the numerical *one*, it is used as an intensifier that may be translated from the use of *punya* in the colloquial Malay. It is used as a tool to put

emphasis on something which is particularly common in mesolectal and basilect ME (Lim, 2004).

a. **As a marker for definitive**

(S1, L7) Cannot die *one*.

(S1, L29) B: Also quite boring one after a while.

(S2, L65) C: He always memorises songs like Oppa Gangnam Style. He always memorise *one*.

(S1, L70) C: Yes... really he got say *one*.

(S2, L153) B: If made in China sure fake *one*.

(S2, L182) D: Ah, Gangnam will be more than Justin Bieber Baby *one*.

(S2, L218) C: They know I always go to his class one. You will see later. If he come out.

b. **As a restrictive relative pronoun**

Alsagoff & Ho (1998) describe how the use of *one* as a restrictive relative pronoun does not occur in SBE or SME. The relative pronoun *one* is used rather than who or that. It is usually placed at the end of the relative clause. The relative clause gives information about the preceding noun.

(S2, L233) C: Yo! See that guy? Got see doing the railing like that *one*.

(Do you see the boy who is playing with the railing?)

(S2, L259) C: No... it's my cousin [overlap with A]. He say *one*.

(It was my cousin who said it)

(S2, L387) A: If Iphone and Samsung ah which one you say win, which **one** win?

(Which of the following phones has better features, Iphone or Samsung?)

4.2.4.7 What

Besides, the particle ‘what’ also has certain pragmatic functions. It presents a piece of information as being obvious and contradicting something that has previously been asserted (Wee, 2004). It is used with a falling tone or low pitch that is a step down from the pitch of the previous syllable (Lim, 2004), as illustrated in the data below.

a. **To express obviousness/strong assertion**

(S2, L379) B: Cheh can go there and buy one *what*.

(You can buy it there)

The users of Malaysian English have developed and are still developing a whole new range of expressions to achieve their communicative needs (Lowenberg, 1990). Through open-ended questionnaires (question 3 of Part B and C), the teachers were also able to identify the common use of *what* by the students in their daily interactions.

Of all the features of Manglish, most of the teachers encountered the frequent use of the particles ‘*lah*’ and ‘*meh*’ in students’ utterances in formal and informal contexts. In fact, the particle ‘*lah*’ was the most highly occurring particle in Manglish as

it was used more frequently than the others.

Moreover, Platt et al. (1983, p. 21) state that these particles appear (only) in the “even more colloquial style” of speakers. However, they figure not only in the colloquial ME of proficient native SME speakers but also in what would be considered more formal domains, appearing in recent years, for example, in newspaper articles and election speeches. Again, Platt (1987) holds that “these occur more in ethnically Chinese basilectal or informal mesolectal ME and not further up the lectal or formality scale”. However, Gupta (1992, p. 38) disputes Platt’s observation. According to Gupta (1992), the use of *meh* and *lah* occurs not only in colloquial Chinese ME but also in the colloquial ME of proficient native ME speakers of all ethnicities.

Other than this, one mark of an informal style is the frequent occurrence of slang (Fromkin, et. al, 2003, p.473). Slang has been defined as “one of those things that everybody can recognize and nobody can define”. Slang, or colloquial language as termed by Fromkin et al. (2003, p. 473) is used to introduce many new words into the language by recombining old words into new meanings, for instance *right on*, *spaced out*, *rap* and *cool*. In relation to this, one of the teachers in this study described the common use of slang among students in formal and informal situations. In the response, an example of slang that was generally used by students was the word *cool* (shown in the evidence below). It is an adjective referring to something that is very stylish, good or otherwise positive, for instance “Your hair looks *cool*”.

“Lah” at the end of the sentence and borrowings from Mandarin (informal)

Slang, use of particle “lah” and borrowings (formal)

Slang (eg cool), mah and “lah”

Mostly “lah”

Slang and grammar

Grammar mistake

4.2.5 Exclamation

It is not uncommon to find exclamations in Manglish which are borrowed from the local languages with the purpose of maintaining originality and the understanding of the ‘deeper’ or ‘underlying’ meanings of these words, which are probably not understood by English native speakers. Tsen (2004) describes ‘*aiyoh*’ as an exclamation derived from Chinese dialects. This expressive words ‘*aiya*’ is of the same meaning as another expressive word ‘*aiyo*’. They are grouped under Group E of Ooi’s Concentric Circles for nativised Englishes. It is commonly used to express despair, disagreement, annoyance and concern (SBE or SME equivalent- “oh dear”, “come on”). For example,

a. To express disagreement

L249 A: Really meh? Looks like Ka Soon meh?**Aiyo**...

L390 A: **Aiyo**... really meh?

4.4 Syntactic Features in Manglish

Manglish can also be described based on its syntactical characteristics. Compared to SBE (structural arrangements and features), the sentence construction of Manglish at the level of clause or phrase may be different due to the influence from the main substrate language of Malay, Chinese and Tamil. Therefore, some structural differences of Manglish that are most prominently used in the data were examined under the following sub-topics: Pronoun Ellipsis, Non auxiliary be, Copula Ellipsis/ Omission/ Deletion, Absence of Operator 'do', Substitution of there + be with the existential 'got', Use of aspectual marker 'already', The *kena* passive, No need, Can, Go, You know, Really, Subject- Verb or Concord and Direct translation from local languages to English.

4.4.1 Pronoun Ellipsis

Many researchers have observed that Singapore Colloquial English, SCE (applicable in Manglish) is a null-subject language where the grammatical subject of a finite clause can be omitted so long as it is retrievable from the context (Gupta, 1994, pp.10-11). Gupta (1994) adds "the importance of the contextual factor, pointing out where the subject can be retrieved from the context; SCE does not require it to be expressed". Context can be interpreted in two ways, linguistic context- the surrounding words or clauses- within which the element in question is located, and situational context which refers to 'the non-linguistic background to a text or utterance' (Crystal, 1997, p. 88). In the examples below, omitted subjects are represented with the symbol \emptyset .

(S1, L49) C: Ø haven't really read the book yet. Half only.

(Omitted subject = I= S1, L110)

(S2, L122) C: Ø want to wait so long.

(Omitted subject = I= S2, L122)

(S2, L215) C: Ø don't want to tell who is my cousin.

(Omitted subject= I= S2, L215)

4.4.2 Non auxiliary *be*

In SME, the verb *be* must be present in all the contexts below, except for perhaps in very informal speech. *Be* is usually omitted in a variety of circumstances. Platt and Weber (1980) attribute this to the fact that no equivalent to the English verb *be* existed in Malay, Tamil or Chinese.

The four main functions of the verb *be* are:

- As an auxiliary verb in progressive constructions. E.g I am singing
- As an auxiliary verb in passive constructions E.g I am wounded
- As a copula verb, linking a subject with a complement. E.g She is Joanne. We are tall
- Before prepositional phrase. E.g The exam is at 9 am. It is a moot point whether at 9 am should be considered an adverbial or a complement here

(Low and Brown, 2005, p. 90- 91)

S1, L13A: The zombie Ø jumping around, yeah, and then hit your head.

(Omitted be= is= S1, L13)

S1, L63 A: Yeah, you Ø botak hair

(Omitted be= have= S1, L63)

S1, L102 A: Don't lie. Your Facebook profile picture is up. You Ø kicking kungfu.

(Omitted be= are= S1, L102)

S2, L164 B: Lin Dan Ø also married dy.

(Omitted be= is= S2, L164)

4.4.3 Copula Ellipsis/ Omission/ Deletion

Copula is also known as a 'linking verb' which links a subject and a complement. The three components (subject, copula and predicative expression) do not necessarily appear in that order (SVO). Their positioning depends on the rules for word order applicable to the language in question. For easy reference, all linking verbs are highlighted.

Moreover, the absence of copula 'be' in interrogatives as well as declarations/ statements is a common feature in the Manglish.

(a) Subject- verb- object (e.g. She is the boss)

(S1, L75) B: The kopitiam Ø there, right? You go inside it's like...

(Omitted copula= is= S1, L75)

(S1, L102) A: Don't lie. Your Facebook profile picture is up. You Ø kicking kungfu.

(Omitted copula= Are= S1, L102)

(S2, L254) B: Jia Soon Ø so ugly. [laughing]

(Omitted copula= Is)

(b) Subject- Auxiliary Inversion (e.g.Are you happy?)

(S1, L2) D: Ø You Scared?

(Omitted copula= Are= S1, L2)

4.4.4 Absence of Operator ‘do’

Apart from the copula ‘be’, the operator ‘do’ which appears in SBE and SME interrogatives tends to be omitted in Manglish. Examples with the absence of the operator ‘do’ were listed below:

(S2, L204) C: So what Ø you want to do now? (Malay: Apa kamu nak buat sekarang?)

(S2, L279)C: Why Ø they keep looking at us? (Malay: Mengapa mereka asyik merenung ke arah kami?)

(S1, L16) A: Ø You have Garena account? Black Shot.

(S2, L138) B: Oh... Ø you have a sister?

The influence of the substrate languages (in the examples above) contributes to the absence of the operator ‘do’ in Manglish interrogatives as shown in the examples above. To illustrate, “So what do you want to do now?” is directly translatable as “Apa kamu nak buat sekarang?” in Malay language. There is no inversion for the operator ‘do’ or its Malay equivalent ‘perbuatan’ as compared to “So what do you want to do

now?” in which ‘do’ acts as an auxiliary verb in the interrogative structure of SBE.

4.4.5 Substitution of there + be with the existential ‘got’

In Manglish, the existential ‘got’ which appears for ‘there is’ and ‘there are’ play a major part in the restructuring of syntax in its SBE equivalent. It involves the substitution of There + be or have with the existential/ locative got. Influenced by the equivalence of there + be or have that simply means *ada* (existing) in Malay or *you* in Mandarin, it is therefore replaced by the existential/ locative ‘got’ as evident in the data:

(S1, L10) B: You **got** the game?

(S1, L11) A: Yes. I **got** Left 4 Dead 2.

(S1, L12) B: Oh. I also **got**. CE: I play Left 4 Dead 2 all the time.

(S1, L17) B: Yeah, I **got**.

(S1, L70) C: Yes really he **got** say one.

(S2, L192) B: Eh you **got** Astro right? [overlap with D]

(S2, L193) D: **Got**.

4.4.6 Use of aspectual marker ‘already’

Aspect is related to the way in which an action or state is regarded, for example whether something has been completed or whether it was or is in progress. This marker ‘already’ in SBE is used under these functions (Low & Brown, 2000):

- To emphasise that an action is recently completed, e.g. At last! I’ve finished.

- To show often that this completed action has some connection with the present time. For instance, I've broken my leg is equivalent to saying My leg is broken now.
- To give news, e.g. There has been an explosion at Edinburgh Castle.
- To describe past events that happened in a period of time extending up to the present, e.g. You've only ever called me 'darling' once.
- To say that something has happened several times in a period of time extending up to the present, e.g. I've written six letters since lunchtime.
- Serves as an indicator of 'surprise' and 'dissatisfaction' on behalf of the speaker.

The above instances show that the perfective aspect takes the form have/has + past participle in the standard form. However, the use of 'already' in Manglish could take different forms.

These are used extensively in Manglish as they correspond to similar expressions in local languages (Mandarin *le*, Hokkien *liau*, Cantonese *leh*, Malay *sudah*). It is clear that the Chinese and Malay have aspect systems rather than tense systems (Platt & Weber, 1980). Thus, it is not unusual to find features of an aspectual system present in Manglish, particularly in more informal situations and with speakers with low English proficiency. The similarity with Chinese is noticeable in this example,

Gún	thâu	tíng	chhù	liaú
Our	boss	return	home	already

‘Our boss has returned home’

Examples of the use of aspectual marker ‘already’ are shown below:

(S2, L165) D: Lin Dan married quite long *dy*. Chong Wei married few years ago dy.

(Lin Dan has been married for many years. Chong Wei has been married for a few years)

(S2, L329) A: Ah you know Domino's Pizza no business **already** oh.

