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Contents

REGULAR PAPERS

- | | |
|--|------|
| Interrogation in Nigerian Police-suspect Discourse
<i>Farinde, Raifu Olanrewaju, Oyedokun-Alli, Wasiu Ademola, and Iroegbu Obinna</i> | 975 |
| Transition and Translation of Free Indirect Discourse in Chinese Literature
<i>Yixin Liu</i> | 983 |
| Fiction From a Critical Perspective
<i>Suhair Al-Alami</i> | 990 |
| Stance-taking on Brexit in Small Stories on Facebook
<i>Dmytro Poberezhnyi</i> | 998 |
| The Perceptions of Tertiary Level Learners on the Use of Mobile App ‘Balloon Vocabulary’ in Improving Vocabulary for Reading Comprehension
<i>Philip Wilson John, Maslawati Mohamad, Siti Nur Diyana Mahmud, and Nurul Izzati Md Fuad</i> | 1007 |
| Binding Relations and Their Implications for Word Order in Arabic
<i>Mamdouh Ayed Alenazy</i> | 1018 |
| The Semantic Structure of Color Terms in Arabic: A Cognitive Approach
<i>Jinan Al-Tamimi</i> | 1025 |
| Translation Alternatives of Indonesian Public Signs
<i>Made Susini, Nyoman Sujaya, and I Wayan Ana</i> | 1034 |
| The Application of NLTK Library for Python Natural Language Processing in Corpus Research
<i>Meng Wang and Fanghui Hu</i> | 1041 |
| Effects of Teaching Approach Based on Three-dimensional Grammar on Grade Eight Students’ Acquisition of English Phrasal Verbs
<i>Mingxing Tao and Jiaxin Wang</i> | 1050 |
| The Effects of WordWall Online Games (WOW) on English Language Vocabulary Learning Among Year 5 Pupils
<i>Syafiqah Hasram, M. Khalid M. Nasir, Maslawati Mohamad, Md. Yusoff Daud, Mohd Jasmy Abd Rahman, and Wan Muna Ruzanna Wan Mohammad</i> | 1059 |
| A Study of the Reflection of Naturalism in the Heroine in <i>Sister Carrie</i>
<i>Xiu Zeng</i> | 1067 |
| ICC Nurturing Strategies in the Context of Sino-foreign Institutes
<i>Xiaomei Zhu and Anwei Feng</i> | 1072 |
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Comic Function in the Animated Ecodiscourse (Case Study of “Zootopia”) <i>Natalia Ivchenko</i>	1080
Analysis of Speech Humor in Crosstalk From Principles of Cooperation and Relevance Theory <i>Xia Li</i>	1087
An Overview of History of Contract Law Translation in China <i>Lin Sun and Dexiang Gong</i>	1093
Nostalgia and Alienation in the Poetry of Arab-American Mahjar Poets (Emigrant Poets): Literary Criticism to Stylistics <i>Ibrahim Mohammad Abushihab, Enas Sami Awad, and Esraa Ibrahim Abushihab</i>	1101
Can Word Segmentation and Length of Text Affect L2 Reading? Evidence From Advanced L2 Learners of Chinese and the Three Reading Models <i>Ken Chen</i>	1109
On Embodiment of Predicative Metaphor: A Case of English Body-action Verbs <i>Mingjie Huo and Jiaxuan Chen</i>	1114
Surmounting Stereotyping of International Students <i>Aini Syahira Jamaluddin and Faizah Idrus</i>	1121

Interrogation in Nigerian Police-suspect Discourse

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Abstract—Police-suspect interrogation is a peculiar discourse genre where there is interplay of power and dominance. This study examines the process by which linguistic coercion by the police is being actualized. The data for the study were interrogations between the police and some suspects that were selected within Ondo and Ekiti State Police Commands. The towns were purposively chosen based on their geographical spread across the Ondo Area Command as well as their population and commercial advantages. The data gathered were transcribed and analysed using Gibbons' Forensic Questioning model. Since police-suspect interaction is based on questions and answers, questions in police-suspect interaction were classified according to the degree of power embedded in them. The result indicated that assault, abduction, affray and robbery were the common themes in Police-Suspect Discourse. The findings of the study reveal that in Police-Suspect Discourse there are such questions as declarative, choice, restricted and non-restricted WH-questions, special formulas and projected questions. The study further reveals that the questioning strategies of the police afford them the opportunity of controlling the interrogation. The more frequently the police use questions, the more they are coercive.

Index Terms—asymmetrical power, interrogation, linguistic coercion, police-suspect interaction, questioning

I. INTRODUCTION

The interrogation that was recorded for this study was conducted at the Nigeria police Station, Yaba-Ondo, the Nigeria police Station Iyin-Ekiti and the Nigeria police Station, Owo. In each of the Police Station visited, the recordings consist of the investigating police officers (IPO) some other police men and the suspects. In all the recordings, most of the conversations were between the investigating police officers and the accused persons. Hence, nearly all of the discourses occurring are essentially two-party talk, between the investigating police officer and the accused person. The investigating police officer is also one of the police officers but because he is in charge of the case in question, he is called the investigating police officer. He is knowledgeable in the law guiding the case in question, and thereby wielding more power on the suspect. The suspect is the person who has committed the offence of the case. Because of this, he is at the mercy of the investigating police officer who wields power over him.

Confessions have often been cited as the most powerful evidence in producing a guilty verdict. The techniques the police use in their interrogations have been said to be coercive and may elicit false confessions (Underwager & Wakefield 1992; Leo 1996). The interrogation is eventually an asymmetrical type of dialogue, which denotes the fact that the goals and methods of argumentation used by the one side are quite different from those on the other side. The goal of the questioners is to get any kind of information out of the respondent that is needed for some purpose, like taking action to prevent harm or pursuing an investigation. The goal of the respondent is to pursue his/her own interests and goals, as he/she sees them, balancing them against the wider needs and interests of the community. It is up to him/her to decide whether his/her interests are best served by giving out information or by withholding it. He/she may decide to give out wrong information that will deceive his/her interrogator, or lead him/her in a wrong direction (Levy, 1999) as cited in Walton, (2003).

The questioner is usually a police officer. The respondent can be either a suspect or a witness. According to Walton (2003, p.1777), the respondent wants to conceal the information he possesses, but the questioner wants to reveal this information so that he can pass it on to his/her superiors who have a use for it. In this regard, there is generally a coercive element in interrogation.

Walton (2003, p. 1778) identifies four stages in interrogation which are:

- The formative stage
- The preparatory stage
- The argumentative stage

- The closing stage.

The formative stage is that in which some trial or tribunal requires evidence to be collected. At this stage, the framework is set in place that will determine what kind of information is being sought, as relevant to the case. Also, the preparatory stage in which the questioner gets an idea of 'what to ask' and makes a list of the questions that are to be asked to the respondent. The argumentative stage is the actual dialogue sequence of questions and answers which are typically recorded in notebooks, or a video or audio tape recording. Lastly is the closing stage of the interrogation, which the session is concluded and the body of information that has been collected is assembled in some form. This is the prerogative of the questioner who feels that he/she has got the information needed.

According to Walton (2003, p. 1781), one factor that makes the interrogation distinct from the basic type of information-seeking dialogue is that of the freedom of the participants. In a normal information-seeking dialogue, it would be assumed that both parties are freely engaging in the dialogue and that one party is not the prisoner of the other. He further argues that it is a normative requirement of the simple kind of information-seeking dialogue that both parties should be free to ask questions or put forward arguments or opinions. Neither party should bring pressure to bear to try to prevent the other party from putting forward such arguments or opinions. In fact, bringing such pressure to bear, for example, by using threats would normally be considered fallacious in information-seeking dialogue. In the interrogation, however, the respondent's role is like that of a prisoner of the party who asks the questions. Thus, the interrogation is quite different from the normal kind of information-seeking dialogue.

Because police-suspect interrogation is based on question and answer adjacency pairs, this paper will limit itself to questioning in police-suspect discourse. In information-seeking dialogue we have a social relationship that permits a request for information but does not demand a response and an informational relationship in which the respondent has the information and the questioner does not. However, in police-suspect interrogation, the police interrogators have the right to demand a reply, and often assume that they already have the information that is to be supplied by the respondent. These atypical personal and information relationships have a significant impact on the nature of both questioning exchanges and the form of questions (Gibbons, 2008). This paper will examine this exemplified by the recorded police-suspect data.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

As maintained earlier, police interrogation is a socio-discursive context where the relationship is highly asymmetrical. That is there is power differential in police suspect discourse. The type of power in this context is very obvious and glaring because of the institutional rules and procedures. This means that it is the regulation of the society that vests the police officer with Institutional power over the suspect and the accused. Thus, in this regard, the police officer determines the topic of the interrogation, asks questions, interrupts, challenges, accuses and gives direction. During interrogation, the aim of the police interrogator is to secure a confession from the suspect and due to this, he/she makes use of several strategies to enable the offender to confess his/her guilt.

