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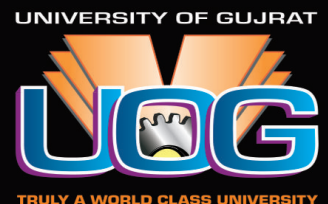
E-ISSN: 2519-5042

ISSN: 2410-1230

Pakistan Journal of Languages and Translation Studies

Issue - 07, No. 02 (December, 2019)

HEC RECOGNIZED
'Y' CATEGORY



Pakistan Journal of Languages and Translation Studies

Centre for Languages and Translation Studies
University of Gujrat, Gujrat, Pakistan

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PAKISTAN JOURNAL OF LANGUAGES AND TRANSLATION STUDIES

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GENDER REPRESENTATION IN THE PRIMARY LEVEL MATHEMATICS TEXTBOOKS OF PUNJAB

Shamshad Rasool & Saiqa Imtiaz Asif

Abstract

Gender has been a matter of concern across the world since the 1970s and gender issues in textbooks has become an international agenda since the Dakar Declaration. This study¹ has been conducted to examine the trend of gendered representations and messages in the textbooks by conducting a content analysis of the primary school mathematics textbooks currently being used for grade 1 to 5. The Punjab Curriculum and Textbook Board has published the textbooks. The framework draws on the stance of liberal feminism. The study finds that the mathematics textbooks contain gendered social constructions and stereotypical representations of males and females. They are not paving the way towards gender parity through the eradication of gender stereotypes.

Key Words: Bias, gender issues, stereotypes, social construction, textbooks.

¹ This article is based on my Ph. D dissertation.

1. Introduction

The portrayal of gender in textbooks has drawn a particular interest since the inception of the second-wave feminism in the 1970s (Ullah & Skeleton, 2013; Yasin et al., 2012; Sunderland, 2000) that is an era of post-structuralism. Post-structuralism challenged the objectivity of language as well as fixity of meaning. After Foucault (1972, 1978 & 1980) identified the nexus of power, knowledge and language, the western feminists exposed the implied meanings and power patterns enwrapped in the discourse (Ullah, Khan, Khan & Ibrahim, 2016). Therefore, the liberal feminists (for example, Millet, 1977; Tannen, 1994; Crawford, 2012) turned to the representations of females through language whereas, previously, different models of the language used by women were the focus of the feminist researchers (Litosseliti, 2006).

The liberal feminists like Crawford (2012), Tannen (1994), Butler (1990), Millet (1977) and Lakoff (1975) turned their focus to the tools and institutions which perpetuate and socialize masculinity and femininity. Thus, the educational setups and textbooks became a target of the gender researches. They challenged the biased constructions of genders in the curriculum as well as pinpointed the prospective repercussions on students' perception about themselves and the world they live in (Treichler & Frank, 1989) because the students recognize themselves with the role models of their respective gender portrayed in the contents (Campbell, 2010).

Convincingly, Dakar declaration (UNESCO, 2000) made almost all the countries make a substantial commitment to eliminate all types of gender inequality/discrimination against women from the education sector and to provide them equal opportunity of education and job (Blumberg, 2008). To this end, the emphasis has been on developing gender-sensitive textbooks which can provide "a key opportunity for closing the gender gap" (Malik & Courtney, 2011, p. 43).

Textbooks are a necessary material for giving instructions. Mostly, teachers draw on them to take ". . . their instructional decisions" (Sadker, Sadker & Zittleman, 2009, p. 88). On top of providing guidelines for achieving the desired national goals, "textbooks mirror society" (Brugeilles & Cromer, 2009, p. 14). Their contents are not a random selection; rather they, ". . . represent models of people, behaviours and thought patterns" and ". . . preach conformity to ideology and ideas to a captive audience (Jabeen & Ilyas, 2012, p. 77). The

intended knowledge included in textbooks contains issues related to gender and power (McLaren, 1989). They serve as tools of socialization and indoctrinate the constructions of the dominant social structures and ideology through activities because the representations are selected from a specific perspective. They reflect values and behaviours rampant in the societal setup (Petersen & Lach, 1990) and build envisioned identities in the children (Davies, 1993).

Various studies have been conducted regarding gender representations in the children books across the world, particularly in the west since the 1970s. Their focus has been children books, textbooks and EFL books. Recently, Islamic feminists have also drawn attention to the gendered schooling and "imperatives of socio-cultural traditions" (Shahidian, 1998, p.1). Following the trend, the present study is inspired to explore gender representation in the currently being used primary level mathematics textbooks of the Punjab province (Pakistan).

2. Background

Being signatory of Dakar Declaration (Education for All, 2000), Pakistani Government has shown firm commitment to remove gender disparities up to the secondary level by 2005 through attaining gender equality by 2015 and provide equal access to education and opportunities through "basic education of good quality" (Blumberg, 2008, p. 356). To this end, Pakistan launched Education Sector Reforms 2001–2015 and the National Plan of Action 2001–2015 to eliminate "gender bias in textbooks and curriculum" (Ministry of Education, 2003, p. 22).

For attaining the goal, Curriculum Wing of the Ministry of Education (CWME) reviewed 23 core subject of grade 1 to 8 and set guidelines for the provincial textbook boards to revise and develop curriculum accordingly. National Textbooks Review Committee revised the contents of the core subjects, and the Curriculum Wing endorsed the revisions. The regional textbook boards developed study material in light of the proposed curriculum. The revision of only the core subjects implies that the remaining subjects like Mathematics, Science, Islamic Studies, and General Knowledge are free of gender bias. No attention has been paid to these subjects so far.

Various researches have undertaken studies on the textbooks in Pakistan, but enough research on gender representation in primary level mathematics has not been

found. Perhaps, it is because the contents of mathematics are not considered sexist or gender-biased as one of my colleagues challenged about sexism in its contents. Mathematics is a compulsory subject. Therefore, it seems reasonable to conduct a study on the issues of gender representation in it.

3. The objectives of the Study

This study examines primary level mathematics textbooks to determine whether or not there are gender-biased representations in the curricula of Punjab, a highly populated region of Pakistan with 52% population of the country (Pakistan Bureau of Statistics, 2017). It has explored gender issues in mathematics contents which may have a substantial impact on the students. Therefore, this study draws on the social theory of gender (Bandura, 1986) and liberal feminists' ideas (Tong, 1998). Gender theory is an offshoot of western feminism (Butler, 1990; Beauvoir, 1949). The poststructuralist perspective of reality sees gender as a product of discourse. Discourse, according to Fairclough (1989), is a product of the dialectic relationship between language and social practices. Therefore, this study has analysed the representation of gender in the discourse of the textbooks.

4. Research Questions

For achieving the objectives mentioned above, the over-arching research question is "What is the nature of gender representation in the primary level mathematics of the government schools in Punjab (Pakistan)?" The following denominators would help in determining the extent of masculinities and femininities portrayed in the contents:

1. What is the proportional representation of males to females in the texts and illustrations?
2. What are the roles designated to the characters in the texts and illustrations?
3. Who is involved in developing the textbooks?

5. Literature Review

The issues related to gender representation in textbooks and children's literature have been much studied recently across the world (McCabe et al., 2011) which reveal imbalanced representations though some progressive changes have occurred in some countries (Brotman & Moore, 2008).

Hartman and Judd (1978) conducted a study to examine images and stereotyped roles associated with males and females in TESOL textbooks. They found that the ratio of male representation was more than twice in all the categories. Porreca (1984) investigated sexism in ESL textbooks. Females were represented only half than males; nevertheless, women were slightly over 50% of the population of the USA.

UNESCO funded a series of studies, since the 1980s, to analyse gender stereotypes in textbooks in countries like Quebec, Ukraine, Nigeria and France (Michel, 1986). Most of the studies have been on the English language and TEFL/EFL textbooks. In this regard, Michel's (1986) study reveals that textbooks in France abound with gender stereotypes. Mirza (2004) conducted a study in Pakistan and found similar results.

Ansari and Babaii (2003) examined sexist attitudes and values while conducting quantitative and qualitative analyses of two Iranian ESL/EFL textbooks. They claimed that "women suffered most obviously from low visibility" (p. 69) with a ratio of 1.4:1 for males and females in the texts and 1.6 to 1 in the illustrations respectively. McCabe et al. (2011) examined 5,618 children's books which were published during 1900-2000 in the USA and asserted that female annihilation and invisibility in "children's books reinforce, legitimate and reproduce a patriarchal gender system" (p. 198). The studies of Amini and Birjandi (2012) and Chanzanagh, Esmaeelzadeh and Zarsazkar (2011) on Iranian textbooks, and Mohamad et al. (2012) on Malaysian textbooks found the primary textbooks of the English language imbued with gender inequality as male characters dominated text and illustrations. Song (2013) undertook a study in Korea on the revised national English curriculum of EFL and determined that white American males dominated the revised texts. The study of Mustapha (2012) and Bahiyah et al. (2008) found gender bias representation in favour of males in Nigerian and Malaysian textbooks, respectively. However, the studies of Yang (2014) and Mineshima (2008) asserted that, in contrast to the previous studies, the primary textbooks in Hong Kong contained balanced gender representation.

Tang et al. (2010) conducted a study to investigate gender representation in Science and Mathematics textbooks in China and found more male characters in the contents. The studies of Zakka and Zanzali (2015), and Zakka, Oluyemi, and Twaki (2015) in Nigeria also reflect the similar findings of gender disparity in Mathematics textbooks of grade 5 and 6.

In Pakistan, Mirza (2004), Mirza and Rana'a, (1999), Shah (2012), Jabeen and Ilyas (2012), Ullah (2013), Ullah and Skeleton (2013), Jabeen, Chaudhary and Omer (2014) in their studies have found disproportions and bias in the depiction of gender in the textbooks. Shah (2012) conducted a study on gender representation in English textbooks and explored that males outnumber females. Further, in Social Studies textbooks, no woman of historical significance has been included. Mirza (2004) has rendered that male personnel dominates curricula development process. A few female personalities and female characters have been included in the text. Social Studies textbooks are insensitive towards gender portrayal (Zafar, 2005), and thus the curriculum perpetuates gender stereotypes. The results of Dean (2007) and Naseem (2010) showed that there was no improvement in female representation. Mattu and Hussain (2003) asserted that textbooks were teaching the young learners narrow stereotypes and gendered roles. They, like Mirza (2004), also noticed the invisibility of female the stories. Females were almost depicted exclusively in domesticity and motherhood as the "central and all-encompassing" (p. 103) role of females' lives.

An overview of the studies in Pakistan indicates that claim of "a society that practices and believes in equality of rights for men and women" (Jabeen & Ilyas, 2012, p. 77) is unachievable unless textbooks are gender-sensitive. Mostly, the studies found a similar pattern of gender portrayal in the school material and curriculum in Pakistan so far. There are some other gender-based studies as well, but much study on gender representation in the primary level mathematics textbooks in Pakistan could not be located.

In this study, primary level mathematics textbooks have been analysed. The government primary schools (for boys and girls) in Punjab use these textbooks, that is, 1979608 boys and 2053142 girls are studying these textbooks as compulsory subjects. This province contains more than half of the population.

6. Research Methodology

Content Analysis (CA) of textbooks determines the extent and nature of gender representation. CA as a tool and approach has been employed to explore "gender inequalities embedded in texts and images of school textbooks" (Skeleton, Francis & Smulyan, 2006, p. 299) and is frequently used in the social studies to understand the phenomena and to identify patterns in texts. According to Krippendorff (2012, p. 24), it helps in "making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use". The quantitative and qualitative analyses have determined

the extent of the appearance of the characters and unearth the phenomena of representation. The former identifies the frequency of specific words, characters or themes to describe the phenomena (Babbie, 2012) whereas the latter focuses the “subjective interpretation of the content of text data” (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1278).

In the present study, despite personal biases, CA has helped the researchers to be objective in the interpretation and maximized the objectivity. The frequency of occurrences of males and females and their activities appearing on every page in the visual and verbal texts has been counted to identify the patterns. The textbooks were converted into soft form to make them readable by a software ‘Antcon’ (Anthony, 2004). The ‘Word List’ tool of this software identified the node words (Murphy, 2010). The list revealed the total number of the ‘tokens’ and ‘types’ of all the words (Evison, 2010). Proportion test has also been calculated to calculate the significance of the difference between the occurrences. The p-value less than 0.05 ($\alpha = 0.05$) has been considered significant.

The extent of gender representation has been determined from the frequency of occurrence of nouns (common and proper, that is, token) and pronouns used for boys/girls and woman/man, and the activities and professions associated with the males and females as they appear in illustrations and the wording. In case of more than one character in a visual, we have focused on individuals and taken them as a statistical analysis unit. The first-person plural (inclusive) pronoun ‘We’ frequently used in the explanation of concepts {for example, in Mathematics 5, “We have learnt. . .” (p. 57), and “We have seen that. . .” (p. 43) etcetera} frequently used in mathematics has also been counted in the ‘Neutral Characters’ category. It is pertinent to mention that gender representations have been divided into three categories: ‘Male Characters’, ‘Female Characters’ and ‘Neutral Characters’. In the case of a common noun like ‘student’ or ‘shopkeeper’, its context determined the gender; otherwise, it falls in the category of ‘Neutral Characters’. The analysis also includes gender representation in the illustrated activities/professions. The analysis ends with determining the proportion of the personnel involved in the authorship and the review of the content.

The data analysis includes the frequency of occurrences of gendered and neutral characters per textbook as well as the relative percentages of the categories and the calculation of the proportion and p-value. The data given in Tables 1, 2, 3 and 4 reveal that the ‘Mathematics 1’ has no representation of human characters in the narratives while ‘Mathematics 4 and Mathematics 5’ have no illustration containing any character.

It reveals that a significant portion of the sampled textbooks contains human characters. So, every textbook has been analysed to ascertain the extent of representations of male, female and neutral characters. The personnel involved in the writing, reviewing and approving processes has also been taken into account to determine the nature of the process. It is pertinent to mention that the percentage in decimal has been rounded off to the nearest to make it a hundred.

7. Results

In the analysis, the following results have been examined.

7.1 Gender Representations in the Language of the Narratives

The data in Table 1 reveal that there are 760 characters. The proportion of female characters is 0.19 (141), neutral characters is 0.29 (220), whereas the proportion of male characters is 0.52 (299). The highest number of characters (260) has been identified in 'Mathematics 2' where 56 per cent male, 18 per cent female, and 26 per cent neutral character have been portrayed. It indicates gender imbalance in the representation of characters. The highest disproportion of gender representations is found in 'Mathematics 4' where the difference between male and female occurrences is very high. In other words, male characters have been predominately used (58%), while female and neutral characters are 6 (6 %) and 36 (33%) respectively. 'Mathematics 1' contains no human character. The maximum number of male characters is 108 as compared with 35 female characters in 'Mathematics 5'. The high difference indicates imbalanced representations. The results of module 5 reveal 63 per cent male characters, 20 per cent female characters and 17 per cent neutral characters. The neutral characters have the least representation. Precisely, gender inequity, in this subject, has been manifested in favour of males.

Table 1. Results of gender representation in the lexis

Textbooks	Male Characters		Female Characters		Neutral Characters		Total	p-value
	<i>F</i>	%	<i>F</i>	%	<i>F</i>	%		
Mathematics 1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Mathematics 2	146	56	48	18	66	26	260	0.000
Mathematics 3	89	39	52	23	88	38	229	0.003
Mathematics 4	56	57	6	6	36	37	98	0.000
Mathematics 5	108	63	35	20	30	17	173	0.000
Total	399	52	141	19	220	29	760	0.000

Importantly, the highest frequency of neutral characters has been identified in 'Mathematics 3' (39 %) which is slightly higher than male representation (38 per cent)

whereas 23 per cent representation has been allocated to female characters. Therefore, it is inferred that there is also gender imbalance.

The data of 'Mathematics 4' indicate an alarming situation as there is the least appearance of female characters (6%) as compared with that of the second-highest male representation (57%) in the textbooks. The appearance of 'Neutral Characters' is reasonable (34%). The results refer to male dominance and gender bias. There is a significant difference in the representations in all the sampled textbooks except 'Mathematics 3' where the percentage of occurrence of male and female characters is 38 and 23 respectively.

The overall inference emerges that 52 per cent male, 19 per cent female and 29 per cent gender-neutral characters have been represented, which indicate gender-biased representation in the verbal contents. The statistical analysis reveals a highly significant difference between the appearances of male and female characters at $p < 0.05$. Therefore, gender bias exists in favour of males.

The findings of this study are in concordance with, among others, Ilyas, Chaudhary and Omer (2014), Yang (2014), Ullah and Skelton (2013), Ullah (2013), Mukundan and Nimehchisale (2008), Gharbavi and Mousavi (2012a), Mirza (2004) and Hartman and Judd (1978) who found underrepresentation of females in English textbooks.

7.2 Gender Representations in the Illustrations

In this section, only those visuals have been analysed which contain male or female names or which could be marked as 'male' or 'female' by their cultural recognition: dress, hair, the colour of clothing and height. Unidentifiable illustrations (as 'males' or 'females') have been excluded from the data.

Out of 99 illustrations, 42 have been portrayed in 'Mathematics 2' while 'Mathematics 1' contains the least number of images (12). The highest gender disparity has been examined in 'Mathematics 4' where 86 per cent males and 14 per cent females get representation. In 'Mathematics 3', the proportion of male to female is 0.61 and 0.26 respectively, which indicates that female characters have been underrepresented in the artefact. The analysis denotes that, as a whole, illustrations are male-dominated with the proportion of 0.69 whereas the proportion of neutral and female characters is only 0.3 and 0.28 per cent respectively. The p-value (0.015) is a clue to a significant difference.

These results are also in line with that of gender representations in the verbal texts shown in Table 1.

The results in Table 2 show that mathematics of 1, 2 and 3 grades contain illustrations while that of grade 4 and 5 have no picture. The occurrences of images reveal a high gender disparity as male representation dominates with the frequency of 68 (69%) as compared with that of 28 (29%) and 3 (3%) female and neutral characters respectively. The p-value exposes a significant difference between female and male visibility. Overall results of the profile of characters are similar to the previous studies (Jabeen, Chaudhary & Omer, 2014; Amini & Birjandi, 2012; Gharbavi & Mousavi, 2012b; Mirza, 2004) which found the dominance of male characters in the illustrations.

Further, the emerging patterns indicate that gender bias is prevailing in the mathematics curricula. It may be due to developers' insensitivity toward the possible effects of gender bias on the interest and attitude of students or the pledge of the government of Pakistan for the elimination of gender inequality in education is insignificant.

Table 2: Summary of occurrences of characters in illustrations

Textbooks	Male Characters		Female Characters		Neutral Characters		Total	p-value
	<i>F</i>	%	<i>F</i>	%	<i>F</i>	%		
Mathematics 1	12	86	2	14	0	0	14	0.000
Mathematics 2	42	68	20	32	0	0	62	0.005
Mathematics 3	14	61	6	26	3	13	23	0.015
Mathematics 4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	NA
Mathematics 5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	NA
Total	68	69	28	28	3	3	99	0.000

While analysing images in the titles of the textbooks separately, an almost equal number of male and female characters with equal representation engaged in the similar activities have been represented except 'Mathematics 4' which depicts a female teacher with children. There are 15 characters on the title pages out of which eight and seven are male and female respectively. Though the female and female characters are almost equal in number, their portrayal is stereotyped and, hence, biased. Mathematics 4 contains a female teacher in a co-education set up which is a stereotypical representation as teaching profession mainly primary school teaching is considered suitable for females because of their caring nature and less male involvement (Ullah & Skeleton, 3013;

Oyler, Jennings & Lozada, 2001). Moreover, in Mathematics 2, a female is illustrated as a supporting character to a male who is taking a measurement.

7.3 Gender Representations in the illustrated Occupations/Activities

In this section, the roles/activities/professions portrayed in the illustrations have been analysed in terms of 'Male', 'Female' and 'Common' activities.

In Table 3, only 'type' activities/professions associated with gender have been analysed. Activities, roles and occupations have been considered one category. For example, a shopkeeper selling fruit or stationery has regarded as one activity irrespective of the times it appears in the text.

Activities in the mathematics textbooks are not only gendered but also stereotyped. Activities of males have been found dominant. Out of 17 'type' illustrated activities, 'Male' and 'Common Activities' equalize to 8 each (47 %) while females find representation in only 6 (6%) activities. The ratio of 'token' male to female representations is 2.42:1 and p-value is 0.000, which reflects that males are significantly more represented than females in the narratives. Underrepresentation of females in the activities indicates the gendered nature of the contents.

Table 3: Summary of occupations/activities in illustrations

Activities	'Type' Activities	<i>f</i>	Proportion
Male	Joining blocks, jumping, growing plants, farming, selling fruit, running a bookshop, experiment in a lab, breeding domestic animals, a street vendor.	08	0.47
Female	Teaching	01	0.06
Common	Measuring a length, taking meal, counting, running a race, playing with toys, going to school, shopping with father/parents, reading	08	0.47
	p-value	0.000	

Female characters have not been shown in single/independent activities except teaching. Mostly, they have been portrayed in the company of family members or collective activities. Further, stereotypical roles have been associated with them (Figure 2). On the other hand, males have been portrayed in independent and individual settings, and in a wide range of public domain activities; for example, selling fruit (Figure 1). Findings of the illustrations are in accordance with the previous studies (Ullah & Skelton, 2013; Amini & Birjandi, 2012; Gharbavi & Mousavi, 2012b) which found that males have

been portrayed in a variety of occupations/activities whereas females find portrayal in a limited range of activities/occupations like teaching and domestic chores.



Figure 1

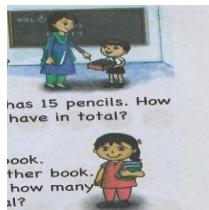


Figure 2



Figure 3

The gendered dichotomy in the activities is indicative of the strategical inclusion of gender bias to develop gender identities and social status through messages portrayed in the schooling material. Through such messages, children learn to be a girl or a boy (McCabe et al., 2011).

7.4 Gender Representations in the Narrated Activities

In this section again, the analysis includes only type activities/roles represented in the verbal texts. The data in Table 4 indicate that 'Male' activities dominate with 64 per cent occurrence while 'Common' and 'Female' activities are 20 per cent and 16 per cent respectively. The data reveals that there are more male than female 'type' activities, 16 and 4 respectively. Statistical analysis suggests that the proportion of males to female is 0.80 and 0.20 respectively, and the p-value is 0.005, which indicate a significant difference between the activities associated with males and females.

Table 4. Activities/professions in the narratives

Activities	Type of Activities	<i>f</i>	Proportion	P-value
Female	Buying grocery, bringing coffee for brother, teaching, visiting places in groups,	4	0.16	0.005
Male	Depositing money in the bank, purchasing, selling, trading (placing orders, exporting objects, solving sums, exercising in a gym, playing computer games, scout camp, farming, recording temperature, paying bills, worker/labourer, chief executive, merchant, hawker, tailor, vendor	16	0.64	
Common	Preparing a lab project, distribution of money, buying study material, buying vegetable and fruit, Schooling activities	5	0.20	

Activities associated with males comprise a wide range of progressive roles/professions, whereas activities of females reflect the confined and stereotyped roles. However, a positive and encouraging aspect is that girls and boys have been shown equally in the activities of schooling. The bifurcation of male and female roles in public and domestic domains may socialize girls to delimit their scope of career to domestic chores and teaching (Ullah, 2007). This phenomenon is evident in the following pieces of evidence:

Evidence 1: *Miss Amana has 14 sweets. She divides them equally between Ali and Sana. How many sweets do each Ali and Sana get?* (Mathematics 3, p. 113)

Evidence 2: *Razia's Ammi went to a grocery store. Her mother left the house at 5:05 pm and returned at 6:23 pm. How long was her Ammi gone for shopping?* (Mathematics 5, p. 68)

Evidence 3: *Bashir sold 68 oranges on Monday and 103 on oranges on Tuesday. How many tomatoes did he sell altogether?*

Evidence 4: *Abid has 16 goats on his farm. He sold 5 goats. How many goats were left on his farm?* (Mathematics 3, p. 70)

7.5 Personnel Involved in the Preparation of Mathematics Textbooks

Another indicator of gender disparity is the dominance of male personnel involved in the authorship, review, and review committee for NOC (Table 5). Out of 14 authors (some authors have been involved in the preparation of more than one book) along with an international panel for grade 1, there are only two female members (13%). The predominant partaking of male members indicates the nature of the prospective material selected for the tender minds. Nominations for review committee and review committee for NOC implies a shortage of female intellectuals and mathematician. In the review committee, only one female (11 %) has been nominated, whereas six males amount 89 per cent of the total participation. It is pertinent to mention that some authors and members of review committees have been nominated in the panels for more than one textbook. The review committee for NOC comprises three male members solely without female membership. Therefore, an overall picture emerges that out of 21 personnel involved in the authorship, review and review for NOC committee for approval of the contents, just two women (10 %) have been involved. The annihilation of females from this process indicates gender bias in favour of men, and that mathematics is a subject for

men (Li, 2001). It also implies that such contents may be the outcome of less participation of females in the process of developing textbooks.

Table 5: Results of male and female involvements in the process of developing textbooks

Textbooks	Authors		Editors		Reviewers		Review Committee for NOC		Artists		Designer & Illustrator		Total	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Mathematics 1	2	Nil	Nil	Nil	International Panel		3	Nil	Nil	1	Nil	Nil	5	1
Mathematics 2	1	1	Nil	Nil	2	Nil	3	Nil	Nil	1	Nil	Nil	7	3
Mathematics 3	1	1	Nil	Nil	1	1	3	Nil	Nil	1	Nil	1	5	6
Mathematics 4	4	Nil	1	Nil	3	Nil	2	Nil	Nil	1	1	Nil	12	1
Mathematica 5	4	Nil	2	Nil	2	Nil	2	Nil	Nil	Nil	1	Nil	12	Nil
Total	12	2	3	Nil	8	1	13	Nil	Nil	4	2	1	38	3
Proportions													0.93	0.07
P-value													0.000	

8. Discussion

The analysis of the contents of the cultural artefact-the mathematics textbooks reveals the dominance of male proper nouns, pronouns and common nouns. Females have been allocated little space in the narratives and the visuals. They seem to be eliminated from the world of mathematics instead of eliminating gender disparity as was the commitment of the government. On top of it, they have been shown in traditional role/identity through activities/roles. However, young girls and boys have been shown going to school and activities related to schooling in co-education settings. Nowhere, male and female children have been represented in separate settings.

In the activities, the girls do not get independent or alone representation; their portrayal is in co-groups or in the company of male members of the family. For example, they go for buying stationery or fruit with a father or a male member. Adult females have been portrayed as teaching, buying grocery and as supporting characters. They find no space in the public domain and independent activities.

The teaching activity of females appears four times in the visuals and on the title page of 'Mathematics 4' and twice in the narratives. Interestingly, such a portrayal is stereotyped. No male teacher has been represented whereas primary male teachers in Punjab, according to Pakistan Bureau of Statistics (2017), are 46% as compared to 54% female teachers. Here social ideology is in vogue; women are considered to be good teachers for young students because of their tender and caring nature, and that there is less male involvement in this profession. Representation of females in this occupation

implies, " an extension of women's caring, nurturing and mothering placed in the public domain" (Ullah & Skeleton, 2013, p. 188). It also suggests that women are encouraged to adopt this profession or that they are not suitable for other occupations. Roles, activities and professions selected for mathematics contents demonstrate gender bias in favour of males.

A perusal of the personnel involved in the process of developing textbooks implies implanted gender as there is only one female among the authors, review committee and review committee for approval. The less female involvement had to result in the limited space for females in the contents as patriarchy is insensitive to female issues and representations. Therefore, the narrative and illustrative portrayals deliver unequal manifestations of femininity and masculinity with regard to representations and associated roles in favour of males and inculcate the rampant social constructions of the patriarchal culture.

The underrepresentation of males (Tables 1, 2, 3 & 4) and dominance of male personnel (Table 5) in the preparation of mathematics textbooks implies essentialist social construction of gender. The females have meagre representation. Neutral representation is also less than male portrayal. Dominant unbiased descriptions would have been tolerable as they would serve the agenda of the government. It is a continuation of the existing essentialist patriarchal ideology. The activities included in the textbooks may socialize the students to identify themselves with the roles and professional models attributed to their sex. In this way, textbooks may inculcate gender roles and identity in the children and shape their personality (Unnisa, 1989).

In short, underrepresentation of female characters, traditional essentialist roles of sexes, and the male dominance in the process of designing mathematics contents have been identified which refer to gender-biased representations. The findings concord with Zakka and Zanzali (2015), and Zakka, Oluyemi, Twaki (2015) particularly with Fragsz, Leder and Kloosterman (2009) who claim that Mathematics textbooks contain stereotyped gender representations.

9. Conclusion and Recommendations

Overall, the study implies that no attention has been paid towards the elimination of gender bias from the contents of mathematics textbooks. Despite the instructions of the Curriculum Wing and substantial commitments of the government of Pakistan, the contents are highly loaded with the stereotyped and biased portrayals of gender. The

findings are in concordance with most of the other studies on gendered representations and gendered roles in the English language, social studies, mathematics and science textbooks in Pakistan and across the world.

To sum up, it is recommended that school textbooks should be designed to make children aware of real contemporary life with a balanced portrayal of gender. It would rectify the gendered ideology and establish an equitable and socially just society. The textbooks must convey positive messages of gender identity, that is, all human being are integral parts of the social life, and they will be equally good if they have equal opportunities. Endeavours should be put forth to make textbooks play their role in the campaign of elimination of gender bias and have an essential function of providing gender equality and equal opportunity which is one of the critical aspects of educational fairness. Education is the primary factor in forming children's gender roles. Precisely, efforts must be put forward to cultivate an educational environment for students that should convey gender parity.

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STRUCTURAL AND FUNCTIONAL ANALYSES OF DISCIPLINE-SPECIFIC LEXICAL BUNDLES

Mehwish Noor & Behzad Anwar

Abstract

The study provides structural and functional analyses of four-word LBs (lexical bundles). It follows mixed method research design. Quantitative data (4-word LBs) are retrieved adopting threshold set by Cortes (2008). A number of 129 LBs are used for the qualitative analyses. Biber et al.'s (1999) taxonomy adapted by Bal (2010) is applied for structural analysis. A total of 119 (92.2 %) LBs came under Phrasal category while 10 Bundles fall into Clausal Bundles. The analysis introduced Adjective Phrase not previously recorded. Implementing functional categorization of Biber et al. (2004), 100 LBs are classified as RBs (Referential Bundles), 19 are SBs (Stance Bundles) and only 15 are DOBs (Discourse Organiser Bundles). LBs found performing dual functions are listed in both of the categories. The highlighting features of the results are not very different from the previous studies. The study identified a sub-group (Text Reference: Abstract/Physical Entity) of a sub-category of RBs. LBs and their persistent use by numerous authors emphasize their automaticity, discipline-relatedness and warranty of respective research community. The analysis reinforces the significance of frequency-based language pedagogy in academia and offers grammatical and discursal description of LBs for dissemination of knowledge to the scholars of Applied Linguistics in particular.

Keywords: Corpus Linguistics; Corpus Tools; Lexical Bundles; Structural Categorisation; Functional Categorisation

1. Introduction

Corpus linguistics has revolutionized the study of language providing with empirical substantiation. It offers frequency-based identification of linguistic units serving the researchers with language description. LBs (Lexical Bundles) also known as recurrent expressions, clusters, and chunks are identified and empirically retrieved multi-word units (Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2012). The terminology subject to this particular field remains problematic because the research related to these chunks or clusters remains diverse, without lucid direction and methodological assumptions. It can be assumed through more than sixty terms while defining and describing formulaic sequences (Wray, 2009). In the first half of the twenty first century, there found an increasing trend in the exploration of natural language in order to find patterns with the help of corpus studies (Ädel & Erman, 2012).

LBs are extracted from large sized purposefully gathered text (corpus), fundamentally following frequency as the sole criterion (Allen, 2009). Furthermore, they help in winning membership and scholarship of particular discourse community, rather they are considered standard for academic discourse in research community (Ädel & Erman, 2012). Hyland (2008) opines that the appropriate use of lexical bundles enriches *naturalness* and fluency in academic discourse and their apt use requires to be mastered by research scholars. They offer *formulaicity* and act as *building blocks* of the academic discourse (Alquraishi, 2014). Lexical bundles though provide ideomaticity yet they are neither idiomatic in their meaning nor persistently salient. It is so because they are automatically retrieved and ranked according to their frequency. According to Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan (1999), hardly 5% of the lexical bundles in academic discourse are complete grammatical units.

Corpus tools inform about the recurrent patterns of language in specific domain that is the crux of learning academic writing (Hyland, 2009). It involves with the linguistic evidence beyond intuitions and preferences in order to provide the real use and text substantiation (Noor & Anwar, 2019). It is not only helpful for register variation studies but also essential for register/domain specific discourse features' studies, particularly for academic discourse. The researchers of the field examine spoken and written mediums and provide insights about the significance of formulaic patterns. Most of the studies focus on comparisons between native and nonnative use of LBs and cross-discipline variations (Shin, 2018). Durrant (2017) emphasizes the study of closely related and discipline specific LBs in order to employ linguistic

conventions and dissemination of knowledge to typical research communities. Keeping in view the significance, the current study is intended to carry out comprising of a purposefully- customized corpus of doctoral theses. The objective of the study is mentioned in the next section.

1.1 Research Objective

The present study aims at focusing on the discipline specific 4-word LBs in written academic discourse. Its main objective is to provide ease for the research scholars of Applied Linguistics, with structural and functional description so that their grammatical and discursal features may become practically perspicuous. It shall be beneficial for language pedagogy, comparative analyses, register variation analyses and cross-discipline analyses for contemporary and future research endeavors. Before probing into analytical undertaking, a review of related literature is needed.

2. Review of Literature

The studies pertaining to LBs amplify their appropriate use for native-like fluency in register-specific academic discourse. LBs do not particularly correspond with prescribed grammatical units rather; sometimes consist of phrasal or clausal units. They offer ideomaticity to the academic discourse that is ideal to acquire otherwise, particularly, for non-native research scholars due to the fact that they are specifically discipline and register oriented. Moreover, Hyland (2008, p.5) opines that frequent use of LBs indicates register of the text to the reader and facilitates processing of knowledge given in the text and reduces time dispensation. Keeping in view the significance, a number of studies are conducted with varied foci and objectives. Some of the studies beneficial for the present study are reviewed.

Ahmadi, Ghonsooly and Fatemi (2013) evaluate use and function of 4-word LBs from the corpus of abstracts of applied linguistics articles. 4-word bundles are considered representative of structural and functional properties more than that of 5-word bundles (Hyland, 2008). On the basis, their study takes 4-word bundles account for the analysis. They compare the use of native and non-native writers use. They analyse structure of LBs in the line of the classification given by Biber (2006). Their study validates the value of LBs as deposited and applied pre-fabricated language patterns. Cortes (2013) grammatically and functionally analyses LBs in the corpus of introduction sections of research articles adding some new characteristics while supporting some previously found attributes of LBs. She follows the basic and

recommended threshold of one million words for the identification of LBs so as the present study pursues. Other cut-off points like 20 times per million occurrences and at least range of 5 are also observed and applied for the current study. Her study provides guideline not only for observing the criteria of identification of LBs but also for analyzing and describing their structural and functional attributes as reference point.

Moreover, Beng and Keong's (2017) study of reading texts contributes some additional categories in the structural and functional categories of LBs classified by Biber et al. (2004) and Hyland (2008) respectively. Their contribution is accommodating for the present study during categorization of LBs with respect to their structure and function. Furthermore, Kwary, Ratri, & Artha, (2017) examine discipline-based variation of LBs in journal articles. They also study their structural and functional features which are the foci of the present study and are considerate during discussion of structural and functional categories of LBs.

The study of LBs is multifaceted and diverse with a broad scope. Nesi & Basturkmen (2006) study LBs in academic lectures with respect to signaling cohesion in the text and find similarities in the American and British academic discourse with slight exceptions. Further, they identified a significant role of context when observing cohesion in LBs. Though the study is out of the scope of the present study, yet it is helpful during analyzing and discussing structural properties of LBs. While studying functional categories of LBs, Kashiha & Heng (2014) pore over SBs (stance bundles) in academic lectures. Their analysis and findings are beneficial for the present study that is further advantageous for research scholars and academicians for its potential EAP (English for Academic Purposes) scope.

Alonso-Ramos, García-Salido, and Garcia's (2017) influential study provides us with another vista of LBs. Their objective is to offer the research scholars with Spanish LBs (*Academic Lexical Combinations*) through compiling and analyzing corpora of experts and novices research articles. Their study augments the significance and urgency of formulaic expressions for academic discourse. They highpoint and justify the role of human intervention in corpus-driven approach while filtering n-grams automatically extracted from the corpus. This is true for the present study as well because the list of n-grams needs manual cleaning in order to achieve the objectives of the study.

Chen & Baker's (2010) cross examine LBs in terms of published academic text of native and non-native students. Their corpus-driven results reveal under and overuse

of some of the LBs by both native and non-native writers when compared to the corpus of published text. Consequently, it is deduced that the appropriate acquaintance of LBs needs to be learnt by L1 and L2 academic writers equally. That is why; the present study collects theses/dissertations from the United Kingdom national repository of PhD theses service without considering nationality and first language of the authors. Therefore, native and non-nativeness would not be considered as criterion while data collection.