(The business at Domino’s Pizza has dropped)

(S2, L347) A: Just call a small personal pizza need ten minute already oh.

(It took me ten minutes to call for a small personal pizza!)

4.4.7 The *kena* passive

A passive sentence in SBE is exemplified by the sentences ‘The key was taken by the secretary’. It is derived from the corresponding active sentence ‘The secretary took the key’ by the following processes:

- The grammatical object of the active sentence (the key) becomes the grammatical subject of the passive sentence.
- The verb *be* is introduced and given the same tense marking as the verb in the original active sentence (past tense as in took, thus was)
- The verb is changed into the –en participle (taken). (This participle is often referred to as the past participle, although this seems inappropriate, as it may be used with present tense verbs, e.g. is taken. It is also sometimes called the –ed participle,

although this term often causes confusion with the past tense, which is regularly marked with –ed. As is shown by the example given (took, taken), these are two different forms).

- The subject of the original active sentence is placed after *by* at the end of the passive sentence (by the secretary). This prepositional phrase may be omitted (The key was taken) in certain circumstances, e.g. if it is unimportant- or if you do not know- who did the action.

The passive, however can be constructed in the same way in Manglish, although variations are possible. According to Bao & Wee (1999), the verb *be* may be replaced by *kena* (the verb used in passive construction in Malay). Bao & Wee (1999) added that there are certain restrictions if the verb ‘be’ is to be replaced by *kena*.

- The main verb need not be in its –en participle form, but may be in its base form, although this is less common. E.g. ‘the thief *kena* caught by the police’ or ‘the thief *kena* catch by the police’
- As in SBE, the *by*- phrase may be omitted (e.g.the thief *kena* caught).
- The *kena* passive cannot be used with stative verbs (verbs denoting states rather than actions). E.g.That man *kena* known by everyone.
- Even with non-stative verbs, the *kena* passive can only be used with those verbs denoting events that affect the surface subjects. E.g.The book *kena* burnt already.

However, the *kena* passive cannot be used with verbs that do not affect the subject. E.g. The book *kena* read by John.

- The *kena* passive conveys negative overtones, and can therefore only be used with appropriate verbs. For example, John *kena* scolded by his boss.

Similar example with the *kena* passive was found in the data:

(S2, L294) B: Later you *kena* marah from teacher. You know what happen? We tell, we tell for you. (the Malay word *marah*= scold)

(You will be scolded by the teacher. We will explain it to the teacher)

Apart from the *kena* passive in Malay, it shares similarities with the passive in Mandarin *bei* which conveys negative connotation is also used in the Mandarin passive construction (Yeo and Deterding, 2003, p.78-79). *Bei* is used to express the fact that someone was criticised and is very unusual in cases where someone was praised.

4.4.8 Also

Unlike in SME, ‘also’ is an English lexis used casually in Manglish. It is used commonly to replace its Malay equivalent *juga* (formal) and *pun* (less formal). It frequently occurs at the sentence final. It is the position where ‘too’ typically occurs in SBE, such as ‘This is quite nice also’. For example,

(S2, L373) D: Can turn upside down **also**.

(It can be turned upside down)

(S2, L383) B: Touch screen **also**, right?

(Does it have touch screen function too?)

4.4.9 No need

Another feature of Manglish ‘no need’ could be described as a direct translation of the Malay language for instance, *tak usah* or *tak payah* which is commonly used in casual communication. The findings below showed that ‘no need’ is used to mean ‘there is no need/ necessity’. Other than that, other alternatives would be ‘I suppose not’ or ‘I guess not’. Syntactically, ‘there is no need for that,’ which could have been use in SBE, is reduced to ‘no need’ as a result of a simplification process or omission.

(S1, L49) C: Haven't really read the book yet. Half only.

(S1, L50) B: **No need**. It's quite bias.

4.4.10 Can

‘Can’ which is simply used to mean ‘why not’ whereas ‘cannot’ to mean ‘that is impossible’ could be used to answer questions like ‘Can you dance?’ or ‘You go first, can ah?’ Baskaran (2005, p. 117) suggests “the basic meanings permission and ability of the modal ‘can’ are the only ones used of this modal in Manglish”. In Malay, ‘can’ is translated as *boleh* as in ‘Malaysia Boleh’.

(S2, L379) B: Cheh... **can** go there and buy one what.

4.4.11 Go

In SBE, ‘go’ may indicate ‘to leave the place where you are, in order to do something’ (e.g. for shopping/to go swimming, go for a swim). In Manglish, ‘go’ can

mean *qu* in Mandarin. The examples below also showed direct translations from Mandarin to Manglish.

(SME) I want to go for a swim

(Mandarin) Wo yao qu you yong

(Mandarin) Ta qu xue xiao

(Manglish) He go school

(SME) He goes to school

The subject-verb agreement rules do not exist in Mandarin. Therefore, *qu* is translated as ‘go’ and ‘goes’ as indicated in the above examples.

Instances of similar usage was found from the data:

(S1, L68) C: He know the whole song. He **go** tell me oh I memorise all the whole song.

(S1, L71) B: Ya then he **go** dance...

(S1, L82) A: They use that kind of leaf. You see. It's those kind of leaf outside. They **go**
and take...

(S1, L83) it and stick it together.

(S1, L99) A: Hey you three, do you know Su ping is very bao li. She play football and
then he **go** ...

(S1, L100) ...kick then pooow...then hit the boys and go for the ball.

4.4.12 You know

The way in which ‘you know’ is used in the conversation of Malaysian speakers is apparent especially to fulfil the function of keeping the attention of the person who is listening:

(S2, L145) A: [overlap with B] Hey **you know** Lee Chong Wei gave me this, Lee

Chong Wei...

(S2, L146)A: ... gave me this, this shuttlecock

(S2, L329) A: Ah **you know** Domino's Pizza no business oredi oh

(S2, L331) B: Yalah true so true, **you know**

‘You know’ may also be regarded as serving as a defensive mechanism, as shown below:

(S2, L345) C: We wait for so long **you know**.

Another function of ‘you know’ is to give the speaker time to think what to say next as in the extract below:

(S1, L78) A: Last time I go inside the kopitiam they sell nasi lemak don't buy, **you know**. They...

(S1, L79) A: ... put instead of they putting pandan leaf and banana leaf, do you know what kind of...

(S1, L80) A... leaf they use?

(S1, L118) A: Yalah, the stretch from where you know, from Baskin Robin to Isetan

you know that...

(S1, L119) ... long, **you know**.

4.4.13 Really

‘Really’ is used as an intensifier showing agreement with the fact or truth. Instead, speakers switch to Cantonese *zan geh* providing a similar meaning to the word ‘really’ in English.

(S2, L323) B: **Really!**

(S2, L324) C: Ya lah... just go lah!

(S2, L325) E: *Zan geh!* (Cantonese ‘Really!’)

4.4.14 Subject- Verb or Concord

In present tense, the verb normally agrees with the subject noun by adding an –s if the noun is singular, whereas if the noun is plural –s is not added to the verb. ‘To be’, on the other hand, has ‘is/ are’ for singular/ plural and ‘to have’ has ‘has/have’. Auxiliaries like ‘will, would, should, shall, could, may, can, might, must, ought’ remain the same. In Malaysia, majority of the students in Malaysia still have problems with their subject-verb agreement (Surina and Kamarulzaman, 2009). For example:

(S2, L13) A: The zombie jumping around, yeah, and then hit your head.

(The zombie jumps around. Then it hits your head)

(S1, L68) C: He know the whole song. He go tell me oh I memorise all the whole song.

(He knows the whole song. He told me, “Oh I memorise the whole song”)

(S1, L99) A: Hey you three, do you know Su ping is very *bao li*. She play football and then she...

(S1, L100)...go kick then pooow...then hit the boys and go for the ball.

(Hey, do you know Su Ping is very *bao li*? She plays football. She kicks the ball and it hits the boys. Then she goes after the ball.)

(S2, L218) C: They know I always go to his class one. You will see later. If he come out.

(They know I always go to his class. You will see when he comes out)

In past tense, the verb denoting anterior (past) action nearest the deictic centre is the immediate past verb (e.g. simple past tense).

(S1, L68) C: He know the whole song. He go tell me oh I memorise all the whole song.

(He knows the whole song. He told me, “Oh I memorise the whole song”)

(S1, L82) A: They use that kind of leaf. You see. It's those kind of leaf outside. They go and take...

(S1, L83)... it and stick it together.

(They used those leaves outside by sticking them together)

4.4.15 Direct translation from local languages to English

It is common to find direct translation from local languages to English in Manglish, especially at the basilectal level where the structure of the sentence produced deviates significantly from the standard version due to direct word by word translation from L1. The instances in the following showed the meaning of each utterance as directly translated from Mandarin.

(S1, L73) C: Then he go dance...

(Ta qu tiao wu)- L1 translation

He goes dancing/ He dances

(S2, L237) C: That's my cousin!

(S2, L238) B: When did you spend time with him? [overlap with A]

(S2, L239) A: Oh... [overlap with B]

(S2, L240) D: Which one, which one, which one?

(Na yi ge?)- L1 translation.

Which boy is your cousin?

4.5 Code-mixing (CM) and code-switching (CS)

Pakir (1998, p. 66) explains that a code is any kind of system of signals that two or more people employ for communication or for sending a message. There are a total range of codes used in Malaysia which include Hokkien, Cantonese, Mandarin and other Chinese dialects, Malay, Tamil and English. Tay (1988, p. 38) suggests that a

code is selected for use by a speaker according to societal and social norms.

In relation to that, code-switching is often found among bilinguals or multilinguals and this practice may be interpreted as a negotiation of multiple identities. Milroy and Musyken (1995, p.7) define code-switching as “the alternative used by bilinguals of two or more languages in the same conversation.” Code switching is the embedding and mixing of words, sentences and phrases from two codes within the same speech event as well as across sentence boundaries. The switch between codes is prompted by a particular function, the interlocutors and the setting and the identity which the speaker wishes to project. The switching of languages can occur either at intersentential level (code-switching, CS henceforth), or intrasentential level (code-mixing, CM henceforth).

It was obvious that the use of loanwords/ borrowing in code-switching were common amongst the participants. There are instances of code-switching noted in the utterances to fulfil functions. This strategy occurred mostly in informal and causal speech (see appendix 3 Scene 2) which provides evidence for the existence of ‘uniquely’ Malaysian items given below.

4.5.1 Code switching of words

(a) To enact aggravating message

(S1, L96) B: Don't be so *bian tai* (Mandarin 'crazy' or 'pervert')

It is clear that B switched to Mandarin (*bian tai*) to show her annoyance at speaker A for acting crazy.

(b) To enact social relationship

(S2, L306) D: You go? We *belanja* (Malay 'spend') you *nasi lemak* (Malay borrowing – name of a Malay cuisine) and ice- cream.

(We will buy you *nasi lemak* and ice- cream as a treat)\

(S2, L310) A: *Belanja* (Malay 'spend') me 100 plus, plus nugget, plus the hash brown, plus the...

(S2, L311) D: Eh

(S2, L312) A: *Apa pun mahu*.

Speakers A and D used the word *belanja* in their utterances to show informality as well as to reduce the social gap between the speaker and the addressee. In Manglish, the word 'spend' is used to 'give someone a treat for something'. 'Spend' also known as *belanja* in Malay. It was used to function as a transitive verb that takes the objects 'you' and 'me' which is not common in SBE as well as SME.

Although ‘spend’ and *belanja* convey similar meanings, speakers A and D did not use the word ‘spend’ in their utterance. Instead, they direct translated the word spend to the Malay word *belanja* in order to reduce formality. It was also used to indicate closeness and intimacy among participants.

‘Spend’ is described as a verb that carries the meaning of ‘paying out money in exchange for goods and services’ in the Encarta Word English Dictionary (UK edition). However, with reference to the Collin’s Cobuild Concordance, there are four meanings of the transitive verb, none of which takes ‘you’ or ‘me’ as the object as used in Manglish. For example, the common expression used in the Malaysian context, I will *spend* you lunch (Manglish) instead of I will treat you to lunch (SME).