To support this argument, Farinde (2010, p.255) identifies the following Act forms that police use to obtain confession from the suspects: Elicitation, Directive, Prompt, Evaluation, Accuse, Excuse and Reply/Informative. According to him, the Elicitation Act form is used by the police to information from the accused persons. The Directive act form is used in police-suspect discourse by the police to instil fear in the accused person. Also, the Prompt Act form entails the use of persuasion, threat and torture to force the accused person to confess having committed the crime he is alleged to have committed. The Accusation Act form is used by the police to catch the accused person off-guard, thereby making him to confess his crime unwittingly. The Evaluative Act form is used by the police to decide whether the accused person is speaking the truth or not. And finally, Reply/Informative is the major Act form used by the accused person. The accused person is always replying to the Elicitation and Prompt Act forms of the police.

All the above Act forms highlighted by Farinde (2010, p.255) can only be used during interrogation by the police interrogator. Therefore, they symbolize the power that the police have over the suspect. Elicitation Act form contains questions. Only the police can ask questions during police suspect interrogations, except the questions asked by the suspect to seek clarification of the interrogator's questions. This means that in this context, the police can be said to have power over the suspect. In some other contexts such as in a conversational setting, asking a question can be said to offer the floor to the questioned person and demonstrate the questioner's interest in the answer (Goody 1978, Fishman 1983). Since the prompt Act form entails threats and persuasion and this is used by the police, then the police are having power and control over the suspect.

Also, the Directive Act form, Accuse Act form, and Evaluative Act form are always used by the person occupying the higher position and therefore, they are entitled to use these Act forms. It indicates that there is an asymmetrical relationship between the police and the suspect. The police are always using their power and control to persuade the suspect to confess their crime. By using Directive Act form, a speaker proposes to exert control over the other conversational participants (Goodwin, p.1990). In institutional dyads (attorney-witness, teacher-student, physician-patient), typically, the speaker who has the power to reward i.e. attorney, teacher, physician has asked the most questions and the imbalance in numbers has been dramatic (Dillon, p.1990). The above are just buttressing the fact that only the person that is superior such as the police interrogator-can give directive, reward, evaluate, accuse and even ask most questions.

Farinde's (2010, p.255) is a detailed work that could be described to have done justice to the subject matter. The work also gives a standard structure to police-suspect discourse. However as salient and glaring as the concept of power relations is in police-suspect discourse, the work does not focused on this in the study. Also as preponderance as questioning is in police-suspect discourse, the work does not dwell much on this.

Speaking along the same vein and noting the goals the interrogation is meant to serve, Watson (2003, p.1778) maintains that since the suspect or the accused person is essentially reluctant to make a confession, the police interrogator must use tricky techniques to get results. First of all, the interrogator must appear to be friendly and cooperative, even sympathetic to the suspect. Second, the questioner must be very patient and give plenty of time for answer. Third, the interrogator must be methodical and go by a list of questions that have been previously prepared. Fourth, the interrogator must repeat questions that have not been answered yet. And fifth, and most important, the interrogation must go on for a long, indefinite period of time. The technique is to wear the suspect down, and to convey to him the idea that the tiresome interrogation will only be over when he yields the sought-after information. The methods above still lead credence to the fact that the police have power and control over the suspects and they can use several techniques to obtain a confession from the suspect. In police interrogation, the suspect is always trying as little information as possible, or certainly does not generally stand to gain by putting out lots of information, while the interrogator is always trying to prevent the suspect from concealing this information.

Watson's paper is a comprehensive work on the strategies that police use to obtain confession from the suspect. Just like Farinde's work, the paper did not show the asymmetrical power relationship existing between the police and the suspect. Also, questioning forms in police-suspect interrogation are not portrayed.

Hall's (2008) paper engages the language of police. He uses careful transcriptions of police questioning in New Wales to show how the function of various elements of police interrogations are realised in language, and also the considerable degree to which these functions are performed in a formulaic way, using set phrases and expressions. For example, Hall maintains that establishing motive is always manifesting in police speak. When a police interrogator asks a suspect, 'And what made you do it', he/she is specifically attempting to establish a 'motive'. Also according to Hall (2008), establishing knowledge on the part of a suspect may also be of high importance to police interrogator's attempt to build a case. Knowledge in this specialized sense refers to a suspect's awareness of details which are likely to be known only to the perpetrator of a crime and, importantly, are able to be confirmed as true by investigators. For this reason, when a suspect has made a confession, knowledge may be a factor in determining whether the confession is genuine.

Although Hall's paper dwells much on questioning, questioning forms are not addressed in the work. The work also concentrates on gradual building of knowledge to the neglect of power imbalances existing in police-suspect discourse.

Adegbite's (2013) work contributes to knowledge in the field of pragmatics by exemplifying the pragmatics concept of politeness, using fresh data from police-suspect interrogation in English as a Second Language (ESL) context. It provides insights into the use of language by Nigeria Police interrogators by exploring their politeness strategies in suspect interrogation. The study also shows that police-suspect interrogation as a discourse genre can be used to explicate the postulations of the Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness model and that the model is adequate in elucidating the politeness pragmatics of institutional dyadic discourse of unequal participants, example of which is police-suspect interrogation. It also extends the frontiers of knowledge in language study via the application of pragmatic tools to the analysis of police interrogation texts.

Although Adegbite's work is a detailed study on police-suspect discourse, its focus is on application of politeness principle to the police-suspect discourse to the neglect of questioning forms that constitutes the major part of the discourse in this genre. It is to the credit of the study that the issue of power imbalances is also addressed.

Ajayi's (2016) work focuses on politeness and impoliteness strategies and power abuse in police-suspect interaction in Ibadan, Nigeria. Based on Brown and Levinson's Politeness theory, Culpeper's Impoliteness theory, Fairclough and Wodak's Principles of Critical Discourse Analysis, and making use of 35-hour audio-recording involving 66 police officers and 58 suspects at the State Criminal Investigation Department Headquarters, Iyaganku, Ibadan, Oyo State, Ajayi discovers that Investigating Police Officers employed bald on record without redress impoliteness, positive impoliteness, negative impoliteness, withhold politeness and mock politeness strategies to attack the faces of suspects, wield power over them, and violate their rights during interrogation. They employed negative and positive politeness strategies to minimise the attack on the faces of cooperative suspects. The suspects employed positive politeness strategies to appeal to the faces of the Investigating Police Officers. Ajayi affirms that the Investigating Police Officers dominated police-suspect interaction with (para)linguistic phenomena as question, paralanguage, interruptions, verbal abuse and verbal threat.

Ajayi's study is a very comprehensive work on police-suspect interaction. Yet, as detailed as the work is, it does not cover the questioning forms in police-suspect interaction. This present work will take care of all the shortcomings observed in all the reviewed studies. Specifically, this present work will ex-ray questioning forms as a strategy employed by Investigating Police Officers to dominate police-suspect interrogation. Also, the work will illustrate how power is unevenly distributed between police officers and suspects in favour of the former in police-suspect interrogation.

III. METHODOLOGY

The data for the study were interrogations between the police and some suspects. They were selected within Ondo and Ekiti State Police Commands. The interrogation was recorded at the Nigeria police Station, Yaba-Ondo, the Nigeria police Station Iyin-Ekiti and the Nigeria police Station, Owo. The towns were purposively chosen based on their geographical spread across the Ondo and Ekiti Areas Command as well as their population and commercial advantages. All the interrogation sessions recorded for this study were conducted mainly in English and the subjects were adults (18 years and above).

The process of gathering data for this study involved the use of research instrument such as tape-recording, interview and personal observation. Having sought and secured from the Area Commander of the towns involved, thirty-five interrogations of suspect sessions were witnessed and recorded by the researcher. Unstructured oral post-recording interview was used in few instances to clarify observed extra hyphen-linguistic cues during the interrogation sessions. The data gathered for this research work were transcribed and analysed using Gibbons (2008) Forensic Questioning model. In analysing the data, items were scored on the basis of frequency distribution and simple percentages.

The theoretical framework for this study is supported with Gibbons' (2008) forensic questioning model. This model is especially good for the analysis of institutional dyadic discourse of unequal participants. It is essentially good for police-suspect discourse because observation of the data gathered for this work has revealed that the greatest linguistic tool or weapon the police employed in establishing their institutional authority over suspects is question. In support of this, Stygall (1994) asserts that questions are a powerful tool the police interrogators use to control the flow of discourse, requesting particular information in a certain fashion, presenting the story in the order they impose, which does not necessarily follow the temporal succession of the actual events.

Gibbons (2008) postulates some questioning forms which are identified, analysed and discussed for this present study. They are (i) Declarative questions, (ii) Choice questions (iii) Wh-questions, (iv) Projected questions, and (v) Special formulas. According to Gibbons (2008), in police-suspect discourse, only one party is normally expected to ask questions and the other party is only allowed to respond and normally must respond.

Declarative Questions: These are questions loaded or embedded with the questioners' views, positions, ideas and propositions, aimed at indicting or convincing the respondent. According to Gibbons (2008), they are very powerful questions because they contain the proposition of the questioner. As can be inferred from above discussions, declarative questions have presuppositions and all questions posed in natural language will contain words or phrases that have emotive connotations, both positive and negative. According to Watson (2003, p.1791), the suggestiveness of a declarative question can have subtle effects on the respondent who is a witness. What may occur is that the suggestive terms in the question can result in the interrogator's views being incorporated into the memory of that witness.

