Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

A Cross-linguistic Study of Person Agreement in Imposter Constructions

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*Abstrac*t—**This paper provides an analysis of person agreement in the imposter phenomenon studied by Collins & Postal (2012). In the constructions, full DPs are used to refer to speech-act participants like personal pronouns. Nonetheless, person agreement caused by imposters morphsyntactically varies in a subject-verb relation and subject-object relation cross-linguistically. Moreover, members of the classes of imposters are also not identical among languages. These patterns differ from those of personal pronouns. The paper argues that dual properties of the person feature (semantic and morphological) do not always coincide, leading to agreement alternations in PF. Furthermore, the D head does not always involve the person feature value, which induces dialectal and cross-linguistic variation. The analysis shows that regardless of the cross-linguistic variations, the syntactic operation for agreement is uniform in imposter constructions.**

Index Terms—**imposter, agreement, the person feature, DP, (under)specification**

I. INTRODUCTION

Normally, full DPs such as *this reporter* are used to refer to a 3rd party talked about that is not the speaker or the addressee. However, this is not always the case. Collins & Postal (2012) report that these DPs can be used to denote the speakers, as shown in (1). [1]

(1) a. This reporter sent myself to cover Bill Clinton's lecture at the Pavilion...   (Collins & Postal, 2012, p. 20)
    b. This reporter sees himself as managing editor in the future.   (Collins & Postal, 2012, p. 20)
    c. These reporters respect ourselves/themselves.   (Collins & Postal, 2012, p.54)

The subjects are used to refer to a speaker or a speaker's group. Interestingly, they select 1st person reflexives in (1a, b) and 3rd reflexives in (1b, c). Even when the subjects determine 3rd person reflexives as in (1b, c), they can denote the speaker or the speaker's group. Importantly, Collins & Postal (2012) explicitly state that "the agreement alternation is not accompanied by differences in truth conditions" (p. vii). This particular kind of a DP, which may exhibit distinct person agreement simultaneously, is what Collins & Postal (2012) call *imposter*.[2] Collins & Postal (2012, p. 5) define an imposter in (2).

(2) An imposter is a notionally *n* person DP which is grammatically *m* person, $n \neq m$.   (Collins & Postal, 2012, p. 5)

According to Collins & Postal, notional person is the semantic category associated with the discourse roles such as the speaker while grammatical person is a morphosyntactic property linked to notional person. For instance, the subject *this reporter* in (1) involves the reference to a speaker and morphologically shows 1st person or 3rd person agreement in binding. Collins & Postal (2012) state "that there is not a strictly lawful connection such that a form whose notional person is *n* inevitably has those morphosyntactic features associated in a particular language with *n* person" (p.5). What is important here is that despite of the same reference, an imposter possibly shows distinct morphological properties (see also Corbett 2006). That suggests that semantic features and morphological features do not always coincide in agreement.

Since Collins & Postal's (2012) observations of the agreement alternation caused by English imposters as in (1), a growing number of studies on agreement shown by imposters have recently reported morphosyntactic variation cross-linguistically (Wang, 2009; An et. al., 2016 for Chinese; Das, 2011 for Bengali; Soare, 2013 for French and Romanian; Dudley, 2014; Vazquez Rojas, 2014, for Spanish, Wood & Siguràsson, 2014 for Icelandic; Furuya, 2016 for Japanese; Akkuş, 2017 for Turkish, a. o.). Strikingly, the agreement alternation in (1) is not always observed among the attested languages. Questions arise. What types of person agreement displayed by imposters are cross-linguistically possible and what types are not? How is the co-existence of two sets of the person feature (i.e. semantic and grammatical person)

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[1] Two remarks are listed here. First, Collins & Postal (2012) report that many other such examples are found on the internet, although they accept only examples with 3rd person reflexives when they are singular. However, they do accept 1st person singular reflexives for the reference to the speaker in English, while they accept some long distance reflexive binding relations as in (i).
    (i) (a) This reporter believes no one but himself/?myself capable of solving that problem.   (Collins & Postal, 2012, p. 22)
        (b) Daddy doesn't consider Captain Marvel to be much different than himself/?myself.   (Collins & Postal, 2012, p. 22)
    Secondly, Collins & Postal (2012) observe that DPs can also be used to refer to an addressee or addressee's group. The present work concentrates exclusively on imposters that are used to refer to the speaker.
[2] An imposter DP is different from an epithet in that the latter refers to the party talked about that is not the speaker or the addressee (Dubinsky & Hamilton 1998; Collins & Postal 2012, Chapter 11).

correlated? To what extent could referential nominal expressions behave like personal pronouns cross-linguistically? This paper explores these questions.

This paper observes cross-linguistic variation of person agreement caused by imposters and that of their classes among the attested languages (Collins 2014). While showing that the variation for person agreement is possibly classified into a limited number of groups, the paper also exhibits language specific variations on the scopes of imposters. It argues that the variations are attributed to the lexicon and PF while the syntactic operation for agreement is uniform. The paper will not be concerned with an analysis of the gender and number feature although they are also assumed as elements of phi-features in syntax.

The structure of this paper is as follows. Section II provides two properties of imposters with Wechsler & Zlatić's (2003) dual model of CONCORD-INDEX agreement: (i) morphosyntactic variation in person agreement in imposter constructions and (ii) the classes of imposters cross-linguistically. Section III offers an analysis of imposters and argues that the variation is attributed to the lexicon and PF. It also compares the proposed analysis with three extant analyses of person agreement. Section IV concludes the paper.

II. CROSS-LINGUISTIC VARIATIONS OF IMPOSTERS

The main goal of this paper is to provide an analysis of cross-linguistic variation in person agreement shown by DPs in imposter use. Before partaking this task, in this section I show two properties of imposters: (i) the morphosyntactic variation in light of person agreement with Wechsler & Zlatić's (2003) CONCORD-INDEX model and (ii) the variation in the scope of imposter members.

A. Cross-linguistic Variation in Light of Person Agreement Caused by Imposters

In this subsection I examine cross-linguistic variation in person agreement caused by imposters. In generative grammar, phi-features are taken as formal and carry two sets of features: morphological and semantic. The person feature is no exception. In Chomsky's (1995) minimalist program, the person feature is a morphosyntactic feature. In HPSG, Wechsler & Zlatić (2003) and Wechsler (2011) adopt the perspective that the person feature exists only as features of referential indices (INDEX feature) and never as morphological features (CONCODE feature). Both perspectives on the person feature is identical to each other when it is concerned about person agreement displayed by personal pronouns since semantic features and morphological features coincide.

In this paper I conventionally employ [1st] that represents the morphological property and [Speaker] that is associated with the semantic category (e.g. Harley & Ritter, 2002) with Wechsler & Zlatić's (2003) CONCORD-INDEX model and I assume both features as grammatical. Let us look at the person feature values of the English 1st person pronoun *I* in (3), as shown in (4).

(3) I look at myself / *himself in the mirror.

(4) The person feature of the 1st person pronoun *I*

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{INDEX | PERSON} & \text{Speaker} \\ \text{CONCORD | PERSON} & 1^{st} \end{bmatrix}$$

In (4), the value of the INDEX feature for person is [Speaker] and that of the CONCORD feature is [1st]. In this case, both values uniquely encode into the personal pronoun *I* and the two sets of the person feature coincide. Thus, the subject with these values for person determines a 1st person reflexive; the selection of a 3rd person reflexive is ungrammatical.

With the two types of values for the person feature, I present cross-linguistic variation in person agreement caused by an imposter cross-linguistically (Collins, 2014) by distinguishing them into two groups: one group shows agreement alternations, and the other does not exhibit alternations. The first group of languages displays 1st and 3rd person agreement alternations as in English. The languages in this group include Albanian (Kallulli, 2014), Brazilian Portuguese (Taylor, 2009), French (Soare, 2013), Icelandic (Wood & Sigurðsson, 2014), Romanian (Soare, 2013), Spanish (Dudley, 2014, Vazquez Rojas, 2014), and Turkish (Akkuş, 2017). Importantly, while not all languages explicitly display the harmony between verbal agreement and pronominal agreement, Spanish shows that the harmony must hold in light of person in (5); otherwise the sentences are ungrammatical in (6).

(5) a. Unos servidores quedamos en encontrar-nos a las siete. Spanish
   some servants decided.1P on to.meet-ourselve at the.PL seven
   'These guys (=speakers) decided to meet each other at seven.' (Adapted from Dudley, 2014, p. 50)
   b. Unos servidores quedaron en encontrar-se a las siete. Spanish
   some servants decided.3PL on to.meet-themselves at the.PL seven
   'These guys (=speakers) decided to meet each other at seven.' (Adapted from Dudley, 2014, P. 50)

(6) a. *Estas periodistas decidieron unir-nos en promover esta causa. Spanish
   these reporters decided.3PL to.unite-ourselves in to.promote this cause
   b. *Unos servidores quedamos en encontrar-se a las siete al lado del cine.

some servants   decided.1PL on to.meet-themselves   at the.PL seven to.the   side   of.the   theater
(Dudley 2014, p. 54)

The same subjects in (5a, b) show 1st and 3rd person verbal agreement and yield a 1st and 3rd person reflexive respectively. By contrast, the subjects in (6a, b) display mixed agreement. The verbal morphology in (6a) is 3rd person but the reflexive is 1st person. In (6b) the verb *quedamos* 'decide' exhibits 1st person whereas the reflexive is 3rd person. This mixed agreement is ungrammatical. This shows that subject-verb agreement and subject-object agreement should be compatible with each other in light of the person feature. What is also noteworthy is that the alternations are observed in both non-pro-drop languages (e.g. English) and pro-drop languages (e.g. Spanish).

A second language group gives rise to only one type of person agreement. Yet, the person agreement exhibited by this group of languages is not uniform. Wang (2009) reports that the Chinese imposter construction only displays 1st person agreement in (7) (see also An et. al., 2016).

(7)   A-Bian zhi   hui   tou gei {*ta-ziji / wo-ziji}.   (A-Bian = the nickname of a President)   Chinese
       A-Bian only will   vote to   he-self / I-self
       'A-Bian (= I/speaker) will only vote for {* himself / myself}'   (Wang, 2009)

The imposter subject only binds the 1st person reflexive *wo-ziji* 'myself', and the selection of the 3rd person reflexive *ta-ziji* 'himself' is ungrammatical.

In contrast, Das (2011) and Servidio (2014) observe that Bengali and Italian only determine 3rd person agreement in the imposter constructions in (8a, b) respectively.

(8)   a. Baba   rege   ja-b-e / *ja-b-o.   Bengali
           father angry   go-FUT-3/go-FUT-1
           'Daddy will get angry'   (Das, 2011, p. 29)
       b. Gli   autori   cercheranno / *cercheremo   di   difendere se stessi/*noi stessi.   Italian
           the   authors attempt.FUT.3PL attempt.FUT.1PL of   defend   themselves/ ourselves
           'The authors will try to defend themselves/*ourselves'   (Servidio, 2014, p. 125)

In (8a) the Bengali imposter only select 3rd person verbal agreement. Similarly, in (8b) the Italian imposter also determines a 3rd person reflexive besides the 3rd person verbal morphology. In these cases, 1st person agreement is not allowed.

Lastly, Furuya (2016) shows that a Japanese imposter selects the underspecified reflexive in (9).

(9) Sensei (= I)-wa   kagami-de   *watasizisin / *kanozyozisin / zibun-o   mita.   Japanese
     teacher-Top   mirror-in   myself   herself   self-Acc   saw
     'Teacher (=I) saw *myself/*herself/self in the mirror.'   (Furuya, 2016, p. 1730)

The Japanese imposter can take the underspecified reflexive *zibun* 'self' (Kuno, 1973; Kuroda, 1973) and it cannot tolerate a 1st person or 3rd person reflexive.

To summarize, we observed the wider variety of morphosyntactic variation in light of person agreement in the attested languages than the English example shows in (1). While one group of languages shows 1st and 3rd person agreement alternations like English, the other group of languages only selects one type of agreement. Our observations of person agreement are summarized in (10).

(10) Person agreement by imposters

Languages	Morphological realization via agreement
Albanian, English, French, Icelandic, Prorogue, Romanian, Spanish, Turkish	1st or 3rd
Chinese	1st
Bengali, Italian	3rd
Japanese	underspecified

The chart elaborates on Collin and Postal's (2012) definition of imposters in (2) and shows that person agreement caused by imposters referring to the speaker or the speaker's group is not morphologically uniform cross-linguistically. A large number of cross-linguistic examples among the attested languages show 1st and 3rd person agreement alternations. Yet, some languages only show 1st person, 3rd person or underspecified for person. The chart can be reorganized in terms of the INDEX-CONCORD agreement in (11).

(11) Relation between INDEX and CONCORD features for imposters referring to speakers

INDEX feature	CONCORD feature
Speaker	1st
	3rd
	underspecified

The value of the INDEX feature is [Speaker], whereas that of the CONCODE feature can be 1st person, 3rd person or underspecified. This indicates that the morphological realizations shown by an imposter with [Speaker] appear to be limited to three values of the person feature among the attested languages.

In the following subsection, I discuss cross-linguistic comparisons in light of members of the nominal classes used as imposters, and show similarities and differences cross-linguistically.

B. The Classes of DPs as Imposters

While overall imposter class is open, referential expressions that denote humans are possibly used as imposters. In this subsection, I closely look into the classes of imposters in English, Bengali, Chinese, Icelandic, and Spanish, and show that referential expressions can be used as imposters while there exist dialectal and cross-linguistic differences.

English Imposters

Collins & Postal (2012) provide a fuller recognition of the scope of English imposters in (12) than previous studies of imposter usages (Stirling & Huddlenston, 2002; Siewierska, 2004).

(12) English 1st person imposters
   a. Determiner/demonstrative/possessor (modifier) + nouns *the (present) author(s)*: *the court, the (present) writer(s), your faithful correspondent*
   b. Personal names: *Jerome, Johns, Jerome (J.) Jones, the present Thomas Wilson Belmont*
   c. Members of the set of diminutive kinship terms*: daddy, mommy, auntie, granny, gramps*
   d. Various nondiminutive kinship terms plus a personal name: Uncle + Name, Aunt + Name, Cousin + Name, Grampa + Name, Granma + Name
   e. *The* + participles: *the undersigned*

                       (Adapted from Collins & Postal 2012, pp. 7-8)

In (12a), *the* + (Modifier +) Common Noun and *this/these* + Common Noun can denote a speaker or a speaker's group when the common noun phrases bear titles or occupational roles. Moreover, proper names and kinship terms in (12b, c, d) as well as the combination of the determiner *the* and participles (that denote human) in (12e) can also be used as imposters. Collins & Postal note that number restriction exists in relation to person agreement alternations in some dialects of English including Collins & Postal's dialect. In those dialects, there is a sharp difference in light of determining pronominal agreement between singular and plural imposters, as shown in (13).

(13) a. This reporter sees himself / *myself as managing editor in the future.   (Collins & Postal 2012, p. 28)
   b. This reporter and Jerome should disguise ourselves / themselves as ghosts. (Collins & Postal 2012, p. 172)
   c. These reporters respect themselves/ourselves.   (Collins & Postal 2012, p. 85)

The English singular imposter alone cannot antecede a non-3rd person reflexive in (13a) while no such restriction exists with the imposter conjunct and the plural counterpart in (13b, c). Thus, in some dialects number appears to be associated with the pronominal alternations in the English imposter construction, unlike in other dialects with no such number restriction.

Chinese Imposters

Wang's (2009) report on the scope of Chinese imposter DPs is similar to that of English in (12) (see also An et. al., 2016) and yet it appears to be simpler than (12), shown in (14).

(14) Chinese 1st person imposters
   a. Common nouns *laoshi* 'teacher', *jizhe* 'reporter', *benren* 'this person',
   b. Personal names *A-Bian* 'Proper Name'
   c. Kinship terms

                          (Adapted from Wang, 2009)
The classes of nouns in (14a, b) are exemplified in (15a, b) respectively.

(15) a. Laoshi   zhende bu xihuan ma ren.
    teacher really Neg like scold person
    'Teacher (= I) really doesn't like to scold anyone.'
   b. Bizhe han tongshi qiwang *tamen-ziji /women-ziji keyi you xin faxian.
    author and colleague expect they-self we-self can have new finding
    'The present author and colleague(s) expect *themselves / ourselves to have new findings.'

                              (Wang, 2009)

The common noun phrase *laoshi* 'teacher' and the proper noun *bizhe* 'author' in the subject positions are used to refer to the speaker. Chinese selects 1st person agreement in the imposter constructions, and the selection of 3rd person agreement is ungrammatical, as opposed to English, However, there are two minor differences between Chinese and English. According to Wang (2009) and An et. al. (2016), there is no singular and plural asymmetry in light of person agreement in the Chinese imposter construction. Moreover, the bare nouns appears to be used as imposters while they are definite expressions in (15).

Bengali Imposters
Das (2011) observes the Bengali imposter construction and presents the scope of the class for Bengali imposters in (16).

(16) Bengali 1st person imposters
      a. Demonstrative + common nouns: *ei sharma, ei mokkel* 'this guy', *ei sangbadik* 'this reporter', *ei chatro brinda* 'this group of students'
      b. Personal names: *Archana Das* 'Proper Name'
      c. Kinship term: *baba* 'Daddy'
      d. Determiner + adjective: *nimna-sakkhorito* 'the undersigned'

(Adapted from Das, 2011, p. 29)

This list for Bengali is similar to that of English and Chinese (with the exception of (16d) for Chinese). Yet, Bengali is different from these languages in that this language always determines 3rd person agreement, as shown in (17).

(17) a. Ei   sharma   shudhu tar / *amar   nijer   jonnoi ranna kor-b-e
      this guy   only   his my   self   for   cook do-Fut-3
      'This guy will only cook for himself'
    b. Ei   chatro-ra   shudhu tader / *amader nijer jonnoi ranna   kor-b-e
      these student-Cla only   their our   self   for   cook   do-Fut-3
      'These students will only cook for themselves'

(Das, 2011, p. 30)

The singular and plural subject determine 3rd person in person agreement with the verb and the reflexive. Selection of 1st person agreement is ungrammatical. According to Das, this generalization holds for all kinds of imposters (singular, plural, coordinated) in Bengali.

Icelandic Imposters
Wood & Sigurðsson (2014) offer the widest scope of imposters in Islandic among the five languages, as shown in (18)

(18) Icelandic 1st person imposters
      a. Demonstrative/determiner + noun: *þessir fréttamenn* 'these reporters'
      b. Personal names: *Jón* 'John' or *Jón frændi* 'Uncle John'
      c. Kinship terms *mamma* 'Mommy', *pabbi* 'Daddy', 'Uncle John'
      d. Adjectival participles *undirritaður* '(the) undersigned (sg)' and *undirritaðir* '(the) undersigned (pl)'
      e. The demonstrative *Sá* 'the one' + modifier: *sá sem hér talar* 'the one who is talking here'
      f. Others: a noun with a definite suffix: *karlinn* 'the man / the old man', a 'weak' adjective *gamli* 'old'
      (Adapted from Wood & Sigurðsson, 2014, pp. 198-200)

(18a-d) appear to be identical to those of Bengali, Chinese and English. However, according to Wood & Sigurðsson (2014), it seems that a micro-parametric variation exists in the scope of Icelandic imposters among speakers. In (18a), speakers seem to vary in whether they accept imposter uses of *þessir fréttamenn* 'these reporters'. Moreover, *núverandi/viðstaddir höfundar* 'the present authors' cannot be used as imposter in Icelandic, whereas *höfundar þessarar greinar* '(the) authors of this article' is possible. Three additional remarks is as follow. First, unlike English and Bengali, in (18d) Icelandic adjectival participles do not require a determiner to be used as imposters, as in (19).

(19) Undirritaður   hefur / *hef   ákveðið   að hætta.
     undersigned.M.SG   has.3SG 1SG   decided   to   quit
     'The undersigned (sg) has decided to quit.'   (Wood & Sigurðsson, 2014, p. 207)

A second remark is regarding (18e). I assume that *sá* 'the one' requires a relative clause or some other kind of modifier to refer to a speaker. Lastly, according to Wood & Sigurðsson, the use of imposters in (18f) has arisen recently among young speakers. These kinds of use are not observed in the other attested languages.

Spanish Imposters
Dudley's (2014) list of the scope of Spanish imposters in (20) is slightly different from the ones that are observed so far.

(20) Spanish 1st person imposters
     a. Determiner +plural NPs denoting human *las mujeres* 'the women'
     b. Demonstrative + common noun: *este estudiante* 'this student'
     c. Kinship terms *tu hijo* 'your son'
     d. Determiner + 'undersigned' *el firmante* the undersigned'
     e. Indefinite determiner + 'servant' *un servidor* 'a servant'

(Dudley, 2214, p. 43)

Dudley reports that a Spanish imposter consisting of a determiner and common noun should be in plurality in (20a), while nominals with demonstratives do not appear to have such a restriction in (20b). The members in (20c, d) are listed in other languages, but Dudley states that proper names cannot be used as imposters in Spanish. Such a restriction does not seem be observed in the other languages observed so far. Moreover, unlike the other languages Spanish also allows the expression with an indefinite determiner *un servidor* 'a servant' to be used to refer to the speaker in (20e) (Vazquez Rojas, 2014). Dudley observes that the agreement pattern for *un servidor* 'a servant' selects only 3rd person verbal agreement, whereas the plural imposter *unos servidores* 'some servants' optionally determines both 1st and 3rd person agreement.[3]

These observations offer some rough indications of the scopes of the imposter classes in (21). For the imposter type represented by the definite article/demonstrative + noun such as *the present reporter* and *these reporters,* an infinite number of similar examples can be possibly found along with some variations in Icelandic (see 20e, f) in the attested examples except that Chinese, an article-less language, appears to allow bare common nouns to be used as imposters. Likewise, imposters based on proper names and kinship terms are also unlistable among languages in (21b). Moreover, participle forms often combined with the definite article can be used as imposters in English, Bengali, Icelandic and Spanish, along with some Icelandic adjective forms in (21c). What is noteworthy is that despite of having these similarities, Bengali only shows 3rd person agreement and Chinese determines 1st person agreement in imposter constructions, unlike English, Icelandic and Spanish, which allow 1st and 3rd person agreement. As for some number restriction, the singular-plural asymmetry in the agreement alternation exists in some dialects of English, Spanish, and Icelandic but not in other dialects of English besides Bengali, and Chinese in the attested examples in (21d). Yet, a singular imposter coordinated with another DP can show the agreement alternation cross-linguistically. What is also remarkable is that a Spanish DP with an indefinite article can be used as imposter in (21e).

(21) The scopes of imposter classes

	English	Bengali	Chinese	Icelandic	Spanish
a. (The definite article/demonstrative +) noun	o	o	o	o	o
b. Proper nouns and kinship terms	o	o	o	o	o
c. (The definite article +) participles (/adjectives)	o	o		o	o
d. Singular-plural asymmetry	some dialects			o	o
e. An indefinite article + noun					o

Once the morphosyntactic variation in light of person agreement and the scopes of nominal expressions for imposters are clear, I analyze these properties in the following section.

III. THE PERSON FEATURE AND DP

After having observed two key properties of imposters cross-linguistically in the previous section, I adopt the general framework of the Minimalist Program proposed by Chomsky (2001). Lexical elements taken from the lexicon are fed to the syntax and sent to LF and PF via Spell-Out. My proposal consists of two components. First, I argue that under the DP hypothesis the D head is not always fully specified for the person feature. Second, I suggest that the variation in the scope of imposters results from a lexical gap of the D head. The proposed analysis accounts for agreement patterns observed cross-linguistically and the scope variation among the attested languages. It can extend to agreement patterns caused by non-imposters. I also compare the proposed analysis with three extant analyses of person agreement.
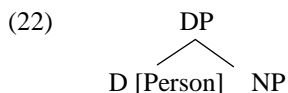
A. The Person Feature on the D Head

Since Abney's (1986), determiner elements such as definite and indefinite articles have been assumed to project Determiner Phrase (DP) (Bernstein, 2001; Longobardi, 2001; Adger, 2003; Alexiadou et al.; 2007; Cheng & Sybesma; 1999, 2012; Lyutikova & Pereltsvaig, 2015; Cyrino & Teresa Espinal, 2015, to name only a few). This hypothesis adopts the perspective that the function of the D head is to mediate between the descriptions (predication) provided by the NP and a specific entity described in the world in all languages including article-less-languages such as Chinese and Japanese (e.g. Wang, 2009, Wu & Bodomo 2009; Cheng & Sybama, 1999, 2012, but Fukui, 1986 and his subsequent work). Concerning the person feature in DP, typologically it has been noticed that DP-internal concord never involves the realization of person (Baker, 2008). Carstens (2011, section 5) argues that the person feature is intrinsic to D. Danon (2011, p. 309) argues that a valued person feature is generated on the D head. Following Carstens and Danon, I assume that person is a feature of the D head in (22).

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[3] Camacho (2018) reports that Spanish proper nouns can be accompanied by an indefinite determiner, as in (i).
(i) Nos   han   nombrado   a   un   tal   Blázquez.
    CL   have   named   DOM   a   so-called   Blázquez
'They have imposed on us a 'so-called' Blázquez.'
While *Blázquez* is a proper noun, it possibly appears with an indefinite *un* and *tal* 'certain' in (i). According to Camacho, *un tal* + proper noun may be interpreted as definite in certain cases. Even though this expression is not used as an imposter, the definite reading of the DP appears to be consistent with (20e) in that an indefinite expression designate a unique individual in the given context.

(22)

DP
D [Person]   NP

In (22), the D head has the person feature and determines the referentiality of a DP associated with the discourse participants. Yet, there is no principle that D universally involves a specific value of the person feature in the lexicon particularly when it is not morphologically specified for person. I suggest that such a D head may obtain the person feature value extra-linguistically. When a full DP is used to refer to a speaker in the given context, D uniformly includes [Speaker] as INDEX feature cross-linguistically. However, the value of an INDEX feature for person does not always coincide with the same value of a CONCORD feature. This results in morphosyntactic variation in person agreement caused by imposters. When an imposter involves [1st] person, it determines a 1st person reflexive in (23). The person feature of the imposter subject in (23) is shown in (24).

(23) This reporter sent myself to cover Bill Clinton's lecture at the Pavilion...   = (1a)

(24) The person feature of the D head for *this reporter*
$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{INDEX} \mid \text{PERSON} & \text{Speaker} \\ \text{CONCORD} \mid \text{PERSON} & 1^{st} \end{bmatrix}$$

In (24) the CONCORD feature is [1st] and the imposter with it selects a 1st person reflexive. This way 1st person agreement comes about in imposter constructions. This is compatible with Wechsler & Zlatić's (2003) matching constraints, which states that INDEX and CONCORD features match each other in that [Speaker] is identical to [1st] in cross-linguistic pronominal systems.

However, regardless of whether a DP can be used to refer to a speaker or a third party, a full DP is not morphologically in a distinct form associated with a specific reference. This fact correlates with morphosyntactic variation person agreement caused by an imposter as observed in (11). Since non-pronominal DPs (that refer to a 3rd party) are normally considered 3rd person, one might state that an imposter taking a 3rd person reflexive in (25) has [3rd] as CONCORD feature, shown in (26).

(25) This reporter sees himself as managing editor in the future.   Cf. (1b)

(26) The person feature of the D head for *this reporter*
$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{INDEX} \mid \text{PERSON} & \text{Speaker} \\ \text{CONCORD} \mid \text{PERSON} & 3^{rd} \end{bmatrix}$$

In (26) the CONCORD feature is [3rd] and the DP with [3rd] tolerates a 3rd person reflexive. The agreement alternations in (23) and (25) may be taken as equivalent to Corbett's (2006) "semantic agreement" and "syntactic agreement" respectively in that the INDEX agreement is based on the semantics of the subject DP with a reference to a speaker while the CONCORD agreement is based on the morphology of the imposter DP as 3rd person. However, this line of consideration cannot account for why underspecified person agreement is also possible in imposter constructions as observed in (9), repeated as (27).

(27) Sensei (= I)-wa   kagami-de   *watasizisin / *kanozyozisin / zibun-o   mita.   Japanese
     teacher-Top   mirror-in   myself   herself   self-Acc   saw
     'Teacher (=I) saw *myself/*herself/self in the mirror.'

In (27) the imposter only selects the underspecified reflexive and does not determine a 1st or 3rd person reflexive although Japanese involves these lexical reflexives.

Alternatively, I propose that the D head of an imposter may not possibly have the value of a CONCORD feature for person in (28) because the head lacks a specific form relating to a reference.
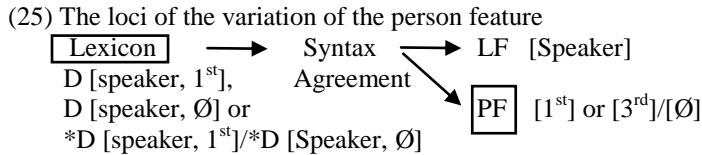
(28) The person feature of the D head for an imposter referring to a speaker
$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{INDEX} \mid \text{PERSON} & \text{Speaker} \\ \text{CONCORD} \mid \text{PERSON} & \emptyset \end{bmatrix}$$ [ø] represents the lack of a specific value

In (28) the CONCORD feature for person is underspecified. Thus, Japanese allows the underspecified reflexive in binding while a 1st person or 3rd person reflexive cannot be selected in (27). On the other hand, in some languages such as English and Spanish the underspecification of the CONCORD feature is illicit and hence 3rd person is selected as default/neutral form in PF (Ouhalla, 1993, Henderson, 2013, Baker, 2011, Furuya, 2017). The current analysis suggests that the variation in person agreement caused by imposter in (11) is attributed to distinct realizations of the CONCORD feature in PF (Bobaljik 2008), while person agreement in the constructions is uniform in narrow syntax for all languages.

Nonetheless, the proposed analysis of the two types of the person feature values for imposters cannot fully explain the cross-linguistic variation in the scope of the class of imposters in (21) since, unlike personal pronouns not all full DPs are possibly used to refer to discourse participants in one language and cross-linguistically. I suggest that the scope variation results from a lexical gap of the D head. When D does not involve a specific morphology associated to a specific discourse role, it is not always possible for the person feature on D to be specified for [Speaker] in one

language or cross-linguistically. For example, to some speakers of English as well as speakers of Spanish and Icelandic, the D head needs to be specified for [Plural] for imposter use of a DP with the D head. The fact that the acceptability of the Icelandic word *þessir frátamenn* 'these reporters' as imposter varies among speakers also comes from the possibility of specifying the D head for [Speaker]. Likewise, unlike other languages Spanish allows an indefinite determiner to have the person feature [Speaker] as in *un servidor* 'a servant' in given contexts. Since the D head that is morphologically underspecified for person, these language-specific and dialectal "adjustments" are applied for imposter use. If the proposed analysis is on the right track, the variations in imposter constructions come about in the lexicon and PF, as illustrated in (25).

(25) The loci of the variation of the person feature

$$
\boxed{\text{Lexicon}} \longrightarrow \text{Syntax} \longrightarrow \text{LF [Speaker]}
$$

D [speaker, 1st],   Agreement
D [speaker, Ø] or $\boxed{\text{PF}}$ [1st] or [3rd]/[Ø]
*D [speaker, 1st]/*D [Speaker, Ø]

In the lexicon, there are three types of the person feature on D: (i) D with both the INDEX feature and the CONCORD feature specified for [Speaker] and [1st] respectively, (ii) D with [Speaker], and (iii) D that cannot have [Speaker]. Depending on which D is selected, the morphological realization of person and the (im)possibility of imposter use differ in one language and cross-linguistically. If an imposter DP as antecedent involves [1st], the bound object is a 1st person reflexive. When the antecedent DP lacks [1st], the reflexive is a 3rd person reflexive in some languages while Japanese determiners the underspecified reflexive. Moreover, full DPs are not always used as imposters since not all D can have [Speaker].

B. Comparison of Analyses

I compare the proposed analysis with three extant analyses of person agreement and show that these analyses have problematic points to account for the imposter data observed in this paper. The first analysis is based on data in pro-drop languages, whereas the second and the third approaches build themselves on Spanish data.

The first approach adopts the null pronominal *pro* with [1st] in an imposter in (26).

(26) *Pro* approach
    a. [$_{DP}$ *pro* [NP]]   (Choi, 2013; Torrego & Lake, 2015; Höhn, 2016)
    b. [$_{PersonP}$ *pro* [$_{DP}$ NP]]   (Höhn, 2016)

Once the null pronoun is projected on the top of DP, the person feature of the null pronominal element becomes that of the phrase (i.e. DP or PersonP). Given a *pro* analysis, the DP should involve a 1st person pronoun for imposter use due to its reference. However, a main problem for (26) is that a DP with an overt pronoun behaves differently from what the *pro* hypothesis predicts in (27).

(27) a. We dancers need to keep ourselves/*themselves in good shape.
     b. Them politicians and the Foreign minister devote *ourselves/themselves to soothing the barbarians.

In (27), the English pronoun-noun construction prohibits reflexives of distinct person from being bound, contrary to what the *pro* analysis predicts. This theory also cannot explain the fact that 3rd person possibly yields a 1st person reading. Moreover, it is not clear how cross-linguistic variation in the scope of imposters in (21) comes about in the *pro* analysis, although the same variation is not observable with overt pronouns. This weakens the *pro* analysis for imposter constructions.

A second approach proposes a complex DP consisting of an additional DP in its Spec and a clitics as the head in the DP, shown in (28).

(28) Dislocation approach (Ordóñez & Treviño, 1999; Dudley, 2014, a.o.)
    a. [$_{DP}$ DP [3rd] [$_{D'}$ Clitics [1st]]]
    b. subject DP [3rd]   V-clitic [1st]   reflexive [1st/3rd]

In the middle of a derivation, the largest DP with the clitic as D head is projected in the subject position in (28a), and the clitics is attached to the verb in (28b). In this analysis, the languages that allow 1st and 3rd person agreement in imposter constructions select either the subject or the verbal morphology for agreement. If the subject is used as antecedent, 3rd person agreement is observed. In contrast, the verbal morphology as antecedent determines 1st person agreement. However, this theory also has the same problem as in (26) in light of 3rd person agreement. The 3rd person verbal morphology (as well as reflexives) is possible in imposter constructions. When a verb has a 3rd person verbal morphology, this theory may not account for the 1st person reading of imposters without additional stipulation. Furthermore, it is not clear whether it is possible to extend the analysis to the Japanese imposter construction (which displays underspecified agreement) and other languages that have the "poor" verbal morphology.

The last approach suggests a feature sharing operation held in LF for a 1st person reading in (29).

(29) LF-sharing approach (Ackema & Neeleman 2013, p. 302)

$[_{DP}$ [pl]] $[_{V}$ verb $[1^{st}$, pl]

(feature spreading in LF)

In this analysis, an imposter is assumed to lack the person feature and obtains the value in LF via agreement between the subject and the verb. Again, this approach faces the same problem for 3rd person of having a 1st person interpretation. Moreover, it is not always the case that all languages possess the overt 1st person verbal morphology even when it is possible to have a 1st person reading. This also weakens a LF-sharing approach.

IV. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

I offered a comparative study of imposter constructions in Albanian, Bengali, Chinese, English, French, Icelandic, Italian, Japanese, Portuguese, Romanian, Spanish, and Turkish. I presented that an imposter referring to the speaker exhibits morphosyntactic variation in person agreement in these pro-drop and non-pro-drop languages. The variation falls into limited ways of morphological realization on the verbal morphology and reflexives: (i) 1st person and 3rd person, (ii) 1st person, (iii) 3rd person, and (iv) underspecified person in (11). I also showed that cross-linguistic variation in the scope of the class of imposters in Bengali, Chinese, English, Icelandic, and Spanish. Although languages tend to use definite DPs denoting humans as imposters, not all languages allow these expressions to be freely used to refer to a speaker or a speaker's group in one language and cross-linguistically in (21). I argued that the INDEX feature [Speaker] is not obligatorily linked to the CONCORD feature $[1^{st}]$ on the D head of an imposter, which induces the morphosyntactic variation in PF. As for the scope variation, I claimed that the D head may or may not have the person feature cross-linguistically. This lexical gap of D in the lexicon leads to the scope variation. The proposed analysis is expected to extend to non-imposter constructions with the D heads that are not morphologically underspecified for person since these Ds may have lexical gaps as in imposter constructions, which are morphologically realized differently in PF. This prediction is borne out in (30).

(30) a. [The new me] takes better care of myself.
         (http://anewscafe.com/2016/11/03/the-weight-is-over-week-46-miles-and-miles-of-milestons/)
      b. [The real me] takes good care of herself.
         (Adapted from http://www.dailykos.com/story/2015/10/24/1438740/-My-Old-Version-of-The-New-Me)

The subjects contain 1st person pronouns inside called the person conversion construction (Bernstein 2008). This construction displays the agreement alternation. In the proposed analysis, the definite determiner in (30) is not morphologically underspecified for person and thus it can have [Speaker]. This INDEX feature on the D head may or may not be associated with the specific value of the CONCORD feature. If it is linked to $[1^{st}]$, a 1st person reflexive is selected; otherwise a 3rd person reflexive is selected in English. The present analysis also predicts that not all languages and/or dialects allow the conversion construction as well as the agreement alternation as in the case of imposter constructions, due to lexical gaps of the D heads for person. Furthermore, other constructions are also expected to show the same or similar agreement phenomena as imposter constructions. The answers to these predictions await for future research.

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3. (2018) A reconsideration of the (non-)uniform syntax of Korean right- dislocation. *Linguistic Research* 35. 2, 275-304.

The Significance of English Language Development for Future Asian Tourism and Hotel Management Professionals

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Abstract—**The present study is a systematic review that explores existent research on the significance of developing English at schools and universities, and the impact of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses to acquire specialized English for businesses, mainly on the Asian Tourism and Hotel Management sector. Because of ESP complexity, it is recommended to be taught to students of intermediate-advanced English level. Consequently, future professionals will be capable of communicating in the target language around the world and be ready to take these specialized English courses. It also considers the advantages of having appropriate English fluency in the Tourism and Hotel Management sector, and the disadvantages of not having English fluency in this field.**

Index Terms—**fluency, Academic English, English for Specific Purposes, Hotel and Tourism Management, Asia, business professionals**

I. INTRODCTION

The present article is a systematic literature review that explores previous studies regarding the importance of learning English at school and the influence of ESP courses at the university to develop specialized English for businesses, specifically on the Tourism and Hotel Management sector in Asia.

ESP originated from the need to learn English related to specific professional settings. The world is being developed through the years, and the use of the target language is more important in sectors such as Tourism and Hotel Management. Consequently, with the development of a foreign language, the opportunities of a nation improve (González Ramírez, 2015).

Learning a foreign language brings advantages to everyone's lives, teaches new information such as culture, customs and even knowing a new way of life. However, mastering a new language requires time and effort to acquire communicative skills. According to Baturkmen (as cited in Ahmed, 2014), English is a channel for scientific and technological improvements since it is an essential element for the social and economic advancements. In this respect, ESP is an approach used for specific groups, mostly aimed at university students who need English for their career development. In ESP courses instructors apply innovated methods for teaching which resembles real-life situations in a workplace.

It is recommended that ESP courses be taught to students of intermediate-advanced English level due to its complexity (Lawrence, 2015). For this reason, the following lines of this article explain how Asian schools and universities are emphasizing the development of English, so learners will be capable of communicating in the target language around the world, and be ready to take this specialized English courses to prepare them for their future professions. It also points out the advantages of having appropriate English fluency in the Tourism and Hotel Management sector, and the disadvantages of not being English fluent in this field.

II. PREPARING FUTURE ASIAN PROFESSIONALS

A. Information and Communication Technologies to Develop English in Asia

Countries such as Vietnam and Malaysia use Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) to apply a

technique called Digital Storytelling which is a tool to strengthen the instruction process in English as a Second Language (ESL) classes.

Even though ICTs cannot be considered as a panacea for all educational issues, its advantages are evident. ICTs facilitates instruction and learning processes. Instructors are enabled to use innovation in their classes. It also helps students to be involved with English through movies that show different situations and cultures (Bui, 2015).

Experts at the University of Houston maintain that more important is the opportunity for autonomous learning through discovering, as it occurs in the Constructivism Theory. Digital Storytelling, in this respect, is appropriate for discovering learning because it encourages students to use technologies such as audio, videos, and images to transmit information as a story (Bui, 2015). The Constructivism Theory has had a significant influence in education, and its creator was Lev Semionovich Vygotsky (1896- 1934), who supported the idea that knowledge is the result of the sum of previous knowledge (Cetz Canche, Vázquez Garcia, & Santiago León, 2015).

B. English Teacher Training in Asia

Nowadays, the world is becoming more and more globalized, and countless people are learning English, which is regarded as the language most frequently used around the globe, and a common language in Asia. Due to the development of the economy and globalization, the emphasis on English is increasing, and many students make considerable effort to studying English. Innumerable countries where English is not used as a mother tongue strive to improve English education through educational reforms. Thus, the roles of English teachers have become increasingly crucial in educational institutions.

In 2008, Jo wrote a book about English education and teacher education in South Korea. If someone wants to be a teacher in this country, applicants need to attend education courses run and managed by teachers in educational institutes and acquire a teaching certificate relevant to a given category. In other words, in South Korea, teachers need specific qualification criteria for each category. For example, an English teacher and a librarian need different licensed. Then, to strengthen teachers' educational capacity in South Korea, there is an evaluation system. This assessment process effectively enhances the professional capabilities of teachers to enrich the expertise of all of them.

C. The Importance of Having Native Speakers to Develop English at Schools

Unfortunately, some students can spell English words but are incapable of speaking them fluently. Furthermore, Exam-oriented education makes many schools emphasize passing the English exams, which leads to the lack of speaking environment for students to practice their speaking skills. As a consequence, they cannot use English after finishing schooling for not having opportunities to talk with native speakers （Ahn, 2015).

With the increasing need to improve the English curriculum, the Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education (SMOE) announced that it would gradually invite more native speakers of English to every elementary and middle school as a way of improving communication skills in English. In 2005, SMOE recruited and placed Native Speaker English Teachers at 100 elementary and middle schools in Seoul (Ahn, 2015).

D. Teaching English in Chinese Universities

The development of reading, writing, listening and speaking skills seek to improve the target language. Listening and speaking practice enhance the accent and generate more fluency for daily communication. Meanwhile, reading and writing have a vital connection among them since their development broaden the vocabulary, and improves spelling (Manaj Sadiku, 2015).

Without a doubt, academic English dynamize essential skills in learners. However, one of the most severe problems that affect university students is the development of writing skills which according to the findings, it indicates that their deficiency occurs not because of the instruction they receive from teachers, but because of the students' disability. The cause of this problem is due to the students' belief that writing is the least useful skill for the future. For this reason, teachers have students practice writing through essays and formal emails. In this way, learners identify grammatical errors or common issues when writing (Mo, 2012).

Even though English is considered essential for worldwide communication in the Asian continent, learning the target language for Chinese students and teachers is a challenge since there are few opportunities to practice English in real life situations, and there is lack of authentic material in that language. However, the practice of English goes beyond speaking since this language is used in international businesses such as Tourism and Hotel Management. Likewise, students and teachers who need to practice this language seek for ways to develop it outside classrooms. There are places called "English Corners" in different Chinese cities that aim to interact with different people to improve and avoid the carelessness of this language (Gil, 2008).

E. The Importance of ESP in Malaysia

According to Medrea & Rusa (2012), ESP is used exclusively for students who require specialized needs following its major of study. It also seeks not only to be a lingua franca that serves to communicate with the outside world but also to establish future labor relations to position someone towards great job opportunities.

ESP is an approach that refers to the English teaching-process, not in a generalized way but in a more specific direction, that is, it can be oriented to the career one is pursuing, to the profession or a job. So how influential will ESP

be in an Asian country such as Malaysia?

An article intended to learn the use of English by executives from Malaysia in the commercial sector demonstrated that "The most frequent language sub-skills used are: listening to social conversations in business, speaking on the telephone, reading and writing routine letters and memos. In term of the order of importance, speaking was ranked the highest" (Heng & Seng Pang, 1996, p. 141).

In this sense, ESP is a tool to develop a business course, and it is suggested to focus more on listening, speaking, reading and writing about social and daily issues of businesses with the purpose to cover the lack of information and the challenges that the professional will face in work environments (Heng & Seng Pang, 1996).

There are two explicit premises in the results of the study. The first one emphasizes that speaking English is more important than writing. The priority of developing English speaking is under Heng & Seng Pang study closely related to the capacity of dominating English. The importance of knowing English shows that it is right there where ESP must reinforce abilities and skills. Otherwise, the lack of English knowledge will continue being a disadvantage for the professional. The second premise consists of the need for ESP courses that include real requirements of the industry or work field. Consequently, the number of unemployed professionals who do not know English will be reduced. In the year 2006, the Malaysian government revealed that 45,000 university graduates were unemployed because of not managing the foreign language (Kassim & Ali, 2010).

F. Teaching ESP at Chinese Universities

Education is always changing, and the Asian continent is always at the forefront of progress. For this reason, one of its priorities is to offer first class education. According to Lawrence (as cited in ICEF, 2013) Asian universities increasingly welcome more international students who are an essential influence on the global educational development. The Asian nations try to be worldwide leaders, and therefore they give vital importance to English instruction during university studies. Asians perceive this language as a competitive advantage internationally. Consequently, the future professionals are encouraged to improve themselves in their field, specifically in the work area.

Over the years there have been two basic English classes taught at universities. One is College English in which there is much practice on listening, speaking, reading, writing and grammar. The second is ESP that teaches more specialized information. Both types of English teaching are essential in the life of a student. However, the significance of ESP relies on the fact that it relates to the labor field and uses teaching resources such as technology, conferences, study groups, and blogs, all of which boost learning (GUO, 2016).

However, one of the principal problems in ESP, according to Saliu (2013) is that it includes advanced technological terminology, many of which are confused. For this reason, some instructors do not teach specialized English, and when designing a plan of study, they are responsible for looking for information and technological resources. This fact could bring consequences because many essential texts are excluded and the information taught is not adequate for a specific group of students. Therefore, the methodology applied in classes could not be appropriate for ESP. The way a specific topic is taught or the terminology used might be a puzzle to someone who has not been specialized in the area. "Not being a specialist in the specific area, the ESP teacher cannot decide by himself/herself how to adapt the text where important information concerning the subject matter will remain" (Saliu, 2013, p. 4).

G. Importance of English for Asian Businesses

In the economic sector good speaking English skills is crucial to have a professional competitive advantage. Great entrepreneurs in the world seek for English skillful professionals who work in their organizations, and in this respect, Asia is not the exception.

In regards to the significance of English for Asian businesses, it is necessary to consider that this language is used widely in the mass media in countries such as Hong Kong, India, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Singapore, which use the daily press, and literary traditions of fiction, poetry and other creative writings. Additionally, there is English in other media such as radio and television channels. The expansion of this language in Asia has been caused not only because of economic and social factors but also because of demographics, economic change, technology and educational trends (Bholton, 2008).

Mohd (2002) chief in the Research and Technology Division in an organization specialized in research and industrial development, proposes an idea of business system incubation in Malaysia that is becoming in an approach more and more innovated to develop the active base. Creating and developing products that are innovative, processes and technologies is often a long and expensive process. The creation of a technology-based incubation system with strong business networks, scientific and technological collaborations constitutes an essential channel for the distribution and sharing of knowledge in today's knowledgeable economy. Factors such as technology and the economic result a vital combination of entrepreneurial innovation which has led Malaysia to a considerable expansion outside the continent (Mohd, 2002). For this reason, knowing to communicate in English globally is a competitive advantage for Asia.

In this respect, a study conducted by Evans (2010) in Hong Kong, one of the most important cities in China, evaluated the impact of its policy and economy. The result demonstrated that English is the language to communicate professionally. Even though, the gradual decrease in the significance of English since the Joint Declaration in 1984, the outcomes demonstrate that the importance of written and spoken English has increased during this period. The findings also show the increasing need for Hong Kong to have professionals to communicate in English by their experience

(Evans, 2010).

In search of learning how important it is the use of English in the Asian businesses, Heng & Seng Pang (1996) applied a survey to 197 organisations under 5 categories: a) manufacturing, b) commerce, c) service and construction, d) finances, together with questions that considered the time dedicated to the use of English listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The research was conducted with entrepreneurs that use English at work and show that "The business executives claim to have confidence in the use of the language. Thus potential employees must also achieve a level of proficiency that would enable them to use the language confidently and efficiently" (p.141). The results demonstrate that in the commercial area it is essential to develop the abilities to listen and speak English since professionals would continuously need to talk to clients for business reasons. The authors emphasize that the reading and writing skills for letters, agreements, commitment, and memos are also part of daily work. However, the ability to speak and maintain a fluent conversation is the most critical skill (Heng & Seng Pang, 1996).

According to Hsu (2014) mastering English communication skills among professional of the Hospitality and Tourism (H & T) is a challenge; consequently, the educational and business sectors should work together since communicating with foreign guests is an essential skill. It is necessary, for this reason, to design ESP courses based on the work situation which will be beneficial for students of H & T programmes as well as educationalists and scientists. In this respect studies on China's hotel industry have resulted in the knowledge that the hotel industry has a central impact on the development of China's tourism industry (Gross, Gao & Huang, 2013).

