

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Language is viewed as a unique asset and a very complex social phenomenon. It is an organized noise used in actual social situation that is why it is also known as contextualized systematic sound. In this context, Richards et al., (1985:31) says, “Language is the system of human communication by means of a structured arrangement of sound to form larger units e.g. morpheme, words, sentences”. Similarly, Wardhaugh (1977:3) defines, language as “a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication”. So, language is only human possession which is most widely used means of communication among people. Language is the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral-auditory arbitrary symbols. In the process of communication, one perceives the clear picture of the whole world through the language. It is a means, which helps us to think, interpret, perceive and express about the real world. Most of the activities of the world are carried through the language, e.g. transmission of human civilization, thoughts, literature, political or diplomatic activities, human achievements etc.

In this respect Sapir(1978:8) argues, “Language is primarily human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas emotions and desires by means of system of voluntarily produced symbols”. So language is the most frequently used and most highly developed form

of human communication we possess. That is why it will not be wrong to claim that language has made people different from other living beings.

Language is the body of words and method of combining words used and understood by a considerable community, especially when fixed and elaborated by long usage. In the usual sense, language means a system of conventionalized signs, especially, words or gestures having fixed meanings. But not all intelligible expressions are fixed, nor are all used exclusively for communication, language plays a large role in our thinking processes and that partially comes into communication. Bodily expression, whether gesture or articulation, and inscription, as printing, writing etc. are its chief forms, but any systematic symbolism in a more or less transferred sense is, called language, as the language of art.

1.2 Linguistics

The discipline that studies language is called linguistics which is defined as the scientific study of language or linguistic science. It is scientific in the sense that it has its own spirit, principles and methods to study about language. It studies language explicitly, systematically and objectively. Thus, linguistics is the science which studies the origin, organization, nature and development of language descriptively, historically, comparatively and formulates the general rules related to language. It attempts to establish general principles for the study of all languages and to determine the characteristics of human language as a phenomenon, it may be called general or theoretical linguistics.

Linguistics has made great contribution to the study of several other fields in many ways. The contribution of linguistics to language teaching is one of them. Linguistics has its other branches like clinical linguistics, educational linguistics, psycholinguistics and so forth. When the subjects' findings, methods or theoretical principles are applied to the study of problems from other areas of experience such occur under applied linguistics. So linguistics is concerned with the study of a particular language as ends in themselves in order to be able to produce complete and accurate description of them; and it also studies language as a means to a further end, in order to be able to obtain information about the nature of language in general.

1.3 Varieties of Linguistic Codes

Code, in its general sense, refers to a set of conventions for converting one signaling system into another in communication rather than linguistics. In linguistics, code is a human language which manifests the forms or the sum total of its varieties. 'Variety' refers to any system of linguistic expression where the use is governed by situational variables. It is usually identifiable at all levels of grammar, from sounds to words, sentence structures and even acts. Varieties of language include dialect, idiolect and register.

1.3.1 Dialect

Dialect, a variety of language, is spoken in a certain region showing differences from standard language. A dialect differs from language in terms of its pronunciation, grammatical construction and idiomatic use of words. It is a form of speech actually in natural use in any community as a mode of communication, varying somewhat in

the mouths of individuals, but only within comparatively narrow limits at any one time. Dialects are the varieties of language that initially and basically show divergent geographical origins of the speaker. It also reflects the personality of the speaker i.e. who the speaker is and which geographical area she/he belongs to. The variety of a language spoken in a particular area (regional dialect) or by a particular social group (social dialect) comes under it. The Nepali language spoken in western Nepal for instance, is a regional dialect of the Nepali language and the Nepali spoken by the Shah and Rana families is a socialect of it. Standard language is also a variety of the same language which is the language of official use, medium of broadcasting, language of law and justice, language of literature, etc. Thus, 'Dialect' is a variety of language which is based on its users.

1.3.2 Idiolect

Idiolect refers to the linguistic system of an individual speaker, i.e. one's personal dialect. So dialect is a sum total of a large number of idiolects. Hockett (1967:322) defines, idiolect as "the totality of speech habits of a single person at a given time constitutes an idiolect". It is unique to an individual and a variety of language used by one individual speaker includes peculiarities of pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, etc. So the idiolect is the individual's personal variety of community language system. A person's idiolect can be noticed in his/her literary writing, speech which distinguishes one individual from others in voice quality, pitch etc. as well.

1.3.3 Register

Register is a kind of language used in a particular set of circumstances or context. Registers are the varieties of a language according to use. It is used by a particular group of people, usually showing the same occupation or the same interest. In this context, Hudson (1980:45) says, “The varieties of language according to the user” is register. A particular register is disguised itself from others in terms of distinctive words, phrases, special grammatical constructions and so on. Register is a set of features of speech or writing characteristics of a particular type of linguistic activity or a particular group when engaged in it, for example journalist, doctors, airline pilots, economists, surgeons etc. So a register is a variety of language decided according to the use.

The term register is widely used in sociolinguistics to refer to varieties according to use in contrast with dialect defined as varieties according to the user. The same person may use very different linguistic items to express more or less the same meaning on different occasions and the concept of dialect cannot reasonably be extended to include such variations. Each time we speak or write, we not only locate ourselves in relation to the rest of the society but we also relate our act of communication itself to a complex classificatory scheme of communication behavior.

Halliday (1978:33) distinguishes (in Hudson’s 1980:46) three types of registers: field based, mode based and tenor based. Field is concerned with the purpose and subject-matter of the communication. Field also refers to ‘why’ and ‘about what’ a communication takes place notably, by speech or writing. So mode is about ‘how’. Tenor

depends on the relations between participants. So it is based on ‘to whom’, i.e. how the speaker views the person addressed. In field based, the variety of language changes according to the subject matter of field about which one is talking, for example scientific English, economic English and so on. In mode based, the language used by the same person differs according to the channel he is using, for example spoken and written. In ‘tenor based’, the same speaker uses different varieties of a linguistic code according to where, when and to whom he is speaking, for example formal and informal variety.

Any or all the elements of language may vary in different registers like vocabulary, syntax, phonology, morphology, pragmatic rules and different paralinguistic features such as pitch, volume and information in spoken English, or size and speed of sign production in a sign language. Registers also have non-linguistic prescriptions such as appropriate dress, codes, body language and proximity of speaker to one another.

1.4 ESP: A Brief Synopsis

At first, ‘language for special purposes’ (i.e. LSP) has begun to appear more and more frequently in language teaching literature. Now, many scholars and its followers use the term ‘English for specific purposes’(i.e. ESP). It is thought that the former (i.e. LSP) is restricted language which, for many people, is only a small part of ESP. the later one (i.e. ESP) focuses attention on the purpose of the learner and refers to the whole range of language resources. Mackay argues (in Robinson’s ESP, 1980:6) as “ESP is generally used to refer to the teaching/learning of a foreign language for a clearly utilitarian

purpose of which there is no doubt”. Thus, by ESP is meant the teaching of English, not as an end in itself but as an essential means to a clearly identifiable goal. Holden (1977:11) collects different articles in the book ‘English for specific purposes’ where Kerr clarifies where ESP seeks to do and the areas with which it is concerned. The crucial word is ‘purpose’ for there is always a purpose behind language teaching. If we are to teach English for a special purpose, we have to consider the ways in which we hope to achieve the end. So, we have to design a syllabus that will meet the needs of the students and adopt our methodology in order to teach the necessary skills. Mackay and Mountford suggest (in Robinson’s ESP, 1980:6) three kinds of purposes:

- Occupational requirements, e.g. civil airline pilots and so on.
- Vocational training programmes, e.g. for hotel and catering staff, technical trader etc.
- Academic or professional study, e.g. engineering, medicine, law etc.