Choice Questions: These are otherwise known as polar or Yes/No questions. They are questions that require the respondent to oscillate between two options of yes or no. The police make use of this type of question in police-suspect discourse to limit the choice of response of suspects. Such questions are also used by the police to prevent suspects from deviating from the subject of discourse. According to Gibbons (2008), these choice questions license in the response only information provided by the police interrogator.

WH-questions: These questions whether restricted or non-restricted are questions usually posed by the police for specific facts and information. They are introduced by WH-words such as where, who, when, why, how and what. This type of question is the one that is mostly employed by police officers in the course of their interaction with suspects.

Projected Questions: According to Gibbons (2008), questions in police interrogation usually contain verbal projection (reported speech). In these kinds of questions, the propositions of the police interrogator are usually embedded in them thereby placing high levels of pressure for agreement on the suspect. In a verbal projection, like 'You say that he killed the woman', there is an assumption that the speaker is committed to the truth of the core proposition (He killed the woman) rendering it very difficult to deny without branding oneself a liar. Therefore, if the person answers 'No' this denial is primarily a denial of saying this, but does not deny that he killed the woman (although the denial may affect this core proposition if there is no other evidence for the fact). The core information (He killed the woman) is to some degree presupposed or embedded.

Special Formulas: One characteristics of police interrogation is that there are occasions when police interrogators specifically mark the fact that the information is their version of events, not that of suspect, then challenge the suspect to agree. This is done by the use of legal formulas, the most common of which is "I put it to you that". This phrase is not exclusively part of police domain and may be more frequently and more effectively used in courtroom discourse (e. g. cross examination). It is nonetheless a phrase which is unlikely to turn up in general conversation but which does appear with some frequency in police interrogation (Gibbons 2008).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Overwhelmingly, the pattern in police interrogation is for the police to ask questions and for suspect to answer them. The fact that police-interrogator's role is essentially information seeking and the suspect's role is information giving, places control over topic navigation management in the interrogator's hands. Questions are initiating moves, answers are responding moves.

TABLE 1
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THE QUESTIONING FORMS IN THE POLICE-SUSPECT DISCOURSE

S/N	Questioning Forms	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Declarative	25	28.4
2.	Choice	24	24
3.	Projected	19	21.6
4.	WH-	12	14.0
5.	Special Formulas	8	12
	Total	88	100

The table above shows the distribution of the questioning forms identified in the discourse. It shows that Declaratives are the most frequently used questioning form with a frequency of 25 (28.4%). Next to Declarative is Choice which has 24 occurrences (24%). Projected has 19 appearances (21.6) while WH- accounts for 12 instances (14.0%) and lastly Special Formulas which has the least frequency distribution of 8(12%).

A. Declarative

Declarative questions are questions embedded with questioner's propositions and ideas which aim to convince the listener. They are very powerful questions because they contain the proposition of the questioner. One glaring fact is that this is a question that has the highest distribution of 28.4%. This is hardly surprising however, since the aim of the Investigating Police Officer is to impose his proposition and his own version of reality on to the suspect so that he can confess his guilt. This is why the Investigating Police Officers in my data are always using declarative questions to project their propositions forward. This reveals the power that the police have over the suspect stemming from the type of questions they ask. For example:

1. IPO : I say you were parading yourself behind the house of Mr. Adekunle where

It was alleged that thieves came there and they broke into the house and took away his properties. You were seen behind the house yesterday.

SUS : I did not go behind the house yesterday. I was passing to the second Street.

In example 1 above, the interrogator makes it clear that he is providing his own version of events by saying "I say" and is making a bald statement of his version "that the suspect was seen behind the house of the theft yesterday "for the suspect's agreement. Although the suspect initially denies this but he later confesses that he was just passing through that street to the second street.

2. IPO : Yesterday, it was discovered that you evacuated all your properties from your house through a lady?

SUS : That lady, let me say that she is my wife.

3. IPO : It was learnt that you carried those stuff in a Ghana-must-go bag so that another person may not discover the content of the bag

SUS: My landlord, everybody in my house knows that I took my food, my rice, my garri.

This type of question may sometimes have a rising question intonation, making it more questions-like as in examples 2 and 3 above. In the two examples above, the interrogator is also providing his own propositions and ideas wishing to convince the suspect. In police interrogation, this type is called a question, yet, it looks much more like an accusation-one that the suspect is obliged to respond to by the rules of procedure.

B. Choice Questions

These are Yes/No form and alternative questions. Both of them are called choice questions because they both require choice for response. They have high frequency in the distribution table 24%. This reason for this is that the IPO always wants to coerce and convince the suspects to their own idea. Hence, they are used maximally. They are powerful, coercive and controlling, because they limit the choice of the suspects' answer to a choice. Yes/No questions and alternative questions also contain propositions that the suspects are expected to pick from. For example:

4. IPO : Did you carry those items sealed in a Ghana-must-go bag?

SUS : Yes sir.

5. IPO: You mean the customs permitted you to buy those goods and bring them to Nigeria for sale as you had obtained all the custom papers.

SUS : Yes.

6. I.P.O : Do you know anything about that vehicle?

SUS: No. I don't know

7. IPO: Did you fight the policemen at the checkpoint in the course of demanding your paper ?

SUS : No.

In each of the examples above, we can see how the IPO uses the questioning form to direct the interlocution in each case. The IPO's utterances determine as well as limit the contribution of the suspect. Examples 4-7 above already contain the propositions of the police interrogator and the suspect is just expected to pick between 'Yes' or 'No. In

essence, of all the options available to the suspect to choose from in response, he cannot go beyond those given in the questions. This is where power lies. The questions have restricted the suspect's response to the options embedded in the questions given above. These choice questions license in the response only information provided by the interrogator.

C. Restricted WH-questions

This requests only specific information and facts. They are introduced by where, who, whom, when and which. They are more powerful than their non-restricted counterparts because they just require specific facts. For example, where requests place, which requests type, while when requests time or period and who/whom demands person or people, for example.

**8. IPO : On 17th October 2011 between, the hours of 8. 30am and 2pm.
where were you'?**

SUS : I was in this Ondo. I was inside the school.

In example 8, the IPO wants to know between the specific time of 8. 30am and 2pm where the suspect was and he replied that he was in Ondo, specifically, in the school. Consider this also:

9. I.P.O.: Who said so?

SUS: Alfa

Similarly in example 9, the suspect gives the name of the person that the IPO asked.

**10. IPO: It is alright. When precisely did your family contributed the money for you
after the death of your father?**

SUS: On May 15th, 2011.

In example 10 also, the suspect gives an account of the timing of events when asked 'when' question.

D. Non-restricted WH-questions

This requires vivid, clear, informative and narrative details. It enables the suspect to supply more information about circumstances and motives, with this type of question, the interrogator simply names a topic, and then asks the suspect to tell what he knows about it. Examples of this type of question are what, how and why. For example;

**11. IPO : Alright. Yesterday, why the police did stopped and brought you to the station
for being in possession of the product.**

**SUS : They stopped me and said I should park and they asked my driver to park. Then they asked me
what did I carry? I told them it is apple and I showed them my custom paper. So the police gave it
to another man that was not in uniform. That one said we should follow them to the station.**

**12. IPO : You said you deal in apple business. And we know that apple is a foreign
Product, how did you come about it'?**

**SUS : I went to Cotonou, as I got to Seme, I collected custom duties so that
I will be coming with my goods.**

In example 11 above, the 'why' question is answered with all and only the required information in the manner that he was brought to the police station. Similarly in example 12, the 'how' question receives similar response.

E. Projection Questions

These questions contain verbal projections. They also have high frequency on the distribution table 21.6%. Projected questions are very powerful questions an IPO could ask. This is because they are very challenging, combating, controlling, powerful and coercive. Let us consider some examples where this resource is used:

**13. IPO: You said because of the sudden nature of the project, that was why you
did not keep your money in the bank. Don't you think that project
is not something sudden?**

**SUS : That money I said----- I said , you are throwing a lot of question to me. It
is not surprising if I have £100,000 in my own house. I am not too small to hold
that money because I know my age**

The question in example 13 presupposes that the suspect has recounted the reason why he did not keep his money in the bank which is very difficult to deny. As a matter of fact, the suspect did not deny but give another answer which is not related to the question.

**14. IPO: According to you, you said you carried rice, beans and garri, in a bag and
sealed it. Don't you think it will be difficult for the other people to know what
was inside?**

SUS: I will be very difficult.

In example 14, the basic form of the question is "Don't you think it will be difficult for the other people to know what was inside". Once more, the projection "According to you, you said..." Makes it hard to deny and the suspect readily agrees with it. This acutely shows the power that police has over the suspect.

F. Special Formulas

Wherever they are used, they always issue challenges to the suspect. Although special formulas have the lowest frequency distribution, 12%, they are by no means least coercive. Instances of utterances with special formulas in police-suspect interrogation analysed in this study further reveal that the IPO who is the dominant speaker, holds higher power and authority than the suspect. Special formulas therefore are means of manifesting the asymmetrical power relationship between the police and the suspect.