III. ESP TEACHING FOR ASIAN STUDENTS MAJORING IN HOTEL AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT

A. Advantages of Having Appropriate English Communication Fluency in the Tourism and Hotel Management Sector

Students majoring in the Tourism and Hotel Management seek to improve their communicative skills since customer service is the most critical element of their career. According to Ying Lu & Adler (as cited in Canny, Ng & Burke, 2006), students who acquire abilities to communicate in a specific context are the ones able to position themselves in the Tourism and Hotel Management sector. In this respect, an excellent service relates to proper treatment and outstanding communication, which connects to the knowledge of how to hold a conversation with a tourist depending on the personality, tastes, preferences, and religions. A student must be willing to treat different types of cultures and know how to use the appropriate words and actions.

In recent years Mandarin has been earning its importance in the global communication, and it has been considered by many as the new universal language, which must be learned if one wants to have more job opportunities. However, in the tourism sector, English has a secure connection since is the language used the most nowadays to establish job or personal relationships; therefore, it must not be excluded from the curriculum of universities.

The tourism industry is considered one of the most significant sectors worldwide, which is characterized by the movement of people from one place to another for leisure, business, health, and many other purposes. China is one of the most visited places globally due to its culture and natural attractions, which make this country a journey full of new experiences. Today tourism is not only to visit a place but also get to know its history profoundly, get involved with its culture, so the people responsible for providing service to visitors must know and communicate the information correctly. The Hotel and Tourism staff, besides the attitudes and knowledge in their career, must provide the client right assistance through excellent oral communication. The ability to speak English appropriately is considered as a necessary aspect of customer service which is affected if the language is not handled correctly (Hui Lin, Chih Wu, & Tsuo Huang, 2013).

Due to the massive influx of tourists to Asia, the offer of tourist and hotel services is continually developing and steadily changing to meet the requirements of visitors, and consequently, the use of English is paramount to communicate. For this reason, future professionals in the tourism sector must learn the language at the university to become competitive workers. For this reason, ESP inclined towards tourism is very important to provide the best service in the area. According to (Hui Lin et al., 2013) learning English that is specific to tourism is different from other sectors since its primary purpose is communication.

In this respect, Lin, Chang, & Lin (2014) maintain that the development of the globalized tourism market has led international tourist hotels to make hotel adjustments in Taiwan, and develop foreign language proficiency which has proved to be central for communicative skills for undergraduate students and industrial practitioners. Consequently, it has caused an emphasis on collaborative work between educational institutions and hospitality industries. For this reason, designing an English curriculum for hospitality field is vital for the Tourism and Hotel industry.

B. Disadvantages of Not Having Appropriate English Communication Fluency in the Tourism and Hotel Management Sector

The findings of a study conducted by Huong, Wilkins & Young (2013) regarding young independent travelers from Asia demonstrated that due to the development of Japan since the 1990s, the economy of South Korea had improved significantly, increasing international travel among young people. The outcomes also show that little ability to speak English fluently was quite tricky. For this reason, opportunities to be English proficient and communicate with native speakers were valuable. Accordingly, male participants of this study described the freedom from the social point of view in their desire to socialize with Westerners and learn about their lifestyle and practice English by drinking together,

which was sensed as a significant aspect of Western youth culture (Huong, Wilkins & Young, 2013).

A different study conducted by Wattanacharoensil & Yoopetch (2012) about the Airline Service Quality in Thailand, centers on the problems of misunderstanding and lack of appropriate English communication. Accordingly, the responsibilities of handling agents in airline operations are essential for efficient performance which leads to positive or negative service quality, which also affects the airlines' prestige.

Furthermore, regular and proper quality language training enables employees to have better English proficiency, and it should be carried out throughout the airline, more specifically in customer service operations. Otherwise, situations of airline employees not able to solve upset customers problems lead to the decrease in customer loyalty or the loss of them. So it is necessary that management invest time and resources in training instead of relying uniquely on observing the employees' performance during the hiring process (Wattanacharoensil & Yoopetch, 2012). For this reason, the authors of the present study maintain that speaking fluency in the target language constitutes a work opportunity that is not limited to a determined area, but it applies to any other industry. For this reason, in the business world, English is always an advantage because it facilitates the expansion and internationalization of the enterprises.

IV. CONCLUSION

The existent research explores the significance of developing English at schools and universities, and the impact of ESP courses on the Asian Tourism and Hotel Management sector. It is suggested to teach ESP to students of intermediate-advanced English level. In this regard, future professionals can communicate in the target language worldwide and prepared to take ESP courses. It is also significant to contemplate the advantage of appropriate English fluency in the Tourism and Hotel Management sector and the disadvantages of not being fluent in this professional area.

To have prepared Asian professionals, it is essential to apply Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) to Develop English skills. Accordingly, countries such as Vietnam and Malaysia use ICTs to practice the target language using a technique called Digital Storytelling which boosts the development of this language.

It is also essential to train English teachers in Asia since many non-English spoken countries attempt to develop English education through educational reforms. Consequently, English teachers are more and more crucial in educational institutions. As a result, if someone wants to become a teacher in South Korea, they are required to attend education courses to obtain a teaching certificate.

Moreover, having native speakers at schools enable learners to practice conversations in the target language. For this reason, SMOE declared that it would steadily invite more native speakers of English to every elementary and middle school to improve English communicative skills.

The development of reading, writing, listening and speaking skills seek to improve the target language in Chinese universities. Listening and speaking practice improves the accent and produces more fluency for daily communication. On the other hand, reading and writing are combined to develop ample vocabulary and better spelling.

Concerning the Importance of ESP in Malaysia, it was found that speaking was considered as having the enormous significance. The increased evolution of this language in Asia has been caused because of demographics, economic change, technology and educational trends which have led Asians to seek for means to develop English conversational skills to have a competitive advantage in the labor market.

Finally, ESP teaching for Asian students who major in Tourism and Hotel Management presents some advantages and disadvantages of having or not appropriate English communication fluency. These students strive to develop their communicative skills since customer service has the most significant impact on their future professions. On the contrary, not having appropriate English communication fluency in the Tourism and Hotel Management sector present some disadvantages to function efficiently in this area, such as independent traveler not able to hold a conversation with native speakers and not giving a good Airline Service Quality to customers. The authors of the present study recommend further research on the different teaching techniques that educators use in Asia to develop ESP that centers in Tourism and Hotel services.

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A Pragma-stylistic-assessment of Three Translations of the Meanings of Surratt Fatir into English

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Abstract—The current paper aims at investigating the stylistic constrains encounter the translators of the Holy Qura'n into English, through analysis and comparison, the incongruities and disparities of meaning and style in translating the Qur'anic pragama- stylistic expressions into English, that is in the work of Mohammed Abdel Haleem, Pickthall and Mohammed Khan and Taj Al-Din Al-Hilalim (.http://www.aijcrnet.com/journal/index/1128.The study found that different translation strategies could lead to different translated versions of the same Qur'anic pragama-stylistics. Also, Qur'anic pragma-stylistic differences between Arabic and English languages seem to give rise to mistranslations as far as the religious text of Qur'anic texts. It is hoped that the study will cast new light on main important idea that the translators of the Holy Qur'an should consult the main books of exegesis, linguistics, philosophy, intertextuality, jurisprudence and history, etc., when he/she tries to render the Qur'anic prgama-stylistics.

Index Terms—A pragma-stylistic, assessment, Fatir, Qur'an, texts texts, strategies, mistranslations

I. INTRODUCTION

The current paper is a pragama- stylistic study which aims at investigating the stylistic constrains encounter the translators of the Holy Qura'n into English.

A. Objectives of the Study

The study aims at:
a. analyzing the pragma-Stylistic-problems and constraints, encountered by translators while rendering the Holy Qur'an into English.
b. identifying these pragma-Stylistic constraints that the translators face.
c. investigating the strategies used by Abdel-Haleem, Pickthall, Khan, and Hilali in rendering rhetorical expressions in some selected ayahs of the Holy Qur'an..

B. Questions of the Study

To meet the stated objectives, the following research questions were raised:
1. to what extend does Pragma- stylistics constitute as one of the main components of translating the Holy Qur'an into English?.
2. to what extend does Pragma- stylistics offer one of the most effective parameters according to which both the literary competence of the translator and religious and cultural awareness of the reader of the translation of the Holy Qur'an are revealed and gauged?
3. what are the difficulties that the translators of the Holy Quran encounter while translating the Qur'anic rhetorical expressions into English?

II. RELATED LITERATURE

The Concept of Translation

Translation can be defined as: "the placement of textual material in one language by equivalent textual material in another language". (Catford ,1990,p.78)

This definition vaguely refers to the textual material. It does not, however, clearly indicate as to whether the significance is more on the meaning or style or the linguistic elements like the words and sentence structures. Catford's

work" *A Linguistic Theory of Translation(LTT)"* primarily focuses around various processes of translation with special emphasis on the linguistic elements like phonetic, phonological, grammatical and lexical, graphological and other kinds of translation like complete vs. partial, total vs. restricted and the like. He also deals about transliteration. The argument of Catford cannot be underestimated, but the point of concern is that the outlook of Catford is very restricted and narrow and does not satisfactory fulfill the requirements of translation. More important in the process of translation in the conveying of message from one language to the other and the linguistic equivalence is secondary to the thematic equivalence. According to Newmark (1998, p.45):

Translation is such an art wherein the message conveyed through one language is replaced by the same message in the other language.

The examination of various definitions leads us to conclude that translation is such an art whereby the message in the text in one language is transferred into the text of another language. The limitations and constrains involved in the process of translation are of serious concern.

Halliday(1994,p.34), on the other hand, considers translation as"*the relation between the text in the two languages involved,"*. According to him, the texts accomplish the same task under the same circumstances through the two different languages. He has no doubt aptly emphasized upon the significance of meaning. The aspects emerge out of a detailed examination of the viewpoints of various scholars of translation:

- Translation is a linguistic exercise that takes place between two languages.
- The language of the original text is called the source language and the language into which the translation is made is called the target language.
- The text in the target language is called the translated text.
- The process of transfer or re-establishment of the meaning from the source language into the target language is the essence of the art of translation.
- The expression between the SL and TL become synonymous. In other words, they convey the same meaning without distortion.
- Several aspects figure in the process of translation. They include the linguistic aspects, socio-cultural aspects and contextual aspects. A unique combination of all these aspects could result in a successful and meaningful translation.
- The sole aim of the translator is to successfully transfer the essence of the original text in the translated text.

Understanding of ' translation' could be considered in two contexts:

- In an extended context and
- In a restricted context.

Translation in the extended context is considered as the transfer of meaning in one symbolic constitution into the other symbolic constitution. "Symbolic constitution" refers to the structural nuances of the two languages. On the other hand, translation in the restricted sense is considered as the process that takes place between two languages. This primarily refers to the linguistic aspects and the applications of principles to the art of translation. In fact, translation becomes meaningful if any and only if it is considered both in the restricted sense as well as the extended sense.

The term, 'translation proper" means interlingual translation, translation within the same text), and it is in this sense that we have referred to translation so far. But sometimes the term is also used to refer to an intralingual translation (rewording), a process whereby a text in one variety of the language is reworded into another. This would be the case where the message of a text in, say, Old English (OE) is reworded into a text in modern English, or a text in one dialect or style is reworded into another. And we can speak of 'translation' when the replacement involves not another language but another, non-linguistic, means of expression, in other words a different semiotic system. In this sense we can say for instance that a poem is ' translated' into a dance or a picture, a novel into an operator a film. Such transmutations are examples of intersemiotic translation. (Jakobson, 1959/1990, p.232). What all these three processes have in common is that they involve the replacement of one expression of a message or unit of meaningful content by another in a different form.

There have been a number of theories of translation that have been debated about. They include:

i. Linguistic Theory.

ii. Universalist Theory.

iii. Relativist Theory.

While Catford(1991) is the proponent and authority on the linguistic theory of translation, Jakobson, 1959/1990,) has proposed the universal and relativist theories. The theory of translation primarily deals with the linguistic aspects like the structural and lexical equivalences, formal correspondence, transference, transliteration, several types of translation like partial and total translation, phonological and graphalogical translation, translation shifts and the limits of translatability. (Kelly p.1997, p.60) as the name of the theory is indicative, the linguistic theory of translation is mostly concerned about the structure and less about the content/theme. Thus, the linguistic theory of translation fails to take care of the content aspect which is a serious setback to the art of translation. The reason is that the primary purpose of translation is to convey the content/theme from one language to the other without loss or distortion of the theme in the source language; thereby the significance of the thematic accuracy over-rides the linguistic accuracy. There is no exaggeration if it is argued that the linguistic accuracy in translation plays a secondary role. However, the linguistic

aspects should not be made insignificant. It means that while utmost importance is given to the thematic accuracy, linguistic accuracy and correspondence between the SL and TL need to be maintained to the maximum possible extent. It follows that a good translation necessitates an ideal integration of the thematic transfer and linguistic transfer from the SL to TL. (Kelly, p.1997, p.61)

The Universalist theory according to Hewson and Martin is based on an extension of the economic concept of contractual transaction. (Kelly, p.1997, p.68) .The term 'contract' refers to the act of translation. The term 'transaction' refers to the act of conciliation between the two languages and the unification established between them by the process of translation.(By unification is meant the establishment of one to one correspondence between SL text and the TL text not merely from the linguistic aspect but from the thematic aspect as well. According to Martin and Mason,(1997,p.45):

Translation, as a particular form of contract, is an agreement between the two LC is involved to transfer signification on a common convertibility basis in so far it is not detrimental to the specific differences between cultures. The fundamental notion both on the economic and on the translational planes is compromise; i.e., the agreement to remain separate in order to achieve a common goal.

The concept can be exemplified in stating that if the meaning can be generalized to the point of being transferred without major loss from one position to another, it follows that content is relatively independent of the form in which it has been expressed. It also means that socio-culturally determined differences do not constitute the essentials of communication. As these two aspects are highly differentiating and distinctive, they have to be sacrificed to achieve the transaction objective or the purpose of translation. It needs to be noted here that both content and structure go hand in hand in any verbal communication. They cannot be construed as watertight compartments. Logically, it can be clearly stated that language and content are interdependent and no content can be thought of in the absence of structure/language and no structure/language can be thought of without any content. They are so intensely inter-related that one cannot exist without the other. Therefore, in the event of sacrificing the socio-culturally determined differences or content do no justice to ensure the quality of translation and therefore, it does not appear to be reasonable to believe in sacrificing all these aspects.

A good translation or an ideal contract is possible within the scope of a single culture. Therefore, the Universalist conversion envisages the relationship between cultures as possible. But, necessarily, such relationship is only partial or flawed. (Cohen.1990,p.34). Some scholars, however, argue that in spite of diversity of cultures, there exists reasonable quantum of universals based on which the transaction or translation could be considered as reasonable and sufficient though the transaction/ translation excludes the total correspondence or one to one correspondence. They agree that the transfer of the deeper and wider interpretations between the two cultures gets precluded. (Cohen.1990, p.36)

In believing that cultural relationships are contractual transactions, translation can be conceived of as a process of transference based on the criterion of equivalence. Practically, this view boils down to the argument that a sound and reasonable compromise between the structural and thematic equivalences has to be ensured in good translation. Departing a little bit from this view, scholars like Hewson and Martin have preferred to argue that transference is necessarily partial and therefore, translation necessarily involves some loss. They, however, give a word of caution that this possible loss should be kept to the minimum and to the extent possible; it is to be compensated with the normalization of the common core. They conclude that translation consists in constantly perfecting the fundamentally uncontestable compromise.(Devey,1990,p.77).

The relativist theory is concerned with the concept of production within an interactive structure. From this point of view, common core or the universals are not only compressive as non-existence, but they contribute to "denaturing" of communication. The most important aspect in the art of translation is that the essential of signification lies in particulars and differences which can never be Universalist any way, but only exist in proportion to their specificity. It follows that signification can never be repealed, duplicated or transferred; it can only be reformulated and adapted to the ever changing conditions of meaning definition. The point to be taken note of in this context is that "meaning" is the most significant aspect in the art of translation. The act of producing the meaning intact in the language translated into besides the alterations in the factors involved in communication i.e., the medium or language adopted is essential. It is for this reason that constant adaptation is extremely significant and important in the context of translation. (Cohen.1990,p.67)

As stated above, perfect integration and correlation between the structure and content, expression and reality needs to be ensured which is associated with the concept of signification in the context of translation. Drawing the attention to these factors,

Martin and Mason (1997)call this process as "hermeneutic". Meschonnic conceives of translation as a unique combination of "rapport and tension". While rapport refers to a close correspondence between the SL and TL expressions, "tension" refers to the idiosyncrasies particularly in the context of aspects relating to culture. These aspects could be taken care of suitably to make the translation as perfect as possible only through exemplification and explanations of typical and unique cultural and social aspects etc. The exemplifications and explanations so required are called "complexification of perspective" Martin and Mason (1997, p.38).

Keeping in view the contradictions and variations between the above theories, Martin and Mason (1997) propose a "variational approach" to translation. They argue that the most crucial issue in the context of translation is the question of transferring information between cultures. Needless to mention that in spite of existence of universal features and

commonalities across cultures, the differences and unique typical aspects relating to cultures which are specific to each community poses the real problem in the process of translation. The problem is not as intense as it is in the context of a normal simple text, which does not involve the typical and unique characteristics relating to culture, society etc. Thus, it may be noticed that the universal statements which are common all over do not pose any problems of serious concern in the process of translation. According to Martin and Mason,(1997,p.40)

Variation could indeed be defined as the set of all possible formulations that can be associated within given identifiable situations. Any partners at any moment have at their disposal sets of more or less interchangeable, more or less applicable formulations in various degrees of parafrastic nuances that they can be freely adjusted to their communicational objectives. Communication could, then, be conceived as the co-negotiated and contextually motivated selection of (more or less) "predictable communication formulation.

Exemplifying the context of "variation", they further state that:
- The participants in the act of communication have, at all times, some notion of the differences between the formulation options at their disposal and all their common core referential meaning. They are culturally constitutional, the variation range made up of variation options.
- They can relate these options to various contextual determinations or parameters that they can identify.
- The variation range is supposed to correspond to some segment of reality."

The above exemplification of the concept of "variation" leads us to infer that the linguistic formulation on the one hand is varied within certain limits while corresponding to a unique referent and on the other hand, it is strictly determined in terms of context while allowing for a second degree of formal predictability. Thus, the variational approach strikes a compromise between the cultural universals mentioned in the Universalist approach and the irreducible cultural differences in the relativist approach. These arguments boil down to the fact that the social and culture related aspects have to be translated within the permissible range of variation and that efforts to locate and find out "equivalences" would not be a useful exercise. These views of Martin and Mason concur with the earlier argument that in the context of translating/transferring, the cultural and social aspects can be meaningfully presented in the translation only with relevant details and explanatory notes.

The generative process and the variational approach refer to the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations between and across languages that figure in the process of translation. Needless to state that these two kinds of relations are concerned with paraphrasing or interpretation. The normative process is concerned with the cultural equations and mediations and the socio-cultural norms. A unique combination of both generative and normative processes could result in a real good translation without much loss or distortion to the theme and meaning intended in the source language. The reasons offered in favor of the preference to the variational approach compared to the other theories of translation are that the generative and normative stages which are parts of the variational approach are supplementary to each other i.e., they strike a compromise between the linguistic factors and the non linguistic factors. This combination is an essential ingredient of a successful translation. The ideal combination between the two stages ensures the internal coherence between the SL text and the TL text. The variational approach to translation, as propounded by Hewson and Martin has been experienced by specialists in translation over a long period of time.

To come out with the sum and substance of this approach in arguing that it is a challenging task to correctly interpret and present aspects relating to non-linguistic factors like the societal and cultural factors and those relating to customs, habits, traditions, beliefs, myths and the like and that while the texts relating to these aspects are simply translated from SL to TL, the translated text can be made meaningful only by corresponding the context of situation. Otherwise, the translation loses all its significance as the intended sense gets lost.

The contribution of Martin and Mason to the discipline of translation is really appreciable as they have come out with the technical nuances as to how the explanatory notes and the contexts of situations could be integrated with the textual translations. It, therefore, follows that in order to arrive at a good translation, both the generative and normative processes have to be closely inter-related as otherwise the exercise involved in translation would not yield the expected results.

III. METHODOLOGY

This section describes the methodology that is used by the three researchers in collecting data of the current study .

Methods

Descriptive qualitative method was used by the three researcher to collect data, and to fulfill the above-mentioned objectives

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Examples of Pragma-Stylistic Assessment of Some Selected Ayas of Surat Fatir فاطر(Creator, The Angles):

EXAMPLE 1

ST	T1 Abdel-Haleem	T2 Khan and Hilali	T3 Pickthall
الحَمْدُ لِلَّهِ فَاطِرِ السَّمَوَاتِ وَالأَرْضِ (فاطر:1)	Praise be to <u>God</u>, Creator of the heavens and earth.(The Creator:1)	All praise and thanks are Allah's ,the(only)<u>Originator</u>(or the only <u>Creator</u>) of the heavens and the earth(<u>Fatir</u>:1)	Praise be to <u>Allah</u>, <u>the</u> <u>Creator</u> of the heavens and <u>the</u> earth.(The <u>Angles</u>: 1)

The word فاطر(fatir) has many different meanings in Arabic:
a. It means(creator) which means the following:

عامة	الباري؛ الفاطِر؛ الله؛ بارٍ (الباري)	**The Creator**
اسلامية	الخالق	**The Creator**
عامة	المبدع : الله؛ خالق	creator
قانونية	الفاعل؛ المورث؛ المؤلف	creator
الحاسوب	مُبدع	creator
سياسية	مبتكر	**Creator**
عامة	مُصَوَرُ الكائنات	the Creator of the Universe God

(http://www.almaany.com/ar/dict/ar-en/creator/)

The General Meaning of the Intended Ayah

The meaning of this ayah is (All the praises and thanks be to Allah) , therewith , Allah; the Exalted praises and thanks His Honorable Own Self; the praises it is which refers the good description to Allah,(the (only) Originator [or the(only) Creator of the heavens and the eart**h**) without His having some example thereof to imitate (Tafisir Al-Jalalayn, Volume (2) :1245)

Abdel-Haleem and Pickthall rendered الحمد "alhamudu" as praise whereas Khan and Hilali's rendering was" praise and thanks". Khan and Hilali and Pickthall use transliteration النقحرة strategy to renderالله Allah, this may result in better comprehension if the receptor is familiar with the word 'Allah'- the Muslim name for God- which has more divinity, whereas Abdel Haleem use the word" God" throughout his translation of the Surah. Khan and Hilali use the predeterminer "all' directly before the phrasal noun," praise and thanks", whereas Abdel-Hakeem and Pickthall omitted "all' in the beginning of the translated ayah.

Khan and Hilali and Pickthall use the definite article "the " before the noun' earth', whereas this article has been dropped by Abdel Haleem's renderings. The omitting of the definite article "the" is really confusing for the target language (TL) receptor. In the source text, the ال 'al' play a significant textual function but has been omitted in the TL by Abdel Haleem.

The three translators have translated فاطر fatir as" the Creator", therefore their renderings are accurate, appropriate, and relatively equivalent to the Quranic meaning ofفاطر , but khan and Hilali took further step by using transliteration النقحرةto render فاطِر *fatir*. To conclude, the three translations are not as informative as the original.

EXAMPLE 2

ST	T1 Abdel-Haleem	T2 Khan and Hilali	T3 Pickthall
(وَمَا يُعَمَّرُ مِن مُّعَمَّرٍ وَلَا يُنقَصُ مِنْ عُمُرِهِ إِلَّا فِي كِتَابٍ ۚ إِنَّ ذَٰلِكَ عَلَى اللَّهِ يَسِيرٌ) فاطر(11:)	No person grows old or has his life cut short, expect in accordance with a <u>Record</u>: all this is <u>easy</u> for God	And no aged man is granted a length of life nor is a part cut off from his life (or another man's life), but is in <u>a Book</u> (Al-Lauh Al-Mahfuz),Surely that is easy for Allah	And no one growth old who growth old, nor is aught lessened in <u>his</u> life, but is recorded an A Book. Lo! That is <u>easy</u> for Allah.

Khan and Hilali and Pickthall renderedكِتَابٍ "ketab" as "a Book" whereas Abdel-Haleem's rendering was "Record:". Also, Khan and Hilali use explanation and transliteration strategy (النقحرة) الترجمة الصوتية to render,كِتَاب "ketab" into (Al-Lauh Al-Mahfuz),this may result in better comprehension if the receptor is not familiar with the word ",كِتَاب "ketab" . Abdel Haleem used (record) and therefore, his translation for the wordكِتَاب "ketab" is completely out of context. He used literal translation to render the meaning of this lexeme.

The word (yaseer **)** يَسِيرٌ)) is a polysemic word, which has two different meanings:
1. Easyسهل (Tafisir Al-Jalalyan: volume. 2 2009:1666).
3. Concealed خفيا as in' the we withdraw it to Us a a gradual <u>concealed</u> withdrawal' ا)   الفرقان46 يَسِيرَ قَبْضًا إِلَيْنَا قَبَضْنَاهُ ثُمَّ).

All the three translators have accurately translated the lexeme yaseer يَسِيرٌ which means in this context (easy).

EXAMPLE 3

ST	T1 Abdel-Haleem	T2 Khan and Hilali	T3 Pickthall
هُمْ يَصْطَرِخُونَ فِيهَا رَبَّنَا أَخْرِجْنَا نَعْمَلْ صَالِحًا غَيْرَ الَّذِي كُنَّا نَعْمَلُ ۚ أَوَلَمْ نُعَمِّرْكُم مَّا يَتَذَكَّرُ فِيهِ مَن تَذَكَّرَ وَجَاءَكُمُ النَّذِيرُ ۖ فَذُوقُوا فَمَا لِلظَّالِمِينَ مِن نَّصِيرٍ (فاطر:37)	And they will cry out loud in Hell, 'Lord, let us out ; We will do righteous deed – not what we did before! did we not give you a life long enough to take warning if you were going to?Did a warner not come to you? now taste (the punishment), the evildoers will have nobody to help them.'(Fatir:37)	Therein they will cry: "Our Lord! Bring us out, we shall do righteous good deeds, not (the evil deeds) that we used to do." (Allah will reply): "Did We not give you lives long enough, so that whosoever would receive admonition, - could receive it? And the warner came to you. So taste you (the evil of your deeds). For the Zalimun (polytheists and wrong-doers, etc.) there is no helper." .(Fatir:37)	And they cry for help there, (saying): Our Lord! Release us; we will do right, not (the wrong) that we used to do. Did not We grant you a life long enough for him who reflected to reflect therein? And the warner came unto you. then taste (the flavour of your deeds), for evil-doers have no helper.(Fatir:37)

The General Meaning of the Intended Ayah

The meaning of this ayah is (Therein they will cry) i.e. there in Hellfire, they will be crying out beseeching Allah, (**Our Lord! Bring us out, we shall do righteous good deeds, not (the evil deeds) that we used to do.**" Means, they will be insistently praying to be brought back to the life of the world, so that they could perform deeds unlike (the evils) they used to do before; yet, the Lord(Allah), may He be glorified, totally knows the fact that if he sent them back to the life of the world, they would go back to what they had been forbidden to do , and He knows that they are but lying; hence, to their beseech , He will not respond. This is why Allah says: (**Did We not give you lives long enough, so that whosoever would receive admonition, - could receive it? And the warner came to you**) meanings, " Have you not been granted such a life span that were you among those who benefit from the truth, you would have surely benefited from it during the span of life you were granted?". (**So taste you (the evil of your deeds). For the Zalimun (polytheists and wrong-doers, etc.) there is no helper**.) meaning." So.taste the torment of the Fire, as a punishment for your opposing the Prophets during your life span; for, verily, today you will have no helper to save you from the torment and fetters you are suffering. (Tafisir Ibn Kathir (Abridge) Volume (3): 1801)

The irony in all versions has translated literally. If we look at Abdel-Haleem's translation to the ironical lexical words فَذُوقُوا fadhūqū (then you taste), we noticed that he has used literal translation strategy to come up with exact or better meaning. The same strategy Pickthall has used when translated the ironical lexical words (then taste you), into English uses literal translation, since according to him, translated the above ironical structure might come up with better equivalence. In addition, both paraphrases between two brackets to the Arabic ironical word فَذُوقُوا fadhūqū (then taste you) in three versions is different. If we look at Pickthal's paraphrases, we notice that he paraphrases the ironical word فَذُوقُوا fadhūqū (then taste you) into the fruits of your deeds. While in ‹Khan and Hilali's translation, they paraphrase it as the flavour of your deeds. Syntactically, both translations resulted in different syntactic structures. If we look at Khan and Hilali's translation to the underlined ironical structure, it is found that the structure has started with the conjunction ,'so', which is an indication for the consequences of events, then followed by the verbفَذُوقُوا fadhūqū reflecting similar lexical irony as in the Arabic text. In addition, the verb فَذُوقُوا fadhūqū is an order action set already by Allah to the unbelievers on the doomsday. This is unlike Abdel-Haleem's translation, where he also starts his translation with the adverb of time „now" an indication for the consequence of the events. Then the verbal sentence taste" as a verb order of the ironical structureفَذُوقُوا fadhūqū (then taste you) to the unbelievers when they (unbelievers) ignored Allah's warnings. (Kadhim, 2000).

V. CONCLUSIONS

A. Results in a Nutshells

1. There are various instances where prgama –stylistic details are given in the Holy Quran. These prgama –stylistic expressions are usually rendered by literal rendering or performing transliteration. The translators are often unable to analyze these cultural terms and aspects of the Holy Quran and neither are they able to find the best and closest expressions to convey the same meaning and images.

2. It is extremely difficult to translate the Qur'an literally because the Arabic terms, expressions, and lexemes often have multiple literal meanings and are often used figuratively. In addition, many forms of Arabic lexical structures contain nuances of meaning that cannot be translated into another language owing to linguistic barriers. Therefore, the translations of the Holy Quran are largely based on interpretation, paraphrasing, and explanation of the source text.

B. Implications and Recommendations for Future Research

This study and other similar studies can play a role in enhancing the translational knowledge, understanding, and performance of students. Moreover, the study can support teaching Arabic to English translations in Arab universities. Students can potentially benefit from this study in the application of the knowledge of translational techniques and strategies to holy texts such as Qur'an.

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Oral Reading Intervention for an English Language Learner: A Single-case Design

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Abstract—The purpose of this paper was to investigate the effectiveness of conducting a reading intervention in a public primary school setting in Chinese vernacular school in Malaysia. Literature indicated that struggling readers did not master letter-sound correspondences despite the phonics was emphasised in to date curriculum. One male learner who was identified by his classroom teacher as needing special assistance in reading performance participated this research. Using a single-case research design, the participant's oral reading fluency (ORF) in terms of word correct per minute (WCPM) was measured. Several nonparametric statistics methods, such as Tau and percentage of nonoverlapping data (PND) were applied to compute the degree of association and effectiveness of the intervention, respectively. Visual analysis was carried out to interpret the graph. The data collected was also compared with the updated ORF norm that was established in the United States. The results revealed that the reading intervention facilitated the improvement of ORF of the participant. The significant implications and future research recommendations on the development of reading intervention were highlighted.

Index Terms—reading difficulties, phonics, oral reading fluency, single-case research design

I. INTRODUCTION

The Ministry of Education in Malaysia has implemented the Standardized Curriculum for Primary School (KSSR) with the goal of fostering learners' phonics in standard British English starting from Primary One (Ali, Hamid & Moni, 2012). However, there are learners still struggling to master the phonics to read (Su & Hawkins, 2013). Regardless to the sociolinguistic background of the learners, all of them learn English language as a second language (ESL) compulsorily in Malaysian public schools. Educators (Chitravelu, Sithamparam & Teh, 2005) reported the common pattern of oral reading problems that the Malaysian ESL learners encountered according to their ethnicities and their first language (L1; see examples Chitravelu et al., 2005). The negative interference from the L1 happens among the Malaysian ESL learners during English oral reading because of the lack of familiarity with their second language (L2; Khor, Low, & Lee, 2014; Pillai & Paramasivam, 2014). It is not an unusual phenomenon for ESL learners to get confused between languages in Malaysia.

Scholars defined struggling readers are those having problems to translate the printed or handwritten words (visual stimuli) into oral language (verbal response) accurately and fluently (Carnine, Silbert, Kame'ennui, Tarver, & Jungjohann et al., 2006). Despite the struggling readers may be skillful in daily language use, thus, they have no problem in daily conversation, they are cognitively challenged in literacy. Learners come from all walks of life and have varying degrees of literacy abilities. The whole-language approach does not work well for learners with reading disabilities, considering the different background of each learner (Turkington & Harris, 2006). Educators understand that there is no single best recipe for the pedagogy on reading. Even though phonics is taught in the schools, phonics alone is insufficient to nurture excellent readers because one size does not fit all.

Hitherto, research on effectiveness of oral reading intervention was heavily done in the United States learners using single-case research design (e.g., Lo, Cooke & Starling, 2011; Tam, Heward & Heng, 2006; Young & Daly, 2016). To delve it deeper, comparatively, similar research design on evaluating the effectiveness of oral reading intervention in English as a second language (ESL) nation such as Malaysia is very rare (Su & Hawkins, 2013).

Since struggling readers have problems in sounding out the printed words accurately and fluently, reading accuracy and fluency can be used to gauge the progression of the readers. Such literacy-related skills are the important factors to predict a child's reading abilities, and hence, are rational to be addressed in a reading intervention.

The primary goal of delivering reading intervention to an emerging English as a second language (ESL) reader who was struggling to master letter-sound correspondence in the present study was to provide an explicit an and systematic

way of acquiring phonemic awareness, phonics, and fluency through repeated readings. This research is significant contributing valuable guidelines and evidences into the successful practicing oral reading intervention, particularly in light of the work of providing a one-on-one reading therapy for young learner, who is identified as facing reading difficulties at early primary school year. This research sought to answer the research question: What is the effect of a phonics-based intervention on the oral reading fluency of an ESL learner? This present study did not focus on the group average outcome, which ignores individual performance. Instead, the focus of this study was on the individual as a unit of analysis where a single-case research design was employed.

II. METHOD

The aim of this paper was to examine the effectiveness of a reading intervention for a primary school learner. Single-case research design fits the purpose of this research appropriately. First, this design is practical to provide intervention to the specific participants, who are performing poorly at large-scale studies (Horner et al., 2005). Second, this design is appropriate to track and to evaluate the effects of the intervention on the behaviour at the level of a targeted participant, intensively (Byiers, Reichle & Symons, 2012). Third, this design enables researchers to obtain feedback immediately from the participant's reading performance, instead of spending time deriving entire data and making statistical inferences to draw conclusions regarding the causal relationships between variables (Lammers & Badia, 2004).

A. Setting and Participant

This research was conducted in a Malaysian public elementary school, the National Type (Chinese) School (hereafter SJKC), where Mandarin is the main medium of instruction, while Malay language, the national language is a compulsory subject to be learned as well (Ali et al., 2011). Learners were exposed to Highly Immersive Program (e.g. English language is used during the school assembly, every Friday is English day) and other annual English panel activities. The Primary One learners were exposed to English language during class time (six hours weekly).

The participant, henceforth known as Alex (pseudonym) was recruited through a purposive sampling method. With the referral of the Primary One classroom English language teacher, Alex was identified as needing intensive assistance to master letter-sound correspondence, participated this research after informed consent was obtained from his parents. The first author decided to include Alex in this research because he fulfilled both the inclusionary and exclusionary criteria. His ORF performance was below the 25th percentile (Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2017) and he did not encounter with any disabilities that affected his ability to speak or hear (i.e., he was neither mute nor deaf) based on the school official record.

At the time of the research, Alex was 6 years and 6 months old. He and family lived in a local village, five minutes' drive from the school. He was nominated by his classroom English language teacher as he needed special help to master English letter-sound correspondence. Alex is an Iban (an indigenous ethnic group in Borneo). Iban language is his first language.

B. Research Design and Dependent Variables

The current research applied a single-case research design. There were three main phases throughout the study, namely baseline phase (Phase A), intervention phase (Phase B), and maintenance phase (Phase C). Word correct per minute (WCPM; Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2017) was the unit to measure and record the dependent variable (DV) for the ORF in each session across all phases of this research.

C. Data Collection and Procedures

All the phases of this research were carried out in a room with minimal distraction. This room was assigned by the school administrators. The availability of Alex to the research sessions was determined by his classroom teacher.

1. Baseline Phase (Phase A)

A passage extracted from the Fitzroy Reader (Berryman & O'Carroll, 2002) was presented to Alex. Alex was instructed to read the passage aloud. The first author measured the DV. Neither explicit cueing nor the correction feedbacks were given if the Alex did not know the word.

2. Intervention Phase (Phase B)

Each intervention session lasted approximately 45 minutes. There were two to three sessions weekly. The first author was the interventionist. Phonics, keywords preview, repeated readings, and corrective feedback were presented to the participant. By the end of each session, the DV was measured.

Using letter cards, the new sounds were introduced to the participant. The letters and the corresponding letter sounds were demonstrated to the participant explicitly. When the participant blended or segmented the sounds, immediate corrective feedback was given to the participant if there was a mistake.

The first author signaled the participant to sound out the cued letter. If there was a mistake, correction was given and the participant was guided to say it again. The first author explicitly instructed the letter-sound correspondence by demonstrating the sounds, offered discrimination exercise with other taught sounds until the participant was able to respond all the sounds correctly (Carnine et al., 2006).

The keywords preview comprised of CVC vocabulary and high frequency vocabulary. The CVC vocabulary included the word families, which were derived from the corresponding phonics that were instructed at the beginning of the intervention session. For example, *bat*, *cat*, *mat*, and *sat* are derived from *a*, *b*, *c*, *m*, *s*, and *t*.

The high frequency vocabulary (e.g., *and*, *on*, and *in*) was the essential vocabulary to equip the participant's understanding the text and provided exposure to the participant on sight words.

The vocabulary was modeled by holding the phonemes for about two seconds and without pausing between the phonemes, then the participant was led to say it at usual speed (Carnine et al., 2006).

The repeated readings (RR), which is approved as a universally appropriate strategy to help young readers to achieve certain degree of fluency by reading the material (Samuels, 1997). The participant read the passage twice. After RR, the WCPM was recorded at the end of the session.

3. Maintenance Phase (Phase C)

Three passages with similar readability that contained the exact words, which Alex was exposed to throughout the Phase B, were used to assess the DV for the Phase B.

D. Data Analysis

Such single-case research is a quantitative research, so statistics measurement was inevitable to analyse and interpret the data. To determine the likelihood that results obtained from a sample are the same results that would have been obtained for the entire population who are struggling readers, inferential statistics are welcomed. Parametric tests are very common in determining the significance level of the results. Despite the parametric procedures are more powerful to detect the statistical significance, a nonparametric test was used in this research based on two reasons below. Firstly, the first author assumed that the data collected from the participant throughout the research are not distributing normally in the population. Secondly, all the data are frequency in scale. These reasons grossly violate the parametric test assumptions, so a nonparametric test, the Kendall tau coefficient (τ, hereafter Tau; Kendall, 1938), was considered in this research. The data collected from this research was further inspected using visual analysis, where the overlapping of data was justified using the percentage of nonoverlapping data (PND; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1998). Furthermore, the WCPM of the participant was compared with the updated ORF norm which was established in the United States (Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2017). To enhance the reliability of the DV collected, the interobserver agreement (IOA) was computed.

The Tau (Kendall, 1938), a nonparametric rank correlation coefficient is appropriate to be used to compute the correlation effect size of such simple single-case research (Tarlow, 2017). Traditionally, the Tau values range from –1 to +1; if the Tau value is greater than 0 and closer to +1, then there is a stronger the association between the variables; if the Tau value is less than 0, then the opposite is true; if the Tau value = 0, there is no relationship between the variables (Gibbons, 1993; Tarlow, 2017). If necessary, the *p* value may be interpreted along with the Tau value using a free online calculator (Tarlow, 2016).

Subjective visual inspection (Kratochwill et al., 2010) was used to describe the trend of the baseline data, the immediacy effect of the intervention, and whether the participant return to the baseline during the maintenance. The level of the data was determined by computing the average WCPM within each phase.

The PND (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1998) was calculated to determine the effectiveness of the intervention by comparing the data between Phase A and Phase B. The steps involved in calculating PND were (a) divided the count of Phase B data points that did not exceed the extreme Phase A data by the total count of Phase B data; (b) converted the figure into percentage; and (c) compared the percentage to the scale as presented in Appendix A.

When the PND of an intervention is less than 50%, the effectiveness of that particular intervention is ineffective. If the PND ranges between 50% and 70%, the effectiveness is questionable. The intervention is considered as effective only when its PND score is between 70% and 90%. If the PND is higher than 90%, the intervention is very effective (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1998).

Furthermore, the WCPM of the participant was compared with the updated ORF norm which was established in the United States (see Appendix B; Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2017). The Grade 1 winter fluency norm was appropriate to be compared given that there were no Malaysian norms of the similar age/grade level in ORF. Moreover, this research was carried out at the mid of the first semester of Primary One. In that ORF norm, there was no scales for the Grade 1 fall. Therefore, the Grade 1 winter fluency norm was reasonable to act as the standard for comparing this research data.

To enhance the reliability of this research, a postgraduate student served as an interobserver for this research. According to the interobserver agreement (Tam et al., 2006) formulae,

$$\text{percentage of agreement} = (\text{number of agreements} \div \text{total of selected records}) \times 100$$

(1).

A 38.46% of Alex's oral reading responses records were randomly selected by the interobserver to determine the WCPM. Then, the first author compared, either agreed or disagreed, both WCPM that rated by her and the interobserver with respect to the oral reading response. Using this WCPM comparing method, the equation (1) was used to compute the IOA. The first author divided the count of agreed WCPM by the total count of selected oral reading responses records, then multiplied it by 100. The IOA was 100%.

III. FINDINGS

The result of Tau = 0.707, *p* = .021, suggests that, the intervention was associated with the improvement in ORF; the effect was sufficient to reject the null hypothesis (*p* > .05), hence, the association between the intervention and the WCPM scores exists. The Tau value, which was greater than 0 and closer to 1, indicated a strong positive association between the intervention and the ORF results.

TABLE I.
ALEX'S ORF SCORES

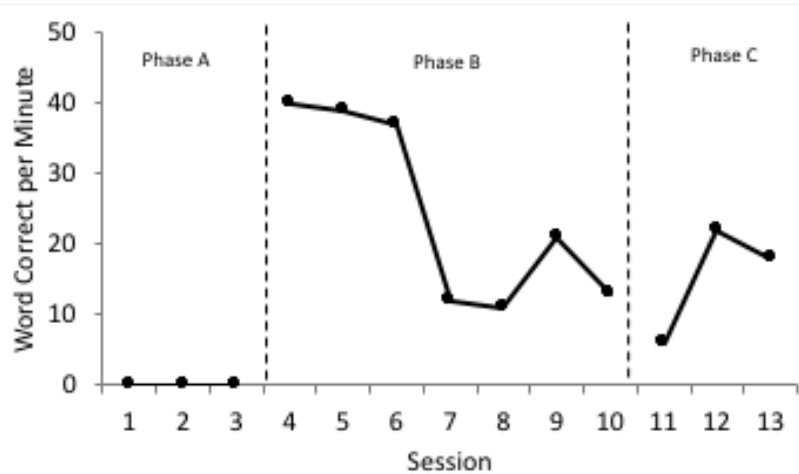| Phase	A			B							C		
Session	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
WCPM	0	0	0	40	39	37	12	11	21	13	6	22	18

Figure 1. The result of oral reading fluency in term of word correct per minute (WCPM) of Alex across three phases, namely Phase A, Phase B, and Phase C, which are equivalent as baseline, intervention, and maintenance, respectively.

Table I charts Alex's ORF scores in terms of WCPM for each session across three phases. In the phase A, there were three baseline sessions. Alex was unable to decode all the words presented in three different ORF passages. The first author observed that he read the text by saying all the letter names loudly, clearly, correctly and confidently. All the zero scores alarmed the first author that such floor effect would remain unimproved, if left unaddressed. Hence, the first author decided to impose the intervention.

Upon the implementation of intervention in the Phase B, Alex began to able blend the sounds to form word when reading! There were seven intervention sessions in the Phase B and inevitably, he scored lower in terms of WCPM whenever he was introduced to a new and less familiar ORF passages. There were altogether four ORF passages exposed to Alex. The Phase B was forced to call to an end due to the consecutive ad-hoc national and state public holidays as a result of the general election and followed by the school first semester examinations.

After two weeks of the final session of the Phase C and right before the one-month school holiday began, the first author revisited Alex to conduct the Phase C sessions. There were three maintenance sessions to follow up Alex's ORF. It was inspiring that Alex did not 'unlearn' the decoding skills and managed to read the ORF passages without guidance and feedbacks.

Fig. 1 illustrates a clear pattern that Alex showed immediate improvement once the intervention was imposed at the initial of Phase B. Despite the decline in performance in term of WCPM, Alex did not return to the baseline (thus, the floor effect as in the Phase A) when the intervention was withdrawn in the Phase C.

TABLE II.
THE LEVEL OF PARTICIPANT IN TERMS OF WCPM ACROSS PHASES

Phase	Level (WCPM)
A	0
B	24.7
C	15.3

Table II shows the level of ORF of Alex across three phases. In the phase A, the average ORF score of Alex is 0, while Alex managed to achieve 24.7 WCPM in the Phase B. It is exciting to witness that the level of the first three intervention sessions in the Phase B of Alex is 38.7 (refer to Table I), which demonstrates a rapid improvement from the floor effect to such rocket high record. The WCPM level drops to 15.3 in the Phase C. It is compelling to notice that the level of the final three intervention sessions in the Phase B is 15.0 (refer to Table I) and it does not have high variability when comparing to the level of Phase C. In addition, the Phase C level is significantly higher than the Phase A floor effect.

The effect size of this research is determined by the PND. When comparing the data between the Phase A and Phase B, the PND = 100%, which means the intervention is very effective (see Appendix A).

The level of ORF scores in the Table II was compared with the fluency norms (Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2017; see Appendix B). Initially, Alex's WCPM falls under the 10th percentile in the Phase A, where there was neither guidance nor intervention. After the intervention was carried out in the Phase B, the level of WCPM reaches between the 50th and the 75th percentile. Towards the end of the intervention, even though Alex still had not reach the 90th percentile, he was approaching the 25th percentile during the follow-up in the Phase C.

IV. DISCUSSION

This research is examined the effects of conducting an intervention to improve the oral reading skills of a learner who struggled with reading. Being an ESL learner, exposure to the letters of the alphabet (i.e., names and sounds) provided the participant with the letter-sound correspondent necessary to boost his ability to blend simple CVC sounds needed to provide him with the foundation to decode and read fluently. The student made improvements after receiving one-to-one intervention which lasted 45 minutes for seven sessions. This study shows that by focusing on a single case as a unit of analysis using single-case research design provides researchers and practitioners with the tools to focus on individualized intervention. This study is not without limitation. Further investigations must be carried out on participants with similar baseline characteristics; the maintenance phase must be revisited to ensure that over the next 6-12 months, the participant continues to maintain his performance. To date, there was no any intervention studies that was using the Fitzroy Readers as main material, to compare and contrast the findings. Future studies should focus on the effectiveness of Fitzroy Readers as an intervention material for more learners with other learning disabilities.

APPENDIX A. EFFECTIVENESS SCALE FOR PND[1]

PND Score (%)	Effectiveness
< 50	Ineffective
≥ 50 and > 70	Questionable
≥ 70 and > 90	Effective
≥ 90	Very Effective

APPENDIX B. GRADE 1 WINTER FLUENCY NORM[2]

Percentile	10	25	50	75	90
WCPM	9	16	29	59	97

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1: See [15] for more details.
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The Relationship between Morphological Awareness and Vocabulary Knowledge of Thai EFL Students

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Abstract—This study focuses on the relationship between morphological awareness and vocabulary knowledge of English among Thai EFL university students. All participants are taking English language as their major field in the universities situated at the lower northern region of Thailand. The morphological awareness identification test was employed to identify the linkage between morphological awareness and vocabulary gain Thai EFL learners. The test was divided into 2 parts: self-checking and morpheme identification. Fifty English vocabularies in intermediate and upper-intermediate level were used in the test in which the participants were requested to check whether they have seen the vocabularies in the test and also asked to break those vocabularies into morphemic units. The results showed that the participants possessed an adequate level of morphological awareness to break words into morphemes correctly even though they were unknown words of the participants. Additionally, the findings also revealed that there is no significant difference between male and female in acquiring morphological awareness of English and gaining English vocabularies.

Index Terms—morphological awareness, vocabulary knowledge, EFL learners, university students

I. INTRODUCTION

As learning in the 21st century, learners are required to acquire leaning skills, literacy skills, and life skills and improve those skills to be in the digital age successfully (Thoughtful Learning, 2017). Literacy skill is the skill that learners need to have so that they are able to read and write fluently to apply, analyze, and evaluate texts in different forms (National Council of Teacher of English, 2013). Therefore, building and strengthening vocabulary knowledge is important for literacy skill development.