- Transitive and intransitive verb pay money: to pay out in exchange for goods or services.
- Transitive verb devote time or effort: to devote time, energy or thought to something.
- Transitive verb pass time: to pass a particular amount of time in a particular way or place.
- Transitive verb use something up: to deplete something totally.
- Transitive verb sacrifice something: to sacrifice something, especially for a cause.\

(c) For repetition and emphasis

(S1, L99) A: Hey you three, do you know Su ping is very *bao li* (Mandarin ‘violent’)?

She play, play football and then he go...

(S1, L100)... kick then pooow...then hit the boys and go for the ball.

The example above showed that speaker A was trying to emphasise his point (e.g. Su ping being violent) to his friend.

(S2, L344) A: Satu orang (Malay 'one person') also don't have, one orang (Malay 'person')

Speaker A felt it was necessary to emphasize the fact that no one was at Domino's by repeating the word orang (e.g. *satu orang = one orang*)

4.5.2 Code switching of phrase/sentences

(a) For repetition and emphasis

(S2, L287) A: If you get to be a movie star what will you do?drink everyday. ***He jiu he jiu yi zhi ...***

(S2, L288)... ***jiu*** (Mandarin 'Let's drink alcohol')

According to the example above, speaker A switched to Mandarin in the next sentence with the purpose of repeating what he had said before. In the previous sentence, speaker A was trying to explain his perception that a movie star consumes

alcoholic drink everyday. He repeated the phrase drink everyday with *he jiu he jiu yi zhi he jiu* (Let's drink). Another example with the element of emphasis is:

(S2, L360) B: I can see *Zheng lao shi* (Mandarin 'a teacher named Zheng') in a distance

(S2, L361) A: Can see *Zheng lao shi* in a distance.

(S2, L362) B: *Zheng lao shi* staring at us quick quick quick anymore anymore?

(b) To signal change of topic

(S2, L355) C: Of course lah you see you see how many things are posted on Facebook

(S2, L356) E: *Zoi ha hou hoi sam* (Cantonese 'I'm very happy')

The example showed that speaker C was trying to explain that many things were posted on Facebook. However, speaker E intended to change the topic by randomly saying *zoi ha hou hoi sam*.

Based on the data, it is interesting to see that the students are more likely to switch to their ethnic mother tongues, L1 (e.g. Mandarin, Hokkien and Cantonese as the participants re Chinese) as well as another local language, L2 or L3 (e.g. Malay), when they are outside the classroom (Situation 2) rather than inside the classroom (Situation 1). Regardless of the presence of the teacher in the class, some features of Manglish existed in both situations (formal and informal) as illustrated in the previous section on the analysis of the linguistic features of Manglish. Switching to other languages happened more frequently in an informal situation (Situation 2).

Giles and Coupland (1991, p.36) explain that “language choice can be used to build rapport as much as maintain distance, integrity or identity”. Goebel (2002) adds that the choice of a language over the other signifies different social meaning. The selection of an appropriate code is prompted by a particular function, interlocutors or setting is known as code-selection. Besides, code-switching is seen as a way to compensate for weakened language proficiency because they do not know either language completely. David (2003) argues that habitual code-switching was not always caused by limited proficiency in a language. For example, a fluent speaker tends to code-switch to the listener with fluency issues or a listener who has a preference for a particular language. David (2003) describes that code-switching is rare in the formal context, though it is possible for it to happen in a formal context. However, David (2003) realises that the functions of code switching in informal and formal situations are similar.

4.6 Summary on findings on Manglish lexical and syntactic features

The analysis of Manglish lexical and syntactic features has proven some common characteristics in the usage of Manglish among the students. It was found that particles such as *lah*, *mah*, *eh*, and *ah* are prominently evidents in the usage of Manglish among the students. This corresponded with the teachers’ account regarding the frequent use of particles *lah*, *ah*, *one* and *mah* among students. There were also important findings in terms of the syntactic features. It was gathered that the ellipsis of pronoun and copula were most evident. Another apparent characteristic would be the absence of operator *do* as well as subject-verb concord. Words like ‘really’, ‘you know’,

'can', 'cannot', 'got' and 'already' are indeed the features that are prominently identified throughout the oral interactions.

CHAPTER 5

THE CHOICE AND USAGE OF MANGLISH AND SME.

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the quantitative results of statistical analysis gathered from the survey (Appendix 2) which was carried out with the students. This chapter also discusses the qualitative results of content analysis gathered from the open-ended questionnaires (in Appendix 3) which were carried out with the teachers. The discussions are organised according to the flow: 5.1 and 5.2 and 5.3. Part 5.1 of this chapter describes the demographic profile of the students, followed by Part 5.2 which describes the attitudes of the students towards Manglish as well as the speaker of that variety. The final section, Part 5.3 of this chapter provides a discussion on the students' choice and usage of Manglish. Therefore, this chapter intends to analyze RQ2, RQ3 and RQ4 in this chapter:

- RQ2 What are the students' language choice (SME and/or Manglish) in formal and informal situations?
- RQ3 What are the factors (solidarity, identity and ethnicity, attitude, social status and medium of instruction) that influence the students' language choice in formal and informal situations?
- RQ4 What are students' attitudes towards the use of Manglish?

5.1 Demographic of Participants

100 questionnaires were disseminated to the Primary Six students of SRJK (C)

Damansara. 81 completed questionnaires were returned as shown in Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1 Number of questionnaire distributed

Class	No. of questionnaires distributed	No. of questionnaires returned
6H	34	30
6E	33	26
6M	33	25

The study was specifically aimed at Primary Six students aged 12 from 3 average classes. All of the participants were of Chinese background. This study managed to obtain an almost equal number of participants from both genders (see Table 5.2 below). The following figures indicate the demographics of the participants:

Table 5.2: Demographics of participants

	No. of males	No. of females	Total
6M	16	9	25
6H	11	19	30
6E	12	14	26

5.2 Attitude towards the Use of Manglish

5.2.1 Students' Attitude/Perception towards the Use of Manglish (and SME)

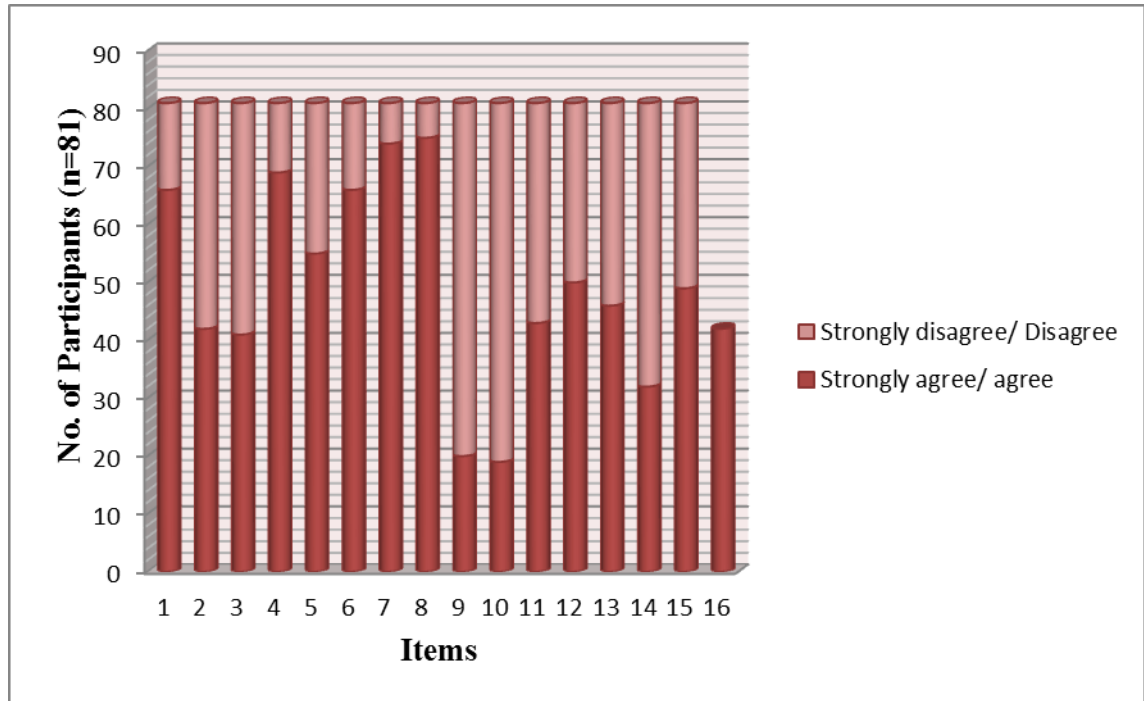


Figure 5.1: Students' Attitude/ Perception towards the use of Manglish (and SME)

The items in Part 2 (a) of the survey examine the participants' views regarding the use of Manglish and SME. The analysis of data is based on frequency count and percentage.

According to Figure 5.1, 66% of the participants chose Strongly Agree or Agree on 55% on item 5; 74% on item 7; 75% on item 8 and 50% on item 12. Any workforce that concerns with attaining recognition within an international community would make it a priority to make themselves understood when communicating with foreign counterparts. Bolton (2008) emphasises that the popular discussion of English in many

Asian communities often revolves around the “standard” of English. He adds that the governments of Asian societies, such as those of both Singapore and Hong Kong, have introduced in recent years various campaigns to improve standards of English at work and in public domains.

In Malaysia, the use of standard English is given great importance for facilitating international trade and communication. The priority is clearly evident from the positive attitudes towards item 1 and 6. 81.5% (n=66) of the participants agreed with the importance of being able to use SME in international interaction (Item 1) as well as to associate equally with other professionals from other parts of the world (Item 6). This positive attitude is prevalent in many countries where speakers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or English as a Second Language (ESL) are dominant (Luce, 1997; Widdowson, 1994). The participants seemed to understand this trend in language use, with 76.5% (n=66) acknowledging in item 10 that inserting words from their different cultures (Malay Chinese/Indian) does not necessarily improve the English used among Malaysians.

Besides, the participants were also aware of the ability to communicate using a commonly understood language is a crucial measure for success in any professional undertaking. Therefore, 85.2% (n= 69) of participants were affirmative about item 4 “If I do not have a good command of English, it will be difficult for me to get promoted once I start working”. However, Clyde (1994) describes it often takes more than just knowing how to use a language to ensure effective communication, it also requires mutual

respect among the participants.

Although the participants think that using SME helps to improve international communication and leads to better job opportunities, most of the participants (74%; n=60) disagreed that using Manglish gives the impression of people who are uneducated (item 17). Edward (1989) asserts that speaking a certain variety of language does not signify the intelligence of the speaker. Rather, an aspect of the speaker's identity that he or she consciously or unconsciously may wish to make known is reflected by the choice of a certain variety.

Romaine (2000) discovers that differences in language are tied to social class, which has been known for some time. In the Malaysian context, prestige is associated with the acrolect as it correlates well with a higher level of English-medium education and higher socio-economic status. An evaluation was conducted by Cummin (1987) on workplace speech and found that employees were graded more favourably by employers in terms of their competence, status and success if they use a higher standard of language variety. When the participants of this study (TUMS) were asked if speakers of SME are usually from higher status society, findings showed that 50.6% (n= 41) of the participants felt that speakers of SME are usually from higher status society (item 3).

Cummin (1987) adds “the status of a particular variety of English, whether prestige or stigmatised, is a social phenomenon; thus, status can often be attributed to external reasons and not to some intrinsic quality of the language variety”. Holmes

(2001) claims that the speech of less prestigious groups is associated with non-standard forms which inevitably acquire negative connotations. This explains the findings for item 13 which revealed that 56.8% (n= 46) of the participants believed that Manglish is inferior to SME. Regardless of its status, however, some Malaysians are able to switch from the standard to the non-standard variety and vice versa. However, Gill (2002) indicates that speakers with less proficiency in English do not have the ability to switch to the SME as the context becomes more formal.