15. IPO: I put it to you that you are the person who stole those properties. That is what you will be saying after committing the offence?

SUS: Master, I am not the person who does this deed. I don't know anything about the theft.

16. IPO: I put it to you that you are a blatant liar?

SUS: I did not tell lies.

In these examples, the police interrogator used this set piece phrase as a last resort since other questions asked to establish that 'the suspect is the person responsible for the theft' had failed. But not surprisingly, since the suspect is a non-complaint person, this use of special formulas failed to achieve its objective of extracting an admission.

V. CONCLUSION

From the discussion above, we have seen that assault, abduction, affray and robbery were the common themes in Police-Suspect Discourse. Also, in Police-Suspect Discourse there are such questions as declarative, choice, restricted and non-restricted WH-questions, special formulas and projected questions. We have also seen that interrogation is a type of exchange in which the suspect is restricted in his power to control. The police interrogator controls and dominates this exchange. Suspect gives information and his role consists of simply giving answer to questions posed by the police interrogator. The suspect has little to say in what direction the exchange will take, and what questions are used. His role is to just answer questions posed to him by the police interrogator. We have equally seen how question forms are used by the police interrogator to obtain confession from the suspect. This is because of the power the police interrogator is having over suspect. There is asymmetrical relationship between the police interrogator and the suspect. The forms of these questions limit the scope for response in a range of ways, in an attempt to control the information provided by the suspect.

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Transition and Translation of Free Indirect Discourse in Chinese Literature

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Abstract—Free indirect discourse (FID) is a discourse presentation pattern of third-person narration, and it is often employed as a common narrative strategy to present characters' consciousness in literary works. Given its ambiguous link with both the narrator's and character's discourse, we may feel confused about how to distinguish FID from other discourse when reading a text. After introducing the basic definition of this notion, this paper will interpret several signals which can help to distinguish FID passages in the text. Most importantly, this paper will look at how FID passages in Western literary works were translated into Chinese in early works, and then explore the development of FID in early Chinese fiction, investigating the transition of FID in Chinese.

Index Terms—free indirect discourse, stream of consciousness, interior monologue, narrative discourse, Chinese literature

I. INTRODUCTION

Free indirect discourse (Hereafter: FID) is a discourse presentation mode of third-person narration to represent a character's speech or thoughts. The relevant studies in early times were mainly written in French, in German or in English. In Chinese academia, it has not been paid much attention.

As a common narrative strategy to present characters' consciousness, FID creates an appropriate space for the complicated interchange between narrator and character, which evokes the struggle in terms of who controls the utterance in the text. Given its ambiguous link with both the narrator's and character's discourse, we may feel confused about how to distinguish FID from other discourse when reading a text. There are several phenomena which can help to distinguish FID passages from the surrounding text in the English text. The general grammatical characteristics of FID include, like, the third-person system in third-person narrative, the lack of the introductory expression phrases, the past tense and so forth. It will be interpreted in detail later in this paper.

The appearance of FID as an independent literary technique in Chinese fiction is quite early, and it can be traced even further back than the notion of stream of consciousness. Some literary works written before the Republican era have been studied with a view to narrative method.

Given its complex relation with the concepts of interior monologue and stream of consciousness, this paper will firstly explain the relationship between the three concepts. Then, this paper will introduce the basic definition of the notion of FID, and interpret several signals which can help to distinguish FID passages in the text. Moreover, this study will explore the development of FID in early Chinese fiction, and it will look at how FID passages in Western literary works were translated into Chinese in early works, thereby investigating the transition of FID in Chinese.

Although some of the previous studies reveal that FID was borrowed from western fiction since the appearance of Chinese translations of some western fiction in nineteenth century, it is convincing that actually this "new" narrative technique was not totally introduced from western fiction. During the May Fourth era, diversified narrative techniques greatly developed in Chinese fiction, and FID began to frequently appear in the writings.

II. THE CONCEPT OF FREE INDIRECT DISCOURSE

A. *The Relationship between Free Indirect Discourse, Stream of Consciousness and Interior Monologue*

Interior monologue (Hereafter: IM) is a common technique to present stream of consciousness (Hereafter: SOC) in literary works. Some scholars think that it includes direct IM and indirect IM. Direct IM is normally used most extensively, which can be presented through two kinds of discourse forms: direct discourse (Hereafter: DD) and free direct discourse (Hereafter: FDD); indirect IM is actually correlated with indirect discourse (Hereafter: ID) and free indirect discourse (FID). By contrast, some other scholars regard FID as an independent notion.

Regardless of that, overall, to present SOC in literary works, the most common discourse presentations used are FDD and FID. As the Chinese scholar Shen Dan (1991) argues, these two forms are the most appropriate to reveal SOC in fiction. In this sense, we can say that IM and SOC partly overlap (as below):

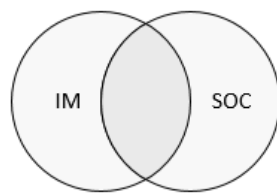


Figure 1

In Figure 1, interior monologue includes direct interior monologue and indirect interior monologue. Direct interior monologue can be presented through two kinds of discourse forms: direct discourse and free direct discourse; indirect interior monologue is usually correlated with free indirect discourse. In stream-of-consciousness literature, the most common discourse presentations are free direct discourse and free indirect discourse (the overlapping part).

Given that FID does not appear as frequently as DD or ID in literary works and that it was not until recent decades that FID was widely introduced in Anglo-American literary criticism, the concept of FID was often ignored by scholars (Hagenaar, 1992). However, due to its special function constructed in SOC techniques, this study will separate it from the section of IM and analyse it in detail next.

B. Definition of Free Indirect Discourse

Free indirect discourse (FID) is a peculiar style of third-person narration to represent a character's speech or thoughts. The relevant studies in early times were mainly written in French and in German, and in these languages FID was designated as *style indirect libre* and *erlebte Rede* (Hernadi, 1972; Cohn, 1978).¹ In Chinese academia, it has not been paid much attention.

For example, the FID is used heavily throughout *Mrs. Dalloway* by Virginia Woolf (Woolf, 1925). Often it is not exactly clear through whom the reader experiences the story, the characters or the narrator. Meanwhile, the usage of FID may let the reader form his/her own interpretation of the novel, because we can find that FID is more like a dual voice, lying somewhere in between DD and ID, and sometimes it is difficult for readers to identify FID in the texts. As a mix of DD and ID, FID is always in a "sort of halfway house position, not claiming to be the reproduction of the original speech, but at the same time being more than a mere indirect rendering of the original" (Leech and Short, 2007, p.57). Thereby, it becomes important for us to first determine how FID is established as well as how it differs from other relevant discourse modes, in particular, DD and ID. Many scholars remark that FID is generally defined in opposition to both DD and ID, although FID takes features from both of them (Leech and Short, 2007; Shen, 1991).

One characteristic that distinguishes it from normal DD or ID is the lack of introductory phrases such as "he/she said" or "he/she thought", so it may be more direct to convey the character's words than in DD and ID. In this way, however, the reader possibly would feel confused about who exactly is speaking, the character, or the narrator, because there would appear an overlap of the character's and the narrator's voice, thereby further resulting in a combination of perspectives as well as a sort of polyphonic effect. Therefore, FID is also described as a "technique of presenting a character's voice partly mediated by the voice of the author" (Stevenson, 2014, p.34), or, as Gérard Genette puts it, "the narrator takes on the speech of the character, or, if one prefers, the character speaks through the voice of the narrator, and the two instances are then merged" (Genette, 1980, p.174). Furthermore, Genette's discussion in the section "narration of words" of the chapter on "Mood" clearly points out the twofold ambiguity with the usage of FID in texts (Genette, 1980, p.172). First, it would produce a confusion between uttered speech and inner speech. In other words, it may be unclear whether the words in FID are spoken by the character, or just the thoughts of his/her own. Genette exemplified his point with Marcel's statement from *Sodom et Gomorrhe*, "I went to find my mother: it was absolutely necessary that I marry Albertine" (Genette, 1980, p.172), through which we may question whether it is the thought Marcel has or the words that he addresses to his mother. Second, there exists confusion between the speech, no matter the uttered or inner ones, of the character and that of the narrator, that is, the ambiguity of whom contributes the discourse. Taking Flaubert as an example, Genette remarks that the advantage he derived from this kind of ambiguity "permits him to make his own language speak this both loathsome and fascinating idiom of the 'other' without being wholly compromised or wholly innocent" (Genette, 1980, p.172).

Apart from Genette, many other scholars note this sort of ambiguity associated with FID. For example, Paul Hernadi described this kind of effect as "dual perspective" in his article and he pointed out that "these dual modes of discourse may consist of seemingly authorial statements, yet they clearly evoke a character's sensory or mental vision, sometimes even stylistic peculiarities of his speech" (Hernadi, 1972, p. 41). In this article, Hernadi suggested FID as "substitutionary narration", because the narrator "substitutes his words for a character's speech, thought, sensory perception". From the point of view of grammar, Hernadi described this type of literary discourse as "an elliptical form of indirect quotation" (Hernadi, 1972, p.41). Ohmann described it as "double vision", in which "the sense of the narrator peering into the character's mind and scrupulously reporting its contents" (Ohmann, 1964, p.436).