The first thing in ESP is time factor where the students will normally have a pressure to achieve the required level of linguistic competence in the minimum (given) time. The students and teacher should be constantly aware of the purpose and they introduce relevant material into the course that is learner-centered. Attention to the needs of the learner is constantly a key element in any ESP course. The student of ESP is usually studying in order to ‘perform a role’. The attention of student should be in successful performance in English rather than knowledge of the rules of general English. Each individual

student has different needs and purposes, which an ESP course should aim to satisfy. But a general English course tries to accomplish to perform their role in general regardless of their specific purposes. The age of the ESP learners is another element which more people are agreed. For most of the people's concept the learner is an adult or near adult. Considering such facts the ESP course is designed for a reasonable number of students with identical or nearly identical needs and those needs should be satisfied and the course is limited or more specific according to their needs. The course can be determined as in following ways:

- Restriction: only basic skills are included which are required by the learner's purposes.
- Selection: required vocabulary, grammar, language function are included.
- Themes and topics: only required themes topics, situations, etc. are included.
- Communicative needs: only those communicative needs are included which are required by the learner's purposes.

In conclusion, an ESP course is purposeful and is aimed at the successful performance of occupational or educational roles. Any ESP course may differ from another in its selection of skills, topics, situations and functions and also language. It is likely to be of limited duration. Students are more often adults but not necessarily so, and may take part in their ESP course before embarking on their occupational or educational role. It is based on a regional analysis of students needs and should be 'tailor-made' (perfectly suited). They

may be at any level of competence in the language: beginner, post-beginner, intermediate etc. They may already be competent in their occupation or discipline but may desire to perform their role in English as well as in their language.

Generally, ESP can be analyzed in the following headings in brief, as follows:

1.4.1 Register Analysis

Most of the linguists and practitioners agreed that ESP materials are based on register analysis. Register is used to refer to vocabulary, collection, lists of lexical items, structural items, choice of lexical verb, verb-phrase, noun-phrase etc. ESP courses should be designed locally for specific target students with any register confining the particular set of textbooks for their special subject that a particular class employs.

1.4.2 Discourse Analysis and the Communicative Approach

Discourse (text) refers to a stretch of language, either spoken or written, analysis of which will consider aspects of sentence connection, or cohesion. A stretch of language is a unique piece of communication and the use of connectives in discourse is one of the features to differentiate texts one from another. So discourse markers and connectives have developed alongside ESP. ESP necessarily entails a concern with communicative competence where students feel that they are involved in a communicative activity and not just learning usage. It is found that the majority ESP students are probably pre-experience or in-service or post-experience students with very

limited or at least inadequate knowledge of English. For that the ESP course should focus on their interest, aim, communicative competence and motivation.

1.4.3 Student Motivation and the Analysis of Needs

ESP has developed alongside a new concern for the needs and feelings of the learner rather than the requirements of an externally imposed syllabus. The learner is encouraged to find out as much as possible about available language courses and to see how these match up against his resources, experience, objective etc. There are two parameters to achieve student needs, firstly - the physical and psychological setting in which the language will be used; the social relationship in which the participants will be involved; and the medium, mode and channel of communication required. These are the non-linguistic constraints on the language user. Secondly-the linguistic data relating to dialect; target level required; the communicative events, i.e. what the participant has to do, either productively or receptively. Sculthorpe says (in Robinson's ESP, 1980:26) that the learner on an intensive language course is highly conscious of himself and his purpose. The teaching programme is, thus, learner-oriented, and one must use economically what the adult learner brings to the class. The students' sociological needs, or psychological needs or physiological needs, or practical or theoretical needs etc. should be accomplished according their wants and desires.

1.4.4 Syllabus Design

Munby argues (in Robinson's ESP, 1980:30) communicative syllabus design has been considered so far as a contribution to the study of needs analysis. According to him, need analysis is the preliminary to the specification or design of a syllabus. Students' needs must be actualized in actual language forms, by means of the specification of language skills needed and the language functions. From such language forms and functions together give syllabus context. One essential feature of an ESP course is selection of materials. In ESP syllabus, the absence of certain items found in a general course but the presence of such items in ESP syllabus is compulsory. Different linguist refer different syllabus according to student's immediate needs and the activities to do and then select appropriate linguistic data. The focus may be determined by skill, by function, by topic, by situation etc. for implementation of a syllabus, the factors such as supply of teachers and funds, by local pattern of culture, even by political factors are considered more importantly.

1.4.5 Materials Production

The obvious differences between ESP and general ELT is that the ESP teacher will not expect to use a general course book organized around general human interest topics, situations, functions etc but will expect at least that the topics and situations that the language is linked to relate to the students subject specialism. ESP requires authentic texts, in this context Morrow in his article 'Authentic texts and ESP' argues [in Holden's 1977:13] "An authentic text is a stretch of real language, produced by a real speaker or writer

for a real audience and designed to convey a real message of some sort, which is not a made up text produced by an imaginary audience and designed to practice specific language points rather than to convey real information”. So, the ESP learner should have a very clear idea of why they are learning the language.

The produced materials should be authentic and relevance. If they are not related to the course of a particular group, they would not be able to meet their objectives and needs. Similarly, if the communication fails then the language (material) is not authentic at all. So the material should be written or developed within the competence of the students concerned. It is the fact that an ESP course may not fit in all the contexts where the level of the student might be same. In this respect, the ESP teacher/course director should be materials writers as well. So it is considered as a fundamental problem in ESP. Considering the needs of students, an authentic text is more generally applicable material to be used.

1.4.6 Methodology

The familiar equipment or methods might be thought inappropriate for ESP. Methodology of ESP instruction, both in the classroom and in the textbook, should be somewhat different from what has gone before. It emphasizes the flexibility in its course, especially regarding books and materials. Communicative and functional approach to language teaching are emphasized. Robinson (1980:39) writes about the second conference on ESP held in Isfahan that suggests as “Methodology ... must at some stage involve simulation, role, rehearsal, approximation of real-life language usage

and a concern with authentic information”. If the goal of an ESP course is for students to be able to perform certain real life operations then it can be argued that students should perform some or part of these operations while on the language course.

1.4.7 Generalizability of Materials

Each ESP course must be different, each uniquely geared to the purposes, interests etc. of the students taking part in it. Allwright and Allwright argue (1980:41) “ESP teachers, in particular, should be conscious of the dangers of generalizing from one learning/teaching situation to another”. There is not any cover technique in the application of ESP courses because there is an inherent disadvantage that of any course of ESP is too narrowly constructed on its functional criteria that cannot be readily applicable to other situations where it differs significantly in functional areas. So an ESP course may prevent the re-use of any of the material, textbooks to other courses. Such materials are only prepared for one or group of the students or for a particular context.

1.5 Language of Economics

Economic language is a register which is different from other fields. Economics as a discipline in the social sciences is well defined as a science or principles of the production, distribution and consumption of goods especially with reference to cost. Economy originally meant, in Greek, the management of the affairs of a household, especially the provision and administration of its income. Economics in modern language has come to denote generally the principle of seeking to attain or the method of attaining, a desired end

with the least possible expenditure of means; and the words ‘economic’ or ‘economical’ are often used in this sense, even without any direct relation to the production, distribution, or consumption of wealth.

