Investigating the College Students' Errors* in the Area of Direct and Indirect Speech

تقصي أخطاء طلبة الكلية في الكلام المباشر وغير المباشر

*Error is a technique that is used in language teaching and learning to identify, classify and systematically interpret the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign language (Crystal, 2003: 165).

م.م تابان محمد فوزي حسين

ماجستير آداب في اللغة الإنكليزية وعلوم اللغة

جامعة گرميان

كلية العلوم الإنسانية والرياضة

قسم اللغة الإنكليزية

البريد الالكتروني tabanfeb@yahoo.com

Assist. Lecturer Taban Muhammed Fawzy Hussein

M.A. in English Language and Linguistics

University of Garemian

Faculty of Human Sciences and Physical Education

Department of English Language

The Email Address: tabanfeb@yahoo.com

Abstract

There have been extensive arguments concerning the relationship between direct and indirect speech. This is quite natural, since the discussion of this topic involves such major areas of English grammar as the study of narrative style and the relation between the grammatical category of tense and (actual) time as well as various types of deixis shift which include "person shift", "time/ place adverbial shift" and "tense shift" (commonly called "backshift" or "sequence of tenses").

This study shows how far the direct and indirect speech can and should be explained by the syntactic rules, and where and how the discourse principles come into play. Some aspects of the relationship between direct and indirect speech have been considered.

The issues that are going to be discussed here are:

1. Aspects of correspondence between direct speech and indirect speech.
2. Deixis shift (sequence of tenses in particular).
3. The students' comprehension of the relation between these two aspects in the light of a test results.

It has been found that the college students are not aware of the syntactic changes that have to be applied in changing the speech from direct into indirect and the back-shifting of pronouns and adverbs.

1. Introduction

1.1. The Problem

Direct speech refers to the actual use of another person's utterance with no grammatical modification while the indirect speech refers to the use of "a grammatical construction where the words of the speaker are subordinated to a verb in a main clause" for example:

1. 'I have a cold' Ann said   Direct Speech

2. Ann said that she had a cold   Indirect Speech

                                 (Crystal, 2003: 140, 232)

Direct or quoted speech is a sentence (or several sentences) that reports speech or thought in its original form, as phrased by the original speaker. It is usually enclosed in quotation marks. The cited speaker is either mentioned or implied. Indirect speech, also called reported speech or indirect discourse, is a means of expressing the content of statements, questions or other utterances, without quoting them explicitly as is done in direct speech.

In indirect speech certain grammatical categories are changed relative to the words of the original sentence. For example, person may change as a result of a change of speaker or listener (as *I* changes to *she* in the example above). In some languages, including English, the tense of verbs is often changed – this is often called sequence of tenses.

English college students study direct and indirect speech forms but they are still unaware of the importance of these two aspects and they ignore how to use them in their speech. So there is a need to shed light on the students' weaknesses and the difficulties that they face in dealing with these two aspects.

1.2 The hypothesis

It has been hypothesized that the students face some problems in certain areas such as how to transform the direct speech into the indirect one and vice versa, also they ignore the syntactic changes that accompany the transformation process especially with the interrogative and exclamatory sentences.

1.3 The Aim

This paper aims to shed light on the difficulties that the college students face when they deal with direct and indirect speech and give solutions and suggestions to resolve the students' weaknesses in this area.

1.4 The Procedures

To achieve the aim of this paper, the following procedures have to be followed:

1. providing a survey on direct and indirect speech, definitions, the correspondence between the two aspects and the grammatical changes

that take place in the process of changing the speech from direct into indirect and vice versa.

2. constructing a test devoted to measure the students' abilities in comprehending and recognizing these two grammatical aspects and to specify and clarify the students' weaknesses points.

3. giving some recommendations and suggestions that the teachers can follow in teaching direct and indirect speech.

2.1 On Defining Direct Speech

Direct speech refers to the use of the actual utterance "with no grammatical modification" such as "Is he coming? John asked" (Crystal, 2003:140).

Eastwood (2002:347) says that direct speech can be used when we report someone's words by repeating them:

1. 'I'll go and heat some milk,' said Agnes. (from a story)

2. Gould was the first to admit "We were simply beaten by a better side.'
(from a newspaper report)

3. 'Made me laugh more than any comedy I have seen in the West End this year' −Evening Standard (from an advertisement)

The direct speech form could be enclosed by quotation marks and the reporting clause could occur initially, medially, or finally for example:

4. The president said, "A failure by Congress to approve new taxes will lead to larger budget deficits, higher interest rates, and higher unemployment".

5. "The radio is too loud", Elizabeth complained.

(Quirk, et. al., 1985:1022)

Quotation marks are used to set off direct speech:

6. Mom said, "Where are my keys?"

7. "This ice cream is delicious," said Tom.

8. "Have you boys washed your hands?" asked Dad.

9. "Please get out of the car," the police officer ordered.

10. "What a beautiful dress!" said Sally.

Grammatical modifications of the reported text are understood as a necessary consequence of integration into a larger structure (Sargeant, 2007b: 134-135). Partee (1973:412) adds that quotation might be divided into "Direct Quotation" and "Indirect Quotation". The former can be further divided into "total quotation", which ranges from a whole discourse (a set of utterances) to interjections and some related expressions, and " partial quotation", which conveys part of the original utterance such as "He said 'increase' not 'decrease' ". The latter is not conveyed in a word-for-word quotation style but in a paraphrase or summary fashion, and it is to this type of indirect quotation that indirect speech belongs.

Direct quotation has to be precise as possible to the original discourse whether it is conveyed in the written form or in the spoken form. This is why people say "quote" and "unquote" in speech when they try to be precise. Indirect quotation is not always expected to be precise in informal everyday situations. It is often the case in which the content has to be conveyed and that the original surface form is not so rigorously maintained. From this we can say that the degree of precision depends on the purpose and occasion of the indirect speech form (Ibid).