¹ In 1912, the Swiss linguist Charles Bally identified this kind of narrative style as *style indirect libre*, while in German literature, this style had been known as *erlebte Rede* (experienced speech). It should be noted that since the earliest sighting of FID from Adolph Tobler in 1887, not only its definition, nature and function, but also the name of this type of discourse has not been completely come to an agreement, such as the narrated monologue, represented speech, the quasi-direct discourse, pseudo-objective and so forth.

C. Signals to Recognise Free Indirect Discourse in the Text

Given its ambiguous link with both the narrator's and character's discourse, we may feel confused about how to distinguish FID from other discourse when reading a text. There are several phenomena which can help to distinguish FID passages from the surrounding text. The general grammatical characteristics of FID have been seen, which mainly include, like, the third-person system in third-person narrative, the lack of the introductory expression phrases, the past tense and so forth. It will be interpreted in detail below.

In terms of specific distinctive features of FID passage, many scholars have investigated them, among whom the Czech literary theorist Lubomír Doležel provides a relatively complete guide for this category. This classification is mainly based on its mixed structure as regards the features that distinguish narrator's discourse from character's discourse. It should be noted that this classification is mainly used for the study of Czech literature (Doležel, 1973). In addition, Ronald Lethcoe provides an extensive classification which applies to the representation of speech exclusively. It should be noted that Lethcoe argues that most features could be applied in different languages rather than a certain one (Lethcoe, 1969). Similarly, Rimmon-Kenan had a classification based on the comparison with DD and ID (Rimmon-Kenan, 1983). Moreover, Brian McHale and Rimmon-Kenan did a study about classification as well. McHale mainly gave a classification of data from various sources (McHale, 1978). So, the following interpretation will mainly be a synthesis of the general accounts by these scholars.

Overall, in terms of the system of the grammatical person, FID concurs completely with narrator's discourse.

In most cases, FID appears in third-person narration, in which it mainly employs the third-person system. In other words, the reference to speaker, hearer and referent is expressed by third-person verb forms as well as personal and possessive pronouns (Doležel, 1973). FID was later found in first-person narration as well although under rare circumstances. In this type of texts, as Cohn described with the terms "narrating self" and "experiencing self" (Cohn, 1978, p.167), the relationship between these two positions of narrators "corresponds exactly to the relationship of a narrator to his character in a figural third-person novel: the narrator momentarily identifies with his past self" (Cohn, 1978, p.167). In the study, Cohn also includes a section of "self-narrated monologue", which is devoted to FID in first-person texts (Cohn, 1978). Similarly, Elly Hagenaar points out that a distinction can be drawn between the narrator in two various positions, that is, "at the moment of narration" and "at the moment in the past when he experienced the narrated events" (Hagenaar, 1992, p.16). Due to the fact that this circumstance is not very common in literary works, FID in first-person narration does not occur frequently.

In terms of verb sense, FID combines features of narrator's discourse and character's discourse. In most cases, FID passages employ the form of past tense, however it should be pointed out that, in some circumstances, for example, when the story originally is narrated by past tense, this aspect cannot be used to recognise FID. Additionally, in some languages, such as Chinese, there is no concept of "tense", and thus there does not exist the so-called "past tense", which will be discussed in detail later. Thereby, some alternative verbal feature may provide the same function. Just as Lethcoe indicated, the verb shifts can probably become signals of FID. Such shifts, for instance, may be from preterite to past progressive or to past future, shift to a greater past tense, or sudden shift to an imperative (Lethcoe, 1969). Or, as McHale mentions, some modal auxiliaries which refer to speculation or a supposed obligation or permission, such as "might", "ought to", "should", "must" and so forth, enable us to recognise FID (McHale, 1978). Doležel also points out that these expression to some extent imply "a speaker whose point of view differs from the narrator's" (Doležel, 1973, p.28).

The concept of deixis is important in the field of linguistics and refers to phrases such as "here", "his", "that", "yesterday" and so forth. According to Doležel, deixis has "the function of pointing to the shifting time-space position of the speaking character" (Doležel, 1973, p.29), which just concurs with the situation of the character's discourse, while the narrator's discourse is non-situational. Thus, we can see that in this respect, FID behaves like character's discourse. To explain it more clearly, the following examples will be taken from Lethcoe looking at the difference between FID and DD as well as ID in this category (Lethcoe, 1969, p.7):

DD: He spoke: "I am going to the police this very minute! I will have you arrested! Do you think you can break the law without punishment?"

ID: He said that he was going to the police that very moment. He claimed that he would have him arrested. He asked whether he thought he could break the law without punishment.

FID: He was going to the police this very minute! He would have him arrested! Did he think that he could break the law without punishment?

It can be seen that FID does not shift the space-time perspective from that of the character to that of the narrator but employs the same reference system (that of the character) as direct speech.

In addition, as Bronzwaer and Stanzel point out, combinations of time-denoting adverbs with past-tense verb forms can be considered as striking signals in FID passages (Hagenaar, 1992, p.22),² however, which are impossible to appear in our spoken language. Hagenaar takes an example from a German novel: "But in the morning she had to decorate the tree. Tomorrow was Christmas." In this example, it can be seen that the last sentence "tomorrow was Christmas"

² The above takes the reference of translation by Elly Hagenaar.

obviously cannot be spoken in oral language normally, with the word “tomorrow” representing the notion of future time against the preterite “was” expressing the past time (Hagenaar, 1992, p.22).

Apart from the three ordinary signals above, some scholars list other signals to recognise FID passage under some special circumstances. In terms of syntactic features, for instance, Lethcoe mentioned several aspects, including elliptical constructions, repetitions, optative constructions, conjunctives and conjunctive adverbs in the initial position as well as the use of “you” for impersonal constructions (Lethcoe, 1969). Moreover, the fact that syntactic features are effective in the emotive function of FID has been widely recognised. In this respect, both Doležel and Bronzwaer made a statement in their studies. For example, Doležel listed several aspects, which includes interjections, exclamatory sentences, optative sentences, and deliberative or rhetorical questions (Doležel, 1973, p.32). Bronzwaer also found several relevant factors, including prolepsis and strings of related words or synonyms (Bronzwaer, 1970, p.49).

Secondly, from a semantic perspective, Doležel specifies two factors, that is, attitudinal semantics and modality. He highlights attitudinal semantics as “the expression of individual attitudes and evaluations relating to the verbalised thoughts, depicted actions, characters, etc.”, and defined modality as “that evaluation of the verbal action which attributes to it the quality of reality, unreality, possibility, conditionality, desirability or necessity”. Doležel also emphasises that for FID passage the modality is always subjective; that is to say, “the modal status of verbal actions is here controlled by the decision of a speaker, in accordance with the general trends of his subjective semantics” (Doležel, 1979, pp. 35-39). Besides, McHale also pointed out similar semantic devices of modality, for example, some adverbs to convey doubt or certainty, speculation or supposition, such as “maybe”, “perhaps”, “certainly”, “possibly”, “probably”, and so forth. Additionally, he also mentions “lexical fillers”, which “express an ongoing internal or external exchange”, such as “of course”, “after all”, “anyway”, “surely”, “so”, “yes”, “no” and so on (McHale, 1978, pp.265-269).

Moreover, Lethcoe lists some semantic devices for recognising FID in texts. He provided a relatively comprehensive list for us: intensifiers and emphatic particles, including even, so, just, only, too, such; adverbs and adjectives that intensify (“quite”, “awfully”, “absolutely”, “totally”) or that stress absolute or extreme states (“always”, “never”, “every”, “no”); contractions such as “wasn’t” and folk proverbs (Lethcoe, 1979, pp.121-129). He also highlights the importance of context, especially regarding semantic discriminative features of FID. In Lethcoe’s opinion, for FID passage, “it is usually those elements which contrast the most to the narrator’s style in his pure narration which provides reliable indices” (Lethcoe, 1979, p.93).

Thirdly, in addition to syntactic and semantic features, some contextual signals can also be quite useful for us to recognise FID in the texts, for example, the frequent presence of certain verbs. We should notice that some verbs often precede or follow a passage of FID or just intercalate between it. Regarding this, Bronzwaer compares FID with ID, and he argues that FID appears to “differ from indirect speech only in so far that a matrix sentence containing a verb of the ‘speak’, ‘think’ or ‘feel’ class has been deleted”. He also points out that “such a verb, or an expression related to it, is still very often present in the context, although not directly related to the free indirect passage by any syntactic link” (Bronzwaer, 1970, p.54), for example, in some verbs expression such as “to recall”, “to seem”, “to remember”, “to feel”, “to realise” and so forth, as well as in some expressions with nouns like “reason”, “thought”, “sense” (Bronzwaer, 1970, p.54). Lethcoe mentions this aspect as well. He proposed that the so-called “preparations” in the context possibly also take the form of a description of gestures or facial expression, although it is most often the description of a character’s consciousness that is able to precede the FID passage (Lethcoe, 1979, p.82).