Language is a means through which we express our emotions, desires, thoughts and any new findings of any area. The language of economics generally differs from the normal language as the language of economics goes via unique path of expression. Generally, the specific terminologies (some terminologies are in appendix – I), illustrations, unique way of presentation and abbreviations (some examples of abbreviations are in appendix – II), make economic language different from the language used in other fields.

Economics is the study of how scarce resources are allocated among alternative competing uses to satisfy unlimited individual and social wants. It is also a study in social co-operation through markets or by central planning. The scarcity of a nation’s resources, its people (human capital including knowledge and skills), its natural endowments (land, water, minerals) and its stock of produced good (physical, capital) and the levels of utilized technology-all sets limit on total output. And economists generally regard all economic choices as the result of explicit comparison of costs and benefits.

The above mentioned study areas and other areas of study like national income, consumption and investment, taxation, money supply process, its different theories and principles, typical vocabularies, typical abbreviations etc make it a separate register than other fields. Each academic subject area (e.g. economics) has its own

language register i.e. particular lexis and syntax that are features of that subject and to some extent distinguish it from other subjects from the point of views of language. In economics, fairly common language functions are description, definition, exemplification, classification, assumptions, fairly common language forms are present and future, simple active verb tenses, present and past simple, passive verb tenses, conditional, and comparative. All the mentioned and others make it as a fully-fledged and well established discipline among other disciplines.

1.6 Review of Related Literature

In this wide area of ‘language’ a very few research studies have been carried out, some of them are as follows:

Bhandari (1999) has carried out a research on ‘The Use of Tense and Aspects in Nepali English Newspaper’. They study shows that generally the non-past tense has been used more frequently than the past; the weeklies have used non-past tense more frequently than the dailies. Regarding the aspect, perfective aspect is used in both dailies and weeklies.

Shrestha (2000) has carried out the research entitled ‘An Analysis of Newspaper Headlines: A Descriptive Study’. His study attempts to analyze newspaper headlines from the angle of their structure, tense and aspect. It concluded that the language of newspaper headlines differs considerably from general pattern of writing and has its own linguistic principle guiding it, while writing.

Pokharel (2003) has, in his M.Ed. thesis, written about ‘The Use of English in Broadcast and Print Media: A comparative Study’ tries to compare the similarities and differences between the language used in them only in terms of news. He has found some significant differences in terms of sentence types, narration, tense and aspect.

Adhikari (2005) has conducted a research on “Language Used in Newspaper Photo Caption: A Descriptive Study”. In his study he attempts to analyze the language of captions in terms of various grammatical categories and structures. He derives the conclusion that the use of simple sentence, non-past tense and deletion of ‘be’ verb in progressive aspect are common features of caption writing.

Sharma (2007) has made an attempt to find out the “Language Used in Newspaper Editorials” in terms of sentence type, sentence length, tense, aspect and voice. He concludes that complex sentences having heavy information, non-past tense is used more frequently than past, perfective aspect has been used for more often than progressive aspect, active voice is highly used rather than passive.

Although the above mentioned research works are related to language of mass media, no researches has been carried out on the language of economic journals which is very important to update our knowledge.

1.7 Objectives of the Study

This study had the following objectives:

- a. To describe the language used in economic journals in terms of voice, tense, sentence types (simple, compound and complex), aspect (Perfective and Progressive) and sentence length.
- b. To compare both the native and non-native language used in economic journals in terms of the above mentioned categories.
- c. To suggest some pedagogical implications.

1.8 Significance of the Study

Even though it is a small work, it mainly aims to give a general picture of the English language used in Economic Journals. Economics is an established discipline so the language teachers and students should be aware of the language of economics. This study will be very interesting for all who are involved in English language teaching/learning processes but particularly for the designers of ESP courses. Similarly, it will be useful as a reference material for the people who are involved in print media. This research is hoped to be much fruitful for those scholars who want to do their research in the language of economics in the future. Not only that it will be of a great asset for the development of English education for the research works and it will distinctly reflect how the English used in economics differs from that of other fields. Last but not the least, this study will be praiseworthy to the persons, who are, directly and indirectly, involved

in teaching and learning processes in terms of language used in economics.

1.9 Definition of the Terms

- ❖ **Sentence Type:** Sentence type refers to the types of the sentences according to its structural point of view. From this view sentences are of three types: simple, compound and complex sentence.
- ❖ **Simple Sentence:** A simple sentence which contains at least one subject and one verb and can stand alone as an independent clause.
- ❖ **Compound Sentence:** A compound sentence consists of two or more clauses of equal grammatical importance and a coordinating conjunction connects the two clauses into one sentence.
- ❖ **Complex Sentence:** It refers to a sentence having at least one independent clause and one or more dependent clause linked by some subordinators.
- ❖ **Tense:** Tense denotes to the time markers in the form of the verb and by the use of adverbs. English has two tense systems viz. past and non-past.
- ❖ **Aspect:** It signifies to the manner in which the verbal action is experienced or regarded, for example as completed or in progress. It deals with the states of affairs whether in simple, progressive, perfective or perfect progressive state.
- ❖ **Voice:** Voice refers to the ways in which a language expresses the relationship between verb and noun phrases,

which are associated with it. Two types of voice are found in English: active voice in which the subject of a clause is most often the agent, or doer, of some action and passive voice in which the subject is affected by the action of the verb.

- ❖ **Sentence Length:** It refers to the total number of words used in a sentence. Here, it is concerned with the number of words used in a sentence that are used in the texts of economic journals.
- ❖ **Native :** It refers to the connection with the place where writers/speakers were born and lived for the first years of their life. So, they write/speak the texts natively. They acquire their native language naturally during childhood having the most reliable intuition, and whose judgment about the language is used can therefore be trusted.
- ❖ **Non-Native :** It refers to the speakers/writers who do not have the language as a mother tongue. So, they write/speak the texts non-natively. They do not acquire the language naturally or intuitively. So, the non-native writers/speakers about the structure of the language is on the basis of learning rather than acquiring.

CHAPTER TWO METHODOLOGY

The proposed study followed the following methodology procedures to find out reliable and effective conclusion.

2.1 Source of Data

Secondary Sources of Data

To accomplish the intended goals, the researcher used and consulted only the secondary sources to collect the data. These sources are as follows:

- a. 'Journal of Economic Perspective' quarterly published by Banta Company, Menasha, Wisconsin, USA.
- b. 'The Economic Journal of Nepal' quarterly published by CEDECON from Nepal.
- c. 'Country Economic Review' quarterly published by ADB from Manila, Philippines.

Similarly, the researcher consulted the materials found in the library like books, theses, journals, dictionaries, websites and the other materials which are directly and indirectly related to the proposed study.

2.2 Sampling Procedure

The researcher has applied judgmental sampling which is one of the most useful non-probability sampling designs especially when the researcher attempts to study about language used in magazines,

journals and newspapers. For the present research, the researcher collected forty-five (45) economic texts taking three texts from each publication (i.e. Fifteen from each journal) mentioned in 2.1.

2.3 Tools for Data Collection

For this research, observation was the main tool for data collection. The researcher took five series of each publication of economic journal published in different times (mentioned in appendix-III). He selected forty-five texts taking three texts from each publication of the mentioned journals. The researcher read and re-read them and observed the language in terms of categories [mentioned in 1.7 (a)] to get the required information for the study. The data of each publication of the collected journals are given in appendix III.