As mentioned, vocabulary knowledge is essential to develop learner's literacy skill; learners need to have sufficient knowledge and use their prior knowledge to identify words in reading and to take ideas and organize them in writing because reading and writing skills are the processes of constructing word meaning (Tomkins, 2013). Vocabulary knowledge links to morphological awareness because it leads to vocabulary acquisition. Calisle (2003) defined morphological awareness is the ability to reflect on and manipulate morphological units in word structure. Additionally, Freitas Junior, Mota, Deacon (2018) also mentioned that morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning that construct words. Then, if leaners acquire and understand that a word consists of morphemes; they will be able to identify words even though they have not seen those words. As McBride-Chang, Tong, and Wong's study (2009), morphological awareness is increasingly important as a strong predictor of vocabulary knowledge. It can be referred that learners who possess morphological awareness, they can extract and understand words even those words are unfamiliar to them.

Nagy and Anderson (1984) reported that children may learn 3,000 unknown words per year when they read texts. Moreover, children between the age of 12 months and 18 years can acquire 10 words per day if they hear new vocabularies used in their environment (Bloom, 2002). It is, therefore, the awareness of morphological structure which is significant to literacy and vocabulary developmental levels of performance (Wolter & Pike, 2015). Thus, morphological awareness also has an impact on learner's vocabulary knowledge; learners can acquire more complex words faster and successfully when they understand the structure of words or they possess morphological awareness.

Morphological awareness is also related to language acquisition in which it leads to literacy skills as well as vocabulary knowledge. According to Osborne and Mulling's research (2001), there is the negative effect of lacking morphological awareness towards English vocabulary acquisition of Spanish-speaking ESL learners. The researchers found that in those students have limited knowledge of English inflectional and derivational morphology. Furthermore, Choi (2015) studied about the role of L1 (Korean) and L2 (English) derivational morphological awareness in L2 (English) reading through the mediation of L2 (English) vocabulary knowledge and found that L2 (English) deviational morphological awareness directly affects to L2 (English) reading comprehension in which ESL are struggling to learn to read new words. It is because if inflectional and derivational morphology processing is problematic, it affects the process of L2 vocabulary acquisition. Furthermore, Masri (2016) found that there are some significant relationships between knowledge of regular inflection and derivation and L2 vocabulary knowledge of Arabic EFL learners in which native Arabic EFL learners have difficulty extracting the irregular base words.

According to Thailand education system, English is one of subjects in basic education core curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008) (Ministry of Education, 2009). Thus, students are required to study English as a foreign language from preschool until university level. Those students have to acquire English language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. However, the EF English Proficiency Index from 2011-2017 reported that Thailand has been ranked at a low level of English proficiency among countries in Asia. In 2017, Thailand was ranked 15 from 20 countries in Asia. Furthermore, several research revealed that Thais are struggling in using and communicating in English because they have not reached appropriate levels of English proficiency for international communication needs (Chaunchaisit & Prapphal, 2009; Jarupan, 2013; Verhoeven & Perfetti, 2003; Wiriyachitra, 2001).

In order to have good or excellent proficiency in English language skills, vocabulary knowledge is a major role in the formation of complete spoken and written texts (Nation, 2001). As mentioned earlier, morphological awareness is important for vocabulary knowledge in which this awareness links to being literate (Zhang & Koda, 2013) ; therefore, it is better to take a long, hard look at morphological awareness so that learners can understand and acquire new words to use them to learn reading and writing successfully.

To clarify the relationship of morphological awareness and English vocabulary knowledge of EFL learners and to explore whether gender relates to morphological awareness, the present study addresses two questions: (1) Does morphological awareness relate to vocabulary knowledge of Thai EFL university students? and (2) Is there any difference of morphological awareness between male and female EFL students?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Morphological Awareness

Morphological awareness has been variously defined. For example, Carlisle (2003) mentioned that morphological awareness as the ability to think about and identify word structure. Similarly, morphological awareness also refers to learner's ability to analyze the smallest unit (morpheme) of word structure (Berninger, Abbott, Nagy, & Carlisle, 2010). McCutchen and Stull (2015) explained that morphological awareness is a metalinguistic insight that word can be isolated into small meaningful units. Additionally, Koda, Sun, and Zhang (2014) added that this awareness is a multidimensional competence that leads to different aspects and level of insights. It means that morphological awareness is the ability to identify, analyze, and break words into morphological units or morphemes. However, it depends on individual performance to develop one's self to have more complex level of the awareness.

Since morphological awareness is the ability to identify and break words into the smallest units which carry meanings, therefore, it can be said that meaningful units are formed in the process of word formation in which each unit is called as morpheme (Finegan, 2008). Morphemes can be divided into two types: free and bound. Free morpheme is a morpheme that can stand alone as a word: father, mouse, happy etc. On the other hand, bound morpheme is a morpheme that cannot stand alone which can be referred to affixes (Rispens, McBride-Chang, & Reitsma, 2008; Finegan, 2008; Verhoeven & Perfetti, 2003). Bound morphemes are used for word formation process: derivation and inflection. As the derivation process, the morpheme called as derivational morpheme is added to a root word to change the part of speech of the word (Finegan, 2008). For example, the word "work", which acts as the verb, can be changed into the noun "worker" by adding the derivational morpheme "er" meaning someone or something that performs the actions. Meanwhile, the morpheme added to a root word in word formation process is referred to the inflectional morpheme which creates variant form of word to conform to different roles in a sentence such as tense, number, and degree (Finegan, 2008). For instance, the sentence "I walk" is present tense. The inflectional morpheme "-ed" is added to the verb "walk" (present tense) as "walked" (past tense) to change the sentence from present tense to past tense.

B. Morphological Awareness and Vocabulary Knowledge

Vocabulary knowledge is a critical component to learn language (Hayashi & Murphy, 2011). Several studies have been documented that there is a linkage between morphological awareness and vocabulary knowledge. McBride-Chang, Wagner, Muse, Chow, and Shu (2005) did research on the role of morphological awareness in children's vocabulary acquisition in English and found that morphological structure awareness and morpheme identification together predicted an additional unique 10% of variance in vocabulary knowledge, for a total of 58% of the variance explained; that is, both morphological structure awareness and morpheme identification tests were uniquely associated with vocabulary knowledge.

In addition, Wolter and Pike (2015) also confirmed that there is a relationship between morphological awareness and vocabulary knowledge. The participants in their study asked to define 16 derived morphologically complex words and the result of the test revealed that those participants could reflect on known morphological units and many of them successfully inferred the meaning of unknown words. Similarly, McCutchen and Stull (2015) insisted that morphological awareness assists word production for students in their study. In other words, when learners are aware of word structure; they can acquire new and unknown words and also know how to make words and segment words into morphemes

C. Morphological Awareness and Vocabulary Knowledge in EFL Contexts

As morphological awareness is an important factor for vocabulary knowledge. There are many researchers who studied morphological awareness and vocabulary knowledge of leaners of English as a second of foreign language (ESL/EFL) (Nurhemida, 2007; Lam, Chen, Geva, Luo, Li, 2012; Hayashi & Murphy, 2011). Nurhemida (2007) studied the relationship between morphological awareness and English vocabulary knowledge of Indonesian senior high school students and found that there was a significant relationship between the students' performance in the vocabulary level test and the morphological awareness tasks. Additionally, Lam, Chen, Geva, Luo, and Li (2012) researched on roles of L1 and L2 derivational morphological awareness in L2 reading through the mediation of L2 vocabulary knowledge of Korean EFL students. The results revealed that L2 vocabulary knowledge had a significant relationship with L2 derivational morphological awareness and reading comprehension. According to Hayashi and Murphy's study on morphological awareness in Japanese learners of English, it showed that L2 vocabulary knowledge can be explained by higher degrees of metalinguistic awareness that includes explicit knowledge of morphological segments (Hayashi & Murphy, 2011).

III. METHODS

A. Participants

The participants of this study were Thai EFL university freshmen in lower northern region of Thailand who are taking bachelor's degree majoring in English. Systemic sampling was used to choose 100 university freshmen from four universities in the region.

B. Design

The researcher used the quantitative method to collect data. In this case, the researcher followed a methodology suggested by Creswell (2003) in which data was collected and explained the probable relationship between independent and dependent variables. In this case, the independent variable was gender; meanwhile, the dependent variables were morphological awareness and vocabulary knowledge. Then, the researcher tested the relationship of morphological awareness and vocabulary knowledge.

C. Instrument

The morpheme identification test was applied as research instrument to collect quantitative data. The test was adapted from Nelson-Denney Reading Test which is a reading survey test for high school students, college students, and adults that measures vocabulary development, comprehension, and reading rate. Additionally, the list of vocabularies in the morpheme identification test was derived from Cambridge Vocabulary for IELTS by Cullen (2008).

D. Procedure

The participants were given the test which contained 50 complex words. The test was divided into 2 parts: self-checking and morpheme breakdown. To do the test, the participants were asked to check the 50 words whether they knew them or not. They had to check by using a tick if they knew the words (√). If not, using a cross (x) was for unknown words. After self-checking, the participants were also requested to complete the test by identifying the words in the previous part and breaking them into morphological units within an hour. The scores were given if the participants could correctly break a word into morpheme

E. Data Source and Analysis

The quantitative data analysis was conducted with data obtained from the morpheme identification test. Descriptive statistic was employed to summarize the scores from the test. In addition, Pearson Correlation Coefficient was also used to find out the relationship between morphological awareness and vocabulary knowledge of Thai EFL university freshmen.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this study, the researcher investigated the relationship between morphological awareness and vocabulary knowledge of Thai EFL university students in the lower northern region of Thailand. Additionally, the present study elicited information on gender and morphological awareness. The results gained from 100 participants were analyzed as follows:

TABLE I.
THE NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGE OF PARTICIPANTS (N=100)

Gender	Total (%)
Male	24 (24.0%)
Female	76 (76.0%)

According to Table I, it revealed the numbers and percentage of participants joined in this study in which there were 24 male students (24.0%) and 76 female students (76.0%).

TABLE II.
OVERALL SCORE, MEAN SCORE, AND STANDARD DERIVATION (N=100)

	Score (50)
Lowest	7.0
Highest	41.0
Mean score (Mean ± Standard Derivation *SD*)	28.42 ±6.45

Furthermore, Table II showed the mean score of the test which was 28.42 out of 50 points with the standard derivation (SD) 6.45. As shown in Table II, it was also found that the highest score was 41 points and the lowest score was 7 points.

To clarify more about the scores gained from the test, it can be separated into ranges as shown in Table II

TABLE III.
THE RANGE OF SCORES FROM THE TEST (N=100)

Range	Number (Percentage %)
0-10	1 (1.0)
11-20	10 (10.0)
21-30	55 (55.0)
31-40	33 (33.0)
41-50	1 (1.0%)

According to Table III, it was found that 55% of the participants was in the score range of 21 to 30; meanwhile, 33% of them had a score with a range between 31 and 40. The 10% of the participants had scores from 11 to 20 and 1% was at 0-11 points and 41-50 points, respectively.

As seen in Table IV, gains in vocabulary were apparently associated with morphological awareness which referred that there was the positive and linear relationship between vocabulary knowledge and morphological awareness. That is,

TABLE IV.
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MORPHOLOGICAL AWARENESS AND VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE

Score Item	N	x̄	SD	Pearson Correlation	Sig
Vocabulary Knowledge	100	33.69	7.57	0.560*	0.000
Morphological Awareness	100	28.50	6.53		

* $p < 0.01$

the mean score of vocabulary knowledge and morphological awareness was 33.69 with SD 7.57 and 28.50 with SD 6.53 respectively. The reliability of the relationship of morphological awareness and vocabulary knowledge was at $p < 0.01$ (99 %).

In addition, the researcher investigated whether there was any difference between male and female in perceiving morphological awareness which could be linked to vocabulary knowledge. The results showed that there was not any significant difference between male and female participants as illustrated in Table V. The scores obtained from the participants (24 male and 76 female) revealed that the mean score of male was 30.58 points with SD 4.50; meanwhile,

TABLE V.
THE MORPHOLOGICAL AWARENESS SCORES OF MALE AND FEMALE PARTICIPANTS

Gender	N	x̄	SD	t	Sig
Male	24	30.58	4.50	1.910*	0.059
Female	76	27.74	6.84		

*$p < 0.05$

the mean score of female was 27.74 with SD 6.84. Therefore, it could be implied that the morphological awareness of male and female was not significantly different.

Based on the results of the present study, it could be discussed that morphological awareness can be linked to the acquisition of vocabulary and vocabulary knowledge. In other words, the awareness of word structure or morphological awareness is the predicator of acquiring and gaining new words of learners. The results were consistent with McBride-Chang, Wagner, Muse, Chow, and Shu's research (2005), morphological awareness can apparently predict the ability of perceiving vocabulary and having vocabulary knowledge. It was similar to the study of Zhang and Koda (2013) which mentioned that this awareness enables learners to understand and acquire new words to use them to learn reading and writing successfully. Moreover, the results of the present study was also related to Wolter and Pike's study (2015) in which the participants in their study could reflect on known morphological units and many of them successfully inferred the meaning of unknown words. Therefore, it could be concluded that there is a relationship between morphological awareness and vocabulary knowledge.

Due to the present study conducted in the EFL context, the results were also consistent with several studies investigated the relationship between morphological awareness of English and vocabulary knowledge of EFL learners. For example, Nurhemida (2007) studied the relationship between morphological awareness and English vocabulary knowledge of Indonesian senior high school students and found that there was a significant relationship between the students' performance in the vocabulary level test and the morphological awareness tasks. Additionally, Lam, Chen, Geva, Luo, and Li (2012) researched on roles of L1 and L2 derivational morphological awareness in L2 reading through the mediation of L2 vocabulary knowledge of Korean EFL students. The results revealed that L2 vocabulary knowledge had a significant relationship with L2 derivational morphological awareness and reading comprehension. According to Hayashi and Murphy's study (2011) on morphological awareness in Japanese learners of English, it showed that L2 vocabulary knowledge can be explained by higher degrees of metalinguistic awareness that includes explicit knowledge of morphological segments. The results of the present study also revealed that there was the positive relationship between morphological awareness and vocabulary knowledge. In other words, the participants could segment known and unknown words into small units correctly. It was because the morphological awareness enables them to understand each unit of word.

V. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The conclusion of the study is that Thai EFL university students had a sufficient level of morphological awareness which enabled them to have vocabulary knowledge of English. In other words, the majority of participants could separate words into morphemes correctly even though they have not seen those words. In this study, gender is the factor investigated whether it affected the ability of acquiring morphological awareness and vocabulary knowledge of English. According to the results of the present study, it was found that there was no significant difference of morphological awareness and vocabulary knowledge of English between male and female students. This can be implied that male and female students have the equal level of acquiring morphological awareness and gaining vocabularies. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a relationship between morphological awareness and vocabulary knowledge in which this awareness assists learners to understand how they can break words into morphemes correctly even if it is a new or an unknown word for them.

The study also led to three suggestions. First, future studies should look in greater depth into morphological awareness and language skills. Second, investigations should explore whether EFL students in lower grades possess an adequate level of morphological awareness since this awareness is the predicator of being literate. Finally, more research should explore methods or techniques which could.

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Effects of Creating an English Language Club on Intermediate Learners' Attitudes and Linguistic Achievement

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Abstract—This paper discusses the efforts of a group of ELT instructors at a private Syrian university, Arab International University (AIU), to modify students' attitudes towards general English remedial courses at the Foreign Languages Center (FLC) of the university. After analyzing the results of a questionnaire distributed to clarify the students' linguistic needs and assess their motivation, it was concluded that most students preferred interactive language exercises to theoretical text book activities. Thus, the instructors have resorted to practical methods embodied in establishing an English language club that seeks to fulfill students' needs. The club focused on two motivational activities: reading tabloids and making documentary short films. Consequently, regular weekly sessions were organized to hold these activities. All in all, students' attitudes were greatly enhanced and have become more positive. It was also noted that the students have become self-motivated to the extent of generating new and original ideas that will enrich the English language club at AIU. Furthermore, the students were able to achieve remarkable enhancement on their linguistic skills especially those of reading, writing and speaking in addition to acquiring and improving other personal skills e.g. team work, organizing and planning projects, and communicating ideas via oral presentations.

Index Terms—Interactive learning, documentary filming, reading comprehension, team work, language clubs, tabloids

I. INTRODUCTION

A. The Importance of Educational Clubs

Research agrees upon the significance of active learning since it contributes to building the success of college students (Braxton, 2008). Chickering and Gamson (1987) consider active learning as one of the seven principles that constitute good undergraduate education. According to Braxton, Milen and Sullivan (2000), active learning includes different activities such as debates, role-playing, cooperative learning, and discussions. Beyond classrooms, active learning activities can be fully implemented and organized in educational clubs, and these clubs should be "based on student-selected areas of interest" (Casy, 2008, p.285). Astin (1993) posits that getting involved in educational clubs and organizations influences and contributes in the development of college students. Students learn more when they get more involved (Chang, 1990; Huang &Chang, 2004). Learners who join clubs and organizations have better scores and achieve more than nonmembers on many aspects such as career planning, cultural integration , and academic autonomy (Cooper et al., 1994), additionally, participating in extracurricular activities, that can be practiced in educational clubs fosters learners' competency and interpersonal relationships (Hood, 1984; Martin, 2000). In the findings of their research, Lauren and Granger (2006) suggest that the higher the level of learners' participation is, the more experiences and skills they gain from their college. They suggested that learners should be encouraged to "join clubs and organizations as a way to promote modest gains in development" (p. 178).

B. English Language Clubs as Motivational Tools

Establishing language clubs is common in university language centers that can be organized in many different ways. Language clubs have one shared characteristic, which is using the language in casual settings and providing learners with an opportunity to practice their language comfortably (Ewens, 2013). Ewens suggests that successful language clubs should be "participant-centered". Other research proposes that when learners share responsibility with other colleagues and teachers and have the opportunity to choose their own learning materials, they become more motivated and engaged (Lewis, 2001). Adopting learner-centered activities is a vital way to motivate and engage language learners

(Dornyei&Csizer, 1998). "Differentiation" and allowing learners to choose the materials according to their own interest "is crucial for students' success" that could foster intrinsic motivation (Bell, 2010, p. 41). Language clubs not only motivate high achievers, but also the weak learners. Casey (2008) argues that involving the weak students in the process is "powerfully motivating for adolescents who feel marginalized by the larger literacy community" (p. 291). Another principle for good language clubs according to Ewens (2013) is being fun and providing learners with more freedom. He argues that clubs activities should be flexible, unplanned and interactive, and learners should be free from the constraints of exams, syllables, and rubrics. How language activities is presented affect students' level of motivation and interaction. Language clubs are mainly about holding interactive sessions that include various activities, such as oral presentations, students' intervention and entertainments. Those activities are preferable by language learners (Morell, 2004). Free interactions and learning from each other mistakes are important dimensions of language learning that motivate language learners and encourage them to be more active participants (Lightbown&Spada, 1993, Davis, 2003; Ghaith, 2003). Hence, "learning clubs have the potential to be a powerful vehicle for motivating engaged and interested learners" along with motivating the "disengaged and frustrated" ones (Casey, 2008, p.11)

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Rationale and Action Plan

Considering AIU students' general attitudes and motivation to learn English, a group of EFL instructors at the AIU foreign languages center decided to take action. Thus, they organized a couple of meetings to discuss students' needs and attitudes and plan necessary procedures.

Learners' Needs Analysis

A comprehensive questionnaire was distributed to a sample of 75 learners registered at the FLC. The aim of the questionnaire was to assess their general attitudes towards the FLC English courses, measure their motivational level and define their linguistic needs.

The questionnaire results.

A total number of 75 intermediate level learners, registered at the FLC at Arab International University, participated in the study. Those students are of different majors; Business Administration, Architecture, and Information Technology Engineering. The majority of the students who took part in the questionnaire acknowledged the importance of English courses as part of the academic curricula and expressed their willingness to improve their linguistic skills. In addition, they confirmed their awareness of the role of English in their future career. From a social and cultural perspective, most of the students stated that learning English would help them meet foreign people and explore western culture and Art. However, about 63% of the students preferred allocating more time to study other subjects related to their major than allocating it to study English. On the other hand, 50% of the students have also confessed having a lack of confidence and a feeling of embarrassment when attempting to speak or participate during English classes. When they were also asked about the topics they prefer to read about during reading comprehension classes, the majority expressed their preference of social topics related to their daily lives. It is also worth noting that 45% of the students expressed their willingness and interest in doing extracurricular activities and joining an English club when available.

B. Establishing the Club

After analyzing students' linguistic needs and attitudes, a group of FLC instructors held several meetings to discuss the necessary procedures to enhance students' attitudes and motivate them to learn English. Thus, the instructors suggested establishing an English language club that encompasses two main activities. These activities are: Journal (tabloids) based reading comprehension and documentary filming sessions. Each activity would be held in one hour weekly session for three weeks.

Justifying the Selection of the Club's Activities

Based on the results of the preliminary needs analysis questionnaire, the FLC instructors decided to include journal based reading comprehension sessions. This decision was taken to fulfill the students' needs and preferences of reading real and up to date incidental social topics, which are more related to their daily lives. Furthermore, deciding to hold interactive filming sessions was made with the intention of encouraging the learners to use English to comment on videos recorded by themselves. Since this activity would be partially privately executed, it will enhance the learners' confidence while speaking and participating in class and it will reduce their feeling of embarrassment.

Journal Reading Comprehension Sessions

The importance of using journals (tabloids) in the English classroom. Tabloids have been used as an up–to-date teaching resource that could easily replace the old typical learning textbooks (Bucura&Posa, 2011; Sanderson, 1999). It has been proved that tabloids could enhance readership, clarify cultural values, strengthen real life decision making and problem-solving skills, enrich learners' vocabulary, improve their linguistic skills, and cultivate their critical thinking (Aiex, 2001; Bernadowski, 2011; Chandler, 1988; Cheyney, 1992; Daly, 2004; Hess, 1987; Mehta, 2010; Riaz, 2012; Sanderson, 1999; Ping, 2011).

Procedure. This activity was carried out over three weeks, one session each. On the first session, the instructor brought an English journal, The Independent, and introduced its different sections, their purpose and special features. On the second session, the instructor chose an article from the same paper used previously, The Human Hen, and

explained its contents (title, segments, and photos). The learners were asked to skim the text for repeated words, numbers and specific details e.g. names and places. They were also asked to identify the topic sentence and supporting details in each segment. Then, the instructor wrote four statements on the board and asked the learners to choose the sentence that represents the best summary of the article. After that, the instructor drew the learners' attention to special linguistic aspects of the text that distinguish it from typical reading texts. These aspects are mainly related to the use of active voice, inverted commas, inter-sentence coordination, inter-paragraph coordination, appositive nous phrases, participial phrases, telegraphic structure, and omissions. In the final part of the session, the instructor asked the learners to define typical Art and Artists and compare them to those mentioned in the article (think aloud technique). This helped learners draw connections to the real world (schema theory). On the final session, each pair of learners had to choose and read an article, apply skimming and scanning techniques, and present a written summary to be assessed.

Documentary Filming Sessions

Video production promotes meaningful learning (Jonassen, Howland, Moore &Marra, 2003). It also increases students' understanding of the subject matter (Kiili, 2005; Stobel, 2006).

Conducting this activity required about five sessions to complete. Thus, it was held over five weeks, one session each. On the first session, students had an introductory meeting (90 minutes). The researcher asked the learners to produce documentary films about their faculties in English in which they video tape the sections of the faculties and record some interviews with their academic instructors and other students. Every four learners were asked to work together. The researcher also showed the students some sample documentary films about some international universities. Then, two more sessions were held in which students discussed their work and progress, and the difficulties they faced. Other than the classroom meetings, each team created a What'sApp or Facebook group for easier communication, and the researcher was added to these groups. Learners at the end talked about the difficulties they faced, the learning outcomes they gained, their experience of working in groups, and the emotions they experienced while working on the projects. The videos were analyzed and evaluated by the club's supervisors and one expert student who works in the video production field.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The two designated complementary club activities have been selected to meet learners' needs. They were introduced as scaffolding activities that helped them polish their skills, eliminate their points of weaknesses and support their self-confidence while using English.

Reflecting back on the outcomes of the club's activities, it could be said that these two activities had significant influence on the learners' practical and linguistic skills. First, holding journal (tabloids) reading comprehension sessions has improved the learners' ability to deal with texts which depict real life situations expressed via real use of English. In addition, these sessions have sharpened the learners' skimming, scanning and summarizing skills. It was noted that the learners were able to comprehend, define and summarize the main ideas of a complete news article. Furthermore, these sessions have offered the learners a chance to get familiarized with different text types and differentiate them from the ones in their learning course books. Second, Filming activities have helped the learners acquire and enhance some important practical skills e.g. teamwork, organization and planning. Furthermore, they have improved the main linguistic skills which are the concern of this paper.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Learners' Feedback on the Club's Activities

83% of the learners favored this new learning experience. The learners liked the concept of being in charge of their own learning and responsible of the results. Furthermore, 66% of the learners highly appreciated the freedom granted to them in this activity to design, create, and assess according to their own preferences. Moreover, 55% of the learners were able to harness their skills, and background knowledge in the production of their short documentary films and journal's summaries. Adding to that, 60% of the learners confessed enjoying teamwork and collaboration in this activity. It is also worth mentioning that 53% of the learners highly valued the sense of commitment they had to put forth into their work.

V. CONCLUSION

Establishing an English language club at the Arab International University was of highly influential effects on the participants' attitudes and motivation to learn English. It gave them a chance to view English in a lively vivid state as they proceeded with their interactive learning sessions. It was an opportunity to escape the rigid frame of typical English courses. The club has even encouraged students to keep track of their original remedial English courses and become regular attendees. The whole idea of the club infused the learners with enthusiasm, anticipation and enjoyment. The club has also helped in increasing the learners' awareness to the vital role of English in their lives and future careers. Those students now appreciate learning the language and make use of all the information they receive. Thus, the mission of the club has been accomplished.

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The Relationship between English Phonological Awareness of Chinese English Learners and Their English Skills[*]

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Abstract—**This study investigated the relationship between English phonological awareness (PA) of Chinese English learners and their three English skills (reading, spelling, and listening). Four-hundred college students participated in the study. The results of correlation and regression analyses demonstrated that: 1) overall PA correlated significantly with the three skills and predicted spelling strongly, listening intermediately, and reading weakly; 2) the three levels of PA had differential effects on English skills: reading was only significantly predicted by syllable awareness, spelling by onset-rhyme and phoneme awareness, and listening by all levels of PA; and 3) the predictive effects of tasks corresponded to the difficulty of the processing skill required by a task. This study has borne out a vital role of English PA in improving adult Chinese English learners' English skills.**

Index Terms—**phonological awareness, English skills, reading, spelling, listening**

I. INTRODUCTION

To improve the English proficiency of Chinese English learners, language researchers and educators in China have been committed to exploring the factors that promote their English learning. Research has shown that phonological awareness (PA), vital to the development of learners' English proficiency, can predict their language skills such as reading, spelling, listening, and speaking, etc. (e.g., Ball & Blanchman, 1988; Christensen, 1997; Liberman et al., 1974). PA refers to an ability to perceive and manipulate speech, encompassing three levels of skill: the shallow level of syllable awareness, the deep level of phoneme awareness, and the intermediate level of onset-rhythm awareness (Treiman, 1985). PA assessment uses a variety of tasks to examine different processing skills of the three levels of PA, including differentiation, detection, segmentation, blending, deletion, and substitution, etc.

Research (Cheung, 1999; Liberman et al., 1974; Treiman & Baron, 1981) has found that children with strong PA are familiar with the grapheme and phoneme correspondence (GPC), with the help of which they can read letters and letter combinations or match spoken sounds with written symbols to recognize unfamiliar words. The more words they can recognize, the faster they can read and better they can comprehend. In the same way, children with a higher PA level tend to have a stronger word spelling skill. Drawing on the awareness of words' phonological structure and the pronunciation of familiar words, children can spell out written glyphs according to the GPC rules, thus memorizing more words (Yao, 2001). In addition, as a perceptive skill, listening requires individuals to receive, recognize, decode, and remember auditory symbols. During the listening process, individuals with better PA can quickly infer the words they have heard based on the GPC, thus improving their listening comprehension. Studies with either children or adults have yielded converging results that English PA plays an important role in the English learning of both native speakers and second language speakers.

Research on English-speaking children has revealed that word recognition and spelling are significantly correlated with PA (Gough et al., 1992; Share & Stanovich, 1995; Wagner et al., 1994). Stainthorp et al. (2013) found that British kindergarten children's word spelling scores were positively associated with their mastery of the GPC rules. More research has manifested that PA can predict both the abilities to read and spell words and the overall reading skill (Bradley & Bryant, 1978, 1983; Lunderberg et al., 1980; Wade-Woolley, 2016). In studies by Bradley and Bryant (1983) and Stanovich (2000), deficiency in PA led to children's literacy problem, which in turn led to the difficulty with reading. It has also been found that despite many other factors affecting children's reading skill (e.g., working memory, cognitive ability, or morphological awareness), PA still holds a potent impact: differences in children's PA skill give rise to differences in spelling and reading skills between them (Adams, 1990; Ball & Blachman, 1991; Christensen, 1997; Cunningham, 1990; Goswami & Bryant, 1990; Hatcher et al, 1994). Other studies have demonstrated that PA training can improve children's literacy (Ball & Blachman, 1991; Cunningham, 1990; Eissa, 2013; Stanovich & Siegel, 1994; Wagner & Torgesen, 1987). Carson et al. (2013) found that New Zealand children under a year of regular PA training achieved significantly better word reading and spelling skills than untrained children.

Similar results have emerged in the research on Chinese English learners. The first line of research focuses on Cantonese-speaking children living abroad (Cheung et al., 2010; Gottardo et al., 2001) or in Hong Kong (McBride-Chang & Ho, 2005; McBride-Chang & Treiman, 2003; Yeung et al., 2013). The results consistently revealed that English PA training enhanced children's sensitivity to the GPC and thus their ability to read new words and that in spelling words, trained children made significantly less mistakes than those untrained. In Cheung's (1999) study with Hong Kong teenagers, the predictive effect of PA on word recognition occurred only to the younger group (M = 12.7), but not to the older group (M = 15.8). This finding may indicate that age has a mediating effect on English PA. The second line of research centers on English learners in Mainland China. Be it on children (Tao et al., 2007; Sun et al., 2015), adolescents (F. Wang, 2010; Wang et al., 2002), or adult students (Guan, 2009), research made clear that English PA was a strong predictor of word spelling and reading as well as the overall reading skill, with different levels of PA playing dissimilar roles. In specific, Dong and Wen (2010) found that onset-rhyme awareness had a predictive role in children's English spelling. Both Tao et al. (2007) and Yang and Zhang (2015) found that onset-rhyme awareness significantly predicted word recognition. In the study by Li et al. (2011), both onset-rhyme awareness and phoneme awareness accounted for the variance in word reading and spelling, more so in word spelling. Other research (Li & Kang, 2015; Wu, 2006; Zeng & Chen, 2010; Zhang & Zhu, 2015) has yielded that English PA is significantly related to Chinese college students' listening performance.

The above studies on both English native speakers and Chinese English learners have demonstrated that English PA skill can improve such English skills as word reading and spelling, overall reading, and listening. Cheung (1999) has found that the facilitative role of PA weakens with age. Accordingly, the present study selected adult college students as participants to further explore whether the role of PA in English proficiency is limited by age. Furthermore, few researchers have investigated the relationships between PA and English reading, spelling, and listening skills in a single study. The study by Fracasso et al. (2016) is the only attempt, but they tested adult English native speakers, and their PA skill was assessed by word reading instead of widely accepted PA tasks; therefore, the results of their study have limitations. As a result, the present study aims to examine the relationship of overall English PA and its three levels of PA with three English skills of reading, spelling, and listening, and to investigate the role of different PA tasks (processing skills) in these three skills as well.

II. RESEARCH QUESTION

The specific research questions this study intends to explore are as follows:
1) What is the relationship between overall English PA and the three English skills?
2) Do different levels of PA play different roles in the three English skills? If so, how?
3) Do different tasks (processing skills) play different roles in the three English skills? If so, how?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants were 400 Chinese college students (M = 164; F = 236) with an average age of 20.4, randomly selected from second-year non-English majors in a Chinese university. They were all from intermediate-level English classes based on their scores on the English entrance examination administered upon their university entry.

B. Materials

English PA. The English PA test, audibly presented, assessed three levels of PA across four phonological skills (tasks), as Table I shows:

TABLE I.
THE ENGLISH PA TEST BY LEVEL OF PA AND TASK

Task	Level of PA	Number of items	Score
Oddity	Syllable	10	10
	Onset-rhyme	10	10
	Phoneme	10	10
Segmentation	Syllable	10	10
	Onset-rhyme	10	10
	Phoneme	10	10
Blending	Syllable	10	10
	Onset-rhyme	10	10
	Phoneme	10	10
Substitution	Syllable	10	10
	Onset-rhyme	10	10
	Phoneme	10	10

English reading and listening. The participants' reading and listening skills were operationalized by their scores on the reading and listening sections, respectively, of their English final exam of last semester administered two months prior to the English PA test. The reading section included one fast-reading article and four normal-reading passages with

a total score of 40. The listening section consisted of ten short dialogues and three long passages with a total score of 30. Students read or listened to each material first and then answered its multiple-choice questions, each of which had one point.

English spelling. The spelling test comprised 20 English non-words, with mostly monosyllabic words and few disyllabic ones. The testing items were recorded by an English native speaker in the form of mp3 files. The participants were instructed to listen to one item and then spell it out. Every correctly spelt word counted one point.

C. Procedure

The English PA test was conducted in a quiet office, each session for approximately 40 minutes. The participants were divided into three groups, each with a different experimenter, who assessed them one by one. Before the test, the experimenter provided the instruction and practice; during the test, the participants listened to each item played using the Storm Player on the experimenter's laptop and then was given five seconds to give the answer, which was recorded by the recording app on the laptop. The spelling test was conducted one week later, and the three groups of participants were tested simultaneously in three different computer classrooms. The experimenter offered the instruction and practice first and then played each non-word using the Storm Player on the desktop in the classroom; the participants had five seconds to spell out this word on the answer sheet. The entire data collection took one month, and the final number available for data analysis was 347 samples.

IV. RESULTS

A. Correlation Analyses

The correlations are displayed in Table II of overall PA, all three levels of PA, and all tasks with the three English skills. Overall PA had significant correlations with all skills (all $p < .001$), closest with spelling, followed by listening, and weakest with reading.

TABLE II.
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PA AND ENGLISH SKILLS BY OVERALL PA, LEVEL OF PA, AND TASK

	Overall PA	Syllable awareness	Onset-rhyme awareness	Phoneme awareness	Oddity	Segmen-tation	Blending	Substi-tution
Reading	0.27***	0.26***	0.19***	0.20***	0.14**	0.10	0.26***	0.23***
Spelling	0.48***	0.35***	0.45***	0.34***	0.13*	0.30***	0.41***	0.43***
Listening	0.42***	0.36***	0.33***	0.34***	0.10	0.14**	0.43***	0.44***

Note. *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$; the same for the following tables.

All three levels of PA correlated significantly with the three skills (all $p < .001$). Comparable correlations existed between syllable awareness and both spelling and listening; their associations were stronger than that between syllable awareness and reading. A similar situation happened to phoneme awareness. Onset-rhyme awareness correlated strongly with spelling, intermediately with listening, and least with reading. The results revealed that the correlations between reading and syllable awareness was much higher than those between reading and onset-rhyme awareness or phoneme awareness; that spelling was most closely related to onset-rhyme awareness; and that the correlations between listening and all levels of PA were comparable.

The correlations between four tasks and the three skills were slightly weaker than those between three levels of PA and the skills. Reading did not correlate significantly with segmentation; its correlation with oddity was weaker than with blending or substitution. Spelling correlated significantly with all levels of PA: least with oddity, intermediately with segmentation, and strongly with blending or substitution. A significant correlation did not appear between listening and oddity, and its correlation with segmentation was weaker than with blending or substitution. Taken together, the three skills were more closely associated with blending and substitution than with oddity and segmentation.

B. Regression Analyses

First, overall PA was entered as the independent variable to perform a one-way regression analysis on the scores of the three skills (as dependent variables), and then three levels of PA and tasks (processing skills) as independent variables to perform stepwise regression analyses. The results showed (see Table III) that overall PA explained 7% of the variance in reading, 23% in spelling, and 18% in listening. Although the predictive power of overall PA seemed to be weak, the predictive effects on the three skills were all significant (all $p < .001$).

TABLE III.
REGRESSIONS FOR PREDICTING READING, SPELLING, AND LISTENING FROM OVERALL PA

	B	β	t	R^2	F	p
Reading	0.08	0.27	5.12	0.07	26.214	.000
Spelling	0.09	0.48	10.04	0.23	100.726	.000
Listening	0.19	0.42	8.66	0.18	75.054	.000

When level of PA was the independent variable (see Table IV), only syllable awareness contributed significantly to reading. As far as spelling was concerned, onset-rhyme awareness was the strongest predictor, followed by phoneme awareness, but syllable awareness had no significant predictive effect. In terms of listening, all three levels of PA exerted significant predictive effects. When task was the independent variable (see Table V), only the blending task significantly predicted reading. Only oddity did not significantly predict spelling; blending and substitution were stronger predictors than segmentation. In terms of listening, blending and substitution accounted for variance while oddity and segmentation did not.

TABLE IV...
REGRESSIONS FOR PREDICTING READING, SPELLING, AND LISTENING FROM LEVELS OF PA

	Reading		Spelling		Listening	
	β	t	β	t	β	t
Syllable awareness	0.26	2.84***	0.11	/	0.19	3.05**
Onset-rhyme awareness	0.08	/	0.38	7.10***	0.18	3.02**
Phoneme awareness	0.10	/	0.17	3.23**	0.16	2.62**
	$F=24.598, p=.000; R^2=.067$		$F=51.056, p=.000; R^2=.229$		$F=25.154, p=.000; R^2=.180$	

Note. "/" means that this variable did not enter the regression; the same for the following tables.

TABLE V.
REGRESSIONS FOR PREDICTING READING, SPELLING, AND LISTENING FROM TASKS

	Reading		Spelling		Listening	
	β	t	β	t	β	t
Oddity	0.08	/	-0.01	/	-0.04	/
Segmentation	0.03	/	0.14	2.76**	-0.05	/
Blending	0.26	5.00**	0.22	3.80***	0.26	4.47***
Substitution	0.12	/	0.25	4.13***	0.29	5.04***
	$F=25.041, p=.000; R^2=.068$		$F= 36.139, p=.000; R^2=.240$		$F=54.182, p=.000; R^2=.240$	

V. DISCUSSION

As for Question 1, the results showed that overall PA correlated significantly with the three skills and that its prediction of spelling was the strongest and of reading weakest. In the studies by Li et al. (2011) with Chinese primary school students and by Fracasso et al. (2016) with adult English native speakers, PA was also more closely related to spelling than to reading. Our findings further confirm that PA has different effects on different English skills. This difference can be explained by Forster's (1976) Autonomous Search Model, in which learners decipher the meaning of words through different independent channels, including the GPC rules, phonological knowledge, and semantic knowledge, etc. First, the basis of the reading skill is word recognition. Since English is an alphabetic language, a learner with strong PA can transfer a written symbol to a phonetic one based on the GPC rules to read a word. However, the present study employed reading passages to test reading, which required the use of semantic knowledge. Therefore, even if the participants knew the pronunciation of words, it would be difficult for them to link the word form with the word meaning through visual recognition to understand the meanings of sentences or paragraphs. This research design may explain the lowest correlation between PA and reading in this study. It may also explain why PA only predicted 8% of the variance in reading, while in previous studies (e.g., Wagner et al., 1994) employing word recognition to test reading, the prediction power was generally much stronger. Furthermore, in this study, the participants could not resort to semantic knowledge for word spelling because all stimuli were fake words created according to English phonological rules. After hearing a word, they could only convert a sound to a written symbol in light of the GPC rules. Finally, in terms of listening, the participants needed to activate both phonological and semantic knowledge, relying on semantic storage to identify familiar words and on phonological rules to decode unfamiliar words. It follows that the different effects of English PA on the three English skills were proportional to the latter's demand for the former.

As for Question 2, the results revealed that different levels of PA played different roles in different language skills. In terms of reading, only syllable awareness was significantly predictive. The results of previous studies, however, showed that onset-rhyme awareness had a significant impact on beginning readers (Bryant et al., 1990), but as their reading skill increased, children depended on the deep level of phoneme awareness to read words (Li et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2015). The reason for the difference in the results may be due to different research methods. Previous studies mainly examined word reading while the present study tested reading comprehension of paragraphs. Paragraph reading required the participants to understand the word as a whole in the context, so they needed to draw more on the shallow level of syllable awareness to quickly decode the word. Yang and Zhang (2015) also examined the relationship between Chinese college students' reading skill and three levels of PA by means of paragraph reading, and their research yielded that onset-rhyme awareness had the most significant correlation with reading. Nonetheless, their study employed dissimilar tasks to measure different levels of PA, and only conducted correlation analyses without regression analyses, so these

differences may lead to differences in the results.

In terms of spelling, onset-rhyme awareness was the strongest predictor while syllable awareness had no significant predictive effect. This finding is consistent with the results of the study by Dong and Wen (2010), corroborating the prominent role of onset-rhyme awareness in Chinese learners' spelling skill. Studies with English-speaking children (e.g., Hulme et al., 2002) found that phoneme awareness was the strongest predictor of their spelling skill, though. According to Dong and Wen (2010: 148), the discrepancy in the results is related to the Chinese participants' L1 phonological experience: *Pinyin* features a combination of onsets and rhymes, similar to the CV structure in English, so this level of PA exerted the strongest effect on Chinese learners' spelling. In terms of listening, the three levels of PA were all significantly related to and predictive of listening, a result which demonstrated the importance of PA to the listening skill. Unlike reading and spelling, listening requires listeners to decode the auditory cue in the shortest possible time and to build a sound-and-form relationship through the GPC rules. Although the listening test in this study examined the overall comprehension of sentences, decoding words was the first step. In view of various word structures, the participants would activate different levels of PA based on diversified phonological structures of words in the process of listening, so all levels of PA had significant effects on listening.

As for Question 3, the role of tasks (processing skills) is manifested in three aspects. First, the task had the strongest predictive effect on spelling and the weakest on reading. This result corresponds to the degree of demand for PA by the three skills. Second, different English skills invoke different processing skills. Only the blending task significantly predicted reading; only the oddity task failed to predict spelling significantly; and the oddity and segmentation tasks did not significantly predict listening. Third, the four tasks ranked as follows according to their prediction power: blending (strongest) > substitution > segmentation > oddity. This order is line with the difficulty order of the four tasks. The oddity task entails an ability to differentiate sounds, which is the easiest; the segmentation task to divide the sounds and substitution to replace the sounds, which are comparatively harder; and blending to combine sounds, which is the most difficult. It follows that the task with a harder processing skill exerts a greater effect on English skills. That is why the simplest oddity task had no significant predictive effect on spelling or listening, and the hardest blending task significantly predicted reading while the other three easier tasks failed to do so.

In summary, the facilitative role of English PA in English skills has been reinforced; nonetheless, the exploration of the relationship between the two should not revolve merely around the simple question of whether the former promotes the latter, but should be how PA differentially impacts the three English skills. If PA is treated as a holistic skill, then our conclusion is that overall PA has differential effects on the three skills, with the strongest prediction on spelling and the weakest on reading. But if we look at different levels of PA, we conclude that the relationship between the two is complex. The three levels of PA have different phonological structures and units of increasing difficulty, and the language processing of the three skills and their need for PA also vary, so the roles of the three levels of PA in English skills differ from those of overall PA. In this study, syllable awareness had the strongest predictive power on reading, and onset-rhyme awareness on spelling, but all levels of PA on listening. Previous studies (e.g., Li et al., 2011; Tao et al., 2007; Yang & Zhang, 2015) also found that different levels of PA played differential roles in spelling and reading skills, but their findings might be influenced by the task type because the tasks they used were neither uniform nor varied. For example, Yang and Zhang (2015) employed the blending and segmentation tasks to test syllable awareness; blending and oddity onset-rhythm awareness; and blending, deletion, segmentation, and isolation phoneme awareness. Both Tao et al. (2007) and Li et al. (2011) used merely the deletion task to examine the three levels of PA. As we all know, there are assorted PA tasks with various difficulty and different requirements for the processing skills of PA. Therefore, to accurately compare the roles of different levels of PA in English skills, the present study employed the same four tasks of increasing difficulty for all levels of PA. Additionally, the results showed that the predictive effects of tasks on the three English skills were modified by the difficulty of a specific task. It follows that a comprehensive examination of the relationship between PA and English skills should assess the relationships of overall PA, levels of PA, and tasks (processing skills) with different English skills.

The present study has yielded that English PA, whose impact did not atrophy with age, remained a potent predictor of Chinese adult English learners' reading, spelling, and listening skills. Chinese researchers (e.g., Hu, 2016; Li et al., 2011; Wu, 2006) have always advocated that in the early stage of English learning in primary school, English teachers should provide regular phonics teaching to cultivate beginners' awareness of speech units and the GPC rules to promote their word reading and spelling. The real situation is not optimistic, though. There has been scarce attention paid to the phonics teaching in primary school in China, and English teaching in secondary school is mainly exam-oriented. At the university level, many students do not even recognize the phonetic symbols, let alone having basic PA skill (Y. Wang, 2010). This deficiency has resulted in a low level of ability to pronounce, recognize, and spell words and poor listening skill. The author, therefore, calls on college English teachers to assess their students' PA upon university entry to uncover problems in time and to come up with effective teaching interventions. When necessary, the teachers can add phonological knowledge and GPC rules to their English teaching as well as employ a variety of tasks, especially difficult ones (such as blending and deletion, etc.), to develop their students' PA. Our research reveals that the effect of PA on English skills is not undermined by age. Hence, it is still not late to cultivate Chinese adult learners' English PA in the view of promoting their English skills.

VI. CONCLUSION

The present study has yielded three findings. First, overall English PA had significant correlations with English reading, spelling, and listening. Its predictive effect on spelling was the strongest, followed by listening, and on reading the weakest. This result is associated with the degree of demand for PA by different English skills. Second, different levels of PA had differential effects on the three skills. Syllable awareness contributed significantly to reading; onset-rhyme awareness predicted spelling most; and all three levels of PA significantly predicted listening. This result may be affected by factors such as testing formats or the participants' phonological experience. Third, based on their predictive power, the four tasks ranked as blending (strongest) > substitution > segmentation > oddity. This order is consistent with the difficulty of the processing skills required by a task; the more difficult the task, the stronger predictable effect on English skills.

This study bears out a vital role of English PA in promoting three English skills, providing pedagogical and theoretical implications. Pedagogically, previous studies only explored the effects of different levels of PA on the three English skills while ignoring the influence of PA tasks. Therefore, the results of this study can help teachers understand the relationships between tasks and different English skills, and choose tasks of increasing difficulty to train different levels of PA. Theoretically, previous research mainly studied the relationship between PA and only one English skill. This study incorporated three English skills and investigated the differences in the effects of different levels of PA and tasks (processing skills) on these skills. In addition, unlike previous studies, this study designed the same tasks for different levels of PA to ensure the comparability of results. Such innovations in the research method can guide future research.

Admittedly, this study is not without limitations. So far, the research on the roles of PA and its different levels on English skills has not yielded converging results. The discrepancies are likely caused by factors such as testing tasks, the type of English skills, and testing formats, etc. Future research thus must consider the potential influence of the above factors on research results; so must it   more extensive sampling, more tasks of various difficulty (e.g., positioning, counting, or deletion, etc.), and other English skills (e.g., sentence dictation, oral expression, or writing, etc.). Future research should also take into account the interaction between level of PA and task (processing skill) in order to explore the relationship between English PA and English skills more comprehensively and accurately.

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A Comparative Study of Hedges and Boosters in English and Jordanian Arabic: Economic Newspaper Articles as a Case Study

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Abstract—The study investigated English and Jordanian economic newspaper articles. It sheds light on the similarities and differences in terms of the frequencies and percentages of using hedges and boosters. To this end, the researcher selected 60 newspaper articles. 15 articles were randomly chosen from recent issues published in 2016-2017 in two English newspapers, "The New York Times" and "The Guardian". The study compared the frequencies of hedging and boosting devices in these newspapers to the frequencies of hedging and boosting devices in two Jordanian newspapers "Alrai" and "Alghad".The findings of the study revealed that language plays a role in using these devices. Significantly, English economic articles used modal auxiliaries and approximates most, while Arabic economic articles used approximates and lexical verbs most.

Index Terms—hedging devices, Arabic and English newspapers, economic articles, Jordanian Arabic.

I. INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Hedges are devices that writers use to convey vagueness. They play a major role in writing and speaking due to their importance in interpreting spoken and written messages. In this paper, the researcher analyzed the use of hedges in exploring whether cultural differences play a role in their employment or not. On the other hand, boosters enable writers to assume a shared ground with their readers, and to emphasize a common group membership. In addition, boosters may contribute to the social negotiation of knowledge and writers' efforts to convince readers of truth or the correctness of their claims which could enable the writer to achieve community acceptance and solidarity with the audience. Accordingly, writers/speakers employ boosters in order to indicate their assertion of the proposition's truth, and convince the audience with the conclusions drawn by the writer.