III. THE HISTORICAL TRANSITION OF FREE INDIRECT DISCOURSE IN CHINA

A. Translating FID Passages into Chinese

Before exploring the development of FID in early Chinese fiction, this section will look at how FID passages in Western literary works were translated into Chinese in early works, thereby investigating the transition of FID in Chinese.

First of all, as mentioned above, typical FID always employs the third-person system in third-person narration, so how about the translations into Chinese? The following is a passage from the novel *Ulysses*:

Father Conmee stopped three little schoolboys at the corner of Mountjoy square. Yes: they were from Belvedere. The little house: Aha. And were they good boys at school? O. That was very good now. And what was his name? Jack Sohan. [...] And the other little man? His name was Brunny Lynam (Joyce, 2008, p.156).

The translation of the two sentences “And what was his name?” and “His name was Brunny Lynam” from Xiao Qian is: *Namo, ta jiao shenme mingzi?* (那么, 他叫什么名字?) and *Tade mingzi jiao Bulunni Lainamu* (他的名字叫布伦尼 莱纳姆) (Joyce, 1994, p.261). However, for other two sentences “Yes: they were from Belvedere” and “And were they good boys at school?”, the translation becomes: *Shide, Beierfudaerde* (是的, 贝尔福达尔德) and *Doushi haoxuesheng ma?* (都是好学生吗?). We can see that the original personal pronoun in English does not exist again in the Chinese translated version; for example, in the latter sentence, the original personal pronoun “they” has been substituted by the adverb *dou* (都 all), which merely refers to a plural. Thus, as Elly Hegenaar reveals, the necessity of stating the subject of a sentence explicitly seems not as strict as in western languages (Hagenaar, 1992, p.43).

In a word, when it comes to the aspect of grammatical person in FID passages, it is ordinarily maintained in the Chinese translational text, but sometimes also replaced with the indefinite form or eliminated altogether.

The second point we should consider is the verb tense. As mentioned above, in Chinese there is no exact concept of “tense”. There are some words in Chinese which can reflect past tenses, such as *guo* 过 and *le* 了, but to be precise, Chinese has “aspect” (*tai* 态) instead of “tense” (*shi* 时). The linguist Roman Jakobson once referred to Chinese as “an aspect-dominant language” in which the tense always occupies the secondary position when indicated in the verb phrase. In his study, Jakobson proposed the idea of “shifter”, which was defined by him as a verbal category that bears reference to the speech event or its participations, and thus he regarded tense as a shifter, while aspect is a non-shifter (Jakobson, 1971, pp.134-136). Hagenaar further interprets it as well: one might expect to find aspect markers in passage rendering past-tense texts more frequently than in those rendering present-tense texts, but since aspect markers bear no reference to the speech event, the epic preterite involved in FID has no equivalent in Chinese (Hagenaar, 1992, p.44). Overall, we can say that, in terms of the signal of verb tense, there is no equivalent in Chinese translation of FID passage.

Third, as stated before, deixis is another important feature for FID passages, so next we will take a fragment from *Mrs. Dalloway* as an example to look at how it works in Chinese translation:

Her only gift was knowing people almost by instinct, she thought, walking on. If you put her in a room with someone, up went her back like a cat's; or she purred...what she loved was this, here, now, in front of her; the fat lady in the cab (Woolf, 1925, p.11).

This passage reveals the free thoughts of the female protagonist when she is taking a walk, in which the words like “this”, “here” and “now” are deictic demonstratives from the protagonist's point of view. In the Chinese version, this sentence is translated into: *Ta shuo xi'ai de jiushi zhege, xianzai, zai zheli* (她说喜爱的就是这个, 现在, 在这里) (Woolf, 2001, p.25). As a result, we can see that deictic features are usually maintained in Chinese translational version of FID passage; however, Hagenaar argues, in certain cases, there may exist some differences in usage, especially in the rendering of “this” and “that”, and she exemplifies this point with an example from *Ulysses* (Hagenaar, 1992, pp.45-46). The sentence “O, that was a nice name to have” was translated into Chinese as: *Hei, zhege mingzi qude tinghao* (嘿, 这个名字取得挺好), so it can be seen that the deictic word “that” in the original sentence is replaced with *zhege* [this 这个] rather than *na ge* [that 那个] (Joyce, 1994, p.302).

Overall, except the verb tense, other syntactic features of FID passages in western literary works are rendered into Chinese. As for semantic characteristics, according to Hagenaar, it is difficult to render directly into Chinese, on account of stylistic or idiomatic considerations, while contextual signals are usually easily rendered in the Chinese version, but they are sometimes eliminated on account of idiomatic requirements (Hagenaar, 1992, p.47).

B. FID in Chinese Literature

The appearance of FID as an independent literary technique in Chinese fiction is quite early, and it can be traced even further back than the notion of stream of consciousness. Some literary works written before the Republican era have been studied with a view to narrative method. For example, Michael Egan looked at FID in the novel *Hen Hai* (Sea of woe) by Wu Woyao (1866-1910) in 1906. Describing the application of FID as an intermediary stage in its development, he remarks: in *Hen Hai*, the use of represented discourse “is not yet fully developed or mastered, but there are indications of the blurring of lines between the narrator's text and the character's text” (Egan, 1980, pp.170-172). So, Egan highlights the function of FID in the psychological characterization (Egan, 1980). It should be noted that Egan uses the term of “represented discourse” rather than “free indirect discourse” which was actually based on the study of Doležel. In addition, he emphasises the great importance of the change of the protagonist's mentality in the story, especially comparing with earlier novels. Apart from Egan, other scholars have also mentioned the importance of this novel on the development of narrative devices in Chinese literature. For example, although Henry Zhao does not mention FID in this novel, he regards *Sea of Woe* as the first novel employing the extensive psychological description in Chinese literature (Zhao, 1987).

Additionally, although some of the previous studies reveal that FID was borrowed from western fiction since the appearance of Chinese translations of some western fiction in nineteenth century,³ through the review of FID's early history in Chinese literary works, it is convincing that actually this sort of the so-called “new” narrative technique was not totally introduced from western fiction. Besides, as Doleželová reveals, “foreign fiction cannot be directly associated with the artistic advances of the late Qing fiction” (Doleželová, 1988, pp.12-13). At that time, most translations were actually not professional translations, often skipping many “obscure” points for them; rather, it might be seen as more similar to paraphrase. As a result, we may conclude that FID can be considered in Chinese local contexts as “an internal development” (Hagenaar, 1992, p.41).⁴

During the May Fourth era, diversified narrative techniques greatly developed in Chinese fiction, and FID began to frequently appear in the writings, and some western scholars have focused on these works as well. For example, the Czech sinologist, Jaroslav Průšek, analysed the narrative methods used by Mao Dun (1896-1981) in his writings, and he mentioned Mao Dun's preference for subjective narration (Průšek, 1980, p.126). In his opinion, Mao Dun reproduced

³ For example, in the study about the translation works of Kafka in Chinese, Meng argues that FID had been introduced through the translation of Dicken's works (Meng, 1986, p.164).

⁴ Here, I think that the saying taken from Hagenaar can be applied well to depict it.

interior monologue through FID. Furthermore, Průšek specifically took a passage from *Ziye* (Midnight, 1933) as an example to interpret the usage and function of FID in his works. In fact, Průšek used the term “semi-direct speech” rather than using FID directly in his study. In his opinion, Mao Dun actually focused more on collective issues with broader, objective importance rather than on individuality. In this respect, FID plays a significant role on dramatising the presentation (Průšek, 1980, p.126). In addition, Roy Chan exemplifies the usage of FID in Mao Dun’s novella *Huanmie* (Disillusionment, 1927). Chan points out that the author’s intense focalisation of the narrative through the female protagonist’s psyche and body is always aided by FID (Chan, 2017).

FID in Lao She’s (1899-1966) writing has been studied as well. For instance, Richard So emphasises Lao She’s skilled use of FID, which “caused hundreds of thousands of American readers to mistake the voice of Xiangzi, the character, for the voice of Lao She, the author” in *Luotuo Xiangzi* (Camel Xiangzi, 1936) (So, 2016, p.205). Lydia Liu recognises the free indirect speech in this novella as well (Liu, 1995).

Apart from being an independent literary technique in modern fiction, FID as an important narrative technique to present SOC style has been widely recognised in the writings of the 1930s’s New Perceptionist group including Liu Na’ou and Shi Zhecun, and it has become a great interest to some scholars. For example, in *Shanghai Modern*, Leo Oufan Lee mentions that this kind of narrative device was widely used by Shi Zhecun in his short story collection *Shan nüren xingpin* (Exemplary conduct of virtuous women, 1933) to depict a series of psychological portraits of modern Chinese women (Lee, 1999, p.167). As Lee points out, it is the lack of rigid tense system, pure tense markers, and any strict rules governing the agreement between subject and predict that makes it possible for FID to be used more flexibly in modern Chinese literature, and Shi’s writing can be considered a typical example (Lee, 1999).