Apart from that, the evidence revealed that about half (51.9%) the participants agreed with the statement “Manglish is mistakes made by people with poor English” (Item 15: n= 49; 60.5%) and “If I use Manglish, I will not be taken seriously by others” (Item 16: n= 42; 51.9%). Manglish, a non-standard variety of English differs considerably in vocabulary and grammar from SME. Manglish has simplified grammar in which the syntax has more in common with Malay, Mandarin, Hokkien and Cantonese than the native speaker’s English. It is also known as “broken English” and used by poor English speakers with limited proficiency in English (Gill, 2002). In fact, Kachru (1982) calls these variations as "deviations". He makes a distinction between "mistakes" and "deviations". "Deviations" are fully acceptable as linguistic innovations and they are the result of a productive process which marks the typical variety specific feature; and they are systematic within a variety. However, "mistakes" are imperfectly learnt forms of English and cannot be justified with reference to the socio cultural context of a non-native variety.

Baskaran (2005) believes that it is not unusual for good English speakers who use grammatically correct English to switch to Manglish according to the context. Similarly, a linguist named Dr Alister King, a writer of the Right for Business Column in MOE, supported the argument that a good English speaker may also choose Manglish ‘as a mark of intimacy and common identity’ (The Star, Dec 4, 2012).

In this study, the participants were able to recognise the importance of Manglish and the usefulness of the language. Evidence showed that the participants believed Manglish helped to build solidarity and rapport (item 12: n=50) as well as to express national identity (item 11: n=43). In fact, the participants strongly believed that other than SME, Manglish should also be embraced as a language of identity and remains a unique vehicle for intra- as well as inter-ethnic communication. Evidently, this could explain the participants’ negative attitude for item 9 - “Students should learn only SME instead of Manglish” where 76.5% (n= 62) of them disagreed with the statement. Furthermore, 60.5% (n= 49) of the participants disagreed with the statement that they would not be respected if they spoke Manglish (item 14).

Apparently, these participants believed that while Manglish is distinct from SME in some aspects of pronunciation, grammar and lexicon, it is nevertheless intelligible to most if not all native as well as non-native speakers of English. Similarly, the teachers provided with similar responses to the questions about their views on Manglish (question 2 of Appendix 3). From the evidence, it was clear that most of the teachers described Manglish as a variety that is distinct from other varieties of English.

Besides, the teachers valued the use of Manglish (question 3) which was evident in the responses provided by the teachers below.

Yes, localized and cordial

Yes, as long as the counterpart is understand and sometimes it is more friendly

Yes, it helps to communicate easily

Yeah, must suit our culture

Maybe, easier to communicate

However, there are concerns not only about the opportunities to hear and read English on television and radio, and in newspapers. There are also concerns pertaining to the kind of English language (standard and non-standard) that the Malaysians are exposed to through the media, especially with the limited exposure to native speaker of standard English. Based on the findings of this study, it was found that the participants (91.4%; n=74) were generally in agreement that listening to newsreaders and reporters who speak English is a good example to others of how English should be spoken (Item 7). It serves as a model despite the fact that the Malaysian mass media is not prescriptive in propagating standards of oral English.

Unlike in Britain, the mass media plays a prescriptive role whereby agreed-upon pronunciation of place names, uncommon literary or scientific words, and words in common use were published in Broadcast English (Leitner 1982, p.96). In fact, the

participants strongly acknowledged the importance of SME and a desire to learn SME. The findings revealed the participants clearly believed that those who do not write or speak SME but will take English courses to learn it (Item 8: 92.6%; n= 75).

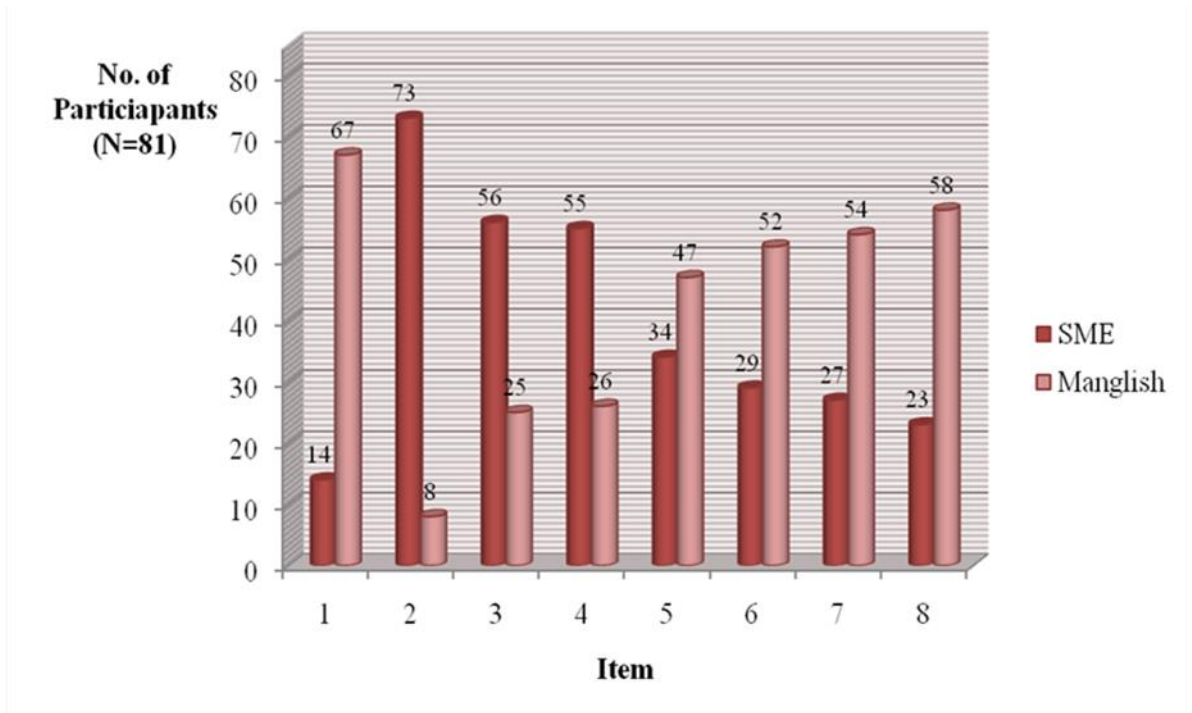


Figure 5.2 Language Choice in Different Situation

Figure 5.2 indicated that the responses to Manglish and SME in different situations. A speaker tends to choose the appropriate code for the right occasion, known as code selection. The selection of an appropriate code is prompted by a particular function, interlocutors or setting. The understanding of the students' language choice (Manglish or SME) according to different situations can be obtained through the findings from Part 2B of Appendix 2. These responses showed that they have a sense of when Manglish might be appropriate and when it might be less so in order to show an awareness and sensitivity to settings and audience. This part of the questionnaire was

used to address research question 2.

As presented in Figure 5.2, it is evident that Manglish was used with friends and classmates in school, outside lesson time (n=67; 82.7%); with family members and relatives (n=58; 71.6%); with friends and classmates during maths periods (n= 54; 66.7%); with friends and classmates during science periods (n=52; 64.2%); with friends and classmates during English periods (n=47; 58%). In other words, the participants would choose Manglish when communicating with family and relatives, friends and classmates rather than teachers. Manglish would be a preferred code in school, and if used in school, it would be outside lesson time. The participants also indicated that they will use Manglish during Mathematics, Science and English periods especially in the presence of a teacher.

Part 3 (C) of the questionnaire was able to draw some useful information regarding the students' attitude towards Manglish. This listening activity was able to yield important information based on the participants' responses by listening to the different variety A and B by an actual Malaysian speaker. Based on their judgment and knowledge, the students would determine which of variety represents the recordings.

Table 5.3: Identification of the recordings

	SME	Manglish
Recording A	84.0%	16.0%
Recording B	1.2%	98.8%

Table 5.3 showed the students' responses to the matched-guise recordings A and B. The participants were able to easily identify Manglish and SME based the recordings. Based on the table above, 98.8% of the participants identified recording B as Manglish due to the grammatical errors and use of particle lah and meh existed in recording B (Manglish), whereas recording A was identified as Standard Malaysian English (84.0%). The participants were able to relate to it as it was often used in informal everyday encounters as it sounded particularly informal and casual than recording A. Recording A was rated as SME as it sounded more formal than the variety in recording B.

5.2.2 Attitude/Perception towards the User of Manglish (and SME).

Table 5.4: Responses to the recordings (A and B)

Statement or Question	Recording A (%) (Standard Malaysian English, SME)	Recording B (%) (Manglish)
Part 3 (a): Intelligence/ Affinity/ Friendliness		
Do you think you sound like the speaker?	42.0%	65.4%
Would you like to sound like the speaker?	48.2%	24.7%
The speaker is intelligent	63.0%	22.2%
The speaker is friendly	48.2%	61.7%
I feel close to the speaker	35.8%	60.5%
The speaker is cool or trendy	58.0%	35.8%

Table 5.4, continued

Statement or Question	Recording A (%) (Standard Malaysian English, SME)	Recording B (%) (Manglish)
Part3(b): Appropriateness/Intelligence/ Approachability/ Fashionableness		
Do you feel it is appropriate for an English teacher to speak like this person?	60.5%	19.8%
I prefer my English teacher to speak like this	50.6%	14.8%
The English teacher is intelligent	80.3%	25.9%
The English teacher is a good teacher	74.1%	27.2%
The English teacher is close to the student	44.4%	59.3%
The English teacher is cool or trendy	33.3%	18.5%

This questionnaire also examined the students' attitude towards the user of Manglish (and SME). Table 5.4 indicated the responses to the matched-guise recordings regarding the students' attitudes towards the user of Manglish and SME. The items in (a) called for general responses based on questions and statements relating to the speaker (in terms of intelligence, affinity and friendliness) whereas the items in (b) were based on the assumption that the recordings were of their English in terms of appropriateness, intelligence, approachability and friendliness. A scale of 1 to 4 was given as follows: 1= Strongly Agree; 2= Agree; 3= Disagree; 4= Strongly Disagree.

Finding revealed that recording B (Manglish) received favourable responses when the participants were asked if they sound like the speaker (65.4%), whereas the total percentage who agreed that they sounded like the speaker in recording A (Standard Malaysian English) was 42.0%. However, only 24.7% of the participants agreed that

they would like to sound like the speaker in Manglish while almost half of the participants (48.2%) would like to sound like the speaker in recording A. Apart from that, the speaker of Manglish was perceived as friendly by 61.7% of the participants. They (60.5%) also indicated that they feel close to the speaker after listening to the speaker in Manglish. However, only 35.8% of the participants perceived Manglish speaker as fashionable (e.g. the speaker is cool or trendy).

Based on the finding above, it was clear that the participants would like to sound like the speaker of recording A (SME) rather than speaker B (Manglish), despite the fact that more than half of the participants thought they spoke like speaker B (Manglish). The participants realized the importance of SME however, they rated the speaker of recording B more favourably than that of recording A in terms of friendliness, closeness and fashionableness. Manglish scored the lowest in terms of fashionableness which suggested that speakers did not use it because it was fashionable or 'cool' and trendy. Instead, they chose Manglish to bridge the gap between their friends and made them sound friendlier. Furthermore, they did not regard Manglish as bad English because of its ability to reduce social distance as well as to establish group affinity. In other words, the participants are opting for solidarity as indicated by Milroy and Milroy (1999) and function as an identity marker as indicated by suggested by May (2005, p. 332), 'In theory then, language may well be just one of many markers of identity'.

In the context of a school, the importance of SME is well-established. English language in Malaysia is developed through formal instruction in schools (Wong, 1991). Schools provide training in SME in a context where students encounter non-standard varieties around them. Therefore, a teacher is expected to be a role model in promoting the standard language for universal intelligibility. For instance, when the participants of this study were asked to rate the speaker as their English teacher, the findings show that the majority of the participants (60.5%) thought that it was appropriate for their English teacher to speak Standard Malaysian English (recording A) rather than Manglish (recording B).