Ang and Tan's (2018) worth noting study empirically propagates the significance of field-specific learning and teaching of LBs for academicians. In their study, comparison shows least similarity between field-specific corpus driven LBs and *Academic Formulas List* (Simpson-Vlach & Ellis, 2010). On the basis of which, it is suggested that discipline-specific LBs' knowledge is beneficial for academic writing skills. Keeping in view the literature reviewed, the present study intends to explore LBs in the field of AL (Applied Linguistics) for discipline specific endeavor. For the purpose of identification and analysis, various approaches have been introduced. The details of the methodical framework followed by the present study are given as under.

3. Analytical Framework

The study adopts threshold for the identification of LBs set by Cortes (2008, p.46) according to which 4-word combinations occurring 20 times per million, appearing in at least five different texts. LBs once extracted and cleaned, they are analysed on structural and functional grounds. For structural analysis Biber et al. (1999) taxonomy adapted by Bal (2010) is applied. According to the taxonomy, structural categories consist of two major categories; phrasal bundles and clausal bundles further divided in sub-categories. Phrasal bundles are divided in three sub-categories based on; Noun Phrase (NP), Verb Phrase (VP), and Prepositional Phrase (PP). Similarly, in clausal bundles, there are verb+ *that-clause fragments, verb+*to-clause fragments, adverbial fragments and some other verb+* fragments. This version is adopted for the sake of uniformity in presentation. The categories would be the same as given by Biber et al. (1999) otherwise. As far as functional analysis is concerned, classification given by Biber et al. (2004) is applied, according to which LBs are categorized into three major functional categories; RBs (Referential Bundles), SBs (Stance Bundles) and DOBs (Discourse Organizer Bundles). Theoretically, bundles building direct references to physical, textual, abstract and/or any attribute or feature of any entity are categorized as referential bundles. Similarly, those holding stance, attitudes, and evaluating certainty while imparting some proposition come under the umbrella of stance bundles. The third

category imparts organization in discourse between its preceding and succeeding parts (Ädel and Erman, 2012). Following tools and techniques are used for the execution of the present study.

4. Materials and Methods

Keeping in view the nature of research, mixed method research design is followed. Though, data-driven approach is applied for the extraction of the LBs, yet qualitative method is also adopted for the categorization and discussion of their structural and functional properties. Principally corpus-based tools are used for the quantitative analysis. Those are Sketch Engine (Kilgarriff, Rychly, Smrz, & Tugwell, 2004) and Antconc (Anthony, 2018). The data are retrieved for the compilation of corpus with the help of Sketch Engine using WebBootCat tool, whereas the extraction of N-grams is done with the help of Antconc (Anthony, 2018) using Clusters/N-gram tool.

Non-probability sampling technique is observed during data retrieval. It is convenience sampling often used in mixed method research depending on the accessibility of the population; here, language. It is time and cost-effective sampling technique. According to Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim (2016), it is suitable in the cases facing certain limitations. In the present circumstance, no open access, copyright and ethical issues are being faced. That is why, open-accessed, and discipline related post-graduate theses and dissertations are retrieved. They are downloaded from online resources; *Ehos* and *Free Theses Repository Compilation*. As mentioned earlier, only those theses/dissertations are retrieved on the basis of which scholars have completed their degrees from reputed universities of United Kingdom. The resources are authentic as they work directly with universities of UK and predominantly contain doctoral theses. It is discipline-specific research endeavor and does not deal with the first language of the authors of those theses. That is to say, native and non-native is not set as criterion. Discipline relatedness of the data is the standard to meet the objective of the study. Furthermore, availability, and open access are priorities. Thus, freely downloadable theses/dissertations are retrieved for the compilation of the corpus.

1.1 Research Procedure

Various steps were pursued to achieve the objective of the study. The corpus compilation was done through given online resources by searching with the terms, applied linguistics, corpus, discourse analysis, stylistic analysis and academic discourse. Once finding an open access dissertation, further related items were searched and downloaded. A number of 28 theses/dissertations were

downloaded to reach the target of one million words. There was no cut-off length of theses/dissertation as full-length files were downloaded. The second step was to clean the corpus and unnecessary parts of the theses/dissertations (acknowledgement, list of contents, references for instance) were removed. The following screen shot reflects the detail of corpus compilation.

The screenshot displays the Sketch Engine web interface for a corpus named 'Corpus Linguistics Theses'. The interface is organized into three main sections: 'GENERAL INFO', 'COUNTS', and 'COMMON TAGS'. A 'MANAGE CORPUS' button is located in the top right corner. The browser's address bar shows the URL: https://app.sketchengine.eu/#ca-browse?corpname=user%2Flibrarian%2Fcorpus_linguistics_theses.

GENERAL INFO		COUNTS		COMMON TAGS	
Language	English	Tokens	1,256,150	noun	N.*
Tagset	Description	words	999,298	verb	V.*
Word sketch grammar	Description	Sentences	62,280	adjective	J.*
		Paragraphs	6,831	adverb	RB.?
		Documents	28	pronoun	PP.?
				conjunction	CC

After cleaning the corpus, 4-word N-grams were retrieved following Cortes (2008, p.46). A number of 147 N-gram types were extracted, after cleaning which was reduced to 129. After extracting quantitative data, qualitative analyses were performed. The extracted LBs were structurally and then functionally analysed and discussed. The upcoming section comprises of results and analyses' details of the study.

5. Results and Discussion

The threshold of 4-word is procured keeping in line of the literature reviewed. Analysing 4-word LBs are highly recommended by Cortes (2004), Hyland (2008) and Ädel & Erman (2012), keeping in view their significance while studying their structural and functional properties. After executing the above-mentioned processes, 4-word LBs are retrieved. The n-grams results show a large number of 4-word clusters sorted by frequency. Clusters consisting of linguistic metadata are removed. A number of 129 lexical bundles frequent not less than 20 times and occurring in more than five different files (setting *range* and using concordance plot tool), are taken for the analysis. The

analysis comprises of both; grammatical and functional grounds. The following section discusses grammatical properties of LBs in the light of previous studies.

5.1 Structural Analysis

After the execution of LBs, the study moves from quantitative to qualitative phase of the study. Firstly, the grammatical structures of the target LBs are studied. As mentioned earlier, a number of 129 LBs are selected for the analysis. The detailed lists of LBs are given in the Appendix-1 (a to n) based on their broad structural categories. The general description of those categories is in the Table-01.

Table-01: Grammatical Categories of Lexical Bundles

Grammatical Structures	Numbers	Percentage
Prepositional Phrases	52	40.3%
Noun Phrases	52	40.3%
Verb Phrases	14	10.8 %
Adjective Phrases	1	0.77%
Other		
Anticipatory <i>it</i> + Verb/Adjective	4	3.1%
NP/VP + <i>that</i> Composition	2	1.5 %
That +NP, VP/VP Passive Composition	2	1.5 %
Conjunction (and) + NP	2	1.5 %

These categories are general in nature and can be categorized according to the taxonomy given by Biber et al. (1999) further adapted by Bal (2010). For the purpose, the above listed categories are enlisted into two main categories: Phrasal Bundles (PBs) and Clausal Bundles (CBs). They are further categorized into sub-categories (Table-02).

Table-02: Phrasal Bundles

Grammatical Structures	Numbers	Percentage
Prepositional Phrases	52/129	40.3 %
PP + <i>of</i>	29	55.7%
PPs	20	38.4 %
PP + VP	3	5.7 %
Noun Phrases	52/129	40.3 %
NP + <i>of</i>	32	61.5 %
NP + VP	10	19.2 %
NPs	5	9.6 %

NP+ PP	4	7.6 %
Verb Phrases	14/129	10.3 %
VP/ Passive VP + PP	11	78.5 %
VP + PP	3	21.4 %
Adjective Phrases	1/129	0.7 %
Total Phrasal LBs	119	92.2 %

The structural analysis of LBs presents an equal number of NPs and PPs. In sum, they cover more than 80% of the total number of LBs. A similar kind of results is reported by Kashiha & Heng (2014) where more than half of the total number of LBs is NPs, and PPs and in Conrad & Biber (2005) it is about 60%. Furthermore, *on the other hand* remains the most frequent LB with a frequency of 141 as found with varying frequencies in previous studies as well (Shahriari, 2017, Bal, 2010). For instance, Byrd & Coxhead (2010) analyse LBs in four-disciplinary academic text corpora and enlisted 21 most frequently used and shared LBs across disciplines with a comparison of previous studies. The present study also supports their findings on quantitative and qualitative analyses grounds. LBs with high frequency such as; *in the case of (94)*, *in the context of (93)*, *on the basis of (93)*, *in terms of the (54)*, *at the same time (50)*, *at the same time (50)* stand among the most frequent LBs in Shahriari (2017), Amirian, Ketabi, & Eshaghi (2013), Biber et al. (2004), and Hyland (2008), Biber et al. (1999). If we further dig down, they are mostly adverbials.

On qualitative ground, the structural categories are also shared and backed with noun-centered description that is a significant feature of academic discourse. The present analysis confirms the results of Allen (2010) reporting NP + *of* fragments as the largest category of LBs. Furthermore, the second large fragment of LBs is PP + *of* construction. This phenomenon further strengthens the assumption for considering NP+ *of* construction par excellence over other fragments due to the fact that every PP consists of PP +NP construction. So that, in every PP+ *of* fragment there lays a hidden NP+ *of* structure. The fact also endorses Allen's (2010, p.112) assumption based on Biber et al. (1999) postulation that scientific research contains dense detail embedded in complex NPs. For the reason they have a lion's share in categories overall. However, in Bal (2010) study, the ratio of PPs is found higher than that of NPs but the present study reveals equivalent results. No doubt, the frequencies of occurrences vary but the number of occurrences matters here. In the same line, Amirian et al. (2013) delineate NP+ *of* fragments as the most frequent category of LBs, whereas PPs without *of* fragment as the

least category found. A frequent use of PPs in the present study and the like envisage prominence and urgency of the use of prepositions both as the head of phrases (e.g. *in the field of, at the end of, in the following examples, as well as the*) and/or as post modifiers of NPs (e.g. *the structure of the, the result of the, the use of the, the end of the*). The appropriate and accurate use of prepositions always remains problematic for ESL (English as second language) and EAP (English for academic purposes) learners. Mastery of discipline specific LBs is one of the workable solutions to this very problem. While discussing PPs discordance is observed in structural categorization with respect to LB “*as well as the*” which is described as comparative expression by Kashiha & Heng (2014), complex PP by Byrd & Coxhead (2010), and is kept in “other expressions” by Bal (2010). For simplicity, here it is termed as multi-word prepositional phrase.

The next phrasal group is VP that comes after PPs and NPs catering 10.8 % of total LBs. It is marked with passive constructions along with a small number of VP+ PP fragments. A recurrent use of “*can be used to (84)*” with variant combinations is observed such as; *can be used in, can be used for, can be seen as, and can be used as*. In this category, these LBs dominate the number with 5/11 that culminates in the preferred used of passive constructions in academic text. Customarily, passive formations are considered a common trait of academic discourse. They emphasize on the content/action/results rather than that of the doer. They are less frequent than other phrase groups in academic text studies of LBs. Byrd & Coxhead (2008) observe the like, while Hyland (2008) postulates it a characteristic of academic discourse of science.

There is found an instance of AdjP (*state of the art*) unavoidable due to its high frequency (81). This category is not found in structural taxonomy given by Biber et al (1999). Though, only one LB is found during analysis, yet it is a worthy addition to the existing knowledge. After pondering over phrase bundles, now clausal bundles are under discussion. Table-03 illustrates the number of occurrences of the categories with percentage information.

Table-03: Clausal Bundles

Grammatical Structures	Numbers	Percentage
Anticipatory <i>it</i> + V/Adjective	4	3.1 %
NP/VP+ <i>that</i> Composition	2	1.5 %
<i>That</i> +NP, VP/VP Passive Composition	2	1.5 %
Conjunction + NP	2	1.5 %
Total Clausal LBs	10	7.7 %

As reported and explained by Biber et al. (1999), clausal bundles are less frequent in academic prose. The present analysis substantiates the postulation and finds only ten clausal fragments with less than five instances in each sub-category. Anticipatory *it*+ V/Adjective fragments are on the top of the list with only four instances, followed by NP/VP + *that* composition, *that* +NP,VP/ VP Passive composition, and Conjunction +NP with two instances in each category. The category of Conjunction+ NP is also another addition to the taxonomy. It is carefully categorized after studying the concordance/ KWIC (Keyword in context). The small number of clausal bundles is also evident in Nesi & Basturkmen (2006). They also argue that in conversation, clausal bundles occur frequently and rarely befall in written discourse.

The results coincide with Biber et al. (1999), Bal (2010) and Cortes (2004) defining argument that LBs are not, by definition, complete grammatical units. Moreover, the analysis also reveals that phrase fragments are more frequently used as compared to clause fragments as observed by Amirian et al. (2013).

Simply, enlisting LBs into grammatical categories does not provide with their appropriate usage. Functional categorization might help in this regard that is presented in the upcoming section.

6. Functional Analysis

The study follows functional categories of LBs anticipated by Biber et al. (2004). According to the taxonomy, three main categories; Referential bundles, Stance Bundles and Discourse Organiser Bundles are further sub-divided. The qualitative analysis is executed using Antconc (Anthony, 2018) concordance tool. The target LBs are listed according to their functions pondering over the context in which they were used. Table-04 illustrates the categories with their respective sub-categories.

Table-04: Functional Categories of LBs

Functional Categories	Numbers	Percentage
Referential Expressions	100/134	(74.6 %)
Framing (Intangible)	53	53 %
Framing (Tangible)	15	15 %
Text Reference (Multifunctional: time/place/abstract entity /physical entity)	23	23 %
Text Deixis	9	9 %
Stance Bundles	19/134	(14.1 %)
Ability (personal/impersonal)	10	52.6 %

Obligation/Directive	7	36.8 %
Epistemic Stance	2	10.5 %
Discourse Organiser Bundles	15/134	(11.1 %)
Topic Elaboration/Clarification	15	100 %
Total LBs	134	

The results show that a large number (100/134) of LBs performed Referential Function, whereas the remaining bundles accomplished Stance Function (19/134) and only 15 bundles found organising discourse. The observation of Byrd & Coxhead (2010) is supported by the results that there is overlapping noticed in terms of functional categorisation of LBs. For the purpose of clarity, the LBs are listed and counted in both of the categories as individual entry when multi-functionality is observed on their part. That is why; the total number of the target LBs is increased from 129 to 134.

The analysis reveals some significant features of LBs in terms of their functions. RBs occupy the utmost number of the total LBs with 74.6 %. This is also observed by Conrad & Biber (2004) and Byrd & Coxhead (2010). The highest sub-category of LBs: Intangible Framing is 53% of total RBs. Intangible framing provides the readers with an invisible shaping of idea and becomes helpful in comprehension and focus. It is a highlighting feature of academic discourse particularly research writing. Intangible RBs are frequently used in political speeches observed in Darweesh & Ali's (2017) study as well. During analysis, intangible framing is observed in the RB *the state of the*, that is mostly used with *art* (27/29). It remained a highlighting feature of structural analysis where it was found the only adjectival phrase ever recorded.

The attribute of multi-functionality is associated with Referential Bundles at large. The LBs falling into two sub-categories are found performing two different referential functions (e.g. *the structure of the functions* as Text Reference and Intangible Framing). The functions of RBs are diverse in nature that sometimes two different RBs perform similar function such as; *of this study was* and *of this paper is* both co-occur with aim/purpose/goal /objective/outcome/measure and perform Identification/Focus. On the other hand, the same RB perform two different types of functions (Intangible Framing/ Text Reference), for instance *at the time of* concur with screening/corpus compilation/speaking/text collection/writing/study etc. In its different orientations, sometimes it refers to text and provides a frame or window to the reader other times. In the case of RB; *this article is to*, both types of framing is associated with the same bundle as it appeared with;

A version of *this article* is to appear in register

The main goal of *this article* is to study

The interest of the authors in *this article* is to examine

It is deduced that the usage of LBs within the context defines their functional category no matter what their grammatical manifestations are, for instance *at the end of the*, co-occurs with chapter, tool/ chain/argument/sentence/day/tunnel etc. referring to text (multi-functional reference; place/time).

Keeping in view the characteristics of text references, there is noticed insufficiency when RBs refer to some entity (physical or abstract) while putting them into RBs sub-category of Text References. If we ponder over examples, there is found the said insufficiency with regard to the term given such as; at the level of concurs with, a single interpretation/meaning/text analysis/discourse/individual physician/frequency/individual items/each single instance. Similarly, of the use of co-occurs with, candidate/computing tools/numbers/adverbs/modality/passives/collocations. In addition to the previously given options (time/place), during analysis such instances are termed as Text References (multi-functional; physical/abstract entity). In this way, the purpose of specification and clarity is fulfilled without any ambiguity. Data analysis provides another noteworthy observation that NPs based LBs mostly fall into the category of RBs. It might be due to the fact that NPs provide the text with content-based text-related information.

The second main category of SBs consists of 14.1 % of the total number of LBs. They are low in number due to the fact that, particularly in academic discourse, personal stance is less likely used. Their sub-categories show Attitudinal/Modality Stance (Biber et al, 2004) conveying attitudes, ability, obligation and intention. Ability based SBs cover 52.6 % of this category with a very low number (2/10) of Personal Ability Stance. In only one instance *paper we propose* a first-person pronoun (plural) is observed. Other than that, a variety of *can be used in/to/for/as* and *can be seen as* is noticed in the same sub-category. The sub-category of Obligation/Directive comprises of 36.8 % of SBs that are further dissected into Personal/Impersonal and Intention/Prediction (Appendix-2 ;a to h). Epistemic Stance Bundles cater 10.5% of SBs that is as expected. They appear frequently in verbal discourse. In this sub-group, no instance of Personal Epistemic Stance is evidenced.

As far as DOBs are concerned, they consist of 11.1 % of total LBs. The LBs in this category fall into Elaboration/Clarification of topic. According to Biber et al. (2004) their functions are to introduce, elaborate and/or clarify the topic in the discourse. The data analysis shows that rest of the DOBs are topic Elaboration/Clarification. A sub-category of Elaboration/Clarification; Cause and Effect is found i.e. *as a result of* and *in the sense of*. Furthermore, *on the other hand* is the most common LB in the studies related to lexical bundles (Byrd & Coxhead, 2010) and most of the times it performs discourse organizing function. The analysis further supports the fact that it occurs more frequent (141 times) than that of its counter partner *on the one hand* (30).

The analyses of structural and functional categorization are successfully performed according to the respective taxonomies. Quantitative part of the study is well executed with the help of the softwares; Sketch Engine (Kilgarriff et al., 2004) and Antconc (Anthony, 2018), ranging from the compilation of corpus to the extraction of N-grams respectively. The subsequent section concludes the discussion overall.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

The main objective of the study was to analyse discipline specific recurrent expressions namely LBs with a special focus on the field of Applied Linguistics. It was also intended to provide the research scholars and ESL learners and teachers with structural and functional classification and description. The target of the study is achieved by the compilation of Applied Linguistics Theses Corpus. The 4-word n-grams were retrieved with the help of the software. The data were cleaned and some purely field specific LBs were also removed such as, *Biber and Randi*, *Biber et al.*, *an electronic lexical database*, *by Douglas Biber and*, *genre expression pattern* in etc. It was done so because they were out of the focus of the taxonomies that were followed. Moreover, some of them were based on in-text citations that were also not considered for the analyses. A total of 129 LBs went through the structural and functional analyses. During structural analysis, a new category with only one instance was introduced. Other than that, the other categories with their subsequent sub-categories were analysed and discussed in the light of previous studies. The study also added the category of Conjunction+ NP into the taxonomy with careful examination of the instances within their context of use. Altogether, study results supported and sometimes, contrasted with the previous studies' results. The reason behind the discrepancies and support was the data specificity which resulted into variance in results. The overall highlighting features of the results were not very different with the previous studies such as; the categories of NPs and PPs

remained higher in numbers than that of VPs in Phrasal Bundles as reported by Kashiha & Heng (2014) and Conrad & Biber (2005). Similarly, most of the frequently used LBs across disciplines enlisted by Byrd & Coxhead (2010) were also shared in the present study.

On functional grounds, some of the LBs were found performing dual functions. They were listed according to their functions in both of the respective categories. For the reason, the total number of LBs analysed functionally was increased from 129 to 134. RBs were found the largest functional category of LBs. It was found a prominent feature of academic writing, particularly of theses writing. The study identified a sub-group (Text Reference: Abstract/Physical Entity) of a sub-category of RBs that might be a humble addition to the taxonomy. The study puts forth a postulation about the functional description of NPs that they mostly function as RBs which could be further scrutinized. Moreover, SBs and DOBs were found less in number that also needed further examination with respect to discipline/field-specific data analysis in written academic discourse.

The analysis of the data reinforces the significance of frequency-based language teaching and learning particularly in academia. The recurrent expressions and their persistent use by numerous authors emphasize their automaticity, discipline-relatedness and warranty of respective research community. However, the studies suggest teaching and learning of LBs but whether their implementation in language pedagogy is practical or not, and if yes then on which level of education, still need to be investigated.

Appendix-01: Structural Categories

a. (Phrasal Bundles: PPs) PP + of

Rank	N-gram	Frequency
1	in the case of	94
2	in the context of	93
3	on the basis of	93
4	in the form of	55
5	in terms of the	54
6	as a result of	50
7	in the field of	38
8	at the end of	37
9	in the process of	34
10	at the time of	32

11	on the use of	32
12	for the purpose of	29
13	at the beginning of	27
14	in the presence of	27
15	with use of the	26
16	as a function of	25
17	by the use of	25
18	in a variety of	25
19	of the number of	25
20	with the help of	25
21	to the existence of	24
22	in the sense of	23
23	at the level of	21
24	of the use of	21
25	through the use of	21
26	to the development of	21
27	to the use of	21
28	of the discourse of	20
29	on the part of	20

Appendix-01: Structural Categories		
b. (Phrasal Bundles: PPs) PPs		
Rank	N-gram	Frequency
1	on the other hand	141
2	in this paper we	131
3	of the association for	100
4	as well as the	57
5	at the same time	50
6	as in the following	44
7	in the following examples	36
8	with respect to the	36

9	in the study we	34
10	on the one hand	30
11	in the present study	29
12	in the case the	28
13	to the fact that	26
14	in this paper a	24
15	of the first and	24
16	of the most important	24
17	with regard to the	24
18	in the same way	22
19	in addition to the	20
20	in the target language	20

Appendix-01: Structural Categories

c. (Phrasal Bundles: PPs) PP + VP

Rank	N-gram	Frequency
1	of this paper is	27
2	of this study was	25
3	in order to identify	20

Appendix-01: Structural Categories

d. (Phrasal Bundles: NPs) NP + of

Rank	N-gram	Frequency
1	the use of the	102
2	the meaning of the	60
3	one of the most	66
4	the end of the	48
5	a wide range of	47
6	a large number of	46
7	the structure of the	44
8	the results of the	41
9	the purpose of this	40

10	the analysis of the	38
11	the aim of this	37
12	the basis of the	36
13	the size of the	36
14	the development of the	31
15	the context of the	30
16	the social construction of	29
17	the state of the	29
18	the existence of the	28
19	the nature of the	28
20	the role of the	28
21	the aim of the	27
22	the quality of the	27
23	the use of a	27
24	the presence of a	26
25	the rest of the	26
26	the effect of the	21
27	the purpose of the	21
28	the study of the	21
29	the total number of	21
30	aim of this study	20
31	social construction of knowledge	20
32	the context of a	20

Appendix-01: Structural Categories

e. (Phrasal Bundles: NPs) NP+VP

Rank	N-gram	Frequency
1	this article is to	37
2	paper we propose a	36
3	the paper presents a	35

4	speaker is committed to	34
5	results show that the	32
6	we find that the	29
7	the results show that	26
8	this study was to	23
9	this paper is to	22
10	we would like to	21

Appendix-01: Structural Categories		
f. (Phrasal Bundles: NPs) NPs		
Rank	N-gram	Frequency
1	language resources and evaluation	66
2	English for specific purposes	38
3	the language used in	25
4	the other hand the	22
5	part of speech tagging	20

Appendix-01: Structural Categories		
g. (Phrasal Bundles: NPs) NP+PP		
Rank	N-gram	Frequency
1	the relationship between the	29
2	an important role in	26
3	the association for computational	90
4	the extent to which	21

Appendix-01: Structural Categories		
h. (Phrasal Bundles: VPs) Passive VP/ Passive VP+PP		
Rank	N-gram	Frequency
1	can be used to	86
2	can be used in	32
3	have been shown to	29
4	can be used for	28
5	can be seen as	25
6	been shown to be	24

7	has been shown to	24
8	can be used as	22
9	is related to the	22
10	was found to be	20
11	to be able to	24

Appendix-01: Structural Categories
i. (Phrasal Bundles: VPs) VP+PP

Rank	N-gram	Frequency
1	is based on the	59
2	is one of the	58
3	is based on a	29

Appendix-01: Structural Categories
j. (Phrasal Bundles: AdjPs) Adj + Ps

Rank	N-gram	Frequency
1	state of the art	81

Appendix-01: Structural Categories
k. (Clausal Bundles) Anticipatory *it* + V/Adj

Rank	N-gram	Frequency
1	it is possible to	32
2	it is important to	31
3	it is clear that	21
4	it is difficult to	

Appendix-01: Structural Categories
l. (Clausal Bundles) NP / VP + *that* Comp

Rank	N-gram	Frequency
1	the fact that the	40
2	show that the proposed	24

Appendix-01: Structural Categories

m. (Clausal Bundles) <i>That</i> + NP,VP / VP Passive Comp		
Rank	N-gram	Frequency
1	that there is a	36
2	that can be used	26

Appendix-01: Structural Categories		
n. (Clausal Bundles) Conj (and) + NP		
Rank	N-gram	Frequency
1	and the number of	25
2	as can be seen	25

Appendix-02: All Tables of Functional Classification			
a. Discourse Organisers (Topic Elaboration/Clarification)			
S #	Type	LBs	Frequency
1	Topic Elaboration/Clarification	on the other hand	141
2	Topic Elaboration/Clarification	at the same time	50
3	Topic Elaboration (cause and effect)	as a result of	50
4	Topic Elaboration/Clarification	in addition to the	20
5	Topic Elaboration/Clarification	as well as the	57
6	Topic Elaboration/Clarification	on the one hand	30
7	Topic Elaboration/Clarification	with respect to the	36
8	Topic Elaboration/Clarification	for the purpose of	29
9	Topic Elaboration /Clarification (cause and effect)	in the sense of	23
10	Topic Elaboration/Clarification	on the part of	20
11	Topic Elaboration/Clarification	of the most important	24
12	Topic Elaboration/Clarification	with regard to the	24
13	Topic Elaboration/Clarification	in the same way	22

14	Topic Elaboration/Clarification	in order to identify	20
15	Topic Elaboration/Clarification	the other hand the	22

Appendix-02: All Tables of Functional Classification

b. Stance Bundles (Epistemic Stance)

S #	Type	LBs	Frequency
1	Epistemic stance (impersonal)	the fact that the	40
2	Epistemic stance (impersonal)	to the fact that	26

Appendix-02: All Tables of Functional Classification

c. Stance Bundles (Attitudinal/ Modality; Obligation/Directive)

S #	Type	LBs	Frequency
1	Obligation/Directive (intention/Prediction)	it is important to	31
2	Obligation/Directive (intention/Prediction)	it is clear that	21
3	Obligation/Directive (intention/Prediction)	it is difficult to	21
4	Obligation/Directive(impersonal)	that there is a	36
5	Obligation/Directive (intention/Prediction)	in the study we	34
6	Obligation/Directive (intention/Prediction)	we find that the	29
7	Obligation/Directive (intention/Prediction)	we would like to	21

Appendix-02: All Tables of Functional Classification

d. Stance Bundles (Attitudinal/ Modality; Ability Im/Personal)

S #	Type	LBs	Frequency
1	Ability (impersonal)	it is possible to	32

2	Ability (personal)	to be able to	24
3	Ability (impersonal)	in order to identify	20
4	Ability (personal)	paper we propose a	36
5	Ability (impersonal)	can be used to	86
6	Ability (impersonal)	can be used in	32
7	Ability (impersonal)	can be used for	28
8	Ability (impersonal)	can be seen as	25
9	Ability (impersonal)	can be used as	22
10	Ability (impersonal)	that can be used	26

Appendix-02: All Tables of Functional Classification

e. Referential Expressions (Framing: Tangible)

S #	Type	LBs	Frequency
1	tangible framing	in the form of	55
2	tangible framing	on the use of	32
3	tangible framing	the results of the	41
4	tangible framing	the total number of	21
5	tangible/intangible framing	this article is to	37
6	tangible framing	speaker is committed to	34
7	tangible framing	results show that the	32
8	tangible framing	the results show that	26
9	tangible framing	this study was to	23
10	tangible framing	this paper is to	22
11	tangible framing	the language used in	25
12	tangible framing	part of speech tagging	20
13	tangible framing	was found to be	20
14	tangible framing	the association for computational	90
15	tangible framing	as can be seen	25

Appendix-02: All Tables of Functional Classification

f. Referential Expressions (Framing: Intangible)

S #	Type	LBs	Frequency
	intangible framing	in the case of	94
1	intangible framing	in the context of	93
2	intangible framing	in terms of the	54
3	intangible framing	in the present study	28
4	intangible framing	in the following examples	36
5	intangible framing	with use of the	26
6	intangible framing	as a function of	25
7	intangible framing	by the use of	25
8	text deixis/ intangible framing	in a variety of	25
9	text deixis/ intangible framing	of the number of	25
1	text deixis/ intangible framing	with the help of	25
1	text deixis/ intangible framing	to the existence of	24
1	intangible framing	the use of the	102
1	intangible framing	the meaning of the	60
1	intangible framing	the purpose of this	40
1	intangible framing	the analysis of the	38
1	intangible framing	the aim of this	37
1	intangible framing	the basis of the	36
1	intangible framing	the size of the	36
1	intangible framing	the development of the	31
2	intangible framing	the context of the	30
2	intangible framing	the social construction of	29
2	intangible framing	the state of the	29
2	intangible framing	the existence of the	28
2	intangible framing	the nature of the	28
2	intangible framing	the role of the	28
2	intangible framing	the aim of the	27
2	intangible framing	the quality of the	27
2	intangible framing	the use of a	27
2	intangible framing	the presence of a	26
3	intangible framing	the rest of the	26
3	intangible framing	the effect of the	21
3	intangible framing	the purpose of the	21

3	intangible framing	the study of the	21
3	tangible framing	the total number of	21
3	intangible framing	aim of this study	20
3	intangible framing	social construction of knowledge	20
3	intangible framing	the context of a	20
3	intangible framing	the paper presents a	35
3	intangible framing	been shown to be	24
4	intangible framing	has been shown to	24
4	intangible framing/ Text Reference, multi-functional (abstract/physical entity)	is related to the	22
4	intangible framing	language resources and evaluation	66
4	intangible framing	English for specific purposes	38
4	intangible framing/ Text Reference, multi-functional (abstract/physical entity)	the relationship between the	29
4	intangible framing	an important role in	26
4	intangible framing	the extent to which	21
4	intangible framing	state of the art	81
4	intangible framing/ Text Reference, multi-functional (abstract/physical entity)	is based on the	59
4	intangible framing/ Text Reference, multi-functional (abstract/physical entity)	is based on a	29
5	intangible framing	show that the proposed	24

Appendix-02: All Tables of Functional Classification			
g. Referential Expressions (Text Reference; Multifunctional)			
S #	Type	LBs	Frequency
1	Text Reference	at the beginning of	27
2	Text Reference	in this paper we	131

3	Text Reference	in this paper a	24
4	Text Reference (multi-functional reference; place/time)	at the end of	37
5	Text Reference (time reference)	at the same time	50
6	Text Reference (multi-functional reference; place/time/ physical /abstract entity)	the end of the	38
7	Text Reference (multi-functional reference; place/time)/ intangible framing	at the time of	32
8	Text Reference (abstract/physical entity)	at the level of	21
9	Text Reference (abstract/physical entity)	of the use of	21
10	Text Reference (abstract/physical entity)	through the use of	21
11	Text Reference (abstract/physical entity)	to the development of	21
12	Text Reference (abstract/physical entity)	to the use of	21
13	Text Reference (multi-functional reference; place/time)	of the first and	24
14	Text Reference (abstract/physical entity)	in the target language	20
15	Text Reference (abstract/physical entity)	a wide range of	47
16	Text Reference (abstract/physical entity)/ intangible framing	the structure of the	44
17	Text Reference (multi-functional reference; place/time)	the first and second	29
18	Text Reference (abstract/physical entity)	have been shown to	29
19	intangible framing/ Text Reference, multi-functional (abstract/physical entity)	is related to the	22

20	intangible framing/ Text Reference, multi-functional (abstract/physical entity)	the relationship between the	29
21	intangible framing/ Text Reference, multi-functional (abstract/physical entity)	is based on the	59
22	identification/focus	is one of the	58
23	intangible framing/ Text Reference, multi-functional (abstract/physical entity)	is based on a	29

Appendix-02: All Tables of Functional Classification

h. Referential Expressions (Text Deixis)

S #	Type	LBs	Frequency
1	text deixis	in the present study	29
2	text deixis	in this paper a	24
3	text deixis	of the association for	100
4	text deixis/ intangible framing	in a variety of	25
5	text deixis/ intangible framing	of the number of	25
6	text deixis/ intangible framing	with the help of	25
7	text deixis/ intangible framing	to the existence of	24
8	text deixis	of the discourse of	20
9	text deixis	and the number of	25

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SOCIAL INTEGRATIVE NEEDS & USE OF SOCIAL MEDIA: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF GRATIFICATIONS SOUGHT AND GRATIFICATION OBTAINED

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Abstract

The objective of this study was to compare the gratification sought and gratification obtained for social integrative needs from social media among information professionals in the limelight of uses and gratification theory. Social integrative needs are related to socialization and relation management among society in general, family and friends. Gratification sought and gratification obtained are two distinct components of the uses and gratification theory. For this quantitative research, a self-administered survey questionnaire was used to collect data from the participants of the study. Sample of this study was 700 information professionals necessarily users of social media. Finding of this study depicted that gratification obtained and gratification sought ($M=3.38$ $SD=0.86$) from social media for social integrative needs are being overly gratified ($M=3.47$ $SD=0.84$). This study recommends further research on gratification obtained and gratification sought in respect of the type of needs. Finding of this study are helpful for the professionals from information profession.

Keywords: Gratifications obtained; Gratifications Sought; Uses and gratifications; Social Media, Information Professionals

1. Introduction

Gratification sought and gratification obtained are two distinct components of the uses and gratification theory. Gratification sought has been identified as corresponding needs for the use of social media whereas the gratification obtained has been considered as the actual outcome or gained gratifications (Bae, 2018; Billings, Qiao, Conlin, & Nie, 2017; Gan, Tan, Gan, & Tan, 2017; Hwang & Lombard, 2005; Ishii, Rife, & Kagawa, 2017; Johnson, 2014; Larose & Eastin, 2004; Oladosu, Ifejika, Asadu, & Laniran, 2017; Palmgreen, Wenner, & Rayburn, 1980; Sohn, Choi, & Jee, 2018; Stefanone, Yue, & Toh, 2019; Q. Wang & Zhu, 2012; Z. Wang & Tchernev, 2012). Katz, Blumler & Gurevitch (1973) categorized social integrative needs including all needs associated with empowering connection with the world including friends & family. This type of needs include needs related to socialization and relation management among society in general and family and friends in particular. Along with social gatherings, now people use media especially social media to gratify their need of socialization (Chen & Thorson, 2005; Hall-Phillips, Park, Chung, Anaza, & Rathod, 2016; Monteiro & Duhon-Sells, 1993; Phelps, Schroeder, & Miller, 2011; Pixley, Martin, & Thompson, 2015; Pornsakulvanich & Rubin, 2005; Sisson & Bowen, 2015; Trust-Schwartz & Farrar, 2011; Wray & Gomberg, 2016; Wurtzler & Altman, 2001). The present studies examined the use of social media for social integrative needs and analyzed the gratifications sought and gratification obtained for social integrative needs from social media among information professionals in the limelight of uses and gratification theory. Information professionals for the purpose of this study are the professionals dealing with different tiers of information i.e., information management, information communication & Information preservation. The term “Information Professional” has been coined for persons/professionals holding degree (Sixteen years of education) in information and communication related fields i.e. Media & Communication Studies, Journalism, Information Management and Library & Information Science. Figure 1 present an overview of the variables of the study.