In addition to the writers mentioned above, many modern women writers also practised free indirect discourse in their creative writing, but their use of this form has been largely neglected and no scholarship of note produced on the topic.

IV. CONCLUSION

As a discourse presentation pattern of third-person narration, free indirect discourse is often employed as a common narrative strategy to present characters’ consciousness in literary works. Given its ambiguous link with both the narrator’s and character’s discourse, we may feel confused about how to distinguish FID from other discourse when reading a text. This paper firstly introduced the basic definition of this notion, and interpreted several signals which can help to distinguish FID passages in the text. In addition, this paper examined how FID passages in Western literary works were translated into Chinese in early works, and revealed the development of FID in early Chinese fiction, investigating the transition of FID in Chinese. Except the verb tense, other syntactic features of FID passages in western literary works are rendered into Chinese. As for semantic characteristics, it is difficult to render directly into Chinese. Moreover, it can be found that the appearance of FID as an independent literary technique in Chinese fiction is quite early, and it can be traced even further back than the notion of stream of consciousness.

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Fiction From a Critical Perspective

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Abstract—With English as a lingua franca in mind, it has become essential for undergraduate students to acquire the English language. Additionally, undergraduate students are expected to acquire a repertoire of critical thinking skills for lifelong learning. Inspired by the need to augment mastery of English as a foreign language (EFL) whilst at the same time enhancing critical thinking on the part of EFL learners, the research study this paper portrays was conducted for one academic semester involving a number of students at the institution where the author of this paper works. The research aimed to investigate whether using English novels; novellas; and short stories for teaching purposes would have any significant impacts on subjects' attitudes towards using literary texts for enhancement of both critical thinking and EFL skills. To achieve the intended aim, the researcher used eight English short stories and one novella in class besides assigning one English novel as extensive reading, while teaching the course Communication Skills during the implementation stage. The researcher also administered a pre-post questionnaire with the aim of measuring subjects' attitudes towards utilizing novels; novellas; and short stories as a means for fostering both critical thinking and EFL skills. Based on the statistical tests, there were significant differences in favor of the post questionnaire regarding the majority of the questionnaire's items. Based on this study, it can be concluded that English novels; novellas; and short stories have a significant role to play in relation to developing critical thinking and EFL skills.

Index Terms—critical thinking, EFL, higher education, novel, novella, short story

I. INTRODUCTION

With today's challenges in mind, undergraduates should embrace the four Cs: critical thinking, communication, creativity, and collaboration (Al-Alami, 2016). Commenting on critical thinking in particular, it goes without saying that critical thinking skills are essential for university students to be able to cope with today's rapidly increasing demands with tenacity and professionalism.

Critical thinking is required for literature studies. Novel reading, for instance, involves retrieving one's prior experiences to construct meaning. As students read a novel, they need to understand both connotations and denotations, comprehend the literal and implied meanings, recognize the narrator's tone and attitude, and deduce meaning of unfamiliar lexical items. Moreover, students need to discriminate between facts and opinions, locate appropriate details to find connections between events and actions, identify literary devices, perceive multiple points of view, and appreciate beauty depicted in content and reflected in language.

Inspired by the significant role novels, novellas, and short stories can play in terms of enhancing undergraduates' critical thinking and language skills, the current paper portrays a research study which was conducted at a private university in Dubai where English is taught as a foreign language. The second section of the paper presents the study's aims and questions. The third section sheds light on some relevant points in relation to the current study such as activities for developing critical thinking via utilizing novels, novellas, and short stories. The fourth section explains the methodology employed while conducting the study, the fifth highlights the study findings, and the sixth proceeds to discuss the findings. The last section concludes with recommendations for researchers and instructors to consider.

II. RESEARCH AIMS AND QUESTIONS

The current paper discusses a research study which was conducted within the contexts of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Higher Education. The study was intended to measure EFL undergraduates' attitudes towards the role novels, novellas, and short stories could occupy as regards boosting critical thinking skills and increasing mastery of English as a foreign language. To realize the intended aims, the study sought answers to the three research questions below.

Question One: What are EFL undergraduates' attitudes towards the role novels, novellas and short stories play in relation to enhancing critical thinking skills?

Question Two: What are EFL undergraduates' attitudes towards the role novels, novellas and short stories have in relation to promoting the skill of reading in a foreign language?

Question Three: What are EFL undergraduates' attitudes towards the role novels, novellas and short stories occupy in relation to boosting the skill of writing in a foreign language?

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section aims to explore several areas of relevance and use to the current paper. These are: critical thinking skills, reading and writing critically, related studies, and activities for developing EFL undergraduates' critical reading and writing skills via utilizing novels; novellas; and short stories within the contexts of Higher Education.

A. Critical Thinking at a Glance

Critical thinking can be defined as having sufficient awareness of one's own thinking and reflecting on the thinking of the self and others (Semerci & Elaldi, 2014). The difference between thinking and critical thinking is similar to the difference between walking and dancing in that whereas the former is learned naturally during the course of a kid's early-life period of time, the latter necessitates effort to learn (Gelder, 2005; Ritchart & Perkins, 2005). According to Kutz et al. (1993), students need several types of critical thinking to enrich their knowledge. One necessary type is 'dialectical' which would enable students to accept ambiguity and value dialogue. A second essential type is 'analytic' which would enable students to analyze topics and issues in terms of their categories and the implications they hold. A third important type is 'figurative' which would enable students to view events and things as pointing to something else.

As seen by the author of this paper, critical thinking entails seeing beyond visible matters and issues, whilst investigating seen and hidden intents. It requires gathering relevant data and assessing the gathered data in terms of validity, reliability, authority, and credibility. The concept of critical thinking comprises dispositions and higher order thinking skills. Dispositions can be considered habits of mind and attitudes including willingness to compromise, open-mindedness, flexibility, and respect for diverse opinions amongst other characteristics. Higher order thinking skills, on the other hand, include the ability to make inferences, use deductive and inductive reasoning, judge evidence, solve problems, make objective decisions, and evaluate complex arguments amongst other skills.

B. Reading and Writing Critically in the EFL Literature Class

EFL classes do not usually aim to prioritize the enhancement of critical thinking. However, the integration of critical thinking with language skills such as reading and writing should receive more attention (Kagnarith, Theara & Klein, 2007). What does critical reading within EFL contexts require? In Wallace's view (2003), critical reading entails exploring the topic a reading text deals with, whilst adopting an attitude of inquiry and examination. Wallace suggests a framework for critical reading relying on the tenor, area, and mode of discourse. Relating the discussion to genre type, critical reading involves analyzing genre-related conventions in a text. Genre conventions exist not only at the level of individual sentences, but also at the level of both overall schemas and ideas (Durant et al., 2000). Dooley (1993) is of the opinion that critical reading comprises both analysis and evaluation prior to, during, and following reading. To be a critical reader, a student is expected to judge the authenticity, validity, and reliability of reading texts.

As far as critical writing within EFL contexts is concerned, it can be demanding for a number of learners. Nevertheless, it should be the instructor's mission to overcome obstacles through means of effective teaching amongst others. Critical writing courses involve students in the kinds of tasks that would urge them to make valid judgements. While teaching critical writing, evaluating issues and topics from a critical perspective would be essential. When considered from a critical perspective, classroom assignments should seek to highlight the transmission of relationships; ideologies; and identities as means for supporting students to make choices throughout the writing process whilst reflecting on what they do and who they aim to be (Paltridge, 2004). Bell (1995) advocates the idea that in a writing classroom which employs a critical theory, teaching and learning are regarded as constructs: rhetorical and often oppressive representations of social relationships. Students should examine implicit constructs within their environments which may be demanding as it necessitates effective involvement in exploring what does not necessarily fit into the 'product-oriented' instructional settings which students are familiar with.

In sum, both critical reading and critical writing are comprised of several skills such as text reasoning, inferencing, and problem-solving amongst others. Critical reading of novels; novellas; and short stories is an advanced stage of reading comprehension during which readers read between and behind the lines, avoiding literal interpretations. Critical writing of novels; novellas; and short stories, on the other hand, is a reflection of a potent language style worthy of readers' aesthetic appreciation. Undoubtedly, EFL undergraduates cannot read and write critically in the absence of adequate background knowledge about key concepts.

C. Research Studies

This part highlights several studies which have been implemented with the aim of augmenting critical thinking and language skills, mainly via novels; novellas; and short stories within EFL Higher Education contexts. To start with, Wiboonwachara (2019) measured the effect of question-based activities on students' critical thinking skills alongside the subjects' opinions of the question-based activities. A sample of forty-three second-year students majoring in English participated in the study. The study findings indicated that the critical thinking skills of subjects became higher after the implementation of the study at 0.05 level of significance. Furthermore, the subjects' opinions of question-based activities were also higher following the implementation of the study. The subjects became better aware of questioning in both academic and life situation contexts.

Tosuncuoglu (2018) applied a study with the aim of measuring participants' perceptions of critical thinking sub-dimensions, involving two hundred and twenty-two students at Karabuk University. The study results in relation to the variable of gender proved that there was no significant difference among the sub-dimensions of flexibility,

perseverance-patience, open-mindedness, and meta-cognition. The study results also showed that senior-year subjects had more patience and perseverance in comparison to sophomore-year subjects with respect to the sub-dimension of perseverance-patience, indicating that subjects gained more patience and perseverance when the study level had become higher.