50.6% participants did not prefer English teacher to speak Manglish. Neither of the following statements received positive responses when the participants were asked if their English. Although teacher who uses Manglish is disregarded as cool or trendy, teacher who speaks Manglish is regarded as friendly.

In order to be competitive in the economic markets, students must be taught to distinguish between a variety of English that is used in informal social contexts and a variety that is more appropriate in formal contexts. Teachers should teach students the appropriate use of the varieties of English. Students need to develop their use of the varieties and to be comfortable with this flexibility because language is also a means of expressing our culture.

In Part 3B (b), Manglish is rated less favourably except for “The English teacher is close to the students”. Manglish was perceived as being inappropriate from an English teacher and they preferred English teacher to speak in SME. The findings also showed that the English teacher who uses SME was rated as intelligent and good. In other words, Manglish was rated as insignificant in terms of intelligence, teaching competence and fashionableness. However, it was significant in minimising social distance, as shown in the statement “The English teacher is close to the students”.

In a related study, Richard Humphries (1995) investigated Japanese college students’ attitudes towards accents of English. It was indicated that almost half of the students desired to acquire their teachers’ accents (Humphries, 1995). This phenomenon was pointed out clearly in another study conducted by Sifakis & Sougari (2005). In that study, English teachers used accent that was as native-like as possible in order to be a good role model to their students in terms of pronunciation (Sifakis & Sougari, 2005, p. 475).

However, the distinction between Manglish and SME might be rather more complex, as suggested by Alsagoff (2007) that instead of the complimentary formal/informal relationship between Manglish and SME, the functional complementarity ‘almost always exists on a gradient line’ and there is much more fluidity and complexity of use. This particular study showed the distinctions in relation to the audience (other students and teacher) and setting (formal or informal situation). The responses clearly revealed that there are occasions when some Manglish is appropriate, as well as

occasions when it is not.

5.3 Usage of Manglish and SME

This section covers RQ2 and RQ3 of this study. The following sections attempted to identify the context or situation where Manglish and SME were likely used. Subsequently, it also reveals the possible factors which influence the students' language choice in formal and informal situations. This section is then divided into 5.3.1, 5.3.2 and 5.3.3.

5.3.1 Situation and Context in the Usage of Manglish

The choice of using a particular language or code may be influenced by the situation and context where the interaction took place. Students tend to choose a variety or language depending on where and whom they are going to use it. In fact, findings from Part 2 (b) of questionnaire clearly showed the choice of language (Manglish or SME) in different situation and context. The findings confirmed that Manglish was a variety valued by the participants because it was used regularly, especially in an informal situation (outside the classroom; without the presence of a teacher). However, in a formal situation where Maths, Science and English periods was conducted, Manglish was used especially when they were with their friends and classmates.

In other words, when the situation or context became less formal, Manglish was used. Manglish was also used in a formal situations such as during Maths, Science and English periods but with classmates and friends. This showed that the students would

choose a non- standard variety, Manglish in both formal and informal situation. However, participants still believed that SME as their desired choice when teacher was present in formal situation especially during Maths, Science and English period.

The Malays, Chinese and Indians have their own mother tongue language (in this case, the majority of the participants are Chinese), the need for acquiring English varies from the second language and the third language– as Bahasa Malaysia is the official language. Hence, Manglish emerges as the lingua-franca (used in an informal setting) in this multiracial society. For example, a Chinese speaker would speak Manglish with certain words, phrases, particles understood by most Malaysians (e.g. Malays, Chinese or Indians). Instead of speaking a proper English for ‘It should be done like that!’ the Manglish version would be ‘Like that one’. Rosli and Ting Su Hie (1999) stipulate that code or language switching among ME II speakers are of common occurrence. There is a great amount of interference from the mother tongue found in Manglish as ME positions itself on the lectal continuum.

Although the use of standard English is very much desired, the significance of other varieties of the language, particularly Manglish, should not be dismissed. The importance of SME in academic and formal settings should be realised; but at the same time, we should be conscious of the communicative function of Manglish. Manglish helps students to bridge the gap between the use of acrolect among proponents in an academic setting and the basilect used among their peers to facilitate understanding. More importantly, Manglish has the social function of fostering ties. Students must

realise that dialects are not inferior languages and that they should be respected, and that Standard English is necessary only in a formal context.

5.3.2 Teachers' responses on students' choice of language in formal and informal situation

Nine teachers provided important information regarding the usage of Manglish and SME in formal and informal context through an open-ended questionnaire (Appendix 3). The analysis of the responses of the teachers was based on different contexts: informal situation (Part B) and formal situation (Part C).

The teachers' responses were unanimous. They indicated that English was one of the common languages used in an informal and formal situation (question 1 of Part B and C). However, when the teachers were asked to distinguish the variety of ME (SME or Manglish) used by the students in different situations (question 2), the findings (see Table 5.5) proved that students preferred Manglish than SME in both formal and informal situations.

Table 5.5: Language choice in formal and informal situation

Situation (n=9)	Manglish	SME
Part B Informal	6	3
Part C Formal	5	4

According to Low and Brown (2005), when two varieties of the same language exist in a community, the high variety (H) is used for formal purposes while the low variety (L) is reserved for informal occasions and is referred to as diglossic. Based on

the above findings, the diglossic approach advocated by Gupta (1986) is not applicable to the current situation in this study.

In Singapore, Gupta (1994, pp. 7-9) speaks at length about the diglossic situation in a country where the H variety is very much like standard English and is used for formal circumstances and in writing, whereas the L variety, also known as Singlish, is vastly different, especially in terms of syntax and morphology. She also states that it is used mainly at home and in casual situations.

However, the use of Singlish by those who have a command of both standard English and Singlish is not a result of error. Low and Brown (2005, p.37) indicate that the choice of language is likely to be based on the context and affective messaging instead of the educational level or socio-economic status of the speaker. Similarly, the current study (TUMS) proved that although SME was important as a compulsory language throughout all levels of primary and secondary schools (Lowenberg, 1991), Manglish was still considered the preferred language choice, regardless of the formality of the context (formal or informal).

Besides, some recreate the English language in the image of their mother tongues. Changes in language such as these are natural, particularly in Manglish. The processes of nativisation and indigenisation ensure permanent additions and modifications to the language, reflecting the force of cultural embedding (Moag, 1982).

5.3.2.1 Students' language choices when communicating with friends: Informal and Formal.

Although English is a common language used in a formal and informal situation, the teachers were able to reveal that there was more than just one language involved. In an informal situation, students sometimes used Chinese dialects, such as Mandarin, Cantonese, Hakka and Hokkien when they code-switch or code-mix. With Mandarin having the most frequency counts, the teachers stated that students preferred to switch to Mandarin as compared to other Chinese dialects.

Table 5.6: Other language choice in an informal situation

Other Choices of language in an informal situation	Frequency count
Mandarin	7
Cantonese	2
Hakka	1
Hokkien	1

(It is important to note that the frequency count does not indicate the number of participants. Instead, it indicates the occurrence of each of the languages mentioned in the responses. A participant may list more than one language)

With Mandarin as the students' preferred language for code switching, one participant explained that the students code switch to the Mandarin language because it was their mother tongue while another explained that Mandarin was chosen over other languages because most of the students in the class are Chinese. As many Malaysians possess a verbal repertoire containing more than two speech varieties, it is more

appropriate to speak of multilingualism and polyglossia, which refers to a situation where sometimes unrelated languages and language sub-varieties co-exist and are used for different domains (Platt, 1980). Therefore, the consequence of having a large verbal repertoire is that several linguistic codes appear in everyday interactions, each serving different functions (Low and Brown, 2005, p. 49).

Other than that, most of the teachers revealed that students switched from English to Mandarin even in a formal situation as illustrated in the following table 5.7.

Table 5.7: Other language choice in a formal situation

Other choices of language in a formal situation	Frequency count
Mandarin	4
English	3
Malay	1

(It is important to note that the frequency count does not indicate the number of participants. Instead, it indicates the occurrence of each of the languages mentioned in the responses. A participant may list more than one language.)

Two teachers claimed that some students switched to Mandarin in formal situation in order to understand the teacher better while others claimed that Mandarin was the students' mother tongue. A teacher revealed that code switching between English and Mandarin was common in the school as it is a Chinese medium school.

Mandarin, it is easier for them to understand what am I talking about
Mandarin, it is easier for them to understand
Mandarin, mother tongue
Mandarin, because it is the Chinese medium used in school

Code-mixing is the use of one or more languages for the consistent transfer of linguistic units from one language to another. Meanwhile, code switching is the embedding or mixing of words, phrases and sentences from two codes within the same speech event and across sentence boundaries. Low and Brown (2005) claim that the switch is prompted by the particular function, interlocutors, setting and identity that the speaker wishes to project. For example, this study proved that the students tend to switch to Mandarin when there is a change in the setting, from a formal class to a less formal, after class setting or when there is a change in the topic, as they are no longer discussing homework but other more casual concerns such as having lunch. In relation to that, evidence below showed one of the teacher's responses regarding code-mixing among students when talking to friends in an informal situation.

Slang, "mah" and "lah", occasionally mixing

5.3.2.2 Students' language choices when communicating with the teacher: Informal and formal situation.

Based on Table 5.8, the findings from question 5 of Part B and C (Appendix 3) showed significant findings which indicated that Mandarin was one of the students' preferred language interacting with their teacher, regardless of the situation (outside and inside of the classroom).

Table 5.8 Language choice in formal and informal situation

Informal (Part B)	Formal (Part C)
Mandarin (n=4)	Mandarin (n=4)
Manglish (n=2)	SME (n=2)
SME (n=1)	Manglish (n=1)

One of the factors for the usage of Mandarin is that Mandarin is the formal language in Chinese schools as shown in the extracts below.

Mandarin, Mandarin is a formal language in Chinese schools

Mandarin, formal Mandarin language

Other than Mandarin, Manglish was often the preferred choice, as it was a sign of solidarity and camaraderie, even for speakers who are highly proficient in standard English. Nativised English such as Manglish is acceptable for communicating socially and informally. It gives one a strong sense of identity, which is reflected by the distinct phonology, which is influenced by their ethnic tongues, lexical items that are socio-culturally grounded and syntactic structures that are distinctly Malaysian in form (Thirusanku and Yunus, 2012). This could explain the usage of Manglish in an informal situation as shown in the evidences below that the students use Manglish in order to sound friendlier and feel more comfortable while communicating with their teachers in an informal context.

Manglish, more friendly (informal)

Manglish, they feel more comfortable (informal)

In a formal situation, however, the participants indicated that SME is the students' preferred choice when communicating with their teachers. They explained that students choose SME because they have been trained by the teachers to speak good English as well as to avoid communication breakdown.

SME, to avoid communication breakdown (formal)

SME, they have been taught by the teacher to do so (formal)

It is crucial that students use proper grammar and vocabulary in order to avoid communication breakdown. Smith (1992) carried out an experiment using speakers of nine varieties of English from China, India, Indonesia, Japan, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines, Taiwan, the United Kingdom and the United States in order to discover whether “the spread of English is creating greater problems of understanding across cultures” (Smith, 1992, p. 88). Smith's research indicated that there was no evidence of a breakdown in communication among the speakers of the different national varieties of English. However, it was interesting to find “native speakers (from Britain and the US) were not found to be the most easily understood nor were they, as subjects found to be the best able to understand the different varieties of English” (Smith, 1992, p. 88).

Therefore, it is not the aim for Malaysian students to speak like a native speaker. In the introduction to the revised English Curriculum Specifications for Form One, the notes with regards to sound systems say “to help learners pronounce words correctly and speak with correct stress, intonation and rhythm, specific sounds (e.g. blends,

diphthongs) have been identified for teaching. The objective of this exercise is to aim for clear speech and intelligibility” (Ministry of Education, 2003, p.3), as Thirusanku and Yunus (2012, p. 8) describe how the “acrolect” variety is a Standard Malaysian English with local phonology.