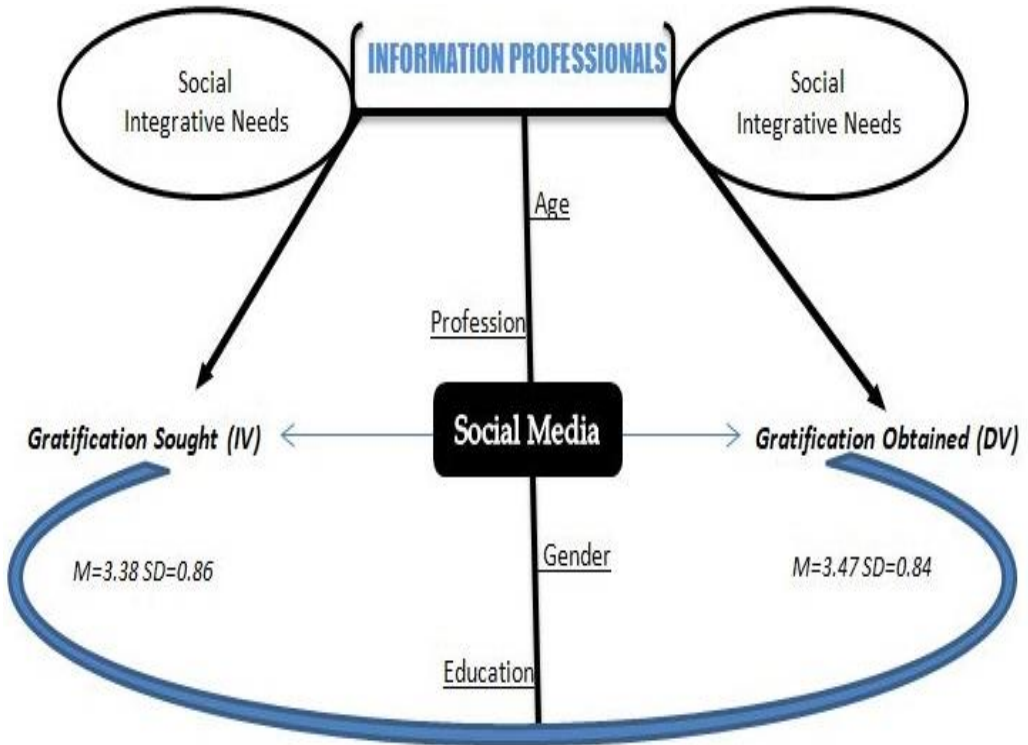


Figure 1: Social Integrative Needs and use of Social Media among Information Professionals

2. Literature Review

In this era of information technology and socialization where everyone is connected through social media, it's quite difficult to utterly elaborate the uses and gratification of social media. Literature reflects the use of social media to gratify all major type of information and communication needs is very common in daily routine life of individuals (V Benson, Hand, Information, & 2019, n.d.; Vladlena Benson, Hand, & Hartshorne, 2019; Du, Kerkhof, & Van Koningsbruggen, 2019; Kandiuk & De Torrens, 2015; O'Brien, Simek, & Waugh, 2019; Sohn et al., 2018). Irrespective of mode, medium and media, people use media to get connected and accomplish their social integrative needs. Within the framework of media, most commonly people use to watch TV news, quiz programs, newspaper articles, internet & social media to gratify their social integrative needs.

With availability of high-speed internet and gadgets like smart phones, tablets, personal computers, smart watches, smart TV and particularly the social media; information seeking, dissemination & socialization has been ominously evolved to high-tech rapid transitory models (Büyüközkan & Ilıcak, 2019; Cool & Lutkehaus, 2008; Dunn & Williams, 2010; Saraswat, 2018). Media houses (television, radio, newspapers etc.) and information centers (libraries, research centers, archive units etc.) are now involved in rapid dissemination of information using social media tools (Diakopoulos, Naaman, & Kivran-Swaine, 2010; Fichera & Iv, 2009). Information professionals are not mere custodian or disseminator of information now information professionals are analyzing information, generating information, preserving information, organizing social gatherings and engaged in community services. Social media sites are being used widely for different uses and gratifications around globe. Apaolaza & Hartmann (2014) conducted a study to measure the influences of gratifications obtained from social networking and impact of uses and gratifications theory. Social media sites are being used as primary source of socialization.

Sharing information, thoughts and feeling with friends, family & public become an integral need of the people and social media provides best platforms to gratify these social integrative needs of individuals (Dolan, Conduit, Fahy, & Goodman, 2016; Massa & Werder, 2013; Quinn, 2016; Shepherd, 2015; Stanley & Shepard, 2015). Social media for sharing of information includes news stories, fresh arrivals of books in a library, events and announcement is being used by professionals (Burkey & Newton, 2014; Chambers & Champ, 2015; Ifinedo, 2016; Karlis & Collins, 2013; Masouras, 2015; McKinney & Watkins, 2014). Uses and gratification of social media among professionals has been discussed and examined widely in literature (Aisha, Wok, Manaf, & Ismail, 2015; Alikilic & Atabek, 2012; Allen, 2005; Fieseler, Meckel, & Ranzini, 2015; Gilbert, Fourie, & Bornman, 2002; Gonzalez & Floto, 2010; Gruzd, Haythornthwaite, Paulin, Gilbert, & del Valle, 2016; Gulyas, 2013; Guo et al., 2015; Junco, 2012; Knab, Humphrey, & Ward, 2016; Listorti & Stewart, 2015; Reuben, 2008; Rice, 2015; Rucht, 2004; Sacco & Bossio, 2017; Schaefer & Jackson, 2013; Schmiedebergs & Pharmacol, 2017; Sin, 2001; Touarti, 2007; Yuan, 2011).

People use media to build and maintain relation and for empowering connection with the world including friends & family. These needs are related to social integrative needs. Studies reflect that these needs are being gratified with the use of media studies (Agozzino & Rentner, 2010; Anderson, 2015; Bowman, Westerman, & Claus, 2012; Burkey & Newton, 2014; Maxwell & Belgrave, 2016; Y. Wang & Zhou, 2014). This

study is limited to analysis of gratification sought and obtained from social media for social integrative need among information professionals.

3. Problem Statement

In this era of information technology, when information explosion is at its peak and electronic gadgets like tabs, smart phones and other portable media devices are commonly being used, it is difficult for information professionals to stick to traditional sources of information and communication. Use of social media for education, social relations, communication, electronic evidences, proofs, statements and resources is a widely acceptable practice.

Information professionals are using social media for different needs including social integrative needs and other needs. But do they obtain gratification as desired? Or less gratified or over gratified? This study has analyzed the cognitive gratifications sought and cognitive gratification obtained from social media among information professionals. Finding of this study reflects that gratifications sought for social integrative needs are being obtained as desired and overly gratified in some cases.

4. Research Questions

1. What are the major gratifications sought from social media for social integrative needs among information professionals?
2. What are the major gratifications obtained from social media for social integrative needs among information professionals?
3. Do the information professionals obtain gratifications as sought from social media for social integrative needs?
4. What is the relationship between gratifications sought and gratifications obtained from social media for social integrative needs among information professionals?

5. Objectives

The objectives of the study were as under

1. To examine the social integrative gratifications sought from social media among information professionals.
2. To analyze the social integrative gratifications obtained from social media
3. To compare social integrative gratification sought and social integrative gratification obtained from social media

4. To record any difference (if exist) of social integrative gratification sought and obtained based on demographics of the information professional
5. To present conclusion and recommendations relating to social integrative gratification sought and obtained from social media.

6. Rationale and Significance of the study

Globalization of world culture, rapid increase in information and communication technologies and variety of social media sites with availability of smartphones plus internet connectivity are playing an important role to bring revolutionary changes in uses and gratifications of the society (Criado, Rojas-Martín, & Gil-Garcia, 2017; English & Walinga, 2012; Shirky, 2011; Stark & Nissenbaum, 2016). Use of social media is not limited to the extent of social interaction, personal relation and marketing but social media owns characteristic to revolutionize the established practices of different areas of interest. Use of social media for gratification of social integrative needs and gratification obtained has been studied in this research. This study not only measure the level of gratifications sought from social media but also examined the actual outcome or received gratification for social integrative needs among information professionals.

7. Conceptual Framework of the Study

Katz, Blumer and Gurevitch (1974) introduce the idea of active audience in media and communication. They were of the view that audience is independent in selection of their media choice and they devised a theory called “uses and gratification theory”. This study has been conducted on same conceptual frame work and considered the audience as an active, independent and worthy element of information and communication process. As being user-centered approached this theory believes that individuals use specific media for their specific need and choice. This theory contradicts with influence of media, and don’t believe in media hegemony and believes that no media can influence the audience media and content selection where the audience is active and have option for selection, evaluation and examination of their media selection as per their desires and needs. Uses and gratifications is a user-centered approach and unlike to other theories of media effect user and gratification focuses on “what do people do with media”? Uses and gratification is unique in its assumption and elucidates how people use media. Uses and gratifications is an appropriate theoretical approach for this investigation which has often been used to understand the uses of new media by individuals. This study has examined how people (Information Professionals) use media (Social Media) for their needs (personal & professional) and gratifications (satisfactions).

Uses and gratifications approach emphasizes on what people do with media. Furthermore, the use and gratifications approach is especially well suited for studying the media selection by the user, internet and social media. The present study measured the use of media (for the purpose of this study media is specified to social media) by a group of individuals (the information professionals) recording to their needs, uses and gratifications form an empirical view, using the uses and gratifications perspective. User and gratifications has grown its application to the social media overtime. As the internet become more available and popular, multiple social media sites have developed. User and gratifications approach has provided a theoretical basis for studying the social media. Consequently, uses and gratification theory is the best theoretical framework for my proposed work. It's worth mentioning that this approach contradict with other theories related to uses and effect as well like Magic bullet or Hypodermic needle theory which strongly personify the media message with a bullet fired from media gun into the head of viewer. Another relevant theory could be cultivation which primarily examines the long-term effects of television which is not our interested area. Similarly, theory could be social learning which believes in social context and observation or direct instruction but it does not rely on independence of choice of media by user. Same is the case of mass society theory which believes in supremacies of big companies and media.

Uses and gratifications approach is well suited for studying the social media. Numerous scholars have used this approach to study gratifications of social media and endorsed that the uses and gratifications approach is well suited for studying the social media (Bae, 2018; Billings et al., 2017; Gallion, 2008; Gruzd, Haythornthwaite, Paulin, Gilbert, & del Valle, 2016; Karimi et al., 2014; Keppler, 2014; Kim et al., 2016; Leung, 2013; Lien & Cao, 2014; Lin, Hsu, Chen, & Fang, 2017; Masouras, 2015; Oladosu et al., 2017; Quan-Haase & Young, 2010; Raacke & Bonds-Raacke, 2008; Ratcliff, Mccarty, Ritter, & College, 2017; Rokito et al., 2019; Ruggiero, 2009; Z. Wang, Tchernev, & Solloway, 2012; Wijesundara, 2014; Williams & Whiting, 2013). Finding and recommendations of these studies are helpful for this study.

Keeping in view the nature and scope of this study the best conceptual framework for this study user and gratifications theory was adopted for this investigation and empirical examination of the uses and gratification of social media among information professionals as devised in uses and gratification theory was conducted.

8. Research Design

Literature review, nature and extent of this study reflected that quantitative research design was most suitable for this study and same was adopted. Since there were numerous approaches to conducting this study, researcher looked into previous studies as well. For the purpose of uses and gratification of social media a lot of researchers has used the Survey method with a self-administered questionnaire as tool of data collection to conduct their studies (Aisha et al., 2015; Bowman et al., 2012; Huang, Leung, & Lee, 2011; Leung, 2013; Pai & Arnott, 2013; Pixley et al., 2015; Z. Wang et al., 2012). Keeping in view the method adopted in previous relevant studies / literature review, nature of this study, usability, suitability and cost effectiveness of self administered questionnaires and the survey method, a self-administered questionnaire was developed for the purpose of this study & the survey method was employed to collect data from the participants. For this study, the purposive sampling technique has been adopted. Selection of sample among information professional was on the criterion of necessarily user of at least three social media application out of top twenty (based on global users) social media outlets. Israel (1992) sample size calculation formula recommended 664 information professionals but the researcher included 700 Information professionals in this study as sample to be more confident with outcomes of this study. SPSS version 21 was used for data analysis. Various tests including independent sample T-test, one way ANOVA and descriptive analysis were performed to get the results of the study.

9. Instrument development

The outcomes of a survey mainly depend on the tool used for data collection. So, it's essential to be very keen and cautious for serious considerations of selection or development of instrument for data collection. A good tool for data collection is the foundation of a best outcome. Review of available literature, nature and objective of the study referred the researcher to develop a customized tool for an empirical investigation of the trust on social media among information professional. For this purpose a literature and knowledge based tool consisting of a self-administered questionnaire was developed and same was circulated among experts of the field for their perusal, recommendations and remarks. In the light of feedback collected from these experts, instrument was modified according. After incorporation of due modification the instrument was placed before renowned experts of the field to ensure validity of the questionnaire. After achievement of required validity a pilot study was launched to further examine the reliability of the tool used for this study.

10. Reliability of the Instrument

Reliability of an instrument reflects its stability and consistency within a given context. If an instrument is producing the same results in similar environment that means the instrument is reliable. To ensure the reliability of instruments used in this study, a pilot study was conducted to ensure reliability of the instrument. Reliability analysis test was performed using SPSS. All the sub scales were tested and the following values for reliability analysis were found. Cronabach's Alpha of subscales was figured out in Table 1.

Table 1: Reliability of the instrument

Gratifications for Social integrative needs	No. of Items	Reliability (α)
Social integrative Gratification sought & obtained	16	.898
Gratification Sought	08	.828
Gratification Obtained	08	.858

11. Piloting of the Instrument

Reliability and validity of the instrument was further test in a pilot study conducted in July, 2017. Van & Hundley (2001) refers pilot study as a minute version of full-size study along with pre-testing of a particular research instrument such as a questionnaire. Pilot study accomplishes a range of significant functions and can provide treasured insight for other researchers. Arain, Campbell & Cooper (2010) believes that pilot studies are the small studies for helping to design further confirmatory studies. The questionnaire was piloted with 50 information professionals to recognize the clearness of the questionnaire's contents. The questionnaire was circulated to the respondents after clarifying the purpose an extent of the study. This was clarified to the participants of the pilot study that they will not be considered to be the part of actual study. Maximum time required to fill the questionnaire in all respect was extend to all participants. They were allowed to return this survey along with their comments and feedback. As suggested and analyzed from pilot study misty and unclear questions were identified and properly modified.

The objective to conduct this pilot study was to testify the achieved and desired qualities of the instrument. Thabane et al. (2010) described pilot studies as minimized versions of the main studies that run in minute test whether the modules of the leading study can all work unruffled. It is concentrated on the routes of the original study. This was an evaluation of the content and format of the instrument to identity any concerns in the questionnaire. This study has decided that the researcher was requesting the

accurate queries to achieve the objectives of the study and participants were able to answer all the questions without any ambiguity. After achieving the successful results of the pilot study data collection for main study was started.

12. Data Collection Procedures

The instrument was distributed among participants through email, online professional groups like Facebook & WhatsApp groups, personal visits. An online survey was developed to share link with professionals to collect data. For personal visits a telephonic appointment (where required) prior to personal visit was made with the participant as per his/her convenience. Contact details i.e. phone number, email, and postal address etc. of the researcher was provided to participants in order to facilitate further for any clarification of questions, help or collection of filled questionnaires. For online distribution of the instrument, an online version of the questionnaire was developed and link was provided to information professionals through personal email, list serve, social media etc. To avoid any inconvenience to participants, effective communication and error free collection of data email & social media IDs, cellular number and postal address of the researcher was provided on online survey for easement. After getting completed survey, the researcher scrutinized the filled questionnaires and where the information professionals were not user of at least three (3) social media application out of top twenty (20) outlets, the collected data was discarded as they do not match the criterion set for the sample of study and those information professionals were not included in the study as participants.

13. Data Analyses

This study was designed to identify the major gratifications sought and obtained from social media for social integrative needs among information professionals. Social integrative needs are related to socialization and relation management among society etc. and corresponding statements of the questionnaire were grouped into one unit for the purpose of analysis. Major gratifications sought and major gratifications obtained from social media for social integrative needs were also identified. Assumptions of uses and gratifications were also tested by the comparison of gratifications sought and gratifications obtained from social media. Data collected with the help of tool devised for this study was statistically analyzed using SPSS version 21 and various teste including independent sample t-test, one way ANOVA along with descriptive analysis were performed to draw the results and conclusion. Data analysis, findings / results

relating to gratification sought and gratification obtained for cognitive needs are presented below

13.1 Major Gratification Sought for Social Integrative Needs among Information Professionals

One of the research questions and objectives was to identify the major gratification sought for social integrative from social media among information professionals and the analysis of collected data affirms that the use of social media to start conversations is the most desired ($M=3.61$, $SD=1.09$) gratification sought from social media for the social integrative needs of the information professionals. One step down in this category use of social media for social comparison ($M=3.53$, $SD=1.05$) is among major gratification sought from social media. Next in order by the value of mean is the use of social media build own credibility ($M=3.45$, $SD=1.09$). Use of social media to know what content my audience cares most about ($M=3.38$, $SD=1.21$) is also among major gratifications sought from social media.

At next step use of social media to know what content my audience most repeats, share ($M=3.33$, $SD 1.21$) comes as major gratification sought from social media among information professionals. Results reflect that use of social media to grow the audience or users ($M=3.29$, $SD=1.32$) is also one of the major gratifications sought from social media for social integrative needs of the information professionals. Use of social media to get maximum stakeholders to see the story ($M=3.26$, $SD=1.23$) and to help my audience keep track of an ongoing story ($M=3.24$, $SD = 1.20$) are also among major gratifications sought from media. Table 2 present the major gratification sought from social media for social integrative needs among information professional sort on the basis of mean value of the response of each statement.

Table 2: Major Gratifications sought from social media relating to social integrative needs of the information professionals

I use social media :	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
to start conversations	1	5	3.61	1.09
for social comparison	1	5	3.53	1.05
to build my own credibility	1	5	3.45	1.09
to know what content my audience cares most about	1	5	3.38	1.21
to know what content my audience most repeat , share	1	5	3.33	1.21
to grow my audience / users	1	5	3.29	1.32
to get maximum stakeholders to see the story	1	5	3.26	1.23
to help my audience keep track of an ongoing story	1	5	3.24	1.20

Scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3= Not Sure, 4 = Agree, 5= Strongly Agree

13.1.1 Major Gratifications Sought based on gender

The respondents of this study were seven hundred (700) social media users among information professions. The participants of the study comprised of 377 (53.9%) female users (information professional) of social media and 323 (46.1%) male users (information professional) of social media. Significant difference has been recorded for gratification sought from social media for social media integrative needs based on gender among information professionals. Result of data analysis reflects analysis reflects significant difference in respect of statement number 1, 4, 5 & 6 relating to gratification sought for social integrative needs among information professionals, it has been established that the gratification sought for social integrative need of the use of social media to grow the audience ($P < .001$) is significantly higher in male ($M=3.48$ $SD=1.70$) information professionals as compared with female ($M=3.13$ $SD=1.42$) information professionals. Significant difference of opinion has been recorded in respect of use of social media to start a conversation ($P < .001$), male information professionals ($M=3.78$ $SD=0.97$) use social media to start conversations more than female information professionals ($M=3.47$ $SD=1.17$).

One another significant difference based on gender among information professionals was recorded for gratification sought from social integrative need was related to the use of social media to know what content the audiences care most about ($P < .001$). Gratification sought from male information professionals ($M=3.45$ $SD=1.05$) was significantly different from the gratification sought by the female ($M=3.31$ $SD=1.32$). Another significant difference relating to gratifications sought based on gender was about the use of social to know what content the audience most repeat and share. Gratification sought by the male ($M=3.39$ $SD=1.08$) was significantly higher as compared with the gratification sought by the female information professionals ($M=3.27$ $SD=1.30$). Table 3 present the statements where significant difference has been recorded based on gender relating to use of social media to sought gratifications for social integrative needs.

Table 3: Significant Difference based on gender relating to gratification sought from social media for social integrative needs

I use:	Male		Female		Paired Samples T-TEST.		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD.</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD.</i>	<i>T.</i>	<i>Df.</i>	<i>P.</i>
to grow my audience / users...	3.48	01.7	3.13	1.42	3.49	698	<.001
to start conversations...	3.78	.976	3.47	1.17	3.81	698	<.001

to build my own credibility...	3.54	1.01	3.37	1.15	2.09	698	.004
to know what content my audience cares most ...	3.45	1.05	3.31	1.32	1.48	698	<.001
to know what content my audience most repeat...	3.39	1.08	3.27	1.30	1.24	698	<.001
to get maximum stakeholders to see the Story...	3.52	1.13	3.03	1.27	5.37	698	.001
to help my audience keep track of an ongoing story...	3.46	1.09	3.05	1.25	4.57	698	.001
for social comparison...	3.59	0.98	3.47	1.09	1.53	698	.010

Scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Not Sure, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

Figure 2 present the comparative analysis based on gender for all statements relating to gratification sought from social media for social integrative needs

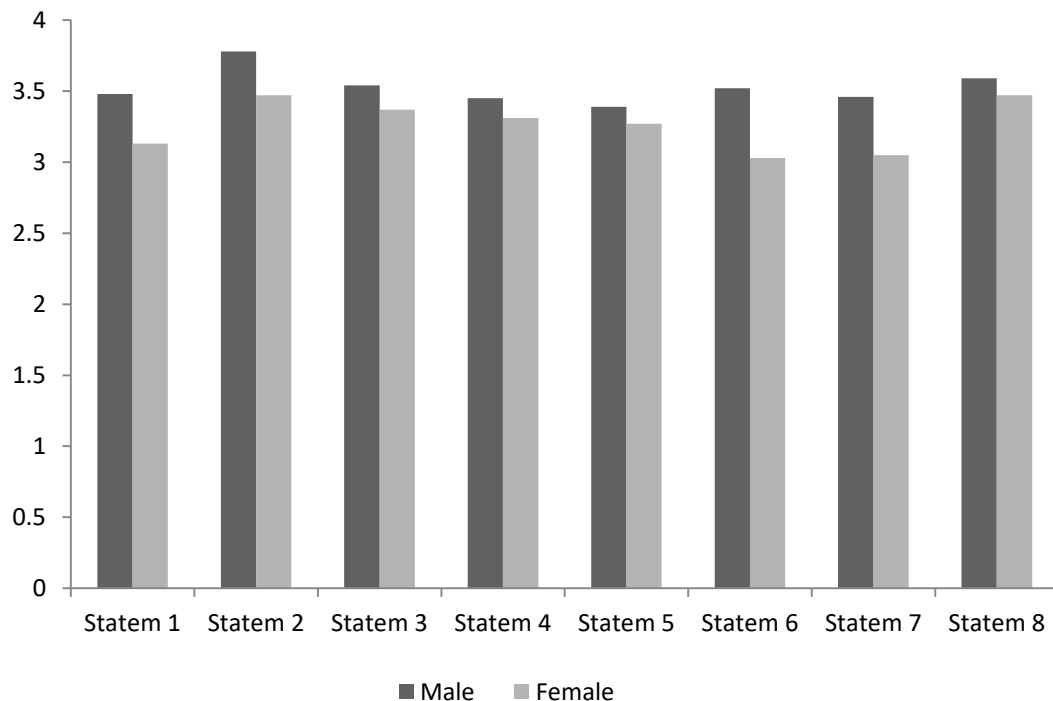


Figure 2.0: Gender based comparative analysis of gratifications sought for social integrative needs from social media among information professionals

13.1.2 Major Gratifications Sought based on Profession

Based on the criteria devised for the study 458(65.4%) professionals were from Media and Communication Studies and 242 (34.6%) professionals were from Information Management or Library & Information Science. There is no significance difference based on profession in respect of gratifications sought for social integrative needs among information professionals. Table 4 present the major gratifications sought based on profession among information professionals.

Table 4: Major gratification sought from social media for social integrative needs based on profession among information professionals.

I use:	MEDIA		LIS		Paired Samples T-TEST.		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD.</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD.</i>	<i>T.</i>	<i>Df.</i>	<i>P.</i>
to grow my audience / users...	3.2	1.34	3.3	1.2	-	698	.313
to start conversations...	3.6	1.14	3.5	1.0	.410	698	.045
to build my own credibility...	3.4	1.12	3.4	1.0	.865	698	.082
to know what content my audience cares most ...	3.4	1.22	3.3	1.1	.916	698	.322
to know what content my audience most repeat...	3.3	1.24	3.3	1.1	.054	698	.004
to get maximum stakeholders to see the Story...	3.2	1.26	3.2	1.1	-	698	.031
to help my audience keep track of an ongoing story...	3.5	1.24	3.1	1.1	.798	698	.006
for social comparison...	3.5	1.05	3.4	1.0	1.68	698	.569

Scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Not Sure, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

13.2 Gratifications Sought and Obtained for Social Integrative Needs

One of the research questions and objectives was to identify the major gratifications obtained from social media and this portion of the study has identified the major gratifications and obtained from social media and compared it with gratifications sought from social media for aid needs among information professionals and it has been established that majority of information professional use social media for social integrative needs and gratifications sought from social media are being fully gratified in this context. The result of the analysis each statement placed before the respondents to

measure gratification sought and gratification obtained for social integrative needs has been reflect that all relevant need are being overly gratified from social media. The first statement in this was about the use of social media to start conversations and mean value of gratification sough (M=3.61, SD=1.09) and gratification obtained (M=3.61 SD=1.05) affirms that the need is being fully gratified from social media for the social integrative needs among the information professionals. Similarly the use of social media for social comparison with mean values of gratification sought (M=3.53, SD=1.05) and gratification obtained (M=3.64 SD=0.99) is among major gratification sought and obtained from social media. Next component of social integrative need fully gratified from social media is the use of social media to build own credibility gratification sought (M=3.45, SD=1.09) gratification obtained (M=3.62 SD=1.03). Use of social media to know what content my audience cares most about is also among major gratifications sought (M=3.38, SD=1.21) and obtained (M=3.42 SD=1.19) from social media. At next step use of social media to know what content my audience most repeats, share comes as major gratification sought (M=3.33, SD 1.21) and obtained (M=3.41 SD=1.11) from social media among information professionals. Results reflect that use of social media to grow the audience or users is also one of the major gratifications sought (M=3.29, SD=1.32) and obtained (M=3.27 SD=1.27) from social media for social integrative needs of the information professionals. Use of social media to get maximum stakeholders to see the story gratifications sought (M=3.26, SD=1.23) – gratifications obtained (M=3.33 SD=1.12) and to help my audience keep track of an ongoing story are also among major gratifications sought (M=3.24, SD = 1.20) and obtained (M=3.4 SD=1.17) from media. Table present the major gratification sought and obtained from social media for social integrative needs among information professional sort on the basis of mean value of the response of each statement. Table 5 presents comparative analysis of gratifications sought and obtained.

Table 5: Major gratifications sought and obtained from social media relating to social integrative needs by information professionals

Social Integrative needs : gratification sought and obtained in respect	<i>Sought</i>		<i>Obtaine d</i>	
	<i>M</i>	<i>S D</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>S D</i>
	Statement # 1 start conversations	3.6 1	1.09	3.6 1
Statement # 2 social comparison	3.5 3	1.05	3.6 4	0.99

Statement # 3	build my own credibility	3.4 5	1.09	3.6 2	1.03
Statement # 4	know what content my audience cares most	3.3 8	1.21	3.4 2	1.19
Statement # 5	know what content my audience most repeat	3.3 3	1.21	3.4 1	1.11
Statement # 6	grow my audience / users	3.2 9	1.32	3.2 7	1.27
Statement # 7	get maximum stakeholders to see the story	3.2 6	1.23	3.3 3	1.12
Statement # 8	help my audience keep track of an ongoing	3.2 4	1.20	3.4 3	1.17

Scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Not Sure, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

13.3 Social Integrative gratifications sought and obtained from social media based on Scholastic Profile among information professionals

There were 441 (63.0%) professionals with an academic level of sixteen years of education i.e., BS/MA, 225(32.1%) professionals with eighteen years of education like MS/MPhil degree and 34 (4.9%) professionals with PhD degree. Significant difference based on education for gratifications obtained for social integrative needs among information professionals has been recorded in the case of respondents with academic qualification of BS/MA/MLIS,. For this group gratifications sought from social media for social integrative needs (M=3.37 SD=0.84) are significantly higher than the gratifications obtained (M=3.35 SD=0.85) from social media for the same needs. Table shows the significant difference between gratifications sought and obtained based on scholastic profile among information professionals. Table 6 reflect the comparative analysis of the gratifications sought and obtained from social media among information professionals.

Table 6: Social integrative gratifications sought and obtained from social media based on gender among information professionals

Social integrative Gratification	BS/MA/ML IS		MS/MPhil		PhD		ANOVA	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F	p
Sought from Social Media	3.37	0.84	3.40	0.83	3.49	1.26	0.34	0.71
Obtained Gratifications	3.35	0.85	3.68	0.66	3.49	1.36	11.89	<.001

Scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Not Sure, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

13.4 Social Integrative gratifications sought and obtained from social media based on age group among information professionals

The age of the respondents (information professionals) varies case to case and grouped into three major categories as less than thirty (30) years old, thirty-one (31) to fifty (50) years old and more than fifty (50) years olds informational professionals for the purpose analysis of social integrative gratifications sought and obtained from social media information professionals. Results reveal that there is no significant difference of opinion based on age among information professionals. Table shows the value(s) of mean and ANOVA to draw the result. Table 7 highlights the relationship of gratifications sought and gratifications obtained for social integrative needs based on age groups among information professionals.

Table 7 Social integrative gratifications sought and obtained from social media based on gender among information professionals

Social integrative Gratification	<30		31-50		>50		ANOVA	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Sought from Social Media	3.39	0.87	3.31	0.84	3.44	0.86	1.55	.213
Obtained from Social media	3.38	0.89	3.56	0.76	3.44	0.86	2.39	.093

Scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3= Not Sure, 4 = Agree, 5= Strongly Agree

13.5 Social Integrative gratifications sought and obtained from social media based on profession among information professionals

Both the groups have been compared with each other to identify if any difference exists in respect of social integrative gratifications sought and obtained from social media for social integrative needs between these two professions of the information professionals. Results of data analysis reveals that there is no significant difference for the gratifications sought and gratification obtained from social media for social integrative needs based on profession among information professionals. Table 8 shows the values/score for major gratifications sought from social media among information professionals based on profession. Table 8 show comparative analysis of gratification sought and obtained from social media for social integrative needs among information professionals.

Table 8: Social integrative gratifications sought and obtained from social media based on profession among information professionals

Social integrative Gratification	Media Professionals		LIS Professionals		Independent samples t-test		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Sought from Social Media	3.40	0.86	3.36	0.85	.059	698	.99
Obtained from Social media	3.42	0.88	3.55	0.76	-1.84	698	.003

Scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Not Sure, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

13.6 Social Integrative gratifications sought and obtained from social media based on gender among information professionals

As far as gratifications sought for social integrative needs are concerned male respondents ($M=3.53$ $SD=0.78$) of the study are significantly different in their opinion from female participants ($M=3.26$ $SD=0.91$). It has been established with the analysis of data that gratifications sought for social integrative needs among male information professionals are significantly higher as compared with female information professionals. Similarly, male respondents are obtaining significantly more gratifications ($M=3.68$ $SD=0.66$) as compare with social integrative gratification obtained by female participants ($M=3.28$ $SD=0.92$) of the study. Results reveals that both the genders of information professionals are obtaining significantly higher gratifications as compare with gratification sought by them. Following table present the value of descriptive analysis and independent sample t-test for social integrative gratifications sought and obtained from social media. Table 9 presents gender-based analysis of the gratifications sought and obtained for social integrative needs.

Table 9: Gratifications sought and obtained for social integrative needs from social media based on gender among information professionals

Social integrative Gratification	Male		Female		Independent samples t-test		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>p</i>
Sought from Social Media	3.53	0.78	3.26	0.91	4.09	698	<.001
Obtained from Social media	3.68	0.66	3.28	0.92	6.43	698	<.001

Scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Not Sure, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

14. Discussions

This study was dealing with the analysis of gratifications sought and obtained from social media for social integrative needs among information professionals in the limelight of uses and gratification theory. Results of the data analysis affirm that the gratifications obtained from social media among information professionals relevant to social integrative needs are mostly being overly gratified with a slight variance on the basis of demographics. Previously, a lot of research work has been done in relevance with social integrative needs, social integrative development, social social integrative in the light of uses and gratification theory and gratifications has been discussed individually (Al-Ghamdi & Carlin, 2005; Hu & Ha, 2015; Nekmat, Gower, Zhou, & Metzger, 2019; Sohn et al., 2018; Stefanone et al., 2019; Z. Wang et al., 2012). Gratification sought and gratification obtained in the light of uses and gratification theory has also been discussed in various studies (Bae, 2018; Ballard, 2011; Johnson & Shoemaker, 2014; Karimi et al., 2014; Stanley & Shepard, 2015) but this study established the fact that there is a significant difference based on gender in respect of gratification sought and gratification obtained for social integrative needs from social media among information professionals. This has also been evident in the results that gratifications obtained from social media for social integrative needs are same as gratification sought from social media. This study recommends further studies on gratification sought and obtained for affective, cognitive, social integrative and stress related needs from social media based on gender in the light of uses and gratification theory to strength or contrary the findings of this study.

15. Conclusion

This study has identified the major gratifications sought and major gratifications obtained from social media. Comparative analysis of gratifications sought and obtained are significantly different, these findings reveals that the information professionals needs to review their usage of social media for social integrative needs as result of the study affirms the fact that they are not obtaining the same gratifications as desired for social integrative needs from social media. Furthermore gratification sought and gratification obtained on the bases of gender among information professionals are significantly different for social integrative needs related to social media. This study was limited to information professionals and the gratifications sought and gratifications obtained for social integrative needs from social media. Researchers are encouraged to

replicate the study among other professions and other types of needs to further explore the dimensions of the study.

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TEACHER AS A ROLE MODEL IN DEVELOPING CRITICAL THINKING IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Sumaira Rashid & Mian Imran Masood

Abstract

The present study presented the effectiveness of different roles of teacher played in the class room to inculcate critical thinking skills among elementary students in public school. The inducement on analysis of class room discourse from videotaped two class room sessions over one whole teaching term in an academic year, this article details that how these roles strengthened the collaboration, sharing and confidence among elementary English language students. Analysis showed how effectively teacher used two teaching strategies questioning and role play to promote critical thinking skills among 4th grade students. The findings presented a teacher as change agent in a critical thinking classroom who used scaffolding, reciprocal questioning, indirect facilitation in a natural class room setting to trigger analytical skills of students. This study may prove a guideline and an encouragement for elementary teachers and policy makers for developing critical thinking skills among elementary students.

Keywords: Critical Thinking, Scaffolding, Questioning, Role Play, Intervention

1. Introduction

1.1. Teacher in a critical thinking class room

A teacher's role in the classroom is context based. As in the conventional classroom setting, a teacher follows authoritative style. He works as authority in implementing norms and rules in the classroom to obtain his instructional objectives and outcomes. Oliveira (2009) ignores the negativity of robotic and mechanical drill and book reading methods and supports the transfer of factual knowledge. In a conventional classroom setting, a teacher believes in exercising corporal punishment for maintaining discipline. He uses teacher centred approach and does efforts more in maintaining pin drop discipline in the classroom despite facilitation of learning through collaboration with students. He put emphasizes in covering the specified curriculum and ignores student's voices. He does not encourage thought provoking questioning and focus on only those questions which are significant for examination. In response, students present themselves good listeners and followers to please their teachers. Although a classroom presents a good discipline but there is no thinking, innovation and learning (Lyle,2008).

In contrast, in a critical thinking setting, a teacher plays unique performance completely different from conventional setup. He promotes facilitation and collaboration among students. He adopts different creative and innovative strategies to promote learning. He uses probing question, discussion, role play and argumentation to facilitate critical thinking. He creates the context in which students are provided challenging assignments to construct their own meaning. A teacher does not provide them direct help or answers of the questions rather brainstorm their minds to provide answers (Thompson, 2002). He adopts student centred approach and encourages student voices. He scaffolds students, whenever they feel difficulty in comprehension of complex ideas. In such context, students are trained to ponder and analyse the content through reflection, argument, thought provoking questions and discussions. Teacher always welcome novel ideas and alternatives presented by students and does not impose his point of view on them (Gladday, 2011). Students pose challenging and reciprocal questions to teacher and to their peers for explanation of the content. In response, teacher does not provide answers directly rather pose more leading and probing question for a disciplined discourse of critical thinking.

In other context, such as role play another teaching strategy is accepted promising for the promotion of critical thinking. For the organization of a role play context a teacher should be expert enough to have knowledge about the whole process

Yan and Meijuan (2002) believe in multiple roles of a teacher to play in a critical thinking classroom. They describe the fact that a teacher's personal factors may influence the promotion of critical thinking in a role play context. For example, low self-esteem and less motivation can affect the quality of role play. If teacher is not expert and less motivated, he will not exert the true spirit of role play. He should have enough knowledge and skill about the types and process of role play. It is also a noteworthy fact that a teacher must have knowledge about individual differences of students in a classroom. All students can not present themselves with same pace as their class fellows can perform. Some students are very confident, and others are shy, they feel difficulty in performing roles in front of their fellows. A teacher should give them opportunity to perform and encourage them for whatever they present. Through encouragement and motivation, he can remove their psychological barriers which block their learning. Ellen et al. 2007, believe that the quality of learning always depends on mutual efforts of a teacher and a student in a classroom to achieve instructional goals. Generally, in a critical thinking classroom, a teacher is expected to follow procedural and metacognitive knowledge patterns. Students are challenged to reason and inquire about real context in procedural knowledge, in contrast, in metacognition, they analyse their own thinking and give critical description of their thinking (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Dreifuerst, Hershkowitz & Schwarz, (2001), promote student empowerment to get success in academic achievement. The change in the learning only is possible in the context, where teacher exerts less authority and motivates more students to share their point of views in all topics discussed in the classroom. He helps their students by assisting them towards right track and manages all complex situations by scaffolding. He always encourages arguments and positive criticism from students (Walton & Krabbe ,1995).