2.2   On Defining Indirect Speech

The term "indirect speech" refers to the grammatical construction for the purpose of expressing information about an utterance as reported by another speaker, where the reported utterance is not a direct quotation, i.e. an exact replication of the originally perceived linguistic form. More specifically it is not understood as a construction that describes the semantic or pragmatic content of the original utterance freely but as one that preserves the meaning as well as a close approximation of the original form. The indirect speech (reported speech) refers to the use of a grammatical construction where the words of the speaker are subordinated to a verb in a main clause", for example "she said that she had a cold" (Crystal, 2003: 232).

For the indirect speech, instead of repeating the exact words, the meaning can be given by using the speaker's own words and from his own point of view:

1. Agnes said **she would go and heat some milk**.

2. Gould admitted **that his team were beaten by a better side**.

Here the indirect speech (or 'reported speech') is a noun clause, the object of *said* and *admitted. That is* sometimes used, but in informal English it can be left out, especially after *say* or *tell.*

3. Tom says (that) his feet hurt.

4. You told me (that) you enjoyed the visit.

Sometimes a non-finite clause can be used as in:

5. Gould admitted having lost to a better side.

6. They declared the result to be invalid.   (Ibid)

When written, indirect speech is not normally enclosed in quotation marks or any similar typographical devices for indicating that a direct quotation is being made. However such devices are sometimes used to indicate that the indirect speech is a faithful quotation of someone's words (with additional devices such as square brackets and ellipses to indicate deviations or omissions from those words), as in *He informed us that "after dinner [he] would like to make an announcement".*

2.3   Correspondence Relations between Direct and Indirect Speech

It can be assumed that direct speech is the basic form and indirect speech is derived from direct speech. Indirect speech is a kind of quotation which employs verbs of reporting.

In many cases it is true of both direct and indirect speech constructions that the clause that encodes the main proposition of a speaker about the reporter and the clause that encodes the reported proposition are in a grammatical dependency relation, i.e. the former is the matrix clause and the latter is a clausal complement.

Eastwood (2002: 347) adds that thoughts can be reported as well as speech for examples:

1. Louise thought Wayne was a complete fool.

2. We all wondered what was going on.

The direct and indirect speech can be mixed. This is from a newspaper report about a man staying at home to look after his children:

3. But Brian believes watching the kids grow up and learn new things is the biggest joy a dad can experience. 'Some people

think it's a woman's job, but I don't think that's relevant any more.'

Maier (2000:1-2) discusses the interrelation between direct speech and indirect speech by presenting the following examples:

(direct) Mary said, "Ugh, I'm so tired!"

(indirect) Mary said that she was very tired.

In the direct speech Mary's original speech act verbatim is produced by putting quotation marks around it; in the indirect speech, a subordinate clause to convey what Mary originally expressed is used. More abstractly, the fundamental difference is this: in direct speech Mary's *words* are reported, while in indirect speech the *content* of Mary's words is reported.

4. The other day Tom said to me, "My grandfather was killed with a knife by a bachelor."

5. a. The other day Tom said to me, "A bachelor killed my grandfather with a knife."

   b. The other day Tom said to me, "An unmarried man used a knife to

   cause the father of one of my parents to die."

From analyzing these sentences, the meaning of (4) is different from the meaning of 5(a) and 5(b), i.e., (4) is not synonymous of 5(a) or

5(b). So that it is not the meaning of the quoted sentence that is contributing to the meaning of the whole, but rather its surface form (Partee, 1973:413).

The indirect form of sentence (4) as follows:

6. a. The other day Tom told me that his grandfather had been killed with knife by a bachelor.

b. The other day Tom told me that a bachelor had killed his grandfather with a knife.

c. The other day Tom told me that an unmarried man had used a knife to cause the father of one of his parents to die.

According to Partee (Ibid) sentence 6(a) is a legitimate indirect form of (4), but this is not the same for 6(b) which is not a perfectly legitimate indirect form of (4), although it conveys virtually the same information. For 6(c), it is perfectly an accepted indirect form of (4).

From the previous points, it seems clear that the quoted sentence in direct speech has to be represented as precisely as possible in terms of meaning and syntactic form. It also seems obvious that the indirect speech form has to reflect the meaning and surface form of the original utterance as much as possible for successful communication to be guaranteed. Lack of correspondence between the speech forms in terms of lexical items, grammatical constructions, deixis shift and

possibly some other factors can result in miscommunication of varying degrees.

Also the concept of the direct form and indirect form can be seen in light of the relation between a novelist and a reader in that the novelist uses direct forms in order to increase variety in a text. Also the choice of lexis and the grammatical options chosen by the character may be indices of social situation, background, education, interest, and so on. So the reader would form a full image about the character through using direct form (Black, 2000:66).

To correspond between the direct form and the indirect one, a direct speech form should be converted reconstructing an appropriate direct speech form from its indirect counterpart to interpret the reported utterance. For example:

7. John said that he was unmarried.

    b. John said that he was a bachelor.

    c. John said that he was single.

    d. John said that he had no wife.

8. a. John said, "I am unmarried."

    b. John said, "I am a bachelor."

    c. John said, "I am single."

d. John said, "I have no wife."

(Wierzbicka,

1974:235)

Through analyzing these sentences it can be observed that sentence 8(a) is an indirect version of 7(a), and sentence 8(b) is an indirect version of 7(b) and so on. Also it is possible to do the opposite by converting the direct forms in (8) into the corresponding indirect forms in (7) and these operations are possible by applying the traditional deixis shift rules.

According to Quirk et.al (1985:1012), "Indirect speech conveys in the words of a subsequent reporter what has been said or written by the original speaker or writer." In other words, what they require of direct speech to be appropriate is "the essential truth of the report" "in the words of a subsequent reporter." For example:

9. a. "My first task today." Said the teacher, "will be to examine current views on the motivations for armed conflict."

   b. The teacher said that his first task that day was to examine current

   views on the motivations for armed conflict.

10. "What I want to do now," said the teacher, "is to look at Contemporary theories of the causes of wars."