5.3.3 Factors Influencing the Usage of Manglish and SME

Language is likely to be used differently in different location. By comparing different groups of speakers or the same speakers in different situations, the features of a language may differ systematically. Moreover, the ability to recognise a particular situation or type of domain and sub-domain by being aware of the locality, the type of interlocutor and the topic the speaker is dealing with helps determine which language is appropriate for that particular situation. For example, when having discussion with the principal about a child’s progress in school, only certain codes would be appropriate. A teacher would unlikely to choose a non-standard variety during a discussion with the principal even though both of them may have that code in their verbal repertoire. If the parent of the child spoke English to the principal, the principal would use a semi- formal variety of SE.

Based on the example, this section discusses the possible factors influencing the usage of Manglish and SME in formal and informal situation. This present study was able to determine that the selection of code in this group of students depends on the interaction of a number of factors. This study considered a few possible factors: (1) formality of the situation (2) the students’ own repertoire, his awareness of codes that

are appropriate for that particular situation (3) ethnicity (4) influence of local languages (5) sense of solidarity (6) speakers' attitude toward (a) the language and (b) speakers of that language.

One of the important factors contributing to the different language choice is the formality of the situation. Besides asking who uses which variant and how much, we may also ask whether there are situational differences in when a single speaker uses these variants. One variant in the situation may be described as degree of formality.

According to the findings from Part 2b of Appendix 2, the findings indicated that in informal situation with their peers, the participants were likely use Manglish whereas majority of the participants used SME with their teachers in a formal situation where teacher (English, Maths and Science) was involved.

These findings implied that they tended to switch from one variety to another based on the formality of the situation. Holmes (2001, p. 354) explains that the number of non-standard forms increases in relaxed casual contexts such as outside the classroom and at home. She adds that these forms express the friendliness and relaxed attitudes appropriate in casual context. However, evidence showed that Manglish was also used in a formal situation (during Maths, Science and English periods) especially with friends and classmates. The students believed that usage of non-standard variety such as Manglish helps to bridge the gap between the students as well as to create a more relaxed environment for the students to engage their conversation.

This was consistent with the findings from Part 3 of Appendix 2, the students gave a clear input about speaker who uses Manglish in Recording B. They indicated that speaker B was likely to sound friendlier than the speaker who used SME in Recording A. They further revealed that they feel closer to the speaker if they use Manglish.

In addition, the findings from item 4 of Part B and C showed significant information. Other than English, students tended to switch to Mandarin regardless of the formality of the situations. Mandarin has become one of their dominant languages used in their everyday oral interactions. Teachers indicated the students consisted of Chinese students and therefore chose Mandarin (mother tongue) to achieve effective communication and mutual understanding in formal or informal situations. It was used as a signal of identity and solidarity. Below are the examples from the teachers' responses:

Mandarin, mother tongue

Mandarin, because it is the Chinese medium used in school

Mandarin, because there are more Chinese in our class (informal)

Mandarin, mother tongue (informal)

In certain sub-domains such as when talking to teachers in primary school or speaking to classmates of the same mother tongue, ethnic languages were preferred. A possible explanation for this language behavior illustrates that patterns of language choice and use are often tied closely to notions of identity and solidarity. Researcher like Gal (1979) opines whatever the social situations, only the identity of the participants determines language choice.

As far as ethnic identity is concerned, Gal (1979) says that the choice of language can be predicted if one knows the identity of the informant and of the interlocutor. Holmes (2005) adds that people may use short phrases, verbal fillers or linguistic tags which signal ethnicity or identity even when a complete conversation in an ethnic language is not possible. Moreover, when there is a choice of language or communication, it is often possible for an individual to signal their ethnicity by the language they choose to use or switch. Pool (1979) suggests that the language to which a speaker shifts is a better predictor of his/her ethnic background than is the language from which he/she shifts.

In a previous study, Abu, Chan and Ain (2007) conducted their research “Patterns of Language Choice in the Education Domain: The Malaysian Context” through a questionnaire among 300 UPM (University Putra Malaysia) undergraduates which comprised of different ethnicities. One of the findings revealed that the Chinese students chose Chinese languages naturally as compared to other languages such as Malay and English when speaking to their primary teachers. As for the Malays, they chose BM more followed by English. The Indians choose BM, followed by English. They also chose the Indian languages.

In comparison, the undergraduate students chose English more than any other ethnic groups in this domain. Students from the Other ethnic groups chose BM followed by English. They did not choose the Chinese and Indian languages. Apparently, Malays, Indians and students from Others ethnic groups chose BM more whereas Chinese chose

Chinese languages more in this sub-domain. The reason for the language choice was that Chinese students attended Chinese medium primary school and others join the BM medium primary school.

In relation to that, this previous study confirmed the information provided by the teachers in this current study. Due to the fact that the participants of the current study were mostly Chinese students in a Chinese vernacular school where Mandarin was the medium of instruction, it was inevitable that the choice of language may be influenced by their ethnicity.

In Malaysia, the typical verbal repertoires would be influenced by the ethnic background of the speakers. Platt and Weber (1980) lists the typical verbal repertoire of Malaysian Chinese which may include (a) the native Chinese dialect (b) the dominant Chinese dialect (c) One or more additional Chinese dialects (d) Bahasa Pasar (e) Mandarin (f) English (g) Malay. As far as Mandarin is concerned, the competence in Mandarin would vary according to whether or not the person has had a Chinese-medium education. The younger group of Malaysian Chinese may not have any knowledge of Mandarin unless they have been to a Chinese-medium primary school or taken Mandarin at special private night classes which are available in some urban centres. The chances of the students from the current study (TUMS) using Mandarin at their disposal was high especially when Mandarin was the medium of instruction. Besides, all of the teachers who participated in the survey were mostly of Chinese descent and Mandarin may also be one of their common verbal repertoires. This would

have encouraged the use of Mandarin among the students.

Based on the students' own repertoire, they were able to select appropriate codes in appropriate situations. Fishman (1964, 1968a) suggests that one language may be more appropriate than another in certain domains. Fishman also asserts, "proper usage indicates that only one of the co-available languages or varieties will be chosen by particular classes or interlocutors on particular kinds of occasions to discuss particular kinds of topics" (Dil, 1972, p.244). Platt and Weber (1980) states that the type of language used was merely based on the formality of the situation and the person whom they are speaking to.

Most scholars working in the area of attitudes and language have looked at attitudes towards different languages. However, Thomas (2004) points out that attitude towards language and language use can also focus on attitudes towards particular varieties of the same language. She highlights the negative reactions towards non-standard varieties of English in Britain or towards African American vernacular usage in the United States (Thomas, 2004).

There are many instances when a particular variety is stigmatised and thought to be inferior to another variety. This usually happens in the direction of standard language speakers towards speakers of non-standard languages. Baker's research used the Likert scale for measuring attitudes. It is an attitude scale which measures agreement to a number of statements in terms of a fixed range of levels (Payne, 2004). In this study

(TUMS), the participants developed attitudes towards language which reflect their views about those who speak the language and the context and functions with which they are associated.

According to the findings from Figure 2b, the students chose Manglish over SME in order to professed social rapport amongst its speakers. The finding from Part 2C was able to justify their attitude towards Manglish. The students revealed that speaker who uses Manglish sounded friendlier than SME. Besides, they indicated that they felt a sense of closeness to the speaker who uses the non- standard variety. Besides, they indicated that Manglish would help reduce the social distance between the teacher and students if they were to have the Manglish speaker as their English speaker.

On the contrary, a very strong sentiment professed by the students towards SME in a formal situation (with their teacher or in the classroom). According to Holmes (2005), attitudes to a language are strongly influenced by social and political factors. In fact, SME also known as the acrolect variety is a language of prestige which is appropriate in many formal settings. Apart from being a desirable educational target, SME is essentially a written variety mainly designed for business purposes and for instructional use (Widdowson, 1994). Prestige is defined as a property of speakers or group of speakers, some of whom are accorded higher social prestige.

In a similar research carried out by Wang (1987), SME was still considered the most desirable model although indications were made that Manglish is a commonly

used model. Out of the 57 subjects, 26 (or 45.6%) of them would like to follow a spoken English course with standard English as the model while only 17 subjects (or 29.8%) would like to follow a course with Manglish as a model. Besides, in a study conducted outside of Malaysia such as England on accents, standard accents of English were also highly regarded by those who do not use them.

5.4 Summary

Other than Manglish and SME, the analysis has provided insights involving other language such as Mandarin. It was indicated that students chose to use Mandarin with teachers in formal and informal situation. Their choice of language in these situations was based on a few possible factors such as formality, mother tongue, medium of instruction, ethnicity of speaker and listener, sense of solidarity and rapport as well as speakers' attitude toward the language and its speakers. Majority of the students realized the necessity of learning English in this era of globalization and they reported their strong positive attitude towards SME. However, Manglish was not totally brushed aside. Manglish speakers are regarded as friendly and approachable. In fact, the students valued Manglish as it symbolized their identity as a Malaysian and it "belongs uniquely to them". (Wong & Thambyrajah, 1991).

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

6.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the outcome of this study is summarized and concluded in relation to its objectives. In achieving the aims of this study, implications of the study to the related field as well as recommendations for future research are also included in this chapter.

6.1 Summary of Main Findings

The summaries of findings presented in the following subsections are used to address the following research questions:

- RQ1 What are the linguistic features found in the usage of Manglish?
- RQ2 What are the students' language choices (SME/Manglish) in formal and informal situation?
- RQ3 What are the factors (solidarity, identity and ethnicity, attitude, social status and medium of instruction) that influence the students' language choice in formal and informal situations?
- RQ4 What are the students' attitudes towards Manglish?

6.1.1 Lexical and Syntactic features of Manglish

As thoroughly discussed in Chapter 4, a number of lexical as well as syntactic features of ME were significantly present in the data, all of which were identified and described based on the various characteristic features of ME. For a more comprehensive overview, a summary of the findings of lexical and syntactic features are presented in Table 6.1 and Table 6.2 respectively.

Table 6.1: Summary of findings on lexical features in the usage of Manglish

No.	Features	Sub-types	Example	
1	Local Language Referent	1.1 Cultural/ Culinary items 1.2 Emotional / Cultural Loading 1.3 Semantic Restriction 1.4 Hyponymous Collocation	<i>Teh O</i> <i>Teh O ais</i> <i>limau</i> <i>Nasi lemak</i> <i>Kopitiam</i> <i>Pondan</i> <i>Kungfu</i> <i>Botak Hair</i> <i>Pandan leaf</i>	Baskaran (2005)
2	Standard English Lexicalisation	2.1 Informalisation 2.2 Directional Reversal 2.3 Polysemic Variation	See Damn Shit Shit Sucks Something Last time Your head Heck Go Shooting	

Table 6.1, continued

No	Feature	Sub-types	Example	
3	Morphological Processes	<p>3.1 Compounding</p> <p>3.2 Conversion</p> <p>3.3 Acronym/ Abbreviation</p> <p>3.4 Clipping</p> <p>3.5 Reduplication (a) To express continuity (if double reduplication applies to verbs) (b) To express intensification (if reduplication applies to one or two syllable adjectives)</p> <p>3.6 Borrowing</p>	<p>Botakhair Kopitiam Facebook</p> <p>Conversation Friend</p> <p>KL KLCC MTV K Pop LRT TV</p> <p>-dy</p> <p><i>Perfecto</i> <i>Oppa</i> <i>Gangnam</i> <i>Style</i></p>	<p>Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2003)</p> <p>Low and Brown (2005)</p> <p>Low and Deterding (2005)</p> <p>Baskaran (2005)</p>
4	Particles	<p>4.1 <i>Lah/ La</i> a. To express contradiction/disagreement b. To approve/suggest c. To persuade</p>	P.96	<p>Lim (2007)</p> <p>Low and Brown (2005)</p> <p>Baskaran</p>