1.2. Significance of questioning

The present study presents a detailed account of questioning that promotes critical thinking in elementary classroom. It also discusses the importance of teacher practices to facilitate learning. Although critical thinking is a complex and controversial phenomenon in the whole world yet its importance for academia is unavoidable. Critical thinking is needed for all disciplines of life including, education and work. There are multiple strategies proposed by researchers to incorporate critical thinking among students such as probing questions, reflection and role play. Most important of all is considered teacher questioning that unlock the potential of young learners to challenge

their inquisitive nature to explore the realities of life by doing own efforts. (Khatib, Marefat, & Ahmadi, 2012). There are different formats of question are proposed by different scholars to prompt critical thinking. among these formats only those formats are encouraged which includes clarity, accuracy, logic and fairness (Paul & Elder, 2006). These challenging questions motivate students to learn competencies required for being critical thinkers (Khan & Inamullah, 2011).

In conventional classroom, teacher usually practices robotic pattern of IRF questioning which require mechanic response from students. In this exchange teacher generally, initiate question based on course content to get student answer and to provide feedback to them. This process does not generate further questions and only promotes examination inclined answers. (Mehan, 1979). IRF is not appreciated by educationists due to its mechanical robotic system. (Van Lier, 2001). In contrast with IRF scholars presented many other questioning patterns to promote critical thinking. As Barnes (1975) suggested two popular and mostly used questioning types which are close ended and open-ended questions. Teachers in our English classroom context usually use close ended questions to memorise the rigid grammatical rules and conversely, open ended questions are used to facilitate meaningful discussion on all aspects of life (Lee, Kinzie, & Whittaker, 2012). Khan and Inamullah (2011) also aligns his opinion with the significance of close ended and open ended both types and suggest the use of close ended questions to facilitate content coverage and to use open ended questions to promote deep thinking.

2. Methodology

The following excerpts of the present study are taken from a larger data set of a big study (Rashid, 2018). The current part describes the effect of different roles of a teacher played during intervention to develop critical thinking. The study is interpretative in nature. The aim of the study is to document the teacher interaction with students in different roles. The study used case study method in which classroom was taken as a case rather individual. Two classrooms were selected with natural setting for the intervention in which two teaching strategies questioning and role play were used. Data is gathered from one public school of Lahore. The discourse of the classroom is reported through videotaped data and field notes. All tasks used in the class room were selected from school text book. The study documented the change in student's learning through using different roles of teacher in the class room.

3. Analysis

In the article, researchers explain the efficacy of teacher's multiple roles to inculcate critical thinking skills in usual classroom. The analysis of the study shows that the productivity of the learning can be increased by employing different roles of the teacher.

3.1. Scaffolding of a teacher

The following extracts is taken from one episode of a larger data to present the significance of scaffolding of a teacher during intervention to provide clarity of the concepts in a flexible manner.

Table 1: Talk from intervention

Turn	Speaker	Talk
6.2	T	Can you define many and much
	S9	Students looked busy in discussion, among them Mahira showed interest to answer the question but in the next moment, she dropped her hand and showed inconvenience in answering the question
6.3	T	Mahira, share whatever you want to contribute (teacher motivates her)
6.4	S9	Oh yes, but I'm not sure whether is it correct or not (looked unclear)
6.5	T	Don't be shy we will appreciate your effort (facilitate her)
6.6	S9	Ok, thank you , I know the answer of many that is collection of things and I,m not clear about the meaning of much..(looked embarrassed)
6.7	T	Wonderful, (encouraging her) You have provided the correct sense of many and we will get the answer from your peers.

The above extract presents the critical thinking environment in which teacher probed the answer by motivation, encouragement and facilitation. She did not discourage the student for her partial answer rather motivated her and other students to share their answers. Probing questions always challenge students to think and share (Halx & Reybold, 2005; Arend, 2009). Further, teacher scaffolding increase student's participation and engagement in classroom activities.

3.2. Role of a teacher as a manager

Aligning with the above extract another example taken from the same classroom episode 6, is presented here to describe another role of a teacher as a manager that how can a teacher manage the critical situation of the classroom.

Table 2: Talk from intervention

Turn	Speaker	Talk
6.17	T	We use many for countable items and use much for quality of items such as how much honest etc
6.18	S4	Likewise, how many water ... showed confusion
6.19	S7	Hahaha ,,,,a critical laughter
6.20	S2	We can not use many for water it is totally wrong example. (became aggressive)
6.21	T	Oh, then share your answer I want to see what is the right one Corrected them, you should tolerate each other responses with patience yes, the right answer is that many is used to show the quantity of items such as many suits, oranges and much is used for the quality such a show much responsible, disciplined etc
6.22	S3	Now I understand it would like how many jackets and how much good or bad
6.23	T	Yes exactly, you did good job

The above example of the classroom showed how teacher handled the complex situation intelligently without disturbing the pace of the classroom. She maintained the classroom decorum peacefully and did not allow students to be out of track. She achieved her target and got right answer from students rather providing them direct help. Johnson & Johnson (1990) supports that teacher should be flexible in adopting different roles according to the classroom context.

3.3. Function of reciprocal questions in the classroom

In the following episode part, students are given a real context to analyse and implement the relevant information.

Table 3: Talk from intervention

Turn	Speaker	Talk
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8.36	T	You are required to use money in buying different household items, such as grocery and other items so manage 300 rupees to do shopping from a store
8.37	S1	I will use 300 rupees for my favourite burger.
8.38	S2	No, I will distribute money in buying a toy car for 100 rupees, and 200 rupees for chocolate cake
8.39	S3	I will only eat spicy pizza for 200 rupees
8.40	T	What will you buy for left over money
8.41	S2	I will think about where to use it
8.42	S3	I will divide money as 100 rupees for biscuits and 200 rupees for fish
8.43	S9	Oh, I will eat spicy fish for 100 rupees and 200 rupees for my mother shopping
8.44	S1	I will spend money to buy a toy car for my friend

In the above situation teacher provided students a real-life context to think critically and apply their information. In the example, teacher tried to improve their decision-making skill and fairmindedness. she involved them in a thinking process to think not for themselves but to sacrifice for others by sharing their money as fairmindedness is a compulsory competency of critical thinking. such context is entirely different from usual conventual classroom context where is impose is exercised rather liberty to implement own meaning (Turner, et al, 2002).

3.4. Clarity in subject matter

The mentioned extract discusses the role of a teacher as guide and helper in providing content help in a flexible way

Table: 4: Talk from intervention

Turn	Speaker	Talk
22.34	T	Do you know why bridges are made for?
22.35	S7	Yes, teacher they are made for vehicles
22.36	S8	No, it is not true, they are made for the convenience of paralyzed people
22.37	S1	I think, they are made for animal support

22.38	T	Yes, these purposes can be achieved also but bridges are made for human convenience to avoid road accidents
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In the above example, teacher answered the question rather putting more effort to extract the correct answer from students. She did not probe more to challenge them to think deep for the right answer. Direct help of a teacher always negatively impact the learning and the process of critical thinking. Teacher should give them wait time to think and share their answers. Teacher should give them wait time to think and share their answers (Rashid,2018).

4. Discussion

Findings of the study proved the strong impact of teacher role in promoting critical thinking skill of students. In discussion part, researchers discussed the success of the intervention by getting its objectives fully. teacher impacts the productivity of the learning by contributing as facilitator, guide, and manager.

4.1. Scaffolding through probing

The findings of the study present the significance of teacher's probing questions. Teacher initiated the critical thinking context in which student is challenged through challenging questions to generate further questions rather than being satisfied with one answer. She involved them in a disciplined and rigorous discourse where they explore their answers through clarity, accuracy, relevance and logic. After getting one answer they were probed for more answers unless the concept was fully understood (Alwehaibi, 2012). Teacher also maintained the discipline and pace of the classroom by keeping constant engagement of students in discussion. She intervened and scaffolded students when they were about to go off task. She trained them to be on task and be peaceful whenever situation did not seem comfortable. She boosted the confidence of Mahira by appreciating her response and prompted other students for classroom participation without any fear of rejection. Such context was favourable for the promotion of critical thinking.

Table 5: Evidence from episode 8

Turn	Speaker	Talk
8.6	T	Can you tell me the purpose of shopping?

8.7	S8	We don't have money to shop (laughed whole class)
8.8	T	If you have money what will you shop?
8.9	S6	I will buy my favourite doll
8.10	S7	I will buy pizza
8.11	S9	I will divide money for my self and for my family
8.12	T	Do you think about saving money?
8.13	S8	We can save money by shopping from sale only
8.14	T	Do you find sale items good?
8.15	S8	Yes, because they are cheap...
8.16	S3	No sale items are not good, they can be wasted easily
8.17	T	Sometimes if you don't have enough money you may buy from sale it is not always bad.
8.18	S8	Yes, may be...
8.19	T	Any wants to contribute in discussion No answer, students looked busy in talking with each other about the topic

Above examples address the importance of probing questions and teacher prompt feed back to facilitate the learning process. Probing brainstorm students and challenge their potential to answer creatively (Grenfell & Warren, 2010). Probing questions motivate students to grasp the meaning of the context individually rather relying only on teacher. They were given the platform to infer the outcome of the task through collaboration with teacher and their peers (Franke et al, 2001). Teacher improves his teaching by getting the feedback of the students. Webb et al (2008) strongly propagates the use of thought-provoking challenging question for fostering critical thinking among students. Probing always engage students in a chain of constant thinking process as it does not put full stop on learning but generate innovate ideas through continuous learning.

4.2. Teacher as a manager

During the intervention it was observed how teacher intervened in the hot situation between two students to made them calm and to continue the learning process. She taught the way to both students how to be flexible in accepting each other's opinion respectfully. It is the success of the intervention and the evidence that how can a teacher enhance the level of critical thinking by playing roles according to the context. (see table 2)

4.3. Teacher helps in content

Teacher help in the intervention can be seen in two different modes, direct and indirect. It was observed in the study that whenever the teacher provides direct help to the students it blocks their thinking process. Students relied on teacher explanation and did not put efforts in finding answers. Conversely, indirect content help from teacher to the students promotes learning as it challenges students to explore answers by themselves. It provides them the way towards destination through thinking and sharing with each other. It increases collaboration, empathy and tolerance. Moreover, teacher encourages students to participate in classroom discussion for healthy learning environment. It enhances their confidence and removes their ambiguities.

Findings also proved the role of a teacher as facilitator rather than fault finder. Teacher improves students' mistakes by accepting them as part of learning. She did not embarrass or rebuke them for sharing wrong answers rather motivated them for more sharing. In response, students showed change in their behaviour by showing more inquisitiveness and involvement in classroom tasks (Hayes & Devitt, 2008). It is also aligned with Mercer (2008) opinion who supports teacher dialogues to make students on task in the classroom.

5. Conclusion

Findings proved the effectiveness of teacher's multiple roles played in the usual classroom. It showed the significance of teacher questioning for full participation of students in the classroom. Analysis also revealed the impact of role play for more student's engagement in classroom activities and for the promotion of critical thinking. The evidence showed the success of the teacher in developing and enhancing the level of critical thinking of students by using both teaching strategies and by playing different roles. Teacher presented the difference of direct and indirect academic help provided to students in different situations. Direct academic help of a teacher is appreciated more in inculcating critical thinking. The findings of the study are encouraging for elementary English teacher and policy makers to use to foster critical thinking among students.

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ON FORMAL DISTINCTION BETWEEN INTRA-SENTENTIAL CODE-SWITCHING AND BORROWING¹

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Abstract

With empirical evidence from Malik's (2015a, 2015b, 2016 & 2017) naturalistic corpus of code-switching (CS) involving competent Urdu/English bilinguals, the study aims to highlight that the morphosyntactic integration of a 'guest' item into the host language, as proposed by Poplack (1980 & 1981) and MacSwan (2009), cannot serve as the criterion of maintaining a formal distinction between borrowing and intra-sentential CS on one hand and between 'nonce' borrowing and 'classic' borrowing on the other hand. Even though we support maintaining a distinction between CS and borrowing for empirical and theoretical purposes, we contend that the phonological integration of an item alone cannot predict whether a particular instance is a case of CS or of borrowing if the morphological properties of such items are not taken into consideration. We argue that the phonological integration of an item cannot mark such a distinction because of the physiological limitations of a single vocal apparatus in catering to the different requirements of the distinct phonological systems. We further posit that the 'classic' /'nonce' borrowing distinction is conceptually inconceivable as it entails an 'interim' stage in the morphosyntactic integration of an item- the stage where an item is neither part of language X nor part of language Y due to its partial integration into the host language.

Keywords: Intra-sentential code-switching; borrowing; morpho-syntactic integration; 'nonce' borrowing;

¹ The paper was originally presented under the title "Formal distinction between code-switching and borrowing: a critical review" at the *First International Research Conference on Economics, Business and Social Sciences*, April 12-13, 2016, held at the School of Economics, Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan, Pakistan.

1. Introduction

1.1 Background

Contact among different languages gives birth to different interesting linguistic phenomena such as code-switching (CS), borrowing, insertion etc. In the recent times, scholars have started taking interest in the contact phenomena. However, there is no common agreement among scholars regarding the strict line of distinction between different contact phenomena. One of the baffling issues in contact linguistics has been the distinction between intra-sentential CS and borrowing. In the literature on contact linguistic, we can discern two mutually-exclusive approaches to formal distinction between intra-sentential CS and borrowing. On one hand, there are scholars who posit that it is neither essential nor is it possible to maintain such a distinction on the basis of any objective criteria. They assume that instead of being based on any scientific criteria, such a distinction is merely a matter of perception (cf. Meyers-Scotton, 1993b, and 1993a). On the other hand, there are some other scholars who argue in favor of maintaining such a distinction because whether a particular guest item is a case of CS or of borrowing critically determines the grammaticality of such data (cf. Poplack, 1980 & 1981; MacSwan, 2009). According to them, this distinction between intra-sentential CS and borrowing is essential because the status of a guest item critically determines the grammaticality of such mixed sentences as include such instances. They propose the degree of morpho-syntactic integration of an item of language X into language Y or vice versa as the objective criteria of maintaining this distinction. The guest items which tend to show no sign of integration at all are considered cases of ‘classic’ CS whereas the items which show either morphological integration or syntactic integration or both but lack phonological integration are accounted for as cases of ‘nonce borrowing’ whereas the items which show phonological integration as well along with syntactic and morphological integration are considered instances of ‘classic borrowing’. Thus, phonological integration serves as the terminating point in the process of borrowing of an item of language X into language Y or vice versa whereas syntactic and morphological integration mark an ‘interim’ stage in this process of the indigenization of a guest item.

The present study challenges both the contradictory approaches to distinguish between CS and borrowing on conceptual and empirical grounds. Out of the these two mutually-exclusive approaches to a formal distinction between CS and borrowing briefly outlined above, the present study supports Poplack’s proposal of maintaining this

distinction. However, it challenges Poplack's proposal that phonological integration marks the complete integration of an item of an Lx into Ly or vice versa on empirical grounds whereas syntactic or morphological integration or both mark an 'interim' stage in the borrowing of an item of Lx into Ly or vice versa. It is argued that the distinction between 'nonce' and 'classic' borrowing cannot be defended on theoretical grounds; admitting the distinction between 'nonce' and 'classic' borrowing is like admitting that designs of the monolingual I-Language and the bilingual I-Language must differ from each other.

1.1 Objectives of the study

With the help of empirical evidence from a naturally-occurring corpus of CS involving competent Urdu/English bilinguals, the present study attempts to establish precisely the following:

1. That assuming no distinction between intra-sentential CS and borrowing as advocated by Meyers-Scotton (1993a & 1993b) implies that the lexical items of both the languages involved exist together in one lexicon – an assumption which entails crucial differences between the monolingual I-Language and the bilingual I-Language.
2. Whether or not an instance is a case of CS cannot be determined solely through phonological integration of a guest item because of the loss of crucial distinctive phonological information as the set of the vocal organs possessed by one bilingual may not strictly maintain critical phonological distinctiveness of two different languages in phonetic terms due to physiological limitations.
3. That assuming 'classic'/'nonce' borrowing distinction on the basis of degree of morpho-syntactic integration of an item of language X language Y or vice versa as proposed by Poplack cannot be defended on theoretical grounds because such distinction cannot be accounted for without admitting in the first place that the monolingual I-Language and the bilingual I-Language are essentially different.

2. Review of the relevant literature

According to Bullock and Toribio (2009), "there exists debate in the literature concerning the precise characterization of CS and how several kinds of language contact varieties are to be classified" (p.2). One of the perennial debates in contact linguistics deals with how to make distinction between the insertion of a single word and of larger chunks in a discourse. Defining CS as "the alternate use by bilinguals of two or more

languages in the same conversation” (p. 7), Milroy and Muysken (1995) employ *code* as the umbrella term which covers many other manifestations of contact phenomena, However, Kachru (1983) and Singh (1985) employ the term *code mixing* to refer to the switches which occur within the boundary of a clause i.e., intra-sentential CS while they reserve the term *code-alternation* in order to refer to the switches which occur within sentences i.e., inter-sentential CS (also see Sridhar and Sridhar (1980).

Sankoff & Poplack (1981) and Poplack (1980 &1981) focus on structural integrity of the bilingual data and consider it inevitable to take into account the grammatical properties of the languages in contact. However, Muysken (2000) believes that the term code-mixing should be employed to refer “to all cases where lexical items and grammatical features from two languages appear in one sentence” whereas “the more frequently used term CS is reserved for the rapid succession of several languages in a single speech event (ibid.)” (p.1). Meyers-Scotton’s (1993b) understanding of CS is based on a fundamental distinction between the languages involved in CS and views it from an insertional point of view. One of the languages involved is termed the Matrix Language (ML) which provides morphosyntactic frame of an expression while the other language is mentioned to as the Embedded Language (EL) which provides such morphemes which are inserted at positions determined by the ML. According to Meyers-Scotton (1993b), “code-switching is the selection by bilinguals or multi-linguals of forms from an embedded language (or languages) in utterances of a matrix language during the same conversation” (p.4). However, contrary to Meyers-Scotton’s focus on the ML/ EL distinction, Meisel’s (1994) view of CS focuses upon an individual’s grammatical and pragmatic competence in the languages involved in CS.

In the literature on contact linguistics, it is hard to find unanimity among scholars about the distinction between different contact phenomena including CS and borrowing. When a guest item loses its original characteristics and becomes a loanword has been hotly debated among the scholars. What Weinrich (1968) and Weinrich, Labov & Herzog (1968) have referred to as *the transition problem poses challenge to any attempt at maintaining such a distinction between these contact phenomena. They posit that since the process of change takes place diachronically*, it becomes hard to determine when a particular guest item attains the status of a loanword. Weinreich et al., (1968) note that since language change takes place rapidly with no clear norms of usage in the urban bilingual communities, this issue of upholding such a distinction becomes even more complicated. As a loanwords passes through different phases diachronically, they defy any attempt at determining their status at a particular point in time.

However, not all the scholars on contact linguistics are in favor of having a clear line distinction between intra-sentential CS and ‘classic’ borrowing. In the literature, we find out two mutually-exclusive approaches to a formal distinction between these two contact phenomena. Poplack (1980 & 1981) and Poplack, Sankoff and Miller (1988) posit that it is inevitable to distinguish CS from borrowing because the occurrence of individual lexical items differs from the occurrence of longer stretches of two languages in a speech event (also see Poplack, Wheeler & Westwood, 1987). They argue in favor of employing the morpho-syntactic integration of a guest item into a host language as the criterion of distinguishing the instances of CS from the instances of borrowing. On the contrary, the scholars like Bentahila & Davies (1983) and Myers-Scotton (1993a) contend that the distinction between CS and borrowing is originates from the perceptions of the speakers instead of objective criterion. Therefore, they posit that maintaining such a perceived distinction is unnecessary and cannot be expected to play any critical role in an account of bilingual data. Unlike Poplack and her associates, Myers-Scotton (1993a) does not create any distinction the occurrences of single-words (i.e. insertions) and multiple-words (i.e. alternations). Instead of being distinct processes, single-word and multiple-word occurrence are treated as two ends of the same continuum and cannot be distinguished from each other on the basis of any objective criteria. (also see Bentahila & Davies, 1983 and Gysels, 1992)

Nevertheless, unlike Bentahila & Davies (1983), Gysels (1992), Meyers-Scotton (1993a) and Muysken (2000), Poplack and her associates treats CS and borrowing as two distinct phenomena of clearly distinguishable from each other instead of being two ends of the same continuum and argue in favor of employing morpho-syntactic integration of guest items into host language as the point of distinction between intra-sentential CS and borrowing. They posit that guest items go through different stages of integration into a host language and the status of this guest item may be determined by ascertaining the relative degree of its morpho-syntactic integration into the host at any particular point in time. The degree of their integration into the host shall crucially determine the stage of a particular guest item during this process of integration. If an item does not exhibit any sign of integration, they cannot be treated as guest items and constitute a case of intra-sentential CS. On the other hand, an item which exhibits morpho-syntactic integration at all levels constitutes a case of ‘classic’ borrowing. Morpho-syntactic integration of the guest items into host language is exploited to create the distinction firstly between intra-sentential CS and ‘classic’ borrowing and then between classic borrowing and ‘nonce’ borrowing i.e., the guest items which exhibit

syntactic or morphological integration or both into the host language. According to Poplack and her associates and MacSwan (2009), morphological and syntactic integration of a guest item mark an interim stage in the process of integration whereas its phonological integration marks the termination of this process of integration. Consider the data (1) and (2) below:

(1) “*Tube-lightōñ ki bhi kafī consumption hey.*
tube-lights^N of^{Ad} too^{Adv} much^{Adj} be^T.
 3/PL Fem Pre/SG
 ‘*Tube-lights also have lot of consumption*’.

(2) “*issues-ko discuss hona chahiye.*
^{-Acc} ^{be^v} ^{should^{Aux}}
 INF/SG

Issues should be discussed”

Both (1) and (2) are uttered by competent Urdu/English bilinguals and are fully acceptable to the community of Urdu/English bilinguals. Both of the data (1) and (2) are well-formed expressions. However, the well-formedness of (1) can be explained only if [*tube-lightōñ*] is considered an instance of borrowing. Treating [*tube-lightōñ*] as a borrowed item entails its complete integration into Urdu. However, if [*tube-lightōñ*] were a case of CS, the adjoining of Urdu inflections with an English root must lead to ill-formedness because mixing of two distinct languages within a word is categorically restricted by Poplack’s Free Morpheme Constraint (FMC) and MacSwan’s Phonological Form Interface Condition (PFIC). Unlike the data (1), the data (2) does not pose any problem as the co-occurrence of English root [issue] s with an English plural morpheme is a clear-cut case of CS. This approach to the distinction between intra-sentential CS and borrowing specifies that a guest item becomes a fully borrowed item over the period of time due to an increase in the frequency of use and their acceptance by monolinguals. This is precisely why *nonce borrowings* are not seen as instances of CS; instead, they are treated as cases of borrowing at an interim stage.

Nevertheless, Meyers-Scotton and her associates do not treat the morpho-syntactic integration as *the defining criteria* of distinguishing instances of intra-sentential CS and borrowing between borrowing and CS. Instead of employing the morpho-syntactic integration as the criteria of distinguishing intra-sentential CS from borrowing, she does not approve of any attempt at creating a formal distinction between these two phenomena. Instead of objective criteria, they consider the frequency of usage as the only way of maintaining such a distinction. She also questions Sridhar & Sridhar’s

(1980) idea that the capacity to fill the perceived lexical gaps is a salient characteristic of borrowed items. On the contrary, it has been found that borrowing occurs much more than what is actually required. Hence, we need to make a further distinction between what Meyers-Scotton refers to as *cultural borrowings* and *core borrowing*. According to Meyers-Scotton (1993a, p.169), the items of the donor language which do not have equivalents in the host language are the cases of *cultural borrowings* whereas the items of the donor language which are not motivated by the lexical requirements of the host language as they happen to have their equivalents in the host language are considered the cases of *core borrowing*. It is, indeed, *core borrowings* which is the only type of borrowing treated by Meyers-Scotton (1993a) as part of the continuum which characterizes lone other-language items in contact situation. For her, the degree of social prestige attached to the donor language restricts the non-integration of such guest items into the host language. The educated bilinguals in a community, according to her, tend to preserve the originality of the guest items and pronounce such items as closely to the original as possible. Thus, the approach to distinction between CS and borrowing adopted by Meyers-Scotton is radically different from the approach adopted by Poplack and her associates who believe that maintaining such a distinction is crucial. Unlike Poplack and her associates, Meyers-Scotton (1993a) neither treats CS and borrowing as two distinct processes, nor does she believe that such a distinction is critical in any sense.

3. Materials and Methods

The studies on intra-sentential CS tend to exploit different sets of data to obtain empirical evidence. Some of the studies favor employing naturally-occurring data whereas others argue in favor of employing both negative and positive CS data. The present study is based on Malik's (2015 and 2017) corpus of Urdu/English CS which consists of different interactions among competent Urdu/English bilinguals taking place in natural setting. Authenticity and representativeness of the data the account of CS is based on, are two pre-conditions which must be taken care of. In order to meet these two pre-conditions, Malik (2015a, 2015b, 2016 & 2017) selects only those bilinguals who happen to have (relatively) equal command on both languages involved and have learnt both languages during early stages. In order to isolate the competent Urdu/English with desired level of proficiency in both the languages, he selects 121 out of around 7000 undergraduate students of a local university on the basis of the information they provided to the university. Their socio-economic status and schooling served as the criteria of selection of the bilinguals participating in the corpus of the study. In the second phase of the selection, all 121 students, selected in the first phase, were

individually interviewed to determine their suitability to participate in the corpus. After the interviews of the students, 42 out of 121 students were further selected on the basis of the information obtained from the scrutiny of the information the students provided to the university. The selected 42 students were further divided into smaller groups on the basis of their familiarity with each other so that they may participate in the interactions without any conscious check on their performance. All the interactions which are part of the corpus the present study employs took place in naturalistic settings. Malik's corpus of Urdu/English CS is introduced statistically in the form of a table below:

The naturalistic corpus of Urdu/English CS

Total recording time	4.5 hours
Number of interactions	29
Number of participants	42
Number of Participants in each interaction	4-7
Number of sentences in the corpus	1767
Number of mixed sentences in the corpus	1487
Number of unmixed sentences in the corpus	280
Number of English items with Urdu morphology	14
Number of Urdu items with English Morphology	1

Maintaining the critical distinction between intra-sentential CS and borrowing appears to be inevitable as the well-formedness of the data in which 15 instances of Urdu roots inflecting with English morphology or vice versa occur cannot be determined without determining the status of these guest items in the first place. In the following section, we turn to the analysis of the data to settle the questions concerning the distinction between intra-sentential CS and borrowing on one hand and between 'nonce' and 'classic' borrowing on the other hand as proposed by Poplack (1980, 1981).

4. Analysis and Discussion

The two diametrically opposite approaches to distinction between intra-sentential CS and ‘classic’ borrowing discussed in Section 2 pose an interesting problem. Adopting one of these approaches further determines whether one takes monolingual and bilingual linguistic capacities to be similar or essentially different. Considering distinction between these contact phenomena as unnecessary and irrelevant as claimed by Meyers-Scotton (1993a, 1993b) and Muysken (2000) is tantamount to admitting that lexical items of two distinct grammatical systems exist in the form of a single lexicon- an assumption which is simply incompatible with Chomsky’s (1995) Minimalist Program (MP). Making distinction between lexical contribution of L_x and L_y becomes unnecessary and irrelevant only if the lexical items of both L_x and L_y are assumed to exist in a single lexicon. Let us consider the English CS data (3) below:

(3) *Mujhay kuchh suggestions dou.*

I^P some^D give^{v+T}

I/SG Imp

‘Give me some suggestions’.

Following the approach advocated by Meyers-Scotton and Muysken, identifying the language which contributed *suggestions* in (3) becomes irrelevant because L_x and L_y become fused in bilingual linguistic capacity having one collective lexicon containing lexical items of both L_x and L_y. Viewed in this way, the existence of L_x and L_y become interdependent in bilingual linguistic capacity and both the languages lose the status of autonomous grammatical systems. Hence, assuming no such distinction implies that lexical items of L_x and L_y exist together in a single lexicon.

However, such a conception of the bilingual linguistic capacity consisting of one broad lexicon for both the languages gives rise to what has been termed as ‘control’ structure- a grammar which arises out of the mixing of two distinct grammars. For the advances in research on grammatical aspects of CS to have relevance to the developments made in linguistic theory in general, we must not accept any essential difference between monolingual and bilingual linguistic *competence* (cf. Belazi, Rubin and Toribio 1994; MacSwan 2009; Malik, 2015a & 2017, among others). Thus, admitting no essential differences in the respective designs of the monolingual and the

bilingual I-Language is tantamount to committing that mixed and unmixed data must be accounted for uniformly with single set of grammatical apparatus.

If CS is viewed as mixing of L_x and L_y through the C_{HL} as Malik (2017) proposes, the existence of each of the two distinct lexicons must be independent of each item introduced into a mixed sentence cannot but be drawn from one of the two lexicons. If CS is to be accounted for without invoking such grammatical postulates as are not independently motivated in monolingual data, we must be able to identify the contribution of both the lexicons within the syntax of a well-formed mixed expression. In minimalist terms, if a grammar (a G) is conceived of as consisting of a language-specific lexicon (L) and a universally invariant computational system (C_{HL}), the contribution of each of the two language-specific Ls must be distinctly identified. Consider the data (4) below:

(4) *Bhutto -ne kuch landlords apni party mein add kiey*

PN^N -Erg some^D his^D in^{Ad} do^{V+v}

3/SG 3/SG/Fem PL/Pst

'Bhutto added some landlords to his party'.

For empirical and theoretical purposes, it is inevitable to determine the status of the data (4) as either unmixed or mixed expression if our objective is to account for the varied manifestation of the Faculty of Human Language (FL) uniformly. If no distinction between CS and borrowing is admitted as advocated by Meyers-Scotton (1993a & 1993b), determining the status of (4) as either mixed or unmixed expression becomes impossible. Hence, it seems inevitable to be able to identify the language which provides [*suggestions*] in (4) if we want to account for its well-formedness.

Thus, the present study rejects the position taken by Meyers-Scotton, Muysken and others who argues in favour of assuming no distinction between CS and borrowing, it argues in favour of maintaining such a distinction between these contact phenomena. Our position here supports Poplack and her associates' approach to the distinction between intra-sentential CS and borrowing. However, admitting the requirement of a distinction between intra-sentential CS and borrowing does not entail the acceptance of the morpho-syntactic integration of an item of lexicon X into lexicon Y or vice versa as the criteria of maintaining such a distinction. Applying phonological integration as the

criterion of maintaining this distinction has been found to be problematic on empirical grounds. Maintaining such a distinction solely on the basis of the phonological integration of a guest item ignores the crucial distinction between the distinct phonological information sent by the FL to the set of vocal organs and the phonetic representation this distinct phonological information gets through physiological processes (cf. Malik, 2017). This difference between the phonological information sent and the actual phonetic representation it gets through physiological processes become even more crucial when a single set of vocal organs possessed by a bilingual caters to the requirements of two distinct phonological systems. Although the phonological systems of two languages maintain their distinct status cognitively, they tend to exhibit convergence in the actual performance of bilingual possessing these two systems; this phonetic accommodation of two systems in the conversation of bilinguals is primarily is due to the physiological limitations of one set of vocal organs possessed by a bilingual in serving two distinct phonological systems.

In order to understand the limitation of the phonological information serving as the criterion of creating such a distinction becomes evident when we try to determine the language which contributes a particular uninflected lexical item in a mixed sentence. Although this decision has nothing to with the grammaticality of such data, it is important that the language which provides such items with no inflectional morphology is empirically determined. Consider the data (6) below:

(6) *Oh kitna cute lag - raha hey!*

how^{Adv} look^v-ing be^T

Asp/SG/Mas Pre/SG

'How cute (it) is looking!'

Whether or not (6) should count as a mixed sentence critically depends upon our success in determining the language which happens to provide the lexical item *cute* in (6). One of the problems one might encounter in dealing with such data is that Urdu/English bilinguals generally pronounce *cute* without adding aspiration to the velar voiceless stop /k/ no matter they are speaking 'pure' English or mixing Urdu and English. The loss of this distinct phonological property of English appears to be caused by the limitation of the set of vocal organs in maintaining their distinct phonological properties in phonetic representations. Because of the loss of aspiration of /k/ in *cute*, it becomes impossible

to determine the language it belongs to on the basis of its distinct phonological properties.

Even though our failure in determining the language *cute* belongs to on the basis of phonological integration does not raise questions about the grammaticality of the data (6), the data (7) and (8) are considered ungrammatical if we cannot determine the language of *juniors* and *seatain*:

(7) *Hum abhi juniors heyn.*

we^D still^{Adv} be^T

1/PL Pre/PL

‘*We are still juniors*’.

(8) *Hum-ney seat-ain reserve karwa leen.*

We^D -Erg seats^N do^v get^T

1/PL/Erg 3/PL/Fem Pst/PL/Fem

‘*We got the seats reserved*’.

While it was highly problematic in determining the language *cute* belongs to in (6), determining the language which contributes *juniors* and *seatain* in (7) and (8) respectively appears to be quite simple and straightforward. There can be no mistake in determining that *juniors* belongs to English while *seatain* belongs to Urdu. Poplack (1980, 1981) ascribes this ease in determining the languages which contribute these items to the phonological integration of these guest items into the host language. However, if *juniors* and *seatain* are stripped off of their morphological properties, it becomes as hard to determine the language/s which supplies these items as we found it hard to determine the language which supplies *cute* in (6). The distinct phonological properties of *juniors* and *seatain* lose their distinctiveness due to the phonetic accommodation of two distinct phonological systems because of the physiological limitations of speech organs. Were the phonological integration of *juniors* and *seatain* helping in determining their language, it should also be helpful in determining the

language of *cute* in (6). Instead of phonological information, these are the morphological properties of *juniors* and *seatain* which play decisive role in determining the language they belong to. Thus, Poplack's proposal that phonological integration serves as the criterion of maintaining a formal distinction between CS and borrowing lacks empirical support from Urdu/English CS.

As we noted earlier, although maintaining a working distinction between CS and borrowing appears to be inevitable on theoretical and empirical grounds, Poplack's further distinction between 'nonce' and 'classic' borrowing based on the basis of morpho-syntactic integration of guest items into host language. While the items which are integrated into a guest language syntactically, morphologically and phonologically (the cases of so-called 'classic' borrowing) may be considered part of one of two languages involved, the items which lack phonological integration but may possess syntactic and morphological integration or both (the cases of so-called 'nonce' borrowing) pose serious theoretical problems. In order to accommodate 'nonce' borrowing, one must admit that there exists some special module in bilingual linguistic capacity which accommodates those items which are part of neither of the two languages involved and are at 'interim' stage of integration into the host lexicon. Such a special cannot be found to be part of monolingual linguistic 'competence' because it never encounters such items as are not part of any language. Therefore, assuming such a module implies essential differences between monolingual and bilingual linguistic capacities which must be avoided unless compelled to do so by empirical evidence (cf. MacSwan 2009). Thus, Poplack's distinction between 'nonce' and classic' borrowing raises certain theoretical questions which cannot answered if one applies a model of monolingual linguistic 'competence' to account for bilingual linguistic 'competence'; hence, the distinction is theoretically unfounded and cannot be accounted for without admitting essential differences between monolingual and bilingual linguistic capacities. All the lexical items which are part of bilingual linguistic capacity must be part of one of the two languages involved if monolingual and bilingual linguistic capacities do not essentially differ. Thus, assuming further distinction between 'nonce' and 'classic' borrowing cannot be accommodated if the objective is to account for both mixed and unmixed data uniformly by employing a single set of grammatical apparatus.

5. Conclusion

The present study supports Poplack and her associate's approach to distinction between intra-sentential CS and borrowing and argues in favor of maintaining a clear line of distinction between these two contact phenomena; It has been argued that if no such distinction is assumed as Meyers-Scotton (1993a & 19993b) advocates, we have to admit that the languages available in the bilingual linguistic repertoire may not be assumed to exist independent of each other because the lexical items of both the languages should co-exist in a single lexicon if CS and borrowing are two ends of a continuum. Such a conception of the existence of two languages in the bilingual I-Language may not be accounted for without invoking such grammatical postulates as are specifically meant for bilinguals only and are not found to be independently motivated. However, employing phonological integration as the criterion of maintaining such a distinction remains problematic on inadequate in predicting the status of guest items in bilingual discourse. Its failure primarily results from the loss of distinct phonological properties in the 'performance' of the bilinguals due to the physiological limitations of a set of vocal organs possessed by one bilingual in catering to the requirements of two distinct phonological systems. Although the distinction between CS and borrowing has been found to be essential on both empirical and conceptual grounds, the distinction between 'nonce' and 'classic' borrowing cannot be defended on theoretical grounds because it implies that bilingual linguistic capacity possess some special module which accommodates such items as are at an 'interim' stage and are not part of either of the languages available. If mixed and unmixed data are to be accounted for uniformly, such CS-specific postulates must be avoided in order to keep the research on formal aspects of CS aligned with the developments made in linguistic theory in general.