11. The teacher announced his intention of discussing the causes of wars.

Quirk et al. (1985:1025) claim that 9(b) approximates as closely as possible to the original wording, but that 9(a) could also report the wording of (10) legitimately. They admit, however, that (11) has no clear correspondence with the reported clause in 9(a). How should their statement be interpreted?

It seems that their conception of indirect speech is a little too broad and permissive. Examples like 9(b), 10 and11 are, at best, summaries of the original wording. Their claim that (10) could be a legitimate origin of 9(b) also seems too permissive. It can be said that sentences 9(a) and (10) are not synonymous but they are an instance of paraphrasing as Quirk et al. (1985) claim. They may be right in a very broad sense of the word, but this is clearly beyond the scope of syntactic correspondence between direct and indirect speech, which is one of the conditions (the other being meaning) imposed on the correspondence between the two speech forms. It is perhaps worthwhile to point out here that the examples they discuss concerning "backshift" and other changes in indirect speech are restricted to the type of correspondence between 9(a) and 9(b). In short there are several types of indirect speech. One of them can be largely a matter of syntactic analysis, and

some of them are beyond the scope of syntactic analysis and require devices of discourse grammar and even some notions beyond discourse.

Only the direct–indirect statements are considered so far. Before going on to the next stage of discussion, a brief survey of other sentence types: questions, exclamations, and imperatives should be presented. It is generally possible to convert various types of direct questions and some types of exclamations into their indirect speech counterparts, and reconstruct the direct speech forms from their indirect speech counterparts. The following examples are from Quirk et al.(1985:1029–30). Notice that they assume this bi– unique correspondence basically holds between the two forms:

12. a. "Are you ready yet?" asked Joan.   (Yes–No Question)

    b. Joan asked (me) whether I was ready yet.

13. a. "When will the plane leave?" I wondered.   (WH– Question)

    b. I wondered when the plane would leave.

14. a. "Are you satisfied or not?" I asked her.   (Alternative Question)

    b. I asked her whether or not she was satisfied.

15. a. "What a brave boy you are!" Margret told him. (Exclamation)

b. Margret told him what a brave boy he was.

It seems obvious that there is no clear correspondence between (12a–15a) and (12b–15b) in terms of syntactic form and meaning. But there are several problems involved here, too. One is a case involving deletion:

16. a. " You ready?" George asked Joan.

    b. * George asked Joan if she ready.

    c. George asked Joan if she was ready.

17. a. "What a cute baby!" Margret told him.

    b. * Margret told him what a cute baby.

    c. Margret told him what a cute baby it was.

18. a. She said "How beautiful !"

    b. * She said that how beautiful.

    c. ? She said how beautiful.

    d. ? She exclaimed how beautiful.

    e. She exclaimed how beautiful it was.

(16.a), (17.a) and (18.a) are grammatically acceptable; also (16.c), (17.c) and (18.e) are grammatically acceptable too. But the rest are

ungrammatical. This seems to be another instance of interactions between syntax and discourse. A grammatical indirect form would be obtained if the necessary conversion rules are applied to the original direct speech, but questionable indirect speech forms of variable degrees of awkwardness would be produced if their indirect speech counterparts are grammatically incomplete.

Partee (1973:122) explains this observation by stating that "… the quoted sentence is not syntactically or semantically a part of the sentence that contains it." In other words, the reporter is not responsible for the grammatical status of the reported clause, which is grammatically only a direct object of such verbs of reporting as say, whereas the reporter is wholly responsible for the meaning and syntactic form of the reported clause in indirect speech.

For exclamation, the only kind that can be transferred into indirect speech form is the WH− exclamation (Quirk et al.:1985: 1029). Reporting an exclamation is usually best achieved by a circumlocution reflecting the spirit of the original exclamation. Exclamations are not often transformed into indirect speech in spoken English so there are other forms of indirect speech that are more important (Ibid). Some exclamatory forms are really questions (rhetorical) or imperatives such as:

19. a. "What a lovely garden!"

  b. He remarked what a lovely garden it was.

(Ibid)

There are few constructions in which indirect speech form is difficult to get by. One is echo exclamations, which are characterized by a rise-fall tone:

20. a. What a beautiful day!

  b. What a beautiful DAY!

21. a. Open the door, please.

  b. Open the DOOR! Do you take me for a doorman?

(Quirk et al. 1985: 837)

Quirk and et al. (1985:1030) explicitly state that there are no indirect constructions for echo exclamations. It seems quite natural that this is the case, since intonation is an essential part of spoken language which expresses subjective feelings ("astonishment at what has been said" in this case) of the speaker. The only difference between echo exclamations and echo questions is intonation (a rising tone characterizes the latter). Obviously it is easier and more natural to report echo exclamations in direct speech.

This is also the case with many instances of optative sentences:

22. a. She said, "May he rest in peace!"

     b. She prayed that he might rest in peace.

23. a. She said, "If only I had more money!"

     b. *She wished that if only she had more money.

     c. She wished that she had more money.

24. a. She said, "How I hate him!"

     b. *She said that how she hated him.

     c.? She said how much she hated him.

     d. She said that she hated him very much.

Quirk and et al.(1985:1030) say that " there is no indirect speech construction for the optative subjunctive, but when it is used to express a wish the construction with **may** (with possible back-shift to **might**) is sometimes a near equivalent". (22) is an instance of the latter point, and (23) and (24) are instances of the former case.

It is basically possible to convert optative sentences like (22a) into indirect forms like (22b), but the same would not hold for the majority of cases. It seems that it is extremely difficult to report subjective feelings in indirect speech (free indirect speech is a major device for

doing this in a somewhat different but connected way). The majority of cases could be rendered in paraphrase or summary more easily, but such a process is an exercise in linguistic performance, which is well beyond the reach of syntactic rules, rather than direct speech– indirect speech conversions in a strict sense.

The last instance from which it is not possible to reconstruct the exact words of the direct speech is "directives of the summary type" (Quirk et al., 1985: 1030).

25. a. He told me the way.

b. He said to me. "Take the second turning on the right, then cross a

bridge and bear left until you reach the Public Library."