Table 6.1, continued

No	Feature	Sub-types	Example	
		<p>d.To express obviousness</p> <p>e.To express annoyance</p> <p>f.To express a matter-of- factness</p> <p>4.2 <i>Meh</i></p> <p>a. To question a presupposition</p> <p>4.3 <i>Ah</i></p> <p>a. To mark a question; response is required from interlocutor</p> <p>b. To signal continuity or explanation</p> <p>4.4 <i>Eh</i></p> <p>a. To establish rapport and to indicate the likelihood of an agreeable response</p> <p>b. To express surprise or disbelief</p> <p>4.5 <i>Mah</i></p> <p>a. To state the obvious</p> <p>4.6 <i>One</i></p> <p>a. As a marker for definitive</p>	<p>P.98</p> <p>P.99</p> <p>P.100</p> <p>P.101</p> <p>P.102</p>	<p>(2005)</p>

Table 6.1, continued

No	Feature	Sub-types	Example	
5	Exclamation	b. As a restrictive relative pronoun	P.103	
		4.7 What a. To express obviousness/strong assertion	P.104	
		5.1 <i>Aiyo</i> a. To express disagreement		

Table 6.2: Summary of findings on syntactic features in the usage of Manglish

No.	Features	Sub-types	Example	
1	Noun Phrase Structure- Pronoun Ellipsis	Subject Omission		Baskaran (2005) Low and Brown (2005) Platt and Wong (1983) Low Deterding (2005)
2	Non- auxiliary be	Omission of the verb <i>be</i>		
3	Copula Ellipsis/ Omission/ Deletion	(a) Subject-verb- object (b) Subject-Auxiliary Inversion		
4	Absence of Operator 'do'	Omission of operator 'do' in interrogatives		
5	Substitution of there + be with the existential 'got'			

Table 6.2, continued

No	Features	Sub-types	Example	
6	Use of aspectual marker 'already'	-dy	P.118	Low and Deterding (2005) Low and Brown (2005)
7	The kena passive			Baskaran (2005)
8	Also			
9	No need			
10	Can			
11	Go			
12	You know			
13	Really		P.119	
14	Subject- Verb or Concord		P.119	Baskaran (2005)
15	Direct translation from local languages to English		P.121	Lowernberg (1992) Baskaran (1988)
16	Code-switching			
	Code-switching of words	(a) To enact aggravating message (b) To enact social relationship (c) For repetition and emphasis	P.121	Holmes (2001) Auer (1998)

Table 6.2, continued

No	Features	Sub-types	Example	
	Code-switching of phrase/sentence	(a) For repetition and emphasis (b) To signal change of topic	P.125	

The differences that were illustrated in the study of lexical features can be seen not only in terms of meaning but also in terms of the word formation involved. There were cultural or culinary items that were distinctly Malaysian and cannot be translated into SBE. Hence, they were being regarded as Official ME or Acrolectal. There were also items that were originally English words which carry different meanings in Manglish (e.g. informalisation and polysemic variation) indicating a more informal style and register. As a result, semantic extension of these items was taken into consideration. It was apparent that these items were not commonly utilized in a formal context because they did not carry similar meanings as they did in SME or SBE. Therefore, they were placed along a basilectal-mesolectal continuum.

There were a few significant findings pertaining to the features of Manglish gathered from this study. First, some of the well-known and much documented feature of Manglish which was widely used in the students' usage of Manglish were pragmatic particles such as *lah*, *mah*, *meh*, *ah*, and so on. The teachers in this study (TUMS) also were able to prove the frequent use of particles especially *lah* and *meh* among the most frequent particles used by the students in both formal and informal situations.

These particles were localised due to the influence of the substrate languages (contains pragmatic and grammatical functions). These particles were used to signal identity which tended to occur in formal or informal situations especially when the speakers were mostly Chinese speakers. For example, the particle *meh* as described by Wong (1994) is restricted to ethnically Chinese speakers. It is usually pronounced with a high level tone mainly used to indicate pragmatic functions such as surprise and indignation. *Lah* was used frequently throughout the recording of the students' conversations due to its function as a marker to establish solidarity and support (Richards and Tay, 1977).

Apart from that, the phonemic substitution in Malay loanwords was not uncommon. The reproduction of Malay words in ME involved complete morphemic importation with little phonemic substitution. Hence, simple words like *nasi lemak* were reproduced in ME in their original Malay spelling. The presence of these borrowed words from the Malay, Chinese and Indian communities was due to linguistic acculturation. It is a process by which English is adapted to function effectively in non-Western, multilingual speech communities.

On the syntactic level, the influence of L1 plays an important part in contributing to the features of Manglish. From the analysis of Manglish syntactical features, subject-verb agreement, pronoun ellipsis, subject omission and copula omission were prominently identified in the data. Words like 'got', 'already', 'also', 'one' and 'can' as well as 'no need' were also evident as part of the Manglish feature.

The structure involved deviated significantly from the SME equivalent which required major restructuring with the aim to translate the context into SME. These were the features of colloquial ME which can be put along the basilectal to mesolectal continuum. These linguistic features of Manglish were reflected in the utterances of the participants inside and outside classroom.

6.1.2 Language choice in formal and informal situation

This part of the discussion aimed to answer research question 2. The data were obtained from two surveys (Appendix 2 and 3) aimed at students and teachers.

6.1.2.1 Choice of language based on the type of audience in formal and informal situation

There was a dichotomy in the language use whereby students chose to use different variety according to whom they were speaking to. Manglish may proved to be the students' choice of language with friends and classmates (both inside and outside of the classroom). However, SME was proven to be their ideal choice of language among the participants when communicating with the teacher or when the teacher was present, during English, Maths and Science period. Teachers (especially the English teacher) were expected to be a good role model to their students; therefore students develop a desire to speak like their teacher especially in a formal situation.

A study of the students' choice of language between SSE and Singlish by Harada (2009) provided similar evidence which could be used to substantiate the

findings from this current study. According to the Harada's (2009) findings, Singlish was used when talking with people who were close to them such as family members and friends while SSE was used with superiors (such as teachers) and most foreigners. However, additional information from the current study (TUMS) showed that Mandarin was also their choice language when speaking to their teacher in a formal and informal situation. This phenomenon could be explained in the next section.

6.1.2.2 Choice of language based on identity of speaker in formal and informal situation

Landweer (2007) claims while language choice can serve as a marker of ethnic identity, a strong ethnic identity can influence language choice. Many ethnic groups used distinctive languages to associate their ethnic identities. Being an official language in the school, it is not uncommon for students to choose Mandarin as an alternative code of communication when communicating with their teachers in formal and informal situations. The fact that most of the students of the school were of Chinese background, students were susceptible to using language which was familiar to them. This has contributed to the understanding of the students' choice of language.

The role of Manglish should not be neglected as a language of identity, particularly among the younger generation. This could possibly explain the students' choice for Manglish over standard variety in both situations. The fact that Manglish gave the feeling of solidarity and camaraderie especially among the students, students preferred to use Manglish when they were communicating with a particular audience

such friends and classmates in a formal or informal situation. Kachru (1990) suggests that a non-standard variety is chosen to identify with the other members of a group in order to avoid being regarded as an outsider. To fulfill that purpose, local linguistic items were added to that English Language discourse of a non-native speaker to reflect group identity as a Malaysian.

6.1.3 Factors influencing the students' language choice

The next discussion will be made by sketching the possible factors which could potentially affect the students' language choice which aimed at addressing research question 3.

Unlike the study from Tan and Tan (2004) and Harada (2009) which focused mainly on attitudes towards Singlish and SSE as well as their choice between these two varieties in different situations, this current study (TUMS) goes beyond examining the students' choice of language. It investigated further into the factors which may possibly influence the students' language choice in formal and informal situations based on the account of the students as well as their teachers.

6.1.3.1 Solidarity and rapport

Living in a multicultural country where different languages and varieties of Malaysian English coexist, many young students are exposed to more than one of these varieties often on a daily basis. One reason that could explain this phenomenon was solidarity and rapport may possibly be one of the factors that the students used

Manglish with their friends and classmates in formal and informal situation. It helped to create a more intimate atmosphere where students could be more at ease during interaction as they sounded friendly if they use Manglish.

6.1.3.2 Identity and ethnicity

Identity can be expressed and constructed by our speech. Manglish has gradually functioned as a means to establish rapport between Malaysians of different ethnicity and has contributed to all Malaysians having a strong sense of identity (Venugopal, 1997). Many ethnic groups use distinctive languages to associate with their ethnic identities. To illustrate, speakers tend to code-switch using short phrases, verbal fillers or linguistic tags from other languages to signal identity. Lipski (1982, p. 46) indicate that “when speakers are unable to find ready expression by remaining within a single language, two codes will be juxtaposed to achieve some particular effect”.

In this current study (TUMS), the teachers were able to point out the use of Mandarin in both formal and informal situations. Teachers claimed that the students used Mandarin because it symbolized their mother tongue. Using a common language such as Mandarin allowed them to communicate effectively especially when the teachers were from the same ethnicity.

6.1.3.3 Attitude towards a variety and its speakers

Attitude towards a variety and the speakers of that particular variety may also affect their choice of language in different situations. In Popham’s (2011) point of view,

students' attitudes, interests, and values are important to us as those variables typically influence future behavior. According to Wenden (1991), the attitude involves the person's emotions towards an object, 'likes' or 'dislikes', 'with' or 'against.

This study was able to discover a very strong sentiment professed by the students towards SME variety. The students hold strong views towards the speaker of the language. According to Holmes (2005), attitudes to a language are strongly influenced by social and political factors. The students developed attitudes towards language which reflect their views about those who speak the language and the context and functions with which they are associated. The students perceived the standard variety such as SME as a language of prestige which is appropriate in many formal settings. Besides, they pointed out that they will be regarded as intelligent, fashionable and trendy if they use SME. Teachers are good example of how English should be spoken

Although students identified themselves as Manglish speakers, they still prefer to speak like SME speakers. However, they did not eliminate Manglish; instead they embraced the non-standard variety as it gave people the impression friendly and approachable if they use Manglish. According to Gatbonton, Trofimovich, & Magid (2005), they believe that the use of Manglish may not reflect a speaker's lack of ability or interest. In fact, the use of Manglish was due to the pressure coming from the social groups in which the speaker belongs such as fellow students and friends as well as family members. In this regard, speaking a certain variety of language does not indicate

the intelligence of the speaker. The choice of a certain variety tends to reflect a part of the speaker's identity that he or she consciously or unconsciously may wish to maintain.

6.1.3.4 Social status and level of education

Social factors such as status and education will contribute to the use of a variety or code. SME is as highly regarded as it signify status, denotes education and a good socio-economic background". Holmes (2001, p.48) defines status as "deference or respect that people give someone or do. Status relationship between people may be relevant in selecting appropriate code. For example, in Bakuvu, a high status official will be addressed in standard Swahili in many contexts.

Crismore, Ngeow and Soo (2003) state that higher social status speakers who have more advantages over others in terms of wealth, education and income are embodied by socially high value language forms such as SME. Besides, social role may also be important and is often a factor contributing to status differences between people. For example, teacher-students, doctor-patient and official-citizen. In the Malaysian context, prestige is associated with the acrolect (or SME) as it correlated well with a higher level of English- medium education and higher socio- economic status. These choices entail variety choices.

The students believed that using a standard variety such as SME brings good impression and a way to gain respect and honour which is unlikely to achieve using a non- standard form such as Manglish. However, the study of attitudes of high school

students' attitude towards English and towards Fil-English in private and public schools, in Ormoc City, Philippines showed different perspectives regarding the role of English and Fil- English. The study was conducted among 280 high school students using a qualitative and quantitative method. The students believed English is important in terms of professional and social implications, academic and professional success as well as aiding effortless international communication.

Meanwhile, Fil-English was a way to gain respect because it signifies socio-economic background for example wealth, education, intellectual competence and social class. The students' attitudes towards code-switching were favorable because they claimed that switching between these two languages; Filipino and English was a part of the Philippine language culture. In addition, it elicited good impressions from the interlocutors and considered it as a social technique to gain respect because it showed that the speakers possessed good proficiency in both languages by switching between the two languages effortlessly. In Malaysia, code switching between local languages and English may due to various other reasons such as to reduce social distance, low English proficiency and promote solidarity and rapport.