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EFFECT OF CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED MODULAR APPROACH (CLIMA) ON ENGLISH SPEAKING SKILL OF PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS WITH LOW, MEDIUM AND HIGH ACHIEVEMENT

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Abstract

The present research investigates the effectiveness of Content and Language Integrated Modular Approach (CLIMA) which was especially designed to improve English speaking proficiency of prospective secondary school teachers with low, medium and high achievements. The pre-test post-test control group experimental design was applied. 52 participants from Bachelor of Education Programme (semester-I) took part in the experiment. Two equated groups were formed through randomization. The duration of the experiment was 10 weeks. The specific module contained 5 units and 30 lessons. The duration of each lesson was 1.5 hours. The experimental and control groups were taught by one and the same teacher on the same days. The Analytic Rubric of Fairfax County Public Schools (Virginia, USA) was employed for data collection in pre and post-tests. The name of the Analytic Rubric of Fairfax is Performance Assessment for Language Students (PALS). The results show significant improvement in the English-speaking proficiency of prospective secondary school teachers with low, medium and high achievements and hence, Content and Language Integrated Modular Approach (CLIMA) is effective.

Keywords: Effectiveness of Module, Content and Language Integrated Approach, Prospective teachers, Low, Medium and High Achievers.

1. Introduction

Intrapersonal oral communication (Monologue) and interpersonal oral communication (Dialogue) in English are essential standards for English teachers as well as for subject teachers in the countries where English language is valued as second or foreign language. Pakistan is a country where English is the symbol of status and medium of instruction from grade 1 to PhD. It is still the official language even The Supreme Court of Pakistan has declared Urdu as the official language. Better English speaking skills are regarded as the passport to national, global, cyber and virtual markets (Aslam, 2011; Cammarata, 2010) but Pakistani graduates in teacher education are deficient in English speaking proficiency (Bilal, Rehman, Rashid, Adnan, & Abbas, 2013a Alam,2012). Researches also noted that the graduates of education with higher grades/cgp/ marks in written examinations are not good at speaking English (Bilal, Rehman, Rashid, Adnan, & Abbas, 2013b; Karim, 2012).

There are a number of reasons for low level of speaking proficiency among the graduates of teacher education. These reasons include: non provision of good teaching material for the development and improvement of speaking skill, non-provision of assessment of speaking skills in the examination. Moreover, the available teaching learning material for the development of speaking skill is contextualized in western culture (Bilal et al., 2013b; Tariq, Bilal, Sandhu, Iqbal, & Hayat, 2013). Therefore, there is the need to introduce contextualized syllabuses and *Content and Language Integrated Modular Approach* (CLIMA) effectively encourages such contextualized syllabuses. The fundamental principle of *Language Integrated Modular Approach* (CLIMA) is its inclination to combine content, communication, cognition and culture in a single module. So, the researcher intended to conduct the experiment to find out whether the module based on CLIMA would improve English speaking proficiency of prospective teachers with high, mediocre and low achievements in three dimensions: Overall speaking proficiency, Dialogue and Monologue.

The study is expected to be useful for the students, English language teachers (ELT) and the subject teachers. All of the teachers from the concerned department will become able to teach speaking skills to the prospective teachers if they take some training in how to make use of the module entitled as The Content and Language Integrated Modular Approach (CLIMA). Linhart-Wegschaidner (2010) and Sasidharan (2012) also support the afore said notion regarding the significance of *Content and Language Integrated Modular Approach* (CLIMA).

2. Literature Review

In order to develop the specific module for the improvement of speaking skills of the prospective teachers with High, Medium and Low achievement, the insight was taken from English for Specific purposes (ESP), Content and Language Integrated Approach (CLIL) and Modular Approach (MA). Therefore, the theoretical aspects of ESP, CLIL and MA have been evaluated. Moreover, the differences and similarities in the definitions, features, aspects, significance and role of teachers in ESP, CLIL and MA have also been evaluated. The analyses of the available research works in the areas of ESP, CLIL and MA have also been made in order to get appropriate insight regarding the module based on CLIMA.

ESP

English for Specific Purposes (ESP), the branch of English Language Teaching (ELT), is an interdisciplinary, learner and goal-oriented approach which caters for the specific needs of the learners of a second or foreign language through tailor made courses. The teaching/learning materials for ESP courses are taken from the target areas, disciplines, domains, professions and activities (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Jung, 2005).

Research in ESP speaking is on the rise in the fields, which are non-academic but professional. These areas include: Business and Medicine (Hood & Forey, 2008; Shahrudin, Ali, & Rafik-Galea, 2015). Research is being conducted in some novel directions such as French mountain guides (Wozniak, 2010), land surveyors in Hong Kong (Merritt et al., 2008), hospitality workers in Taiwan (Philips, 2009), construction industry engineers in Asia (Handford & Matous, 2011) and driving school translators in Japan (Freiermuth, 2007).

CLIL

The end of Cold War, Pan-Europeanism, and the acknowledgement of English as the lingua franca of education, trade, commerce, science and technology, bilingualism, multilingualism, immigrations in bulk, greater opportunities to higher education and the interest of most of universities to internationalize their curricula exerted the pressure on the researchers and practitioners of L2, specifically English, to find out effective ways of teaching/learning L2 in minimal time with maximal achievement of academic and linguistic outcomes with special focus on speaking skills. All significant stakeholders came to the agreement that the integration of language and content in the single class to

be taught by the single teacher became the need of the day. A number of names were given to this educational approach, which inclines to integrate language (L2) and the content to be taught. Some of the names include: Content-Based-Instruction (CBI), Bilingual Teaching, Dual Language. Programs, English Across the Curriculum, Bilingualer Sachfachunterricht (BiLi), Englischals Arbeitssprache EAA. All have their particular historical and contextual. Roots and accompanying slightly different philosophical implications. However, the term Content-and-Language-Integrated-Learning (CLIL) is now well established in the European discourse, (Dalton-Puffer, 2007).

According to Marsh (2009), the term CLIL was devised by a group of experts in 1994. This group of experts was funded by European Commission. The experts held long discussions on the contemporary strategies and terms applied to content-based teaching/ learning of second or foreign language. The experts agreed that the term CLIL incorporates all common features of all strategies and methodologies which were adopted by all of international/transnational 'bilingual' educational experiences. According to the experts, there would be two focuses of CLIL: to teach the specific subject; to teach some foreign or second language. Therefore, CLIL will empower the teachers and learners to kill two birds with one stone. The whole of the literature on CLIL appears to stand in conformity with definition given by. Anderson (2008b), Dalton-Puffer (2011) and García (2011). They are of the view that Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) aim at imparting the knowledge of a subject like physics, maths, geography, history etc along with knowledge of the target/ second or foreign language (Hobbs, 2011; Paradowski, 2008).

Module

A learning/teaching module is a kit or a package with the following features: text taken from the course; self-explanatory guidelines/instructions for the learners; explicit and clear objectives; total number of hours to be utilized to complete the module; activity based lesson plans; logical arrangements of activities and lessons (from easy to difficult; from known to unknown; from concrete to abstract); adoption of text and strategies are according to the needs and abilities of the learners; active participation of learners and scaffolding from the teacher. (Ali, Ghazi, Khan, Hussain, & Faitma, 2010; Ullah, Ullah, Ullah, & Shin, 2012). Grabe and Stoller (1997). Genesee, Paradis, and Crago (2004) are of the view that a module is a well-organized self-sufficient system

of imparting skills allowing the learners to keep pace of learning according to their own will. A learning module has a topic taken from the course and it has series of activities which are logically arranged. The teaching/ learning objectives and strategies are well defined. A module has criterion –referenced evaluation (Grabe & Stoller, 1997).

3. Methodology

In order to find whether specific module for developing English speaking skills of prospective teachers with High, Medium and Low achievement, is effective, or not, *Pre-Test Post-Test Control Group Experimental Design* was selected. The experiment was conducted upon prospective teachers of first semester of Bachelor of Education program (2015-2016) from the department of Education, University of Sargodha, Punjab (Pakistan). All of the enrolled students (52) were divided into *experimental* and *control* groups randomly. Analytic Rubric of *Performance Assessment for Language Students* (PALS), prepared by Fairfax, Virginia (United States) was used for scoring in *pre-test* and *post-test*. The intra personal speaking proficiency (Monologue) and inter personal speaking skill (Dialogue) were evaluated through two different performance tests, both in pre-test and post-test. The data were analysed through SPSS.

4. Analyses of the Data

Table 1: Mean Gain Scores in English Speaking Proficiency of High Achievers in the Experimental and Control Groups

Variable	Group	Mean Gain Scores	S D	<i>t</i>	p-value
Overall	Experimental	6.00	2.93	2.833	0.012
	Control	3.11	0.89		
Dialogue	Experimental	3.28	1.60	1.825	0.007
	Control	2.28	0.36		
Monologue	Experimental	2.72	1.39	3.452	0.003
	Control	0.83	0.87		

p<0.05

N = 18, df = 16

The table 1 reflects that an independent sample t-test was applied to find the difference between mean scores of experimental and control groups. On the basis of t-values (2.833, 1.825 & 3.452), df=16 and p-values 0.012, 0.007 & 0.003 lesser than 0.05 it is revealed that, there was a significant difference between mean gain scores of the high achiever prospective teachers in the overall assessment of English-speaking proficiency, in the assessment of ‘dialogue’ and ‘monologue’. The higher mean gain scores of

experimental groups (6.0, 3.28 & 2.72) than the mean gain scores of control group (3.11, 2.28 & 0.83) indicated that English speaking proficiency of high achievers of experimental group was better than that of control group.

Table 2: Mean Gain Scores in English Speaking Proficiency of Mediocre in the Experimental and Control Groups

Variable	Group	Mean Gain Scores	S D	T	p-value
Overall	Experimental	6.81	3.24	3.907	0.002
	Control	1.94	1.40		
Dialogue	Experimental	3.31	1.69	3.285	0.005
	Control	1.19	0.70		
Monologue	Experimental	3.50	1.77	4.036	0.001
	Control	0.75	0.76		

$p < 0.05$

$N = 16, df = 14$

In table 2

On the basis of t-values (3.907, 3.285 & 4.036), $df=14$ and p-values 0.002, 0.005 & 0.001 lesser than 0.05 it is revealed that, there was a significant difference between mean gain scores of the mediocre perspective teachers in the overall assessment of English-speaking proficiency, in the assessment of 'dialogue' and 'monologue'. The higher mean gain scores of experimental groups (6.81, 3.31 & 3.50) than the mean gain scores of control group (1.94, 1.19 & 0.75) indicated that English speaking proficiency of mediocre achievers of experimental group was better than that of control group.

Table 3: Mean Gain Scores in English Speaking Proficiency of the Low Achievers in the Experimental and Control Groups

Variable	Group	Mean Gain Scores	S D	t	p-value
Overall	Experimental	5.88	2.28	6.112	0.000
	Control	0.37	0.79		
Dialogue	Experimental	3.25	1.36	5.486	0.000
	Control	0.44	0.50		
Monologue	Experimental	2.63	1.13	5.389	0.000
	Control	0.25	0.53		

$p < 0.05$

$N = 16, df = 14$

In table 3

On the basis of t-values (6.112, 5.486 & 5.389), $df=14$ and p-values 0.000, 0.000 & 0.000 lesser than 0.05 it is revealed that, there was a significant difference between mean

gain scores of the low achiever perspective teachers in the overall assessment of English-speaking proficiency, in the assessment of ‘dialogue’ and ‘monologue’. The higher mean gain scores of experimental groups (5.88, 3.25 & 2.63) than the mean gain scores of control group (0.37, 0.44 & 0.25) indicated that English speaking proficiency of low achievers of experimental group was better than that of control group.

5. Discussion

The basic aim of this experiment was to find out whether the specific module could be equally beneficial for High, Medium and Low achievers in the experimental group in terms of improving their English-speaking skills. The significant improvement in the speaking skills of prospective teachers with High, Medium and Low achievement in the experimental was noted. The results of the *experiment* have proved that the *module* based on the *Content and Language Integrated Modular Approach (CLIMA)* is very beneficial for all.

The success of the module based on CLIMA owes to multiple factors. The first factor is the assessment of the needs of the learners. The researcher had already found in his previous work “Assessing English speaking skills of prospective teachers at entry and graduation level in teacher education program, 2014” that the prospective teachers needed improvement in interpersonal speaking skill (Dialogue) and intrapersonal speaking skill (Monologue). In order to develop these speaking skills, the content was taken from the subjects included in the syllabus of the prospective teachers. The content meant for reading was changed to speaking activities. These activities were synchronized with local learning atmosphere. The module based on CLIMA was also pilot tested. The participants of the pilot study suggested to the researcher to include more group work and pair work in the module because they enjoyed more in performing the activities which engaged them in interaction with one another. The teaching and learning strategies were also helpful in making the specific module successful. The teacher’s role in the module was that of a facilitator and a scaffolder. Scaffolding and facilitation help the students become independent learners. Scaffolding is task-enabling support (Maybin, Mercer and Stierer 1992; Mercer 1994; Wells 1999; Mercer 2000; Hammond (2001). This support inclines to develop competence in the learners enabling them to complete tasks independently (Maybin, Mercer and Stierer 1992).

The specific module (*CLIMA*) increased the motivation level of participants remarkably, as realized by the researchers and reported by students. Literature also reveals that acquisition/ learning of second or foreign language becomes easier and

faster if motivation level of learners is high. Coyle et al (2010); Lasagabaster & Sierra (2009) ; Marsh (2009); Macaro (2008); Coleman, Galaczi, & Astruc (2007); Davies (2004) and Grenfell (2002) have made comparative studies to know the attitudes of learners towards Module for Foreign Language (MFL) and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and concluded that the attitude of learners towards MFL deteriorated across time whereas the attitude towards CLIL remained consistently positive along with progress in the content area; and it was because of CLIL's activity oriented approach. Therefore, the specific module (*CLIMA*) must develop and it has successfully developed positive learning attitude among the learners.

The specific module (CLIMA) incorporated Role Play, Group Work and Pair Work owing to their utilitarian and pragmatic values. These engaging and interactive strategies are learner oriented. These strategies ensure the maximal engagement of the students by providing opportunities to learners either to speak or to listen. Students become active learners in group discussions. Pair work and group discussions are the best remedies for second foreign language learning anxiety. These strategies develop self-confidence and enhances motivation of the learners. Felicity (2018) states "Group discussions, if properly harnessed, can help learners to own the learning process, communicate their thoughts, feelings, ideas or information freely and efficiently in their environment. Group discussions can also provide opportunities for self-learning, rather than having learners to sit passively to memorize and repeat what the teacher gives them, p-21."

The effectiveness of the current module is an evidence of the globalised validation of modern trends in concept and practice of teaching and learning through such modules. The literature clearly shows that the educational world is shifting from traditional approaches of teaching/learning to modular approaches because of its promising latent strength. In fact, teacher uses modules to teach for specific purpose like programmed instruction instead of traditional book (Mlitwa, 2010)

6. Conclusions, Recommendations and Implications

The *Content and Language Integrated Modular Approach* (CLIMA) was found effective in improving Over-all English-speaking proficiency, Intrapersonal oral communication (Monologue) and interpersonal oral communication (Dialogue) of prospective teachers with High, Medium and Low achievement. As English-speaking skills of the prospective teachers enrolled in the Bachelor of Education programme, at University of Sargodha (Pakistan) were improved significantly. Moreover, high

achievers improved more than the mediocre and low achievers. It is hoped that this *CLIMA module* may be used in teacher education programmes in other teacher education institutions in Pakistan. Further research on the *CLIMA module* for its suitability in developing English speaking skills regarding other languages and other subjects may also be valuable.

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REWRITING OF LEGALESE: A DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF URDU TRANSLATION OF LATIN LEGAL MAXIMS

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Abstract

In English language, Latin and Greek terms are used in technical texts for classification of these texts as technical. Latin is still not exhaustive and it makes up part of English law as the Latin sources of law are deeply rooted and normalized in Legal system. This paper studied the Latinate of Legal maxims in English laws and focused on the process of their translation into Urdu. Latin Legal Maxims are one of the strands of Legal discourse in the Legal system and in non western cultures they are retranslated in order to understand their technicality or legality. These Maxims in English and Urdu were studied against the framework of Register Analysis. The three variables given in Halliday's model of language and discourse (field, tenor and mode) in SL and TL are the same due to the Register specific language used in Legal Documents. Retranslation of these maxims does not hinder their register specificity. These maxims have a narrow semantic range due to their retranslation and Register boundary. In Urdu translation of these maxims, English plays the role of an intermediary language. This paper also explored as to how the Urdu translation of this legal-sounding language reflected the status of it as a 'standard language' in its own right. The Translation Strategies employed in translating the Register specific language were also examined in this study. Peter Newmark proposes certain rules for technical translation; he proposes that the technical terms should not be replaced with the descriptive terms in TL. (Newmark, 1988, pp. 158- 160) This paper measured that how far these rules and strategies were applicable to the retranslation of Latin Legal Maxims. Translation of technical texts is so varied and diverse in register that it is not easy to make generalizations upon them. For the purpose of studying their variety and diversity in ST and TT, thirteen different Latin Legal Maxims were chosen with their Urdu Translations.

Keywords: Latinate, Legalese, Legal Maxim, Register Analysis, ST, TT

1. Introduction

This study is aimed at investigating and revisiting ‘Retranslations’ and register specificity of legal text. Retranslations are not only operated upon the same texts in the same language but they can be the translations of translations. This paper not only studies the intermediate position of languages in retranslations but also brings forth this matter that the translations do not always hinge upon the originally written texts. ST itself may be a translation and translating with the help of mediating language is a difficult and laborious task. This study is of Descriptive nature as it analyses the linguistic choices and the strategies adopted for retranslation of legalese. Certain Latin legal maxims are discussed when translated into Urdu. The maxims are bridged through the use of intermediary language. Certain interpretive principles of translation are employed in translation of these maxims. The register of these maxims make them part of ‘Legalese’. This legalese is analyzed as it is translated by maintaining their structural patterns as well as essence or meaning. Interpretive and translation principles are explored through this study.

Technical terms used in any text makes that text as ‘technical’ and ‘register specific’. The register specific texts are mostly analyzed against their functions and largely against the relationship of speaker and addressee that is being built within the text or through text. The study maintains that the technical terms or register or jargon specific language makes a ‘language’ of its own. This can be said in light of the argument that ‘language’ depends upon the use of linguistic devices in the concrete act of speech. This act of speech is dependent upon the purpose of utterance. The considerable difference in use creates a difference in linguistic devices or choices. This is the functional aspect of language (Havránek, 1964, p. 3). The function makes a language as standardized or non- standardized. Havránek (1964) has quoted:

[T]he fields in which the standard language is used are more varied than is the case for folk speech and are, in part, such that the devices of folk speech simply are not adequate to serve them” (Havránek, 1964, p. 3).

The present research also brings out the strategies used for retranslation of legalese or Latin used in English laws. It explores the nature of legalese in ST and TT respectively. The nature here refers to field, tenor and mode as used by Halliday in his study of language as communication. In order to analyze the patterns and choices, the words like maxims and Legal Maxims need to be defined first:

1.1 Maxim

Maxim is a general truth or a rule of conduct. Oxford Advanced Learner (9th Edition) defines maxim as a phrase which expresses something as commonly true or about which people think that it is a rule for any sensible behavior (Margaret Deuter, 2015, p. 932).

1.2 Legal Maxim

An established principle of law is known as a legal maxim. Black (1968) defines it as a constantly reasonable principle which is admitted as being constant and just (Black, 1968).

This study creates a parallel by keeping the source and target text in analysis. The analysis of both the texts is carried out in light of Register Analysis proposed through Hallidyan Model. Their analysis is brought out against the levels of interpretation and the principles of translation.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Translation of Technical Terms

Technical terms are essentially embedded in scientific writings and technical texts. Different fields of knowledge and professions typically use their own vocabulary which poses varied concepts not in plain language but with the help of technical language. Those words which have specific meanings are not produced in vacuum but they exist within a specific field of expertise.

Translating technical terms is one of the key parts of the processes of translating any technical language or field jargon of any profession. However, the fact remains there that translation of the field specific or register specific language requires an extensive labor or training. Translators are helped by the clients in a way that they provide a large extent making them implement simple tools or plain measures which help them handle technical terminology. It should also be ensured that the translators must have right skills and absolute training. There are certain soft skills and training including understanding about the relevant concepts and theories of translation. It also requires extensive skills including the utilization of the appropriate software which remain essential. (Eugene Albert Nida, 2003) Amazingly, translation of technical terms is not only an important but also time-consuming part of the process of translation. Technical texts are often consisted of subject-related terminology which belongs to varied domains.

According to Nida (2003) "a good translation focuses on the meaning or content as such and aims to preserve that intact" (p.173)

Technical translation is one part of specialized translation; institutional translation, the area of politics, commerce, finance, government etc. is the other.. (Newmark, 1988, p. 151)

Commercial and institutional terms make up the 'umbrella' components in technical texts and the comprehension of these terms is a condition which needs to be satisfied before taking up the task of translation. After taking up a task of translation, the translator has to read the texts twice or thrice in order to understand the difficult words or terms. After understanding the terms, their nature is also assessed. The nature immediately includes value of persuasion as well as information. Halliday as described by Munday (2008) describes the nature as degree of formality, attitude of the topic and intention. Exhaustively, nature involves possible cultural and professional differences existing between the readership of the translator as well as the readership of the original one. After this the translators should give their translation a certain framework which is recognized of a house-style. It either follows the format of any technical report imposed by the client who initiates translation, or, if a translator translates an article or a research paper, the framework of the relevant journal is applicable then.(Newmark, 1988)

2.2 Standardized Language

2.2.1 Technical Terms

Words which contain specific meaning exist within a specific field of expertise. **Technical language** refers to the terminology or skills which can typically be understood by those people who have expertise in that particular field or area. Technical terminology is usually taken as a shorthand and a way of obtaining great depth and accuracy regarding meaning with economy of words and precision.

2.2.2 Whole language as standardized language

A query about **standardized language** or **standard variety** of any language is extensively discussed topic and it is either defined as a particular language variety. This variety is used by a community or a number of people for public purposes and which undergoes standardization process (Finegan, 2007). Normally, the varieties which become standardized are those known as local dialects. These dialects are spoken in the hubs or centers of government and commerce. This is need of that community which causes it to serve more than restricted needs. Standardization characteristically involves

a normalized and fixed orthography as well as codification in a commanding grammars and dictionaries and acceptance of these commandments cause settings of standards by the public.

The phenomenon of language standardization is frequently linked to the construction, or attempted arrangement, of various states and nations. It is due to the fact that language is seen as the medium of a shared and accepted culture. There are different national standards which are derived from a dialect continuum. They are generally regarded as different languages, despite the fact that they are equally intelligible.(Chambers & Trudgill , 1998)

In addition to the phenomenon of standardizing only one language, Transborg (1997) gives the idea of ‘Whole Language’. (Transborg, 1997) This idea is comparable to the idea of standardizing the language of a specific field. It is said that the jargon and the register of any particular field makes that register as a standardized language. The terminology and the technical words including nouns, verbs and adjectives make up the grammar and lexicon of that particular field. This makes up the whole of a standardized language which is consented upon by its users. The consensus of its users is necessary in every regard.

2.2.3 Legalese

After discussing about the standard terminology of a particular field, one needs to know about one of the technical fields i.e. Legal terminology. While writing source or translating source, a standard terminology is needed to be incorporated. Before moving to the relevant data of this research it is important to discuss legalese and its various facets first.

Legalese is a form or use of language which contains a disproportionate amount of legal speech or legal terminology. (Farlex, 2003). It is language used by lawyers and judges in courts and in diverse legal documents and it is difficult to understand for laymen. It is commonly known as a specialized language of legal profession. (Hacker, 2011)

This specialized language is used by judges in court decisions, official correspondence and in formal letters which are particularly piece of advice, in former legal documents. The considerable part of jurisprudence amounts to the use of legalese. (Lavery, 1921, pp. 277-283)

2.2.4 Examples-of Legalese from Latin

There are some technically Latin words like “**per se**” and “**prima facie**” which are words that have English meanings. As much as these words become more established in the legal structure they are possibly less “legalese” and just “legal English”.(Jay, 2011)

Some core Latin legal phrases need to plunge into when lawyers have to decide to write things but in no particular manner.

Prima facie – This term is probably one of those phrases in Latin which is extensively used in legal discourse. The lawyers become much exposed to this term. This term commonly refers to “**on the face of it**” but it is usually used in connection with the idea that someone, missing from a defense, can raise a case against the other party.

bona fide – This maxim generally means ‘in good faith’. People still use it despite the fact that “good faith” is rather easy to say instead of just as a direct substitute.(Lavery, 1921)

2.3 Legalese as part of Technical text

Another of related articles by Cesniene (2014) addresses the issue of translating the legal terminology. *Legalese* is an informally used for a specialized language or a social dialect (academically known as register) of lawyers and of legal documents. It is also acknowledged as *lawyer's language* and *legal parlance* (Zaneta Cesniene, 2014). Legalese is one of the technical texts. Technical text holds specific meanings for a specific field of knowledge and expertise. Legalese is language or register for legal profession or the profession of lawyers. There is a number of propositions regarding legal text. These propositions can be narrowed down in the following manner:

- (i) Most of the legal documents cannot be read and comprehended by lay men, who don't have legal training in reading and understanding legal documents;
- (ii) Much of legal writing is incomprehensible and inarticulate, even to legal practitioners;
- (iii) it is a practice not a necessity that's why there is lack of understanding of the audience and the foremost reasons are that the legal language is so vague;
- (iv) generally legal language can be made clear/explicable without losing the correctness of text;
- (v) it is not the technical or knotty vocabulary but the intricate structures of its sentences that makes legal documents difficult to understand; and lastly

(vi) Clarity does not only mean plainness, terseness or writing 'Plain'. (Hartley, 2000, pp. 1-20)

Reddish as cited in Hartley (2000) concludes by saying that the evidence supports all of these above-mentioned propositions, except conceivably the proposition number five and six. The research shows that drafting legal text requires more focus and attention to be given to readers than is typically the case. (Reddish as discussed in (Hartley, 2000, pp. 1-20))

Legal texts are special form of communication, and the style of this communication is different from the creative texts/language as general utterances which are used within our social circle, literature, or even newspapers.

2.4 Applying register analysis on Legalese

Register is actually a scale of formality. It is one of the most elaborated and discussed areas. In this area, the use of language is explained by the situation in the formality scale. Particularly in teaching language, the term "**register**" is often considered shorthand for any formal/informal style. Although this definition is aging definition but it is still not exhausted and predominately defines the core elements.

Register is formally termed by Halliday (1978) in the following words:

[T]he set of meanings, the configuration of semantic patterns, that are typically drawn upon under the specific conditions, along with the words and structures that are used in the realization of these meanings" (Halliday, 1978:23)

This term "register" was first introduced in the 1960s (Leckie-Tarry, 1993:28). This use-specific framework was known for the description of language difference. It was contrasted with the user-specific varieties known as dialects (Mason, 1990:39). It aims to reveal those general principles which direct the difference in different situation types in order to make us understand the situational factors which determine linguistic features (Halliday, 1978:32).

2.5 Translation of Latin Legal maxims

A book "New Approaches to Legal Translation" by Šarčević's which was published in 1997 bookmarks a clear distinction between two dominant practices: general translation (literal translation) and legal translation. Here the author claims that legal translation entails a different method of translation than the general one. Translation is classified into numerous groups and these groups are dependent upon kinds of language. These

kinds range from general to literary, and specialist to technical translation (Cao 2007: 8). Hence, legal translation is subject to the certain principles in general. On the other hand, it is also constrained by these principles which are applicable to technical translation or translation of legalese. Cao (2007: 8) draws the divisions of domestic and international statutes and treaties which are subjects of translation:

- Privately handled legal documents;
- Scholarly works on legalese;
- Precedents and case laws.

According to Newmark (1987), this technical genre is either informatively objective or connotatively persuasive. General functions of legalese or legal communication are information supply or regulation.

Now the translation strategies applied on legal texts also need to be mentioned. One of the dominant methods is of Functional Equivalence which is applied to retain the TL legal concept. The main function of this is to make it sound similar to that of the SL concept. Some researchers regard this method as an ideal one for translation. Others consider it as a misleading method for handling legal text. Functional equivalence is needed because it allows the readers to make considerate relationship of the source legal system with that of TL legal system and to “access the unknown through known”. It may baffle the recipient by creating an inkling of identity of legal concepts in the source and target legal systems however in most cases, equivalence in them is only partial (Lisina, 2013).

The core principles of this strategy are to maintain linguistic equivalence or literal translation. It even allows to uphold or maintain the semantic content of the SL term intact and to present it naturally. The foremost advantages of this method are that the equivalents are explicit and definable. They can be presented in the usual lexemes in TL. But over reliance may cause obscurity in the text for the readers who are not well versed with knotty terminology of legalese (Lisina, 2013).

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Questions

1. How does English play the role of intermediary in resolving Latinate of Legal Maxims in English Laws?

2. What are interpretive and translation principles employed in the Urdu translation of Latin legal maxims in legal documents?
3. How linguistically variant legalese bridges the narrower semantic range in Urdu translation?

This analysis of Legalese is carried out against the Hallidyan Model and House Model of Translation Quality Assessment. Legal Maxims from ST are driven against the Hallidyan Model which proposes that the socio-cultural environment determines the genre of any particular text and that genre further determines the Register of the text. Register comprises three elements:

- **Field** tells that what is being written about,
- **Tenor** includes the participants i.e. speaker and addressee,
- **Mode** is about the form of communication

In this paper the ST is driven out of the Punjab Acts and Ordinances against the parameters of field, tenor and mode which collectively make up register. The analysis of this register determines Legalese and also informs that a text's register depends upon the three elements, field, tenor and mode. These elements are not constant but variable elements. A text cannot function properly in a socio-cultural environment until it adheres to the specific genre or register. TT is Urdu Translation of Legalese in ST (ST here is the text of intermediary language). This Urdu translation is analyzed against the Model presented by House. This model is a supporting model to Hallidyan's Model of socio-cultural environment containing genre and register. It analyzes the register of translation by finding out the Field, Tenor and Mode of translation of ST. It also determines this fact that if any text containing register is not translated according to the suggested parameters, it may not work for the people for which this text is intended. House (1997) has proposed a scheme for analyzing and comparing original ST and TT pairs in the following manner:

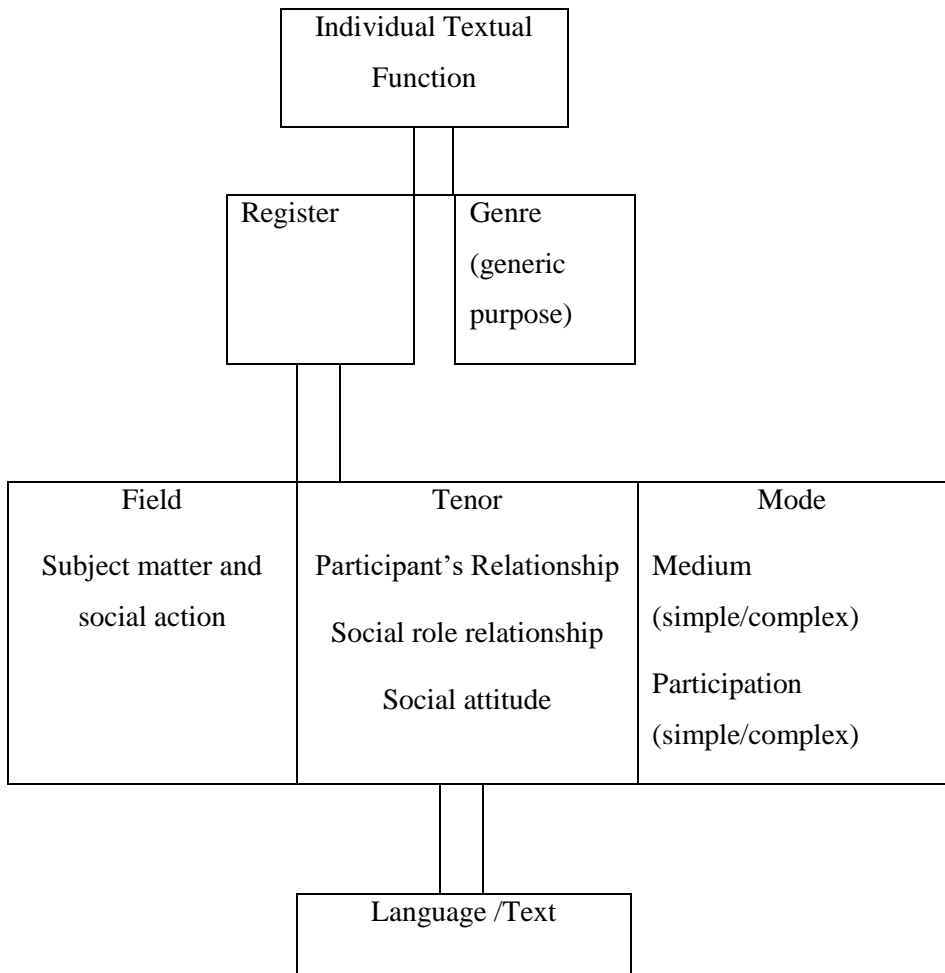


Fig.1. (House, 1997, p. 108)

The researcher has driven out the maxims from the English Acts and Ordinances and their Urdu Translation. The following methods have been adopted in order to analyze ST and TT parallel:

- These maxims are driven out manually as there is no software available for deriving out a particular kind of corpora or datum.
- The parallel corpus is refined by limiting them to phrase level as well as boundary of characteristics of maxims.

- These maxims are studied in the light of Linguistic Theories especially Register Analysis in Halliday's Model of Language and Discourse and House's model of Translation Quality Assessment.
- The Latinate of these maxims make them part of legalese, the researcher finds out that how this Latinate is resolved in narrow semantic range of Urdu.
- The Register Analysis by Halliday and House Quality Assessment are combined in order to analyze the patterns of not only ST but TT.
- The Urdu translation of these Legal Maxims is driven out of the Urdu translation of these Acts and Ordinances uploaded on the online source or website of the Punjab Code www.punjabcode.punjab.gov.pk/.
- The table given below contains the data of Latin Legal Maxims in ST and Urdu translation of these maxims, which makes it a unit of parallel corpus.
- The bracketed English translation of Latin source shows the intermediary position of English in translating Latin Maxims
- This data is analyzed and further discussed against the research questions of this study.

4. Data from ST (English Laws) and TT (Urdu translation of English Laws)

Table No.1

Latin Legal Maxims (English) with their Explanations	Legal Maxims (Urdu Translation)
mutatis mutandis (with appropriate changes)	مناسب تبدیلیوں کے ساتھ
Per se (by itself)	از خود
Ad hoc (Created or done for a particular purpose as necessary)	ایڈہاک
Vice versa (conversely)	برعکس
Bona fide (With good faith, Genuine; real)	نیک نیتی سے، جانز طور پر، حقیقی
De facto (In fact, Existing as a matter of fact rather than of right)	بالفعل

De jure (As a matter of legal right; by right)	ازروئے قانون
Ex officio (By virtue of holding an office)	رُکن بلحاظ عہدہ
Ex parte (On the part of one side only)	یک طرفہ
Ibid (In the same place)	ایضاً
Inter alia (Among other things)	دیگر امور کے علاوہ
Ipso facto (By that very fact or act)	خود بخود
Prima facie (At first appearance)	بادی النظر شہادت
Mala fide (with bad intention)	بدنیتی پر مبنی

5. Data Discussion

The data above shows that Latin of the legalese is resolved by assigning the intermediary position to English Language. English translation in brackets shows that it has a facilitating position in bridging the gaps of two poles apart languages. It also helps in maintaining the register of Legalese in Urdu. Transborg (1997) mentions the term ‘Whole Language’ in her article on Text Typology (Transborg, 1997, p. 4). This concept is linked with the term mentioned above as ‘Standardized Language’. Legalese, Medicaese, Politicalese all make up a whole language in their own due to loaded jargon used in their respective texts or speeches. The data discussed below belongs to the area of law and the terms used (including maxims) make up a Register and as consequence it becomes a ‘whole language’ or a term frequently used in this article as ‘Standardized Language’. Below is the discussion on the analysis of Legalese:

5.1 ST

mutatis mutandis (with appropriate changes)

TT

مناسب تبدیلیوں کے ساتھ

Discussion

This Latin Maxim is broken on phrasal boundary, as used in “The Control of Narcotic Substances Act, 1997”. The Latin of the maxim is normalized in English legal system.

While translating into Urdu, the process of ‘retranslation’ is adopted in order to reach the meaning embedded in the Latinate of this maxim. The semantic area of this maxim is narrow in Urdu as it is translated by using the strategy of ‘explicitation’. The intended meaning of the maxim is sorted out with the help of English as a mediatory language. The translator is unaware of Latin but the normalization of Latinate in English has made it easy to access the meaning of the maxim. The Urdu translation of this maxim is a common use of language instead of maintaining the decorum of legal system with its knotty terms.

5.2 ST

Per se (by itself)

TT

از خود

Discussion

This Latin maxim fills the gap of doing something on its own or instead of depending on others. This part of legal system is also taken from Latin. The Latinate of this term is also settled by using dominantly the technique of ‘Retranslation’. This retranslation depends upon English for its semantic space. English works as a mediatory and bridges the gap between Latin as unknown language and legalese as a register specific system. The Urdu translation is based on literal translation strategy but following retranslation.

5.2 ST

Ad hoc (Created or done for a particular purpose as necessary)

TT

ایڈہاک

Discussion

The term ‘Ad hoc’ is used as a legal term which is considered as a phrase and the boundary of this maxim ends at Maxim. This term is translated into Urdu and due to narrower semantic space in Urdu and narrower range of words used in field, **Transliteration** is considered as the most appropriate principle with regard to the terms containing narrower space in Semantic field. The strategy deployed by the translator or the choice of the translator maintains the decorum and tradition of standardized language

or Register of a text or speech. This word is often quoted in the Acts and Ordinances where services are being offered or vacant positions are filled.