2.4 Process of Data Collection

The following steps were followed for data collection:

- ❖ The researcher collected the journals published from different places (as mentioned in 2:1).
- ❖ The researcher selected the texts purposively related to his study.
- ❖ The researcher read and re-read the texts of these journals to find out the required information.
- ❖ The related texts were collected to analyze the language used in the journals.
- ❖ The researcher wrote down necessary things in his note book.
- ❖ The researcher interpreted and compared the data, and finally presented the findings and recommendations.

2.5 Limitations of the Study

- a. The area of the study as indicated by the title was limited to only the language of economic journals.
- b. The study was based on the three economic journals mentioned below:

S.N.	Journals	Place	Remarks
1	Journal of Economic Perspective (JEP)	USA	Quarterly
2	The Economic Journal of Nepal (TEJN)	Nepal	Quarterly
3	Country Economic Review (CER)	Philippines (ADB)	Quarterly

- c. The study was limited to only 45 texts taken 15 from each journal.
- d. The study of statistical language was excluded.
- e. The study was limited to the analysis of the following categories: voice, tense, sentence types (simple, compound and complex) aspect (perfective and progressive) and sentence length.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter provides the analysis and interpretation of the language used in the texts of economic journals in terms of the previously mentioned aspects viz. sentence types, tense, aspect, voice and sentence length. In this process, firstly, the analysis and comparison of the texts of economic journals published by non-native publications is done and then the comparison of journals published by non-native publications and native publication is done. Different tables and figures are given to make the analysis clear, as a result, the analysis and interpretation is very comprehensive.

3.1 Sentence Types in Economic Journals

Regarding sentence structures, there are found three types of sentences viz. simple, compound and complex sentences. In the use of sentence structure, it has been found that there is slightly difference between the native and non-native economic journals.

3.1.1 Analysis of Sentence Types Used in CER

Here, the language used in CER has been analyzed to find out the use of sentence types in the texts of CER. The study, after the careful observation, has found the following frequency of occurrences of sentence types from the 15 selected texts of CER.

Table No.1

Sentence Type	Freq.	Per.
SS	51	16.19
CS	57	18.09
CXS	207	65.72
Total	315	100

The table above shows that the percentage of the CXS is the highest (i.e. 65.72%) of all in the texts of CER. CXS occupies more than three-fifth of the total sentences (i.e. 207 out of 315) drawn for analysis. CS has the second position (i.e. 18.09%) whereas SS has the least used structure (i.e. 16.19%). CSs have used nearly in the same percentage of SS where there is no significant great difference in both structures.

The following are some examples of SS (1-2), CS (3-4) and CXS (5-6) used in CER:

1. Fiscal performance improved significantly in 1999. (CER, Feb. 2001, Sri-Lanka)
2. Rapid growth in food grain production has been a remarkable feature of the country's economic performance in recent years. (CER, Dec – 2000, Bangladesh)
3. The government has taken several to reduce tax-induced and made tax laws for others. (CER, Dec-2000, Cambodia)
4. Saving rose over the last six years but in FY 2000 went down to 16.6%. (CER, Feb – 2001, Sri Lanka)

5. However, domestic revenue of NRs 48 billion was still lower than the budgeted NRs 60 billion. (CER, November – 2000, Nepal)
6. Nevertheless, the overall share of the labor force employed in agriculture fell from about 79.0% in 1997 to 76.5% in 1999. (CER, Dec – 2000, Cambodia)

3.1.2 Analysis of Sentence Types Used in TEJN

The language used in TEJN has been analyzed to find out the use of sentence types. The study has found the following frequency of occurrences of sentence types from the 15 judgmentally selected texts of TEJN.

Table No.2

Sentence Types	Freq.	Per.
SS	120	27.03
CS	96	21.62
CXS	228	51.35
Total	444	100

In this journal, CXS has been used most frequently (more than half) covering 51.35 percent (i.e. 228 out of 444). SS and CS have been found with 27.03 percent and 21.32 percent (i.e. 120 and 96 out of 444) respectively and they occupy the second and the third positions orderly.

The following are some examples of SS (1-2), CS (3-4) and CSX (5-6) used in the texts of TEJN.

1. A service is differentiated from a good. (TEJN, Jan-March, 2005)
2. Wage determination has assumed several forms during Rana regime (TEJN, Jan-March, 2004)
3. Both the government and employers compelled to recognize the importance of labor in the economic reconstruction since the first labor movement 1947. (TEJN, Jan-March, 2004)
4. Cottage industries do not only require any special location factors but also availability of the raw materials in the particular areas. (TEJN, Oct-DEC, 2005)
5. If the purchasing power of people increases, it will enhance to the extension of market areas. (TEJN, Oct-Dec, 2005)
6. If we want to measure it as the phase of production we have to find out the sum of net value added by all the producing enterprises.

3.1.3 Analysis of Sentence Types Used in JEP

Here, the language used in JEP of 15 purposively selected texts taking five from each publication has been taken for analysis. The study has found the following frequency of occurrences of sentence types in JEP.

Table No.3

Sentence Type	Freq.	Per.
SS	40	9.80
CS	68	16.53
CXS	300	73.67
Total	408	100

The above table clearly suggests that the percentage of CXS has been found the highest of all, it is nearly the third quarter (i.e. 73.67%) of the total sentences (i.e. 300 out of 408) drawn for analysis is covered by CXS. CS is in the second position on the frequency of occurrences (i.e. 16.53%) and the least frequency of occurrences (i.e. 9.80%) of SS in JEP.

The following are some examples of SS (1), CS (2-3), and CXS (4-5) from the texts of JEP are given below:

1. House price watching has become a national pastime. (JEP, Fall 2005)
2. Africa's economic progress was low in 1980, but in 1990 political reform helped to generate economic progress. (JEP – Summer, 1999)
3. Most of the children neither get paid labor nor go their schools in remote places of the underdeveloped countries. (JEP, Winter 2005)
4. Although we do not explore a wider reform of the disability program, we are concerned about the elevated rates of poverty among disabled workers. (JEP, Spring, 2005)
5. This process is driven by reforms in financial and product markets which in turn are creating pressure for reform in the labor market. (JEP, Fall 2004)

3.1.4 Comparison of Sentence Types in CER and TEJN

Table No.4

Sentence Type	CER		TEJN		Total	
	Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.
SS	51	16.19	120	27.03	171	22.52
CS	57	18.09	96	21.62	153	20.16
CXS	207	65.72	228	51.35	435	57.32
Total	315	100	444	100	759	100

The table shows that of CXS is the highest of all in both CER and TEJN but there is found a difference in the use of CXS. 65.72% is in CER and 51.35% is in TEJN. CS occupies the second the position in CER (i.e. 18.09%) but SS occupies the second position in TEJN (i.e. 27.03%). SS is the least used structure in CER (i.e. 16.19%) where as CS is the least used structure in TEJN (i.e. 21.62%).