Martin (2000) referred to hedges and boosters by using the term "epistemic modalities". He stated that writers employ epistemic modalities to communicate their academic knowledge in a way which permits them to get community acceptance of their academic contributions excluding the risk of Face Threatening Acts. Furthermore, hedging is sometimes used intentionally in discourse to convey politeness, be it positive or negative politeness, which functions as a redressive method as a result of committing a Face Threatening Act (FTA). In other words, it is employed to mitigate FTA committed towards the other's face. However, the main difference between the two types of politeness is that the positive politeness indicates solidarity with the group, for example, *"I wondered if I could have a word with you"*, while the negative politeness attempts not to infringe on other's wants or freedom. For example, *"I just came to borrow you lawnmower"* (Brown and Levinson, 1987).Hedges, such as *might*, *suggest*, *probably*, are self-reflective linguistic expressions that are used to show epistemic modality and modify the speakers force of speech acts. Moreover, hedges can be used: to express the writer's commitment to a proposition, to illustrate uncertainty about the truth of an assertion, to refrain from commitment and open dialogue by recognizing alternative viewpoints or the subjectivity of one's own position, and/or to lessen the force of a speech for the sake of politeness (Hu & Cao,2011).

Importantly, convincing the audience to believe a certain view and expressing the writer's degree of confidence could be achieved through the help of linguistic devices (boosters), such as "clear", "certainly" or "definite". By using these linguistic devices, writers express the level of their commitment depending on the epistemic status of propositions as accredited interpretations. Thus, boosters might be considered as complementary strategies to hedging and are used to indicate being assertive and straightforward. Jalilifar and Alavi-Nai (2012) classified boosters into (1) propositional boosters which include intensifiers and personal involvement pronouns,(2) illocutionary force boosters which include boosting epistemic commitment , (3) content oriented boosters which include source tagging and bounding emphatics, and (4) hearer oriented boosters which aim at seeking solidarity and presupposing verification.

Aquino (2014) conducted a study on hedges in campus journalistic articles written by high school students in the Philippines, and published in their newspaper issues. The data were collected from the recent published newspaper issue for 2011. The study identified the frequencies of forms, the functions and the implications of hedging used in these

articles. The findings of the study manifested that hedges were used mostly in editorial which were modulated and mitigated articles. In addition, reliability hedges which indicate the amount of writers' certainty or uncertainty in a proposition were used widely 37 (40.22%), but attribute hedges which refer to the writers' desire to express proposition with greater precision had a higher occurrence 62 (7.39%).

II. Objective of the Study

The main objective of the present paper is to examine the frequencies and percentages of hedging and boosting devices in English and Jordanian Arabic economic newspaper articles and to compare them against each other since economic newspaper articles employ diverse linguistic devices including hedging and boosting.

III. Methodology

In order to fulfill the purpose of the present study, the researcher selected 15 economic newspaper articles from each English newspaper. The 15 economic articles appeared in recent issues of "The New York Times" during the years 2016-2017, and the same number of newspaper articles was also selected from the English newspaper "The Guardian" in the same period. Conveniently, the American English newspaper "The New York Times" is accessible online through https://www.nytimes.com; likewise, the content of the British English newspaper "The Guardian" is digitized and accessible online through https://www.the guardian.com.

Similarly, 15 economic newspaper articles were selected from recent issues of the Jordanian Arabic daily newspaper, "Alrai" published between 2016 and 2017 .The same number of articles was also selected from the Jordanian Arabic daily newspaper, "Alghad". Thus, the total number of English and Jordanian newspapers articles that were investigated was 60 .The Jordanian Arabic daily newspapers "Alrai" and "Alghad" are accessible online throughhttps://www.alrai.comand through http://www.alghad.com/ respectively.

The researcher selected the articles randomly. Then, these articles were read carefully to find out instances of hedges and boosters (.e.g. textual analysis). The English sample articles from "The New York Times" and "The Guardian" were compared for the use of hedges and boosters against the same linguistic devices in the two Jordanian Arabic newspapers, "Alrai" and "Alghad".

For the purpose of analyzing the results quantitatively, the number of hedges and boosters were counted manually and calculated in each article and in each language separately to find out the frequencies of occurrence of hedges and boosters across the economic articles in the two languages. That is, the researcher counted all occurrences of hedges and boosters in the English economic in each of the newspapers. Then, she compared them to the Arabic counterpart.

The researcher classified the types of hedges in these newspaper articles based on the framework outlined by Salager-Meyer (1997), whereas the framework outlined by Hyland (2005) was used to analyze boosters.

A. Framework for Hedges Analysis

Salager-Meyer (1997) proposed the following types of hedges:

(1) Modal auxiliary verbs of which the most tentative ones being: may, might, can, could, would, should.

(2) Lexical verbs or the so-called speech act verbs which are used to perform acts such as doubting and evaluating rather than describing the varying degree of illocutionary force such as, to seem, to appear, to sound, to believe, to assume, to suggest, to estimate, to tend, to think, to argue, to indicate, to propose, to speculate, to doubt, to expect and to consider.

(3) Adjectival, adverbial and nominal modal phrases:

(a) Adjectives: e.g., possible, probable, un/likely.

(b) Nouns: e.g., assumption, claim, possibility, estimate, suggestion.

(c) Adverbs: e.g., perhaps, possibly, probably, likely, presumably.

(4) Approximators of degree, quantity, frequency and time such as approximately, roughly, about, generally, in general, almost, mostly, some of, the majority, many, more than, bigger, less than, tens, hundreds, a lot of, something between, few, little, somewhat, somehow, a lot of, often, sometimes, occasionally and usually respectively.

(5) Introductory phrases such as I believe, to (our) knowledge, it is (our) view that, (we) feel that, which express the author's personal doubt or direct involvement.

(6) If clauses, e.g., if true, if nothing.

(7) Compound hedges which are made up of several hedges, the commonest forms being: a modal auxiliary combined with a lexical verb with a hedging content (e.g. it would appear), and a lexical verb followed by a hedging adverb or adjective (e.g. it seems probable) where the adverb reinforces the hedge already inherent in the lexical verb. Such compound hedges can be double hedges (it may suggest that; it seems likely that; it would indicate that; this probably indicates); triple hedges (it seems reasonable to assume that); quadruple hedges (it would seem somewhat unlikely that, it may appear somewhat speculative that), and so on.

B. Framework for Boosters Analysis

On the other hand, Hyland (1998a; 2005) classified boosters into three types:

(1)Universal pronouns which refer to a general audience, such as no- and every- words.

(2)Amplifiers which function to increase the size or effect of statements such as very, clearly ,always ,never ,completely ,fully ,extremely ,totally ,absolutely and entirely etc.

(3)Emphatics which are used to emphasize force or writer's certainty in message such as sure, stress, emphasize, for sure, no way, in fact, etc.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents the frequencies and percentages of using hedging and boosting devices in Arabic and English. Here, we summarize these results in light of the research objective.

A. Frequency and Percentage of Hedging Devices in English and Arabic Newspapers

This section will present the results of the frequencies and percentages of hedging devices in the English and Arabic newspapers articles.

Hedging devices in English and Arabic economic articles

Table (1) below presents the frequencies and percentages of using hedging devices in economic articles in "The New York Times".

TABLE 1.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF HEDGING DEVICES IN *ECONOMIC* ARTICLES:
"THE NEW YORK TIMES"

Article No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	Total Freq.	Total %
Modal auxiliary verbs (e.g. may)	6	10	7	5	15	10	9	7	8	1	5	31	5	9	8	136	48,9
Lexical verbs (e.g. seem)	0	1	0	1	3	4	0	2	4	0	1	7	2	2	1	28	10,1
Adjectival, nominal and adverbial phrases (e.g. likely)	2	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	2	0	11	4,0
Approximates of degree, quantity and frequency (e.g. lower than..)	6	7	3	1	4	3	1	2	6	11	8	5	7	3	6	73	26.26
Introductory phrases (e.g. we)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
If clauses (e.g. if it..)	1	0	3	1	4	5	1	0	3	1	2	4	0	0	1	26	9,4
Compound hedges (e.g. would seem)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	1	0	4	1,44
Total	15	18	13	9	28	22	11	11	22	13	18	48	17	17	16	278	100

As evident from Table 1, modal auxiliary verbs are the most commonly used hedging devices with a percentage of 48.9%. Approximates of degree, quantity and frequency rank second with a percentage of 26.26%. By contrast, introductory phrases are not used at all, whereas compound hedges have the second lowest percentage (1.44%).

Table (2) below presents the frequencies and percentages of using hedging devices in the economic articles of "The Guardian".

TABLE 2.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF HEDGING DEVICES IN ECONOMIC ARTICLES:
"THE GUARDIAN"

Article No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	Total	
																Freq.	%
Modal auxiliary verbs (e.g. may)	3	9	5	4	9	3	10	10	9	4	15	8	12	4	3	108	34.4
Lexical verbs (e.g. seem)	3	3	4	2	0	6	1	4	8	0	6	2	1	1	9	50	15.9
Adjectival, nominal and adverbial phrases (e.g. likely)	1	1	1	0	3	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	5	1	0	16	5.1
Approximates of degree, quantity and frequency (e.g. lower than..)	4	0	2	5	3	4	6	5	7	12	15	8	8	7	9	95	31.53
Introductory phrases (e.g. we)	0	9	2	2	0	2	3	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	21	6.68
If clauses (e.g. if it..)	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	3	5	3	1	1	1	18	5.73
Compound hedges (e.g. would seem)	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	1	0	0	0	1	6	1.911
Total	13	22	14	13	16	16	20	22	26	21	43	22	29	14	23	314	100

As shown in Table 2 , and similar to "The New York Times", modal auxiliary verbs are the most commonly used hedging devices with a percentage of 34.4%. Approximates of degree, quantity and frequency rank second with a percentage of 31.53%. By contrast, compound hedges are used least (1.91), whereas adjectival, nominal and adverbial phrases have the second lowest percentage (5.1%).

Table (3) summarizes the frequency and percentage of hedging devices in economic articles of both "The New York Times" and "The Guardian".

TABLE 3
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF HEDGING DEVICES IN ECONOMIC ARTICLES: "THE NEW YORK" TIMES AND "THE GUARDIAN"

Newspaper	The New York Times	The Guardian	Total	
			Freq.	%
Modal auxiliary verbs	136	108	244	41.20
Lexical verbs	28	50	78	13.2
Adjectival, nominal and adverbial phrases	11	16	27	4.6
Approximates of degree, quantity and frequency	73	95	168	28.4
Introductory phrases	0	21	21	3.5
If clauses	26	18	44	7.4
Compound hedges	4	6	10	1.7
Total	278	314	592	100

Table 3 shows that the modal auxiliary verbs are the most commonly used hedging devices with a frequency of 244 and a percentage of 41.2%, followed by approximates of degree, quantity and frequency with a percentage of 28.4%, while lexical verbs rank third with a percentage of 13.2%. Introductory phrases and compound hedges are least used with a percentage of 3.5% and 1.7% respectively.

Now we move to the Arabic articles. Table (4) below shows the frequencies and percentages of using hedging devices in the economic articles of "Alghad" newspaper.

TABLE 4.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF HEDGING DEVICES IN ECONOMIC ARTICLES: "ALGHAD"

Article No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	Total	
																Freq.	%
Modal auxiliary verbs (e.g.ربما.'maybe')	0	1	5	1	1	0	2	8	6	0	1	1	2	0	1	29	15.3
Lexical verbs (e.g. يتوقع'expects')	2	4	0	5	0	0	0	4	4	1	4	2	2	3	5	36	19.0
Adjectival, nominal and adverbial phrases (e.g. محتمل 'possible')	4	1	1	5	1	3	5	1	1	1	5	4	4	0	1	37	19.6
Approximates of degree, quantity and frequency (e.g. تقريباً 'nearly')	8	5	2	4	5	5	7	3	2	6	5	8	3	6	14	83	43.9
Introductory phrases(e.g. نحن'we')	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.05
If clauses (e.g.اذا 'if')	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.5
Compound hedges (e.g.ان امكن 'if possible')	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0.5
Total	14	11	8	15	8	8	14	17	14	8	15	16	11	9	21	189	100

As shown in Table 4 above, approximates of degree, quantity and frequency are the most commonly used hedging devices with a percentage of 43.9%. Adjectival, nominal and adverbial phrases come in the second place with a percentage of 19.6%.By contrast, introductory phrases have the second lowest percentage (1.05%), whereas compound hedges and if-clause used least with a percentage of (0.5%).

The second Arabic newspaper investigated is "Alrai". Table (5) below presents the frequencies and percentages of using hedging devices in the economic articles of "Alrai".

TABLE 5.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF HEDGING DEVICES IN ECONOMIC ARTICLES: "ALRAI"

Article No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	Total	
																Freq.	%
Modal auxiliary verbs (e.g.ربما.'maybe')	0	1	1	5	3	3	0	9	1	0	1	0	4	6	1	35	17.5
Lexical verbs (e.g. يتوقع'expects')	4	1	7	3	3	8	5	4	4	3	4	2	3	2	2	55	27.0
Adjectival, nominal and adverbial phrases (e.g. محتمل'possible')	3	2	2	3	5	4	2	1	5	3	5	2	1	1	0	39	19.1
Approximates of degree, quantity and frequency (e.g. تقريباً ' nearly')	8	4	9	3	4	2	14	1	7	11	0	0	4	1	4	72	35.3
Introductory phrases(e.g. نحن'we')	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1.47
If clauses (e.g.اذا 'if')	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
Compound hedges (e.g.ان امكن'if possible')	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
Total	16	8	19	14	15	17	21	17	17	17	10	4	12	10	7	204	100

As shown in Table 5, approximates of degree, quantity and frequency are also the most frequently used hedging devices with a percentage of 35.29%. Lexical verbs rank second with a percentage of 27%. By contrast, introductory phrases have the second lowest percentage (1.47%), while compound hedges and if-clauses are not used at all.

Table (6) summarizes the frequency and percentage of hedging devices in the economic articles of both the "Alghad" and "Alrai" newspapers.

TABLE 6.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF HEDGING DEVICES IN ECONOMIC ARTICLES:
"ALGHAD" AND "ALRAI"

Newspaper	Alghad	Alrai	Total	
			Freq.	%
Modal auxiliary verbs	29	35	64	16.3
Lexical verbs	36	55	91	23.2
Adjectival, nominal and adverbial phrases	37	39	76	19.3
Approximates of degree, quantity and frequency	83	72	155	39.4
Introductory phrases	2	3	5	1.3
If clauses	1	0	1	0.25
Compound hedges	1	0	1	0.25
Total	189	204	393	100

Table 6 shows that the most frequently used hedging devices in "Alghad" and "Alrai" are *approximates of degree, quantity and frequency* with a percentage of 39.4%. *Lexical verbs* have the second highest occurrences with a percentage of 23.2%. By contrast, the *compound hedges* and *if clauses* are used the least with a percentage of 0.25% each.

B. Boosting Devices in English and Arabic Newspapers

This section presents the results of the frequencies and percentages of boosting devices in the English and Arabic newspapers investigated in this research.

Frequency and percentage of boosting devices in English and Arabic economic articles

Table (7) below presents the frequencies and percentages of using boosting devices in the economic articles of "The New York Times".

TABLE 7
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF OCCURRENCE OF BOOSTING DEVICES IN ECONOMIC ARTICLES: "THE NEW YORK TIMES"

Article No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	Total	
																Freq.	%
Universal Pronouns (e.g. everyone)	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	5
Amplifiers (e.g. certainly)	3	2	2	2	4	1	1	0	4	5	3	0	2	5	0	34	85
Emphatics (e.g. sure)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	4	10
Total	3	2	2	2	5	2	1	0	5	6	3	0	3	6	0	40	100

As shown in Table 7 above, *amplifiers* are the most frequently used boosting devices with a percentage of 85%. *Emphatics* come in the second place with a percentage of 10%. By contrast, *universal pronouns* have the least percentage (5%).

Table (8) below presents the frequencies and percentages of using boosting devices in the economic articles of "The Guardian" newspaper.

TABLE 8.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF OCCURRENCE OF BOOSTING DEVICES IN ECONOMIC ARTICLES: "THE GUARDIAN"

Article No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	Total	
																Freq.	%
Universal Pronouns (e.g. everyone)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2
Amplifiers (e.g. certainly)	0	3	1	3	4	6	4	1	6	0	4	2	2	0	2	38	81
Emphatics (e.g. sure)	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	4	1	0	0	0	8	17
Total	1	3	1	3	4	6	5	2	7	0	8	3	2	0	2	47	100

Table.8 shows that amplifiers are again the most frequently used boosting devices with a percentage of 80%. Emphatics rank second with a percentage of 17%. By contrast, universal pronouns are used least with a percentage of 2%. This is exactly similar to "The New York Times" newspaper.

Table (9) summarizes the frequency and percentage of boosting devices in economic articles, in both "The New York Times" and "The Guardian".

TABLE 9.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF OCCURRENCE OF BOOSTING DEVICES IN ENGLISH ECONOMIC ARTICLES: "THE NEW YORK TIME" AND "THE GUARDIAN"

Newspaper	The New York Times	The Guardian	Total	
			Freq.	%
Universal Pronouns	2	1	3	3.4
Amplifiers	34	38	72	82.8
Emphatics	4	8	12	13.8
Total	40	47	87	100

Table 9 suggests that the two English newspaper tend to use amplifiers most with a percentage of 82.8%. By contrast, the two newspapers seem not to use universal pronouns very much since the percentage is only 3.4%. Emphatics are used relatively little with a percentage of 13.8%.

Now, we turn to the Arabic newspapers. Table (10) below presents the frequencies and percentages of using boosting devices in the economic articles of "Alghad" newspaper.

TABLE 10.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF OCCURRENCE OF BOOSTING DEVICES IN ECONOMIC ARTICLES: "ALGHAD"

Article No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	Total	
																Freq.	%
Universal Pronouns (e.g. كل *'every'*)	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	5	2.34
Amplifiers (e.g. حتماً*'definitely'*)	1	2	1	2	5	4	6	8	7	0	0	4	8	5	1	54	25.35
Emphatics (e.g.في الحقيقة.*'in fact'*)	10	6	11	16	6	15	14	4	7	4	9	16	14	5	17	154	73.30
Total	11	8	13	18	11	20	20	13	15	4	9	21	22	10	18	213	100

As shown in Table 10 above, emphatics are the most frequently used boosting devices with a percentage of 73.30 %. Amplifiers rank second with a percentage of 25.35%. This is the reverse of the results the researcher found in the English newspapers. By contrast, universal pronouns have the least percentage of 2, 34%.

Table (11) below presents the frequencies and percentages of using boosting devices in economic articles in "Alrai".

TABLE 11.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF OCCURRENCE OF BOOSTING DEVICES IN ECONOMIC ARTICLES: "ALRAI"

Article No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	Total	
																Freq.	%
Universal Pronouns (e.g. كل *'every'*)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
Amplifiers (e.g. حتماً*'definitely'*)	6	6	10	1	0	3	2	13	0	4	4	2	1	0	4	56	26.2
Emphatics (e.g.في الحقيقة*'in fact'*)	18	4	20	5	1	30	9	9	2	8	7	11	12	14	8	158	74.8
Total	24	10	30	6	1	33	11	22	2	12	11	13	13	14	12	214	100

As evident from Table 11 above, *emphatic* are again the most frequently used boosting devices with a percentage of 74.8%. *Amplifiers* rank second with a percentage of 26.2%. By contrast, *universal pronouns* are not used at all. This is very similar to the results found in "Alghad" newspaper.

Table (12) summarizes the frequency and percentage of boosting devices in the economic articles of both"Alrai" and "Alghad" newspapers.

TABLE 12:
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF OCCURRENCE OF BOOSTING DEVICES IN *ECONOMIC* ARTICLES: "ALRAI" AND "ALGHAD"

Newspaper	Alghad	Alrai	Total	
			Freq.	%
Universal Pronouns	5	0	5	1.2
Amplifiers	54	56	110	25.8
Emphatics	154	158	312	73
Total	213	214	427	100

It seems that both "Alrai" and "Alghad" newspapers tend to use emphatics most, with a percentage of 73%. Amplifiers rank second with a percentage of 25.8%. On the other hand, universal pronouns are used least with a percentage of 1.2%.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper discussed the use of hedges and boosters in English and Arabic newspapers articles. It revealed that there were some similarities and differences between the two languages. The study compared the frequencies of hedging and boosting devices in two English newspapers to the frequencies of hedging and boosting devices in two Jordanian Arabic newspapers. The study concludes with the fact that the language plays a role in using these devices. While English economic articles used modal auxiliaries and approximates most, Arabic economic articles used approximates and lexical verbs most. In terms of boosting devices, English articles used amplifiers most whereas Arabic articles used emphatics most. Both languages barely used universal pronouns.

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Research on College English Writing Teaching under the Background of Big Data: Taking Leshan Normal University as an Example

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Abstract—In recent years, online education has been in the ascendant in China's education market. Among many competitors in this market, the Pigai system, an intelligent online English essay marking system based on big data analysis, is standing out from the crowd. More and more universities, colleges, even middle schools are taking advantage of it. This paper mainly introduces the reform of writing teaching model by utilizing this system in Leshan Normal University. The experiment of the teaching reform has shown that Pigai can shorten the working hours for teachers, develop students' habit of autonomous study and improve their writing motivation and good language expression ability.

Index Terms—college English, teaching of writing, teaching reform, big data, Pigai system

I. BACKGROUND

The popularization of Internet and various mobile devices have brought human beings into a new information age. Under such circumstances, governments and education departments in all countries, especially in developed countries, are focusing on the education informationization advancement. The United States put forward the plan of the development of educational technology in 1996, demanding all the schools be connected with Internet. In order to hold on a dominate position in education, it released National Educational Technology Planning in 2010 to reform American education and to enhance learning by technology. This planning has led to the reform of study method, assessment method and teaching method. (Chen Jiaming & Jin Yinglian, 2012) In 2005 and 2008, the UK promulgated the five-year policy on the development of educational technology, hoping to change the form of children's learning. Students are asked to do their homework by computer or on the Internet. (Ma Ning, Zhou Pengqin & Xie Minyi, 2016) Denmark issued *the Grand Plan of Information Technology* in 2010. Germany launched *the Digital Education Strategy 2030* in October 2016. (Liu Jialing, Pan Tangxian & Kong Jing, 2017) In recent years, Korea has been practicing U－learning based on E-learning, inspiring students to learn at any given time or place by any terminal. In 2012, the United Nations released the white paper *Big Data for Development: Challenges & Opportunities*, saying that the big data era is coming. (Zhang Daoxue & Zhao Keyun, 2017) In order to be in line with the development of the society, Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China(2012) published *Outline of National Medium-and Long-Term Program for Education Reform and Development（2010-2020）*. It points out that by 2020, an education informationization system covering schools at all levels in urban and rural areas will have been basically established to promote the modernization of teaching content and teaching methods. As we can see, every country is paying attention to the development of educational technology. Traditional methods of teaching, studying and assessing can no longer meet the need for talent training in this new age. Therefore, a new reform of education is in desperate need. Teachers should improve their ability of applying information technology, update their teaching concepts and refine their teaching methods to improve their teaching quality. At the same time, students should be encouraged to study actively and independently and enhance the ability to use information technology to analyze and solve problems with informationized methods. Informatization and big data are providing new opportunities for modern education. "The era of big data has brought great changes in the theories and practices of the teaching of college English writing, specifically in such areas as teaching resources, writing objectives, writing content and structures, writing aids and tools, writing evaluation and connotation of writing ability."（Wang Haixiao, 2014）In the face of this new situation, how to make full use of modern information technology to carry out the reform in college English teaching is an issue that every teacher should take into consideration.

II. INTRODUCTION OF THE PIGAI SYSTEM

The Pigai system (located at https://www.pigai.org/) is the first intelligent marking system for English writing in China based on big data, which can assess each essay within 1.2 seconds averagely by generating a report, including overall score, comments and sentence-by-sentence feedback. It can be applied to all English writing skills and requirements due to its efficiency and brilliance based on its huge standard English language corpus and the strong

192-dimension scoring technology. Needless to say, the system can point out the English learners' Chinglish and at the same time recommend the appropriate native English expression. The Pigai system, introduced in 2011, a commercial online assessment platform, specifically developed for Chinese ESL learners, has become the largest subscribed AWE system in China and has served more than 20 million users, and over 6000 schools and universities in China, having assessed more than 430 million essays. The system offers the online automatic essay marking service in the form of SAAS service. Teachers and students can get access to it just by visiting its website, needless to install any software as long as network is available. Pigai provides teachers and students with different web-pages. Teachers and students can use the Pigai system according to the following steps:

1. The teacher registers an account with e-mail address;
2. The teacher assigns writing tasks in the Pigai system;
3. The student registers an account with e-mail address;
4. The student submits his essays on the website;
5. Pigai corrects students' essays and generates their personalized feedback automatically;
6. The teacher analyzes students' writing data provided by Pigai.

III. APPLICATION OF THE PIGAI SYSTEM IN NON-ENGLISH MAJORS' WRITING TEACHING IN LESHAN NORMAL UNIVERSITY

Due to the large size of the class, the college English teachers in Leshan Normal University shoulder heavy tasks: each teacher has more than 16 class hours per week on average, deliver courses for at least 6 classes containing about 300 students on average per semester, and for some teachers, the number of the students even reaches 500.Traditionally, college English teachers can only correct students' essays once a semester because of the inefficiency of off-line writing and the large quantity of correcting tasks. Moreover, from teacher's rough correction, students can hardly find their specific problems in writing and cannot get detailed suggestion from their teachers, so they lack the motivation to revise their essays over and over again and therefore, make slow improvement in English writing skills. In order to change the situation, we have been struggling to find a new way to teach writing. As soon as Pigai came out in 2011, it became our best choice. Students are required to complete at least 5 essays each semester in the Pigai system. The average score of the 5 tasks serves as part of the student's writing scores for the semester and makes up a portion of student's final exam scores, accounting for 20%.

Around seven years has passed since the teachers and students in Leshan Normal University got registered and began to use the Pigai system in 2012. The number of users has increased sharply year by year. From January 2013 to January 2018, 147 teachers and 29870 students of Leshan Normal University registered and made use of Pigai, and the students submitted 307168 essays (Among which 290935 compositions were assigned by the teachers). Various data have been collected as follows.

TABLE 1.
USER USAGE REPORT FROM JANUARY 2013 TO SEPTEMBER 2018

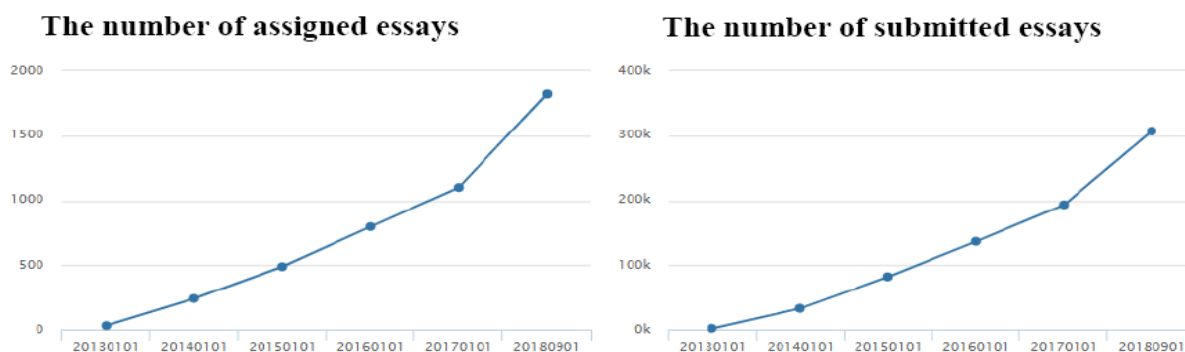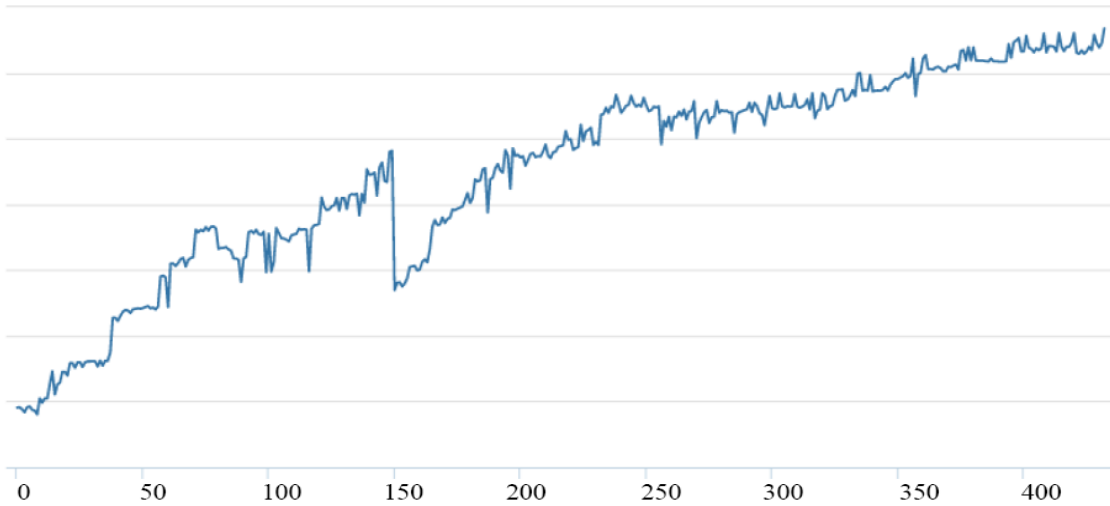| Time	The number of teachers	The number of assigned essays	The number of students who submitted essays	The number of submitted essays
Jan.2013	10	30	459	1848
Jan. 2014	70	240	7825	32732
Jan.2015	89	487	12879	81887
Jan. 2016	109	796	17925	136578
Jan. 2017	125	1100	22898	193217
Jan. 2018	147	1835	29870	307168

Figure 1. The Number of Essays Assigned and Submitted

Figure 2. The Score Track of Students' Submitted Essays

TABLE 2.
THE NET ANNUAL GROWTH OF USING THE THE PIGAI SYSTEM IN LESHAN NORMAL UNIVERSITY

Year Project	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
The total number of student registration	467	7426	5073	5066	4989	6225	29870
The total number of teacher registration	10	70	89	109	125	142	147
The number of active student users	426	7159	9867	10714	11367	13158	172578
The number of active teacher users	5	34	34	44	46	48	910
The total number of titles of assigned essays	30	208	244	307	304	448	1835
The total number of submitted essays	1847	30884	49154	54685	56645	73196	307168
The total number of manual corrections	6	2222	968	1477	1209	2072	9498
The total number of corrections by machine	10318	279633	506781	603516	689451	646418	2742423

Usage of Pigai by Teachers

147 teachers assigned 1,835 writing topics and received 307,168 compositions from their students, with an average of 12.48 topics assigned by each teacher. For each topic an average of 167.39 compositions were submitted.

The number of the teachers who has more than 40 students is 62 , covering 42.18 percent of the teacher users.
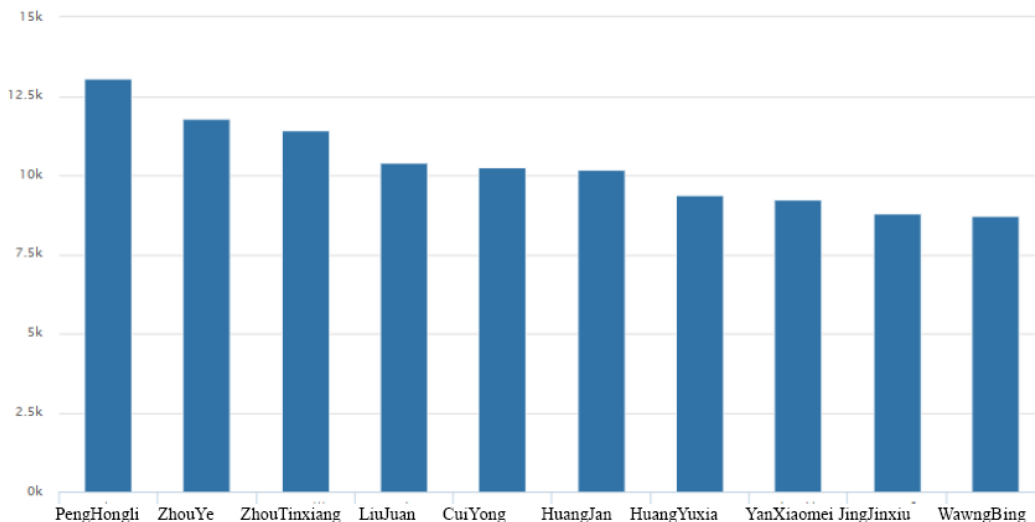

Figure 3. The Top Ten Teachers Whose Students' Revision Work Ranks in Top Ten

Usage of Pigai by Students

Of the 2,9870 registered students, 27,375 submitted compositions assigned by the teachers, accounting for 91.84 of the total number of registered students；

The students have submitted 307,168 compositions (Among them, 29,0935 compositions were assigned by teachers and 16,233 compositions were written and submitted by students themselves.)；

The students revised their compositions 2742423 times, with an average of 8.928 times of revision for each composition;

The highest revision record of students' compositions is 433 times (The student's name:Liu Yi ; Student Number: 1626140422; His teacher's name : Peng Hongli ; Composition Number: 737526).

TABLE 3.
THE TOP 10 STUDENTS FOR THE NUMBER OF REVISIONS FROM JANUARY, 2012 TO SEPTEMBER, 2018

No	Name of the Student	frequency	Unique ID	Essay ID	Name of the Teacher	Initial Score	Final Score	Growth Fraction
1	Liu Yi	433	38980498	737526	Peng Hongli	59.5	88.5	29
2	He Li	355	25995408	496231	Xie Lisha	58.4	83	24.6
3	Gu Youchen	341	22649917	506907	Yan Gaorong	46.1	89.8	43.7
4	Fang Jing	333	11747203	375034	Song Yusi	48.8	79.8	31
5	Zhao Yili	322	8357558	331187	Tan Xiaoping	66	85	19
6	Yu Guangrong	310	18511673	456002	Wei Ningling	83	92	9
7	Liang Zheng	288	10861735	363331	Wang Bing	47.8	83.1	35.3
8	Chen Wei	277	42565686	774860	Zhang Yin	32.6	82.1	49.5
9	Luo Suya	252	63206425	1032393	Xu Yilan	49.1	81.4	32.3
10	Cai Qin	243	22040902	496256	Xie Lisha	61.6	76.7	15.1

The Original Manuscript Submitted for the First Time(59.5 points)

1	2016-10-17 23:12:38	59.5
2	2016-10-17 23:13:50	59.5
3	2016-10-17 23:14:37	59.5
4	2016-10-17 23:15:02	59
5	2016-10-17 23:15:24	59.5
6	2016-10-17 23:15:41	59.5
7	2016-10-17 23:17:52	59.5
8	2016-10-17 23:18:18	59.5
9	2016-10-17 23:18:33	59
10	2016-10-17 23:19:05	60
11	2016-10-17 23:19:27	60
12	2016-10-17 23:20:57	60
13	2016-10-17 23:21:32	60
14	2016-10-17 23:22:24	61.5
15	2016-10-17 23:23:08	62.5
16	2016-10-17 23:23:44	60.5
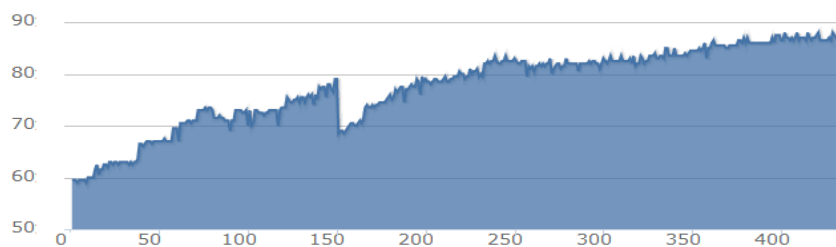
In our life,we will meet many important people.Such as teachers,classmates,colleagues.Some of those people,we will make friends with them.
I think friends are important in our life.They give us help like our parents.They never ask for repayments.They often share happiness with us.When we sad, they will company with us or give us a hug.When we are in trouble,they will help us out.
My best friend is in other city,but our friendship don't change.We don't meet each other long time.I miss her very much.I want to play with her.I hope I can have a chat and have lunch with her on holiday.
A friend inneed is a friend indeed.I am glad to have such a friend.I hope I can have more true friends in the future.Wealth is not our friends,while friends are our wealth.

Figure 4. The Top Record of Revision------LIU Yi Revised a Single Essay for 433 Times.

The 47th Revision Scoring 67

46	2016-10-17 23:47:57	66.5
47	2016-10-17 23:48:12	67
48	2016-10-17 23:48:25	67
49	2016-10-17 23:48:39	67
50	2016-10-17 23:48:51	67
51	2016-10-17 23:49:12	67
52	2016-10-17 23:49:29	67

I consider friends are important in our life. They give us help like our parents. They never request repayments. They often share happiness with us. When we are gloomy, they will company with us or else give us a hug. When we are in trouble, they will do me a favor.
My best friend is in the other cities, but our friendship doesn't transform. We don't meet each other long time.I time.I miss her very much.I much. I want to play with her. I hope I can have a chat and have lunch with her on holiday.
A friend ineed is a friend indeed.I am glad to have such a friend.I hope I can have more true friends in the future.Wealth is not our friends,while friends are our wealth.
In every life stages, friends are very important for us, so we should value our friends. I wish everyone can have more true friends.

The 104th Revision Scoring 73

103	2016-10-18 21:45:54	70.5
104	2016-10-18 21:47:09	73
105	2016-10-18 21:48:08	73
106	2016-10-18 21:49:04	72.5
107	2016-10-18 21:49:19	72.5
108	2016-10-18 21:50:58	72.5
109	2016-10-18 21:51:27	72
110	2016-10-18 21:52:29	72.5
111	2016-10-18 21:53:31	72.5
112	2016-10-18 21:53:47	73

In our life, we will meet many important characters. For example, teachers, classmates, an ~~so on.~~ colleagues. Some of them, we will make friends with them.
I take into account friends who are important in our life. They do me favor like our parents They never request repayments. They often share happiness with us. When we are gloom they will company with us otherwise give us a hug. When we are in trouble, they will do me a favor.
My best friend is in the other cities, but our friendship doesn't transform. We don't meet each other long time. I miss her more than much. I want to play with her. I hope I can hav a chat and hang out with her on holiday.
A friend in need is a friend indeed. I am glad to have such a friend. I hope I can have more true friends in the future. Wealth is not our friend, while friends are our wealth.
In our life stages, friends are more than importance for us, for that trigger we should valu our friends. I wish everyone can have more true friends.

The 235th Revision Scoring 82.5

233	2016-10-20 18:03:43	82
234	2016-10-20 18:03:53	82
235	2016-10-20 18:04:30	82.5
236	2016-10-20 18:06:03	82
237	2016-10-20 18:07:20	82.5
238	2016-10-20 18:07:43	82.5
239	2016-10-20 18:07:54	83.5
240	2016-10-20 18:08:47	82.5
241	2016-10-20 18:10:53	82
242	2016-10-20 18:11:56	82
243	2016-10-20 18:12:15	82.5
244	2016-10-20 18:12:35	82.5
245	2016-10-20 18:12:58	83.5
246	2016-10-20 18:22:47	82.5
247	2016-10-20 18:24:47	82.5

In our life, we will meet many characters. It is just like our educators, classmates, colleagues. We will make friends with some of them, but some of them are passing travellers.
Friends are important to us. Wealth is not a friend, but a friend is a treasure.
I hold a view that we should value them. In our daily life, friends will give us more help. They will share happiness with us. When we are in trouble, they are willing to help us out. They do us a favor like our parents, and they don't ask for payback. When we are gloomy, they will company with us and give us a hug which can make us out of sorrow.
My best friend is in another city. We don't meet each other long time, but our friendship doesn't transform. I hope I can chat with her and hang out on holiday. I miss her more than much. For my standpoint our friendship will go on until we disappear.
A friend in need is a friend indeed. I am glad to have such a friend. She learns me to know what is the meaning of true friends. I hope I will have more true friends in the future. True friends for us just like water for fish. I wish everyone will have a friendship, for the trigger that it is a wonderful memory. When we are old, we will be happy to think of these memories.
When you have a true friend, you and she will improve together. Maybe your hobbies are different, but your character is similar. When you succeed, she will not be jealous, while you failed, she will comfort you. Sometimes friend is another ourselves.
Nevertheless in a friendship, you and your friend must believe in each other. Friendship requires two ~~people~~ individuals to work together to maintain.

The 433rd Revision Scoring 88.5

418	2016-10-22 11:33:44	87		travellers.
419	2016-10-22 11:34:34	87		As far as I knowledge is concerned, friends who help us are important. True friends for us
420	2016-10-22 11:35:00	87.5		just like water for fish otherwise life without sunshine. Personally, we should value them. In
421	2016-10-22 11:36:56	88		our daily life, friends will give us more help. When we are in trouble, they are willing to help
422	2016-10-22 11:41:45	86.5		us out. They give us a hand like our parents, and they don't ask for payback. When we are
423	2016-10-22 11:42:37	86.5		gloomy, they will company with us and give us a hug which can make us out of sorrow.
424	2016-10-22 11:42:50	86.5		True friends are the ones who are always company with you no matter how the situation is.
425	2016-10-22 11:43:38	86.5		My best friend is a pretty girl who is in another city. We don't meet each other long time,
426	2016-10-22 11:43:56	86.5		but our friendship doesn't transform. I miss her more than much, consequently I often call
427	2016-10-22 11:44:20	87		her when she is available. For my standpoint our friendship will go on until we disappear.
428	2016-10-22 11:45:35	86.5		Wealth is not a friend, but a friend is a treasure.
429	2016-10-22 11:47:25	88		Nothing in the world can delight me so much as having such a friend. She learns me to
430	2016-10-22 11:49:27	87.5		know what is the meaning of true friends. Attribute to her, I have an advantage over
431	2016-10-22 11:50:43	87		before.
432	2016-10-22 11:51:58	87.5		When you have a true friend, you and she will improve together. Maybe your hobbies are
433	2016-10-22 11:52:45	88.5		different, but your character is similar. She can let you gain confidence by helping you with

your lessons, while benefits you all. When you succeed, she will not be jealous, while you
failed, she will comfort you.

What calls for special attention is that you and your friend must trust each other.
Friendship requires two individuals to work together to maintain. Provided that you want to
get what you want, you must ~~give.~~

~~We need friendship now that we need more care.~~ give.

IV. REFORM OF COLLEGE ENGLISH WRITING TEACHING BASED ON THE PIGAI SYSTEM

The Pigai system was introduced to Leshan Normal University in 2012. In recent years, we have been carrying out a reform in English writing teaching based on Pigai in our school. We have constructed a new teaching model that is concluded as "Humant-computer Combined Autonomous Writing----Peer Review for Mutual Progress----Particular Instructions on Strategies". This new writing teaching model has achieved fine effects.

A. Human -computer Combined Autonomous Writing

In our writing teaching, we make full use of the Pigai system. Teachers just log on to assign a writing task with a certain title and requirement. There are a bunch of preset titles in the Pigai system for us teachers to choose according to our teaching objectives and students' abilities. We teachers can also set tasks by ourselves and assign them to our students. In the same way, students just log on Pigai.org at anytime and anywhere via a smart-phone or computer and finish the task. The system will score the composition within one second and give revise suggestions. Then students can revise and submit their compositions repeatedly till a satisfactory result is achieved. In this process, students' personalized learning awareness and autonomous learning ability get strengthened. Gradually the students have learned to learn independently by themselves.

B. Peer Review for Mutual Progress

It is advocated that students review each other's compositions after they have finished their tasks, which is called peer review. Peer review is an embodiment of cooperative learning and a process of mutual progressing for writers and readers. Writers can receive some helpful suggestions from their readers and readers can gain some new information and ideas through evaluating other's compositions. Such a pattern will broaden their horizons, bring them some fine expressions and enrich their knowledge. (Dong Yuejun, 2016) All the students can get happiness from peer review and build up concepts of cooperation little by little. As we know, no one excels in everything all of the time. We need someone else's help. So cooperation is of great importance. Little by little, the students will learn how to co-operate in the peer review, which will benefit them quite a lot in their future life and work.

C. Particular Instructions on Strategies

The powerful evaluation of the Pigai system doesn't mean the reduction of teachers' responsibility and their status. On the contrary it requires more from teachers. A teacher should play his role of a guider and instructor. After AI evaluation and peer review, sometimes it is necessary for teachers to correct the students' essays by hand. For example, teachers can evaluate some typical works personally, and then in class comment on dimensions of the main idea, structure and expressions. After that teachers should instruct students on elementary knowledge of writing and train students to develop a wise writing strategy. Good writing strategies will help the students to organize their thoughts well and express them freely and smoothly. (Zhang Hong, 2017) There is no doubt that students' output quality of writing texts can be improved gradually. This is the big aim of writing teaching.

Our attempts on such a new writing teaching model has effectively inspired students' interests and enthusiasm of writing. Many students have revised their essays many times. As has been mentioned above, the top record of revision was made by a student named LIU Yi, who has revised a single essay for 433 times. (See Figure 4). By doing writing and revising again and again, our students have made great progress in English writing. In 2017, 6162 students

participated in the 2017 Big Writing Event under One Topic and the "Pigai.org Cup" National College English Writing Contest (preliminary). In the national final, Huang Yujie, a non-English major, won the second prize out of 86 contestants from universities and colleges all around China(including top tier colleges), of whom some are English majors and some non-English majors. And our college won the prize of Best Organizers. In 2018, 7506 students took part in the "2018 Big Writing Event under One Topic". In the Third 'Pigai.org Cup' Sichuan College English Writing Contest Final, Yin Juan , also a non-English major, won the first prize. We had another two second prize winners and three third prize winners.

V. CONCLUSION

In a word, with the development of science and technology, big data is transforming our philosophy of education and teaching methods. Based on big data, the Pigai system boasts powerful features like overall scoring, comment, sentence-by-sentence feedback and language corpus, which has reformed the college English writing teaching model to a large extent. More precisely, it has transformed the traditional result-oriented teaching method of English writing, with more focus on the process of writing practice during which students are required to revise their essays for several times according to the feedback they get from Pigai. As a result, it has effectively aroused students'interest in writing, developed their ability of self-study and improved their writing skill. The effectiveness of learning depends on how learners are actively engaged in the learning process. The success of the Pigai system exemplifies the philosophy of engaging users in an intelligent and interactive manner. (Zhang Zhe & Zhang Yue, 2018) In the meantime, Pigai has relieved teachers of the heavy burden of correcting students' essays. Then they can spare more time to think about the reform and improvement of writing teaching. Therefore, making use of the advantages of modern network technology to create a new teaching model which can help improve the students' autonomous writing ability, enhance their English writing proficiency, promote their writing motivation and improve their self-efficacy is an important part of college English writing teaching. (YANG Xiaoqiong & DAI Yuncai, 2015) We believe that the Pigai System will play a more important role in the college English writing teaching. More and more teachers and students are bound to take full advantage of Pigai.

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Study on Identification of Lexical Meaning in E-C Translation of English for Electric Power

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Abstract—As one of the branch of English for Science and Technology, English for Electric Power bears the characteristic of professionalism in meaning and flexible in lexis. As key components in professional literatures, lexis of English for Electric Power needs to be paid enough attention and accurately identified in order to precisely comprehend professional reading materials. This paper focuses on solving the problem of identifying Electric English vocabulary precisely by analyzing the determination of the professional lexis from three aspects of morphological structure, reference relations and context. Distinguishing the meaning of Electric Power English vocabulary is a crucial part in the translation practice of Electric Power English, which plays a vital role in ultimately understand and grasp the content of professional materials fully.

Index Terms—translation of English for electric power, lexical features of English for electric power, identification of lexical meaning

I. INTRODUCTION

In contemporary society, English for Science and Technology has aroused great attention by the scientific technicians and professional experts with the rapid development of science and technology and gradual expansion of information exchange. As a branch of Science and Technology English, English for Electric Power has become increasingly prominent in the process of academic specific purpose of English study and teaching. At present, China's electric power industry has entered a new stage of development. For the rapid development of China's power industry, understanding and learning advanced foreign technological information and gaining great experience in international technical exchange and cooperation have become an overwhelming trend. It is known to all that international exchanges and cooperation have introduced a large number of professional English technical literature materials. Under such circumstances, the proper and accurate translation of the technical materials has greatly facilitated the exchange of engineering and technical personnel in the electrical power industry. The vocabulary of electric power English bears the characteristic of professionalism and flexible meaning. The same vocabulary may contain various meanings due to different word classes, specific context relations and collocations. Precise identification of lexical meaning of Electric Power English is indispensable to understand what the professional English literature conveys and pave the way for the experts to comprehend the professional materials further in the long run.