5.3 ST

Bona fide (With good faith, Genuine; real)

TT

نیک نیتی سے، جائز طور پر، حقیقی

Discussion

This example of legalese also determines the register of ST. The translation of this particular phrase or boundary of maxim is also a proof of maintaining a proper or whole language. The strategy employed by the translator in order to translate this maxim is the principle of maintaining the register specificity. In this regard, the translation maintains the decorum and tradition. The Urdu translation offers a narrow semantic field but the space given to its translation is varied. The options for translating a single maxim are varied. This is due to the varied meaning this maxim covers. 'Bona fide' is particularly used where good intention of someone needs to be shown and this area of meaning is translated literally. It has become a **retranslation**. Firstly, Latin is translated into English and then into Urdu. This is because of the fact that Latin is not a vernacular or second language to us. Now all the positive connotation lies within the field of this maxim and the translation also brings the positive connotation. The strategy of translation that is heavily used is '**Literal Translation**' due to its positive connotation and no implied meaning in the nature of maxim. The translation of maxim has now become part of the 'whole language' or 'standardized language' due to its legal essence.

5.4 ST

De facto (In fact, Existing as a matter of fact rather than of right)

TT

بالفعل

Discussion

This maxim is oft quoted one in legal documents. It brings the meaning of factuality or being factual. 'De facto' is a Latin maxim but the process of retranslation is again adopted in order to make it part of whole language in Urdu too. Urdu translation of De facto is narrow in its semantic range due to its fixed meaning and fixed referent. It also

functions as a conjunction in ST as well as TT. The whole language concept is again here manifested through the use of legalese. The word may not be commonly known but it is well established in legal terminology or legalese.

The translation strategy adopted for this translation is literal translation by following retranslation from Latin into English and then into Urdu. This strategy is dominantly used in translation of these maxims.

5.5 ST

De jure (As a matter of legal right; by right)

TT

ازروئے قانون

Discussion

De Jure' is a typical example of legalese as it is commonly used in legal texts. Urdu translation of this maxim is also part of legalese in Urdu. The choice as its translation is not a typical phrase or phrase of common usage but it is a crude phrase used in court language or language of legal documents. This example of legalese also determines the register of ST. The translation of this particular phrase or boundary of maxim is also a proof of maintaining a proper or whole language. The strategy employed by the translator in order to translate this maxim is the principle of maintaining the register specificity. In this regard, the translation maintains the decorum and tradition of legalese. The Urdu translation offers a narrow semantic field but the space given to its translation is varied. The options for translating a single maxim are varied, this is due to the varied meaning this maxim covers.

5.6 ST

Ex officio (By virtue of holding an office)

TT

رُکن بلحاظ عہدہ

Discussion

This term is translated into Urdu by following the decorum of legalese. The Urdu translation of this maxim is not a commonly used phrase but it is used as court language. The common man may not understand what it actually states by saying رُکن بلحاظ عہدہ

because it is not in common usage. Due to narrower semantic space in Urdu and narrower range of words used in field, **retranslation** is considered as the most appropriate principle with regard to the terms containing narrower space in Semantic field. The strategy deployed by the translator or the choice of the translator maintains the decorum and tradition of standardized language or Register of a text or speech.

6. Findings & Conclusion

The whole article sums up the retranslation of Latin legal maxims by this statement that ‘Latin’ needs a bridging or intermediary support in order to be translated in a non western culture like ours. Latin is a normalized part of English laws but still their interpretation depends upon the intermediary (English). The Urdu translation of these maxims is a whole language or a standardized language in its whole. It follows the decorum and tradition of courts by adopting certain choices which are not well understandable by the lay persons. The discussion on the data brings the findings that maxims have the narrow semantic range in Urdu and dominantly they depend upon literal translation and sometimes Transliteration as in case of ‘Ad hoc’, This term has become so normalized that its transliteration is the only way to make it understandable. The standardized language may vary in its semantic range but the choices for their translation follow the register specificity. This paper is also applicable to the translation of other technical texts which maintain their register and dominantly have narrow semantic range.

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SPILOVER OF GLOBAL AND COUNTRY SPECIFIC EXTERNAL CONDITIONS ON ECONOMIC GROWTH OF PAKISTAN

Salma Shaheen & Atif Ali Jaffri

Abstract

This study has estimated growth model by using different proxies for global demand conditions as determinants of growth in Pakistan. These proxies included world GDP, weighted GDP of top three destinations of Pakistan's exports and weighted GDP of top four sources of workers' remittances inflows in Pakistan. To estimate the model, this study has used Johansen's cointegration approach and Vector Error Correction Model (VECM) for the annual time series data from 1980-2018. The results of the study indicated that an increase in global and country specific external demand conditions magnified Pakistan's GDP, whereas, external financial conditions and trade openness inversely affected it. The study concluded that it is important to estimate the impact of country specific external demand conditions along with overall global demand conditions on economic growth in Pakistan. The policy implications based on empirical results were diversification of exports' destination and exploration of more sources of workers' remittances inflows to attain sustainable economic growth in Pakistan.

JEL classification: F41, F65, O40, C22

Keywords: External demand condition, external financial condition, growth, VECM

1. Introduction

Pakistan received US\$ 21.8 billion as workers' remittances compared to US\$ 23 billion as exports earnings during FY2019. Importantly, the remittance inflows covered around one-third of the import payments. Pakistan was ranked 8th in terms of absolute remittance inflows during 2018, whereas, Pakistan's exports of goods and services as percentage of GDP was 8.24% during the same period. Pakistan's major exports were sold in USA, UK, Afghanistan & China and on the same line the remittances were received from a few remittance source countries (Saudi Arabia, UAE, UK and USA). Any uncertainty in these markets affected our foreign exchange reserves and ultimately our economic growth. Given this association, increase in economic growth is caused by injection of large foreign inflows and downturn by sharp decrease in these inflows (Ali, Li, & Khan, 2016).

The economic situation in the United States, Saudi Arabia, UAE and a few regional economies determines volume of exports receipts and remittance inflows in Pakistan. Saudi Arabia is the largest remittance source country and USA is the largest export destination country for Pakistan (see Table 1). External demand for labor and output from these economies is very important for Pakistan. Saudi Arabia contributed 23 percent in total remittances and share of USA in total exports was 16 percent during FY2019. Total contribution of four major remittance source countries were 74 percent and exports destination countries were 38 percent.

Table 1: Country Wise Share of Exports and Remittances Inflows in Pakistan

Countries	Exports Inflow				Countries	Remittances Inflows			
	1980s	1990s	2000s	FY2019		1980s	1990s	2000s	FY 2019
USA	9	16	22	17	Saudi Arabia	46	40	18	23
UK	6	7	6	7	UAE	11	12	18	21
Afghanistan	0.5	0.4	5	6	USA	6	11	26	16
China	3	2	3	8	UK	8	9	8	16
Others	81.5	74.6	64	62	Others	29	28	30	24

Source: Various Issues of SBP Annual Report

Theoretically, trade and remittances are considered as the main channels of outward spillovers (Stepanyan, 2015). Economies are linked through international trade thus generating output co-movement among countries with greater trade volume (Kriljenko, Gwenhamo, & Thomas, 2013). While trade remains the main source of spillovers from outside the region, within the region remittances and aid flows cause spillover. Remittances help to stabilize consumption due to unexpected changes in output in recipient countries. Growth in source countries is significantly associated with growth in receiving countries. Remittances inflow from regional sources has increased from the other external sources such as FDI, aid, remittances from the rest of world. (MacDonald, Mlachila, Yenice, Arizala, & Bellon, 2018).

There is vast literature on growth spillover from large and neighboring economies. Adedeji, Shahid, & Zhu (2018) investigated the growth spillovers from Saudi Arabia to Bahrain. Javed, Nabi, Yasin, and Razzaq (2018) examined the impact of macroeconomic determinants of exports from UAE and found that GDP of United Arab Emirates has a negative effect on exports of Pakistan. Kamal & Malik (2017) investigated the relationship between trade of Pakistan and China. The study argued that bilateral trade balance goes in favor of China, although Pakistan can benefit by diverting its exports destination from traditional markets to China. Ho, Wang, and Yu (2013) empirically examined the international spillover of economic growth through bilateral trade. Umair & Waheed (2017) investigated the drivers of remittances from Saudi Arabia to Pakistan.

Previous literature focused on the spillover of individual country's output to Pakistan through different channels such as remittances and trade openness. But there was a gap in the literature because it missed to consider the country specific external factors along with global factors. The literature also concentrated on external conditions, specifically, external demand conditions and external financial conditions to check its impact on Pakistan's GDP (IMF, 2017). In this study, our contribution in the existing literature is to empirically find the long run relationship between Pakistan's economic growth and external conditions. The study is distinct because it extends literature through estimating spillovers from economies having strong ties with Pakistan. The study has quantified the effect of weighted GDP of top three exports destination countries and top four remittance source countries on economic growth of Pakistan.

In the remaining part of the paper, section 2 discusses literature review; section 3 consists of methodology of the study, results and conclusion are given in section 4.

2. Review of Literature

A common understanding from different studies is that the GDP of trade partners and remittance source countries largely affect small country's GDP. Furthermore, the impact on growth from external demand conditions depends on the strength of trade and financial linkages. Javed, Nabi, Yasin, & Razzaq (2018) examined the impact of macroeconomic determinants of exports from UAE and found that GDP of UAE had a negative effect on exports of Pakistan to the United Arab Emirates. The results suggested not only to concentrate on large economies but also to find new small economies for its exports.

Kamal and Malik (2017) investigated the trade relationship of Pakistan and China and found that bilateral trade balance goes in favor of China; however, Pakistan can benefit by diverting its exports from traditional trading partners to China. Pakistan's imports from China is necessary to fix the supply side constraints affecting the country's productive potential severely.

Akhtar and Malik (2000) investigated the export price elasticities at aggregated level and estimated impact of income and bilateral price elasticities on Pakistan's trade with four major trading partner countries i.e., USA, UK, Japan and Germany. The study used Three-Stage Least Square (TSLS) technique of estimation and found that income effect is greater for Germany and USA. Export demand elasticity w.r.t real devaluation is larger for USA and Japan. Customs rebates and concessionary export financing do not increase exports to any of the trading partner except USA.

Umair and Waheed (2017) investigated the factors affecting the remittance inflow from Saudi Arabia to Pakistan. The study used autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) approach of cointegration for the data period ranging 1973-2014. The results showed that economic recovery in Saudi Arabia and economic crisis in home country increased the remittance inflows in Pakistan.

Kriljenko, Gwenhamo and Thomas (2013) investigated the inward and outward spillovers in Southern Africa Customs Union (SACU). They found that spillover rose due to trade and financial shocks to real GDP. The panel regression suggests that global real and financial factors affect the growth of all SACU members, whereas, the world GDP significantly affects the growth of all members except Lesotho.

The impact of remittances, FDI and imports on economic growth of Pakistan was investigated by Tahir, Khan, & Shah (2015). The main findings were that growth is

affected by change in external factors such as FDI, remittances and imports. FDI and remittances played a significant role in the growth of Pakistan economy while imports negatively affected the economic growth of Pakistan.

3. Research Methodology

One of the key determinants of economic growth is external demand condition in trading partners and regional competitors. Decline in growth of partner countries lowers the demand of its imported goods and causes reduction in exports and economic growth of small economies. Similarly, increase in world demand boosts the demand of exports of a small country and thereby increases its economic growth (Bangwayo-Skeete, 2012). Openness has the potential to increase the productivity of an economy. Theoretically, it has both negative and positive impact on growth. Openness increases the vulnerabilities due to external shocks, which reduces revenues. On the other hand, it is beneficial due to its positive impact on total factor productivity, thus increasing total revenues (Kriljenko et al., 2013).

This study is based on the hypothesis that the global and country specific external conditions affect Pakistan's GDP (IMF, 2017). To test the hypothesis, following models are estimated.

$$Y_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 YF_t + \beta_3 I_t + \beta_4 TO_t + \beta_5 INV_t + \beta_6 REER_t + \varepsilon_{1t} \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

$$Y_t = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 YF^1_t + \alpha_3 I_t + \alpha_4 TO_t + \alpha_5 INV_t + \alpha_6 REER_t + \varepsilon_{2t} \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

$$Y_t = \delta_1 + \delta_2 YF^2_t + \delta_3 I_t + \delta_4 TO_t + \delta_5 INV_t + \delta_6 REER_t + \varepsilon_{3t} \dots\dots\dots(3)$$

Where,

Y_t = Log of real GDP of Pakistan measured in US dollar

YF_t = external demand conditions proxied by log of real-world GDP measured in US dollar

YF^1_t = Log of weighted GDP of top three destination countries of Pakistan' exports

YF^2_t = Log of weighted GDP of top four remittance source countries of Pakistan

I_t = Log of external financial conditions (proxied by yield on ten-year security bond of USA)

TO_t = Log of trade openness (measured as sum of exports and import to GDP ratio)

INV_t = log of investment to GDP ratio of Pakistan

REER = log of real effective exchange rate of Pakistan

The data sources of the study include World Development Indicators, Bloomberg and various issues of Economic Survey of Pakistan. The study used annual time series data for the period ranging 1980-2018.

Weighted GDP of top three export destination countries (i.e USA, UK and China) was calculated by following Moriyama (2010).

$$YF^1 = \sum W_{it} * GDP_{it} \dots\dots\dots(4)$$

Where W_{it} is the export share of trading partners of Pakistan and GDP_{it} is their respective real GDP.

In the same line weighted GDP of top four remittance source countries (i.e. Saudi Arabia, UAE, USA and UK) is calculated by following MacDonald et al. (2018)

$$YF^2 = \sum R_{it} * GDP_{it} \dots\dots\dots(5)$$

Where R_{it} is the share of top four remittance source countries of Pakistan in total remittances.

The stationarity of the variables is examined to avoid spurious results. For this purpose, Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) test is used for observing the order of integration of the variables. ADF test is considered a suitable test for checking stationarity.

Table-2 : ADF Unit Root Test Results

Variables	At Level		At Ist Difference		Decision
	With rcept	With Int. and Inte Trend	With Intercept	With Int. and Trend	
Y	-0.988 [1] (0.7474)	-3.610[4]** (0.0438)	-3.649[0]*** (0.0093)	-3.63[0]*** (0.0400)	I(1)
YF	0.032[0] (0.9558)	-3.494[1]** (0.0547)	-4.734[0]*** (0.0005)	-4.667[0]*** (0.0032)	I(1)
YF ¹	-2.14[1] (0.2273)	-0.3809 [1] (0.9848)	-4.365[0]*** (0.0014)	-4.76[0]*** (0.0025)	I(1)
YF ²	-1.60[0] (0.4683)	-1.112197[0] (0.9136)	-4.85[0]*** (0.0000)	-4.97[0]*** (0.0003)	I (1)
I	-1.07[0] (0.7166)	-3.662[0]** (0.0376)	-6.349[1]*** (0.0000)	-6.231[1]*** (0.0000)	I (1)
TO	-1.918[0] (0.3208)	-2.442 [0] (0.3532)	-6.881[0]*** (0.0000)	-6.796[0]*** (0.0000)	I (1)

REER	-2.08[0] (0.2515)	-0.954[0] (0.9386)	-4.826[0]*** (0.0004)	-5.83[0]*** (0.0001)	I (1)
INV	-2.131[0] (0.2339)	-2.505[0] (0.3239)	-6.26[0]*** (0.0000)	-6.180[0]*** (0.0000)	I (1)

Note: Figures in [] represent lags selected on the basis of Schwarz Information Criterion (SIC).***p < 0.01, **p < 0.05, *p < 0.10

The results of ADF test shows that all variable are stationary at first difference i.e integrated of order I(1). Thus, Johansen’s co-integration test to find the existence of long run relation among variables and VECM model to derive the short run estimates of the model are applied. The expected VECM models have the following form.

$$\Delta Y_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_{1i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta Y_{t-i} + \alpha_{2i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta Y_{F1,t-i} + \alpha_{3i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta I_{t-i} + \alpha_{4i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta T O_{t-i} + \alpha_{5i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta R E E R_{t-i} + \alpha_{6i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta I N V_{t-i} + \gamma_1 E C T_{t-1} + \mu_t \dots\dots\dots (6)$$

$$\Delta Y_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_{1i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta Y_{t-i} + \alpha_{2i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta Y_{F1,t-i} + \alpha_{3i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta I_{t-i} + \alpha_{4i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta T O_{t-i} + \alpha_{5i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta R E E R_{t-i} + \alpha_{6i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta I N V_{t-i} + \gamma_2 E C T_{t-1} + \mu_t \dots\dots (7)$$

$$\Delta Y_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_{1i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta Y_{t-i} + \alpha_{2i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta Y_{F2,t-i} + \alpha_{3i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta I_{t-i} + \alpha_{4i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta T O_{t-i} + \alpha_{5i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta R E E R_{t-i} + \alpha_{6i} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta I N V_{t-i} + \gamma_3 E C T_{t-1} + \mu_t \dots\dots (8)$$

Where $E C T_{t-1}$ is the lagged error correction term, γ_i is the coefficient measuring speed of adjustment, α_s are the short run coefficients.

The first step to estimate the VECM model is the appropriate lag selection and then applying Johansen’s co-integration test.

Table-3: Information Criteria Regarding Selection of Lag Length

Lag	AIC	SC	HQ
0	-10.72247	-10.45855	-10.63036
1	-21.24506	-19.39762*	-20.60025
2	-21.44136	-18.01040	-20.24386
3	-22.65589*	-17.64141	-20.90570*

Table 3 shows that Schwarz information criterion (SC) shows one lag, whereas, AIC & HQ indicate three lags in model-I. Similarly, SC indicates one lag in Model-II and Model-III as well. Based on Vector Autoregressive (VAR) estimation, the study followed SC for optimal lag length selection in all models. In the next step, Johansen’s cointegration test is applied.

Table-4: Trace and Max Tests

Trace- stat				Max-stat			
Null Hyp	Altr. Hyp.	LR	5 % CV	Null Hyp	Altr. Hyp.	LR	5 % CV
r = 0	r > 1	110.5***	95.75	r = 0	r = 1	47.88**	40.07
r ≤ 1	r > 2	27.68	33.87	r = 1	r = 2	62.62	69.81
r ≤ 2	r > 3	15.79	27.58	r = 2	r = 3	34.94	47.85
r ≤ 3	r > 4	10.40	21.13	r = 3	r = 4	19.14	29.79
r ≤ 4	r > 5	8.521	14.26	r = 4	r = 5	8.74	15.49
r ≤ 5	r > 6	0.223	3.84	r = 5	r = 6	0.22	3.84

*, **, *** denote significance at the 10 percent, 5 percent, and 1 percent levels, respectively.

Table 4 offers the results of the Johansen's co-integration test. The results rejected the hypothesis of no co-integration. The results of both Trace test and Maximum Eigen value tests indicate single cointegrating vector at the 5% level of significance in model-I. Similarly, Model-II and Model-III have one cointegration vector based on Trace and Maximum Eigen value tests. The long-run relationship can be obtained by normalizing the cointegrating vector for Y.

Table-5 : Long Run Estimation Results (Cointegration)

Variables	Model -I	Model-II	Model-III
I	-0.2780*** (0.0364)	-0.7150*** (0.0495)	-0.6598*** (0.0529)
TO	-0.1081*** (0.0457)	-0.0590 (0.0938)	-0.4282*** (0.1140)
REER	0.0039 (0.0314)	0.4328*** (0.1021)	0.3772*** (0.0997)
INV	0.7282*** (0.0760)	1.0768*** (0.1598)	0.8181*** (0.1583)
YF	1.1280*** (0.0675)		
YF ¹		0.3303*** (0.0502)	
YF ²			0.2675*** (0.0435)
C	1.8148***	5.2058***	8.0531***

Standard errors are in parenthesis. *, **, *** denote significance at the 10 percent, 5 percent, and 1 percent levels, respectively.

The results show that 1 percent increase in world GDP causes 1.22 percent increase in Pakistan's GDP. World growth is the reflection of global external demand,

a slowdown in world growth, reduce its demand of imports (Kriljenko et al., 2013). Low world GDP create spillover effect in export producing sector of Pakistan and reduces Pakistan's GDP likewise upswing in global growth positively affects Pakistan's economic growth. World markets represent the exports market or the demand for output of developing countries. An expansion in world market due to increase in domestic absorption of these economies will increase the demand for exports of developing countries which will increase their real GDP (Bangwayo-Skeete, 2012).

One percent change in YF^1 leads to 0.33 percent change in Pakistan's GDP, which shows that Pakistan's GDP is highly affected due to change in the weighted GDP of top three export partner countries. Theoretically, exports are considered as an "engine of progress". An increase in exports bring positive externalities for domestic economy due to its injection in world markets, due to reallocating resources to more productive sector, increase in human capital and larger economies of scale (Adedeji, Shahid, & Zhu, 2018).

One percent change in YF^2 generates 0.26 percent change in Pakistan's GDP, again it proves that variation in weighted GDP of top four remittance source countries affects our GDP. It is related to the fact that remittance outflows typically flow from wealthier economies to developing countries, which bring the development impact of remittance inflows to the forefront of policymakers' interest (Naufal & Genc, 2017). High development in source economies generates more demand of foreign labor which will increase remittance inflow in recipient economy and finally increase GDP. Estimated values of coefficients of YF^1 and YF^2 suggest that spillover from trading partners or remittance source countries has positive and significant effect which shows that both sources have vital contribution in Pakistan's growth. The estimation results prove that both global and country specific external demand conditions are important for economic growth of Pakistan.

An increase in interest rate on 10 years security bond of USA causes decrease in Pakistan's GDP in all models. Lower world interest rate as compared to domestic real interest rate would pull more world capital flows to Pakistan, conditional on sound macroeconomic policy structure. High supply of loanable funds in domestic economy will promote private investment by allocating resources in potential projects. Thus high domestic investment will magnify the GDP growth of home country (Bangwayo-Skeete, 2012).

An increase in investment to GDP ratio affects Pakistan's GDP positively and significantly which shows that higher investment will create employment opportunities and multiplier effect in Pakistan and further boosting GDP (Yusoff & Nulambeh, 2016).

An increase in REER has a significant and positive effect on Pakistan GDP. It means an increase in REER which is the appreciation of Pakistani currency promotes economic growth through reducing the cost of imported goods. Pakistan is net importer, a reduction in import bill will improve current account balance and increase the GDP of Pakistan (Kemal & Qadir, 2005).

Trade openness is insignificant in model I & model-II, but has negative and significant effect in model-III which shows that openness increases the vulnerabilities due to external shocks, which reduces revenues.

Table-6: Results of Short Run Estimates

Variables	Model -1	Model-II	Model-III
DY _{t-1}	0.3945*** (0.166)	0.380*** (0.171)	0.302** (0.155)
DI _{t-1}	0.020 (0.021)	0.029 (0.02)	0.042*** (0.020)
DINV _{t-1}	-0.0709 (0.059)	-0.066 (0.058)	-0.049 (0.048)
DREER _{t-1}	-0.016 (0.049)	-0.033 (0.05)	-0.033 (0.04)
DTO _{t-1}	0.005 (0.039)	0.021 (0.037)	0.034 (0.038)
DYF _{t-1}	0.22 (0.26)		
DYF ¹ _{t-1}		0.014 (0.039)	
DLF ² _{t-1}			-0.008 (0.01)
ECM(-1)	-0.177*** (0.080)	-0.089*** (0.041)	-0.105*** (0.03)

Standard errors are in parenthesis. *, **, *** denote significance at the 10 percent, 5 percent, and 1 percent levels, respectively.

The results of VECM are depicted in the table 6 which show that the value of coefficient of lagged error correction is -0.18, -0.089 and -0.11, respectively in model-I, II and III. It is statistically significant in all models showing convergence to long run path.

Table-7: Diagnostic Tests

Test (Probabilities)	Null Hypothesis	Model-I	Model-II	Model-III
Jarque-Bera	Residuals are Normally Distributed	0.693	0.3018	0.300
Serial correlation LM test	Residuals are not serially correlated	0.963	0.7602	0.4202
Heteroskedasticity test	Residuals have no ARCH effect	0.4416	0.3023	0.1097

Results of diagnostic tests show that the models qualify all standard diagnostic tests related to residuals i.e. no autocorrelation, no heteroscedasticity and normality of residuals.

4. Conclusion and Policy Implication

The paper has investigated the effect of global and country specific external demand conditions on Pakistan's GDP for the period 1980-2018. The results of cointegration model indicate that due to one percent change in global external demand conditions Pakistan's GDP is affected by 1.12 percent. At the same time, if we observe the effect of country specific external demand conditions then we find that due to one percent change in weighted GDP of top three export destination countries and top four remittance source countries Pakistan's GDP changes by 0.33 and 0.26 percent, respectively. External financial conditions have negative and significant effect but trade openness has insignificant effect in model-I and model-II. INV has positive and significant effect on Pakistan's GDP. The main policy implication of the results is that Pakistan needs to diversify her exports destination along with realizing potential of workers' remittances from unexplored origins of migrants. In this way, vulnerabilities of growth performance may be controlled.

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TRACING THE IDEOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE OF GEORGE SALE'S TRANSLATION OF THE HOLY QUR'AN: CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF GEORGE SALE'S PREFACE ENTITLED 'TO THE READER'

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Abstract

This study is the outcome of the authors' exposure to the Orientalists' treatment of the translation of the Holy Qur'an. The purpose of this work is to highlight the discursively structured ideological viewpoint of George Sale, the translator, about the Holy Qur'an. The main source of data is the preface entitled as "To the reader" of his eminent translation of the Holy Qur'an, "The Koran, Commonly Called The Alcoran Of Mohammed". The excerpts have been selected purposively, Fairclough's (1989) three-dimensional model of CDA has been employed as a research methodology and the data is analysed conforming to this model. This study highlights that despite his claims of impartiality, Sale's treatment of the Holy Qur'an is the follow up of the Orientalists' perspective to refute the Divine nature of the Holy Qur'an. His preface itself refutes his claim of impartial justice with the translation of the Qur'an as his use of multiple discursive strategies and his choice of words connote prejudice. This study facilitates the reader to know the ways the Orientalists' works are interwoven to (mis)represent and (de)construct the image of the Holy Qur'an.

Key words: Translation, the Holy Qur'an, Preface, George Sale, Fairclough, CDA, fallacy

1. Introduction

Translation of the Holy *Qur'an* by George Sale (1734) is the extension of the early translations of the Holy *Qur'an*, initiated since 12th century, which aims to distort and misrepresent the image of Islam and the Quran. Before proceeding to his actual translation, Sale puts in efforts to distort the members' resources of the European readers against Islam through his preface to his work, captioned as 'To the Reader'. He discursively attempts to mitigate the exalted status of Islam thereby misrepresenting the Holy *Qur'an* and the personality of the Holy Prophet (Peace be upon him) (Ali, 2004).

Sale develops discourse in his preface, which implicitly serves to the ideological purpose of his translation. Philip and Hardy, (2002) explains the constructive nature of discourse. They explain that discourse gives meaning to social interaction and constructs social reality, and the constitutive components of such reality can only be traced through analysis of such discourses and the critical discourse analysis best serves to highlight the ideological underpinnings of discourse.

The scope of critical discourse analysis has motivated the researchers to investigate how Sale discursively structures and disseminates his ideological standpoint against the Holy Quran.

Sale's translation of the Holy *Qur'an* is the sequel of the Orientalist discourse. Said (1979), in his seminal work, the 'Orientalism', puts forth an in depth study of the Western school of thought, the way they attempt to deconstruct the image of Islam and Islamic world. He asserts that it was the grandeur of Islam, which fostered prejudice and enmity in the West against Islam.

The researchers have selected the preface, entitled as 'To the Reader' from the translation of George Sale (1734): "The Koran, Commonly Called The Alcoran Of Mohammed" as an Orientalist discourse for critical discourse analysis. The researchers attempt to foreground how Sale discursively attempts to (mis)represent the Holy *Qur'an*.

This study helps to understand how linguistic patterns of text attempts to serve the ideological purpose. The outcome of this study will help to reshape and deconstruct the Orientalist ideological perspective about Islam and the *Qur'an*.

2. Aims and Questions of the study

The main focus of this study is to trace how the Orientalist discourse attempts to construct the image of the Holy *Qur'an* and profane the fundamentals of Islam. This study highlights the formal linguistic features and patterns which serve the ideological perspective of the Orientalists discourse. Moreover, this study tries to address the three main questions about the Orientalist treatment of the Holy *Qur'an*: What linguistic modes does Sale use in his preface to construct the image of the Holy *Qur'an*? To what extent does Sale conform to the established norms set by his predecessors about the Holy *Qur'an* and the image of Islam? And last but not least, to what extent does he maintain his impartiality as claimed in his preface to the translation of the *Qur'an*?

3. Historical perspective

Discourse generates understanding of meaning and helps to develop the perception of identity and reality in any socio-political environment. Phenomena gets meaning only through discourses (Mills, 2001). Anything, whether written or spoken, can be a discourse and it has constitutive linguistic components which help to perform the acts of communication. It is only through discourse analysis that these components can be foregrounded (Blommaert, 2005). Discourses function depends on discursive structures, which imply that every linguistic phenomenon is laden with ideological implications and it can be termed as discursively structured (Unvar and Rahimi, 2013). According to Foucault (1977) the perception of meaning and reality from the events around us can be facilitated only through these discursive structures. These discursive structures are very important to understand any discourse and it is through the dismantling impetus of CDA, i.e. “critical discourse analysis” that these structures can be foregrounded.

Van Dijk (2001) asserts that CDA is the evaluation of “text and talk” in its social environment. Jorgensen and Phillips (2002) are also of the same views that CDA is the analysis of text in its social context. They opine that CDA helps to see how power relations in different strata of any social setup are maintained; customs and identities are developed and sustained.

The discourse generated by the West about the East is an Orientalists’ discourse. The discourse developed by George Sale is the representation of the Orientalists’ discourse. The Orientalists’ discourse according to Said (1979) is the imaginative and ideological construction of the West. The Orientalists discourse constructs a dichotomous relation between the East and the West. These dual contrastive aspects

oppose each other. The relegated aspect is attributed to the East; whereas, the upgraded dimension is ascribed to the West (McLeod, 2000). Moreover, the West never misses any opportunity to degrade Islam due to their deep-rooted prejudice against Islam. Their repulsion against Islam is the core of the Orientalist discourse (Asad, 1982). When the Orientalists' discourse deals with Islam, it works on the basis of contrived assumptions to relate Islam being modeled on Judaism and Christianity thereby negating the Divine nature of the Holy Quran Ali (1997a).

Ali (2004) puts forth that the modern perspective of Orientalism is strongly embedded in the translation of the Holy Quran. The Christian thinkers were highly concerned to deal Islam on intellectual level. Archbishop Raymond of Toledo (1126-51) established school for translating the Arabic works, whereas, Peter the Venerable was the forerunner who assigned the task to translate the Quran to negate Islam. This Latin translation was accomplished by "Robert Ketensis of Chester, Hermann of Dalmatia and their two associates" in 1143 (p. 324). This translation was hailed by Europe for about five centuries and it provided basis for further translations in other European languages. On the basis of this translation many translations were made, like the L' Alcorano di Macometto in Italian by Andrea Arrivabene in 1547. This translation served as a basis for Alcoranus Mahometicus in German by Solomon Schweigger in 1616 and from this 'translation of the translation' originated De Arabische Alkoran, the first Dutch version in 1641. Afterwards, in 1647 'L' Alcoran de Mahomet' by Andre du Ryer was published in French. His translation was highly criticized by Sale, who called it 'far from being a just translation; there being mistakes in every page...'. On the basis this French translation of du Ryer, further translations in Dutch, German and Russian emerged throughout the 17th century and so on. All these translations were to profane and refute Islam. The two translations by: Robert Retenensis (1143) and du Ryer (1647) provided the basis for other translations. All these translations were 'grossly incorrect and faulty, being vitiated by omissions, commissions and transpositions.... Professedly aimed at refuting Islam and the Quran." (P.324). These translations were made for the Europeans to discredit Islam.

4. Overview of Sale's Translation

George Sale published his translation of the Quran in 1734, entitled: THE KORAN, COMMONLY CALLED THE ALCORAN OF MOHAMMED" The book contains preface entitled, 'To The Reader', a detailed preliminary discourse and also the footnotes.

George Sale, like his predecessors, follows the same intellectual and ideological Oriental perspective to refute *Qur'an*; and in his hostility and prejudice against Islam and the Holy *Qur'an*, he becomes the leading figure among his predecessors. His ideological perspective can easily be traced from the very outset of his translation, in his preface, entitled as “To the Reader”. He claims his translation as an impartial version of translation through which he wants to ‘expose’ the forgery and imposture of the *Qur'an*. With such ideological underpinnings, how can Sale be impartial (Ali, 2004). He also claims about the resources he had used for this translation. Sale criticizes the previous versions of the translations as ‘ignorant and unfair’. Sale’s work is in full ideological conformity with the translations done by his predecessors, especially Marracci (Latin translation) and is full of deliberate omissions, mistranslation, faulty notes, etc. and the distortions made by his predecessors. His work, in fact, “itself was a grand imposture and forgery” (Ali, 2004 p. 331).

5. Theoretical Framework & Research Methodology

This study explores the philosophical, ideological, and political implications embedded in the preface, entitled as ‘To The Reader’ in the translated version of the Holy *Qur'an* by George Sale. Texts are usually ideologically motivated. So, Fairclough’s (1989) three-dimensional model of CDA is used to foreground the implicit as well as manifest ideological motives of the translator.

Fairclough’s three-dimensional model of CDA is effective to foreground the implicit mechanism working behind the discursive construction of sociopolitical reality. It involves description, interpretation and explanation of the text or data to analyse ideological and philosophical implications hidden in it.

According to Fairclough, the production of any text is the outcome of discursive practice, which involves social practices. Therefore, social context or conditions play vital role in the production and reception of any text. So, textual analysis includes the social context, which prompts the production and consumption of the text. It further involves the discursive practices dominating in social set up.

Fairclough’s model presents three levels of critical analysis. The level of textual description involves formal linguistic analysis of vocabulary, grammar and textual structures. Fairclough states, “...text analysis is just one part of discourse” (1989:109). Textual analysis foregrounds the writer’s ideological standpoint in a particular context.

For interpretation, Fairclough (1989) states: "...the formal features of the text are 'cues' which activate elements of interpreters' MR, and that interpretations are generated through the dialectical interplay of cues and MR" (P. 141). Here 'MR' is defined as 'interpretative procedures', 'background knowledge' and even 'commonsense assumptions'. This level actually develops deep understanding of the text/discourse. This stage is called 'discursive practice', dealing with text production and consumption.

According to Fairclough (1989), explanation is the third level of CDA. This stage highlights the working of discourse in a "social process, as a social practice, showing how it is determined by social structures, and what reproductive effects discourses can cumulatively have on those structures, sustaining them or changing them" (P.163). This stage tells how discourse affects ideologies, change 'MR' of the readers and fosters power struggle. This stage is called the social practice.

This model of Fairclough primarily focuses on the analysis of the discursivity of the production of any particular text in a social and political context.

The data has been selected through purposive sampling from the preface, entitled as 'To the Reader' from the translation of the Holy Qura'an by George Sale (1734): "The Koran, Commonly Called The Alcoran Of Mohammed". The data has been analysed linguistically and thematically conforming to the three-dimensional model of CDA presented by Fairclough (1989).

6. Data & Data Analysis

6.1. Extract 1

The starting paragraph of the preface maintains about the Holy *Qur'an* as: "...so manifest a forgery... to expose the imposture..." (p. v) (See Appendix A)

Analysis

The whole excerpt is discursively structured and asserts Islam and the Holy Quran as "so manifest a forgery". The choice of words, 'manifest' connotes something very clear, absolute and without any doubt; whereas the word 'forgery' connotes that something is profane, sham and false. The word 'manifest' reinforces the implication of the word 'forgery', which itself, is metaphorically dense to assert the refutation of Islam and the Holy *Qur'an* as a Divine Scripture.

The excerpt proceeds to maintain that the previous translations were “ignorant or unfair” as these translations won the readers favours about the original text of the Holy *Qur’an* and these translations, as Sale suggests: “... also enable us effectually to expose the imposture...”

The words used for the presumed translations, which conform to the original text are inherently ideological; the lexis such as: ‘ignorant’, ‘unfair’, ‘expose’, ‘imposture’ are metonymically suggestive of the deconstruction of the original message of the Holy *Qur’an*. The word ‘ignorant’ refers to ‘ill informed, illiterate, etc.’, ‘unfair’ refers to ‘unethical, dishonest, deceitful, etc.’. So, both the words have negative connotation; whereas, the word ‘imposture’ is metaphorically suggestive to present the Holy *Qur’an* as something, deception, sham, imitation, etc.

The relational value of these words is highly contested; as such words deteriorate social relations between the readers and the followers of the Holy *Qur’an* and can generate global prejudice among the readers against Islam thereby misguiding them about the reality.

Reading minutely, the excerpt implies that there is a dire need of ‘impartial’ translation of the Holy *Qur’an* to “undeceive” the reader and to “expose the imposture” of the *Qur’an*. These phrases are discursively structured and ideologically woven in the Orientalists’ perspective about Islam and consequently establish grounds for the acceptance of the Sale’s translation as the “impartial one”; thus to achieve his ideological motive to manipulate the translation of the original text to promote fallacy about the Quran, which he claims to “expose the imposture” of the *Qur’an* to “undeceive” the readers who favour the Original *Qur’an*.