3.1.5 Comparison of Sentence Types in the Texts of Native and Non-native Economic Journals

Table No.5

Sentence Type	Non-native		Native	
	Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.
SS	171	22.52	40	9.80
CS	153	20.16	68	16.53
CXS	435	57.32	300	73.67
Total	759	100	408	100

The table depicts that CXS is highly used in both native and non-native texts where CXS is used in the first position covering more than half (i.e. 57.32%) of the sentence types used in the non-native (CER + TEJN) texts and covering nearly four-fifth (i.e. 73.67%) of the sentence types used in native (JEP) texts. SS occupies the second position in non-native texts covering 22.52%. CS occupies the least position in non-native texts covering 20.16%. But there is a reverse order in native texts in comparison with non-native ones in the case of SS and CS structure. In native texts, CS and SS occupy the second and the third positions covering 16.53% and 9.8% orderly.

3.2 Tense in Economic Journals

English has two tense systems past and non-past. It has been found that both past and non-past tenses are used in the texts of economic journals. The study has found that non-past tense is maximally used than that of past.

3.2.1 Analysis of Tense Used in CER

The study has found the following frequency of tense being used in the texts of CER.

Table No.6

Tense	Freq.	Per.
Past	151	47.93
Non-past	164	51.07
Total	315	100

According to the table above, it has been clear that non-past tense was used more than half (i.e. 51.07%) in all sentences of CER.

164 sentences are found in non-past out of 315. Past tense was found only in 151 sentences out of 315 and this number deserved 47.93% in the total.

Some examples of the use of tenses, non-past (1-2) and past (3-4) in the texts of CER are as follows:

1. Nevertheless, wage employment is slowly becoming more important both as a source of employment and income. (CER, Dec – 2000, Cambodia)
2. Indirect taxes make up about 75 percent of tax revenues, mainly from customs duties and the value-added tax. (CER, Nov – 2000, Nepal)
3. The Sri Lanka economy fluctuated with the external environment in the wake of the Asian financial crisis. (CER, Feb – 2001, Sri Lanka)
4. Tax collection in FY 2002 was 9.6% of GDP, no improvement from the previous year. (CER, Nov – 2000, Nepal)

3.2.2 Analysis of Tense Used in TEJN

The study has found the following frequency of tenses being used in the texts of TEJN.

Table No.7

Tense	Freq.	Per.
Past	62	13.96
Non-past	382	86.04
Total	444	100

The table clearly presents that non-past tense has been used with greatest frequency covering more than four-fifth (i.e. 86.04%) of the total sentences used in the texts. The past tense has been used in the least frequency (i.e. 13.96%) of the total sentences analyzed in it.

Some examples of the use of tense, non-past (1-2) and past (3.4) in the texts of TEJN, are given below:

1. The range of corruption has spread to all the sectors. (TEJN, Oct – Dec, 2005)
2. The appropriate rate of exchange for a particular currency can be calculated by using a trade weight exchange rate. (TEJN, Jan – March, 2004)
3. The first annual budget of Nepal was prepared in 1951 with a deficit of Rs. 22 Million. (TEJN, Jan – Mar, 2005)
4. Nepalese macroeconomic development was started only after the dawn of the democracy. (TEJN, July – Sept. 2005)

3.2.3 Analysis of Tenses Used in JEP

Here, the language used in JEP has been studied simply to find out the use of tenses in the texts of JEP. The researcher, after the careful study and observation, has found the following frequency of occurrences of tenses.

Table No.8

Tense	Freq.	Per.
Past	48	11.76
Non-past	360	88.24
Total	408	100

The table above makes it clear that non-past tense has been used with overwhelming frequency occurring 88.24% (i.e. 360 out of 408) of the total sentences used. The past tense occurs only 11.76% (i.e. 48 out of 408) of the total sentences used.

Some examples of non-past (1-2) and past (3-4) found to be used in the texts of JEP are given below:

1. Workers with low lifetime earnings often live in poverty during retirement despite social security's progressive benefit formula. (JEP, Spring – 2005)
2. Some researchers suggest that edge cities typically represent relatively low-density employment areas that accompany low-density suburbanization. (JEP, Fall – 2004)
3. The diversity was important because price of different commodities did not move in parallel. (JEP, Summer – 1999)
4. Who were marginal buyers and marginal sellers determined the equilibrium in a market with many agent. (JEP, Fall – 2005)

3.2.4 Comparison of Tenses Used in CER and TEJN

Table No.9

Tense	CER		TEJN		Total	
	Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.
Past	151	47.9	62	13.96	213	28.07
Non-past	164	51.07	382	86.04	546	71.93
Total	315	100	444	100	759	100

The above table depicts that non-past tense is most frequently used in both CER and TEJN, but there is found difference in the use of non-past. In CER, 51.07% is used and 86.04% is used in TEJN. The past tense is used in a low frequency in both CER and TEJN (i.e. 47.93% and 28.07%) respectively. There is found a high difference in the use of both tenses according to the context of the text used in such journals.

3.2.5 Comparison of Tenses in the Texts of Native and Non-native Journals

Table No.10

Tense	Native		Non-native	
	Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.
Past	213	28.07	48	11.76
Non-past	546	71.93	360	88.24
Total	759	100	408	100

The table depicts that non-past tense is frequently used covering more than three-fifth in both (i.e. 71.93% and 88.24%) non-native and native texts respectively. The past tense is used in low frequency in

both native and non-native texts covering 11.76% and 28.07% respectively.

3.3 Voice in Economic Journals

Voices used in the texts of economic journals have been analyzed firstly in this section by observing all the sample texts. Then the comparison is made among three types of economic texts in terms of native and non-native perspectives.

3.3.1 Analysis of Voice used in CER

From the careful study and observation of the selected texts of CER in this aspect, the following frequency of occurrences have been found.

Table No.11

Voice	Freq.	Percent
Active	216	65.57
Passive	99	31.43
Total	315	100

The above table shows that more than three-fifth of the total sentences found in the texts of CER are in AV. The data clearly shows that 68.57% (i.e. 216 out of 315) sentences are in AV. The use of PV is found only more than one-fourth covering 31.43% (i.e. 99 out of 315) of the total text used.

Some examples of the use of voice, AV (1-2) and PV (3-4) in CER, are listed below:

1. The last four years have witnessed consecutive record production of food grains. (CER, Dec – 2000, Bangladesh)
2. The share of the private sector increased from 93 percent to 94 percent of total industrial production. (CER, Feb. 2001, Sri Lanka)
3. This is not surprising given the relatively rapid recent growth of industry and tourism. (CER, Dec. 2000, Cambodia)
4. The saving-investment gap is financed mainly by foreign assistance in most years. (CER, Nov. – 2000, Nepal)

3.3.2 Analysis of Voice Used in TEJN

From the careful observation and analysis of the selected texts of TEJN, the researcher found the following frequency of occurrence.

Table No.12

Voice	Freq.	Per.
Active	253	56.98
Passive	191	43.02
Total	444	100

The above table clearly presents that AV is used more than half in the texts of TEJN covering 56.98% (i.e. 253 out of 444) and PV is used with below the frequency of half covering 43.02% (i.e. 191 out of 444).

Some examples of the use of voice PV (1-2) and AV (3-4) are given below:

1. However, the effect of budget on economic growth, inflation as well as other related macroeconomic variables has not been well understood in the context of Nepal. (TEJN, Jan - March, 2005)
2. The occupation of a household is determined by taking the main source of income of the household. (TEJN, July – Sept 2005)
3. The policy of making stable exchange rate between NC and IC would be better guideline to facilitate foreign trade and to cope with the adverse BOP situation (TEJN, Jan – March 2004)
4. Benefits of the multiplier effect of income from tourism in local areas will depend on the form of tourism that exists there. (TEJN, Oct – Dec 2005)

3.3.3 Analysis of Voice Used in JEP

Here, the language used in 15 instances of JEP has been analyzed as follows:

Table No.13

Voice	Freq.	Per.
Active	317	77.70
Passive	91	22.30
Total	408	100

According to the table above JEP has active voice used more than three – fourth occupying 77.7% (i.e. 317 out of 408) and PV is used covering 22.3% (i.e. 91 out of 408) of the total instances used in it.