This type of indirect speech is another instance of paraphrase and summary, and needs a different approach from the one involving syntactic rules alone. Moreover, directives (imperatives) have a variety of illocutionary forces in the first place, and "illocutionary forces depend in most cases on the situational context" (Ibid, 831). In fact they give 15 illocutionary forces of imperatives ranging from ORDER and PROHIBITION to SUGGESTION and OFFER to INCREDULUOS REJECTION and SELF–DELIBRATION. It would be nearly impossible

to incorporate and report these illocutionary forces in indirect speech. Hence paraphrase and summary, or direct speech.

Leech and Svartvik (1994: 169) say that reported commands can be either in direct speech or in indirect speech:

Direct Speech   "*Put on your space-suit,*" *he said*.

Indirect Speech   *He told/ ordered/ commanded/ instructed them to put on*

their space-suit.

Also the reported commands can be in the form of a to- infinitive clause "*They were told to put on their space- suits*".

Leech and Svartvik (2003: 102) state that the rule of the indirect statement is also applied on the indirect question; the only exception is that the wh- clause is used instead of that- clause, for example:

50 a. "Did you live here?"

   b. She asked him *if* (or *whether*) he lived there.

51 a. "*Which* chair should I sit in?"

   b. He wondered *which* chair he should sit in.

The indirect *yes– no* questions are introduced by *if* or *whether* while the indirect *wh–* questions are introduced by *wh–* word.

The *yes– no* alternative questions are introduced by *whether* as in:

52 a. "Is it your turn or Susan's?"

   b. She asked him *whether* it is his turn or Susan's.

(Leech and Svartvik, 1994: 102)

In this section it has been observed that there are degrees of correspondence between direct speech and indirect speech and that this phenomenon could be discussed from the viewpoint of the interactions between syntactic rules and discourse factors. It has been shown that some constructions are harder to get by their indirect speech counterparts due to syntactic and discourse factors. Linguistic skills and imagination to report, paraphrase or summarize what other people have said or written are needed. Rules of correspondence (= deixis shift rules) play a significant role in guaranteeing the correspondence between the speech forms, but clearly this is not enough.

3. DEIXIS SHIFT RULES AS A DEVICE FOR GUARANTEEING THE CORRESPONDENCE BETWEEN DIRECT SPEECH AND INDIRECT SPEECH

Rules of deixis shift include: person shift, time adverbial shift, place adverbial shift and sequence of tenses shift. These rules are applied to convert direct speech into indirect speech:

3.1

Pronoun Shift

First, when the identities of the addresser and the addressee are identical in the situations of the original and reported utterances, the personal pronouns remain unchanged; otherwise pronoun shift requires the shift of 1st and 2nd person pronouns to 3rd person or to nouns, when the persons referred to in the original utterances are absent in the reported clause (Quirk et al., 1985:1028-29). Sentence (1) is an example of the former case and (2) is an example of the latter case:

1. a. I said to you, "I like you so much that I want to marry you."

b. I told you that I liked you so much that I wanted to marry you.

2. a. He said to her, "I liked you so much that I want to marry you."

b. He told her that he liked her so much that he wanted to marry her.

What is to be noted here is that 1st and 2nd person pronouns are used relative to the situational context of reporting as illustrated in (3):

3. a. "You should be ashamed of yourself," she said to me.

b. She told me that I should be ashamed of myself.

The following examples, which are statements about Margaret being reported to her, are also interesting:

4. a. "Margret is very clever." Tom said to me.

b. tom told me that you are very clever.

5. a. "Margret is in my class." I said to him.

b. I told him that you were in my class.   (Quirk et al., 1985:1029)

In fact examples like (4) and (5) along with (6) and (7) below present an apparently insurmountable difficulty in explaining the correspondence between direct and indirect speech.

6. John told Marry that *you* will meet *me here today.*

7. Mary, told John, that I, like you.

(Wierzbicka, 1974: 58)

The text (or message) that is communicated between the addresser and addressee has syntactic and semantic cohesion. It is this cohesion that makes the text (or message) communicable and meaningful (Halliday and Hasan, 1976). The addresser and the addressee, on the other hand, exist externally to the text; they only exist in actual situations. It would be meaningless to talk of the speaker and the addressee in terms of syntactic cohesion. Rather they should be conceived of in terms of (exophoric) reference.

It would be instructive to recall the distinction between reference and substitution. Halliday and Hasan (1976:39) state that "reference is a relation on the semantic level, whereas substitution is a relation on lexico– grammatical level". In other words, "I" refers to "the speaker"

and "you" refers to "the addressee", while 3rd person pronouns basically belong to "substitution", "….. the substitution must be of the same grammatical class as the item for which it is substituted", and they obey the syntactic rule of pronoun shift (Ibid:32).

Since the person who is reporting what someone said is usually different from the person who made the original statement, pronouns in reported speech often change.

Quotation	**Reported Speech**
"*I* am hungry."	George said *he* was hungry.
"Where will *you* be?"	Bill wanted to know where *I* would be.
"Have *you* seen *my* glasses?"	Karen asked me if *I* had seen *her* glasses.

(Moore, 2007:77)

Alexander (1990: 219) states that " Pronouns changes (or not) depend on the view of the reporter" for example:

8 a. " I'll send you a card, Sue" (actual words spoken by Ann)

b. Ann told Sue she'd send her a card. (reported by someone else)

c. Ann said/told me she would send me a card. (reported by Sue)

d. I told Sue that I'd send her a card. (reported by Ann)

Here all these (8b, c, d) are indirect speech forms of the same direct speech form (8a) but in each time the pronouns are changed because the reporter of the speech is different.

3.2 Time Adverbial Shift

Eastwood (2002:357) has mentioned some typical changes from direct to indirect speech. But the changes are not automatic; they depend on the situation.