The translator’s acclaimed impartiality is paradoxical with his explicitly implied objectives. The translator, as a producer of the text, discursively focuses on varied objectives thereby using multiple discursive strategies, viz. to prove his translation as an authentic and impartial version of the original *Qur’an* through the discursive strategy of self-exaltation and presupposition; likewise, to prove that the previous translations were the unauthentic and ultimately to establish that the Holy *Qur’an* as an imposture, he employs the discursive strategy of mitigation and fallacy. Such discursive strategies influence the ‘members’ resources’ of the readers thereby (de)constructing the reality. Later, these constructed ‘members’ resources’ are taken “specifically as ideologies” (1989:166).

Obviously, Sale is out there for a project which is political in nature. Being a Protestant Christian, he is contributing to the political and discursive strife between the two narratives. The Muslim narrative claims that the Quran is a continuity of the Divine revelations and it is the final revelation which concludes the series of revelations in the Semitic religions. The counter discourse of Christianity and Judaism is the claim that the Quran is a copy and abridgement of the previous revelations with minor changes. Apparently, Sale gives the impression that he is impartial; however, the analysis of this extract clearly shows his biased and ideological orientation.

6.2. Extract 2

The excerpt shows the writer's satisfaction with the Protestants to attack the *Qur'an*. (p. v) (See Appendix B)

Analysis

The sentence is highly reflective of the writer's ideological implication and his implicit line of action to deal with the translation of the Holy Quran. The choice of words, such as: "attack the Koran", "success", "trust", "Providence", "glory" and "overthrow", are highly discursive and metaphorical implying the translator's proposition to deal the issue of translating the Holy *Qur'an*.

The phrase: "...the glory of its overthrow." is compact with the prejudice and bigotry against the Holy *Qur'an*. The word "glory" and "overthrow" are paradoxical. The term "glory" usually relates to honour, exaltation, achievement, splendor, etc., whereas, the term "overthrow" relates to downfall, defeat, removal by force, etc. Glory is connotative of some great achievement or accomplishment. So, the phrase implicitly implies that downfall, "overthrow" of the Holy Quran is great achievement for the translator as both the terms "glory" and "overthrow" are preceded by the phrase "I trust", which refers to strong belief, faith, hope or conviction, etc. of the translator. The phrase "I trust" is suggestive of the translator's sense of satisfaction with the "overthrow" of the Quran. Thematically, the excerpt implies that the writer is happy and satisfied with the efforts of the Protestants, who were able enough to attack the Quran.

This extract clearly shows that Sale has translated the Quran with an agenda, which is religious and political. In this preface, he is addressing his audience whom he supposes to be Protestant Christians and confides with them that he is capable of attacking and overthrowing the text he is translating. It is obvious that the translation is

being used as a tool of dominance and the target text is being approached with in air of imperial arrogance. This is a sort of colonizing the narrative.

6.3. Extract 3

The extract highlights the writer's intention to discursively construct the personality of the Holy Prophet (Peace be upon him) and the Holy *Qur'an*.

"...I have not...allowed myself to use... unmannerly expressions,... to treat both with common decency..." (p.vi) (See Appendix C)

Analysis

The writer claims to avoid "opprobrious appellations, and unmannerly expressions,..." when talking of "Mohammed (Peace be upon him) or his Koran"; he proceeds as: "...even to approve such particulars as seemed to me to deserve approbation: for how criminal so ever Mohammed may have been in imposing a false religion on mankind, the praises due to his real virtues ought not to be denied him;..."

The whole argument is ideologically motivated. The writer's choice of vocabulary and phrases is ideologically contested, such as: "so ever", "criminal", "may have been", "imposing", "false religion". Such words are replete with negative connotation and are ideologically struggling to misrepresent, mitigate, and distort the image of Islam. These words are ideologically implicit and are coded with misrepresentation and negative assessment of the reality.

Thematic content of the whole extract has the common core embedded in the Orientalists' ideological perspective. The statements are antithetical with the juxtaposing ideas and proceed step by step to influence the psyche of the readers to develop their mental prospects, evoke emotions and imagination to misrepresent Islam and distort the personality of the last Prophet Hazrat Muhammad (Peace be upon him).

Here, the tone of the writer is obviously derogatory and prejudiced. He passes a sweeping judgment that Islam is a false religion, which was imposed by the Prophet Muhammad (Peace be upon him). The claim itself is a value judgment which makes his claim of impartiality and objectivity self- contradictory.

Proceeding in the same pace, Sale alludes to Spanhemius's, whom he exalts as, "candour of the pious and learned", thus, establishes grounds and attempts to authenticate his constructed reality about the Prophet (Peace be upon him). Sale alludes as: "... who, though he owned him to have been a wicked impostor, yet acknowledged

him to have been richly furnished with natural endowments...”; here, the lexical choice made by Sale, “wicked imposter”, connotes highly deteriorating image of the personality, which is sequel of his previous statements in general and the broader Orientalists’ discourse in particular.

The word “wicked” is a moral claim. It relates to something bad or even, evil, wrong, immoral, sinful, etc. The term “imposter” also has negative expressive value and connotes someone as: deceiver, imitator, fraud, etc. The writer, at the expense of Spanhemius, makes a highly twisted and paradoxical argument, which is logically flawed as how a person who has very rich moral conduct and whose character is “richly furnished with natural endowments...” can be a “wicked imposter”. Here Sale has used “fallacy” as a discursive strategy. Reisigl and Wodak (2001) explain “fallacy” as an assault on someone’s personality to degrade his established status (as cited in Baker & Ellece, 2011, p.45).

Sale, discursively reinforces his ideological viewpoints after quoting the personal attributes of the Prophet (Peace be upon him), to construct the image of his impartiality, but these attributes which he refers are used as a tool to project his pre-occupied and assumed image of the personality, which he foregrounds to naturalize his perspective. The question arises here, how one who has so many personal traits and endowed with milk of mankind can be imposter? Sale’s evaluation of the character is ideologically contradictory with in the broader theological frames of historical facts and logical thinking.

In his positive comments about the civility and the moral uprightness of the Prophet of Islam, Sale sounds patronizing; whereas, in his criticism he seems to be judgmental. This is almost a recognizable tone of the Orientalists’ texts which build their complex narrative with a sense of imperial altitude and the target text or personality dealt with as a colonial subject. Sale approaches the Quran and the Prophet of Islam from Eurocentric Christian values of self-claimed religiosity.

6.4. Extract 4

The extract deals with the writer’s claim to justify his objective treatment of the translation. “...translation,... to do the original impartial justice; ...” (p. viii) (See Appendix D)

Analysis

George Sale, the translator of the Holy *Qur'an*, claims impartiality in his translation, as: “I have endeavoured to do the original impartial justice...”. But, proceeding in the same pace, in the same paragraph, he again claims to deal with, “indeed, a piece which pretends to the word of God...”; similarly, he further states, as: “...for we must not expect to read a version of so extraordinary a book with the same ease and pleasure as a modern composition.”

Here the writer’s claim of “impartial justice” is fully contradictory and antithetical with his later statements, encoded with implicit partiality. The choice of lexical items and phrases, viz. “pretends”, “words of God”, “must not expect to read”, “extraordinary a book” are explicitly prejudiced and partial. The word “pretends” clearly connotes something fake, false, imaginary, invented, etc. Here the use of argument “pretends...words of God” explicitly refutes the Divine nature of the Holy Quran. Besides, the writer’s tone further becomes prejudiced when he states: “...we must not expect to read a version of so extraordinary a book...”. Such arguments clearly indicate that the writer has preoccupation to use the Orientalists’ lens to examine the Holy Quran, which is the fundamental core of Islam.

The discourse, which he has developed in these lines, is structured to serve his ideological purpose, i.e. to “undeceive” the readers, the European text consumers, who favour the *Qur'an*. Such discourse is laden with the Orientalists’ broader perspective to refute Islam thereby refuting the Divine nature of the Holy *Qur'an*; the preconceived implications are to construct the image of the Holy *Qur'an* for Western world, as a book of “modern composition”. The writer has endeavoured to exclude and suppress the Miraculous and Divine nature of the Holy *Qur'an*.

The writer claims to put forth in his translation “...a more genuine idea of the original...”; but, he fails to extract the “genuine idea of the original” as his work, obviously, is based on the works of his predecessors, who he himself claims to be partial. He resorts on the work of his predecessors, as quoted by him in the preceding paragraphs, such as the work of “Father Lewis Marracci”, etc., whose work, despite many faults, has been hailed by him as it contains detailed refutations of the *Qur'an*.

Such contradictory evaluation and paradoxical statements disrupt the smooth reading of the source text; and the translation itself becomes a plane of discursive struggle to dominate the source text narratives by translating it with a particular

ideological stance and moral claims. An ordinary reader takes the translated text to be a tool of excessing the original. However, the analysis of the preface clearly indicates that the translation itself is ideologically motivated and discursively ambivalent.

7. Findings

This research has attempted to foreground George Sale's use of language as a tool to construct image of the Holy Quran and to develop a discourse about his translation being the impartial one.

The analysis of the four extracts has foregrounded the bias of the translator and his ideological orientation in the process of translating the source text. The first extract presents the Holy Quran as "manifest forgery" and the previous translations as "ignorant". The translator takes the responsibility to "undeceive" the readers whose opinions are in favour of the original Quran from such translations. The writer's choice of words is highly discursive suppressing the authenticity of the Quran and establishing grounds for the dissemination of his translation as the most valued work. Thematic content of this extract is replete with manifest ideological purpose of the writer's treatment of the Quran. In order to serve his purpose, the writer has employed discursive strategies like: derogation, mitigation, modality, self-exaltation and fallacy.

The second extract deals with the appreciation of the writer for "the Protestant" who attacked the Quran. The choice of lexical items, here in this extract, is ideologically laden and metonymic of the writer's motives. The writer has used the discursive strategies of assertion, refutation and implicit negation of the Quran.

In the third excerpt, the writer alludes to Spanhemius to construct his viewpoint to deal with the subject of Hazrat Muhammad (Peace be upon him) nicely. The entire argument which he attempts to develop is ironical and paradoxical as his preconceived mindset is reflected in his relegated terms employed in the extract. He develops his standpoint discursively through the use of strategies, viz. modality, allusion, self-exaltation, vituperation and negation.

In the fourth extract, the writer claims, "to do the original impartial justice" with his translation of the Quran but here again he states the Quran "pretends to be the Word of God" and "...not expect to read a version of so extraordinary a book...". With such preoccupied mindset, the writer claims to do impartial justice! Like the previous extracts, in this passage the writer has structured his argument discursively by using strategies like: Self-exaltation, refutation, assertion and negation. The writer by using

multiple discursive strategies conforms to the ideological position of his forerunners and systematically establishes to refute the Holy *Qur'an*, which seems his preoccupied and presupposed objective.

8. Conclusion

In his preface, Sale attempts to assert his translation as the most authentic and impartial but at the same time his tone and choice of vocabulary is highly pejorative and deprecating, questioning and challenging the Divine status of the Holy Quran and the personality of the Holy Prophet (Peace be upon him).

Such discursively structured discourses have social as well as global appeal as they are highly influential on the readers and they become the part of their background knowledge, which Fairclough terms as “MR” i.e. ‘members’ resources’. Gradually, such discourses transmute into ideologies of the text consumers, as stated by Fairclough (1989): “...they are seen specifically as ideologies” (p. 166).

The present study is significant in extending the horizon of thoughts and imagination of the readers and to enable them to see how language is used as a tool to construct the image of phenomena and how it is used to serve the ideological aims and political agenda. The dismantling impetus of CDA, foregrounds the mechanism of language through which it works to profane, crumble, dissolve or fabricate a particular claim of reality.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

“.....so manifest a forgery:..... But whatever use an impartial version of the Korân may be of in other respects, it is absolutely necessary to undeceive those who, from the ignorant or unfair translations which have appeared, have entertained too favourable an opinion of the original, and also to enable us effectually to expose the imposture...” (p. v)

APPENDIX B

“The Protestants alone are able to attack the Korân with success; and for them, I trust, Providence has reserved the glory of its overthrow.” (p. v)

APPENDIX C

“...I think so reasonable, that I have not, in speaking of Mohammed or his Korân, allowed myself to use those opprobrious appellations, and unmannerly expressions, which seem to be the strongest arguments of several who have written against them.

On the contrary, I have thought myself to treat both with common decency, and even to approve such particulars as seemed to me to deserve approbation: for how criminal so ever Mohammed may have been in imposing a false religion on mankind, the praises due to his real virtues ought not to be denied him; nor can I do otherwise than applaud the candour of the pious and learned Spanhemius, who, though he owned him to have been a wicked impostor, yet acknowledged him to have been richly furnished with natural endowments, beautiful in his person, of a subtle wit, agreeable behaviour, showing liberality to the poor, courtesy to everyone, fortitude against his enemies, and above all a high reverence for the name of GOD; severe against the perjured, adulterers, murderers, slanderers, prodigals covetous, false witnesses, &c., a great preacher of patience, charity, mercy, beneficence, gratitude, honouring of parents and superiors, and a frequent celebrator of the divine praises.” (p.vi).

APPENDIX D

“Having therefore undertaken a new translation, I have endeavoured to do the original impartial justice; ... I have thought myself obliged, indeed, in a piece which pretends to be the Word of GOD, to keep somewhat scrupulously close to the text; by which means the language may, in some places, seem to express the Arabic a little too literally to be elegant English: but this, I hope, has not happened often; and I flatter myself that the style I have made use of will not only give a more genuine idea of the original than if I had taken more liberty (which would have been much more for my ease), but will soon become familiar: for we must not expect to read a version of so extraordinary a book with the same ease and pleasure as a modern composition.” (p. viii)

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AN ANALYSIS OF LEXICAL EFFECTS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE ON KHOWAR (CHITRAL'S REGIONAL LANGUAGE)

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Abstract

The present position paper explores to examine the lexical effects of the English language on Khowar (the regional language of Chitral, Pakistan). In the recent past, the said language has, to a greater extent, received influence from the English language, which, because of the least research has been unrecorded. The reason behind the Anglicisation of Khowar is the establishment of the growing number of educational institutions and mounting use of social and electronic media. In order to locate and highlight the above-said effects and their likely reasons, the researchers employed the tools of observation, interviews, and personal experiences, to arrive at the conclusive results of the issue in hand. The target population for the said purpose is a group of female students of intermediate level studying at the English medium colleges; while the locale for research is a lower district of Chitral, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province of Pakistan. The study is carried out at the lexical level of spoken Khowar juxtaposed with spoken English, not necessarily focusing the syntactic, semantic and phonological levels. The study finds out that influences are recorded in the dress and language codes, too, besides lifestyle and socio-cultural norms and values of Chitrali society at large.

Keywords: Khowar, lexemes, social and electronic media

1. Introduction

Khovar is one of the regional languages of Pakistan. The word Khovar is a combination of two words, that is, “Kho” and “war.” “Kho” means the people of Chitral, and “War” means language. Therefore, it is the language of the Chitrali people. Also, Khovar means the language mulberry handbags of the Kho (people) (Morgenstierne, 1932). Khovar belongs to the group of languages called Dardic languages that, further, traces back to the family of “Indo-Aryan language.” It also derives and preserves a more substantial collection of sounds, words, forms and structure of IA” (Morgenstierne, 1961). Its speakers numerically amount to a million and so, who live in district Chitral of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Ghizer district of Gilgit-Baltistan and the Swat Valley of Pakistan. Also, the speakers of the said language are found in parts of India, Afghanistan and Xinjiang in China. Alternative names used for Khovar are Chitrali, Kashkari, Arniya and Patu. It has been considered to be the second most spoken language in KPK [Khyber Pakhtunkhwa] and the third most spoken language in Gilgit Baltistan (Rahman, 2010).

Khovar language develops during the reigns of later Mehtars (rulers) of Chitral State. Since the early twentieth century, Khovar has been written in the Khovar alphabet. In the twentieth century, its Perso-Arabic script has been introduced, and since the 1960s it has also been written in the Roman script called “Roman Khovar”. Until 1996, commentators, analysts and journalists contribute handwritten scripts, especially in print media, the newspapers, in Khovar. However, the horizon of its contribution and readership widens with the happening of the two main events in 1996: first, the Khovar Academy introduces Khovar Latin Alphabet; second, the typewriter in Khovar joins in and enhances its development through newspapers, books and newsletters. Of its speakers, who have settled in different parts (especially the cities) of Pakistan for educational purposes and securing jobs have taken with them a legacy of language and culture.

After the independence of Pakistan in August 1947, the state of Chitral has established close diplomatic liaison with Pakistan, and in 1969 it has been merged in it, as an integral part of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (former N.W.F.P). For centuries, the people of Chitral live in a landlocked valley surrounded by the Hinduraj-the Hindukush mountain range. The lack of transportation and communication means to connect them with the outer world add to their difficulty, in addition to the scarcity of necessary means of life. However, in recent decades, improved means of transportation and

communication for the people have been established ever more frequent and profound contacts with people from other linguistic and cultural traditions (Malik, 2006). Although, influential people of the area try their best for the promotion of Khowar and its cultural heritage. Nonetheless, the establishment of higher educational institutions and the increased means of the electronic medium have exposed the Khowar to other linguistic, ethnic and cultural influences (Shafket, 2015). That, in turn, becomes a looming threat and a lurking danger for the linguistic intactness of Khowar.

Though the inhabitants of the region are cognizant of the fact about maintaining the linguistic purity of Khowar. However, at the same time, they too are influenced by and feel the need to acquire the English language as a lingua franca. For that matter, they send their offsprings (particularly females) to English medium schools and colleges to obtain education (Liljegren & Akhunzada, 2017). That trend has mitigated the need for and importance of Khowar, not only with those who live outside Chitral but regionally too.

English as a language of education, trade and commerce, and communication has received global acclaim over the past centuries. Because of this fact, its influence on global languages, including Pakistani regional and local languages, is enormous. Khowar, in the existing context, is no exception. The present study converges its focus on the lexical effects of the English language on Khowar. That, too, intends to highlight the impact of the English language on the social behaviour of Chitralis (Khowar speaking community), particularly the youth studying in the English medium colleges at the intermediate level. However, keeping in view the broad linguistic impact, the current investigation is delimited to the lexical effects of the English language on Khowar; thus, setting aside the phonological, syntactic and semantic outcome.

2. Literature Review

Pashto and Khowar languages are spoken and understood in the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province of Pakistan. Geographically, speakers of both languages, are close to each other, yet there is no reciprocal connection of and influence on one another. Conversely, the research conducted by Morgenstierne (1932) argues that Pashto has little effect on “Kho” and words borrowed from Pashto are “extremely rare in Kho”.

Lorimer (1938) observes the dialectal variation in Kho and notices that both Torkhow and Murkhow, dialects of Khowar, are homogenous. Two factors have been responsible for the homogeneity of “Kho” in the past. Firstly, it is said that the nobility

is proud of their sonorous language and cultivates a distinct pronunciation, hence discourage any change, moderation or alteration in their language. Secondly, the existence of a state structure with the political organisation also contributes to the preservation of the Khowar language. Besides, he states that certain vulgarisms have been developed in the bazaar language of Chitral village.

Contrary to this, Faizi (1989, cited in Kreutzmann, 2005), locates six dialectical zones in Chitral, picking and comparing 53 lexical expressions/phrases in the select zones. He infers that in those select locales the dialects of Khowar are not homogenous, even though people of each zone claim that only their dialect is the original and correct one. In a nutshell, the data collected and analysed by Morgenstierne, Lorime and Faizi conclude that as compared to other languages in the region, the differences in the dialects of “Kho” do not vary much.

Because of the global significance of English, as a link language among modern nation-states, it has equally left its influence on world languages, including Urdu, Hindi, Spanish, French, Italian, and to name a few. Cremer and Willes (1998) examine the need for and importance of English as a lingua franca that plays an instrumental role at the global level and influences many world languages. They, in effect, extrapolate that proficiency in English can lessen the influence of traditionally defined language barriers. In the current context, Khowar is no exception for having received a substantial lexical influence, besides obtaining an impact on other structural features.

Similarly, the study conducted by Annamalai (2004) analyses the impact of the English language on Hindi (the national language of India). The English language as a means of local and global communication has been adopted as a tool in native politics by some non-Hindi speaking communities to keep Hindi from becoming the sole official language of the Union. Hence, English has been used by the marginalised groups in India in their struggle against upper castes. They tend to decline the dominance of Hindi as the only dominant Indian language to serve the national interests, especially converging on the needs of the dominated class. Therefore, the English language is spoken and understood by the disadvantaged groups for their advantage against the linguistic hegemony of the Hindi and elite class.

Research carried out by Mehmood et al. (2004) reviews the influence of the English language on Urdu (the national language of Pakistan). They conduct their survey through questionnaires and interviews as a methodology to collect related and relevant data. The research concludes that because of the frequent use of electronic gadgets

programmed with English as operating language, there is an ever-increasing flood of ideas and concepts coming in the form of movies, songs, comedy shows and sports commentaries into the Urdu speaking community, which they appropriate. Also, they infer from the research that the recurrent use of communication technology results in the Englishisation of Urdu. That, too, scrutinises that language reflects the concerns of society, and the varying mode of living and behavioural pattern of people have been rendered in the vocabulary of the language they speak.

In light of the foregoing research and reviews, the current study is distinct and distinguishable in the sense that no considerable research has been done on the effect of the English language on Khowar. So, the present study is exclusive as it deals with and fills up the research gap about the abovesaid question. Subsequently, with the rising number of English medium institutions and electronic media in Chitral, the younger generation is getting exposed continually to the use of the English language as a means of communication. Therefore, the question under reference is essential to be explored, and further research, especially in the area of lexical scrutiny is needed.

3. Methodology

The current research is qualitative that draws on the data of the female students at the intermediate level in the lower district of Chitral. As one of the researchers is a permanent resident of Chitral and a female herself; hence, she did not face much difficulty in observing, experiencing and collecting data from the participants through interviews. The locale of lower Chitral has been selected for the purpose as it is more exposed to the effect of the English language in comparison to the other parts of Chitral. The area selected is susceptible to the educational institutions and electronic media wherein the use of English is frequent. The present study employs a mixed methodology to explore the effect of the English language on Khowar. It draws on observations and interviews from the female students. The students hail from different social settings and scenarios.

4. Analysis and Discussion

The following data collected through observations and interviews from the students, and in turn, analysed is based on the following cultural code:

4.1 Salutations and Compliments

The data collected indicate that salutation, which in the mainstream Chitrali society is mostly performed in the Arabic language, is now replaced by English words, phrases

and expressions. Instead of *Assalam-au-Alaikum*, youngsters feel comfortable in greeting and complementing their age-mates, seniors and friends with expressions like “Hi sweet! Hello dear! Hi Buddy!”. Similarly, on social media, like Facebook and Instagram, while commenting on their friends’ shared posts, they tend to frequently apply English words and phrases like “Congratulations!, Excellent! Well done! Keep it up! Proud of you buddy! Love you!” and so forth. Rare instances (of salutations and compliments) are noticed in Khowar language, that meant and expressed so: “you have made my day (*ma khoshaan aru la ma zhan!*); my favourite buddy (*ma dust wa thay*); pretty girl (*chust komoro la*)”; and so on. Thus, the recurrent use of English language and its lexical effects amplify its popularity in the younger generation.

4.2 Fashion and Dress

It becomes evident from the data collected that switching over to the English language from Khowar is common while using lexical expressions for fads, fashions and dresses. During the interview, when the respondents were asked about favourite costumes, their tilt was observed towards western attire. Also, they had synonymous expressions in English for their local outfits, that is, jeans, upper, thermal, high-neck, low-neck, tights, long shirts, shorts, top and scarf. A minuscule mentioned that they come to college only in full gowns; instead, they wear jeans and tights with long and short shirts underneath. When asked about their choices and options in footwear, the participants were happy to name wedges, high-heel, block-heel, joggers, flats and ballet shoes than naming them in Khowar. Nomenclature for fashion and dresses and their subsequent application in daily life is witness to the influence of English culture and their lifestyle, in addition to a close association with the trendy west. Likewise, hairstyles by female participants had the same wording as is used in the English language. The respondents made use of low bun, fluffy bun, loose bun, dead straight, ponytail, braids, French braid, streaking, highlights, dye, curls and loose curls. Mostly, the interviewees made use of smokey eyes, day and light makeup in terms of cosmetics. They also shared their regular use of primer, glitter, and face shiner as their favourite maquillage.

4.3 Social Norms and Values

Because of the regular contact with social media and connect with information apparatuses, most of the vocabulary items have been appropriated apropos social norms and cultural values by Chitrali society. That, in turn, replaces the indigenous lexical terms by the English language. On asking about their likable words when addressing their bosom friends, the respondents answered as: Pretty lady! (*chust komoro*), My

heart! (*ma zhan*), Hi girl! Hotty! What a cool guy! Bull shit! Horny! Bitch! were commonly used by girls. With the frequent use of and association with the English language, the local/native tongue is either receding or merging with anglicised terms.

4.4 Filial-familial Relationships

Relationships are no exception to be affected by the anglicisation of Khowar language. It has been noticed that female respondents tend to use “friend (*malgiri, dost, yaar*),” “best friend,” and “family friend,” besides the persistent use of words like “class-fellows,” “neighbour,” “arranged marriage,” “love marriage,” “girlfriend,” boyfriend,” “affair,” “date,” “break up,” “patch up,” “court marriage.” Thus, their everyday conversation encompasses such English terms and terminologies without being hesitant about its use. Instead, it is becoming a status symbol for them.

It is evident from the data collected from the targeted population in a selected locale through observation and interviews that the continual use of the English language is becoming a cultural currency. Also, the lifestyle of the target population is tellingly evocative of western attire and its language code. That has become the status symbol and source of pride for the Chitrali females to wear western dresses. Although, as reported, their family did not want them to wear such exotic garbs. Others responded that they put on western dresses at homes, and wear traditional gowns while going out of their homes. Some of them had a plea that pressing and maintaining traditional dresses are arduous than keeping western-styled costumes. So saving time is another factor in keeping and wearing English dresses.

As far as the use of salutation and complimentary greetings in the English language are concerned, most of the respondents replied that they had no alternative or option readily available in Chitrali language. Thus, that becomes routine to make use of lexemes like: Great! Well Done! Bravo! Congratulations! Excellent! Keep it up, buddy! Proud of you! Even many of them involuntarily used complimentary expressions in the English language. When asked to translate the words/expressions into the Khowar, they stare and ponder for a while to sort their synonyms out for better communication.

5. Conclusion

Consequently, from the data discussion and analysis, it is established that because of the growing means of communication and an increased number of educational institutions, Khowar is prone to anglicisation. The use of English vocabulary in routine life has considerably influenced Khowar and its speakers, especially the younger generation.

Their lifestyle, socio-cultural norms and values, interpersonal and communal interaction have exceedingly affected by the use of the English language. That is the reason, Khowar already has incorporated lexemes and their respective manifestations from the English language, and is susceptible to receive more influence in the years to come. Besides, that lexical effect is because of the rapid movement of ideas, concepts and immense popularity of cultural products of English-speaking world in the form of movies, songs, comedy shows and sports commentaries. Thus, an anglicisation of Khowar is imminent at a more rapid pace than ever. Language reflects the concerns of society, and it is because of the Englishisation of society that language is showing a similar tendency (Crystal, 2011). Therefore, it has been concluded that Khowar might diversify in the future as it has and is still receiving regular influence not only from the English language but other languages too.

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TRANSPARENCY IN TRANSLATION: A CORPUS-BASED STUDY OF CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH-TRANSLATED FICTION FROM URDU AND NON-TRANSLATED ENGLISH FICTION

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Abstract

This study explores the concept of transparency as a stylistic marker of translated texts. Venuti (2008) is of the view that the translators usually inclined to transparency for achieving 'Invisibility' in their translations. To explore the phenomenon of transparency, the data taken for the study comprise a corpus of three million (3million) words having three categories i.e. of contemporary English-translated fiction from Urdu (TEF), Pakistani English fiction (PEF), and native English fiction (NEF). Multidimensional Analysis Tagger (Version 1.3) by Nini (2015) is used as tool for exploring the linguistic feature responsible for marking transparency in the corpus under study. The research finds that less use of private verbs in the translated texts marks them more transparent as far as information is concerned. The results of the study show that both NEF and PEF have overt expression of private attitudes, thoughts, and emotions more than that of TEF. This divergence renders the style of NEF and PEF more involved and more interactive than TEF. Therefore, it can be said that English translations from Urdu carry the characteristic of transparency. This paper could be helpful for the translators as well as the researchers in knowing the way characters are delineated during the phenomenon of translation to achieve transparency in translation.

Keywords: Transparency, Visibility, Linguistic Feature, Private Verbs

1. Introduction

Transparency is an important feature of the style of a text, as style has a remarkable role in shaping discursivity of a text, which render particular meanings to a text. In the phenomenon of translation, style gets more importance as translational style is developed through particular textual features. The same textual features in a language, when used in the texts of the same genres belonging to different cultures, results in the difference of style. On the basis of the use of private verbs, this study explores *transparency* as a feature of translational style by comparing the texts belonging to three categories of the English fiction i.e. Translated English Fiction (TEF), Pakistani English Fiction (PEF), and Native English Fiction (NEF).

It is assumed that translated texts in general have different stylistic features from that of the original fiction, and the fiction produced by non-native writers. It further assumes that every language has its own particular *universe of discourse*, which allows or refrain the author to use certain stylistic devices, and *nativity* is another important factor, which regulates style. It further assumes that translational norms do have impact on style of any translation, and linguistic features of the fictional corpus may reflect such stylistic variations (Iqbal, 2019).

According to Valles (2012) translation takes so many effects in getting the shape of a final product; including the characteristics of the source text e.g. author or readership, function, register, SL or TL norms and the requirements of the commissioner of the translation i.e. text function in the target context, medium of translation, motive behind the translation, etc. Zhekov (2013) having observed the views about transparency in relation to fluency and readership from d'Abancourt to Venuti reaches the conclusion that transparent translation is "the translation that does reveal the cultural component without of course affecting the understanding of the text by its readership". It makes obvious that getting transparency in translation calls for such linguistic choices which could do both the functions i.e. revealing the cultural component and not affecting the readers' understanding. For this purpose, a translator has to make such choices of linguistic expressions which could covert the private attitudes, thoughts, and emotions which create a cultural gap posing difficulty for the readers. This can be achieved by avoiding the use of linguistic features such as private verbs (i.e. believe, prove, understand etc.), and personal pronouns is avoided in the translations. The present research in this backdrop, takes only one linguistic feature i.e. the use of private verbs from the corpus under study.

The data has been analyzed by employing Multidimensional Analysis Tagger (MAT, Version 1.3), a free tagger developed by Nini (2015) that provides the same output as provided by Biber's tagger. The research will describe the way private verbs are used in translated (from Urdu to English) and non-translated prose fiction for the readership of both types of texts.

2. Literature Review

The dichotomy of transparency and fidelity have been under discussion since long. Transparency is the proof of translator's *invisibility*, while fidelity results *visibility* of the translator in the target text. It is very difficult task for a translator to be faithful as well as transparent at the same time, as in faithful translation the meaning of the source text is accurately rendered, while in transparent translation a target text is made to look like an original one. According to Valles (2012):

... fluent and transparent a TT is and however quiet the presence of the translator may seem to be, their voice can never be absolutely silent, since it is the translation itself, with all its lexical choices, grammatical formations, textual structure, that contains the voice of the translator.

In faithful translation, adherence to source text meaning restricts the target text to be fluent for the readers. To get transparency, involvedness of the translators in the phenomenon of translation is minimized to the extent that it looks like an original writing.

Linguistically speaking, to maintain transparency, a translator has to make such choices of linguistic expressions, which could covert the private attitudes, thoughts, and emotions. For this purpose, the linguistic features such as the use of private verbs (i.e. believe, prove, understand etc.) and personal pronouns is avoided in the translations.

According to Biber (1988), private verbs are used for the overt expression of private attitudes, thoughts, and emotions. They are also called 'psychological verbs', which express 'human inner thoughts and feelings' (Biber, 1995, p. 378). These verbs include verbs of intellectual states and acts, which mark involvedness of the authors, and therefore, they become marker of individual style. In translational style, the use of private verbs marks the extent of the visibility of the translators, and hence the extent of transparency in their translations. The more a translator rests on the use of private verbs, the more he/she becomes visible and his translation becomes less transparent.

Beasley and Bullock (2011) consider transparency as an illusion. Their investigations on the impact of Russian literature in British literature of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century show that the role of translators have been central throughout the era.

Venuti (2008) challenges the functionalist approach and criticizes the transparency in translation and opines that translators' role in constructing a text can be seen through *domestication*. He views the concept of transparency in translation as a myth, because he considers translator always there but invisible. He takes on an other stance and considers the invisibility of the translator a political objective. He blames that transparency in translation serves the intentions of the translator by hiding his nidentity. Herman (1996) follows Venuti's version and opines that the *voice* of the translator is present in his trnaslation. Both Venuti and Herman's views of *voice* and *presence* of translator can be the foundations of his style in the target text.

The concept of translator's *presence* in his/her translations is furthered by Baker (2006). She develops translation corpora comprising translated texts from European and non-European languages into English. She considers translators' style as *fingerprint* in the target text, which can be traced statistically such as Type/Token ratio (STTR), Average Sentence Length and frequencies of certain words. Her approach to studying style opens new directions for translational stylistics.

He (2017) conducts a comparative multidimensional research to find out similarities and differences in the lexico-grammatical features of *Lunyu (The Analects)* translated into English by James Legge and Ku Hungming. He takes on his research along five dimensions given by Biber (1988), and signaled out 67 linguistic features proposed by Biber. He finds that some features like private verbs, present tense verbs, *be* as main verb, past tense verbs, are more in Legge's *The Analects of Confucius*, while Ku's *The Discourses and Sayings of Confucius* has more nouns, adjectives, long words, nominalizations, and time adverbials. He justifies the suitability of multidimensional analysis approach in distinguishing the linguistic features of the two translations.

Baker (2000), Olohan (2004), Saldanha (2005), Munday (2008); Winters (2009), Pantopoulos (2012), Walder (2013), Boase-Beier (2014) and Huang (2015) have conducted research on style. Mostly, they focus the style of translators to reach out the translation universals.

The present paper based on Iqbal's (2019) work takes on another position to trace the transparency as translational stylistic marker of English-translated Urdu fiction by developing and analyzing corpus of fiction translated from Urdu into English (TEF), non-native fiction (Pakistani fiction produced in English (PEF)) and Native English Fiction (NEF).

3. Methodology

The corpus under study is divided into three categories i.e. English translations of 10 Urdu novels (TEF); 10 novels in English by Pakistani writers (PEF); 10 novels by English (NEF). As TEF is from the past two decades therefore, PEF and NEF also belong the same time span. For the detail of data see Appendix.

Each category of the corpus under study was tagged through MAT using the Multidimensional Analysis Tagger (MAT, Version 1.3), a free tagger developed by Nini (2015) available online, that provides the same output as provided by Biber's tagger. Frequency of private verbs was achieved and normalized by applying the formula:

Normalized Frequency = Obtained Frequency/Total number of words in text*1000

The results thus obtained are presented in figures.

4. Results and Findings

The results achieved by following the above-mentioned methodology are presented in figure of comparison. The figure shows the frequencies of the linguistic feature under study through overall percentage. Examples of each type of the texts are selected to validate the results.

Private verbs also called 'psychological verbs', express 'human inner thoughts and feelings' (Biber, 1995, p. 378). They include verbs of intellectual states and acts (e.g. believe, prove, understand, etc.), and are related to positive features of Dimension 1, and mark involvement.

Figure below shows a comparison of the frequency of private verbs among PEF, TEF, and NEF.

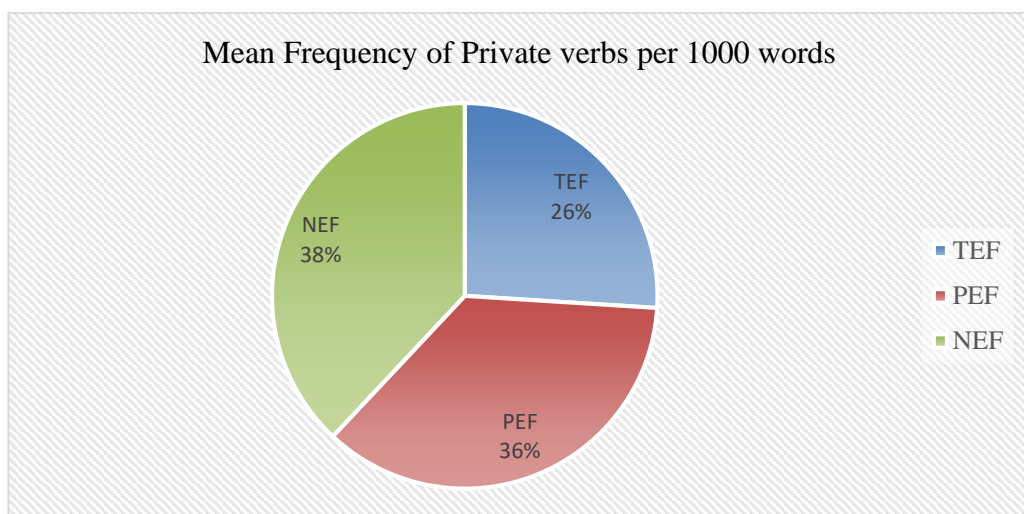


Figure: Private Verbs in PEF, TEF and NEF

Figure shows, private verbs are relatively more frequent in NEF and PEF than TEF. NEF achieves the highest scores hence carries the quality of involvedness, which is the prominent characteristics of conversation. TEF relies too less on conversational features, which might have resulted from heavy reliance on the features of informational production.