Some examples of the use of voice AV (1-2) and PV (3-4) in JEP are:

1. Africa's long-term growth has been very slow relative to that of other developing countries. (JEP, summer 1999)
2. The rational agents will drive the irrational agent from the market because the former make higher profits. (JEP, fall – 2005)
3. The net rate of return will be reduced. (JEP, Spring – 2005)
4. Both low opportunity and low-income residential developments are inhabited by less mobile households. (JEP, Fall – 2004)

3.3.4 Comparison of Voice Used in CER and TEJN

Table No.14

CER			TEJN		Total	
Voice	Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.
AV	216	68.57	253	56.98	469	68.80
PV	99	31.43	191	43.02	290	31.20
Total	315	100	444	100	759	100

The table above depicts that AV is highly used in both CER and TEJN, but there is found a slight difference in the use of AV in both journals covering 68.57% and 56.98% respectively whereas PV is used in a low frequency in both CER and TEJN (i.e. 31.43% and 43.02%) respectively.

3.3.5 Comparison of Voice in the Texts of Native and Non-native Journals

Table No.15

Voice	Non-native (CER+TEJN)		Native (JEP)	
	Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.
AV	469	68.80	317	77.70
PV	290	31.20	91	22.30
Total	759	100	408	100

The table depicts that AV is highly used in both native and non-native journals covering more than three-fifth (i.e. 68.80 in non-native and 77.70 in native) of the voice in both the economic journals whereas PV is used in low frequency in both native and non-native journals covering 31.20 in non-native and 22.30 in native. A slight difference is seen in the use of AV and PV in both native and non-native due to the text's nature used within journals.

3.4 Aspects in Economic Journals

Aspect refers to the internal structure of the action occurring at any time. English has four aspects simple, perfect, progressive and perfect progressive (combination of perfect and progressive). The researcher has found almost all types of aspects being used in the texts of economic journals. To study the use of aspects, the researcher has analyzed the aspects of these journals one after another first, and then compared non-native texts to find out the average. Finally, the use of aspect between the native and non-native are compared to find out the differences in this respect. The frequency of distribution of aspects in

the texts of the concerned journals is mentioned below in different headings.

3.4.1 Analysis of Aspects Used in the Texts of CER

To find out the use of aspects, the language used in 15 instances of the texts of CER has been analyzed. The frequency of the occurrences has been found as follows:

Table No.16

Aspect	Tense	Freq.	Per.	Total Freq.	Total Per.
Simple	Past	118	47.58	248	78.73
	Non-past	131	52.42		
Prog.	Past	0	0	6	1.90
	Non-past	6	100		
Perf.	Past	5	8.19	61	19.37
	Non-past	56	91.81		
Total				315	100

The above table clearly presents that simple aspect is used with majority covering 78.73% (i.e. 248 out of 315), among them 47.58% (i.e. 118 out of 248) are in past simple and rest are in non-past simple. Perfective aspect covers the second position with 19.37% (i.e. 61 out of 200) frequency of occurrence, among them 91.81% (i.e. 56 out of 61) are in non-past perfective aspect and past perfect aspect is rarely used as only 8.19% (i.e. 5 out of 61) is found in the whole data. Progressive aspect is also found to be used with limited frequency, as it covers only 1.90% (i.e. 6 out of 315) of the total sentences, among

them all are found to be in non-past progressive. The researcher couldn't find perfect progressive aspect in the selected texts of CER.

Some examples of the use of aspects simple (1-2), perfective (3-4) progressive (5-7) in the texts of CER are:

1. Acceleration of economic growth was accompanied by decreased incidence of poverty and a distinct improvement in some key social indicators. (CER, Dec 2000, Bangladesh)
2. The share of the manufacturing sector will increase 16.4 percent in 2005. (CER, Feb – 2001, Sri Lanka)
3. The financial institutions reform work has been started to make them up to date. (CER, Nov – 2000, Nepal)
4. Only about 527 MW (public sector 412.5 MW, private sector 115 MW), or 1.25% have been developed (CER, June – 2003, Nepal)
5. The new Fishery Conservation, Management and Development Law to address concerns over the health of the industry is being finalized in late 2000 in preparation for stake holder consultations. (CER, Dec – 2000, Cambodia)
6. Efforts to reform financial institutions within the broader context of financial sector reform are ongoing. (CER, Nov – 2000, Nepal)

3.4.2 Analysis of Aspects Used in the Texts of TEJN

To find out the use of aspect, the language used in 15 texts of TEJN has been analyzed. The frequency of occurrences has been found as follows:

Table No.17

Aspect	Tense	Freq.	Per.	Total Freq.	Total Per.
Simple	Past	45	13.94	323	72.74
	Non-past	278	86.06		
Prog.	Past	0	0	10	2.26
	Non-past	10	100		
Perf.	Past	9	8.41	107	24.09
	Non-past	98	91.59		
Perfect Prog.	Past	1	25.00	4	0.91
	Non-past	3	75.00		
Total				444	100

The above table clearly shows that simple aspect is used with majority covering 72.74% (i.e. 323 out of 444) where 13.94% (i.e. 45 out of 323) are in past simple and rests are in non-past simple covering 86.06% (i.e. 278 out of 323). Perfective aspect occupies the second position with 24.09% (i.e., 107 out of 444) frequency of occurrences, where 91.59% (i.e. 98 out of 107) sentences are in non-past perfective aspect and past perfect aspect is rarely used with 8.41% (i.e. 9 out of 107) in the whole data. Progressive aspect is also found to be used with limited frequency, as it covers only 2.26% (i.e. 10 out of 444) of the total sentences. All the progressive aspects are found only in non-past progressive aspect. Perfect progressive aspect is also found to be used by the researcher only in TEJN but not in CER and JEP. Regarding this aspect, it is used very rarely as only four sentences are found in whole data i.e. 0.91% (i.e. 4 out of 444)

frequency of occurrences, among them only one instance is found in past perfect progressive aspect and three instances are found in non-past perfect progressive aspect.

Some examples of the use of aspect simple (1-2), perfective (3-4), progressive (5-6) and perfect progressive (7-8) in the texts of TEJN are:

1. Women are frequently presented as economically inactive members of society eventhough their labor is essential for their families survival. (TEJN, April – June, 2005)
2. National income, per capita income, output and employment can grow at a faster rate only through development of industries of various sizes. (TEJN, Oct – Dec, 2005)
3. Only in 2000 AD the government of Nepal has fixed the minimum daily wage for the agricultural workers too. (TEJN, Jan – March, 2004)
4. It had been studied through parity progression ratios, which of course, reflect the tempo of cohort fertility. (TEJN, Jan – March, 2005)
5. With the variation in the age at menarche, the fertility behavior is changing over time all over the world which is regularly affecting in the economic growth rate. (TEJN, Jan – March, 2005)
6. Trade in services is gaining its importance and becoming competitive worldwide in the present time. (TEJN, July – Sep, 2005)

7. There have been facing many challenges or problems concerning the development of service sector. (TEJN, Jan – March, 2005)
8. The share of services sector in GDP over the decade of 1974/75 to 1984/85 had been increasing in its trend. (TEJN, Jan – March, 2005)

3.4.3 Analysis of Aspects Used in the Texts of JEP

To find out the use of aspect, the language used in 15 texts of JEP has been analyzed.