Direct speech	**Indirect speech**
now	*then/at that time/immediately*
today	*yesterday/that day/on Tuesday*
yesterday	*the day before/the previous day*

etc

tomorrow	*the next day/the following day/on Wednesday*

this week	*last week/ that week*
last year	*the year before/the previous*

year/in1990

next month	*the month after/the following month/in*

August

an hour ago	*an hour before/an hour earlier/at*

two o 'clock

It is well known that time references are changed variously according to the time of the reported utterances (Quirk et al.:1985, Kuno: 1972, Comerie: 1986). A few examples are given to see what kinds of shifts are employed in actual situations:

9. He said to her, "I visited Aunt Jane yesterday."

Suppose that (yesterday) refers to (February 9). Then the following expressions would be possible candidates for the indirect speech version:

a. Time of Utterance (henceforth TOU): February 10

He told her that he had visited Aunt Jane **yesterday**.

b. TOU: February 11

He told her that he had visited Aunt Jane **the day before yesterday**.

    c. TOU: February 16

    He told her that he had visited Aunt Jane **a week before**.

    d. TOU: August 10

He told her that he had visited Aunt Jane the day before/on the

    previous day.

Utterances involving a time adverbial like (next Monday) for example produce a little more subtle indirect speech forms.

Indirect speech forms involving (*now*) are even more complicated.

    11. He said to her, "I'm going to Harvard Square now."

This direct speech form can have the following indirect forms:

    12 a. He told her that he is/was going to Harvard Square *?now/*

*then.

                                (just a minute ago)

b. He told her that he was going to Harvard Square *??now/ *? then*.

                                (at noon today)

c. He told her that he was going to Harvard Square **now/ ?then*.

                                (at noon yesterday)

    d. He told her that he was going to Harvard Square *then*.

                                (after several days)

e. He told her that he was going to Harvard Square *then*.

(after a month)

(Kuno, 1972: 187)

It seems that not in every time the adverb (now) can be converted into (then) in indirect speech, so it is not exactly a syntactic rule. Time adverbial shift is not a matter of syntactic conversion but essentially a matter of (exophoric) reference which requires appropriate modifications of the original time adverbials relative to the time of the utterance.

Here are more examples that show how time adverbial shift is actually employed:

13 a. House Speaker Thomas Foley, Democrat at Washington, denied any

political move. "I am not in the business of trying to use this for any

partisan or electoral purpose." he said. He said he hoped the

investigation would yield at least preliminaries results by *this*

summer, well before Election Day in November.

(*The Boston Globe, February*

15, 1992)

b. Then, at 1 o'clock, Spano learned that Qzawa's physician had

decreed that he should not conduct last night's (= December

10)

performances of Stravinsky's "Apollo" and the Mozart

"Requiem".

(*The Boston Global, December 11,* 1991)

Here at the time that the addresser was writing this article (13b), he knew that Qzawa could not conduct "tonight", but he deliberately changes "tonight" to "last night"; he is employing the prospective of the reader. This kind of time adverbial shift is not uncommon in indirect speech, and it is clear that this shift is not syntactically motivated but pragmatically controlled so that the addressee may grasp the time relations in the reported discourse without any ambiguity.

3.3 Place Adverbial Shift

The process of place adverbial shift is essentially the same with that of time adverbial shift and the only place adverbials that might present difficulties are (here) and (there). If the place of the original and reported utterances are the same, (here) and (there) remain

unchanged, but if they are different, place references are changed accordingly: "here" will be converted to "there" if the place of the original utterance is different from that in the reporting, and the reverse would be the case if the reference is to the place of the reporting utterance (Quirk et al., 1985:1029).

14. a. He said to her, "I'll pick you up **here** in an hour." (*here* is Harvard

      Square)

      b. He told her that he'd picked her up **here** in an hour. (*here*

is the

      place)

15. a. He said to her, "I have to go **there** at once." (*there* is New

York)

      b. He told to her that he had to go **there** at once. (the place

of

      utterance is New York)

16. a. He said to her, "I'd rather stay **here** for a days." (*here* is

Boston)

 b. He told her that he'd rather stay **there** for a few days. (the place of

utterance is Boston)

17. a. He said to her, "I want to study **there** some day." (there is Harvard)

   b. He told her that he wanted to study **here** some day. (the place of

utterance is Harvard)

Deixis involves actual situations which include the relative position of the speaker and the addressee. It seems that only pragmatic correspondence (exophoric reference) exists between the (a) versions and the (b) versions in (14) −(17) (Kuno, 1972: 172).

The following is an example involving *here/now* and *there/then*:

18. I read the account of the murder and later watched Detective Chief

   Inspector Morse make his appeal on television. I wish you to know

   that I almost telephoned there and then; in fact I waited outside a

telephone–box in Southdown road for several minutes that same

evening.   (C. Dexter: *Last Bus to Woodstock*)

3.4

Sequences of Tenses

As mentioned before, pronoun shift involves both syntactic substitution and (exophoric) reference and that time/ place adverbial shift involves only pragmatic correspondence or (exophoric) reference. When the direct speech is transformed into indirect one, there will be a change in the verb forms and this change is called "backshift" and the resulting relationship of verb form in the reporting and reported clauses is known as the sequence of tenses. This point can be clarified as:

Direct Speech   Back shifted in indirect speech

1. present   past

2. past   past or past perfect

3. present perfect/ past perfect   past perfect

19 a. "I am being paid by the hour" he said.

   b. She said she was being paid by the hour.

20 a. "The exhibition finished last week" explained Ann.

   b. Ann explained that the exhibition finished/ had finished the

   preceding week.   (Greenbaum and

Quirk,1990:299)

Sometimes the time−reference of the original utterance is not changed

when it is valid at the time of reporting:

21. Their teacher had told them that the earth moves around the

sun.

22. The waiter told me that lunch is now being served.   (ibid)

23a. *"I am* a citizen, not of Athens, but of the world," said

Socrates.

   b. Socrates said that he *was* a citizen, not of Athens, but of the

   world.

24. a. 'Nothing *can* harm a good man,' said Socrates.

    b. Socrates said that nothing can/could harm a good man.