II. TRANSLATION OF ENGLISH FOR ELECTRIC POWER

English for Electric Power fall into one of the categories of English for Science and Technology and do bear the characteristics of EST texts from lexical, syntactic and textual level. In the translation practice of English for Electric Power, certain translation skills and principles should be followed to make Electric Power texts materials more comprehensible and valuable for the reference of technical experts and researchers. Of many translation methods and principles, principle of accuracy and loyalty to the original, readers oriented and clear logic are the basic principles in the translation practice of English for Electric Power for the purpose of translating academic literatures properly and accurately. In the process of translation practice, the meaning of the words should be attentively analyzed. According to the lexical and logical relationship of vocabulary, different connotations of professional lexis should be identified and determined to reproduce the meaning of the original text accurately. What's more, being faithful to the writing style of the original text is critical to make the translated version understood thoroughly by the targeted readers. With no doubt, unclear, logically confused, mismatched translated texts would inevitably lead to ambiguity and misunderstanding, which must be avoided. Only by keeping up the above translation principles can the professional characteristics of the Electric Power English be retained and the original texts be translated appropriately with clear and logical thinking

III. LEXICAL FEATURES OF ENGLISH FOR ELECTRIC POWER

English for Electric Power bears the linguistic features of English for Science and Technology. The expression of Electric Power English is precise, brief and accurate with specialized lexis and normative description.(Jiang, 2016). There are some electric terms which mean differently in English for General Purpose. For instance, In English for General purpose, "plant" can be used as a noun that means a living thing which grows in earth, in water or on other

plants. It usually has a stem, leaves, roots and flowers and produces seeds and can make its own food. "Plant" can also be used as a verb referring to put a plant into the ground or into a container of earth so that it will grow. In the specialized English for Electric Power, "plant " is no longer used as verb, it is a noun with the Chinese meaning "电厂". Another typical example of this kind is "shunt". In daily English, "shunt" can be used as a verb which means to move (someone or something) to a particular place, often without any consideration of any unpleasant effects that this might have. It is translated as "转移". While "shunt" bears specialized meaning in English for Science and Technology with the Chinese version of 并联，分流. (Zhao, 2013) In English for Electric power, it is common to see the conversion of the specialized lexis, which needs attentive attention of the translators. For instance, the original part of speech of the word "flow" is a verb with the meaning of "流动"， while in English for Electric Power the specialized meaning of it is "流量" . The part of speech of it is converted from verb to noun. The same situation happens with the word "stand" with its part of speech being converted from verb to noun and its meaning changed from "站立" to "支架".

The lexis in English for Electric Power is more formal with specialized terms and bears the characteristic of preciseness, accuracy and brevity, which needs to be identified by the translators attentively.

IV. IDENTIFICATION OF LEXICAL MEANING IN ENGLISH FOR ELECTRIC POWER

In the translation practice of English for Electric Power, translators should indentify the lexical meaning of professional vocabulary according to the following aspects of different morphological structure, varied reference relations as well as text context, which are also regarded as the significant elements in the determination and identification of lexical meaning in English for Science and Technology.

A. Identification of Lexical Meaning According to Morphological Structure

Since there are large amount of professional lexis and terms in Electric Power English, it is one of the effective ways to identify and determine lexical meaning by analyzing morphological structure of vocabulary. Generally speaking, the formation of professional vocabulary for English of Electric power follows the same way as the vocabulary in English for General Purpose. Compounding, derivation and abbreviation are three major forms of word formation.

1.Derivation

Derivation is a method of constructing a new word by combining an affix and a root. It is an important method of word formation in English for Electric Power. The typical example are hydr- or hydro-; electro-; magnet- or magneto-; thermo-; auto- which are prefixes. as well as -er; -ance; -meter that belong to the category of suffixes. The following are the specific instances.

Hydr- ; hydro- means "水的；水力的；流体" and hydromechanics is translated as "流体力学", Hyrovalve is translated as "水阀，液压开关".

Electro- means "电的，电动的，电气的" and electromechanical means "机电的，电动机械的". Magnet-, magneto- means "磁，磁性，磁力" and magnetoresistor is translated as "磁控电阻器". Magnetoconductivity means " 导磁性". Thermo- means "热，热电" and thermocell is translated as"温差电偶"; thermocurrent is translated as "热电流". Auto- is a prefix refers to"自动" and automodulation means "自动调制"; autocouple means "自动耦合"; autoreclose is translated as"自动重合闸".

The suffix -er and -or   refers to a device with speical fuctions and is interpretd as "……装置 …… 器……机". The following terms of stator, exciter, conditioner which bear the suffix of or and er   are translated as "定子,励磁器" and " 调节装置" respectively. What's more, the suffix of -er –or can also be added to some terms in English for Electric Power and refer to the a kind of circuit component and translated as "……器，……元件" in Chinese . For example, resistor is tranlsted as "电阻器,电阻元件" and inductor is translated as "电感元件"。Suffix -ance shows "some physical quantity, or correlation coefficient", therefore, inductance is translated as "电感；感应系数"; reactance is translated as " 电抗" ; usceptance means "电纳" and admittance refers to "导纳".

2.Compounding

Compounding is a method of word formation, which refers to the forming of new word by combining two or more words. A compound word is a word which combines two or sometimes more different words. Often, the meaning of the compound cannot be discovered simply by knowing the meaning of the different words that form it. Although there are not many such words in English for Electric Power, they play the critical role of eliminating ambiguity, causing the effect of being accurate and precise.

Example 1

How to test them still needs to be addressed, not only for the circuit breaker itself, but for the liquid-filled bushing as well.

In this example, liquid-filled bushing is a compound word with two words "liquid-filled" and "bushing" combined together. It is a professional term in English for Electric Power with the Chinese meaning of "冲油套管"。Therefore, the Chinese version of this sentence should be"如何测试该设备仍需加以重视，这不仅仅是因为断路器本身的缘故，也有**充油套管**的原因".

Example 2

While this system provided adequate peak voltage/VAR support, it did not result in optimal voltage profiles for customers along each feeder, nor did it optimize for off-peak loading periods.

Off-peak in example 2 is also a professional term in Electric Power English. It is formed by combining different words of "off-peak" ,"loading" and "period". The Chinese meaning of "off-peak loading period" is"非峰荷期间"。Therefore, the sentence is translated as"虽然该系统提供了足够的高峰电压或无功支持，但是它没有在每条线路上为用户带来最佳电压剖面，也没有在**非峰荷期间**使电压得到优化"

3.Abbreviation

The language characteristic of English for Electric Power is concise, formal, and concise. In order to achieve precise and concise effect, abbreviations are common way of word formation used often in Electric Power English. Some typical examples are listed in the following: Direct Current   is abbreviated as DC；AC is the abbreviation of Alternating Current；PT is the abbreviation of Potential Transformer with the Chinese meaning of 电压互感器 ； Extra High Voltage is abbreviated as EHV with the Chinese version of "超高压".

Example 3

OCBs are steadily being replaced with SF_6–type breakers, but many will remain in use for a long time.

In example 3, OCBs is the abbreviated form of Oil-filled circuit breakers with the Chinese version of "充油断路器". Therefore, the Chinese translation of the sentence should be" 充油断路器（OCBs）正逐步被 SF_6 断路器所取代，但还有许多在相当长的时间内仍然会被使用。"

Example 4

Bulk transfer of electricity by HVDC lines can be 50% more efficient than by ac transmission lines.

In this example, HVDC is the abbreviation form of high-voltage direct current lines and refers to"高压直流线路", so the Chinese version of this sentence should be"用**高压直流线路**传输电流比交流输电线路提高50%的效率。"

In the composition of electric power terminology, there is also a class of words which are composed of abbreviations that represent the names of major international organizations in the professional field of Electric Power. It is more convenient for the readers and experts to recognize and consult to these acronyms when the type of these type of lexis listed by the translators beforehand. Few typical examples are illustrated here： International Atomic Energy Agency is abbreviated as IAEA with the Chinese form of"国际原子能机构"; the European Transmission System Organization is the full name of ETSO with the Chinese meaning of "欧洲电力传输组织" and ICE is the acronyms of British National Institute of Engineers and translated as"英国全国工程师协会".

B. Identification of Lexical Meaning According to Context

There exist great differences in language structure, language expression habits, cultural background and ways of thinking in English language and Chinese due to the fact that they belong to different language families (Yu, 2001). In the practice of translation, it is required to consider the specific context in which vocabulary is applied and the identification of lexical meaning should be fully examined in certain language environment.

Example 5

(1) Thomas made a stouter resistance than his boss had ever expected.

托马斯的**抵抗**比他的老板预料的要强。

(2) Between the extremes of good conductors such as silver and copper lay other conductors of reduced conducting ability, and they "resist" the flow of electrons hence the term resistance.

在良导体如银和铜两端之间放置别的减少导通能力的导体，它们对"电子流"的阻抗就是**电阻。**

Resistance is a noun form of resist and refers to the meaning of "fighting against something or someone or not being changed by or refusing to accept something " in English for General Purpose. Therefore, resistance in the first sentence in example 5 should be translated as "抵抗". In Academic Specific English, more specific, in English for Electric Power, resistance refers to " the degree to which a substance prevents the flow of an electric current through it" (Procter,2004,P.1150）and the Chinese version of it is "电阻".   Take the language context into consideration, resistance in the second sentence chooses the specialized meaning of English for Electric Power.

Example 6

(1) This publishing firm is planning a new series of English textbook for Electric Power.

In English for General purpose, series is used along with "of "as a collocation, which means "连续；系列",therefore the whole sentence should be translated as"这家出版公司正打算出一套新的电力英语**系列**教材".

(2) This flux is proportional to the primary current and causes a voltage drop that is accounted for by an inductive reactance x_1, called leakage reactance, which is added in series with the primary winding of the ideal transformer.

Series is a professional term in English for Electric Power, the sentence should be translated as"磁通与原边电流成正比，并且引起一个电压降。该电压降用一个与理想变压器的原边绕组**串联**的称作漏抗的感抗来说明".

From the above two examples, it is safely to conclude that language context should be referred to attentively in order to identify the lexical meaning correctly, that is to say, in English for General Purpose, the general meaning of the vocabulary should be chosen and in specialized English, for example in English for Electric Power, the professional

meaning of lexis is to be identified appropriately.

C. Identify Lexical Meaning According to Reference Relations

There are certain items in every language which has the property of reference, in the specific sense in which people are using the term; that is to say, instead of being interpreted semantically in their own right, they make reference to something else for their interpretation. In English these items are personals, demonstratives and comparatives. (Halliday&Hasan, 2001) This paper mainly analyzes the identification of words meaning from the two aspects of personal reference and demonstrative reference.

1. Personal Reference

Since objective descriptions is one of the characteristic of text of English for Electric Power, personal reference is reflected mainly by the application of the third person demonstrative pronouns reflecting the objective situations and things such as "they" or "it".

Example 7

In stress analysis work, the measured strains are converted to stresses through the stress-strain constitutive relationships. When the results seem reasonable, the strain data is seldom questioned. But when unexpected results are encountered, it is commonly made the primary suspect.

There are three clauses in example 7. The meaning of the personal pronoun "it" in the third clause needs to be analyzed and identified. It is evident that determination of the referential meaning of the personal pronoun lays in deciding the content of the reference in the first two clauses. By analyzing attentively, it is possible for the translator to determine the meaning of the word that" it" refers to. "It "and the "strain data" in the second sentence are mutually responsive. Therefore, the meaning of "it" can be identified as "the measured strain data (测得的应变数据). The whole sentence can be translated as "在应力分析工作中，测得的应变通过应力-应变之间的内在基本关系转换成应力。要是测量结果看上去是合理的，那么，应变数据很少受到怀疑。但若碰到意外的结果，其**应变数据**通常就成为首要的被怀疑对象".

Example 8

Meanwhile, global use of fossil fuels and emissions of traditional pollutants such as sulfur and nitrogen oxides that result from it continue to climb.

In example 8, "it " is the third person indicator in the attributive clause. The premise of correct understanding of sentence content is the accurate identification and determination of the meaning of "it". After careful analysis of this sentence, "it" forms a mutual referential relationship with "use of fossil fuels", finally the meaning of "it" is determined as "the use of fossil fuels". In addition, it is important to note that when translating sentences, the word "quantity" should be added to ensure that the Chinese-translated sentences are more fluent and accurate. The English sentence should be translated as"同时，全世界**矿物燃料的使用量**，以及由此产生的例如氧化硫与氧化氮之类传统污染物的排放量，还在继续上升".

2.Demonstrative Reference

When translating the professional literature of English for Electric Power, it is necessary to pay more attention to the referential relationship of the pronouns in the text. It is very important to indicate the identification of the pronouns and to determine the correct understanding of the reading articles, otherwise it will be more difficult for the readers to read and comprehend.

Example 9

Pressure transducers are electromechanical devices that convert pressures to electrical signals which can be recorded with a data system such as that used for recording strain gage signals.

This is a compound sentence with two" that" in the sentence. The first one is a relative pronoun that guides the attributive clause; the second one is a demonstrative pronoun that refers to the previous "data system". Once the meaning of the demonstrative pronoun is identified and confirmed, the understanding of the sentence would be smooth and the Chinese version of this sentence should be"压力传感器是一种将压力信号转换成电信号的电动机械装置。电信号可应用像用来记录应变仪信号那样的**数据系统**来记录".

V. Conclusion

Proper selection and correct identification of lexical meaning in the Translation practice of English for Electric Power are a very important and complicated process. The translator should master and familiarize with the basic knowledge and concepts of the specialized professions firstly, and then complete the translation task appropriately and accurately according to the corresponding translation skills. In the process of translation, translators should distinguish the professional meanings of specialized terms, at the same time, combine their professional literature context and logical relationship to make appropriate choices. More importantly, morphological structure, context and reference relations should be considered attentively in identification of lexical meaning. A faithful, fluent, and natural translation of professional electric power English materials and literature is fundamental to complete translation tasks.

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The Self and the Other in "The Land of Dreams"

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Abstract—This paper is a study of the post-colonial polarity of the Self/the Other in Hanan Al Shaykh's short story "The Land of Dreams". It investigates the sub-textual tensions between her admiration of the European model (the Self) and her status as an Arab writer representing the Other. Thus, Al Shaykh presents a prejudiced text in which the Other is misrepresented and rather stereotypically portrayed. While the Self is civilised and a savior-like figure, the Other (Yemini men and women) is primitive, superstitious and ignorant. Furthermore, the researcher will show that what seems to be a meaningful connection across the racial line where the Self (Ingrid; the civilised European) and the Other (Yemini people) find a contact zone is no more than an illogical oversimplification of the relationship. While Hanan Al Shaykh introduces this model of racial liberation through unification of the Self and the Other, the question remains to what extent would that relationship sustain the pressures of the primitive culture of the Other? Indeed, Al Shaykh tends to simplify and generalise the relationship to the point of producing romantic and idealised images of a human contact beyond cultural and racial gaps, which strikes the reader as naïve and unrealistic.

Index Terms—post-colonial polarities, the Self and Other, racial reconciliation, cultural and racial gaps.

I. Introduction

Despite the fact that Hanan Al Shaykh is an Arab writer, her admiration of the European model motivates her to produce a prejudiced literary text which becomes a site of highly effective instrumentality for the determination of the Muslim Arab character by fixing him/her under the sign of the Other. Al Shaykh's discourse fails to describe the Other faithfully. It is the goal of this study to recognise how the binarisms of colonial discourse- (the Self/the Other, the Civilised/the primitive, the educated/the ignorant)- operate in this story through an analysis of the main character of Ingrid the Danish missionary on the one hand, and the characters of Yemini men and women on the other hand. Consequently, the researcher hopes to promote an active reading which, to borrow JanMohamed's words, "makes these texts available for rewriting and subversion" (1985, p. 65).

II. Discussion

A. Myths and Common Assumptions about the Other

"The Land of Dreams" tells the story of Ingrid the European missionary who leaves Denmark to live in Yemen. She believes that her mission is inspired by a vision that had come to her one evening. The voice of Virgin Mary called her, "Go to the ends of the earth, to a land where they haven't seen me. lift the darkness from their eyes. Tell them about me, then let them choose" (LD1, p. 84). Ingrid's relationship with Mahyoub, her Yemini driver and Souad's brother, develops into a marriage proposal. The closing scene of the story shows Ingrid wearing Souad's wedding dress as she is surrounded by many Yemini women.

Myths about the Other (Yemini men and women) are impeded in the sub-text of the story. In addition, common assumptions about the behaviour and qualities of Muslims and Arabs are evident. For example, Yemini men are portrayed as lazy and have no respect for time (LD, p.47), they are childish rather than cunning (LD, p. 52), and they are sexually frustrated (LD, p. 57). They are dirty and even disgusting shopkeepers. The male hand which scoops up olives and cuts cheese, finds its way, finally, to the shopkeeper's nose (LD, p. 61). Furthermore, Yemini men are seen as leading a double life divided between a wife and the pleasures of storytelling and chatting with beautiful Ingrid who has a long blonde hair. Usually when they listen to Ingrid's stories, "they became like children…paying rapt attention and easily affected by what they heard" (LD, p. 66). In addition, they are cruel towards their own flesh and blood. When Souad (Mahyoub's sister) falls ill and nearly dies of dehydration, Mahyoub shows no concern about her illness. Ingrid almost drags him out of his bed and forces him to take Souad to the hospital (LD, p. 70-1). Ingrid justifies his "cool indifference" that "if the sick person was a woman, it mattered less if she lived or died" (LD, p.73). Ingrid reaches that conclusion after she visits the graveyard and notices that women have one headstone while men two. Such an action opposes the teachings of Islam; it is a heresy. Thus, the whole remark sounds trivial.

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[1] "Land of Dreams" is identified in this paper by the abbreviated form (LD). The researcher.

On the other hand, lack of hygiene, superstitious way of thinking, primitive beliefs and ways of living on the part of Yemini women are presented as a norm. Female villagers believe that not only their men, but also their animals are attracted to Ingrid's "strange colouring" (LD, p. 60). "Iftikar swore that her cow never took its eyes off Ingrid…and Husniyya too reported that her chickens were rooted to the spot in Ingrid's presence and the cock crowed at odd times of day" (LD, p.60). An old Yemini woman believes that "foreigners' wombs have stones in them. She [Ingrid] will be in labor for a year. Their kids have such huge heads" (LD, p. 63). Souad believes that her mother's soul has not rested in peace because Mahyoub has not married yet and for that her bones "are being curled up in a tense ball, rattling and shaking" (LD, p. 73). Furthermore, comparing women who emerge from their houses to welcome Ingrid to "rabbits [coming] from their burrows" (LD, p. 61) and to "kebabs on skewers made up of meat and vegetables of all shapes and sizes and colours" (LD, p. 81) as they gather inside one room in Souad's house is dehumanising. The vulgarity of the comparison is equally shocking. Also, those women are portrayed as bad mothers whose children are dirty, their hair matted with dust, their feet are black, their faces marked by various skin diseases (LD, p. 64).

To add, Yemeni female characters are portrayed as naïve and clumsy, so they are "suitable territory in which to sow the first seeds" of Ingrid's mission (LD, p. 48). However, Ingrid comes to learn soon enough that it is risky to talk to the women about the Bible. She must approach men first as it is "for the men to discuss things with her and then talk to their women" (LD, p. 60). Depriving women of freedom of thought and introducing them as mere puppets in the hands of their men who pull the strings, is shocking. Yemini women are depicted as being doubly burdened for being the silenced Other in a patriarchal society. None of the female characters not even Souad, the only educated Yemini woman in the story, is given an independent mature voice. None of them is able to construct a "speaking position" or an "effective voice"[2] clearly and unproblematically audible above the persistent male voices. Unfortunately, Al Shaykh does not introduce a rebellious female model whose sole wish is to break out of the shackles of the dominant.

B. The Self: the Savior Figure

Thus, the image of Other in Al Shaykh's story reminds us of the image of the colonised in colonialist texts where the colonised is portrayed as a racially degenerate population that is assigned a fixed position as the passive object of discursive domination (Bhabha, 1985, p. 151). In fact, the stereotypical depiction of the Other in the story is very clear. While poverty characterises the life of the Other, material wealth is a keynote of the Self's lifestyle. When Ingrid returns from Denmark, she brings gifts to Yemini women which she believes to be "Far more important items" such as a sewing machine, a sterilizer for babies' bottles, boxes of tools, second-hand cooking pots and matches (LD, p. 50). Such items suggest a pathetic degeneration of the life of Yemini people and introduce Ingrid as a saviour who brings civilization to those poor villagers who are in need of simple tools of survival. While they are ignorant about what is good for them, Ingrid is the superior European who knows what is best for Yemini people. She urges them not to be satisfied, not to surrender to their fate. She encourages secondary-school pupils to go to university and farmers to grow crops they haven't tried before (LD, p. 53).

C. The Other: An Exaggerated Inferiority

In addition, the incident of the veiled Yemini woman holding a cloth bag in the local market reveals how Yemini characters are dramatized as backward people and not checked by any inhibition of civilisation. When invited by Ingrid to join her for a cup of tea, the poor Yemini woman's eyes were open in wonder and amazement. When the Yemini woman enters Ingrid's house, the earlier stops in front of the mirror and examines her reflection in amazement as if for the first time. Next, she goes over and pats the sofa, picks up an ashtray and views it from all angles, and feels the curtains. Then she goes into the bedroom and sits on the bed and bounces up and down like a child. When Ingrid hurries to fetch the woman a picture of crucified Christ, "the woman drew her breath in sharply, putting a hand up to her mouth, but her attention was distracted by the knitted tea cosy" (LD, p. 49). Apparently, the woman finds it strange that a teapot should have a cover at all. Clearly, the supposed inferiority of the Other is exaggerated to the point of disbelief. AlShaykh never portrays the Other as an authentic character.

D. Racial Reconciliation: A Naïve Model

On the other hand, the relationship which develops between Ingrid and Mahyoub does not celebrate the authenticity of the margin; a feature usually found in postcolonial texts. It is Mahyoub's only way to escape his ugly reality. Ingrid is his ticket out and English is a passport to a better life (LD, p. 53). "He was clinging to her as if she were a life preserver, trying love as a way to escape to Europe" (LD, P.58). Thus, a relationship across the racial bar functions as a reliable signifier of liberation from the primitive life in Yemen. While racial integration does not usually imply an oppression of the Other but his/her preservation, Mahyoub is willing to accept dissolution of his native identity into that of his beloved (the Self) by abandoning his homeland and his mother tongue. He welcomes assimilation and self-denial by giving up his indigenous identity. Mahyoub represents the usual ambition of the Other to imitate that attractive model (the Self). In The Wretched of the Earth (1961) Frantz Fanon shows that the colonial project is to depict native towns as

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[2] In her essay, "Can the Subaltern speak?" Gyatri Spivak is concerned to articulate what she sees as the difficulties and contradictions involved in constructing a "speaking position" for the subaltern. [Spivak, 1988, p.26,28].

places which remind the native of his daily oppression. These are crowded villages where people live and die quite insignificantly. The Other who lives in these villages is full of envy and anger as he dreams of possessing what the Self possesses (Fanon, p.30). Al Shaykh shows a degree of simplification which extends to a tendency to romanticise and idealise the relationship between the Self and the Other. We are told that Mahyoub has been "head over heels in love with Ingrid since the moment he first saw her" (LD, P.86) though he discusses the subject of emigration frequently. Souad, Mahyoub's sister, has told Ingrid's fortune in her coffee grounds: "You will marry one of us and forget your ideas and your stories" (LD, p. 86). The romantic image of the possibility of a human contact unqualified by race, cultural or class gaps, and uninfluenced by religious differences, strikes the reader as representing, in a touching naïve fashion, a momentary.

However, the love relationship between the young Yemini man and the European heroine which develops to a marriage proposal is an attempt to introduce a model of a hybrid relationship between the Self and the Other. Hybridity usually allows a development of new anti-monolithic models of cultural growth and exchange while highlighting the distinctive aspects of the culture of the Other. Chinua Achebe (1973) views cross-fertilization as a fruitful metaphor of a dialogic process of recovery which develops between the past (the colonial) and the present (the postcolonial). So, does Al Shaykh introduce an optimistic model of idealised racial reconciliation which develops into a racial marriage? Can the worlds of the Self and the Other impinge on a level of equality? These and other questions are to be answered within the body of this paper.

E. Indigenization

Now, let's discuss the Self's efforts to develop a relationship not only with Mahyoub, but also the whole Yemini society. In an attempt to win acceptance of the Yemini society so that her religious mission becomes much easier, Ingrid puts on a scarf to cover her blond hair despite Mahyoub's objection who believes she doesn't have to since she isn't a Yemini, or even a Muslim (LD, p. 51). Only there in Yemen, "she always had to be sure that her clothes were suitable: that they had long sleeves, didn't show her cleavage, didn't cling to her body, and covered her knees" (LD, p. 45). Furthermore, she realises her need to learn Arabic and try "understand the culture of the country" (LD, p. 94). Months later, Ingrid is "able to understand the people's mentality and decipher their behaviour" (LD, p. 49). Nevertheless, whenever she goes deeper below the surface, "she loses her way inside their compact heads, intelligent eyes and smiling mouths" yet she never gives up because she is secure in her belief that this is what Virgin Mary wants from her (LD, p. 50, 83). The narrator emphasises that Ingrid believes that "becoming one of them and so belief in her and consequently in Jesus would automatically pervade their hearts" (LD, p.83-4) despite the fact that she never reveals the truth about her mission. Nonetheless, Ingrid could not become part of the Yemini villagers' lives and identify with their particular ways while she remains in their eyes "as remote as a heroine from one of their folktales, or a princess imprisoned in a palace that no one could enter" (LD, p.54). So, Ingrid seems to be willing to desert the pleasures of her civilised world and daily life as Mahyoub describes them- "You will go home and turn on the hot tap, sleep with your head on a pillow, eat off your individual plate, drink milk and Pepsi from bottles" (LD, p.55-6)- for the beauty of the mountains, or what Ingrid claims to be an "earthly paradise", "the secure life" of Yemen, and "peace of mind existed in these half-empty houses, which contained only mattresses to sleep on, dishes to eat off, a toilet, a lamp. This was paradise" (LD, p.55). Ingrid prefers such a simple yet primitive life because, she claims, it takes her away from "outer and inner turmoil and moral decay" (LD, p.55). While Ingrid envies the villagers their happy life, Mahyoub objects, "What's the point of being in paradise if you don't have enough to eat?" (LD, p. 55). In Ingrid's so called paradise, Mahyoub comments bitterly, "mosquitoes and bilharzia worms run riot and qat dries up the mothers' milk" (LD, p.56). Are readers expected to appreciate Ingrid's Abandonment of modern civilisation and never question her true intentions? Early in narrative, we are told that Ingrid "did not have a special interest in [Mahyoub], but she had taken it upon herself to hand out advice to the villagers who had adopted her" (LD, p.53). In my opinion, the dream of a mutual understanding proves to be an inadequate and unrealistic response in such a primitive context. The hints towards the end of the story that Ingrid wishes to become part of Yemen and its people reflect her desire to belong to the place, i.e., to the land of the Other. Such a desire reflects a process which Terry Goldie (1989) calls "indigenization"; a word that suggests the necessity of becoming indigenous or native thus adopting the culture of the Other (Goldie, 1989, p. 234). The narrator tells us that Ingrid allows the Yemini village to "change her from a European woman into one who wore Yemini clothes, baked bread on an outdoor clay oven, spoke Arabic and hennaed her hand" (LD, p. 48). Such a perfect image of adjustment and assimilation is surely exaggerated!

F. Hanan Al Shaykh: A Muslim and Arab Writer

Sadly enough, Al Sheikh's depiction of the poor life of the Yemin people points out her despise of her national and native Arab culture and identity. Like her Yemini hero, she finds a safe refuge in the European world represented by Ingrid. Al Shaykh's position as a Muslim and an Arab writer living in Britain has shaped and dictated the themes and meanings of her fiction. Hanan Al Shaykh fails as an interpreter of Islamic Arabic experience. Her fiction is an articulation of her rejection of her native identity which justifies her felt need to engage with the demands of her new European environment. This environment contradicts the private world of her subjective experience as a Muslim, a Lebanese Shi'a, who grew up in Lebanon in a strict family and inside the highly conservative society of South Lebanon.

Al Shaykh distorts the image of the Other rather than representing it faithfully. Consequently, her work must be read as her own personal statement rather than a reflection of the agonies of the Arab society. As an Arab writer, Al Shaykh's task should have been raising the consciousness of the Self (European and Western readers). Unfortunately, she is caught in a split position as she draws attention to the inferiority of her native culture and the superiority of European thought. The complex responses to the imperatives of her position, which make her work problematic, are the result of her struggle to connect with a new civilised environment and to separate herself from aspects of her native origin. Al Shaykh's dissatisfaction with the kind of life to which she was born has stimulated much of her fiction.

III. Conclusion

To conclude, the complexity of judging Al Shaykh's work stems from the fact no matter how dedicated to portrayal of the agonies of the Muslim and Arab women and men, she remains to some degree an outsider who has welcomed and embraced the culture of the Self. Her work is heavily influenced by the patriarchal controls that were placed on her not only by her father and brother, but also within the traditional neighborhood in which she was raised. No matter how sympathetic she is to the individuals of her own native world, she fails to introduce a faithful outlook of their life. In fact, Al Shaykh's confidence about her ability to write about any character is subject to doubt. In an interview with Christiane Schlote (2003), Al Shaykh claims that "at the beginning, you know, you usually concentrate on certain feelings you feel about things and then slowly, slowly, you start importing or inhabiting the soul of the characters. You can write about any character. It doesn't have to be something you experienced or something you felt a great deal about." In fact, Al Shaykh's ability to write convincingly about the life of the Yemini people is questionable. She fails in achieving the integrity which Chekhov demands "to describe a situation truthfully…that the reader can no longer evade it" (qtd. In Gordimer, 1989, p. 229).

I hope that this paper will inspire further questions and new horizons of discussion: Does Al Shaykh put her genuine identity under erasure for a better reception in the book market? Is she seeking attention and commercial success outside the Arab World because like many Arab female writers she has faced the same problems of reception? It is worth mentioning that some of AL Shaykh's works were banned3 in the more conservative areas of the region including the Arabian Gulf. So, is Al Shaykh a victim of Arab censorship? Amal Amireh (1996) sums up the issue: "The West welcomes her critique of Arab culture because it confirms the existing stereotypes of Arabs and Muslims as backward, misogynist, and violently oppressive. Thus, she confirms the ready-made assumptions and prejudices the Western and European readers have about the Arab World. Her promotion is part of the systematic and historical Euro-American demotion of Arabs and their culture".

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3 For instance, *The Story of Zahra* was turned down by nine publishers in Beirut, then the centre of the Arab publishing world. Her work often implies or states sexually explicit scenes and sexual situations which go directly against the social norms of conservative Arab society, which has led to her books being banned. See, Amal Amireh (1996).

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Self-deception in *The Sense of an Ending*

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Abstract—**Julian Barnes's *The Sense of an Ending* conveys his humanistic concern about individuals' psychological dilemmas. This essay focuses on the self-deception of the internal narrator Tony. It analyses how his defence mechanisms assist his self-deception and how his narrative discourses reflect the instability of his self-deception. Tony is an example of those who indulge in self-deception and fail to take on due duty. Individuals tend to struggle between deceiving and facing themselves. Those who know themselves better are better prepared for shouldering responsibility and addressing problems.**

Index Terms—**Julian Barnes, *The Sense of an Ending*, self-deception**

I. Introduction

The Sense of an Ending by Julian Barnes (1946-) is about "a man coming to terms with the mutable past" ("The Man Booker Prize", 2011). There are four events that are of particular importance: Tony's visit to Veronica's family, his breakup with her, subsequent involvement with Adrian, and Adrian's suicide. Tony is the protagonist and narrator of the story. He believes that he has "an instinct for self-preservation" (Barnes, 2011, p. 42, p. 64, p. 131). He claims that he is "peaceable" (Barnes, 2011, p. 35, p. 42) and that he has achieved "a state of peaceableness, even peacefulness" in his life (Barnes, 2011, p. 68). But his self-image is once challenged by Veronica:

'You're quite cowardly, aren't you, Tony?'

'I think it's more that I'm…peaceable.'

'Well, I wouldn't want to disturb your self-image.' (Barnes, 2011, p. 35)

Tony's inclination for self-deception goes with his instinct for self-preservation. He is too cowardly to face himself and can only deceive himself that he is a peaceable person and lives a peaceable life. He is forced to disturb his self-image in his sixties, when he sees the photocopy of the letter he writes back to Adrian in his twenties. He finally faces up to the negative side of his self-identity as a "chippy, jealous and malign" person (Barnes, 2011, p. 97). Present studies of the novel mainly focus on narrative skills such as unreliable narration and thematic concerns about history, memory, ethics, or self-identity. Some of them give insights into Tony's subtle and contradictory psychology. This essay focuses on Tony's self-deception and aims to figure out Barnes's humanistic concern about individuals' psychological dilemmas.

II. Tony's Self-deception Assisted by Defence Mechanisms

Individuals form their identities based on what they do, think and feel. When they conduct or encounter destructive behaviours or have psychologically threatening thoughts or feelings, those with a propensity for self-deception tend to evade, repress or deny them, so as to defend themselves (Paulus, 1991; Tyson, 2006). Internal narrators tend to deceive themselves when they try to maintain a positive self-identity in the process of self-construction under no interpersonal pressure (Zhu et al, 2016; Fan et al, 2017). Defence mechanisms refer to the ego's struggles against unendurable affects resulting from destructive behaviours, threatening thoughts or unpleasant feelings (Freud, 1966; Tyson, 2006). In *The Sense of an Ending*, Tony's defences help him to deceive himself, to maintain a relatively positive self-image, and so as to live in a state of peaceableness.

Tony projects his feelings and problems onto Veronica and Adrian, and then condemns them. Tony does not take his relationship with Veronica seriously, merely desiring to "[have] a nice time" and "enjoy the day and all that" (Barnes, 2011, p. 34). On the contrary, Veronica is prudent and serious about the progress of their intimacy. Tony does not perceive her seriousness but projects his unserious and irresponsible attitude onto her. He mistakenly thinks that Veronica holds the same opinion as his: "…the fact that we weren't having sex exonerated me from thinking about the relationship other than as a close complicity with a woman who, as her part of the bargain, wasn't going to ask the man where the relationship was heading" (Barnes, 2011, p. 25-26). So when Veronica asks him where their relationship is heading and whether they are suited, they cannot reach a consensus. Their argument makes Tony feel that he can enjoy the day no longer, so he begins to think about leaving her. For Tony, it is Veronica who breaks their "complicity".

Besides, Tony also projects his meanness and maliciousness onto Adrian and Veronica. Partly out of Veronica's suggestion, Adrian writes a letter to ask Tony's permission to go out with Veronica. Adrian says that if Tony cannot understand or accept it, he "[owes] it to [their] friendship to reconsider his actions and decisions" (Barnes, 2011, p. 41). The letter manifests Veronica's generosity and their courtesy. If Tony can be kind and friendly, he can relieve the tension and hostility he has created between he and Veronica, and remain their friend. But Tony projects his meanness and

maliciousness onto them. So he cannot perceive a tinge of goodwill the letter conveys and only has malicious interpretations:

> *I enjoyed the bit about his moral scruples….* I also liked the *hypocrisy* of a letter whose point was not just to tell me something I might not have found out anyway (or not for quite a while), but to let me know how *she, Veronica, had traded up: to my cleverest friend, and, what's more, a Cambridge chap like Brother Jack.* Also, to warn me that she would be hanging around if I planned on seeing Adrian – which had *the desired effect of making me plan not to see Adrian.* (Barnes, 2011, p. 41) (emphasis added)

Through projection, Tony self-deceptively feels that Adrian and Veronica are hypocrites and betrayers, while he is a victim. Thus, he has reason to condemn and punish them.

Tony has selective memory regarding his entanglement with Veronica and Adrian. He distorts unpleasant memory to reduce its negative impacts or forgets painful events entirely (Tyson, 2006). His selective memory is presented by the disparities of details between what he has remembered and what he newly recollects, and between his memory and the fact.

Tony's memory is selective regarding his relationship with Veronica. He has remembered that Veronica refuses to dance with him and that she despises his record collections. But after he reconnects with her in his sixties, he recalls that she has invited him to play his pop records and to dance; he even recollects a particular scene of her dancing. In addition, regarding the Severn Bore, Tony has remembered that he stays on the bank by himself, but old Tony recalls that Veronica has been alongside him and he thinks that "[his] brain must have erased it from the record" (Barnes, 2011, p. 119). Regarding his visit to Veronica's family, his memory is also defective. He has remembered that her father perplexes him by talking about the St. Michael's church and Café Royal, but when old Tony googles them, he discovers that there have never been these buildings. Tony also remembers that on the second evening, Veronica walks him upstairs, but old Tony recalls more details: while coming upstairs with him, she says she is going to walk him to his room and takes his hand in front of the family. Besides, Tony remembers that Jack winks at him superciliously and contemptuously, but old Tony is surprised that when he turns to Jack for help, he is polite and helpful. Before Tony reconnects with Veronica, his memory has been selective, in which Veronica is cold and arrogant, and her father and brother are contemptuous. His selective memory helps him to apportion blame for his breakup with Veronica.

Tony's memory is vague and contradictory regarding the key events related to his breaking with Veronica and Adrian. Firstly, about his breakup with Veronica, he remembers that "After we broke up, she slept with me" (Barnes, 2011, p. 36). But in his monologue he says that "'After we broke up, she slept with me' flips easily into 'After she slept with me, I broke up with her'" (Barnes, 2011, p. 44). Secondly, about Adrian's letter, he remembers that: "Adrian said he was writing to ask my permission to go out with Veronica", but then he modifies his narration: "Actually … what [Adrian] said was that he and Veronica were already going out together …" (Barnes, 2011, p. 41). His memory and narration are confusing and suspicious. Thirdly and most importantly, regarding Tony's reply to Adrian, his memory is far less offensive than the fact. Tony remembers that he sends back the nearest postcard to hand, in which he writes silly but unambiguous words to pretend that he does not mind in the slightest. At last, he replies to them with a letter:

> …at last, I replied to it *properly*, I *didn't use any of that silly 'epistle' language.* …I told him pretty much what I thought of *their joint moral scruples*. I also *advised him to be prudent*, because in my opinion *Veronica had suffered damage a long way back*. Then I *wished him good luck….* (Barnes, 2011, p. 43) (emphasis added)

His memory of Adrian's letter and his reply implies that he has occupied the moral high ground. But the photocopy of the original letter reveals that it is an ugly epistle composed of malicious calumniation, curses, and abetment (Barnes, 2011, p. 95-97). Old Tony is stunned by "the ugly vitriol dripping from every line" and "the destructive malice" which does not support his self-image "as a decent fellow, more sinned against than sinning" (Holmes, 2015, p. 35). The malice of his letter eventually reminds him of the postcard "of the Clifton Suspension Bridge, from which a number of people every year jump to their deaths" (Barnes, 2011, p. 98). Tony "forgets" the details of his reply together with the dark side of his self-image. But as old Tony sees the photocopy of his letter, he is forced to face it.

In addition, Tony avoids people and things that might remind him of Veronica, Adrian and what he has done to them, because they are "liable to make [him] anxious by stirring up some unconscious– i.e., repressed – experience or emotion" (Tyson, 2006, p. 15). After replying to Adrian, Tony burns Adrian's letter and decides that Adrian and Veronica are "out of [his] life forever" (Barnes, 2011, p. 43). After informed of Adrian's suicide, he does not contact Adrian's family or Veronica. He swears to repeat the commemoration of Adrian annually with Colin and Alex, but gradually he loses touch with them. He keeps no letters related to Veronica, and only a single photograph, which he has not looked at in ages. In addition to avoidance, Tony also has the inclination for denial, "believing that the problem does not exist or the unpleasant incident never happened" (Tyson, 2006, p. 15). Tony tries to expunge Veronica from his life story:

> I did a slightly odd thing when I first met Margaret. *I wrote Veronica out of my life story.* I pretended that Annie had been my first proper girlfriend. … *The odder part was that it was easy to give this version of my history because that's what I'd been telling myself anyway.* I viewed my time with Veronica as a failure – her contempt, my humiliation – and *expunged it from the record*. (Barnes, 2011, p. 69) (emphasis added)

In order to live in a state of peaceableness, Tony banishes himself from people and things related to Veronica and Adrian.

Tony's self-deception goes with his defences. He cannot face his true self or take responsibility for his behaviours, so he struggles to deceive himself so as to reach a state of peaceableness. He projects his weaknesses and problems onto Veronica and Adrian, so he has reason to condemn them and break with them. His memory becomes selective and self-serving. He avoids people and things related to them. He even tries to deceive himself that Veronica has never been his girlfriend. His breaking with Veronica and Adrian manifests his core issue that he always tends to apportion blame and evade his own responsibility. But he is too cowardly to face and examine himself, so he never addresses his core issue effectively. It stays with him throughout life and determines his behaviours in destructive ways of which he is probably unaware (Tyson, 2006, p. 17). Thus, he only lives a life of mediocrity, without a happy family or a successful career, and indulges himself in the illusion of peaceableness.

III. INSTABILITY OF TONY'S SELF-DECEPTION MANIFESTED IN NARRATIVE DISCOURSES

Internal narrators can tell "a mixture of knowledge, lies, self-deception, delusion and plain error" (Currie, 2010, p. 67). A self-deceptive narrator does not explicitly express the truth but provide a rendered story "as internally consistent and natural as possible, and as closely confirming as possible to the evident facts" (Fingarette, 1969, p. 49). But "self-deception is an unstable mental phenomenon"; its instability stems from the desire to conceal and to reveal the truth at the same time (Marcus, 2016, p. 129). Thus, self-deceptive narrators often tell their stories in an ambiguous and contradictory way. They set up a narrative identity, which acknowledges past actions, but disclaims them to the past self and commits them to the present self (Vaughan, 2007; Zhu et al, 2016). The process of narrating can lead to changes in self-knowledge and self-image.

In *The Sense of an Ending*, even though Tony reveals his original letter to Adrian and the truth behind Adrian's death, it remains difficult to restore the causes and effects, since as a character-narrator he can only give a limited perspective. But his narrative discourse gives a clear manifestation of his thoughts and feelings. Based on his own memory, the former part of his narration can hardly be a reliable account of what has happened, but it is a true reflection of his understanding and feelings about himself, Adrian, Veronica, and her family. The vagueness and contradictoriness of his discourse reflect his struggle between deceiving and facing himself. The instability of his self-deception is manifested in his narrative discourse through certain verbal patterns and narrative characteristics.

Tony tends to use one verbal pattern to state that his narration is true to his memory rather than actual facts. He cannot assure that what he remembers equals what has happened. For example:

(1) If I can't be sure of the actual events any more, I can at least be true to the impressions those facts left. (Barnes, 2011, p. 4)

(2) Was this their exact exchange? Almost certainly not. Still, it is my best memory of their exchange. (Barnes, 2011, p. 18-19)

(3) Actually, to be true to my own memory, as far as that's ever possible (and I didn't keep this letter either)… (Barnes, 2011, p. 40)

(4) Again, I must stress that this is my reading now of what happened then. Or rather, my memory now of my reading then of what was happening at the time. (Barnes, 2011, p. 41)

This pattern indicates that Tony tries to assure the reliability and accuracy of his narration, more to himself than to the narratee. It also implies that Tony cannot remember past events in an unbiased way. His memory is a mixture of facts and his interpretations. This pattern manifests his conflicting desire to conceal and reveal the truth at the same time. It is a clue to his self-deception.

Another verbal pattern, which is more frequently used, is that Tony doubts or even negates the reliability of his memory. Such a pattern is used especially when it is likely that Tony has misunderstood others, has misjudged a situation, or tries to projects his own problems or emotions onto others. For example, when he narrates the weekend he spends with Veronica's family, who are posher and who he regards as supercilious, he questions whether or not he has indeed been despised by them:

(1) …this is my principal factual memory. The rest consists of impressions and half-memories which may therefore be self-serving… (Barnes, 2011, p. 27-28)

(2) Perhaps this was mere paranoia. (Barnes, 2011, p. 29)

(3) Or was this mere paranoia on my part? (Barnes, 2011, p. 73)

In addition, when he recalls his argument with Veronica about whether their relationship is heading, he also doubts his memory:

Or have I just remembered it this way to make it seem so, and to apportion blame? If asked in a court of law what happened and what was said, I could only attest to words 'heading', 'stagnating' and 'peaceable'. I'd never thought of myself as peaceable – or its opposite – until then. I would also swear to the truth of the biscuit tin; it was burgundy red, with the Queen's smiling profile on it. (Barnes, 2011, p. 35)

Besides, after old Tony reconnects with Veronica, he recalls that Veronica has seen the Severn Bore with him, which is contradictory to his previous memory that he sees it by himself. But he immediately doubts his memory and imagines that he is questioned in a court of law:

At least, that's how I remember it now. Though if you were to put me in a court of law, I doubt I'd stand up to cross-examination very well. 'And yet you claim this memory was suppressed for forty years?' 'Yes.' 'And only

surfaced just recently?' 'Yes.' 'Are you able to account for why it surfaced?' 'Not really.' 'Then let me put it to you, Mr Webster, that this supposed incident is an entire figment of your imagination, constructed to justify some romantic attachment which you appear to have been nurturing towards my client, a presumption which, the court should know, my client finds utterly repugnant.' … 'Oh please, Mr Webster, spare us your sentimental lucubrations. This is a court of law, which deals with fact. What exactly are the facts in the case?'

I could only reply that I think – I theorize – that something – something else – happens to the memory over time. …
(Barnes, 2011, p. 119-120)

Tony's doubt and negation of his memory demonstrate his unconscious struggle between the compulsion to confess and the tendency to disguise. But his propensity for self-deception seems to be strong than his desire to disturb his self-image. After he is informed of Veronica's mother's bequest, he is puzzled and attempts to search in his memory for "any moment, incident or remark which might have seemed worthy of acknowledgement or reward"; but it is in vain because "[his] memory has increasingly become a mechanism which reiterates apparently truthful data with little variation" (p. 60). "History is that certainty produced at the point where the imperfections of memory meet the inadequacies of documentation" (Barnes, 2011, p. 17). The quick passage of time, the lack of documentation and the strong defence mechanisms prevent Tony from going out of the mist of his memory. But he does not believe his memory entirely. The verbal pattern that he doubts or negates the reliability of his memory also implies the instability of his self-deception.

Regarding narrative characteristics, firstly, the narration is fragmental. The fragmentation of narration serves to conceal something. The narration of the events tends to be incomplete and vague. There are always something unknown or unstated. Some events are not witnessed by Tony, some are "forgotten", and some are distorted. For instance, at the beginning of the narration, Tony lists six fragments that he remembers in no particular order, and the last one is "bathwater long gone cold behind a locked door" (Barnes, 2011, p. 3). This scene is about Adrian's suicide which is not witnessed by Tony. But "what you end up remembering isn't always the same as what you have witnessed" (Barnes, 2011, p. 3). Tony only hears of how he commits suicide, and he does not know why. But he has imagined the scene since it is an important event in his life. Tony's memory and narration of the key events related to his traumatic entanglement with Veronica and Adrian tend to be self-serving. The narration of those events is fragmental, incomplete, and subjective, so it is impossible to grasp the actual fact. The fragmentation of narration helps to conceal his destructive behaviours, to deceive Tony himself and to confuse the reader. But it is not difficult for sensitive readers to hear "those words as expressive of calculation, or self-deception— or something else not wholly virtuous" (Currie, 2010, p. 62). Tony's self-deception and his true self-image can be perceived through the details of his narration.

Secondly, the narration is disjointed. The narration of the past and the narration of the present are interwoven together. This pattern is more obvious in the latter part of the narration. For example, the narration of old Tony's quest for Veronica's mother's bequest is interwoven by the narration of young Tony's dates with Veronica. It breaks the chronological order and creates distances between the narrator's multiple recollections. In addition, the narration of events is constantly interrupted by the narrator's monologue. It is difficult to tell whether the monologue is "[his] reading now of what happened then" or it is "[his] memory of [his] reading then of what was happening at the time" (Barnes, 2011, p. 41). The disjointed narration produces a sense of hesitation and procrastination. The narration of the past and the inserted monologue mainly serve to conceal the truth, while the narration of the present and the re-narration of the past serve to reveal the hidden part which the narrator finds difficult to face up to. The disjointed structure also manifests the instability of Tony's self-deception.

Lastly, the narration is divided into two parts. As the narrator, Tony in his sixties has known the sequence of events and the causes and effects. But the story is not narrated directly according to what he has figured out. Instead, the former part of the narration tells about the past based on his previous memory, and the latter part tells about how he quests for Veronica's mother's bequest, gains the photocopy of his letter, gets to know the truth behind Adrian's death and modifies his memory. The latter part includes an implicit, more accurate retelling of the past triggered by Tony's modification of memory and his knowing of the unknown fact. On the whole, the former part of narration serves to conceal, while the latter part to reveal. The first part is self-serving to Tony. When telling his own life story, "[he] adjust[s], embellish[es], and make[s] sly cuts", so it is a story "[t]old to others, but– mainly – to [himself]" (Barnes, 2011, p. 95). In the second part, Tony recalls something that is contradictory to what he has remembered. But most importantly, the reveal of the photocopy of his original letter proves that his self-image as a peaceable person is fake and deceptive. Even when Tony sees the photocopy, he is still struggling: "I could scarcely deny its authorship or its ugliness. All I could plead was that I had been its author then, but was not its author now. Indeed, I didn't recognise that part of myself from which the letter came. But perhaps this was simply further self-deception" (Barnes, 2011, p. 91). Worse still, he finds that part of his evil curses have come true: Adrian's involvement with Veronica's mother, their abnormal child, Adrian's suicide and Veronica's suffering. Thus, Tony cannot help feeling ashamed and guilty and can hardly absolve himself from blame. The second part reveals the negative side of Tony's self-image and also reveals the tragedies of Adrian and Veronica, which have something to do with Tony. The narration divided into two parts also presents Tony's struggle between concealing and revealing his true self.