Table No.18

Aspect	Tense	Freq.	Per.	Total Freq.	Total Per.
Simple	Past	41	11.59	354	86.77
	Non-past	313	88.41		
Prog.	Past	0	0	13	3.18
	Non-past	13	100		
Perf.	Past	4	9.75	41	10.05
	Non-past	37	90.25		
Total				408	100

The above table shows that simple aspect is used more frequently than other aspects in the texts of JEP. It covers 86.77% (i.e. 354 out of 408), which is more than four-fifth of the total sentences used where 88.41% (i.e. 313 out of 354) are in non-past simple and past simple aspects are used with 11.59% (i.e. 41 out of 354) frequency of occurrence. Perfective aspect occupies the second

position with 10.05% (i.e. 41 out of 408) frequency of occurrence, where 90.25% (i.e. 37 out of 41) sentences are in non-past perfective aspect and past perfect aspect is rarely used as only four sentences (i.e. 9.75%) are found in the whole data. Progressive aspect is also found to be used with limited frequency, as it covers only 3.18 (i.e. 13 out of 408) of the total sentences among them all are found to be in non-past progressive. Here, the researcher could not find any perfect progressive aspect in the whole selected texts.

Some examples of the use of aspect simple (1-2), perfective (3-4) and progressive (5-6) in the texts of JEP are:

1. The use of commodity price indexes makes more sense for industrialized importers than for the exporters, whose individual experiences are different. (JEP, Summer 1999)
2. Although we do not explore a wider reform of the disability program, we are concerned about the elevated rates of poverty among disabled workers. (JEP, Spring 2005)
3. Even in urban Bangladesh, where much attention has been paid to child labor in the garment industry, a 2002 child labor survey had found only 1.2 percent of children (5-14) working as paid employees. (JEP, Winter 2005)
4. The resulting high rates of return have contributed to the political support for the program and for its increasing tax rate. (JEP, Spring 2005)

5. Governments around the world are currently considering fundamental structural reforms of their social security pension program. (JEO, Winter 2005)

6. The trust fund balance is now increasing to equal to 9.1 percent of taxable payroll in 2005. (JEP, Summer 1999)

3.4.4 Comparison of Aspects Used in CER and TEJN

Table No.: 19

Aspect	Tense	CER		TEJN		Total Freq.		Per. of Total Freq.		Total (CER+TEJN)	
		Freq	per	Freq	Per	CER (freq)	TEJN (freq)	CER (per)	TEJN (freq)	Freq.	Per.
Simple	Past	118	47.58	45	13.94	248	323	78.73	72.74	571	75.24
	Non-past	131	52.42	278	86.06						
Prog.	Past	0	0	0	0	6	10	1.90	2.26	16	2.11
	Non-past	6	100	10	100						
Perf.	Past	5	8.19	9	8.41	61	107	19.37	24.09	168	22.13
	Non-past	56	91.81	98	91.59						
Perf. Prog.	Past	0	0	1	25	0	4	-	0.91	4	0.52
	Non-past	0	0	3	75						
Total						315	444	100	100	759	100

This table clearly presents that simple aspect is used with majority covering 78.73% in CER and 72.74% in TEJN, among them 47.58% past simple and 52.42% sentence are in non-past simple in CER whereas 13.94% past simple and 86.06% non-past simple sentences are in TEJN. Perfective aspect occupies the second position in both CER and TEJN covering 19.37% and 24.09% respectively, among them 8.19% and 91.81% sentences are found in past perfect and non-past perfect respectively in CER and 8.41% and 91.59% sentences are found in past perfect and non-past perfect respectively in TEJN. Progressive aspect is found to be used with limited frequency as it covers only 1.90% in CER and 2.26% in TEJN of the total sentences. All the progressive aspects are found only in non-past progressive aspect in both CER and TEJN. Perfect progressive aspect is also found by the researcher only in TEJN but not in CER. Regarding this aspect, it is used very rarely as only four sentences are found in the whole data which covers 0.91% frequency of occurrence, among them only one instance is found in past perfect progressive aspect.

3.4.5 Comparison of Aspects in the Texts of Native and Non-native Journals

Table No.20

Aspect	Non-native (CER+TEJN)		Native (JEP)	
	Freq.	Per.	Freq.	Per.
Simple	571	75.24	354	86.77
Prog.	16	2.11	13	3.18
Perf.	168	22.13	41	10.05
Perf. Prog.	4	0.52	0	0
Total	759	100	408	100

This table shows that simple aspect is used more frequently than other aspects in the texts of both native and non-native covering 86.77% and 75.24% respectively which are more than three-fourth of the total sentences used. Perfective aspect occupies the second position with 22.13% (in non-native) and 10.05% (in native) frequency of occurrences. Progressive aspect occurs with 2.11% (in non-native) and 3.18% (in native) frequency of occurrences whereas there is found a slight difference between non-native and native journals. The researcher has found a few examples of perfect progressive aspect used in non-native journal (i.e. only in TEJN) but he did not find any instances used in native journal (i.e. JEP) in this respect.

3.5 Sentence Length in the Texts of Economic Journals

Sentence length generally refers to the total number of words used in per sentence of the economic journals. There is not any demarcation line to categorize the sentence length.

In this section, at first the language used in non-native texts viz CER and TEJN has been analyzed. The number of words in each and every sentences is counted and analyzed to find out the average sentence length in non-native journals. Then, non-natives texts are compared with native texts in terms of sentence length. Here, words mean orthographic words.

3.5.1 Analysis of Sentence Length in the Texts of CER

Here, the language used in 15 texts of CER has been observed to find out the average sentence length. The numbers of word have been counted in each and every sentence. The average sentence length of CER is about 22 words and the total observed sentences are 315.

Some examples of sentences used in CER are as follows:

1. The recent agriculture sector performance review shows that reforms impacts were positive but still modest and fragile. (CER, Jun – 2003, Nepal)
2. The service sector, accounting for 36.0 percent of GDP in 1999, seemed poised to enter a sustained period of expansion after several years on stagnation. (CER, Dec – 2000, Cambodia)

3.5.2 Analysis of Sentence Length in the Tests of TEJN

The number of words has been counted in each and every sentence. The average sentence length of TEJN is about 20 words and the total number of observed sentences are 444.

Some examples of sentences used in TEJN are as follows:

1. Economist in particular, and others have inferred quality difference from differences in more or less objective measures of institutional characteristics which have a price tag attached to them. (TEJN, Jan – March, 2000)
2. The new industrial policy (1992 AD) has adopted the liberalization and privatization concept to encourage the private sectors in the industrial and other development activities (TEJN, Oct – Dec, 2005)

3.5.3 Comparison of Sentence Length in the Texts of CER and TEJN

Here, the language used in 15 instances of each journal has been observed to find out the average sentence length. The comparison of CER and TEJN is given in term of sentence length.

Table No.21

Journals	CER	TEJN	CER+TEJN
Observed sentences	315	444	759
Average S.L.	22 Words	20 Words	21 Words

The table above shows that both CER and TEJN have used almost the equal length in sentences (i.e. 22 in CER and 20 in TEJN).

In total, the observed sentences of both CER and TEJN are 759 and the average words are 21 in per-sentence.