Since the statement by Socrates in (23a) deals with what is now past,

it has to be reported by application of the backshift rule. The statement

in (24a), on the other hand, is a universal rule which, if it was true for Socrates' lifetime,

should also be true today; the backshift rule is therefore optional (Quirk and et al., 1985:1026–27).

Quirk et al. (1985:1026) say that "the present tense is also used for reports attributed to famous works or authors which have present validity", as in:

25. **The Bible says** there's no end to the writing of books.

26. **Chaucer somewhere writes** that love is blind.

The choice of verb form in the reported clause depends on the time reference

of the verb. The verbs in (23) exemplify the state present, while **was** in (24) refers to a time previous to the time of reporting as well as to the time of the original utterance.

Verbs of cognition may also be used in the reporting clause in the present tense:

27. **I know** they **don't** care.

28. Sylvia **thinks** Paul **went** to Lancaster last night.

There are certain verbs that are used for reporting such as:

(admit, ask, tell, know, agree, announce, argue, believe consider, feel, hear, inquire, insist, point out, read, say, wonder, understand, ……) (Eastwood, 2005:361).

Alexander (1990:217) adds that the reporting verb is used in present in the following cases:

A. when we are passing messages

    29. "What does mother say?"

    30. She says you must come in now.

B. reading aloud or reporting

    31. The instructions say that you connect this plug to the set.

C. reporting what someone often says

    32. She's always telling me how rich she is.

Indirect speech can be used in continuous paragraph of reported language, not in unrelated sentences. To connect the sentences together, certain phrases can be used such as: *she went on to say, he continued, he added that*. The reporting verbs can also be used such as: *he observed, she noted, she remarked* etc. yes/ No answers or

adverbs like well are common in direct speech, but they disappear when we report them (Alexander, 1990:224).

Quirk et al.(1985:1030-31) maintain that "there is no indirect speech construction for the optative subjunctive, but when it is used to express a wish the construction with *may* (with a possible backshift to *might*) is sometimes a near-equivalent":

33 a. 'God *bless* America!' she said.

b. She expressed the wish that God *might bless* America.

There is no backshift for the mandative subjunctive:

34 a. 'We insisted that he leave at once,' she said.

b. She said that they (had) insisted that he leave at once.

The past subjunctive or hypothetical past is back shifted to hypothetical past perfective if there is a change in time reference:

35 a. 'If he *were* here, he would vote for the motion,' she said.

b. She said that if he *had been* there, he would have voted for the

motion.

36 a. 'If she *stayed* another day, he would drive her home,' he said.

b. He told me the following week that if she *had stayed* another day,

he would have driven her home.

Leech and Svartvik(1994: 169) adds that all the tenses in all the kinds of sentences in English will be changed except in the case of imperative in which the original verb of the direct speech will keep its form (i.e. the infinitive form) as in:

37. They recommended us *to stay* at this hotel.

4. The Test

A test has been applied concerning the subject under study in order to measure the students' errors in the area of the direct and indirect speech in all their aspects: shifting of pronouns, time, place and sequence of tenses.

Third year students are the population of the test. They are chosen from the Department of English, College of Human Sciences and Physical Education, University of Garimian. The sample consists of 55 students, 33 females and 22 males. The reason for choosing this sample is that they have been taught the direct and indirect speech. Hayslett (1967:16) states that measures of central tendency refer to a

value which is typical of all the sample scores. A measure of tendency gives the location of the centre of the data.

First of all, the scores must be arranged in the form of frequency distribution. This arrangement is useful because it shows how many times each score occurs and it makes the median easy to find (Heaton, 1975:168). The following table (3.1) shows the frequency of scores as they are arranged in ten-points intervals.

Table (4.1) Frequency Distribution of the Test Scores

Score-groups	Frequency
91-100	2
81-90	1
71-80	1
61-70	7
51-60	9
41-50	8
31-40	19
21-30	8
Total	**55**

The mean is the arithmetical average, i.e, the sum of the separate scores divided by the total number of testees (Ibid.:168−69). The mean of the test is 47.

Table (4.2) Measures of Central Tendency as Applied to the Test Scores

Measures of Central Tendency	The Results
The Mode	44
The Median	52
The Mean	47

Measures of dispersion are used to show the extent to which scores spread out of measures of central tendency, i.e., they find out the degree of variation within scores (Heaton, 1975:170). The measures of dispersion are the range and standard deviation (SD).

The range refers to the distance between the highest and lowest scores. The SD measures the degree to which the group of scores deviates from the mean. It shows how much the scores spread out on each side of the mean (Ibid.).

Table (4.3) The Results of Measures of Dispersion

Measures of Dispersion	The Results
The Range	65
The SD	16.0

After collecting the data, the correlation−coefficient factor was between the two halves of the test. The correlation−coefficient between the single and dual amounted to (0.68). Pearson correlation−coefficient formula was used here. After correcting it against Spearman− Brown Equation, the reliability factor amounted to (0.80) which represents a good− level reliability of the test.

A definite scoring scheme is chosen here in order to achieve objectivity and reliability.

Table (4.4) Distribution of Scores of the Test

No. of Questions	No. of Test Items	Scores	Percentage
1	5	20	20
2	10	30	30
3	10	20	20
4	15	30	30
Total	40	100	100

5. Analysis of the Results

The students' errors are significant because they provide us with evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language (Corder, 1967: 169).

5.1 Students' Performance at the Recognition Level

The first and the fourth questions (see Appendix 1) are designed to measure the students' ability in the recognition level. The percentage of the results of the recognition level is 88%. This percentage indicates that the students can recognize the forms of the direct and indirect speech. The items in these two questions are 15 items: 5 items in the first question and 10 in the third question (as shown in the Appendix 1). The first question consists of indirect speech sentences and the students are asked to recognize them inside the passage.