The verbal pattern that Tony uses to assure the reliability of his narration, which is true to his memory rather than actual facts, and the one that he uses to doubts or even negates the reliability of his memory indicate Tony's conflicting

desire to conceal and reveal at the same time. Moreover, the narrative characteristics that the narration is fragmental, disjointed, and divided into two parts, also manifest the instability of Tony's self-deception. Tony has been a self-deceiver. But he is also a confessor. After he confronts the reality, he chooses to reveal the hidden, negative part of his self-image and confesses his evil intentions and destructive behaviours. His narration presents vividly how he has deceived himself and how he is forced to face it. The process of narrating manifests his struggle but it eventually leads to revelation. By narrating, Tony confesses his faults, reconstructs his self-image, and in the meantime admonishes the reader.

IV. CONCLUSION

Tony is not entirely unaware of his weaknesses and evil intentions. But he has been too cowardly to face and change them. When confronted with problems, he tends to apportion blame in order to evade his guilt and fake a state of peaceableness. Eventually in his sixties, he faces up to his cowardice, selfishness, maliciousness, and irresponsibility, but "too much time has passed, too much damage has been done, for amends to be made" (Barnes, 2011, p. 99). He has lost the chance to be a better man and to shouldering his due responsibility.

Self-deception is common. It can be perceived everywhere in everyone (Warren, 2014). The only distinction lies in to what extent individuals deceive themselves. Self-deception helps individuals defend against negative affects resulting from destructive behaviours, threatening thoughts or unpleasant feelings, but it also prevent individuals to undertake duties. Those who can face and know themselves well are better equipped for the due responsibility of life than those who indulge in self-deception (Jopling, 2000). Facing and knowing oneself requires courage and honesty. When individuals know themselves better, they are better prepared for shouldering responsibility and addressing problems.

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Research on Perception Diversity in Intercultural Communication —With *Guasha Treatment* as a Case Study

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Abstract—This paper aims at depicting the phenomenon of perception diversity and its negative impact on intercultural communication (hereafter referred to as IC), as well as trying to offer a corresponding solution. Perception, according to its definition, is a process by which we make what we sense into a meaningful experience by selecting, categorizing and interpreting internal and external stimuli to form our worldviews. Guasha Treatment, a movie which provides the readers with a real intercultural context, is regarded as a classic in English learning and intercultural communication study. With detailed analysis, this paper illustrates that perception diversity will hinder successful IC by causing misunderstandings in communication. Then, based on Berger and Calabrese' Uncertainty Reduction Theory and Gudykunst's Anxiety/Uncertainty Management Theory, empathy is chosen as a solution to reduce the negative impact perception diversity has on IC.

Index Terms—perception diversity; intercultural communication; empathy

I. DEFINITION OF PERCEPTION AND ITS DIVERSITY

In intercultural communication studies, a lot of researchers and scholars have given definitions or description of perception. Perception is, as Marshall Singer (1987) tells us, "the process by which an individual selects, evaluates, and organizes stimuli from the external world" (p.9). Perception, according to De Fleur, Kearney, and Plax (1993), is "seeing, hearing, or feeling something (with the senses) and then identifying what it is within the interpretations learned from one's language and culture" (p.19). Jerome Kagan and Ernest Havemann (1968) define perception as "the process through which we become aware of our environment by organizing and interpreting the evidence of our senses" (p.154). And according to Gamble and Gamble's definition (1996), "Perception is the process of selecting, organizing, and interpreting sensory data in a way that enables people to make sense of our world." (p.77)

From these definitions, we can understand that perception is a process by which we make what we sense into a meaningful experience by selecting, organizing, and interpreting internal and external stimuli. Internal stimuli refer to our needs, desires, interests, motivations and so on. External stimuli are the sensations that arise from the way we see, smell, hear, touch, or taste, etc.

It is easy to notice that people from different cultural backgrounds tend to have different perceptions towards a certain thing or phenomenon, just as K.S. Sitaram and Roy T. Cogdell remarked,

"Members of different cultures look differently at the world around them. Some believe that the physical world is real. Others believe that it is just an illusion. Some believe everything around them is permanent while others say it is transient. Reality is not the same for all people." (qtd. in Samovar et al., 1981, p.106).

American anthropologist Edward T. Hall also introduced to us the concept of perception differences:

"The concept that no two people see exactly the same thing when actively using their eyes in a natural situation is shocking to some people because it implies that not all men relate to the world around them in the same way. Without recognizing these differences, however, the process of translating from one perceptual world to another cannot take place. Significant evidence that people brought up in different cultures live in different perceptual worlds is to be found in the way they orient themselves in space, how they get around and move from one place to the next" (qtd. in Davis, 2001, p.118).

Because of the existence of perception diversity, communicators may encounter misunderstandings in their intercultural interactions, namely, perception diversity has the potential to initiate great obstacles in IC. That is why we probe into the phenomenon of perception diversity in this paper.

During our communication process, it is easy to find perception differences which are determined by one's cultural factors. We may notice that different people sense the outside world differently and they have different interpretations of the same perceived reality. A full moon, to our Chinese people is usually taken to resemble the reunion of family members and often arouses feelings of togetherness or homesickness, but to westerners, it is nothing more than a beautiful physical object. Differences are also to be found in the perception of colors, numbers, animals and many other things. The number 13 in the west is really a taboo, because it means betrayal. So you may notice that even today in the

west, a large number of buildings don't have the 13ᵗʰ floor. Likewise, the number 4 in China is regarded as an unlucky word and will arouse unpleasant feelings because it has the same pronunciation of the Chinese character *si*, which means death. Consequently, most Chinese people often avoid choosing the telephone or car number with 4.

Communicators in intercultural context usually encounter people who do not share their perceptions of the external world, and who may respond to the world in a manner which is often hard to understand. People in England are told by their culture that it is of good manners not to speak too much to strangers. However, in other cultures, such as Arab, Jewish and Italian, where aggression during interaction is considered normal and usually perceived as highly desirable, and these manners are always perceived as non-aggressive behaviors. Therefore, a reserved attitude by English people may be regarded by others as a sign of bad manners. Also, our nonverbal actions are perceived differently from one culture to another. In the US, it is not uncommon to see men walking in the streets or eating in public places without their skirts, but in Hong Kong, skirts are never taken off in public places, because a semi-dressed person in public is regarded as uncivilized. So the meaning attributed to a shirtless person is quite different in Hong Kong than that in the US.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Researchers who attach importance to perception are mainly scholars or experts in IC or anthropology, such as Larry A. Samovar, Richard E. Porter, William J. Starosta, Chen Guoming, William B. Gudykunst, and Fred E.Jandt, etc. They have given definition to perception, described the perception process, and analyzed its properties of partiality and diversity. Chen Guoming and William J. Starosta (2007) probe into the nature of perception and analyze the stages of perception process. According to their study, the subjective nature of perceptual framework arising from culture usually results in the perception partiality and inaccuracy. Iris Varner and Linda Beamer (2006) argue that "When a receiver perceives those signals, decides to pay attention to them as meaningful, categorizes them according to categories in his or her mind, and finally assigns meaning to them, communication occurs" (p.28). Their study makes us clear about the relationship between perception and communication, namely, communication is the perception of verbal and nonverbal behaviors and the process of assigning meaning to them. And in *Communication between Cultures*, Larry A. Samovar, Richard E. Porter and Lisa A. Stefani (2000) hold that culture, perception and behavior are directly linked, and differences in cultural beliefs, values and patterns have great influence on perception and communication. William B. Gudykunst and Young Yun Kim (2007) propose that there are three critical aspects of perceptions influencing our communication with strangers: perceptions are selective; perceptions involve categorizations; and rigid categories inhibit effective communication. They analyze that if communicators are mindful enough, they can increase the accuracy of perceptions and attributions about strangers' behavior. Carley H. Dodd (2006) holds that language functions as a filter which molds perception. He deems that our cultural experiences and our language can shape how we see the things around us. David Katan (2004) provides that there are four filters that affect perception of reality: physiological, cultural, individual and language filters. And because of these four filters, the surrounding is not perceived as what "objectively exists in the outside world". Jandt (1995) explains how culture affects the perception process and the way we sense the world. And he comments that perceptional interpretations can reveal much about the culture.

In China, only a few scholars and authors have researched into perception till the present. In their papers, it is acknowledged that perception can affect meaning in communication, thus having a great impact on IC. Ren (2004) sets forth that communicators usually have perception differences because of their cultural backgrounds and these differences usually result in communication misunderstandings. He introduces the mechanism by which culture influences perception, puts forward the concept of cross-cultural perception competence, and also provides strategies to enhance the perception competence of communicators. Cai (1997) contends that without the consideration of cultural perception, it is inappropriate to discuss the meaning of word. Word meanings vary, because people from different cultures make different interpretations of the same word. He also makes clear that prejudices as well as stereotypes will hinder the selection stage of people's perception process, causing failures in IC. By probing into the superficial and deep cultural differences, Guo (2002) provides that it is necessary for communicators to possess the language skills, and pay special attention to cultural perception competence. Li and Wu (2005) suggest that with Hofstede's cultural dimensions as an analytic framework, people can learn how to improve their cultural perception competence, and reduce or eliminate barriers in intercultural communication.

III. PERCEPTION DIVERSITY AND INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Communication is actually the process of our perceiving verbal and nonverbal behaviors and assigning meaning to them. When we perceive some stimuli from the outside environment, we decide to pay attention to them as something meaningful, organize them into categories according to our past experiences, and finally assign meaning to them. Through this process communication has occurred. At any of the three stages of perception, communication can falter even when it takes place between members with very similar values, beliefs, or worldviews, let alone when it occurs between communicators who come from different cultural backgrounds with quite different values or social attitudes. That is why IC can be greatly influenced and hindered with the existence of perception differences.

A. The IC Model Employed in This Study

In this part we will focus on how perception diversity influences our IC process. In order to achieve a better understanding, the following IC model is employed to make clear how perception diversity causes misunderstandings:

Culture A ⇄ Culture B

sender→encoding→message→decoding→receiver

① ②

Misunderstandings

A Communication Model in Intercultural Context

① If the sender encodes a message depending on the perception from his/her own cultural perspective.
② If the receiver decodes the message depending on the perception from his/her own cultural perspective.

Here goes a brief introduction to the model: the sender and the receiver come from different cultures: culture A and culture B. In their IC interaction, when the sender encounters some outside stimuli, he/she will encode these stimuli into a message and send it to the receiver. On the other hand, the receiver gets the message and decodes it in order to understand his/her counterpart's intention. ① and ② represents two assumptions.

① refers to the assumption that the sender encodes a message depending on the perception from his/her own cultural perspective. ② refers to the assumption that the receiver decodes the message depending on the perception from his/her own cultural perspective. Mainly due to their cultural differences, the sender and the receiver tend to have different perceptions of the outside stimuli, hence perception diversity. If the sender encodes the message and the receiver decodes the message both according to the perception from his/her own cultural perspective, with such perception diversity, a message decoded by the receiver may be different from what is encoded by the sender. Therefore, misunderstandings emerge, causing problems in IC.

B. Misunderstandings Caused by Perception Diversity in IC from the Movie Guasha Treatment

In IC, we will meet with a lot of communication misunderstandings or even failures because of perception diversity, so understanding and appreciating differences in perception are crucial if we are to improve our ability to get along with people from other cultures. Here we will take some examples of different perceptions among cultures with the purpose to explain that perception is culturally-determined and that perception diversity may cause serious IC misunderstandings.

With the aim of giving a vivid account of perception diversity and positioning readers in a real intercultural interaction context, we choose the movie *Guasha Treatment*, a movie widely accepted as a classic for displaying culture shock, for analysis. In the following, with an in-depth analysis of perception differences in the movie, it is easy to draw a conclusion that misunderstandings or conflicts in IC can be attributed to perception diversity. Differences in perception reflected in the movie mainly come from the following aspects:

1. Different Perceptions of the Practice of Guasha Treatment

The main conflict in the movie is triggered by *guasha* treatment. Senior Xu (the grandfather) gives Dennis (the grandson) a *guasha* treatment which causes terrible scars on Dennis's back. When the scars are examined by doctors, they regard Dennis is suffering child abuse and severe neglect at home, so they send him to Child Welfare Agency for special care. But as a matter of fact, *guasha* treatment is an ancient oriental medical practice that can be used to release toxins from the body with jade or horn blade or finger at relevant acupuncture points by scraping, pinching, pressing, lifting, or puncturing the skin. Most Chinese people take it as a family remedy. In the movie, Senior Xu does *guasha* to his grandson and intends to cure the latter's cold. While American doctors, viewing the scars left by *guasha* on Dennis's back, deem that he lives in a very dangerous home environment and should be kept under the protection of the state government. This kind of conflict arises due to the different western and eastern medical treatment principles, based on people's different perceptions of the relationship between man and nature. To the Chinese, *guasha* treatment is an assistant treatment of Traditional Chinese Medicine, representing the Chinese philosophy of wholeness of man and nature—the ideal harmony, aims at keeping the balance of *qi*, blood, *yin* and *yang* through meridians and collaterals so as to adjust the relationship between human body and nature. This kind of medical treatment principle, rather experiential, individual and ambiguous, turns out to be too hard to describe and understand for foreigners. On the contrary, the western medical treatment principle, which concentrates on clarity and confirmation, is used by most western people to view the whole world by microcosmic analyzing, and objective verifying. According to this principle, modern westerners regard human body composed of independent parts, and disease is a partial trauma of certain organ. So in their opinion, *guasha* treatment is unworkable in curing a cold and it is nothing but a kind of body abuse.

2. Different Perceptions of the Relationship between Father and Son

Chinese relationship between father and son is unequal, which can be seen from Xu Datong (Dennis's father)'s willingness to be the scapegoat. In fact, it is Senior Xu who does *guasha* treatment on Dennis, but when the judge asks Xu Datong, "Did you do this *guasha* treatment to your son yourself?" Datong answers "yes" without hesitation. Datong does so because he doesn't want his father to be in trouble. Datong is willing to be the scapegoat and admits that it is him rather than his father who does *guasha* treatment to his son, which is a manifestation of filial sacrifice. Most westerners, including Datong's boss John can not understand this, because in their eyes, everyone is equal and should be self-responsible for their behavior. Father and son are equal, and if it is father's fault, father should admit it.

Relationships between father and son in America and China are quite different. Among Chinese, the kinship is of great priority and inequality extends into family, particularly into the relationship between father and his children. Father is always accepted as the ruler and master of the family, indicating that he represents authority and occupies high family position. Children have to obey unconditionally father's rules and show great filial piety to parents. Children's relations with father are very formal and love for him is always combined with awe. In America, however, along with the American emphasis on individual freedom, the belief in equality has had a strong effect on family. American families, compared with those in China, emphasize more on their members' independence, freedom and equality. So the relationship between parents and children in western families is more like friends, equal and casual.

Such perception differences can also be used to explain Dennis's rebellion towards his father. Being hit by his father, Dennis cried: "You never hit me before. Dads who hit their kids are not good Daddies." Dennis is brought up in American culture, which emphasizes equality among family members, so he doesn't realize he is challenging his father's authority.

3. Different Perceptions of Face

At the ceremony where Xu Datong is being honored, Dennis hits Paul, John's son. Xu asks Dennis to apologize to Paul, but Dennis refuses. Xu loses his temper and gives Dennis a slap fiercely in the presence of Paul's father. Xu disciplines his son in public, and the following is the conversation between Xu and John on this matter.

Xu: "Why I hit him?

Why? …To give you face, you know?

He is my own son. I hit him to show my respect for you."

John: "What kind a twist Chinese logic is that?

You have hit your own son so you can show your respect to me?"

Dennis hits Paul and refuses to apologize, and in Xu's opinion, this behavior is violating John's face, so Xu punishes his son to show his respect to his boss. But this logic is irrational and unacceptable to Americans, because their culture emphasizes equality among people, including father and son and it is regarded wrong for father to hit son in public. The main reason for this disagreement is that Xu and John, representatives of Chinese and American cultures respectively, perceive "face" differently. Chinese people value face very much, and in their daily life, they will try all means to save face and avoid negative remarks or behaviors which violate others' face, because Chinese people value harmonious relationship highly, want to avoid conflicts, and protect the integrity of group. Consequently, face-saving behaviors take on great significance.

Additionally, in the movie, according to Xu Datong, hitting his son is not only an act to show respect to his boss, but also a means to save his own face. Dennis does not obey Xu's order to apologize to Paul, which is regarded as a challenge to the father's authority, especially in public. Son shouldn't violate his father's will and if he does, then the father's disciplining his son is definitely right and appropriate, because it is a way of educating children in China. But American people can not understand this notion of face and the logic of giving somebody face by father's disciplining his son. That's why John remarked "What kind a twist Chinese logic is that?"

4. Different Perceptions of Abortion

Mrs. Rico, the nurse who assists in Xu's wife giving birth to Dennis, accuses Xu Datong of giving instructions to kill his child in order to save his wife's life, while Xu thinks it is human's common sense. This argument shows people's different perceptions of abortion. In western countries, where equality is highly valued, abortion is regarded as an unfair and inhumane act, which means taking away others' lives. The Catholic Church, as well as the majority of society, condemning abortion as a grave evil, is extremely against it. But in Xu and most Chinese's opinions, people should spare no efforts to save the adults' lives first. Abortion in China has not caused much debate about killing human beings; instead, it is sometimes taken as a means by women to complement the government's family-planning policy, aiming at controlling China's large popularity.

IV. EMPATHY AS A CORRESPONDING SOLUTION

A. Berger and Calabrese's Uncertainty Reduction Theory

Berger (1979) and Berger and Calabrese (1975) developed uncertainty reduction theory (hereafter referred to as the URT) to probe into the ways people come to know each other in their budding relationship development. Uncertainty refers to people's cognitive inability to explain feelings and behaviors of themselves or others in interactions owing to ambiguous situations that trigger anxiety. Berger and Calabrese (1975) summarize this theory: "Central to the present theory is the assumption that when strangers meet, their primary concern is one of uncertainty reduction or increasing

predictability about the behavior of both themselves and others in the interaction" (p. 100). According to this theory, in our interpersonal encounters, we meet with ambiguity or uncertainty about relationships and experience discomfort with questions about relationships. In order to make successful IC, communicators may have to engage in behaviors that can enhance the chances of maximum understanding, and reduce uncertainty as well as discomfort. That is to say, the URT informs us that interpersonal relationship will develop and progress if communicators are able to reduce uncertainty about one another.

B. Gudykunst's Anxiety/Uncertainty Management Theory

Gudykunst and Hammer (1988) used uncertainty and anxiety to explain intercultural adjustment. By extending Berger and Calabrese's uncertainty reduction theory, Gudykunst develops anxiety/uncertainty management theory (hereafter referred to as the AUM theory), a theory based on the assumption that managing uncertainty and anxiety is necessary and sufficient for effective communication and intercultural adjustment.

According to the AUM theory, when we communicate with strangers, especially those from another culture, we have not only a high level of uncertainty, but also a high level of anxiety. If uncertainty and anxiety levels are too high, we can not interpret others' messages accurately or predict their behaviors appropriately. But if we learn much of the strangers' culture, the more we know it, the less uncertainty and anxiety we will encounter, and the higher attribution confidence we will possess. With the reduction in uncertainty and anxiety and enhancement of attribution confidence, communicators will display more certainty and confidence in the process of attributing meanings to the selected stimuli, as well as get a precise and correct understanding of them, therefore, effective IC will be achieved. Concerning the importance of reducing uncertainty and anxiety, Gudykunst's AUM theory offers a powerful support with the Axiom 39:

An increase in our ability to manage our anxiety about interacting with strangers and an increase in the accuracy of our predictions and explanations regarding their behavior will produce an increase in the effectiveness of our communication. (Gudykunst, 1977, p.307)

To be brief, our ability to communicate effectively is based, at least partially, on our ability to manage our anxiety and uncertainty.

The above presentation of the URT and the AUM Theory inform us that, along with communication between people from different cultures, there are always uncertainty and anxiety. A high level of uncertainty and anxiety may cause communicators' inability to interpret others' messages, which inevitably hinders the success of IC. Therefore, to reduce or manage uncertainty and anxiety becomes a common need of all communicators, as well as a guarantee of successful IC.

In order to reduce uncertainty/anxiety, and achieve effective IC, communicators will take one of the two options to interpret the unknown or strange, i.e. to perceive the outside stimuli from their own cultural perspective, or from their counterparts' cultural perspective. With the analysis of the IC model employed in this paper, we are clear that: in IC, if the sender and the receiver try to reduce uncertainty and anxiety by drawing on perceptions from their respective cultural perspectives, owing to perception differences, the message decoded will differ from the one that is encoded, thus misunderstandings appearing. However, if either the sender or the receiver chooses to reduce uncertainty and anxiety by perceiving the outside from his/her counterpart's cultural perspective, because of similar perceptions, the message decoded by the receiver will be similar to the one that is encoded by the sender. In this way, mutual understanding will be achieved and smooth IC will be guaranteed.

Conclusively, in order to reduce uncertainty and anxiety in IC, communicators are advised to encode or decode a message according to the perception from their counterparts', rather than their own cultural perspectives. And to perceive from their counterparts' cultural perspectives requires empathy. That is why empathy is put forward as a corresponding solution to eliminate or reduce the negative impact perception diversity has on IC. Namely, if the sender or the receiver can empathize and perceive the outside from his/her counterpart's cultural perspective, the message decoded will be similar to what is encoded, misunderstandings will not arise, and the negative impact of perception diversity on IC which is mentioned before will be eliminated or reduced.

C. The Importance of Empathy in IC

One skill that consistently emerges in the discussion of effective communication with strangers is empathy. Communication, especially IC, needs empathy to a greater extent. Empathy is "the ability to feel like another or to place oneself in another's shoes" (Combs and Snygg, 1959, p.234-236). In other words, it refers to the ability to view a situation from another's point of view. It is the process of reaching beyond the self and understanding and feeling what another person understands or feels.

Many scholars have explored the effectiveness of empathy in intercultural interactions. Most of them admit that empathy is one of the determinants of intercultural competence. Broome sees empathy as "important to both general communication competence and as a central characteristic of competent and effective IC" (qtd. in Samover et al., 2000, p. 259). Samover (2000) also remarks "to be successful as an intercultural communicator, you must develop empathy" (p. 261). Showing empathy is an important factor in maintaining the ongoing conversation and achieving the successful communication. To display empathy, that is to say, to enjoy the ability to see things from others' point of view is a critical skill for the success of IC. "Empathic persons know how to show understanding by projecting themselves into their partner's position" (Chen and Starosta, 2007, p. 42). It is acknowledged that partners characterized by high levels

of warmth and compassion, and showing more empathic concerns to others are especially valued as effective communicators and therefore prompt more communication from others. Thus empathy is the starting point of an effective intercultural and interpersonal communication climate which lays the firm foundation for adjusting the cultural differences and avoiding misunderstanding. And "A lack of empathy always represents a potential communication problem. Our inability to understand and appreciate the point of view and life orientation of others often keeps us from effectively communicating with them" (Samovar et al., 1981, p. 209).

D. The Application of Empathy in This Study

In the following, we try to illustrate how empathy can be used to reduce the negative impact perception diversity has on IC. From the IC model, we are clear that encoding and decoding are two important processes. Usually, the sender encodes a message according to what he/she perceives, and assumes that his/her counterpart will absolutely understand the message by decoding it with similar perception. However, due to the cultural influence, people tend to have different perceptions of the same stimulus. Therefore, the message decoded by the receiver will possibly be different from that encoded by the sender. In this way, misunderstandings arise and IC becomes difficult. However, if the sender or the receiver chooses to perceive the outside from the other part's cultural perspective, they will have similar interpretations, and then, the message decoded will be similar to the one that is encoded, so misunderstandings will be avoided. Therefore we suggest taking empathy as a solution to avoid misunderstandings caused by perception diversity so as to achieve desirable communication results. In the following, the examination of empathy in the processes of encoding and decoding will help us see how it can be applied in IC. Encoding refers to the process that the sender, after perceiving the outside stimuli, puts them into a message; while decoding is the process that the receiver interprets the meaning of the message encoded by the sender. Communication breakdowns usually occur if the receiver cannot decode what has been encoded in the message, and this is particularly true with IC due to the existence of perception diversity.

1. Empathy Being Applied to the Encoding Process

From the IC model, if the sender encodes a message depending on the perception from his/her own cultural perspective, because of the existence of perception diversity, the message encoded will be difficult for the receiver to understand. In order to guarantee smooth IC, we should take empathy into the process of encoding, which means, to encode a message according to the perception from the counterpart's cultural perspective.

For instance, people in China often greet each other with such sentences: "Where are you going?" or "What are you doing?" These sentences are not intentionally inquiring about others' private life; instead, they are only used for greeting or showing one's care and consideration, indicating an intimate human relationship. However, foreigners, who focus much on privacy, upon hearing these sentences, will feel uncomfortable, embarrassed or even irritated because they feel their personal life has been disturbed. Under this circumstance, by applying empathy and changing the sentences into "How do you do?", "It is a nice day, isn't it?" or just "Hello!" we can send the accurate information of greeting others. In this way, both the sender and the receiver can understand each other's true intention and get smooth IC.

2. Empathy Being Applied to the Decoding Process

Decoding refers to the receiver's interpreting the message encoded by the sender. If the receiver can not decode what has been encoded in the message, a communication failure emerges. For example, when Chinese people, especially those in the north meet each other, they are accustomed to greet each other by asking "Have you had your lunch?", a sentence has nothing to do with sending an invitation. However, without the knowledge of this custom, the foreigners, when decoding the message, will perceive it in their own way—such a sentence in their own language infers an invitation for dinner. Thus misunderstanding occurs.

Similarly, Chinese people's modesty usually constitutes something difficult for foreigners to understand. In China, people are told by their culture to be modest and self-dispraising. So when entertaining friends at dinner, as a reply to others' compliments on the dishes, the host will always say: "There is no delicious food, and the condition is so poor. Please forgive me!" It is because "to Chinese, however, the customary reply to a compliment would be to claim that one is not worthy of the praise, that what one has done is not enough…and acceptance of compliment would imply conceit or lack of manners" (Deng and Liu, 2003, p. 2). If the foreigner friends do not know the Chinese culture and decode the message with the perception from their own cultural perspective, they will get embarrassed, feeling not being treated well. But if the foreign friends employ empathy in decoding this message, i.e. to decode the message with the perception from the Chinese cultural perspective, they will understand that such sentences do not mean inhospitality, but merely a sign of showing modesty. Therefore, knowing cultural differences and decode the messages with the perception from the counterpart's perspective is important for people to understand what is actually being encoded.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper has proposed a new approach to the IC study—from the perspective of perception. It tries to make such a point clear: studies on perception diversity are of great importance in IC. Due to the cultural influence, people in the world have different perceptions and these perception differences will initiate obstacles in understanding, thus making effective IC hard to achieve. The main purpose of this paper is to elaborate the negative impact perception diversity has on IC, as well as try to offer a corresponding solution.

In order to illustrate the negative impact perception diversity has on IC, we employ an IC model, as well as the movie *Guasha Treatment*. With the description of an IC model, readers can understand how on earth perception diversity causes misunderstandings in IC. And the movie *Guasha Treatment*, a classic movie mainly about culture shock, positions readers in a real intercultural context and makes them clear that a lot of IC misunderstandings or failures are triggered by people's different perceptions.

Finally, in order to solve the problems caused by perception diversity in IC, empathy is chosen as a sound solution. According to the URT and the AUM Theory, in communication, it is human being's common need to reduce uncertainty and anxiety for the sake of guaranteeing desirable communication outcome. To reduce uncertainty and anxiety, communicators have to take one of the two options: to perceive the outside stimuli from the cultural perspective of themselves or from the cultural perspective of their counterparts. From the IC model employed in this paper, we are clear that if the sender encodes the message and the receiver decodes the message both according to the perception from their respective cultural perspectives, because of their different perceptions, the message decoded will be quite different from the one that is encoded, misunderstandings arise and communication usually fails. Instead, if either the sender or the receiver can apply empathy, encodes or decodes the message with the perception from the counterpart's perspective, the message decoded will be similar to the one that is encoded, and it would be easier for them to achieve success in IC.

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Gender-based Responses to Peer Reviews in Academic Writing

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Abstract—We are living in a digital era in which everybody who is not participating will be left behind. Yes, that is true. We are all chased by the rapid changes of this era, and we are running faster and faster to catch up with the latest technology. It seems as if we are all haunted to go deeper and deeper into the "tunnel of the digital era". The same thing happens in the world of education. However, if we notice more closely, there are still some aspects that can be done directly without necessitating the use of technology. One example is student-student direct interactions. Technology can be used to facilitate peer assessments, not replace student-student interactions. One central research question to be answered in this paper is: *What are male and female Indonesian students' points of views towards peer reviews?* Despite all the sophisticated technology we are all exposed to in this era, peer feedback should still be done directly with real, face-to-face communication in a classroom setting. Indirect online communication or chatting through social media may cause a misunderstanding and misinterpretation of one's ideas. Data for this study was taken from 39 students' opinions in their journals. They were Academic Writing class students of the English Department of UKSW Indonesia, in Semester II, 2015-2016. Most students stated that direct and interactive face-to-face communication is still needed. It proves that digitation cannot replace everything. Real communication with real peers in the real - not cyber - world can enhance successful learning. The findings also reveal that differences were found between male and female students' reactions or perceptions towards peer reviews.

Index Terms—peer reviews, male and female, academic writing, points of view

I. INTRODUCTION

Some underlying theories which are used for the foundation of this paper are discussed below.

A. Gender Differences

Some say that men are from Mars, while women are from Venus. The parable may be right, considering the physical and psychological differences between those two genders. Before it is discussed further, some concepts about gender are discussed below.

Hyde and Durio (2005), in Wehr-Flowers (2006), distinguished between the concept of gender as a person variable or stimulus variable. As a person variable, gender is thought of as a characteristic of the person. In contrast, psychological research conceptualizes gender as a person variable. In sociological research, this is different. Gender is conceptualized as a stimulus variable where someone's gender affects any information and cues which are received by others. This, in turn, will influence their motivation or self-efficacy. In social-psychological theories, the concept of self-efficacy is "domain-specific", and this accentuates the importance of socializers in the development of competence.

There are several differences between men's and women's thinking patterns. One of them is that men are better at certain types of task-specific activities and analytical thinking, while women are superior in multitasking (Brown, 2017). Another difference is that men in general are more independent than women. On the other hand, women become distressed if they do not share with their friends. They need to confide, even if their friends cannot provide any solutions. This is a very popular point of conflict where women often share about a problem with the intention of only sharing it. A woman often becomes surprised by the man's intention to provide a solution to the problem. The next difference is that men tend to be decision makers, while women consider every single decision that they have to make (2knowmyself.com).

The fact that women are more subject/ prone to stress is perhaps due to men's brains' ability to synthesize serotonin far more quickly than their female counterparts. Women can get depressed more easily. Sydelnykov (2015) further stated that women are also far more likely to suffer from a post-traumatic stress disorder after a traumatizing event.

Women are consistently rated highly for being inherent to the feminine gender role by providing a friendly classroom environment (Langbein, 1994, as cited in Carson, 2001). From a piece of research in music education, Wehr-Flowers (2006), as cited from Feldman and Gardner (1998), mentioned that "*Creative individuals need distance from their peers, tend to avoid interpersonal contact, and tend to resist societal demands. In contrast, adolescent females tend to be concerned with popularity and social groups and want to fit into society-defined roles*". Wehr-Flowers emphasized that women have the tendency to be concerned about fame and socialization, and they always want to fit into roles which are defined by the society.

Citing from Ellen Rowe (1995), Wehr-Flowers further stated that "*Young men are encouraged to seek attention, whereas women are not given the tools of confidence or self-esteem to handle such attention."* Men seem to be destined to be able to solve problems with confidence and self-esteem; a condition which is so different from women.

Frederickson (2000) in Wehr-Flowers (2006) also suggested that some women and girls choose not to participate in the classroom not because they are not able to, but because of social politeness and a fear of breaking norms. This is called female silence. Adolescent girls are particularly interested in making and keeping friends.

Kemp (1996), as cited by Wehr-Flowers (2006), also reported that men score higher on measures of introversion and some measures of independence. Their female counterparts score higher in measures of sensitivity and anxiety in general populations.

In the world of education, however, the same opportunities should be given to all students, both male and female. Male domination should not exist anymore. This was also stated by Jati (2017). He confirmed that, "*The digital world and "non-digital" world are equal in terms of justice and equality. Everyone, anybody will have the same opportunity to take part."* Gender issues should not become a big problem in the world of education.

B. Gender Differences in Language Learning

No one denies the fact that men and women are created differently. One aspect of life is language learning. Some research on it has been done. Tucker (2013), for example, conducted research on gender bias and gender differences in peer assessments. He used 1,500 participants from two universities. The findings show that there was an absence of gender bias in six case studies.

C. Digital Era

This is true that we are all living in an era where people are competing. According to Mark Surman, the Executive Director of the Mozilla Foundation, as cited by Gurney (2013), skills in digital literacy are as important as learning to read and write. Mark further stated, "*If you want your kids to be smart and safe in the digital world – whether that is in school or out of school – having them understand how the technology works, how copyright works, how identity works, is way more important than whether they have access to information or not*" (Gurney, 2013). It means that beyond students' skillfulness and intelligence in using technology, there are still many other things to consider. Ethics in writing, collaborative work with peer students, for example, and understanding a process of how something is done are more important than mastering a particular kind of technology itself.

Crowley (2014) also reaffirmed this matter. Citing from the Department of Education in New York, Crowley stated that "*Digitally literate people are those who can use technology strategically to find and evaluate information, connect and collaborate with others, produce and share original content, and use the Internet and technology tools to achieve many academic, professional, and personal goals.*" Technology is only a means. It is not everything in achieving the goals of the teaching learning process. According to Soefijanto (2015), Indonesia ranks in the middle in terms of technological advancement, in the Southeast Asian region.

Zacharias (2017), from Miami University, also stated a similar thing. Besides human resources – in this case teachers - that need improving, more funds are needed for the improvement of the infrastructure, material development, and teacher training as well.

If it means all teaching and learning are conducted using the aid of technology, then, I think the secondary level of education in Indonesia is far from ready because the preparation to digitize education is multi-dimensional. Teachers need to be educated in using, utilizing, and evaluating technology, among others. There also needs to be money for the infrastructure (buying good computers, having good Internet access, and having good IT support) of the school. Teaching materials also need to be adapted to allow for the teacher and students to conduct teaching and learning digitally. Most of all, students need to be trained on how to learn differently because being students in a digital classroom is significantly different from a traditional classroom. (Zacharias, 2017).

A similar opinion was espoused from Jati, a lecturer at the Institute of Technology, Bandung (ITB). He stated that in general, Indonesia is not ready yet to face the digital era.

Most of the teaching and learning materials are still in the form of paper and books, even in big cities. The availability of digital materials is very rare or expensive. The infrastructure is not ready (only some schools in big cities are ready). Even some schools in remote area do not have sufficient electricity. The schools' leaders, headmasters, and teachers are not prepared for digitation yet. Not enough training is given to schools' leaders. Digitation needs a huge budget (I do not think that the government is ready in terms of budget). (Jati, 2017).

One area that can never be replaced by technology is direct interactions between teacher-students, between a student and his/her peers, and among students. In direct interactions, there are many things that can be learned besides exchanging ideas and opinions. Students also learn soft skills like courtesy in expressing ideas, appreciating and accepting others' opinions, expressing disagreements without offending others, or disagreeing in an appropriate manner.

As stated by McNutt (2016), society is losing to apathy. Less and less people have sympathy. People are getting dumber. "*We're losing society to apathy, to digital technology, the people who care about nobody else but themselves. They share every little detail of their stupid lives online as if the world even gives a damn ... digital technology is getting smarter and society is getting dumber,*" Mandy whispered in a voice filled with disbelief. "*Society is ... it's*

slipping away." Good direct relationships within the society, even within the family may gradually be replaced by technology. That is what McNutt means by the statement "Society is losing apathy."

D. Peer Reviews

Student evaluations so far are seen as the most common method used to assess teaching performance during classroom instruction. This method is perceived as reliable and valid for assessing teaching effectiveness. However, there is a potential for evaluation bias that has been noted in literature (Wellein et al., 2009). In Wellein's article, it is revealed that the researchers found a strong positive correlation between the mean course evaluation scores and the students' actual and expected grades. This suggests that there is a big possibility for students to positively evaluate faculty members who award them with higher grades. In other words, student evaluations can be biased based on the benefits that they get. That is the case of student evaluations on faculty members' or lecturers' overall performance.

In dealing with students' evaluations of their peer students' works, Kennedy (2005) mentioned that peer assessment refers to "*any of a variety of approaches where group members are required to evaluate other members of the group on their relative contributions to a project. The group mark awarded for the collaborative product can then be distributed accordingly*". Ur (1999, p. 171) also supported this idea. She stated that one possible solution for correcting written work is by asking students to correct and also edit each other's writing.

Peer correction surprisingly can be a technique which is useful and time-saving for teachers. This can also be a great exercise for critical reading, language accuracy, as well as essay analysis for students. Ur further claims that this activity – peer assessment – can be a kind of substitute measure for first-draft reading. Students do the reviews or corrections of the first drafts. They can give comments both on the content as well as the language and organization. Teachers then need to work on the students' final drafts.

Students also learn valuable lessons in this activity. That is, they learn about trust, willingness to help, inclination to accept criticism, and also readiness to maintain good relationships, although they have to be critical of each other's works. Classes where there are opportunities for students to interact with each other help students to construct knowledge effectively. Emphasizing the collaborative and cooperative nature of scientific work will make students share their responsibility for learning with each other. They can also discuss different understandings, and hence shape the direction of the class (Carleton.Edu, 2017).

In the context of this research, peer assessment refers to an assignment given to the Academic Writing students using an instrument called a peer assessment form. Students were assigned this task where they were required to assess other members of a group in their class. Brown (2001, p.413), as cited from Brown and Hudson (1998), mentions the advantages of peer assessment. Among others, the advantages are speed, students' involvement, students' autonomy, and students' increased motivation, since they are all in the process of learning. There is only one disadvantage, according to Brown: the subjectivity of the students. One way to avoid or handle subjectivity is by assigning random peer assessment, meaning that students cannot choose who their partners are. Another solution is by having what is called as blind reviews. Teachers distribute essays without students' names on them. Hence, students will not know whose work they are assessing.

Penaflorida (2001) added that when students respond to each other's works, they can be excellent in providing one thing that writers need most, that is, being an audience. Students become an audience for each other in this activity. This practice is challenging, both for good and low achievers. Good achievers will try their best to help their peer students, while the low achievers will also put forth their best efforts to share with their intelligent peers. Take and give happens in this activity.

About the advantages of peer assessment, Bostock (2017) stated, "*Student assessment of other students' works, both formative and summative, has many potential benefits to learning for the assessor and the assessee. It encourages student autonomy and higher order thinking skills.*" Peer assessment can encourage learner autonomy as well as incite better critical thinking skills, as students have to think clearly in criticizing and giving suggestions for their friends' works. The aim of peer assessment is thus to improve the quality of learning and empower learners, where traditional forms can bypass learners' needs. Peer assessment includes students' involvement, not only in the final judgements made of students' works, but also in the prior setting of criteria and the selection of evidence of achievement (Bostock, as cited from Biggs, 1999; Brown, Rust, & Gibbs, 1994).

One way in which learners can interact directly and help each other well is through peer reviews. This is what the paper deals with: the importance of peer review or peer feedback in this digital era. Direct interactions between or amongst students is an activity that can never be replaced with technology. Direct interactions can be facilitated, but not replaced, with technology. This was affirmed by Zacharias (2017) and Jati (2017). Both lecturers agree that direct interactions between or amongst students can be facilitated by technology. Jati (2017) mentioned,

Technology is a tool to help the teaching and learning process. Technology should be used to develop skills (discover, acquire, and communicate knowledge), as well as deepen learning possibilities through collaboration among schools and ideally collaboration worldwide. Only people who do not understand the role of technology think that technology "replaces" teacher-teacher or student-student interactions. (Jati, 2017).

Technology comes as an aid or means, not to replace teachers. These two lecturers' opinions coincide with each other. Direct interactions can be facilitated but not replaced by technology. Lecturers are there in the classroom to facilitate learning as well, so that it goes on as expected. Jati (2017) gave an example of how peer reviews can even be done

across two countries. "*Peer reviews in this era can be done wider in terms of scope (there are many middle schools in big cities that collaborate with overseas schools) and do projects together. In this setting, then peer reviews are done by using technology.*"

This paper presents descriptive data on Academic Writing students' opinions on peer reviews, one among other activities they had undergone in their course in Semester II of the 2015-2016 Academic Year. Male and female students' opinions are also analyzed to find different angles of how those different genders perceive the peer review process. Besides that, how interactions among learners can best be done directly is also revealed in this paper.

E. Academic Writing

Academic writing refers to all writing which is created for the purpose of study (Chin et al., 2012). All university students will be especially evaluated based on their writing, so writing skills are essential for students' academic success. Chan (2013) reinforced this idea by saying that when we write argumentative essays, our goal is to persuade others to adopt our view. We do that not by twisting the audience's arms, absolutely, but by putting forward convincing evidence, sensible reasoning, and effective rebuttals.

There are many students who do not like academic writing, because they think that it is very difficult. However, whether we like it or not, and whether we realize it or not, in our daily lives, we are all involved in some form of persuasion, both routine and accidental ones.

For examples, one may argue with one's friends or family members about who should be voted out of a reality TV show like Indonesian Idol, why we need to increase the amount of unlimited Internet access, or why an eight-hundred-thousand-rupiah budget for a prom night gown is necessary. Examples of serious national debates include whether Indonesia ought to have a nuclear plant, whether the official retirement age should be raised to 75 years old, whether drug addicts should be given severe punishments, and many other arguments.

In academic writing, students will learn about the fundamentals of a good argument. They learn how to find mistakes, fallacies, or inconsistencies in others' arguments, so that they will not be easily deceived. They will also learn how to formulate their own arguments and influence or persuade others to agree with their opinions. Having clear ideas in an analysis, synthesis, and evaluation will help students maintain a good, strong stance with consistency and good reasoning.

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Altogether, there were 39 students whose opinions on peer reviews were used for this study. Eighteen students were from Academic Writing Group D, and the other 21 students were from another parallel class, Group E. These students took these classes in Semester II of the 2015-2016 academic year. At the end of the semester, all students had to write a journal on peer reviews. These students were classified as introvert, extrovert, visual, and auditory students. They had been classified into these four categories in the previous semester, based on questionnaires that they filled in.

The samples of this study were 2 classes of *Academic Writing* students who were purposively selected. Questionnaires were distributed one semester before the implementation of the research, that is, in Semester I, 2015-2016 to the population of Argumentative Writing, a kind of preparatory class for Academic Writing. Out of 102 students, 42 were chosen, 21 students in each class. One visual student, however, dropped the class in the first week. In both experimental and control groups, there were students of 2 different personality types, that is, introvert and extrovert, and 2 learning styles, auditory and visual.

There were 21 students in the experimental group, and 20 in the control group. This was because 1 student of the control group – dropped the class in the first week, since one requirement for the Academic Writing course could not be fulfilled. Altogether, there were 20 students for Group D (the control group), 6 introvert students, 5 extrovert students, 4 visual students (1 visual student dropped the class in the first week), and 5 auditory students. In Group E, the experimental group, there were 21 students: 5 introvert students, 6 extrovert students, 5 auditory students, and 5 visual students. However, for this study, two students did not return the peer review journals. Altogether, there were 39 students whose opinions were used for this paper, 12 female and 6 male students from Group D. While from Group E, there were 12 female and 9 male students from Group E.

In this research, only 39 students' opinions were used. Two students did not submit their journals. In this activity, students did peer reviews on their friends' introductory and body paragraphs. They were asked to assess each other's works, based on questions in a checklist. After doing this, they could continue with discussions in order to find similar perceptions about their opinions.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Students' Voices

In this section, students' opinions about peer assessments are revealed. As previously mentioned, data was taken from 39 students' opinions which they detailed in their journals. These students' responses were divided into several sections according to their categorization. Both groups, Group D (control group) and Group E (experimental group) had a kind of activity called a peer review or peer assessment.

In this study, students were given initials according to their alphabetical order, their type (**I**ntrovert, **E**xtrovert, **A**uditory, **V**isual), and their group. Thus, Student AAD for example meant Student A with an auditory learning style, from Group D, whereas Student EIE for example, was Student E, an introvert, from Group E, and so on.

B. Students in Group D

From Group D (control group), students' opinions were categorized into several kinds, that is, positive opinions based on the usefulness and importance of peer reviews, negative opinions from a cynical student, no specific opinions, and positive opinions due to good teamwork. The data and perceptions of the students can be viewed in Table 1.

The first category is students who thought positively about peer assessments from Group D. Falling into this category are Student AID (M), Student BID (F), Student DID (F), and Student EID (F). They were all introvert students. The second group was comprised of Student BED (F), Student CED (F), Student DED (F), and Student EED (F). These were extrovert students who also fell into this category. Next were auditory students. Student BAD (F), Student CAD (F), and Student DAD (M) belonged to this group. The last three participants were Student BVD (F), Student CVD (F), and Student DVD (F), who were visual students. The majority of students in this group showed positive perceptions towards peer assessments (14 students, or 70%, out of 20 students).

These positive-thinking students thought that peer assessments or peer reviews are an important step in the process of writing. Student AID (M) for example, mentioned, "*In a peer review I can correct, give comments, or give suggestions easily because I assess someone else's work. From having someone else review my work, I will know about the problems that I have in my essay. From his/her review, I can improve my essay and have some new ideas from the advice that my classmate gave*" (Student AID's 7th Journal, unedited). This student was a quiet one, but he was diligent in doing any assignments given to him.

A similar opinion came from Student DVD (F). She was an average student without outstanding achievement. For her, peer and lecturer feedback was very important. She expressed her opinions in her journal as follows:

Peer feedback and lecturer feedback is beneficial in the teaching and learning process. It gives students the opportunity to revise their work, for example, in an essay. Peer feedback and lecturer feedback will make students learn from something wrong in their work. It helps them to analyze the weaknesses of their work. (Student DVD's 7th Journal)

It seems that this student realized the importance of peer feedback. Another student who was in line with her was Student CVD (F), who thought that it was fun and useful. "*Overall, in my opinion, doing outline presentations and giving feedback is useful, helpful, and fun*" (Student CVD's 7th journal). Similar to Student DVD, this student was just an ordinary student. She realized the significance of peer and lecturer feedback for the improvement of her essay.

The second classification of opinion was the cynical one. As usual, some cynical opinions came from Student AVD (M). Student AVD was often "bitter" in his opinion. Born from a wealthy family with a good financial condition and good competence in English might make him feel somewhat better than his peers. He was disappointed with his peer student's assessment. He mentioned that he did not get any feedback in the content which he had wanted. These are his statements on it:

I honestly do not have any idea toward the feedback I got about my outline presentations. After that, I think peer assessment activity just so – so for me. There was nothing special there. I picked my partners randomly. The feedback I got rarely mentioned the content. Therefore, I simply concluded that I had to use simpler language in order to keep the readers in line with my ideas. (Student AVD's 7th Journal)

This student might have belittled his peer students, feeling that he was much smarter than his friends, and he might have felt that he did not need anyone's help. This is an example of a typically over-confident student with too much pride in himself.

In this class, there were two students who did not give any specific opinion towards peer assessment; they were Student AAD (F) and Student CID (M). They just talked about what happened in the classroom without giving any perceptions on the peer review process.

The last category came from Student EAD (M) whose opinion was related with his peers. Student EAD thought that he liked having a peer review since he got a good partner. This student was another quiet one who did not talk a lot in class. Table 1 clarifies the students' perceptions and data about their gender and GPA. Table 1 contains information on introvert and extrovert students' data and perceptions.

TABLE I.
SUMMARY OF GROUP D STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS PEER REVIEWS

Student Initials	Perceptions towards Peer Feedback	GPA	Gender
AID	+	3.24	M
BID	+	3.37	F
CID	No opinion	3.56	M
DID	+	3.63	F
EID	+	3.30	M
BED	+	3.80	F
CED	+	3.42	F
DED	+	3.22	F
EED	+	3.61	F
AAD	No opinion	3.47	F
BAD	+	3.63	F
CAD	+	3.26	F
DAD	+	3.56	M
EAD	+ (Good Partner)	3.55	M
AVD	- (Cynical)	3.76	M
BVD	+	3.74	F
CVD	+	3.20	F
DVD	+	2.97	F

C. Students in Group E

Then in Group E, the opinions can be classified into four categories as well. They are positive responses (due to usefulness and importance), negative responses due to peers who were not nice to work with, positive responses (because of compatible peers), and negative responses due to the quantity of work which was too much.

The first category is positive responses due to the usefulness and importance of peer reviews. Falling into this category were Student AIE (F), Student EIE (M), Student BIE (M), and Student CIE (F), who were introvert students. The next were Student AEE (F), Student BEE (F), Student EEE (F), and Student EAE (M), who were extrovert students. The last group was comprised of Student BAE (F) and Student AVE (F), who were auditory students. Visual students were Student CVE (M), Student DVE (F), and Student EVE (F).