3.5.4 Analysis of Sentence Length in the Texts of JEP

The number of words has been counted in each and every sentence. The average sentences length of JEP has been presented below:

Table No.22

Journal	JEP
Observed Sentences	408
Average S.L.	25

The table shows that the average number of words in each sentence in JEP is 25 among the observed sentences. The total observed sentences of JEP are 408.

Some examples of the sentences used in JEP are as follows:

1. Much of recorded GDP under the Soviet Union consisted of military goods, unfinished construction projects, and shoddy consumer products for which there was no demand. (JEP, winter 2005)
2. Rational individuals respond with a low price under substitutability, meaning that the distance between the actions of the rational and the irrational is relatively large. (JEP, Fall 2005)

3.5.5 Comparison of Sentence Length in the Texts of Native and Non-native Journals

Here, the language used in CER and TEJN in combination and JEP has been taken for analysis. Each sentence in the 15 texts of each native and non-native journal has been observed and the words are counted in each and every sentence. Lastly, the average length of sentence has been calculated in native and non-native texts. The comparison is shown below:

Table No.23

	Total Analyzed Sentences	Average Sentence Length
Native	408	25 Words
Non-native	759	21 Words

The above table obviously shows that the average number of words in a sentence is more in native texts than in non-native texts. In average, a sentence in native texts is longer than that of non-native texts by four words. The obvious fact is that, compound and complex sentences, which automatically make the sentences longer in terms of number of words, are used in native texts more than in non-native texts. Similarly, another fact is that non-native texts were used simple sentences more compared to their native ones.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATION

To find out the language used in economic journals in terms of sentence types, tense, aspect, voice and sentence length was the principal aim of the present study. For this, three economic journals were taken, among them two from non-native publications viz. 'Country Economic Review' and 'The Economic Journal of Nepal' and one from native publication viz. 'Journal of Economic Perspectives'. Fifteen purposively selected texts (altogether 45 texts) were observed and re-observed to get the required data. The data was carefully presented in tables and then analyzed and interpreted under different headings and sub-headings, to accomplish the objectives, using simple statistical tools like average, percentage etc.

4.1 Findings

On the basis of the analysis and interpretation of the data, the findings of the study can be summarized in the following points:

1. Complex sentences are used maximally in the texts of both native and non-native economic journals covering more than half and nearly three-fourth of the total sentences respectively. Simple sentences are found in the second position in non-native texts whereas compound sentences are found in this position in native texts. In case of the least used sentences, compound ones are found in the texts of non-native journals and simple ones are found in the texts of native journals.

2. In case of tense, non-past tense is frequently used covering more than three-fifth in the non-native texts and four-fifth in native texts whereas the past tense is used in low frequency in both the texts.
3. Regarding the use of voice, active voice is highly used covering more than three-fifth and three-fourth in the texts of non-native and native respectively but passive voice is used in low frequency in both the texts. Slight differences (i.e. 68.80% AV in non-native and 77.70% AV in native, and 31.20% PV in non-native and 22.30% PV in native) are seen in the use of voice due to the nature of selected texts.
4. In the use of aspects, simple aspect is maximally used in the texts of economic journals. Perfective aspect is frequently used than progressive aspects. Past progressive aspect is not found to be used in all the texts. Only non-past progressive aspect is found to be used. Perfect progressive aspect is found to be used only in TEJN having just four sentences out of four hundred and forty four. Perfect progressive aspect is not found to be used in CER and JEP.
5. In terms of sentence length, CER and TEJN (non-native) are found a bit shorter in length than in JEP (native). The average sentence length is found 25 words in JEP whereas 21 words are found to be used in CER and TEJN. The shortest sentences are found in five words in all journals and the longest sentence is

found containing sixty seven words in CER, sixty-three in TEJN and seventy-six words in JEP.

6. The language used in the texts of economic journals has been found to have its own structure, technical vocabularies, unfamiliar abbreviations, different tables and graphically rich texts, different from general pattern etc. which make economic language used in the above journals different from others. So the language used in them has its own register. Economic language is difficult and even very tough to understand for the one who is not familiar with the language of this field. It is found that its own unique path of expressions makes it different from that of general path.

4.2 Recommendations and Pedagogical Implications

On the basis of the findings of the study, some recommendations have been suggested which are as follows:

1. The findings, in terms of sentence types, tense, voice, aspect and sentence length, of this research will be of a great use to teachers/learners who have been involved in teaching/learning in the course of journalistic writing.
2. The curriculum designers/planners should include the language of economics in the textbook of secondary and higher secondary levels mainly to make the students familiar with the different style of its writing. Similarly, they should design the textbooks for those who want to make their profession better under

economics by writing the related texts for newspapers and journals.

3. The syllabus, instructions and guidelines should be clearly mentioned to help the teachers to teach the topic orderly and clearly to achieve the objectives, as a result, the students and teachers etc. will greatly be benefited.
4. The differences in various aspects of language in economic texts should highly be taken into consideration while preparing or developing teaching materials for general courses and particularly for ESP courses.
5. The researcher has found that there is a considerable difference in the use of language in economic journals than the rest of other fields. Therefore, it is recommended for teachers/trainers that they should make their students/trainees fully acquainted with the language of economic journals focusing on its own style. They should teach their students as how to handle the language of economic texts in their difficulties.
6. Some texts of economic texts contain abstract and vague realities, unfamiliar abbreviations etc. Best texts are those that contain interesting facts and details which the readers can visualize such facts and details they describe, which may be difficult to capture the vital message of the texts. So, Texts writers should follow explicit way to make the texts more effective to its readers.

Appendix-I

Examples of some technical terminologies used in the texts of
Economic Journals:

Income	Output
Price	Economic Decline
Purchase	Saving
Overvalued	Invest
Accounting	Finance
Market	Export
Public Finance	Import
Balance	Commodity Prices
Business	Growth
Reduced Price	Wages
Per Capita Income	Demand
Forex	Audit
Balance Growth	Services
Budget	Capita
Aggregate Growth	Consumer
Poverty Line	Utility
Wealth	Risk-capital
Joint Venture	Income Tax
Elasticity of Demand etc.	

Appendix-II

Some of the abbreviations used in the texts of Economic Journal:

FY	Fiscal Year
GDP	Gross Domestic Products
GST	Goods and Services Tax
ADB	Asian Development Bank
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
ICOR	Incremental Capital Output Ratio
VDIS	Voluntary Disclosure of Income Scheme
OASI	Old Age Survivors Insurance
GER	Gross Enrollment Ratio
NIA	National Enrollment Accounting
PPR	Parity Progression Ratios
BOP	Balance of Payment
LFPR	Labor Force Participation Rate
CSI	Cottage and Small-scale Industries
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
NLFS	Nepal Labor Force Security
VAT	Value Added Tax
GNP	Gross National Products

Appendix-III

Journals	Selected No. of Texts	Date of Publication	Place	Total No. of Observed Sentences.
CER	15	Nov 2000 Dec 2000 Dec 2000 Feb 2001 June 2003	Manila, Philippines (ADB)	315
TEJN	15	Jan – March, 2004 Jan – March, 2005 April – June, 2005 July – Sept. 2005 Oct – Dec, 2005	Nepal (CEDECON-TU)	444
JEP	15	Fall – 2004 Winter – 2005 Spring – 2005 Summer – 2005 Fall – 2005	Menasha, Wiscosin, USA	408

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