Table (5.1) Students' Performance on the Recognition Level Concerning the First Question

No. of Items	No. of Correct Responses	%	No. of Incorrect Responses	%	No. of Avoided Responses	%
1.	47	85.5	5	9.0	3	5.5
2.	45	81.8	7	12.7	3	5.5
3.	52	94.5	1	1.8	2	3.6

4.	47	85.5	6	10.9	2	306
5.	52	94.5	3	5.5		
Total	243	88.0	22	8.0	10	4.0

Table (5.2) Students' Performance on the Recognition Level Concerning the Fourth Question

No. of Items	No. of Correct Responses	%	No. of Incorrect Responses	%	No. of Avoided Responses	%
1	39	71.0	14	25.0	2	4.0
2	35	64.0	18	32.0	2	4.0
3	47	85.0	8	15.0		
4	30	55.0	23	41.0	2	4.0
5	38	69	10	18.0	7	13.0
6	25	45.0	28	51.0	2	4.0
7	32	58.0	17	31.0	6	11.0
8	14	25.5	38	69.0	3	5.5
9	21	38.2	30	54.5	4	7.3
10	34	61.8	16	29.1	5	9.1
11	45	82.0	8	14.0	2	4.0
12	27	49.1	22	40.0	6	10.9
13	35	64.0	13	23.0	7	13.0
14	47	85.0	7	13	1	2.0
15	26	47.0	28	51.0	1	2.0

	495	60.0	270	33.0	50	7.0

The fourth question consists of sentences that are also in direct and the students are asked to identify the type of each one of the items whether the sentence is a: statement, question, exclamation, or imperative. From the table, it can be noticed that the students' responses are very good.

5.2 Students' Performance at the Production Level

The second and the third questions are designed to measure the students' ability in the production level. The percentage of the results of the production level is 27%. These results show that the students' recognition ability is better than their production ability.

In these two questions, the researcher has chosen different kinds of sentence asking the students to change the sentences from direct into indirect ones (as in question two) and from indirect into direct ones (as in question three). The sentences include all types of mentioned shifting: pronoun shift, time and place adverbial shits with tenses shifts.

Table (5.3) Students' Performance on the Production Level Concerning the Second Question

No. of Items	No. of Correct Responses	%	No. of Incorrect Responses	%	No. of Avoided Responses	%

1	18	33.0	27	49.0	10	18.0
2	6	11.0	33	60.0	16	29.0
3	6	11.0	37	67.0	12	22.0
4	11	20.0	30	55.0	14	25.0
5	11	20.0	14	25.0	30	55.0
6	12	22.0	11	20	32	58.0
7	12	22.0	10	18.0	33	60.0
8	8	15.0	4	7.0	43	78.0
9	11	20.0	8	15.0	36	65.0
10	9	16.0	10	18.0	36	66.0
Total	104	19.0	274	33.4	262	47.6

Table (5.4) Testees᾽ Performance on the Production Level
Concerning the Third Question

No. of Items	No. of Correct Responses	%	No. of Incorrect Responses	%	No. of Avoided Responses	%
1	14	25.5	22	40.0	19	34.5
2	18	33.0	16	29.0	21	38.0
3	9	16.4	10	18.1	36	65.5
4	17	30.9	9	16.4	29	52.7
5	9	16.4	10	18.1	36	65.5
6	7	13.0	8	14.0	40	73.0

7	11	20.0	9	16.4	35	63.6
8	20	36.4	7	12.7	28	50.9
9	16	29.1	10	18.1	29	52.7
10	8	14.0	19	34.1	28	50.9
Total	129	23.4	120	21.6	301	55.0

6. Students' Performance According to the Test Items

It has been found that the students' productive knowledge of converting the indirect speech into direct and vise versa is very low, while the students' recognition knowledge of defining the indirect speech from a passage and of indicating the kind of the indirect speech whether a statement, a question, an imperative or an exclamation is very good. They face difficulties in the area of pronoun shift, time and place adverbial shifts but regarding the tense shift, the students' answer are overlapping (as shown in the tables of the questions).

7. Conclusions

In the light of the obtained results, it has been concluded the following:

1. the direct and indirect speech represent a problem for the Iraqi college students because from the test results, it has been found that they are not aware of the syntactic changes that occur when the speech is changed from direct into indirect.

2. The most weakness area of the students is in the back–shift of pronouns and adverbs and in some cases when the student has to change the tense from the past into the past perfect.

3. The instructors of the English department are not aware of the importance of the direct and indirect speech so that they do not focus on these two aspects clarifying the importance of these aspects in conversational English as well as in the written form.

4. The students' recognition level is better than their production level and this leads to say that the students' ability to form indirect speech is weak.

8. Recommendations

The researcher recommends that teaching direct and indirect speech is best done by reading and writing dialogue. By first reading dialogue and working through examples, instructors can illustrate the differences between direct and indirect speech. Direct speech occurs when the person speaking is quoted. Indirect speech occurs when another person paraphrases what the speaker said. By speaking and writing dialogue themselves, students reinforce the principles of direct and indirect speech through practical application.

9. Suggestions

A further study can be done to discuss the following points:

1. The students' errors in the area of free indirect speech

2. the correspondence between the direct and indirect speech in English and Kurdish languages shedding light on the effect of the mother tongue on learning new concepts in the foreign language.

Appendix 1

Q1/ Underline the indirect speech in the following paragraph:

Mothers who work often feel that they are not giving their kids enough attention. They feel guilty; they think their kids want to spend more time with them.

According to Helen Galinsky, of the Family and Work Institute, working mothers make assumptions about their children, but no one had ever asked kids what they thought. So Galinsky interviewed over 1,000 kids of working mothers to find out what they wanted. Only 10 percent of the children in her study said that they wanted more time with their mothers. However, the kids interviewed said that they wanted their parents to pay more attention to them. They said that their parents were often rushed. The majority of the kids said that they wanted to feel important and loved.

Q2/ Rewrite the following two narratives and after the second sentence in each case, using indirect speech throughout:

A. Three days later, the monkeys were still infesting my house, practically tearing the place apart. That afternoon, a friend came back from a business trip.

1. "I know the answer," he said.