Student AIE, for example, mentioned that peer assessment made her practice to give meaningful feedback to her classmate, so that her classmate could make a more interesting essay. Student CIE also shared a similar idea. She mentioned, "*In a peer assessment, I can compare my essay with my classmate's ... we can share the information or knowledge we have ...*" These two girls were quiet and silent most of the time, but they always did all their assignments enthusiastically.

In the second category, there were students who thought negatively or had negative opinions towards peer reviews. Their bitter experiences were triggered by 'problems' with their peers' personalities. Student FEE (F), for example, had an unpleasant experience with her peer. Her peer was so lazy to seriously review her essay that this peer just pretended. Below is her statement:

I think it is very advantageous for us because it can help improve our essays, but I had a bad experience when I did a self-assessment for the first draft. The classmate who got my essay was lazy to read my essay, so when she graded my essay she only asked me whether my essay was appropriate or not with the questions in the assessment. Actually, I was very disappointed because she was not objective in grading my essay. In my opinion, if she does it again, she is wrong and it will be disadvantageous for her friends because they cannot improve their essays if the way to give the grade is wrong. (Student FEE's 7th Journal)

Student FEE was a diligent one with good ideas. However, she often felt emotional whenever she got partners who were not in line with her expectations. In the same boat as Student FEE were Student DEE (M) and Student AAE (F).

Student DEE (M) had a somewhat similar experience related to his feelings. He felt uneasy and uncomfortable to give comments and criticize his peers. He stated, "*Doing the peer assessment on someone's writing is also a little hard to decide whether my comments are appropriate enough or not.*" This student was actually a nice and diligent one. Being sensitive to others' feelings made him feel bad when he had to criticize his friends' works.

A similar thing was experienced by Student AAE (F), though the case was different. Student AAE mentioned that she sometimes did not understand what her peer meant. Difficulty in understanding her peer's statements was a big problem for her.

Sometimes when I did not understand what Student BIE meant in his essay, I would ask him or another classmate, since I could not assess it based on my own understanding. He did enough good work, although it was not complete yet.

For everything above, I felt good after the self- and peer assessments; I could improve my weaknesses to be better. (Student AAE's 7th Journal)

The next category was students who had good experiences in reviewing their peers' work. Their pleasant experiences were because of good peers. Included here were Student CEE (M) and Student DAE (M). Stated below is Student CEE's opinion:

I like the idea of peer-assessment. The first time I had to review my classmate's work was fun, because she is smart and I learned a lot from it. By doing peer-assessment, we are not only helping our classmates to work with their assessments, but we also can learn something from them. For example, we can see the mistakes that are usually made in our classmates' works, how they create sentences using certain words, what the proper format for writing is, how to use proper punctuation, etc. (Student CEE's 7th Journal).

Working with a smart classmate really made him happy and motivated. Similar to him was Student DAE (M). These two boys felt lucky since they got smart classmates who made them feel comfortable to work with. He stated that,

I exchanged my final paper with my classmate, Student DVE. We are friends, but not really close, so I chose her to work with me. And I think she thinks more critically than me. Hence, I hoped she could find many errors that I made in my final paper. When I did this assessment, I also did think critically about her final paper, but I was surprised that I found her final paper to be almost perfect (My view)." (Student DAE's 7th Journal, unedited).

The last category was an opinion which stated that this peer reviewing work was too much for the students. They were Student CAE (F) and Student BVE (F). Here is what they stated in their journals. They felt burdened and overloaded with this task.

Self-assessment and peer assessment are good to assess our own work or our classmates' work. We can learn from our own mistakes and our friends' mistakes. But some content in the self-assessment or peer assessment is too complicated and confusing. Some content made the self-assessment or peer assessment not effective enough for students. For example, we have to read all the paragraphs (which is so many pages) and correct the words one by one. It will take much time. (Student CAE's 7th Journal).

These two students felt burdened with the peer review assignment. For them, the quantity of work was too much, even though they admitted the advantages of doing a peer review. It can be seen further, even though students' opinions varied, in general they admitted the usefulness and importance of doing peer assessments. Similar to Student CAE's statement, Student BVE also complained, "*I think it is more difficult than doing a self-assessment, because I have to read my partner's whole essay and give back on it as well.*"

Table 2 shows a summary of the students' perceptions towards doing peer reviews.

TABLE II.
SUMMARY OF GROUP E STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS PEER REVIEWS

Student Initials	Response towards Peer Review	GPA	Gender
AIE	+	3.42	F
BIE	+	3.73	M
CIE	+	3.46	F
DIE	+	3.35	M
EIE	+	3.22	M
AEE	+	3.50	F
BEE	+	3.66	F
CEE	+	3.65	M
DEE	-	3.70	M
EEE	+	3.22	M
FEE	-	3.22	F
AAE	-	3.29	F
BAE	+	3.46	F
CAE	-	3.29	F
DAE	+	3.54	M
EAE	+	2.96	M
AVE	+	3.78	F
BVE	-	3.35	F
CVE	+	3.23	M
DVE	+	3.86	F
EVE	+	3.53	F

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

From this research, it can be concluded that the majority of the students (85.37%) had positive perceptions towards the peer review process. Only six students perceived peer reviews negatively due to unpleasant feelings in criticizing their classmates or due to peers who were uncooperative.

In dealing with gender issues, it was perceived that in both groups, out of 24 female students, three gave negative opinions towards peer reviews. This means that 12.5% of female students perceived peer reviews negatively. While out of 15 students, only two male students gave negative opinions. This means that 13.33% of male students perceived peer reviews negatively. This can further be interpreted that among both female and male students, the percentage of positive and negative thinkers was almost the same.

The next conclusion is that female students are subject to stress. As discussed previously in the theories, women are more subject to distress. Men and women are created differently physically, mentally, and cognitively, that is, in their way of thinking. This study therefore reveals that in doing peer reviews, more male students enjoyed this activity than their female counterparts.

In this piece of research, for example, some female students were distressed. Student FEE (F) felt emotional because she had an unpleasant experience with her peer. Her peer was so lazy to seriously review her essay that this peer just pretended. Another student under the same umbrella was Student AAE. She mentioned that she sometimes did not understand what her peer meant. Difficulty in understanding her peer's statements was a big problem for her. It made her confused and unable to enjoy the activity. There were two other students who felt emotional during this activity. They were Student CAE (F) and Student BVE (F). They felt burdened and overloaded with this task. These are examples of how female students are more easily distressed by their environment, like peers and the tasks they had to complete. Unpleasant moods to a certain extent, may lead to a lack of motivation and in turn, this can demotivate the process of language learning.

When dealing with gender differences, both in attitudes and emotions like this, lecturers should be neutral, but keep directing all the students to put aside emotional or psychological disturbances that might trigger unpleasant things in doing any assignment given. For future researchers, it is recommended that they investigate the effects of lecturers' gender on students' reactions or students' performance in the classroom.

This piece of research hopefully gives enlightenment for other lecturers in a way, so that they become more aware of their students' gender differences in the classroom. Lecturers thus can take wise actions when dealing with issues related to gender in the classroom. Just as what Jati (2017) mentioned about equality among men and women in this digital era, everybody should get equal opportunities: *"The digital world and "non-digital" world are equal in terms of justice and equality. Everyone, anybody will have the same opportunity to take part."* It is not the time to ask what men or women can do, but what everybody can contribute.

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An Event Structure Analysis of Object-oriented Adverbial Clauses*

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Abstract—In Mandarin Chinese, there exists such adverbial clause as "*Li Zhen cuicuide zhale yipan huashengmi*" (Li Zhen fried a dish of peanuts crispy), in which the adverbial modifies the predicate verb but semantically orients to the object. This kind adverbial clause can be formulated as "NPs+APo+De+VP+NPo=NP+VP+O and O is characterized by the adverbial". The object-oriented adverbial clause is a mismatched syntax-semantics phenomenon, with the mapping between form and meaning distorted. Many previous studies have proposed not fully identical analyses for the syntactic distribution, pragmatic motivation and constraints. However, few researches have made syntactic and semantic analyses from the perspective of event structure in the framework of formal linguistics, which leaves wide space for further study.

Event structure theory is adopted in this paper to make analysis of object-oriented adverbial clauses in event semantics perspective. This paper aims to examine the syntactic structure from the perspective of event semantic structure and explore how event structure is represented in syntactic structure of object-oriented adverbial clause.

Index Terms—object-oriented adverbial clauses, event structure, semantic representation, syntactic representation

I. INTRODUCTION

In syntax, adverbials are used to modify predicates, but when adjectives work as adverbials, the analysis of semantic orientation seems to become quite complicated. Some adverbials semantically refer to predicate verbs, but others may semantically orient to subjects or objects, etc. For example,

(1) a. Li Zhen zaozao de zhale (yi)pan huashengmi.

李振早早地炸了（一）盘花生米。

Li Zhen early DE fry LE a dish peanuts

Li Zhen fried a dish of peanuts early.

b. Li Zhen baobao de chile (yi)dun jiaozi.

李振饱饱地吃了（一）顿饺子。

Li Zhen full DE eat LE dumplings.

Li Zhen got full from eating dumplings.

c. Li Zhen cuicui de zhale (yi)pan huashengmi.

李振脆脆地炸了（一）盘花生米。

Li Zhen crispy DE zha LE (yi)pan huashengmi.

Li Zhen fried a dish of peanuts crispy.

d. Li Zhen rere de hele (yi)beicha.

李振热热地喝了（一）杯茶。

Li Zhen hot DE drink LE a cup of tea.

Li Zhen drank a cup of tea hot.

Among the three sentences in (1), the adverbial "*zaozao de*" (early) in (1)a semantically refers to the predicate verb "*zha*" (fry). The adverbial "*baobao de*" (full) in (1)b semantically refers to the subject "*Li Zhen*", moreover, sentences such as (1)b are often called "subject-oriented adverbial clauses". The adverbial "*cuicui de*" (crispy) in (1)c semantically refers to the resultative state of the direct object "*yipan huashengmi*" (a dish of peanuts). Similarly, the adverbial "*rere de*" (hot) in (1)d semantically denotes to the depictive state of the direct object "*yibeicha*" (a cup of tea). Moreover, sentences in (1)c and (1)d are two types of the "object-oriented adverbial clauses".

Since this paper has a limit to words, it only touches on object-oriented adverbial clauses, which can be formally represented as "NPs+APo+De+VP+NPo=NP+VP+O and the object is characterized by the adverbials". In this expression, NPs refers to the subject while NPo denotes the object, moreover, NPo is an indefinite quantified noun phrase without numerals. VP as the predicate verb, is often followed by the perfective aspect marker "*LE*", and APo, in the adverbial position, is always followed by the state adjective marker "*DE*" and semantically orients to the object.

This part mainly presents the current research on object-oriented adverbial clauses, followed by a general review of studies on adverbials, studies on semantic orientation and analyses from the perspective of syntax.

A. Previous Studies on Adverbials

"The phenomenon of object-oriented adverbial clauses is not exclusive to Chinese, it also exists in languages such as English and Germany" (Yang Yongzhong, 2014). This paper insists that object-oriented adverbial clauses, in general, are cross-linguistically interesting because they encode complex events.

The adverbial study abroad mainly centers on adverbs. Ernst (2001) proposed "scopal approach", which rules out the unaccepted adverb order or position by semantic selection or in morphological perspective. In addition, FEO (Fact-Event Object Calculus) is adopted to explain why the position of adverbs is rather flexible. According to Ernst, some adverbs can only modify VP, while others can modify event, proposition or fact. Cinque (1999) put forward "cartographic" theory, which strictly regulates the order that adverbs and the modified part should follow and finally makes the proper word order realized by some syntactic means, such as movement.

In China, studies on object-oriented adverbial clauses can be divided into three stages: the identifying stage, the describing stage and the explaining stage of adjective adverbials.

B. Previous Studies on Semantic Orientation

The semantic orientation study abroad mainly focuses on secondary predicate and predicate adverbs. Rothstein (2004) made event semantics analysis of the depictive secondary predicate and the resultative secondary predicate. Besides, Geuder (2002) made a research on the classification of predicate adverbs in English.

In terms of studies on semantic orientation at home, there exist disagreements among scholars. The most obvious disagreement lies in whether semantic orientation is single-oriented or multiple-oriented.

Lu Jianming (1995) gave the definition of semantic orientation, "in the narrow sense, semantic orientation defines which two syntactic constituents are semantically related"; Shen Yang (1994) agreed with Lu Jianming and he enriched the early version as "on one hand, semantic orientation not only touches on nouns' reference but also other kinds of content words' reference, such as verbs, adjectives and adverbs etc. On the other hand, semantic orientation particularly defines which constituents are related".

However, scholars, such as Lu Yingshun and Zheng Guiyou pointed out that semantic orientation should be multiple-oriented. Lu Yingshun (1995) held that "semantic orientation refers to the possibility that the meaning of one constituent in syntactic structures corresponds with that of other constituents (one or a couple of constituents)"; Zheng Guiyou (2000), with the theoretical background of "clause center theory", classified adverbial adjectives into four kinds and he insisted that, "except the single relation of predicate which expresses actions and changes, the other relations are all multiple-oriented".

C. Previous Studies on Object-oriented Adverbial Clauses from the Perspective of Syntax

The foreign researches on object-oriented adverbial clause are mainly made in the framework of vP-shell, secondary predicate and voice theory.

Chomsky (1995) proposed the vP-shell theory. According to the vP-shell theory, there exists a light verb "v" in the upper verb phrase. This light verb "v" is a functional clitics with strong features, which can trigger "V" in the lower verb phrase to incorporate with "v" and have features checked. To make it more clear, the following diagram shows the incorporation of "V" with "v":
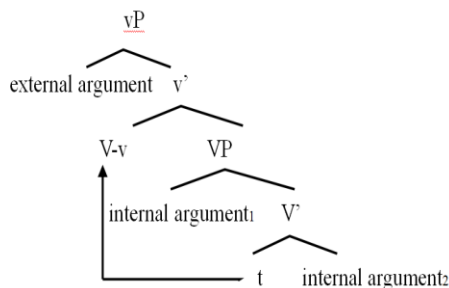
(2)

Irimia (2005) classified secondary predicate into four types, resultatives, depictives, circumstantials and absolutes. As far as the object-oriented adverbial clause is concerned, this paper only takes the resultaives and depictives into consideration.

Furthermore, voice theory is employed to analyze object-oriented adverbial clauses. Kratzer (1994) proposed the voice theory. Kratzer argues that the external argument is introduced not by the verb but by a separate predicate, which Kratzer called "Voice". "Voice" is a functional head denoting a thematic relation that between the external argument and the event described by the verb.

III.   THEORETICAL FRAMWORK

This section briefly introduces relevant theories employed in this paper, event structure, event semantics and event syntax theory.

A. Event Structure

It is generally acknowledged that the event structure analysis starts with Vendler (1967). Vendler proposed a four-way classification of verbs: states, activities, achievements and accomplishments. The corresponding features can be summarized as follows:

(3)

verb classification	telic	durative	homogeneous	intermittent
states	-	+	+	-
activities	-	+	+	+
achievements	+	-	-	-
accomplishments	+	+	-	-

The four types of verbs are respectively represented by *know*, *run*, *die* and *build*. Moreover, the four types of verbs correspond to four types of events.

B. Event Semantics

In 1967, Davidson mentioned events in *The Logical Form of Action Sentences* the first time. The event semantics theory goes through two stages: Davidson's stage and neo-Davidsonian stage. Compared with the traditional logical expressions, Davidson adds an argument "e" representing event to the predicate expressing an event in his version of logical expressions and combines the argument structure of predicate with the argument introduced by prepositions together by conjunctive operations.

The event semantics theory follows the principle of compositionality of meaning in classic logic semantics. Babara H. Partee (2014) expressed this principle as "the meaning of an expression is a function of meanings of its parts and the way they are syntactically combined".

C. Event Syntax Theory

The study of event structure in semantics also promotes the development of syntax. Syntacticians set off to consider the internal structures of events, the interrelation between events and the corresponding syntactic representations. The proposal of vP-shell, light verb and various functional categories have made it possible to represent even structure in syntax.

It is not until Hale & Keyser (1993) that the encoding of event structure appears. They aim to reduce thematic roles to syntactic configurations involving lexical items and functional elements. They regard argument structure as "the syntactic configuration projected by a lexical item. Argument structure is the system of structural relations between heads and arguments linked to them ". Technically, this is a further advance of Larson's (1988) vP-shell analysis.

IV. THE SEMANTIC ANALYSIS OF EVENT STRUCTURES IN OBJECT-ORIENTED ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

In this section, whether the relation between atomic events in the object-oriented adverbial clause is coordinate or not is taken into consideration. Under the predication formation rule and existential quantifier closure rule, the corresponding semantic derivations are given.

A. Event Structures in Object-oriented Adverbial Clauses

Among the examples given in sentence (1), only (1)c "*Li Zhen cuicuide zhale yipan huashengmi*" and (1)d "*Li Zhen rerede hele yibeicha*" are object-oriented adverbial clauses. Take sentence (1)c into consideration, (1)c conveys two meanings, firstly, Li Zhen fries a dish of peanuts, and secondly, the peanuts are crispy. Here, the adverbial adjective "*cuicui de*" semantically refers to the object "*yipan huashengmi*" rather than the predicate verb "*zha*", it is generally called "syntax-semantics mismatch". This part aims to make an event description and analysis of "*Li Zhen cuicuide zhale yipan huashengmi*" from event semantics perspective. According to Rothstein's predication theory, simple sentence with complicated structures can be regarded as a singular event. As for singular event, the relationship between events varies. Generally speaking, it includes two kinds of relationships, one is embedded relation and the other is coordination. Then, curiosity drives us to ask the following question, "what is the relationship between the two events "Li Zhen fries a dish of peanuts" and "the peanuts are crispy"? Is it kind of embedded relation or coordinate relation?

1. Coordinate Relation between the Two Atomic Events

In the sentence "*Li Zhen cuicuide zhale yipan huashengmi*", there are two sub-events, firstly, Li Zhen fries a dish of peanuts, secondly, the peanuts are crispy. If the two sub-events are coordinate, then we can describe the event structures as the following semantic expression, $\exists e[\exists e1[\exists e2[e=e1 \cup e2 \wedge zha (e1) \wedge Agt(e1)=$ *Li Zhen* $\wedge Th(e1)=$ *yipan huashengmi* $\wedge cuicuide (e2) \wedge Th(e2)=$ *yipan huashengmi*$]]]$. This semantic expression conveys that, there exists such an event and this event is a conjunction of the two sub-events mentioned above, moreover, the first sub-event is parallel to

the second one, that is to say, the two sub-events enjoy equal status. Therefore, if one sub-event is deleted, then the original event structure will be no longer in existence.

2. Embedded Relation between the Two Atomic Events

In the framework of event semantics, the embedded event is often expressed as e'. As for the sentence "*Li Zhen cuicuide zhale yipan huashengmi*", if there exists an embedded relation between the two events mentioned above, then we can describe the event structures as the following semantic expression, ∃ e[*zha* (e)∧Agt(e)=*Li Zhen*∧Th(e)=*yipan huashengmi*∧∃ e'[*cuicuide* (e')∧Th(e')=Th (e)=*yipan huashengmi*]]. This semantic expression expresses that, there exists such an event e "*Li Zhen cuicuide zhale yipan huashengmi*". There is only one event in this singular event and this event is an embedded event, "*yipan huashengmi cuicuide*" is the embedded part. The singular event and the embedded part is joined together by the shared argument "a dish of peanuts".

Two semantic expressions of "*Li Zhen cuicuide zhale yipan huashengmi*" in coordinate relation and embedded relation have already been displayed. But which relation is more suitable for the analysis of object-oriented adverbial clauses?

According to the theory of event syntax, the number of events depends on the number of predicate (predicate in terms of syntactic category). Sometimes, the role adjectives take is similar to that of predicate verbs. Irimia (2005) argues that there exists "secondary predicate" similar to the main verbs and Irimia classifies the secondary predicate into four groups: resultatives, depictives, circumstantials and absolutes, which enable adjectives, kind of predicate verbs, to express some event information.

Wu Ping is a pioneer applying the event semantics theory to analyze object-oriented adverbial clauses, such as "Mary painted the house red". In Wu Ping (2009), he gave the following semantic expression:∃ e[∃ e1[∃ e2[e=e1∪e2∧paint(e1)∧Agt(e1)=Mary∧Th(e1)=the house∧red(e2)∧Th(e2)=the house]]]. In this expression, the adjective "red" is regarded as one secondary predicate, moreover, the sub-event expressed by the adjective "red" is parallel to the sub-event expressed by the main verb "paint". At the first sight, as far as semantic orientation is concerned, the sentence "Mary painted the house red" is similar to the sentence "*Li Zhen cuicuide zhale yipan huashengmi*", because both the two adjectives semantically orient to the objects. Just as its name implies, the theory of event syntax also requires paying enough attention to the syntactic aspect. The reason why the adjective "red" in the sentence "Mary painted the house red" can work as the secondary predicate is that "red" is located in the complement position, which meets the syntactic demands of secondary predicate. However, "*cuicui de*" (crispy) is in the adverbial position of the sentence "*Li Zhen cuicuide zhale yipan huashengmi*", which fails to conform to the syntactic conditions required by the secondary predicate. Therefore, the sentence "Mary painted the house red" and the sentence "*Li Zhen cuicuide zhale yipan huashengmi*" should be dealt with differently. The former displays the coordinate relation between two sub-events while the latter shows the embedded relation.

B. The Semantic Derivation of Object-oriented Adverbial Clauses

In the framework of event semantics, descriptions of event structures are always joined together by conjunctive operations. According to the rules of event structure descriptions, only one argument expressing the event is allowed to follow the predicate verb, other constituents, such as agent, theme, experiencer in event structures should take the form of independent propositions. The derivation of event structures follow the principle of compositionality, in other words, the construction of meaning in sentences is facilitated by the type-driven approach. Rothstein (2004), combining the essentials that he carried forward in neo-Davidsonian analysis with the government and binding (GB) theory in generative grammar, put forward the predication theory.

1. The Object-oriented Adverbial Clauses (Depictive)

Zheng Guiyou (2000) classified the adjectives in object-oriented adverbial clauses into three kinds: make-type, present-type and perceive-type. The following points are taken into full account, firstly, the semantic characteristics of verbs in object-oriented adverbial clause, secondly, the different semantic restrictions imposed on adjective adverbials by predicate verbs. In this paper, the criterion of differentiating events lies in the time-participant connected (TPCONNECT) between the event "e" and the embedded event "e'".

   (4) a.李振<u>厚厚地</u>穿了（一）件毛衣。
        Li Zhen houhou DE chuan LE yijian maoyi.
        Li Zhen thick wear a piece sweater
        Li Zhen wore a piece of thick sweater.
     *李振**把**(一)件毛衣穿得厚厚的。
        Li Zhen BA yijian maoyi chuan DE houhou DE.
    b.李振<u>热热地</u>喝了（一）杯茶。
        Li Zhen rere DE he LE yibeicha.
        Li Zhen hot drink a cup tea.
        Li Zhen drink a cup of tea hot.
     *李振**把**一杯茶喝得热热的。
        Li Zhen BA yibeicha he DE rere DE.

Observing the examples displayed in (4)a and (4)b, it's not hard to find that the conversions between object-oriented

adverbial clauses and "Ba" constructions are sometimes blocked. Why? As is often the case, the adjective is used to describe the property of the object in the process of an event, in other words, there should be a change of state. However, the adjective adverbials mentioned here are homogeneous.

Zhang Lijun (1990) divided adjective adverbials in object-oriented clauses into three types:

(5) a. Object's forms: *xixiDE*, *baobaoDE*, *yuanyuanDE*, *maomaozaozaoDE*

b. Object's colors: *baibaiDE*, *lvyouyouDE*, *huangchengchengDE*, *hongpupuDE*

c. Object's other characteristics: *chouchouDE*, *cuicuiDE*, *nennenDE*, *yanyanDE*

Chen Yi (1987) classified adjective adverbials into two kinds: the depictive one and the resultative one.

(6) a. depictive adjective: *sheng*, *shu*, *wanhao*

b. resultative adjective: *yuan*, *jian*, *bian*, *bao*

(7) a.李振热热地喝了一杯茶。

b.∃e[喝 (e)∧Agt(e)=李振∧Th(e)=一杯茶∧∃ e'[热热地(e')∧Th(e')=Th

(一杯茶)]]∧TPCONNECT(e,e',一杯茶)]

The TPCONNECT(e,e',一杯茶) in this semantic expression means that there are two events which take place at the same time and they have one shared argument "*yibeicha*" (a cup of tea). In the event of "*he*" (drinking), "*cha*" (tea) is an incremental theme. The event of e' "*rerede*" (hot) is incorporated into the event of "drinking". With the event of "drinking" moving forward, the amount of tea decreases but the event of "*rere de*" in the complex event remains homogeneous. In other words, there is no causation between the two events. To make it more clear, the definition of "homogeneous" in Borer (2005) is provided as follows:

(8) a. P is homogeneous iff P is cumulative and divisive

i. P is divisive

iff $\forall$ x[P(x)→∃ y[P(y)∧y<x]]∧ $\forall$ x,y[P(x)∧P(y)∧y<x→P(x-y)]

ii.P is cumulative

iff $\forall$ x[P(x)∧P(y)→P(x$\cup$y)]

b. P is quantity iff P is not homogeneous.

As for the analysis of object-oriented adverbial clauses from the perspective of event semantics, the sentence "*Li Zhen rere de hele yibeicha*" is taken into consideration. The corresponding functional application is as follows:

(9)
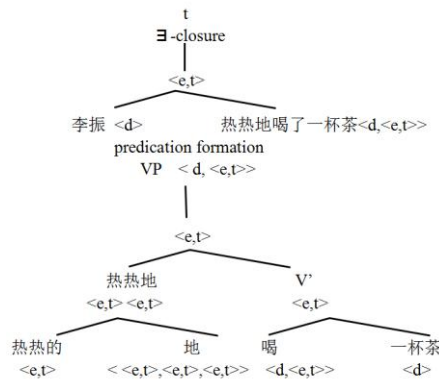
Similarly, the above structure shows the core semantic derivations of predication formation and ∃ -closure in the process of sentence construction. And the corresponding semantic derivations from the bottom to the top are as follows:

(10)

a. 喝: λy[λe[喝(e)∧Agt(e)=x∧Th(e)=y]]

喝一杯茶: λe[喝(e)∧Agt(e)=x∧Th(e)=一杯茶]

b. 地: λQ[λP[λe[P(e)∧Th(e)=x∧∃ e'[Q(e')∧Th(e')=Th(e)∧TPCONNECT(e,e',x)]]]]

热热的:∃ e'[热热的(e')∧Th(e')=x]

热热地: λP[λe)[P(e)∧Th(e)=x∧∃ e'[热热的(e')∧Th(e')=Th(e)]∧

TPCONNECT(e,e',x)]

c. 热热地喝一杯茶： λe[喝 (e)∧Agt(e)=x∧Th(e)= 一 杯 茶 ∧∃ e'[热 热 的 (e')∧Th(e')= 一 杯 茶]]∧TPCONNECT(e,e',一杯茶)]

d. predication formation:

λx[λe[喝(e)∧Agt(e)=x∧Th(e)=一杯茶∧∃ e'[热热的(e')∧Th(e')=一杯茶]]

∧TPCONNECT(e,e',一杯茶)]

e. 李振热热地喝一杯茶: λe[喝(e)∧Agt(e)=李振∧Th(e)=一杯茶∧∃ e'[热热地(e')

∧Th(e')=一杯茶]]∧TPCONNECT(e,e',一杯茶)]

f. ∃ -closure:

∃e[喝(e)∧Agt(e)=李振∧Th(e)=一杯茶∧∃e'[热热的(e')∧Th(e')=一杯茶]

∧TPCONNECT(e,e',一杯茶)]

2. The Object-oriented Adverbial Clauses (Resultative)

Here are two examples of object-oriented adverbial clauses which show the resultative state of the objects.

(11) a. 李振脆脆地炸了(一)盘花生米。

Li Zhen cuicui DE zha LE (yi)pan huashengmi.

Li Zhen crispy fry a dish peanuts

Li Zhen fried a dish of peanuts crispy.

　　b. 李振把花生米炸得脆脆的。

Li Zhen BA huashengmi zhade cuicui DE.

(12) a. 李振酽酽地沏了(一)壶茶。

Li Zhen yanyan DE qi LE (yi) hucha.

Li Zhen strong make a pot tea

Li Zhen made a pot of strong tea.

　　b. 李振把茶沏得酽酽的。

Li Zhen BA cha qiDE yanyan DE.

The above two sentences are typical object-oriented adverbial clauses, which can be converted into the corresponding "Ba" constructions. What are the characteristics of this sentence pattern? The event semantic structure of (11)a can be expressed as (13) below:

(13) ∃e[炸 (e)∧Agt(e)=李振∧Th(e)=一盘花生米∧∃e'[脆脆地(e')∧

Th(e')=一盘花生米]∧TPCONNECT(Cul(e) ,e',一盘花生米)]]

The specific interpretation of this event semantic structure is that there is an event of "frying a dish of peanuts" which embeds an event of "peanuts become crispy". Moreover, the "frying" event is an activity event with procedures, Li Zhen is the agent and a dish of peanuts is the theme. There exists TPCONNECT between the "frying" event and the "crispy" event. The whole event comes to an end when the peanuts are crispy enough to meet the subjective evaluation criteria. In this event, the dish of peanuts undergoes the process from being spongy to being crispy, which plays a significant role in the complex event. The incremental process indicates that the crispy degree varies at different stages in the "frying" event. Because of the incremental property that peanuts obtain, themes similar to peanuts in such event structures are called "incremental theme".

Enough attention has already been paid to such sentences. Zhu Dexi (1982), Dai Haoyi (1982) and Zheng Guiyou (2000) all reached an agreement. They summarized this kind of verbs as "make-type" verbs and they all noticed that verbs like this can be followed by some accomplishment complements like "*wan*" "*hao*" "*cheng*" etc.

(14) 农民工们方方正正地打(完/好/成)了一个背包。

Nongmingongmen fangfangzhengzhengDE da (wan/hao/cheng) LE yigebeibao.

Migrant workers boxy pack a bag

Migrant workers packed the backpacks into boxy shape.

In sentence (14), verbs like "*da*" (hit) are "make-type" verbs. The addition of accomplishment complements "*wan/hao/cheng/le*" to the verbs makes actions come to an end.

Lu Jian (2003) concluded the verb features in this kind of sentence as [+autonomous] [+ make-type] [+continuous] and he insisted that the subject should be very agentive while the object should be an affected object, moreover, some objects should be incremental.

The corresponding functional application of (11)a is as follows:

(12)
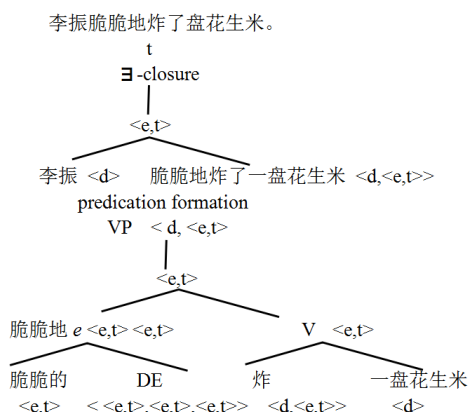
With the functional application displayed above, the relevant semantic derivations could be given as follows:

(13)

a. 炸: λy[λe[炸(e)∧Agt(e)=x∧Th(e)=y]]
b. 地: λQ[λP[λe[P(e)∧Th(e)=x∧∃ e'[Q(e')∧Th(e')=Th(e)∧
    TPCONNECT(Cul(e),e',x)]]]
  脆脆的: ∃ e'[脆脆的(e')∧Th(e')=x]
c. 脆脆地: λP[λ(e)[P(e)∧Th(e)=x∧∃ e'[脆脆的(e')∧Th(e')=x]∧
    TPCONNECT(Cul(e),e',x)]]
d. 脆脆地炸了一盘花生米: λe[炸(e)∧Agt(e)=x∧Th(e)=一盘花生米∧∃ e'[脆脆的 (e')∧Th(e')=一盘花生米]]∧ TPCONNECT(Cul(e),e',一盘花生米)]
e. predication formation:
    λx[λe[炸(e)∧Agt(e)=x∧Th(e)=一盘花生米∧∃ e'[脆脆的(e')∧Th(e')=一盘
    花生米]∧TPCONNECT(Cul(e),e',一盘花生米)]
f. 李振脆脆地炸了一盘花生米: λe[炸(e)∧Agt(e)=李振∧Th(e)=一盘花生米∧∃ e'[脆脆的(e')∧Th(e')=一盘花生米]∧TPCONNECT(Cul(e),e',一盘花生米)]
g. ∃ -closure:
    ∃ e[炸(e)∧Agt(e)=李振∧Th(e)=一盘花生米∧∃ e'[脆脆的(e')∧Th(e')=一盘
    花生米]∧TPCONNECT(Cul(e),e',一盘花生米)]

V. REPRESENTATION OF EVENT STRUCTURES IN OBJECT-ORIENTED ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

Croft (1999) explains that "there is a parallelism between syntactic structure and semantic structure, and that semantic structure determines or, better motivates syntactic structure". That is, syntactic structure reflects semantic structure, whereas the semantic structure corresponding to a syntactic construction represents a conceptualization of experience.

This paper claims that there exists an isomorphism between event structure and syntactic structure. Specifically speaking, events are composed from primitive functional elements in syntax. It is not possible that verbs can introduce complete, well-formed lexical semantic structures into the derivation process, moreover, verbal roots represent abstract concepts that acquire meaning from the surrounding syntactic environment. Therefore, event syntax theory could provide a quite reasonable explanation for the mismatched phenomenon between syntactic structures and semantic structures.

A. Framing the Syntactic Structures with Verbalizing Heads

Having explored the semantic representation of event structure appearing in object-oriented adverbial clauses. This section focuses on how to encode arguments in event structure syntactically and attempts to reduce argument structure to event structure, which is itself syntactically encoded. Then an inventory of three verbalizing heads and two verbal roots is employed to construct events in object-oriented adverbial clauses.

Before introducing verbalizing heads and verbal roots, one feature of Chinese verbal system proposed by Jimmy Lin (2004) should be stated in advance. According to Jimmy Lin (2004), "for the most part, activity and state are the only two primitive verbal types in Mandarin Chinese. As a general rule, change of state predicates (accomplishments and achievements) are derived syntactically". To make this statement more straightforward, the organization of the Mandarin verbal system is schematically represented as follows:

(14) primitive event types in Mandarin Chinese: activity, state
    state+*LE*→achievement
    activity+achievement→accomplishment

In the framework of primitive event types mentioned above, it's time to find out the meaning of "framing the syntactic structures with verbalizing heads".

According to Hale & Keyser (1993), the head of each VP represents an implicit conceptual primitive notions such as agentivity and inchoativity. This chapter follows Jimmy Lin (2004) and renders explicit the semantics of verbalizing heads, which correspond to semantic primitives drawn from a conceptual inventory determined by Universal Grammar.

Additionally, this paper agrees with ideas of Distributed Morphology (Marantz,1997). It is assumed that syntax does not deal with the total lexical items consisting of syntactic, semantic and phonological information, but rather a series of abstract morophosyntactic and semantic features relevant to the derivation process. Following the "late insertion" principle, phonological properties are inserted at the articulatory interface.

Moreover, leaving the distinction between syntactic derivation and morphological derivation aside, distributed morphology regards syntax as the only generative engine of human language faculty. Since distributed morphology holds that all derivations occur uniformly, it is unnecessary to take the separate lexical process, morphological process and syntactic process into considerations. An explanatory theory should account for the relationship between lexical processes and morphosyntactic processes.

On the basis of Marantz (1997), Jimmy Lin (2004) regards "verbs" as verbal roots with abstract category-less concept. In addition, in order to gain verbal categorical status, those verbal roots should combine with verbalizing heads from conceptual primitives. Then those verbalizing heads introduce event types in accordance with Vendler's aspect

classification. Moreover, verbal roots play the role of event modifiers explicating the basic event readings introduced by those verbalizing heads. The key elements involved are as follows:

(15) VDO [+dynamic, -inchoative] = Do (denotes activities)

Vδ [+dynamic, +inchoative] = BECOME (denotes the beginning of state-change)

VBE [-dynamic]   = BE (denotes states)

VDO, Vδ and VBE represent the notions of activity, inchoativity and stativity respectively.

At this point, it is worthwhile to address one issue: "why decompose verbs into verbalizing heads and verbalizing roots" ?

The distinction between verbalizing heads and verbal roots originates from Grimshaw (1993), who draws a distinction between semantic structure and semantic content. Verbs that share the same syntactic behavior have the same semantic structure. On the contrary, semantic content is the actual "meaning" component of the verb, or what distinguishes a verb from other verbs sharing the same syntactic behavior. Take "jog" and "run" as a minimal pair, they are both intransitive verbs indicating motion, but the manner of motion differs from "jog" to "run".

In short, verbalizing heads provide "syntactic structures" for appropriate events while verbal roots modify basic event types and introduce particular meaning component.

B. Syntactic Encoding of Arguments in Event Structures

According to our hypopaper, each verbalizing head, as a functional element, is a real syntactic element that enters into the derivation process. Owing to those verbalizing heads, events and arguments within verbal projections can be licensed.

C. Syntactic Encoding of Arguments in Basic Structures

First of all, a brief introduction of the verbalizing head VDO. According to Jimmy Lin (2004), VDO can license activities and is compatible with verbal roots denoting activity.

(16) Andy ran.

(a√ represents verbal root denoting activity)
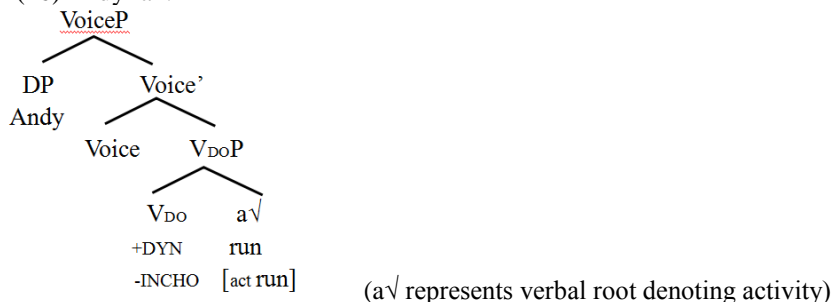
One point should be emphasized that the relationship between the verbalizing head VDO and the verbal root is head-adjunct, rather than head-complement. The reason is simple, because verbal root is an event modifier.

Obviously, the meaning of sentence (16) can be paraphrased as "here is an activity of running, of which Andy is the agent". Similarly, the logical form could be achieved:
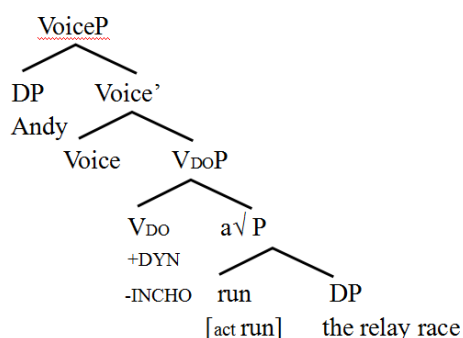
(17)∃ e [ARGext (Andy)(e)∧Do([activity run])(e)]

This representation has something common with that of Parsons, they both make explicit references to the underlying event variables. To denote the external argument (introduced by Voice), a generic label ARGext is employed. Similarly, to indicate the arguments relevant with VDO, Vδ and VBE respectively, ARGdo, ARGδ and ARGbe are employed. In this way, thematic roles can be finally assigned to structural configurations.

Chomsky (1981) suggested that the external argument is not directly licensed by the verb itself. That is to say, the external argument is an argument licensed by the whole verb predicate, rather than the verb solely. According to Davidson, the external argument is linked to the verb phrase by the event variable only. Later, Kratzer (1994) proposed the theory of *voice*. Voice, as a functional element can relate an external argument (the specifier) to the complement. In this way, the semantic role, such as agent, is assigned to the external argument by the functional element *voice* in the structural configuration. The VoiceP theory proposed by Kratzer (1994) captures the essence in Travis' Event Syntax (1994) as mentioned in the theoretical framework section.

On some occasion, an activity root can license DP independently to bring about a transitive sentence:

(18) Andy ran the relay race.

This representation can be interpreted as "there is an activity of running the relay race, in which Andy is the agent". The corresponding logical form can be translated as:

(19)∃ e [ARGext (Andy)(e)∧Do([activity run (the relay race)])(e)]

It is obvious that the verbal root can license DP under some constraints of semantic selection. For example, "run the relay race" is available while "run the wall" is absolutely unaccepted. Attention should be paid that the argument is licensed solely by the specific semantics of the verbal root.

D. Syntactic Encoding of Arguments in Object-oriented Adverbial Clauses

However, Levin (1999) observed a subtle difference among verbs: some verbs are licensed by the event template, in other words, verbs may cause the change of state of the theme or patient, whereas others may be licensed by some constants, that is to say, there only exist some surface contact between the manner verb and the object. Levin (1999) proposed a distinction between core-transitive verbs and non-core transitive verbs. The former refers to verbs which enable the causative change of state, such as *fry*, *destroy*, *kill* etc. Those verbs can be translated as "agents act on and cause an effect on patients" and they are "highly transitive". The latter denotes verbs like *sweep*, *kick*, *pound* etc, because objects of those verbs lack a unified and independent semantic characterization.

According to Lu Jian (2003), in sentence "*rerede hele yibeicha*", the adjective adverbial "*rere de*" (hot) accompanies with the action "drinking" all the time. Therefore, in a sense, it is synchronic. However, in sentence "*yanyande paole yibeicha*", the adjective adverbial "*yanyan de*" (strong) is a change of state caused by the brewing-activity. Similarly, in sentence "*Li Zhen cuicuide zhale yipan huashengmi*", the adjective adverbial "*cuicui de*" (crispy) denotes the change of state caused by the frying-activity.

Therefore, as far as Levin (1999) is concerned, the depictive one, such as "*he*" (drink) belongs to the non-core transitive verb, whereas, the resultative one, such as "*zha*" (fry) belongs to the core transitive verb.

(20) a. 李振喝了一杯茶。
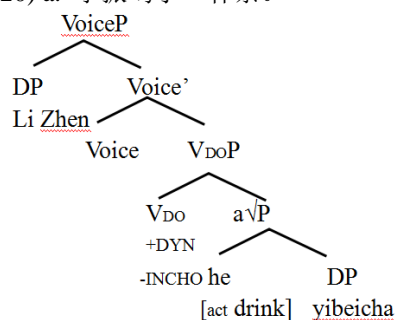
    b. 李振炸了一盘花生米。
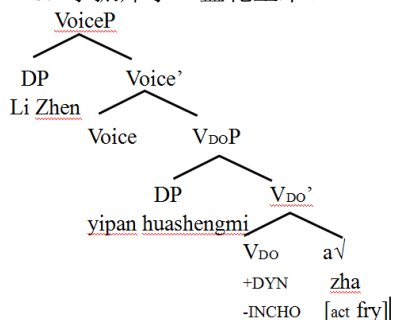
To make it more clear, the sentence "*Li Zhen hele yibeicha*" makes nothing new in people's mind. However, the sentence "*Li Zhen zhale yipan huashengmi*" leaves a new impression of peanuts in people's mind from shriveled peanuts to crispy ones. Then, the depictive one and the resultative one differs in representations given above.

The structure in (20)a parallels to the structure in (18), and can be translated as "there is an activity of drinking a cup

of tea, of which Li Zhen is the agent". Under this circumstance, "*yibeicha*" (a cup of tea) is not an affected argument, in other words, Li Zhen is interpreted as engaging in the activity of "tea-drinking" rather than "juice-drinking" activity.
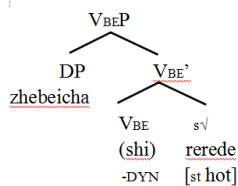
On the contrary, "*yipan huashengmi*" (a dish of peanuts) is an affected argument in the structure shown in (20)b. This structure can be paraphrased as "there is an activity of frying a dish of peanuts that acts on and causes an effect on the dish of peanuts, of which Li Zhen is the agent". The specifier DP of VDOP is interpreted as the affected argument of the activity. In addition, the effect is dependent on the verbal root.

In short, the sentence such like "*Li Zhen hele yibeicha*" is a pure activity. Whereas, the sentence such like "*Li Zhen zhale yipan huashengmi*" involves an activity acting on an affected argument "a dish of peanuts". The two representations could be rewritten in the following logical forms given below:

(21) a.∃ e [ARGext (Li Zhen)(e)∧Do([activitydrink (a cup of tea)])(e)] (pure activity)

  b.∃ e [ARGext (Li Zhen)(e)∧ARGdo(a dish of peanuts)(e)∧Do([activity fry(e)]

   (activity with affected argument)

The verbalizing head VBE licenses static situations and is only compatible with verbal roots referring to states. The specifier of VBE indicates the entity whose state is being described.
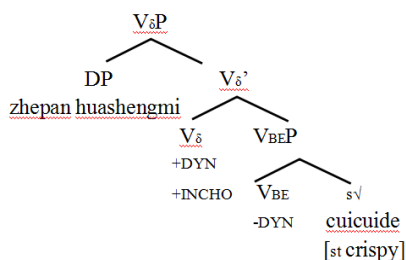
(21) 这杯茶（是）热热的。

```
              V_BEP
           /        \
         DP          V_BE'
      zhebeicha     /    \
                V_BE      s√
               (shi)     rerede
               -DYN     [st hot]
```

This structure could be interpreted as " there is a state of tea being hot " with the corresponding logical representation below:

(22)∃ e [BE(state hot)(s)∧ARGbe(tea)(s)]

Moreover, a state can be embedded under the verbalizing head Vδ to bring about an inchoative event. It goes without saying that the entire VδP is supposed to be embedded under TP.

(23)这盘花生米（是）脆脆的。

```
                V_δP
             /        \
           DP          V_δ'
      zhepan huashengmi  /    \
                      V_δ      V_BEP
                     +DYN     /     \
                     +INCHO  V_BE    s√
                            -DYN   cuicuide
                                  [st crispy]
```
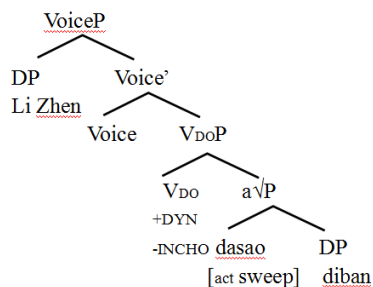
According to the above structure, it is clear that the specifier of Vδ P is an entity that undergoes a change of state specified by the verbal root "s√" associated with the inner VBE. The above structure could be paraphrased as " there is an inchoative event ending in the state of being crispy, where the dish of peanuts is the entity undergoing the change of state " with the following logical form:

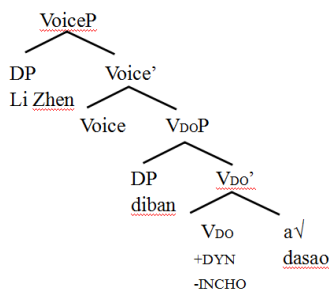(24) ∃ e∃ s[BE([state crispy])(s)∧BECOME(s)(e)∧ARGδ (the dish of peanuts)(e)]

A distinction has been made above between core transitive verbs and non-core transitive verbs. Consequently, a differential treatment should be adopted for affected (selected) object and the non-affected argument. Two examples illustrated here with non-core transitive verb "*dasao*" (sweep) and core transitive verb "*kan*" (chop) are as follows:

(25) 李振打扫了地板。

  Li Zhen dasao LE diban.

  Li Zhen sweep LE floor

  Li Zhen swept the floor.

(26) a.   b. *

```
         VoiceP                              VoiceP
        /      \                            /      \
      DP        Voice'                    DP        Voice'
   Li Zhen     /     \                 Li Zhen     /     \
           Voice     V_DoP                     Voice     V_DoP
                    /    \                             /    \
                  V_DO    a√P                        DP      V_Do'
                 +DYN    /    \                     diban   /    \
                 -INCHO dasao  DP                       V_DO      a√
                       [act sweep] diban               +DYN      dasao
                                                       -INCHO
```
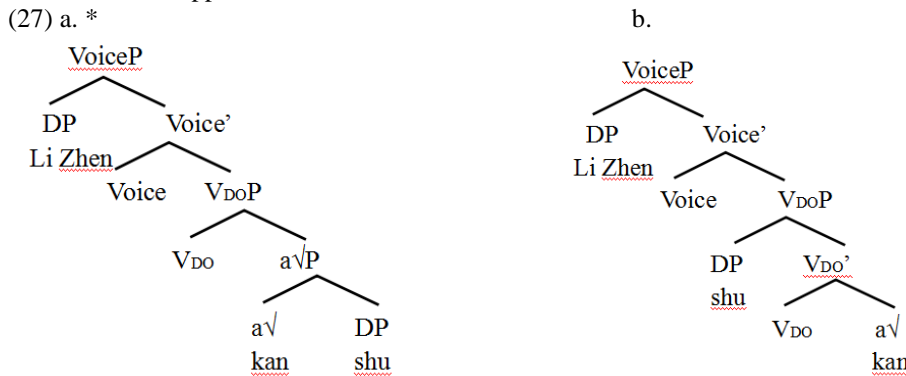
The structure in (26)a can be paraphrased as "there is an activity of sweeping the floor, of which Li Zhen is the agent". On this occasion, "*diban*" (the floor) is not an affected argument. This structure only aims to emphasize that "Li Zhen is engaging in the activity of floor-sweeping". This is the correct representation of (89). On the contrary, (26)b violates what is proposed earlier before. In (26)b, "*diban*" (the floor) is located in the specifier of VDOP, and then interpreted as an affected argument in the event. But according to the definition of non-core transitive verb and non-affected argument, floor-sweeping activity does not necessarily bring about a change of state towards the floor.