6.1.4 Attitudes towards Manglish and SME

The results from the closed- ended questionnaire in Appendix 2 were mainly to address research question 4.

6.1.4.1 Importance of SME for international intelligibility

Living in a world where geographical boundaries of countries no longer matter for international exchanges, SME is the standard language for international relations. It was argued that good command of English is necessary in order for Malaysia to play an active role in world political and economic activities in the era of globalization. This was proven in the findings where majority of the students perceived SME allows them to be understood internationally. In the same vein, they were generally affirmative of SME as it allows them to deal equally with other professionals from other countries. Similarly, all the teachers considered SME as an important language to learn. They mentioned that SME is the medium of international communications as it makes communication easier especially in this globalized world.

It is important that Malaysians used standard English that is internationally intelligible in order to remain globally competitive. Wong considers the acrolectal variety or SME to model itself after the standard formal and written native speaker variety of English such as the British English. It is the standard form which is grammatically similar to standard British English. However, it is neither spoken with the same pronunciation nor with the prosodic features of the native speaker's standard variety of English. It is considered the prestigious form of English, either spoken or written, which is appropriate for formal context. It is also taught and learnt in the Malaysian schools.

In countries where English plays an institutional or official role, the motivation to learn English is likely to be far greater. The ENL/ESL/EFL distinction has been helpful in certain contexts. However, this classification has shortcomings. The term “native language” is often misunderstood. As speakers in ENL countries are described as native speakers, people feel that the variety used is a standard variety that is spoken by all of the people. People also perceived that ENL is innately superior to ESL and EFL varieties and become a good model of English for people in ESL and EFL countries to follow. In actual fact, many different varieties of English are spoken in ENL countries. Thus, the idea that everyone speaks the same “standard model” is simply incorrect. Moreover, the suggestion to use ENL as “the model” ignores the fact that such a model might be inappropriate in ESL countries where the local variety would be a more acceptable model (in this study, it is the SME), as there are many fluent speakers and expert users of that particular variety.

6.1.4.2 SME as a language of communication, education and prestige

Majority of the students in this study continued to show great interest in SME and insisted that they would attend classes to learn SME. The standard language is always a particular variety which has gained its special position as a result of social, economic and political influences. The fact that standard variety is the one which is described and fixed or standardised in grammar books and dictionaries, people tend to associate this variety to education and high status. Holmes (2005, p. 76) claims that standard English has gained prestigious and influential which is generally used by educated and socially prestigious members of the community. Similarly, an evaluation

was conducted by Cummin (1987) on workplace speech and found that employees were graded more favourably by employers in terms of their competence, status and success if they use a higher standard of language variety.

6.1.4.3 Manglish as an inferior language

Linguistic forms which are not part of standard English are defined as non-standard. This was the case for Manglish. Some students believed that Manglish is inferior to SME and considered Manglish as mistakes made by people with poor English. Crismore et al.'s study (2006) confirmed the current findings. They conducted an investigation regarding the language attitudes of 60 Malaysian university teachers and 439 students towards the non-standard variety of English. A 16-item Likert questionnaire was used to gather data regarding the use of Manglish. Results indicated that the university teachers and students accepted the functionality and pragmatic need for Manglish. However, they were determined to learn SME because they regarded Manglish as being "inferior" or "wrong" English.

However, Holmes (2001, p. 133) refutes the fact that the non-standard forms are more inferior than the standard forms. Holmes (2001) adds that there is nothing linguistically inferior about non-standard forms. Instead, they are just different from the forms which happen to be used by more socially prestigious speakers. Even SME or acrolect speakers may switch to Manglish to accommodate the situation and the people from different social status and class. Switching between the two varieties aids communication both in local and international domains. It also helps to attain

information transparency “because the individual can express himself/herself better if he/she uses Manglish” (Gill, 2002). However, speakers with less proficiency in English do not have the ability to switch to the SME as the context becomes more formal (Gill, 2002) and tend to choose Manglish most of the time. However, Manglish is not restricted to people with poor English proficiency. A good English speaker may also choose Manglish as a mark of intimacy and common identity.

Furthermore, those who are able to use more than one dialect/variety have the advantage over people who can only use one. They have a dialect or variety that can express their own identity and a dialect or variety that can be used for intelligibility on the international level. Crystal (2003) makes comparisons with the English language situation in Singapore and mentioned that, “a bidialectical (or bilingual) policy allows a people to look both ways at once, and would be the most effective way of the country achieving its aims.” (Crystal, 2003, 176)

6.1.4.4 The role of Manglish in signifying national identity and bond between fellow Malaysians

Manglish carries an important functional role in signifying one’s national identity. In a study on the roles of Standard Singapore English (SSE) and Singlish, Harada (2009) conducted a questionnaire survey examining the attitudes of 30 educated Chinese Singaporeans who can speak both SSE and Singlish. SSE was rated as a language of education and business, whereas Singlish was a language of identity. However, Singaporeans did not choose one of the two varieties of English and eliminate

the other. Both varieties can co-exist because Singaporeans possess the ability to switch freely between SSE and Singlish.

Chng (2003) takes a similar view stating the importance of Singlish in the Singaporean classroom should not be eliminated as a crucial part of Singaporean identity. In fact, in informal settings, many students seemed to feel more comfortable conversing with each other in Singlish. Although they realized the importance of SSE, most speakers liked to speak Singlish. Similar to the current study (TUMS), the students indicated the strong desire to acquire SME, hence rated it highly for its status, education as well as language for effective international communication. However, Manglish for a language for solidarity and regarded as an identity marker.

Crismore, Ngeow and Soo (2005) portrayed similar results which supported the findings of this current study. This study investigated the perceptions and attitudes of Malaysian civil sector and private sector workers toward the use and acceptance of Malaysian English, a variety of nonstandard English using a 20- item Likert scale questionnaire. This study indicated that there were mixed reactions toward the use of Manglish within their Malaysian society. Based on the findings, it is evident showed that they will not be respected if they speak Manglish and continued to believe that Students should only learn standard English in comparison to Manglish.

Some of the findings were consistent with the findings from the current study (TUMS). Nonetheless, they did not agree with the statement “We will not be respected

if we speak Manglish”. Although Manglish was viewed as inferior than SME, they thought that Manglish should not be disregarded entirely from their daily communication especially with the functional use of Manglish as a symbol of national identity and to foster ties

When students were asked to rate their speakers as their teacher, Manglish was perceived as being strongly inappropriate from an English teacher. However, they did not see Manglish as ‘bad English’. Manglish is valued for its functions of minimizing social distance and establishing group affinity. Manglish is part of Malaysia’s unique culture. May (2005, p. 332) suggests “In theory then, language may well be just one of the many markers of identity. In practice, it is often much more than that”.

In a related study, Tan and Tan (2005) who conducted a study on attitudes of students towards Singlish found out that students showed positive stance towards speaker who speaks SSE in terms of intelligence and fashionableness. Besides, it was also unacceptable or inappropriate for a teacher to use Singlish in school especially from an English teacher. However, Singlish was rated highly in terms of affinity or closeness which corroborated with the result from the current study (TUMS) regarding Manglish. Furthermore, most of the students in Tan and Tan’s (2005) study identified themselves as the speakers of SSE whereas in this current study (TUMS), students claimed they sounded like the Manglish speaker in the recording.

To sum up, this chapter has provided significant discussions to address the four research questions. This study has successfully identified the linguistic features of Manglish. This study also investigated the choice and usage of Manglish in formal and informal situations as well as their attitudes towards Manglish. Recommendation and suggestion for future research will be discussed in the following section.

6.2 Recommendations

Few sets of implications follow from this study. In the area of linguistics, this study provides implications for the curricular design for English language teaching in communities in the Outer or even expanding Circles of English.

6.2.1 Teaching implication

The issues of language policy, pedagogy and attitude could not be neglected whenever implications are discussed in the field of language teaching and learning. The implications discussed are based mostly on the researcher's discretion and awareness of ME as a variety of English.

However, the question of how to cope with the standard and non- standard forms of English in the ESL classroom has been receiving continuous yet inconclusive responses. Nevertheless, two comprehensive pedagogical responses have been pointed out by Samuel (1997) that can be adopted by teachers. They are Pedagogy of Exclusion and Pedagogy of Dialogue.

Pedagogy of Exclusion is an approach which forbids students from using or even discussing on ME or sanctions may be imposed when the non-standard variety is used or even mentioned in class. Besides, Pedagogy of Dialogue requires the teachers to remain silent about the existence of Manglish. This approach encourages the students to critically examine between different varieties in order to decide what is appropriate and to provide with the reason for their choices (Samuel, 1997). Although the Pedagogy of Dialogue is highly proposed, its crucial to realize that if not treated accordingly, inserting the non-standard variety as an aid in the ESL classroom may cause confusion among the students and dilemma on the part of the teacher.

In attempt to contemplate the place for Manglish as input into the ESL classroom, the teacher must understand the broader conceptual issues of varieties of English. The teacher must be able to distinguish the structural elements. Such second language characteristics deserve a descriptive rather than a prescriptive approach instead of being perceived as an approximation of the target language or a manifestation of learning errors. However, such awareness of the non-standard features as opposed to the standard should be developed in the earlier phase, for example in the lower secondary school level, regardless the student's level of proficiency.

When students are provided with the basis of correct English in the primary school, it is believed that they are likely more mature and open to differences when they reach the secondary level. Along with the close supervision from teachers, students

should be able to distinguish the differences in order to construct between themselves as a sense of what is appropriate and intelligible based on context and context of communication.

Apart from that, students should also be made aware of the presence of ME continuum that represent the varieties within the variety itself. They should realize that most of them do speak and write some level of Manglish in their daily use of English. It is crucial that the features of Manglish, regardless their position along the continuum should not labeled as a total error or rejection. Instead, students should be taught when and where to use them. For example the particle '*lah*' may not be appropriate in a formal as well as academic writing but it can be used in the spoken discourse between local speakers. In fact, foreigners in this country generally recognized the particle '*lah*' and thus understood and tolerated by them. Besides, students should be educated and taught to use appropriate vocabulary according to whom they speak to and what context is involved. Intelligibility is a crucial factor in any situation. Habibah Salleh (1997) points out that students should explore ME intelligently and turn it into awareness which enlightes students about ME as a variety of English.

Manglish has been criticized for a number of problems which includes weakening speakers' learning of the standard of English, reducing employability, as well as threatening the nation's competitive edge globally in terms of economy where Standard English is very much the lingua franca. However, this study showed that there are some speakers who have learned to appreciate Manglish for its potential in

expressing a Malaysian identity. If none of the speakers would disprove the importance of knowing English in addition to Manglish, Manglish is regarded as a powerful tool for expression of national identity. It is gradually becoming native variety of many Malaysians.

6.3 Suggestion for further research

The present study provides possible direction for future research. First, it is recommended to extend this study with different primary school students sample in Malaysia. This provides generalisations about the common features of Manglish used by different students. Multilingual speakers in Malaysia have different codes at their disposal and can choose which is appropriate for each context and function, instead of focusing merely within school context.

This study could be improved by accessing a more representative sample or by including a larger number of respondents in the survey as well as in the video-recording. With richer data, this would allow for better generalization be made about larger population which would in turn lead to more advanced theory generation.

The fact that the present study has indicated the complicated nature of one's attitude toward Manglish as well as the factors influencing their use of Manglish, it might be extremely difficult to investigate only by closed-ended items. While a significant tool such as interviews is not covered in this study due to the time constraint, it is hoped that this study provides direction for future studies by incorporating

qualitative method such as in-depth interviews. Interviews with the students would be useful in investigating many aspects of one's view of Manglish.

With an active participation and approach, it can contribute meaningfully to the study of non-standard ME features. If this study particularly focuses on lexis and syntax, future studies could serve to analyze features of ME in other aspects such as phonology and semantic in a greater detail. It would also be interesting to make a comparative study between English used in Malaysian and Singaporean school.