_____

2. "You need a Pied Piper"

_____

3. "all right. Find me one"

_____

4. "All you have to do is send a boy down to the city to this address"

_____

B. William Plomer disliked telephones. He once told this story.

5. He said "I heard a well-known actor on the radio yesterday"

--

6. He was asked "Suppose you were left on a desert island"

   ----

7. "and you were allowed to take just one luxury with you, what would you choose?"

   ----

8. "I should take a telephone, and I should push the wire into the sand,"

   ----

9. "my greatest pleasure would be to sit and look at it, and to think"

   ----

10.   "It will never ring and I shall never have to answer it"

Q3/ Covert from indirect speech into direct speech:

Last January, I called my landlord and asked him if he could turn up the heat 1. ------------------------. I said to him that it was too cold in my apartment 2. ---------------------------- . He

answered none of the other tenants are complaining about the heat 3. ------------- . He said to me to put on a sweater and stop complaining 4. ---------- . I called him many times after that, but I always got the same answer. I asked several other tenants if they were cold 5. ----------- and all of them said yes 6. ---------------- --. I asked them why they did not complain to the landlord 7. ------- ---------- . They said to me that they had complained many times, but he never did anything to solve this problem 8. ---------------- --- . I told them that we had to do something immediately 9. ------- ---------------. I said to the landlord that if he did not turn up the heat, I'd have to move 10. ----------------- .

Q4/ Indicate by the letters a, b, c, or d the kind of the indirect speech in the following:

a. statement   b. questions

c. exclamation   d. imperative

1. she said she did not like that film.

2. He told me to open the window.

3. Margaret told him what a hero he was.

4. She told the child to keep still.

5. He asked if it was raining.

6. I wondered when the plane would leave.

7. He promised that he'd behave himself.

8. The teacher said we had to wait.

9. The candidate asked us to vote for her.

10. My father said that he did not believe in giving children a lot toys.

11. He wanted to know whether you'd gone to London.

12. He replied how delightful her manners were.

13. She told me she was starting a pop group.

14. She asked if she might go.

15. They told me what a long time it lasted.

References

Alexander, L.G. (1990). *Longman English Grammar Practice: for Intermediate students*. UK: Longman.

Comrie, B.(1986). *"Tense in Indirect Speech"* Folia Linguistica 20.

Corder, S. Pit. (1967). "The Significance of Learners' Errors." IRAL Vol. 5.

No. 4. Reprinted in Robinet, B. and Schachter, J. *(eds) (1983).*

Second Language Learning: Contrastive Analysis, error Analysis

and Related Aspects. Ann Arbor: Michigan University Press, pp.

163–172.

Crystal, David. (2003). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics.* 5th

edition. London: Blackwell Publishing LTD.

Eastwood, John. (2002). *Oxford Guide for English Grammar.* New York: Oxford University Press .

Eastwood, John. (2005). *Oxford Practice Grammar.* New York :Oxford

University Press..

Halliday, M.A.K. and Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English.* Longman.

Hayslett, H.T. (1967). *Statistics Made Simple*. London: Allen and Unwin.

Heaton, J.B. (1975). *Writing English Language Tests*. London.: Longman   Group Ltd.

Kuno, S.(1972). *"Pronominalization, Reflexivization, and Direct Discourse"* Linguistic Inquiry.

Leech, Geoffrey and Svartvik, J.(1994). *A Communicative Grammar of   English*.3rd edition. UK: Longman Group.

Maier, Emar.(2000). *Quotation and Unquotation in Free Indirect Discourse*. Department of Philosophy,University of Groningen.

Partee, B.H.(1973). *"The Syntax and Semantics of Quotation"* in Anderson, S.R. and Kiparsky, P.(eds) A Festschrift for Morris Halle.

Pinker, Steven. (2007). *The evolutionary social psychology of off–record indirect speech acts*. Brno Studies in English.

Quirk, Randolph; Greenbaum, Sidney; Leech, Geoffrey and Svartvik, Jan.

(1985). *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language.*

London: Longman Group Limited.

Uchida, Seiji. (1997). *Immediate Context and Reported Speech*.
UCL

working paper in Linguistics 9.

Wierzbicka, A.. (1974). *"The Semantics of Direct and Indirect Discourse"*.

Paper in Linguistics 7.

تقصي أخطاء طلبة الكلية في الكلام المباشر وغير المباشر

م.م تابان محمد فوزي حسين

ماجستير آداب في اللغة الإنكليزية وعلوم اللغة

جامعة كرميان

كلية العلوم الإنسانية والرياضة

قسم اللغة الإنكليزية

*البريد الالكتروني*tabanfeb@yahoo.com

المستخلص

تهدف هذه الدراسة لتوضيح الكلام المباشر وغير المباشر ودورهما في اللغة الانكليزية حيث من الممكن استخدامهما في الكلام اليومي وفي الأسلوب القصصي.توضح هذه الدراسة أين وكيف يتم استخدام هذين المصطلحين؟ وماهية التغييرات النحوية الواجب إتباعها في حالة تغيير

الكلام من المباشر إلى غير المباشر وبالعكس ودور سياق الكلام بالتحكم في التغيرات التي تطرأ عند تحويل الكلام من المباشر الى غير المباشر. وسيتم أيضا تسليط الضوء على بعض العلاقة بين الكلام المباشر والكلام غير المباشر.

النقاط التي سوف يتم طرحها هي كالتالي:

١. العلاقة بين الكلام المباشر والكلام غير المباشر

٢. التغيرات التي تطرأ عند تغير الكلام من المباشر لغير المباشر مثل تغير الظروف وزمن الأفعال.

٤. سيتم تطبيق اختبار على عدد من الطلبة الجامعيين لتحديد قدرتهم في استيعاب واستخدام هذين المصطلحين مع إعطاء بعض المقترحات لحل المشكلات التي يواجهونها في استخدام هذين المصطلحين النحويين.

بعد تطبيق الاختبار تم تحديد نقاط ضعف الطلبة حيث إنهم مازالوا غير ملمّين بالتغيرات النحوية التي يجب القيام بها عند تحويل الكلام من المباشر إلى غير المباشر وخاصة تغير أزمنة الأفعال والظروف.