Then it's necessary to observe the structure displayed by the core transitive verb, such as "*kan*" (fell) . The detailed analyses are as follows:
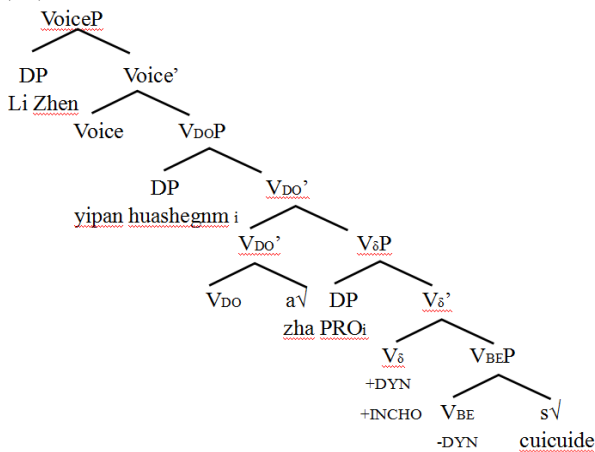
(27) 李振砍了树。

    Li Zhen kan LE shu.

    Li Zhen chop LE shu

    Li Zhen chopped at trees.

(27) a. *   b.

```
        VoiceP                                    VoiceP
       /      \                                  /      \
     DP       Voice'                           DP       Voice'
   Li Zhen    /    \                         Li Zhen    /    \
          Voice    V_DoP                            Voice    V_DoP
                  /    \                                    /     \
               V_DO    a√P                                DP      V_DO'
                      /   \                               shu     /    \
                    a√     DP                                  V_DO    a√
                    kan    shu                                        kan
```

In (27)a, the object "*shu*" (tree) is licensed by the verbal root 'a√kan' and this structure can be paraphrased as "there is an activity of tree-chopping". Different from (27)a, the object "*shu*" (trees) is licensed by VDO in (27)b. Therefore, the object is interpreted as an affected argument. The structure in (27)b can be translated as "there is a tree-chopping activity that acts on and causes an effect on the tree". In a word, (27)b is the proper representation of (26).

Up till now, it is easy to get the representations and logical form of the object-oriented adverbial clauses mentioned at the very beginning.

(28)李振脆脆地炸了（一）盘花生米。

```
        VoiceP
       /      \
     DP       Voice'
   Li Zhen    /    \
          Voice    V_DoP
                  /     \
                DP      V_DO'
        yipan huashegnm i  /    \
                      V_DO'      V_δP
                     /   \       /    \
                  V_DO    a√    DP     V_δ'
                         zha   PRO_i   /    \
                                     V_δ    V_BEP
                                    +DYN    /    \
                                  +INCHO  V_BE    s√
                                         -DYN   cuicuide
```
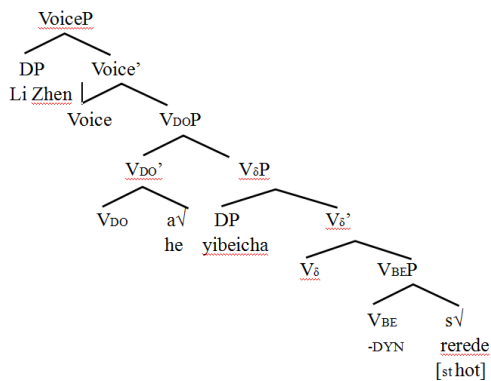
This structure can be paraphrased as " there is an activity of which Li Zhen is the agent, and there is an inchoative event ending in the state of being crispy, of which a dish of peanuts is the entity undergoing the change of state, and the first event causes the second event ". The corresponding logical form is given as below:

(29) ∃ e1[ARGext (Li Zhen)(e1)∧Do([activity fry])(e1)∧∃ e2∃ s[BE([state crispy])(s)∧BECOME(s)(e2)∧ARGδ(a dish of peanuts)(e2)∧CAUSE(e1)(e2)]]

This analysis agrees with Dowty's analyzing causative sentences as being comprised of an outer activity shell and an inner inchoative event by an implicit causal relation. That's to say, in this paper, causation is not directly in the syntax. As a matter of fact, causation is an implicit relation between two events. The most common treatment is referring causation to an activity which can cause a change of state. Specifically speaking, causation is a structural notion: the verbalizing head VDO and VδP display a head-complement relation.

(30)　李振热热地喝了（一）杯茶。

```
                VoiceP
              /        \
           DP          Voice'
        Li Zhen       /      \
                  Voice      VDoP
                          /        \
                      VDO'          VδP
                     /    \        /     \
                  VDO      a√    DP       Vδ'
                           he  yibeicha  /    \
                                       Vδ      VBEP
                                              /    \
                                           VBE      s√
                                          -DYN    rerede
                                                  [st hot]
```

Previously, we made a clear distinction between selected object and non-selected object. According to the distinction between core transitive verbs and non-core transitive verbs in Levin (1999), "*he*" (drink) belongs to the latter category. Therefore, there is no semantic selection between "*yibeicha*" (a cup of tea) and the activity root "a√ he" (drink). In other words, the direct object "*yibeicha*" (a cup of tea) is not selected for the predicate verb "*he*" (drink). Therefore, the direct object "a cup of tea" is placed in the specifier of Vδ instead of VDO.

The above structure can be paraphrased as " there is an activity of drinking a cup of tea, in which Li Zhen is the agent and a cup of tea is the theme, whose state is being hot " with the following logic representation:

(31)∃ e[ARGext (Li Zhen)(e)∧Do([activity drink])(e)∧∃ s[BE([state hot])(s)∧
Hold(e,s,一杯茶)]

The sentence "*Li Zhen rerede hele yibeicha*" is a depictive instance of   object-oriented adverbial clause. Because of the distinction of core-transitive verbs and non-core transitive verbs, the structure in (30) differs from that of resultative one. There exists the verbalizing head Vδ indicating the change of state of object in the representation of resultative one of object-oriented adverbial clauses, whereas there doesn't in the depictive one in which the state is consistent.

E. Syntactic Encoding of Arguments in Ambiguous Sentences

The sentence "*Nage huajia chiluoluode huale yige nvren*" is regarded as an ambiguous sentence. This section analyzes ambiguous sentences from the perspective of encoding argument syntactically.

As proposed in formal semantics, semantic ambiguity arises from the syntactic ambiguity. The semantic orientation of the the adjective adverbial "*chiluoluo*" (naked) is dependent on how to deal with the direct object. Look at the following ambiguous sentence:
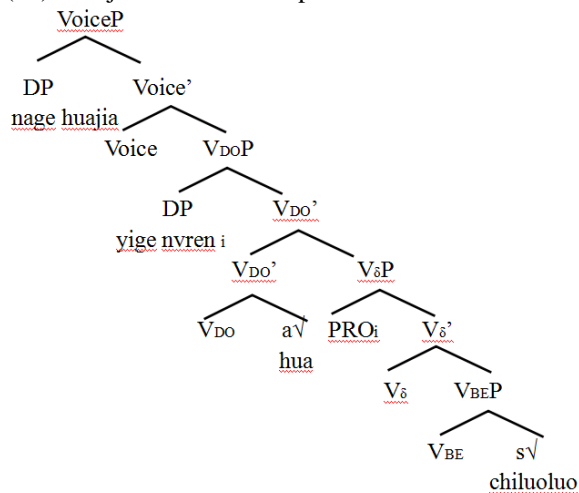
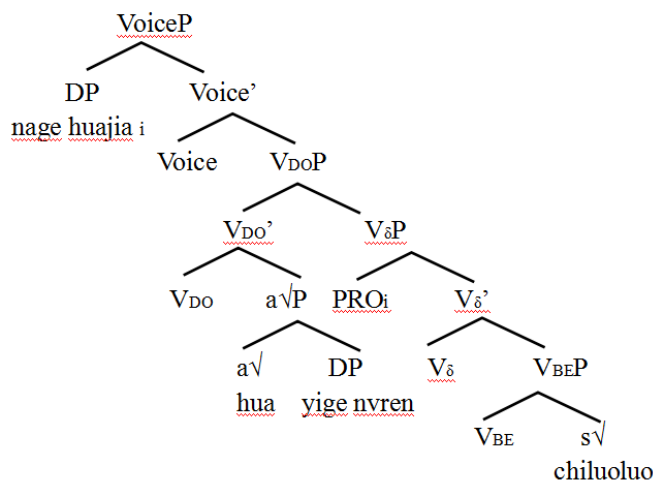(32) Nage huajia chiluoluode huale (yi)ge nvren.

那个画家赤裸裸地画了（一）个女人。

That artist nude DE paint a woman.

That artist paints a woman nude.

(33) a. object-oriented interpretation: A woman is nude.

```
                VoiceP
              /        \
           DP          Voice'
      nage huajia     /      \
                  Voice      VDoP
                          /        \
                       DP          VDO'
                   yige nvren i    /     \
                               VDO'       VδP
                              /    \      /    \
                           VDO     a√  PRO i   Vδ'
                                  hua         /    \
                                            Vδ      VBEP
                                                   /    \
                                                VBE      s√
                                                      chiluoluo
```

b. subject-oriented interpretation: The painter is nude.

VoiceP
DP   Voice'
nage huajia i
    Voice   V_DO P
        V_DO'   V_δP
    V_DO   a√P   PRO_i   V_δ'
        a√   DP   V_δ   V_BE P
        hua   yige nvren
                V_BE   s√
                    chiluoluo

If the direct object, as an affected argument, is placed in the specifier position of VDO, then as the closest DP to the empty category PRO, it should command PRO. Then the object-oriented interpretation arises in (33)a. However, if the direct object is regarded as a specifically-licensed argument, then it is too far to c-command the empty category PRO, thus, the external argument, namely, that painter, should work as the controller. Therefore, the sentence gets a subject-oriented interpretation in (33)b.

To derive the surface structure of the sentence, the lowest verbalizing head VBE undergoes a successive movement from Vδ, VDO and Voice up to Aspect. Correspondingly, the verbal roots themselves should conform to the pied-piping principle along with the verbalizing heads.

The formation of object-oriented adverbial clauses is a productive process in Mandarin wherein verbs together with adjectives collectively denote a complex event involving an activity and its result or state.

To conclude the syntactic encoding of arguments in event structure, three key claims are summarized as follows:

Firstly, as far as the mapping from argument structure to event structure is concerned, argument structure can be reduced to event structure. Moreover, event decomposition depends on semantic primitives.

Secondly, event structure can be represented syntactically and compositionally constructed from some functional elements, such as verbalizing heads and verbal roots.

Thirdly, the basic components of event structure consist of activity, stativity and inchoativity. Therefore, VDO, VBE and Vδ are adopted in the representations.

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper aims to analyze object-oriented adverbial clauses, a typical mismatched phenomenon between syntactic structures and semantic structures. In other words, this paper focuses on the phenomenon "NPs+APo+DE+VP+NPo=NP+VP+O and AP can be predicated of NPo" under the framework of event structure. On one hand, this paper manages to define the embedded relation between the two atomic events in this structure and present the semantic derivations of object-oriented adverbial clauses. On the other hand, the syntactic representations of event structure in such phenomenon are explored.

This paper presents a thorough analysis of object-oriented adverbial clauses, highlighting the important role that event structure plays. This study is followed by a semantics-syntax interface theory that successfully accounts for a broad range of empirical facts. In this paper, object-oriented adverbial clause not only serves as an illuminating probe into the event structure theory, but also relates to different stages of event structure theory. The higher level objective of this study, however, is to explicate the processes by which event structure is composed syntactically from a particular set of primitives and how these processes can be grounded in independently-motivated syntactic principles, such as control and movement. This paper not only accounts for the object-oriented adverbial clauses, but also supports transparent interpretation at syntax-semantics interface.

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Struggling between Ancient and Modern Life: Yank's Quest of Self-identity in *The Hairy Ape*

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Abstract—*The Hairy Ape* is a canonical masterpiece of the twentieth-century playwright and Nobel Laureate in Literature Eugene O'Neill. Under the social backdrop of dehumanized American capitalism, this play has become one of the most potent plays of realism, expressionism and symbolism in American literature. Since its first rendition, this play has been a subject of numerous literary discussions. This play, revolving around the protagonist Yank's quest for a sense of belonging in a world controlled by the rich, presents a forceful literary analysis of the psychology and identity of an alienated being, and of the impact of industrialization upon human nature. This paper, applying Rousseau's theories of language and education, and Michel Foucault's theories of identity, attempts to deconstructs the concept of being "modern" in the Enlightenment Period, discusses Yank's quest of self-identity in a so-called modern society, who seemingly transforms from a noble savage into a monster and becomes a prey to social values, and demonstrates that personal tragedy results from his failure to come to terms with his identity.

Index Terms—*The Hairy Ape*; Rousseau; Foucault; modern; quest of self-identity

I. INTRODUCTION

Eugene O'Neill, the famous American dramatist, who is regarded as the founder of American drama, wins the Pulitzer Prize of Drama for four times in his lifetime and wins the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1936. Just as American master of performance Stella Adler once pointed out: "Unless we look back at the beginning of the American drama led by O'Neill, it is impossible to perform on the American stage." As the only dramatist in American history who has won the Nobel Prize in Literature, O'Neill has spent his whole life exploring the meaning of human existence and he feels in his life potential powers—destiny, God, the old himself, whatever it may be, all of which are mysterious forces (Liao, 2000, p. 1).

As a sensitive and responsible artist, O'Neill is acutely aware of the eternal tragedy of mankind in life struggles, so he focuses on the value of the tragedy and the force of it. The tragic color of human fate is vividly portrayed by O'Neill's own theatrical characters, which have a legacy of ancient Greek tragedies, and even reach some degree of transcendence, because they are more modern, and keep on the exploration and revelation of the continuity and depth of human dilemmas.

The stoker Yank in the *The Hairy Ape* can be said to be one of the best examples. He is originally a carefree person, often shoveling coal and humming the song. He even feels that he is a powerful kind, for it is he who makes the ship go forward. However, his destiny plays a trick on him. His dirty appearance happens to be seen by a wealthy lady who accidentally breaks into the bottom cabin of the ship and is stunned to see a "filthy beast" (O'Neill Ⅲ, 1979, p. 120). The young lady's brief comments awaken him from his unconsciousness as a way to begin his journey to find himself in agony. He can not find his place in all the activities he tries, but it is also difficult for him to return to his prior position. He is so miserable that he goes to the zoo, and attempts to find his companion with a gorilla, but ending with being hugged to death unexpectedly. This highly exaggerated depiction shows the plight of human beings in the quest for themselves, and the inevitable pain and embarrassment when human beings attempt to explore their own identities in a world to which they do not belong at all.

In the twentieth century, with the rise of the idea "the death of God," and the development of science and psychology, the critical reception of the play has undergone drastic changes. At abroad, discussions of *The Hairy Ape* are mainly about its technical studies—expressionism, dramatic technique so on and so forth; motif or thematic studies—quest for self-identity, alienation so on and so forth; Marxist studies, especially class struggles; tragedy studies—tragic elements, traditional of tragedy so on and so forth; racial and gender studies—masculinity, racial discrimination so on and so forth; and social and cultural studies. It seems that the inclination of the mainstream studies of this play has been increasingly social and cultural. However, regardless of all the similarities to abroad studies of this play, studies at home, though increasing in quantity, gets down to more lopsided and limited vision, such as character analysis, psychological analysis, and tragedy of individuals, with less emphasis on identity crisis and quest for self-identity with relation to culture and society. In light of this, in order to deconstruct the concept of being "modern" in a more inclusive and comparative construction, this paper commits itself to the task of exploring the quest of the self-identity of the protagonist by making use of the theories of Jean Jacque Rousseau and Michel Foucault to update people's

interpretation of what "modern" really means both in the social background of Enlightenment Period and the contemporary modern age.

The Hairy Ape is a play having much concern about human identities. It discusses the identity of a socialized noble savage who has innate natural simplicity and virtue uncorrupted by American capitalism, and his desperate struggle to participate in the chain of existence. His deformed and ugly side is not an outward expression of his inner quality but a thrust upon him by the mainstream society. With the fast development of industrialization and civilization in the early period of this new century, study of this play, especially its protagonist's quest for identity, has extremely practical significance under the social background of today's cultural and social diversities.

II. A NAMELESS NOBLE SAVAGE

This part attempts to carry out a Rousseauian treatment of Yank's early life by discussing his resemblance to a noble savage and the formative influence of education. In his books, Rousseau asserts that man is born good and benevolent, and thinks that social and educational influences are detrimental, for they excite amour-propre which is a kind of harmful emotion, and causes man to be alienated from his authentic self. In this sense, Yank seems like a noble savage without a name due to the mainstream ignorance of his contemporary society. "Yank" can only serve as a code word lacking in substantial meaning and function.

A. A Noble Savage's Self-recognition

Yank is a man of nature. The physical constitution of him far exceeds that of an ordinary man. Despite his grotesque appearance similar to all his fellow workers, his body has an absolute physical superiority over them: "He seems broader, fiercer, more truculent, more powerful, more sure of himself than the rest" (O'NeillⅠ, 1979, p. 105). Therefore, he has an innate confidence and sense of belonging of himself with regards to his strength and power, which help him to "make a bluff at talkin'—and tinkin'—a'most git away with it—a'most" (O'NeillⅧ, 1979, p. 141)! Yank has a strong sense of subjectivity and belonging at first, he does not become bored and slack caused by his monotonous work because of industrial civilization. On the contrary, he regards ship as his home and as part of his life. Just like what Rousseau quotes from *Poetics* in the beginning of his *A Discourse on Inequality*: "We should consider what is natural not in things depraved but in those which are rightly ordered according to nature"(Rousseau, 1985, p. 66). To some extent, Yank is a man who is committed to his work and work diligently and responsibly: "One-two-tree- Dat's de stuff! Let her have it! All togedder now! Sling it into her! Let her ride! Shoot de piece now! Call de toin on her! Drive her into it! Feel her move! Watch her smoke! Speed, dat's her middle name! Give her coal, youse guys! Coal, dat's her booze! Drink it up, baby! Let's see yuh sprint! Dig in and gain a lap! Dere she go-o-es" (O'Neill Ⅲ, 1979, p. 118).

In the limited compartment of this ship, Yank is advantageous in his masculinity so he self-recognizes that he enjoys a certain degree of authority and dominion in the whole stokehole work.

He has a special admiration for the power that propels the ship forward, and he has always regarded himself as the driving force behind the ship, so even though the stokehole compartment is like a hell, Yank loves it enthusiastically. In his heart, it is he that makes the whole world turn. This ubiquitous and omnipotent force makes him feel that he exists and he is proud of his existence. Yank does not take his superiors into consideration: "Say! What's dem slobs in de foist cabin got to do wit us? We're better men dan dey are, ain't we? Sure! One of us guys could clean up de whole mob wit one mit. Put one of 'em down here for one watch in de stokehole, what'd happen? Dey'd carry him off on a stretcher. Dem boids don't amount to nothin'. Dey're just baggage. Who makes dis old tub run? Ain't it us guys? Well den, we belong, don't we? We belong and dey don't. Dat's all" (O'Neill Ⅰ, 1979, p. 109).

Apart from what has been mentioned above, he is unsophisticated and fallible to fall for "the windy oratory of Senator Queen, glorifying the status quo and denouncing with ignorant terror an threat to it like the I. W. W" (Zhu, 2004, p. 815). He even releases the gorilla from his cage and approaches it to introduce himself as if they were friends.

Because of his self-recognition, inner pride, reconciliation with his inner self, and his simple nature of justice, Yank takes his position in the whole society seriously. Therefore, later, the contrast between his prior self under his own paradigm and his quest of another self when he is attacked by the new recognition from others foreshadows his destructive ending. He is to some extent a noble savage living in a self-imagining world which is seemingly ancient and less-civilized.

B. A Noble Savage's Education

Education has played a significant role in people's life. As Rousseau affirms in his book *Emile*, through education, "imbalances created by man's acquisition" could be avoided, and man's potential can be fully actualized (Rousseau, 1979, p. 3), and education provides "everything which we do not have at our birth and which we need when we are grown" (Rousseau, 1979, p. 38). According to his assertion, the discrepancies between amour-proper and amour de soi is self-evident—amour-proper is the root of man's unpleasant mind, while amour de soi originates from such natural instincts as self-love and self-preservation.

As for Yank, he is man from the stokehole of the ship. All his living circumstances are dim room and dirty and noisy working conditions. He is exposed to this kind of "nature" without a clear glimpse of what the outside world is like. His fellow workers and work itself are all his agents to touch upon his own education and he is accustomed to them all.

There is no consciousness of the power of education and language despite his own colloquialisms.

As Rousseau writes in *Essays on the Origin of Language*, "Speech distinguishes man from animal. Language distinguishes nations from each other" (Rousseau, 1997, p. 289). Speech is man's creation and only man can master this tool. As for Yank, though "Tinkin'is hard" (O'Neill Ⅷ, 1979, p. 140), and "It beats it when you try to tink it or talk it—it's way down—deep—behind" (O'Neill Ⅷ, 1979, p. 140), he may want to "tryin' to t'ink" (O'Neill Ⅰ, 1979, p. 108) and elucidate something out of his mind and take revenge but only leaving in speechlessness, struggle and pain with the occurrence of four-time postures of Rodin's "The Thinker" in the play since his first encounter with Mildred, due to his lack of power in speech. When the secretary in the local I.W.W. office asks about his name, he says: "Name? Lemme tink" (O'Neill Ⅶ, 1979, p. 136). He turns out to be a noble savage even without a name for lack of language and social context. That's why the secretary responds sharply by replying: "Don't you know your own name" (O'Neill Ⅷ, 1979, p. 136).

Yank is in some way a kind of noble savage who lives in the ancient time without a name. His society and surroundings have deformed him into a monster who is not only distant from his society but also his authentic self.

III. A MONSTER'S QUEST FOR SELF-IDENTITY

This play is a demonstration about the pursuit of sense of belonging and origin. Yank's search for self-identity of his prior self initiating from his encounter of Mildred, who describes him as a "filthy beast" (O'Neill Ⅲ, 1979, p. 120). According to Foucault, the reasons of Nietzsche's pursuit of origin are "because it is an attempt to capture the exact essence of things, their purest possibilities, and their carefully protected identities; because this search assumes the existence of immobile forms that precede the external world of accident and succession. This search is directed to 'that which was already there,' the images of a primordial truth fully adequate to its nature, and it necessities the removal of every mask to ultimately disclose an original identity" (Albright, 2017, p. 35).

This part attempts to demonstrate the process of Yank's quest for self-identity by dint of Foucault's theories on identity and power theory to illustrate that as for Yank, since his first encounter with the capitalist representative Mildred, he has his moment of awakening and feels confused about who he really is. He is eager to find out the truth and self-prove himself to be the one who he deems is real.

A. The Awakening of Yank

Since the first encounter with the capitalist representative Mildred, Yank has gone through the turning point of his life. Mildred's words "filthy beast" (O'Neill Ⅲ, 1979, p. 120) to some extent urge his awakening. Just what Foucault posits in his *The History of Sexuality*: "Discourses are not once and for all subservient to power or raised up against it, any more than silences are. We must make allowances for the complex and unstable process whereby discourse can be both an instrument and an effect of power, but also a hindrance, a stumbling block, a point of resistance and a starting point for an opposing strategy. Discourse transmits and produces power; it reinforces it, but also undermines it and exposes it, renders it fragile and makes it possible to thwart it" (Foucault, 1978, p. 100-101).

There is a clear-cut contrast of the discourse between Yank's world and the social construction where Mildred belong, which is uncivilized, colloquial, and vulgar while the other is formal, genteel, predominant, and superior, that is to say, the first one is subject to the second. The quest for Yank's identity begins with Mildred's yelling of "filthy Beast" (O'Neill Ⅲ, 1979, p. 120). Although Yank has been content with his own identity, he is badly hit by the entry of the other class which is represented by Mildred. Mildred is the daughter of a steel company chairman, and her appearance breaks the enclosed environment of Yank's original life, making Yank's self-image a dirty beast in the mouth of others. Yank's pride begins to be disintegrated and insulted. Mildred's occurrence changes Yank's original social relations, his self-positioning and the differences between other people's positioning of him and his own, which cause him to face up with his self-identity and reconsider the question of "who I am".

Therefore, if Mildred is the external factor which forces Yank to find his own identity, then it is his initiative to decide to leave the cruise ship, to regain his dignity and value, and to explore another beginning of his life.

B. Self-proving of Yank

For Yank, the value and dignity of self-existence can be established again only through a process of self-verification. As a result, he embarks on a tough journey of self-proving. First, he walks out of the shady ship's bunker and follows his companion Long to take a look at the environment in which Mildred lives. This step is of great significance to Yank, which means that he breaks through the small space of self-containment and consciously tries to understand the whole world. In the neighborhood of the wealthy in "Fifth Avenue" of New York City, Yank provocatively went up to gentlemen and ladies to show his own strength and to repair his self-esteem which Mildred has bruised. However, he ends up with disregard and avoidance: "I beg your pardon (He has not looked at YANK and passes on without a glance, leaving him bewildered.)" (O'Neill Ⅴ, 1979, p. 128-129), leaving his struggle with futility.

Later, following the guidelines of his prison inmates, he goes to the I.W.W. to find his self-reliance and sense of belonging, hoping to embody the power and value of himself through violent revolt, but he is thrown into the street as spies. Finally, he comes to the zoo and releases the gorilla in the cage, thinking that they are both members of "de same club—de Hairy Apes."(O'Neill Ⅷ, 1979, p. 140) and wanting to push the destruction of the world of steel casting.

Unexpectedly, he finishes his life by a gorilla's hug, dying in its cage lonely.

As a matter of fact, Yank's awakening and self-improving is a kind of confrontation with and resistance of the marginalized and deserted of his society against the capitalist society without self-consciousness, just like what Foucault assumes: "Foucault's research on issues like madness, prisons, sex, body, punishment, truth, and knowledge is not just single study focused on single problem, but to reveal the essence of modem disciplinary society through deep research on these seemingly marginal issues...It is through the study of these marginal fields and marginal issues that Foucault exposes the sinister, embarrassing and cruel nature of the ruling class in modem disciplinary society" (Hou, 2018, p. 9).

Discourse can be a means of oppression while it is also a means of resistance. From Yank's deprivation of self to his quest of his another self, during the process of which, according to Foucault, the quest for "truth" and the way power operates are influenced by ratification of authoritative people, consequently the inappropriate discourse cause him to be a social outcast and the marginalized. Regardless of this, his posture of Rodin's "The Thinker" is in some way a representation of his resistance and self-willingness to self-prove himself.

IV. THE FALL OF THE DANGLING MAN

In the progression of human being's manual work, people struggle out from their original identities, hoping to become the master of the world and the nature but at the same time they are increasingly becoming the slaves of the world they create, and the question of "Where do people come from, and where do we go" is like a never-changing confusion. In some way, human beings are a mixture both of animal-like characteristics and human beings themselves. This holds true for Yank, who has struggled between binary oppositions— "ancient and modern life" with the efforts to break the enigma of self-identity.

A. Rift of Identity: Between Ancient and Modern Life

O'Neill draws a line between Yank and his coworkers and the greedy and capitalist modern man, that is to say, between ancient and modern civilization. In doing so, he shows us an image of the ancient man and nature living in harmony: "The room is crowded with men, shouting, cursing, laughing, singing—a confused, inchoate uproar swelling into a sort of unity, a meaning—the bewildered, furious, baffled defiance of a beast in a cage" (O'Neill Ⅰ , 1979, p. 105). Besides, they have some in common: "The men themselves should resemble those pictures in which the appearance of Neanderthal Man is guessed at. All are hairy-chested, with long arms of tremendous power, and low, receding brows above their small, fierce, resentful eyes. All the civilized white races are represented, but except for the slight differentiation in color of hair, skin, eyes, all these men are alike" (O'Neill Ⅰ , 1979, p. 105).

They are men who live in the past and feels fitted that way though their word "has a brazen metallic quality as if their throats were phonograph horns" while "it is followed by a chorus of hard, barking laughter" (O'Neill Ⅰ , 1979, p. 105). Thinking is a hard task for both Yank and the gorilla: "It beats it when you try to tink it or talk it—it's way down —deep—behind—you 'n' me" (O'Neill Ⅷ, 1979, p. 140). Besides, four-time occurrences of Rodin's "The Thinker" for Yank and one-time for "The Hairy Ape" in this play indicate that there are definitely some commonalities between them.

In the world of Yank and his fellow workers, everything operates in accordance with the law of nature, without the intervention of God and outsiders' intrusion. There is no distinction between good and evil, and the only need may be a leader. Yank is ugly and monstrous because he has some of the animal-like characteristics and it is these physical traits that make Mildred look at him as a hairy ape, which leads to the beginning of his tragic life.

However, modern industrial civilization is like a powerful and invisible cage, twisting people's humanity and deteriorating people's vitality. By using these symbolic characters and scenes, O'Neill to some extent criticizes modern industrial civilization for wiping out individuality and destroying human nature, thus causing various ethical problems and ills. In fact, before Mildred breaks into the bunker, Yank is mentally balanced, and at that moment he is living in a modern "primitive Jungle" with him as the ruler of his species, but Miss Mildred's definition of "The Hairy Ape" makes him lose his way and demonstrates his own "animal-like" limitations. Under the scope of Mildred, there is a whole picture of a comedy between ancient and modern life, but as for Yank, deep inside this picture is a total different representation: a representation of his tragic root.

B. Confession: "I'm in de Middle"

Confession, as it is stated by Foucault in his lectures at Dartmouth college, has been assumed "for a long time either as a condition or redemption for one's sin or an essential item in the condemnation of the guilty. For his salvation, one has to know 'as exactly as possible who he is' and, adding to this, one is required to express it as fully and explicitly as possible to other people" (Foucault, 2016. p. 20).

After several confrontations with the representative of capitalist class Mildred, the secretary, some upper-class gentlemen and ladies, and the policeman, Yank finds out the gorilla is the one to whom he can expose his heart: "On'y yuh're lucky, see? Yuh don't belong wit'em and yuh know it. But me, I belong wit'em—but I don't, see? Dey don't belong wit me, dat's what. Get me? Tinkin' is hard—It's dis way, what I'm drivin' at" (O'Neill Ⅷ, 1979, p. 140-141). Although Yanks considers that thinking is a difficult task for him, he still tries to pour his heart out to this hairy

creature to find one who can really understand his confusion and dilemma. Yank is totally lost in this strange and a different world, so he could not truly find his self-identity and sense of belong. He even envies that big creature for that it has a place to belong and the power to wield while he is not: "Youse can sit and dope dream in de past, green woods, de jungle and de rest of it. Den yuh belong and dey don't. Den yuh kin laugh at'em, see? Yuh're de champ of de woild. But me" (O'Neill Ⅷ, 1979, p. 141). From his own perspective, Yank regards himself as an empty man who "got no past to tink in, nor nothin' dat's comin', on'y what's now" and "dat don't belong" (O'Neill Ⅷ, 1979, p. 141). He is the one who misfits the world and gets stuck in between not like this hairy ape who has its own place in the world: "I'm in de middle tryin' to separate'em, takin' all de woist punches from bot' of 'em. Maybe dat's what dey call hell, huh? But you, yuh're at de bottom. You belong! Sure! Yuh're de on'y one in de woild dat does, yuh lucky stiff! And dat's why dey gotter put yuh in a cage, see" (O'Neill Ⅷ, 1979, p. 141) ?

In fact, Yank has been dangling between two different social constructions ever since he steps outside of his own world. He can not go back and find his sense of belonging in the capitalist world either. His confession is his cry for subjectivity. Just like Rousseau, in the opening of his story, claims that he is different and unique: "I'm not made like any that exist. If I am worth no more, at least I am different" (Confession Ⅰ, 1995, p. 5). Therefore, in this sense, Yank's confession is also in some way a demonstration of his rifting identity and a declaration of his failure to reconstruct himself between the ancient and the modern life.

V. CONCLUSION

In the Renaissance period, with people's transition of mindsets from the center of God to the center of man, people's individuality has been raised a lot. And after the Enlightenment Period, with more frequent utilization of science and technology, people begin to feel the benefits of those conveniences which have changed their life completely. The sense of being "modern" is pragmatism-oriented and its concept and promise of a better life are prevalent in social construction. Modern at that time is a very progressive word and there is no denying the fact that some may deny it. However, with the rapid development of science and technology, people gradually realize the damage of them which have been greatly brought to people's life. Meaning of being "modern" is no longer concerned with a promise of a better life and it can only bring catastrophe to the entire universe. That is where alienation from the outside begins just as the demonstration of the whole lifespan of Yank.

The image of Yank's being thrown into the cage is actually a vivid reflection of the social circumstances in the 1920s of America: on the one hand, people have to suffer pressure from the materialistic society; on the other hand, they should also maintain the independence of their spiritual life.

Yank is actually an epitome of all the human beings who struggle between the ancient and and the modern life. The play shows O'Neill's deep thinking on the influence of education and society on one's construction of self. Education and society not only shape one's perception of his self but also alienate one from his authentic self. Like what Rousseau says concerning different kinds of education: if the education of society and man does not conform with the education of nature and one's authentic self, bad consequences result (Rousseau, Emile, 1979, p. 38). Regardless of his attempt to resist, Yank, the man who at first resembles a noble savage has been distorted by the influence of society and education. It disrupts his way of life and leads him towards destruction. In this sense, the orientation and positioning of being "modern" and Rousseau's assertion of the function of a nature-oriented education, which abides by one's innate quality and is not at the mercy of the outside forces deserve our deliberate reconsideration, especially in our present-day society.

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The Self and the Other in Philip Massinger's "The Renegado, the Gentleman of Venice": A Structural View

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Abstract—**Renaissance England (1500-1660) is the most flourishing era of English history which testified the emergence of classical humanistic arts. Of course, drama is a literary genre that prospered, then, to entertain the interests of the Royal ruling families, especially Queen Elizabeth 1 (1558-1603) and her successor King James 1 (1603-25), as theatres were built in London along with dramatic performances held in the courts like masquerades. This study aims at showing the distortion of Islam in Philip Massinger's "The Renegado or The Gentleman of Venice", via tackling the theme of "the self and the other" and analyzing the structure of the play. Why not, and English Renaissance citizens love to watch the non-Christians, the misbelievers, humiliated and undermined. Massinger, among other Elizabethan dramatists like William Shakespeare, uses the art of tragicomedy to show the Western hatred, which is "the self", of the Oriental Islam that is in turn "the other".**

Index Terms—**binary opposition, Islam distortion, orientalism, Philip Massinger, renegade, the self and the other**

I. INTRODUCTION

Philip Massinger is an English Renaissance dramatist and poet who was born in 1583, Salisbury. Massinger is the son of Arthur Massinger who was a servant and agent of Henry Herbert, the Second Earl of Pembroke, and of William Herbert, the third, to whom Massinger wrote his dedications and minor poems. Ann is Massinger's mother (Holland, 1986)

Massinger received his primary education at Salisbury Grammar School, entering Oxford in 1602 where he was compelled to leave, without having any degree, due to financial problems associated with his father's death in 1603 (Stapleton, 1983).

What connects Massinger to the theatre is a letter sent by him and other two dramatists, who were imprisoned for a debt, to Philip Henslowe, the manager of *The Rose Theatre*, asking him to release them by paying their debts. Henslowe approved on condition that they should join his workshop in turn (Fraser, 1976).

It is strange to find Massinger's inescapable poverty (Carter, 1995) although he was a member of the King's [James 1's and then Charles 1's Company]. He succeeded John Fletcher (1579-1625), who died of a plague, in holding the chair of that company in 1625, writing plays that were performed at The Globe and The Blackfriars Theatres (Drabble, 1987).

Documents have not mentioned any pieces of information about Massinger's wife or children or even being married, so he could be a bachelor because of his poverty. Massinger died in 1640, London where he was buried beside Fletcher's grave at South work Cathedral (Burgess, 1987).

Massinger wrote around fifty-five plays of which twenty-two have been lost. He is mostly attracted to tragicomedy, of which "The Renegado" is an instant, due to Fletcher's influence upon him, who [Fletcher] in turn was influenced by William Shakespeare (Cuddon, 1998).

II. CHARACTERS IN PHILIP MASSINGER'S THE RENEGADE: THE GENTLE MAN OF VENICE AND THE ORIENTAL SETTING

Before discussing the theme and the structure of this play, it is worthy first to give the readers a summary which is built on the reading of this play. The Renegado or The Gentleman of Venice is a tragicomedy which consists of five acts. The hero is the Italian pirate Antonio Grimaldi, "the renegade" as he converts from Christianity to Islam. It is because of this conversion he was considered a "renegade". According *to Oxford Dictionary*, "renegade" is a Spanish word derived from the verb "renegade", meaning that someone changes his / her dogma or religion adopting another (Hornby, 1995). This play is set in an Oriental setting in north Africa that is Tunis. Grimaldi kidnapped an Italian lady whose name is Paulina, fleeing to Tunis where the play is set. Grimaldi sold Paulina to Asambeg, the Viceroy of Tunis. Vitelli, a Venetian gentleman, "Paulina's brother" came to Tunis to look for his kidnapped sister. Being disguised as a merchant, Vitelli knew that his sister was staying in the 'harem', a place where Muslim women live, of Asambeg.

Paulina protected her honor and virtue by not allowing anybody to touch her. In the meanwhile, a Turkish [Muslim] Princess, named Donusa, fell in love with the Christian Venetian merchant, Vitelli, refusing the proposal of the Aleppo suitor, Basha Mustafa. She invited Vitelli to come to visit her in the palace, bringing with him some religious famous paintings of Michael Angelo that he considered the best, to which nothing can be equaled. However, the Turkish princess unveiled her face to show Vitelli that her beauty was not inferior to the beauty of those religious paintings. Actually, Vitelli went to the palace without knowing the real motive of Donusa's invitation, telling himself if she fell in love with him, he would ask her help in releasing his sister Paulina from Asambeg's capture. When Vitelli spoke the keyword, he was allowed to enter the palace where he had a sexual affair with Donusa. Feeling sinful, Vitelli confessed to the Jesuit Francisco, deciding to repel Donusa's advances in the next meeting that he promised her to see. However, the writer presents a distorted image of the Muslim character, Donusa, as sensual who was surprised by Vitelli's strange reaction, attempted to seduce him, who [both of them] were overheard by the Asambeg, ordering their death. Donusa told the Asambeg that she was trying to make Vitelli turn from Christianity to Islam before getting married, so the Asambeg gave her another chance to do so, otherwise, both of them would be killed. The distortion of the image reached its highest level when Massinger presents the Christian character as committed to his religion, whereas the Islamic character "Donusa" was presented negatively; she couldn't convince Vitelli to be a Muslim; instead, she turned, herself, a Christian, fleeing with Vitelli from Tunis to Italy. The Jesuit Francisco reconverted the renegade Grimaldi to Christianity and Paulina ran away too. The play ended with a dialogue of the powerless Viceroy of Tunis.

III. The Opposition of the Self and the Other

This play, among other Elizabethan and Jacobean plays, indicates the ideology of the self as opposed to the other that is firstly initiated by Edward Said (1978)   in his book, "Orientalism" who says that "orientalism also tries to show that European culture gained in strength and identity by setting itself off against the Orient as a sort of surrogate and even underground self" (p.3).   Massinger wrote this play to satisfy the Jacobean Audience's desire for seeing Muslims weak, helpless, voluptuous and humiliated by Christians (Chew, 1965). Massinger uses many references of binary oppositions to spotlight upon the idea of the self versus the other, distorting the image of Islam and Muslims. In Saussure's point of view, binary opposition "is the contrast between two mutually exclusive terms, such as on and off, up and down, left and right. Binary opposition is an important concept of structuralism, which sees such distinctions as fundamental to all language and thought"(Baldick, 2004: 1056-binaryopposition.html). Massinger reveals Grimaldi' as a womanizer and a kidnapper although he is to be a Muslim and Islam bans doing such things.

In a dialogue between Francisco and Vitelli, hatred and contempt for Muslims is very clear:

Francisco: I saw the shame of Venice and the scorn

Of all good men: The perjured Renegado Antonio Grimaldi;

Vitelli: Ha! his name is poison to me

Francisco: This debauched villain: whom we ever thought, (To me as I stood at the Holy Altar) The thief that ravished your fair sister from you (Massinger,1976, act I, scene i: 18)

Moreover, Massinger depicts Donusa as "veiled" to, indirectly, say that Islam is a religion of darkness and mystery while Christianity is a religion of light and clarity to deepen the idea of the self, symbolized by Christianity and the other represented by Islam. This idea is highlighted when "Donusa" asked her maid [Carazie] to tell her about the life in England. The maid   told her princess that English women had more freedom than Muslim ones, to the extent that English women could have boyfriends besides their husbands. Thus, Donusa turns shaky and unconvinced of Isalm.

Donusa: Thou Carazie. Wert born in England, what's the custom there

Among your women

Donusa :I have heard That Christian Ladies live with much more freedom Than such as are born hereCarazie: But to your question Madam, women in England, for the most part, live like Queens…..

Donusa:… Your City Dame Without leave wears the breeches, has her husband At as much command as her Prentice, and if need be Can make him Cuckold by her Father's CopyWe enjoy no more. That is of the Ottoman   race, *though our Religion Allows all Donusa ;pleasure*

I am dull, some Music .. So, a lusty strain (Massinger, I, ii: 25)

Moreover, Donusa's veil is used as a religious symbol, whereas it is from Islamic point of view the symbol of chastity which aims to protect women. Still, in all religions, until our recent times, veil is worn by Christian nuns, but no one considers it negatively .While in Massinger's point of view, the recurrent references to the veil of Muslim women show the narrow-mindedness of Islam as a way of constraining the Muslim female's freedom!

Donusa, for example, states that "Our jealous *Turks"* never permit their fair wives to be seen except for being at the public Bagnios, or the Mosques and even then veiled, and guarded (I, ii, 26). Again the Muslim character represented by the word *"Turks"* falls in the distorted stereotype as jealous. Massinger deliberately portrays Muslim characters as voluptuous; "Asambeg, the Viceroy of Tunis" falls in love with a Christian lady, instead of a Muslim one, without thinking rationally just because of her prettiness, so he is driven by passion:

Asambeg: I tremble at her softness.   But only named Paulina

and the charm Had almost choked my fury

…Appear bright spark Of all perfection: any simile Borrowed from Diamonds, or the fairest stars To help me to express, how dear I prize The unmatched graces (Massinger, II, v, 35)

On the other hand , the Western lady is presented   positively; not only the virtuous Paulina refuses Asambeg's love, but also insults him and his religion, describing Islam as being false. In addition, she tells him that she prefers death to get married to him:

Asambeg: I will be your nurse, Your woman, your physician, and your fool, till with your free consent, which I have vowed never to force, you grace me with a name that shall supply all these.

Paulina: What is 't?

Asambeg: Your husband

Paulina: My hangman when thou pleases (II, v,37)

Contrastingly, Massinger shows us "Donusa" as a person guided by lust when she hands her heart to a Christian man [Vitelli] and turns to a Christian instead of making Vitelli a Muslim:

Donusa: My suit is that you would quit your shoulders of a burden under whose ponderous weight you wilfully have too long groaned, to cast those fetters off, with which with your own hands you chain your freedom

Vitelli: You speak in riddles?

What burden, …. Are those you point atDonusa :Those which your religion compels you to bear with slave-like patience.,

Donusa : Be wise, and weigh the prosperous success of things if blessings(IV, iii, 77).

The religious discrimination then is presented overtly by a direct reference to Prophet Mohammad, peace be upon him, when the Christian Vitelli   insulted all Muslims' dignity by claiming that their messenger is a devil!, and   that the Holy Qu'ran is just his own composition,   not a divine message from Allah the only one lord:

Vitelli : But that I know .The Devil *thy Tutor* [a reference to Prophet Mohammad, peace be upon him] fills each part about thee .That great omnipotence at whose nod the fabric of the World shakes. Dare you bring your *juggling Prophet* in comparison with that most inscrutable, and infinite essence That made this all, and comprehends his work? Whose only name is sacred .I will not foul my mouth to speak the Sorceries Of your seducer, his base birth, his whoredoms, His strange impostures; nor deliver how He taught a Pigeon to feed in his ear, Then made his credulous followers believe It was an Angel that instructed him In the framing of his Alcoran. Pray you mark me (IV, iii, 77)

Donusa easily leaves Islam without paying any attention to Asambeg's threat of executing her if she fails to do so. Massinger wants to say that Muslims are not true believers, driven by eroticism as if Muslims have shaky beliefs in Islam and their prophet Muhammad:

Donusa: I came here to take you

But I perceive a yielding in myself To be your prisoner. Vitelli: O Donusa, Die in my faith like me, and 'tis a marriage

At which celestial Angels shall be waiters, And such as have been Sainted welcome us, Are you confirmed?

Donusa: I would be; but the means That may assure me?....

Then thus I spit at Mahomet. (IV, iii,   78)

From this biased perspective, Vitelli enjoyed all the positive characteristics of the self ; he is a Christian, westerner, virtuous, good whereas, the Oriental character "Donusa" is seen as the Other.

The same religious bias goes on towards the ending of the play when Philip Massinger presents converting Donusa into Christianity from Islam as giving her another life ,whereas Islam is presented as death and prison. Again, the opposition between Christianity and Islam is represented as Life\death opposition:

Donusa: I am another woman, till this minute I never lived, nor durst think how to die. How long have I been blind .Let me kiss the hand that did this miracle, and seal my thanks upon those lips from whence these sweet words vanished that freed me from the cruelest of prisons, blind ignorance, and misbelief: false Prophet, impostor Mahomet. (V,iii, 85)

It is obvious, then, that Massinger's deliberate distortion of Islam assures the concept of "the self" as opposed to "the other".   In other words, the binary opposition of Paulina\Donusa; the stable Christian Paulinais "the self" ; however, the Muslim unstable Donusa is the "other".

The last example of Islam distortion can be shown through the hero of this play, "Grimaldi the renegade" who, again, goes back to Christianity. As if Massinger says that "Grimaldi" doesn't find deliverance and safety in Islam, and therefore converts to Christianity:

Grimaldi: I must be honest too do I owe.   A peace within here, Kingdoms could not purchase, To my religious creditor, to leave him. Open to danger

  ….My Father!

Francisco: My good convert

Grimaldi: Days Provided, that my stay may do you serviceBut to me shall be minutes

Francisco: I much thank you

Grimaldi: I am nothing

But what you please to have me be

Francisco: Farewell sir (V, ii, 82)

IV. THE INTERSECTION BETWEEN THE STRUCTURE OF THE PLAY AND THE THEMES

Sixteen plays out of the eighteen, as the rest of Massinger's thirty-three plays, ones were written by Massinger in collaboration with Fletcher, so there is no wonder, then, to find Massinger's adoption of Fletcher who favored the tragicomedy to write about (Gibson, 1978: x)

Massinger's "The Renegado", written in 1624 and published in 1630 (Merriam-Webster,1995: 736), exemplifies the tragi-comedy that connects both comic and tragic elements together. It has people from the upper class to refer to tragedy and others from the lower class to indicate comedy. …Tragicomedy ends happily despite containing unpleasant situations, disguise, and eroticism (Abrams, 1981: 205). The structure of the play is in compliance with its main theme. Why not, and Massinger enjoys underestimating the Muslim characters. To achieve this purpose, the writer uses different techniques, sometimes directly, at other times symbolically. Even the method of characterization manifests this formula of opposition in many aspects: The self\ the other, the Christian\ the Muslim, the noble\villain, the believer\ the convert …etc.

Moreover, Massinger's upper-class personas include the Muslim "Asambeg", the Viceroy of Tunis, the Muslim "Basha Mustafa", and the Muslim Princess "Donusa", attributing them with hopelessness, shakiness, and powerlessness due to Islam. In Massinger's point of view, these characters deserve such negative descriptions to show that Islam is no longer a valid dogma to adopt, that is again to pin-point the concept of "the other."   Nevertheless, the lower class personas are Paulina, her brother Vitelli, and the renegade Grimaldi who find hopefulness and confidence, and strength in Christianity to refer to "the self". In other words, happy ends are linked to the Christian characters who represent the lower class, but sad ones are linked to the Muslim characters who stand for the upper class. As a result, the western hatred of Islam is apparent via constructing the tragi-comedy as the structure of this play.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper sheds light on the concept of "the self and the other" through Philip Massinger's on-purpose distortion of Islam in his tragicomedy, "The Renegado". Doing so, Massinger satisfies the covetousness of the Jacobean audience who think that they are the true believers, while the non-Christians are false ones. Adapting the distorted racial view of Islam, Massinger dehumanizes Muslims in 'The Gentleman of Venice" or "The Renegado ". As seen, the biased image against Muslims is very clear as the ending proves the superiority of the westerners\easterners who are presented within a range of binary opposite ranking forms; Christians\Muslims, the virtuous\the sinners, believers\infidels, West\East, good\bad…; or in other words the self\the other. This Islam distortion expresses the western hatred of Islam and the western religious discrimination.

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