The following examples from each category point out the relative presence of private verbs in NEF, PEF, and TEF, respectively.

Example

It **showed** this beautifully modern open-plan office with three or four people who worked in it having some kind of joke with each other. The place looked sparkling and so did the people. Ruth was staring at this picture and, when she **noticed** me beside her, said: Now that would be a proper place to work.” Then she got self-conscious "maybe even cross that I'd caught her like that "and set off again much faster than before. But a few evenings later, when several of us were sitting around a fire in the farmhouse, Ruth began telling us about the sort of office she'd ideally work in, and I immediately **recognised** it. (From NEF, *Never Let Me*)

The above excerpt shows up the private verbs from NEF. The words in bold exemplify the maximum use of private verbs in NEF, if seen in comparison with the examples from TEF and PEF below.

Example

I **hear** of how people's desire and guilt upsets and terrorises them, the mysteries that burn a hole in the self and distort and even cripple the body, the wounds of experience, reopened for the good of the soul as it is made over. At the deepest level people are madder than they want to **believe**. You will find that they fear being eaten, and are alarmed by their desire to devour others. They also imagine, in the ordinary course of things, that they will explode, implode, dissolve or be invaded. Their daily lives are penetrated by fears that their love relations involve, among other things, the exchange of urine and faeces. (From PEF, *Something to Tell You*)

The above example highlights private verbs in PEF. The number of private verbs in PEF is close to NEF but much higher than TEF.

Example

It rained frequently and he had to stop now and then under the trees. The journey was arduous. As a student he was not allowed to use boats or vehicles or umbrellas. Nor was he **supposed** to carry any money. He had to beg his food from respectful villagers and sleep under the trees. Such a life of extreme hardship could match that of any Jain ascetic, except that Gautam was neither a Jain sadhu nor a Buddhist bhikshu. His head was not shaved, and he let his long Brahmanical top-knot mingle with his glossy ringlets. He was rather proud of his good looks. Gautam, in fact, was quite vain and had certainly not conquered his ego. (From TEF, *River of Fire*)

The excerpt from TEF given above points out the use of private verbs. It is evident from the above Figure and the given examples that TEF has relatively lower score on private verbs as compared to PEF and NEF, which elucidates NEF and PEF have more tendency towards involvedness than that of TEF. It can be inferred from the results that original writers let their characters speak for them. They probe into the characters' mind, and hence the characters become their mouthpiece, which render their style personal and conversational.

However, it is not the case with translated texts. If the matter is looked upon, it may be said that unlike original text authors, translators show less affiliation with the characters, instead they have to have control over them for the sake of remaining faithful to the source text. This results that their characters do not become their mouthpiece. The task of the translators is not to create real life character in real life environment like the original writers, but the only environment they take effect from, is the environment of the source text (ST) offered to them by the source texts authors. Therefore, for the present study the data shows that they are found to be transparent in communicating the source text message. They remain invisible for creating transparency in their translations. The positive score achieved by TEF implies that translations from Urdu to English have the tendency of being transparent by making the translators less visible, thus having the quality to look like the original writing.

Biber (1988) is of the view that “discourse produced under real-time conditions will be constrained in its lexical precision and informational density; it is therefore not surprising that such discourse is associated with non-informational purposes” (p.108). From this view, it can be said that original writings take on real-time constraints as compared to translations. In other words, the speech of characters in novels displays effects of real time processing, thus giving rise to features closer to spoken language. On the other hand, the aim of translations primarily being transparency of communication than ditto representation of characters' actual speech leads to elimination of private verbs. The relative lack of the use of private verbs may also be due to the fact that original writings are constrained by a particular language of a particular time for expressing the feel of the real world., while the translations in this regard enjoy some freedom i.e. either to go to real time of the authors or live in their

own time. The lesser frequency of private verbs in translated texts also indicates that translations are lexically and informationally less constraint than the original writings. Their objective of being communicative let them use more informational features for getting transparency.

At the end, it can be said that the translators, translating prose fiction from Urdu to English, try to avoid the use of private verbs, which results transparency in their translations. *Transparency* in their translations may be due to different possible factors like real-time constraints, informational constraints, lexical constraints, and the objective of being communicative etc.

5. Conclusion

To sum up the discussion it is observed that both NEF and PEF have overt expression of private attitudes, thoughts, and emotions more than that of TEF. It implicates that the non-translated fiction (native or non-native English) reflects the visibility of the writers more explicitly than the translators. The phenomenon of (In) visibility in translated and non-translated fiction might be a conscious/unconscious effort to hide/explicate some agenda but the present study is only limited to style of the texts. This divergence renders the style of NEF and PEF more involved and more interactive than TEF. It also shows that English translations from Urdu carry the characteristic of transparency. This may be due to the prestige of the target language.

The results and the findings of the present study will help the translators of Urdu literature in understanding the complex nature of decision making during the phenomenon of translation. It will also be helpful for the scholars interested in Translation Studies and Corpus Stylistics for their research in the relevant areas of study.

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Appendix

Table 1 English translations of Urdu Fiction (TEF)

Author	Translator	Title	Year of Publication
Qurratulain Hyder	Qurratulain Hyder	River of Fire	1999
Shamsur Rahman Faruqi	Shamsur Rahman Faruqi	The Sun that Rose from the Earth	2014
Shamsur Rahman Faruqi	Shamsur Rahman Faruqi	The Mirror of Beauty	2013
Muhammad Hussain Shah	Musharraf Ali Farooqi	Hoshrruba: The Land and the Tilism	2009
Fahmida Riaz	Aquila Ismail	Godavari	2008
Abdullah Hussain	Abdullah Hussain	The Weary Generation	1999
Mirza Muhammad Hadi Rusva	David Mathews	Umrao Jan Ada	1996
Nazir Ahmed Dehlavi	Wajid Naeemuddin	The Penitence of Nasooh	2008
Intizar Hussain	Rakhshanda Jalil	The sea Lies ahead	2015
Umera Ahmed	Umera Ahmed	The Perfect Mentor	2011

The novels included in the Pakistani English Fiction (PEF) category appear below.

Table 2 Pakistani English Fiction (PEF)

Author	Title	Year of Publication
Bapsi Sidhwa	Ice Candy Man	2015
Mohsin Hamid	The Reluctant Fundamentalist	2008
Daniyal Mueenuddin	In Other Rooms, Other Wonders	2010
Mohammad Hanif	A Case of Exploding Mangoes	2008
Kamila Shamsie	Burnt Shadows	2009

Hanif Kureishi	Something to Tell You	2008
Tehmina Durrani	Blasphemy	2000
Khalid Muhammad	Agency Rules - Never an Easy Day at the Office	2014
Tariq Ali	The Stone Woman	2014
Nafisa Haji	The Sweetness of Tears	2011

The novels included in the Native English Fiction (NEF) category appear below.

Table 3 Native English Fiction (NEF)

Author	Title	Year of Publication
David Mitchell	Cloud Atlas	2003
Zadie Smith	White Teeth-Vintage	2001
Ian McEwan	Atonement	2002
David Nicholls	One Day	2010
Hilary Mantel	Wolf Hall	2010
Diane Setterfield	The Thirteenth Tale-Orion	2006
Jojo Moyes	Me Before You	2012
Neil Gaiman	The Ocean at the End of the Lane	2013
Kazuo Ishiguro	Never Let Me Go	2005
Mark Haddon	The Curious Incident of the Dog in the Night Time	2004

THE CHALLENGE OF QURANIC TRANSLATION AND THE QUESTION OF GENDER ACCURACY

Jamil Asghar, Muhammad Iqbal, Khurram Shahzad

Abstract

The Holy Quran is the supreme canonical text of Islam and one of the most widely read scriptures of the world with extraordinarily far-reaching religious, cultural, historical and sociological implications. In one way or another, it exerts its influence on 1.5 billion Muslims, i.e. about 25% of world population. Since its revelation, it has been subject to various interpretations and multiple extrapolations and, of late, with the world gone global, there is an unprecedented interest in its contents and meanings. Small wonder, there is a burgeoning of its translations into dozens of languages of the world across the globe. However, translations always exact some kind of cost at the source text and the translations of the Holy Quran are no exceptions to this general rule, albeit the fact that utmost care is taken and advised during its translation. In this paper, it has been demonstrated that how some of the renowned English translators of the Holy Quran have exhibited disregard for the gender-neutral language of the Quranic source text in their translations, albeit probably inadvertently. These translators, at one time or the other, have resorted to a gender-specific masculine language which has led their translations away from the linguistic and theological actualities of the source text. The researchers have analyzed six English translations by renowned translators and have demonstrated as to how, at times, certain gender-neutral generic references are translated in masculine terms which are detrimental to and restrictive of the source text. Therefore, the present study has critiqued these translations from the perspective of gender and translation.

Keywords: Quran, English translations, gender, patriarchal language, Islam.

1. Introduction

The Holy Quran is the revealed scripture of Islam and it enshrines the very word of Allah. Its central theme is humanity's relation with God and on account of the universality of its message, it primarily addresses humanity and, therefore, vigorously prohibits any discrimination between human beings on account of gender, colour, social standing or locale (33:35). Apart from the legalist and certain administrative matters, wherever the Holy Quran addresses humanity, it mostly implies gender-neutral references. However, some of the English translators have not done justice to their translations on this subject as they turned the gender-neutral generic references into masculine references. The present researchers are of the view that this is not only utterly un-called for, but also restrictive of the communicative intent and semantico-theological scope of the Holy Quran.

The language of the Holy Quran is complex, dynamic, nuanced and bursting with meanings (Nasr 1977). Its primary recipients are human beings, and like all revealed scriptures it addresses the humans at large (Nur 2008). Even when it addresses the Muslims, its message is directed towards both men and women. There are, certainly, exceptions to this rule as there are occasions when the addressees are just men, e.g. while exhorting husbands to treat their wives with love, or while mentioning such clear male relations as sons, brothers, fathers, etc.

It, however, does not confine its message to any gender. Whereas the Holy Quran has this quality, its translations sometimes appear to ignore this feature or do not seem to take it into full consideration. As a result, a large number of gender-neutral generic references get translated into masculine terms. This causes a denotative dislocation and makes the translations less representative of the source text.

Therefore, from the perspective of gender accuracy, the researchers have analyzed six English translations of the Holy Quran by renowned translators. However, the researchers want to clarify it at the outset that a plea for the greater use of gender-neutral references in translation, which the present study wants to make, is prompted less by a desire to comply with any popular vogue and more by a concern for semantico-syntactic and theological accuracy. Moreover, this is the basic contention of the researchers that the instances of translation discussed below could have been more accurate and more in line with the source text, had they been put in gender-neutral terms.

It is also important to take into consideration that when it comes to the politics of translation, it is not uncommon for women to be relegated to a position of discursive inferiority. Even within translation, there are multiple processes through which translators activate and maintain gender constructs. At times implicitly and at times explicitly, the site of translation is gendered under the influence of myriad sociological, cultural and religious concepts and models. It is arguably because of this that gender differences are constantly played out in the metaphors and practices defining the very process of translation. Moreover, the debates over inclusive-language translations of the sacred texts have been expected to enhance the understanding and the interpretive abilities of the readers by drawing his or her attention to the exclusionary implications gendered language (Sherry 2013).

One should also bear in mind that the translations of the sacred text is, unavoidably, more ideologically soaked than ordinary translations. Perhaps it is necessary too, given the sensitivity towards and consideration for preserving the ‘essence’ of the sacred text which is primarily historically anchored (Sherry 2013). On the contrary, the translation of ordinary and lay texts does not evoke the same level of sensitivity and consideration and, at times, it is taken as a mechanical act.

Lastly, there is a crucial difference between the Islamic and the contemporary mainstream conceptualizations of gender. Most of the contemporary feminist theories view gender as a matter of social constructionism and performativity. It is presented as a discursive construct born of socio-cultural influences. It is, therefore, hardly taken as a primary identity emerging from the human ‘self’ as such. It is due to these non-essentialist conceptualizations of gender that there has been historical variability so long as the discourses of gender are concerned. In contrast, Islam takes gender seriously and posits it as one of the poles of human identity in its own right. Both the male and the female are said to have been created from a single person or soul—*nafsin-wāhida’h* (04:01). Both the genders are the recipients of the divine breath.

2. Literature Review

Not much work has been done on the issue of gender and translation with reference to the Holy Quran. There are a few studies which can be mentioned here cursorily. The researchers have confined themselves to those studies which are likely to contextualize their own research.

To begin with, in 2001, Michael D. Marlowe authored a well-grounded article *The Gender Neutral Controversy*. Marlowe has ably laid down the framework of gender-neutral controversy in the perspective of the Biblical translation. Though he admits the urgency and significance of accurate gender representation, he is critical of the mainstream feminist voices which seek to *domesticate* the source text in ways which smacks of “political correctness”. In his article, the writer defines the limits of any language reform which intends to rid the scripture of its patriarchal tone.

To him, the real thing is the ‘inclusive intent’ of the author and not some spurious attempt to gloss over the actualities of the source text in a bid to invest some sort of ‘neutrality’ in it. He maintains that in most of the instances the inclusive intent of the author remains considerably evident from the context, and, on the other hand, when the intent of the author is not so inclusive, this also remains evident enough from the contextual configurations (2001). He contends that language is just a tip of an underlying iceberg and, therefore, in transforming the language alone, there runs a risk of merely masking the prejudices which are embedded in the very textual structures and the cultural and epistemic posturing. Unidentified and unidentifiable, these prejudices get all the insidious and powerful (Marlowe 2001)

Zine (2008a) has dealt with the question of female Muslim identity with reference to the question of gender construction. She has posited a ‘contradictory’ space between various discourses where female identity is constituted, read, regulated, contested, consumed and eventually lived.

To Zine, there are different “dynamics of naming” (2008b, p. 112) which largely result from an elision of female gender. The question of identity politics which largely governs the description of human subjectivity and body of Muslim women has been the outcome of deep-rooted religious, historical, imperial, institutional and political inscriptions. These are discursive narrativities and are themselves the products of long-standing colonial fantasies coupled with religiously invoked notions of morality, honor and piety. The limiting discursive boundaries that define the expressions of female identity restrain the subjectivity and agency of Muslim women (2008b).

Von Flotow (2010) has contributed a chapter titled ‘Gender in Translation’ to *Handbook of Translation Studies*. The chapter is a valuable treatment of the topic it covers as it lays down a general framework in which the complexity and the significance of the gender issue can be adequately appreciated by the reader. Though the writer also talks about the translation of religious scriptures in passing, his focus remains mundane

translations. According to the writer, there are three important ways in which the gender questions can apply to translation:

1. By concentrating on gender as a sociocultural and political category in macro-analysis of translation processes, such as the production, exchange, success, and criticism of authors, translators and works.
2. By investigating gender questions as the site of literary/aesthetic or political negotiations through micro-analyses of translation processes; and
3. By shaping related, more theoretical questions applied to or derived from translation praxis (Flotow 2010, p. 28).

Hassen (2011) dwells on the discussion as to how women translators have addressed the issue of patriarchal and mono-cultural linguistic features in the source text. To her, Arabic and English are asymmetrical in terms of gender marking and this poses special problems for translators:

Because Arabic is highly gendered and English is not, many feminine nouns, pronouns and verbs become invisible in English and as a result the ‘gender balance’ created in original could be lost in the translation (2011, p. 17).

Hassen brought out a full-length book titled *English Translations of the Qur’an by Women: Different or Derived* in 2012 in which she developed his thesis. The book is originally based upon his doctoral thesis in which the writer has critically compared four English translations of the Holy Quran, i.e. by Umm Muhammad, Camille Adams Helminski, Taheereh Saffarzadeh and Laleh Bakhtiar. Most of the comparison done by Hassen is based upon the insights taken from critical discourse analysis.

In *Qur’an Translation: Discourse, Texture and Exegesis* (2013), Abdul-Raof elucidates the problems one faces while translating the Holy Quran. The writer also furnishes a comprehensive description of the distinctive rhetorical, syntactic, pragmatic, semantic, prosodic and phonetic aspects of the Quranic text which complicate the task of any translator. The writer also sheds light on some of the meta-textual and contextual features of the Holy Quran which contribute to the difficulties of the translators. He contends that for Muslim women sacred language is becoming an important site for contesting and reclaiming their identity and personhood as the female translators are increasingly drawing attention to the discursive discrimination *through* and *in* language. These translators are keenly questioning the politics of grammatical, textual and pragmatic protocols used while dealing with the sacred textualities of the Holy Quran.

Mubaideen (2015), though not directly concerned with the translation of the Holy Quran, has raised some important general issues regarding the gender-related problems of Arabic-English translation. In this qualitative research, she maintains that the gender-neutral words pose the formidable challenge to any Arabic-English translator and while dealing with them the translator should frame the context in such ways which could render greater justice to the depiction of both the genders equitably.

Sideeg (2015) has critically compared various cases of the translations of the Holy Quran which he thinks are the corollaries of translation-ideology nexus. The writer uses the word ideology in a restrictive sense and confines it to patriarchal dominance in the contemporary practices of translation. The writer finds complex traces of ideology in the translations and discusses various traditions of translation such as sufi, traditionalist, literalist, neo-traditionalist, etc.

3. Research Methodology

In this study, which is primarily qualitative, the researchers have employed interpretivist approach as the researchers believe that the agency of language is always actualized through social constructions such as consciousness, shared vocabularies, symbols and intents. Within the larger framework of interpretivist, the study has taken Mircea Eliade's theory of hermeneutic as its theoretical framework (1998). Eliade is one of the foremost 20th century historians and interpreters of religion (Balaban, 2016) who enunciated certain hermeneutic paradigms in religious studies which persist to this day. Thus, the hermeneutist-interpretivist method used by Eliade to translate the religious experience of language has been used as a research method in this study to emphasize, pinpoint and examine patterns in the representations of gender in translation.

4. Research Questions

The paper investigates the following two questions:

1. How have the various English translators of the Holy Quran addressed the gender-neutral reference in the source text?
2. What are the ideological and cultural implications of the gender representations in these translations?

5. Data Collection

The researchers have selected the following six translations for the analysis. The rationale to select these translations is that they cover a broad spectrum, ranging from

literal to metaphorical, from classical to contemporary and from traditionalist to modernist.

1. Marmaduke Pickthall (1930)
2. Abdullah Yusuf Ali (1934)
3. Taqi-ud-Din al-Hilali and Muhammad Muhsin Khan (1977)
4. Muhammad Asad (1980)
5. Muhammad Sarwar (1981)
6. Muhammad Habib Shakir (1999)

While using purposive sampling technique, the researchers have carefully selected the Quranic verses and their translations. These translations have been critically compared and contrasted in order to assess the relative merits and demerits with reference to the question of gender accuracy. Needless to say, the central variable for this comparative assessment is gender-representation.

6. Significance of the Study

The Holy Quran constitutes one of the canonical texts of the world religious discourses. In history, it has not only played a pivotal role in the evolution of Muslim culture(s) but has also left deep imprints on the universal historic consciousness of humankind. With English becoming a global language, today more and more people are accessing this text through its English translations. Therefore, it is important to evaluate as to what extent these translations have retained the gender-neutral expressions of the source text. In our contemporary world, gender has assumed the status of one of the most contested and important variables not just in academic discourses but also in religious and cultural narratives. As a result, the present study would illuminate the attitudes and approaches adopted by the English translators of the Holy Quran while dealing with this important variable i.e. gender.

7. Data Analysis

The data analysis procedure adopted by the researchers is a linear comparative discussion which proceeds in a series of instances critically subjected to investigation. Let us begin with the first instance.

(1)

خَلَقَ الْإِنْسَانَ مِنْ عَلَقٍ. (016: 004)

While translating these verses, most of the translators have used masculine noun, i.e. generic ‘man’ for a gender-neutral Arabic word, *insān* (“انسان”, meaning “human”). Look at these three translations done by some of the leading English translators of the Holy Quran:

He hath created man from a drop of fluid (Pickthall, 1930).

He has created man from a sperm-drop (Yusuf, 1934).

Created man out of a germ-cell (Asad, 1980).

All these three translators are using generic “man” to translate a gender-neutral noun “انسان” (*insān*). On the other hand, there is an interesting exception of Sarwar (1981) who has rendered this neutral Arabic word in neutral and general terms:

He created the human being from a drop of fluid (Sarwar, 1981).

(2)

يَا أَيُّهَا النَّاسُ اتَّقُوا رَبَّكُمُ الَّذِي خَلَقَكُمْ مِنْ نَفْسٍ وَاحِدَةٍ وَخَلَقَ مِنْهَا زَوْجَهَا (004:001).

The translation of this whole verse is very significant from our perspective as it contains some important gender-related references. To begin with, look at the word *An-nās* (“الناس” meaning “people”, “humans”) the beginning of the verse. It is a generic word, and it can have more appropriate equivalents such as “people”, “humanity” “human beings” “humans”, etc. Once again, most of the translators have translated it as “mankind” giving it a somewhat masculine ring:

O Mankind! Be conscious of your Sustainer (Asad, 1980).

O mankind! Reverence your Guardian-Lord (Ali, 1934).

O mankind! Be careful of your duty to your Lord (Pickthall, 1930).

However, we do find certain translators who translated this verse in a gender-neutral way as it is in the source text. For example, look at these instances:

People, have fear of your Lord (Sarwar, 1981).

O people! be careful of (your duty to) your Lord (Shakir, 1999).

The phrase “الَّذِي خَلَقَكُمْ مِنْ نَفْسٍ وَاحِدَةٍ ، وَخَلَقَ مِنْهَا زَوْجَهَا” has also been dealt differently by different translators. Most of the translators have retained the gender-neutrality of the source text. For example, this is how Asad (1980) has rendered it:

The same goes for Pickthall (1930):

But Yusuf (1934), though started in a gender-neutral way, ended up in giving it a masculine ring, i.e. as far as the word “person” is concerned, the gender-neutrality is retained but rounding up the sentence with “his mate” brings in a gender-specific reference:

Who created you from a single person, created, of like nature, his mate.

Hilali and Khan (1977) have further complicated it with parenthetical information:

Who created you from a single person (Adam), and from him (Adam) He created his wife [Hawwa (Eve)].

What Hilali and Khan (1977) are doing here is more like an interpretation than translation. Positing Adam and Eve parenthetically while rendering a gender-neutral verse is disregarding the canonical texts where no such distinction is made. Instead, such information has mostly been taken from *Isra'iliyyat* i.e. the body of narratives originating from the Judeo-Christian sources, rather than from other well-established Islamic traditions (Vagda, 1973). Such extensive parenthetical information in translation is usually a feature of interpretivist translations. This reminds us of Axel Bühler, renowned translation scholar, who gave the idea of translation as interpretation (2005).

However, it is Sarwar (1981) who has put it in a completely personal and gender-neutral way—*personal* in the sense that he totally does away with impersonal pronouns such as “it” and “its”:

(3)

إِنَّا عَرَضْنَا الْأَمَانَةَ عَلَى السَّمَاوَاتِ وَالْأَرْضِ وَالْجِبَالِ فَأَبَيْنَ أَنْ يَحْمِلْنَهَا وَأَشْفَقْنَ مِنْهَا وَحَمَلَهَا الْإِنْسَانُ إِنَّهُ كَانَ ظَلُومًا جَهُولًا (033:072)

Here also the neutral and generic reference *Al-insaan* (“الانسان”) has been differently translated by different translators. Ali (1934) puts it like this:

He is using masculine noun (man) and the third person male pronoun (he). Precisely the pattern is adopted by Asad (1980) and Similar is the case with Pickthall (1930):

Lo! We offered the trust unto the heavens and the earth and the hills, but they shrank from bearing it and were afraid of it. And man assumed it. Lo! he hath proved a tyrant and a fool.

So with reference to this translation we do not find any exception and all the translators have translated “الانسان” as generic *man*.

(4)

أُولَئِكَ الَّذِينَ يَعْلَمُ اللَّهُ مَا فِي قُلُوبِهِمْ. (004:063)

Almost every translator has translated this verse in a gender-neutral way. The Arabic phrase “اوليك الذى” has been variously rendered as “As for them” (Asad, 1980), “They (hypocrites) are those of whom” (Hilali and Khan, 1977), “These are they of whom” (Shakir, 1999), “Those are they” (Pickthall, 1930), etc. However, Yusuf (1934) has brought here masculine plural noun:

Those men, (Allah) knows what is in their hearts

This is not in line with the actualities of the source text as the Holy Quran categorically mentions at various places that there are hypocritical men and, at the same time, there are hypocritical women as well. For example, it is stated: “The hypocrite men (الْمُنَافِقُونَ) and the hypocrite women (الْمُنَافِقَاتُ) belong with each other” (9: 67). Therefore, confining a generic reference to hypocrites to “men” only is unwarranted.

(5)

ضُرِبَتْ عَلَيْهِمُ الذِّلَّةُ أَيْنَ مَا تَفَقَّهُوا إِلَّا بِحَبْلٍ مِنَ اللَّهِ وَحَبْلٍ مِنَ النَّاسِ وَبَاءُوا بِغَضَبٍ مِنَ اللَّهِ (003:112)

Once again it is strange to see as to how some of the translators have confined this gender-neutral reference to masculine plural i.e. “men”. Look at these three instances:

On the other hand, Sarwar (1981) translates it in a gender-neutral way:

Humiliation will strike them wherever they seek protection, except when they seek protection from God and the people.

Sarwar (1981)’s translation appears to be even better and closer to the source text given the fact that the Holy Quran is referring to the People of the Book (اهل الكتاب) – a category which contains both men and women. For example one reference in which *the Women of the Book*, so to speak, have been mentioned runs: “(Lawful unto you in marriage) are (not only) virtuous women who are faithful, but virtuous women among the People of the Book, sent before your prophethood” (005:005).

(6)

فَإِنْ لَمْ تَفْعَلُوا وَلَنْ تَفْعَلُوا فَاتَّقُوا النَّارَ الَّتِي وَقُودُهَا النَّاسُ وَالْحِجَارَةُ ۗ أُعِدَّتْ لِلْكَافِرِينَ (002:024)

While translating this verse, Pickthall (1930) employs a male plural pronoun for the word “الناس”--*insaan*:

And if ye do it not - and ye can never do it - then guard yourselves against the Fire prepared for disbelievers, whose fuel is of men and stones.

Shakir (1999) has treaded the same path:

But if you do (it) not and never shall you do (it), then be on your guard against the fire of which men and stones are the fuel; it is prepared for the unbelievers.

Similar is the case with Yusuf (1934):

But if ye cannot- and of a surety ye cannot- then fear the Fire whose fuel is men and stones,- which is prepared for those who reject Faith.

However, there are other instances where translators can be seen taking a more balanced and neutral stance. For example, look at the following translation by Sarwar (1981):

If you do not produce such a chapter, and you never will, then guard yourselves against the fire whose fuel will be people and stones and is prepared for those who hide the Truth.

(7)

مَثَلُ مَا يُنْفِقُونَ فِي هَذِهِ الْحَيَاةِ الدُّنْيَا كَمَثَلِ رِيحٍ فِيهَا صِرٌّ أَصَابَتْ حَرْثَ قَوْمٍ ظَلَمُوا أَنفُسَهُمْ فَأَهْلَكَتُهُ وَمَا ظَلَمَهُمُ اللَّهُ وَلَكِنْ أَنفُسُهُمْ يَظْلِمُونَ (003:117)

In this verse, the word *qaum* (“قوم”) has been used which has been differently translated by different translators. Some of the translators have put it in masculine terms which is, obviously, not what the source text intends. Yusuf’s translation is an example of this (1934):

What they spend in the life of this (material) world may be likened to a wind which brings a nipping frost: It strikes and destroys the harvest of men who have wronged their own souls: it is not Allah that hath wronged them, but they wrong themselves.

The Holy Quran is referring to “people” at large, i.e., “قوم”; not just men. However, with reference to this particular example, Yusuf (1934) is an odd man out as all the other

translators have used the word “people” instead of “men”. Look at Asad’s translation (1980):

The parable of what they spend on the life of this world is that of an icy wind which smites the tilth of people who have sinned against themselves, and destroys it: for, it is not God who does them wrong, but it is they who are wronging themselves.

Same is the case with Pickthall’s version (1930):

The likeness of that which they spend in this life of the world is as the likeness of a biting, icy wind which smiteth the harvest of a people who have wronged themselves, and devastateth it. Allah wronged them not, but they did wrong themselves.

Similarly, Sarwar (1981) and Hilali and Khan (1977) have also used such expressions as “people”, “the people” and “a people” respectively.

(10)

الَّذِينَ يَذْكُرُونَ اللَّهَ قِيَامًا وَقُعُودًا وَعَلَىٰ جُنُوبِهِمْ وَيَتَفَكَّرُونَ فِي خَلْقِ السَّمَاوَاتِ وَالْأَرْضِ رَبَّنَا مَا خَلَقْتَ هَذَا بَاطِلًا
سُبْحَانَكَ فَقِنَا عَذَابَ النَّارِ (003:191)

This verse illustrates an important and recurring pattern from the perspective of gender and translation. It starts with a generic plural reference “الذين” (“Those [people] who”) and there are numerous verses in the Holy Quran which begin with this word. This general plural reference is usually translated in gender-neutral terms. For example, Asad (1980) puts it like this:

[and] who remember God when they stand, and when they sit, and when they lie down to sleep, and [thus] reflect on the creation of the heavens and the earth: “O our Sustainer! Thou hast not created [aught of] this without meaning and purpose”.

Sarwar (1981) also put it in totally neutral terms:

It is these who commemorate God while standing, sitting, or resting on their sides and who think about the creation of the heavens and the earth and say, “Lord, you have not created all this without reason.”

Contrarily, Yusuf (1934) has used a masculine plural reference:

Men who celebrate the praises of Allah, standing, sitting, and lying down on their sides, and contemplate the (wonders of) creation in the heavens and the earth, (With the thought): “Our Lord! not for naught Hast Thou created (all) this!

This pushes his translation somewhat adrift from the actualities of the source text as the Holy Quran is explicitly mentioning all the people irrespective of their gender.

(11)

الَّذِينَ قَالَ لَهُمُ النَّاسُ إِنَّ النَّاسَ قَدْ جَمَعُوا لَكُمْ فَاخْشَوْهُمْ فَزَادَهُمْ إِيمَانًا. (003:173)

The translation of this verse illustrates the same pattern which has been discussed in the previous instance as it too starts with the same generic plural reference “الذين”. Here interestingly once again Yusuf (1934) is employing the same masculine plural reference, i.e. “men”:

Men said to them: “A great army is gathering against you”: And frightened them: But it (only) increased their Faith.

Interestingly, here Yusuf (1934) is joined by Pickthall (1930) as the latter has also employed the masculine reference:

Those unto whom men said: Lo! the people have gathered against you, therefore fear them.

The only difference is that Yusuf has used the masculine reference for the addressor, “الذين” (“Those who”); whereas, Pickthall (1930) has used it for the addressee, “الناس” (“people”). In both the cases, it is unwarranted semantically as well as pragmatically.

(12)

وَإِنَّ مِنْكُمْ لَمَنْ لَيُبَطِّئَنَّ فَإِنْ أَصَابَتْكُمْ مُصِيبَةٌ قَالَ قَدْ أَنْعَمَ اللَّهُ عَلَيَّ إِذْ لَمْ أَكُنْ مَعَهُمْ شَهِيدًا. (004:072)

The only translator to have translated it in a gender-neutral way is Asad (1980):

And, behold, there are indeed among you such as would lag behind, and then, if calamity befalls you, say, “God has bestowed His favour upon me in that I did not accompany them”.

Contrarily, Hilali and Khan (1977), Yusuf (1934) and Pickthall (1930) have employed masculine terms. This is how Hilali and Khan (1977) put it:

There is certainly among you he who would linger behind (from fighting in Allah's Cause). If a misfortune befalls you, he says, "Indeed Allah has favoured me in that I was not present among them."

Like Asad, Yusuf has employed a plural reference which Hilali and Khan (1977) have not employed but unlike Asad, Yusuf gave it a masculine turn:

There are certainly among you men who would tarry behind: If a misfortune befalls you, they say: "(Allah) did favour us in that we were not present among them."

Lastly, Pickthall (1930) also goes Hilali and Khan's way:

Lo! Among you there is he who Loitereth; and if disaster overtook you, he would say: Allah hath been gracious unto me since I was not present with them!

8. Discussion and Conclusion

Translation of the Holy Quran has mostly been a problematic and challenging issue in the history of Islamic theology (Qureshi, 2016). As the Holy Quran enjoys canonical status in Muslim theological and sociological thinking, its translations obviously play a foundational role in shaping this thinking particularly in the non-Arab Muslim countries where a direct access to the Quranic text is confined only to a tiny segment of population. Besides, these translations, or perhaps their particular readings, have also played a role in formulating some of the most inimical Orientalist stereotypes about women in the Muslim societies. Such notions have been perpetuated from the medieval period by such figures as Gerard de Nerval, Flaubert, Chateaubriand, Baudelaire and more recently by Bernard Lewis, Pamela Geller, Daniel Pipes and Christopher Hitchens, to mention but a few (Asghar & Khan, 2005).

For a very long time, the standard image of a typical Muslim woman in the Western Orientalist imagination was that of a second-rate citizen inhabiting periphery of social existence who is mainstreamed only temporarily when she has to gratify male gaze or desire (Van Es, 2016). Gustave Flaubert's Kuchuk Hanem, a famous Egyptian dancer and courtesan the former met during his travels, is one of the most characteristic examples of this imagination (Shay, 2005). The extent of this stereotyping is really appalling and is also reflected in the very titles of some of the most widely acclaimed literary productions such as *My Forbidden Face* (2003) by Latifa, *The Caged Virgin: A Muslim Woman's Cry for Reason* (2006) by Ayaan Hirsi Ali, *The Land of Invisible Women* (2008) by Qanta Ahmaed, to name but a few.

Therefore, it is important to identify and highlight the issues of inclusivity and neutrality in the translations in order to address the question of perceived or real backgrounding of women in the canonical domains, i.e. their invisibility in the sacred textualities of Islam. Investing the Quranic translations with a patriarchal tone where the source text happens to be clearly gender-balanced is particularly damaging because of the way Islam has been misread in stereotypes about gender and the role of women in society (See Hassen, 2012).

The data analysis presented above demonstrates some instructive and significant patterns found in some of the well-known English translations of the Holy Quran with reference to the question of gender. It has been observed that it is not uncommon for the English translators of the Holy Quran to show a disregard while translating the gender-neutral and nuanced references. Almost every translator discussed above has, at one time or another, fallen prey to this problem and rendered generic and gender-neutral references in masculine terms.

However, it is important to mention here that the English translations of the Holy Quran constitute a large body of complex and heterogeneous discourse and, therefore, do not lend to any monolithic or hasty characterization. As is evidenced from the analysis, some of the translators drawing upon great linguistic and discursive ingenuity have retained gender-neutrality in the English translations. At the same time, there are other translators who, while departing from the source text, have brought in gender-specific masculine references. Interestingly the translators who did produce inclusive translation have neither been ‘interventionist’ nor have they enlisted any paratextual or metatextual support in order to retain the gender neutrality of the source text. Whatever they translated originates from the source text and accords it greater respect and expressiveness.

While translating the Holy Quran, it is paramount for translators to realize the nuances and the semantic range of the source text references they are rendering and wherever the Holy Quran addresses or mentions human beings at large, gender-neutral and inclusive references will surely fare better. We may refer to the Holy Quran itself which categorically declares females to be the equal recipients and addressees of its message (33:35). Exclusively masculine and patriarchal translations of the Holy Quran can work to reinforce and perpetuate some of the most distressing stereotypes and clichés about the status of women in Islam.

Moreover, such gendered translations steeped in patriarchal overgeneralizations tend to do injustice to the very inclusiveness warranted by the source text. Not only that women are the equitably addressed by the Holy Quran, they also have a right to interpret it. It is interesting to note here that some of the most accomplished contemporary Muslim women writers have not challenged in any way the authority of the Holy Quran or other canonical texts of Islam. All these writers have done is to present their apprehensions about a historicity which excludes women from the canonical meaning where they have been placed by God Himself. Amina Wadud is very clear when she says that Muslim women are the believers in the faith tradition of Islam and they do not at all seek to “rewrite” the Holy Quran as it is “unchangeable”. However, to her, Muslim women writers should “grapple with and challenge the inherent sexist biases of the historicity of words” (2006, 206).

Along these lines, the central objective of this paper is to make the translators realize the equity, breadth and inclusiveness of the Quranic text. It also aims at assessing the extent of gender awareness in the English translations of the Holy Quran. This realization is crucial to render greater justice to the semantic, theological, pragmatic and interpretivist breadth of the Holy Quran which is so foundational to its inclusive and universal discourse. Nowhere have the researchers made any attempt to advocate an uncalled for foregrounding of any gender either male or female and the central aim of this study remains to ensure an inclusive and egalitarian reading of the translations wherever warranted by the source text. The kind of inclusivity being pleaded here is already there in the source text. Therefore, the chief objective of this study is to accord greater visibility to the gender-neutrality enshrined in the very fabric of the source text and it is this gender-neutrality which is one of the clearest manifestations of the universality and the timelessness which the Holy Quran claims. Lastly, it is important to remember that every translation of the Holy Quran is its uprooting from its native tongue (Auricchio, 2001, p. 32) and its resettling in another language. Therefore, no translation can acquire a canonical status at par with the original Sacred text.

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