Yang and Gamble (2013) designed a study where two groups: experimental and control, were involved. Experimental group students were engaged in critical thinking enhanced activities like peer critiques, whereas control group students were engaged in non-critical thinking enhanced activities. The findings revealed that experimental group students achieved a significant improvement in relation to English language proficiency when compared to the control group students.

Beachboard and Beachboard (2010) investigated the relationship between the assignment of higher order thinking tasks and students' opinions of their institutions' contributions to their academic improvement and career preparation. The results showed that the extra effort made by faculty members to involve their students in higher order thinking assignments made a difference in relation to the enhancement of critical thinking skills.

In their study, Tung and Chang (2009) explored whether literature would help weak thinkers to improve their critical thinking. The results demonstrated that literature played a positive role in helping weak students to enhance their critical thinking skills. Tung and Chang, therefore, recommend that more time be allocated for weak students to challenge their ideas at a deeper level. Additionally, group presentations should be used, and follow-up courses need to be designed in order for students to promote their critical thinking skills whilst reading literature.

Barry and Lazarte (1998) tested how domain knowledge, reading topic, and structural complexity affected the inference skill in relation to students' writing. Three types of inferences were examined: within-text inferences, elaborative inferences, and incorrect inferences. The two participating groups: high-knowledge and low-knowledge, were presented with three Spanish texts about different topics and of different language complexity levels. The findings showed that the group including high-knowledge readers could generate a more accurate mental model than the group including low-knowledge readers could. In addition, the level of complexity and the reading topics indicated a complex pattern of influence on the generation of inferences.

Involving a number of community college students, Manning (1997) explored the relationship between students' attitudes towards reading and critical thinking. The study included two sections: one was taught the regular curriculum and the other the regular curriculum besides pedagogical activities which focused on critical thinking. The results proved the absence of any statistically significant correlations between the two groups' attitudes towards reading and critical thinking.

In conclusion, the aforementioned studies can be of use to EFL researchers in the sense that they touch upon reality, probing and proposing. Resorting to what previous researchers have applied and recommended would remain informative and enlightening.

D. Proposed Activities and Ideas for Enhancement of Critical Thinking via Novels, Novellas, and Short Stories

This part highlights some activities and ideas the aim of which is to upgrade critical thinking skills mostly via means of novels; novellas; and short stories. To begin, Tosuncuoglu (2018) argues that students should be explicitly taught how to think critically. Thinking critically is a combination of knowledge, skill, and attitude. The more practice in how to think critically, the better the output. Instructors, therefore, need to provide a stimulating learning environment where students can express their thoughts flexibly. Among the strategies that can be employed are ensuring versatile perspective, raising questions, and working collaboratively.

Critical discourse analysis considers discourse as a means of social practices where language use is seen as socially influential and influenced. The critical discourse approach to literature and language studies prioritizes the development of students' abilities to judge the world thoughtfully as well as to change it if possible (Zyngier and Fialho, 2010; Cots, 2006). , students need to receive training activities as regards how to judge the world around them carefully.

Hyatt (2005) introduces a critical literacy frame, allowing analysis of text from a macro semantic and societal level and a micro lexico-grammatical level. On the other hand, Na and Kim (2003) portray how critical literacy is concerned with issues such as critical awareness and empowerment in foreign language education and propose an instructional framework for empowerment of EFL students. Adopting a critical literacy frame is expected to enhance EFL educational practices within the following areas: raising awareness about how to reflect critically on the world and the word, and empowering students via means of challenging unequal power relations amongst others.

Pike-Paky (2005) asserts that schema theories occupy the center of the current understanding of cognition in that schemas receive, sort, and classify information. To be in an appropriate position to fill in schema gaps, instructors have to know each and every student so that they can design a variety of appropriate activities to meet students' learning styles. A "say, mean, matter" strategy can be applied to enhance critical thinking skills via literature. Activities based on this strategy are a three-column chart with the three headings: say, mean, and matter.

In Pierce's opinion (2005), instructors aiming to augment students' critical thinking skills should focus on creating a class environment which emphasizes speculation and questioning strategies and should utilize tasks which require analyzing content whilst at the same time developing learners' oral and written language skills. Esplugas and Landwehr (1996), on the other hand, argue that in an engaging literature class, students learn how to discuss their interpretations of

literary texts and how to also offer well-reasoned arguments. Through character, theme and narrator analyses, an instructor should ensure integrating critical thinking skills into literary analyses of a literary work.

Literature instruction, Collins (1993) states, should be looked at from a problem-solving perspective whereby students are required to draw conclusions, evaluate evidence, and develop a line of thinking. To become critical thinkers, students should learn how to value their own thinking as well as others'. Seeking to foster critical thinking skills on the part of learners, Commeyras (1993) proposes a critical-thinking reading lesson format to be implemented when discussing stories in the basal reader: a dialogical-thinking reading lesson (DTRL). The format is intended to involve students in reflective thinking activities to convey their opinions regarding a story's specific issues.

According to the author of this paper, activities which aim to develop critical thinking via novels; novellas; and short stories should be of inspiration to students. Within the context of EFL in higher education, the author proposes adopting a *six-W model* while portraying a literary text: who, whom, what, why, where, and when. EFL instructors should also implement a seven-step reading approach when delineating novels; novellas; and short stories: comprehend the text's gist, analyze main ideas, interpret beliefs and occurrences, infer information implicitly conveyed, draw conclusions, assess attitudes, and evaluate language use. To augment critical thinking skills while discussing novels; novellas; and short stories, the author recommends including essential elements of critical thinking activities such as raising intriguing questions, welcoming divergent answers which are backed up with proof, encouraging answers which are supported with relevant data, and providing chances to judge evidence. Logically speaking, the responsibility of creating critical thinking atmospheres in the EFL literature classroom highly falls on instructors' shoulders. Moreover, the more meaningful practices students are exposed to, the more they are likely to master critical thinking skills which would ultimately equip them with varied tools to encounter today's challenges with confidence and persistence.

IV. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Comprised of four parts, this section of the current paper delineates the research methodology employed for the purpose of arriving at transparent answers to the research questions this study addresses.

A. Population and Sample

The study population includes EFL undergraduates majoring in programs other than English language and literature. As we cannot examine the whole research population due to practicality reasons amongst others, we should be wisely selective when it comes to choosing a study sample. Regarding the research the current paper presents, the study sample is a number of EFL students studying at the university where the researcher works. The sample includes both male and female students and covers the colleges whose medium of instruction is English: Business Studies, Engineering, and Interior Design. The total number of the sample is fifteen students.

B. Implementation

Since the main goal of teaching EFL is for learners to communicate in English fluently, accurately and appropriately in stretches of spoken and written discourse, the researcher selected the course Communication Skills for applying this research study. The implementation stage was limited to one academic semester, namely fifteen weeks. The first two weeks were allotted to introducing the study and were followed by teaching eight short stories and one novella. Additionally, one novel was assigned as extensive reading. It is worth noting in this context that all the students who register for the course Communication Skills at the institution where the researcher works are taught a General English course rather than a literature-based course. For study purposes, however, the researcher did not use a General English course for teaching Communication Skills during the research conduct stage.

C. Data Gathering Tool

As mentioned earlier, this study sought to measure EFL undergraduates' attitudes towards the role novels, novellas, and short stories could occupy as regards boosting critical thinking skills and increasing mastery of English as a foreign language. The researcher, therefore, designed and administered a questionnaire involving the study subjects. The questionnaire was distributed prior to teaching the course Communication Skills through using novels; novellas; and short stories, and upon completion of the course to investigate whether there were any significant differences regarding subjects' attitudes. The pre-post questionnaire is comprised of fifteen items aiming to measure how study subjects would evaluate their abilities in dealing with novels; novellas; and short stories whilst considering the role fictional texts could play with respect to developing critical thinking and EFL skills. Table one below presents the pre-post questionnaire which was set and administered for study purposes.

TABLE 1
THE PRE-POST QUESTIONNAIRE

No.	Item	0	1	2	3	4
1.	Identifying the theme.					
2.	Identifying the plot.					
3.	Identifying the narrator's attitude and opinion.					
4.	Identifying the characters' attitudes and moods.					
5.	Recognizing variations in vocabulary according to the theme and situation.					
6.	Deducing the meaning of unfamiliar lexical items from context.					
7.	Making judgments based on personal experiences.					
8.	Identifying the conflict.					
9.	Identifying the genre.					
10.	Recognizing the symbolism used.					
11.	Recognizing the irony conveyed.					
12.	Appreciating the figurative language manipulated.					
13.	Going beyond the short story/novella/novel, predicting possible outcomes.					
14.	Summarizing a whole story or specific events.					
15.	Writing a short story, establishing an opening; characters and one or more events.					

D. Ethical Considerations

The nature of this study entailed no physical dangers or threats to the study subjects. However, the research study required that subjects study the course Communication Skills via means of literary texts (eight short stories and one novella in class besides one novel for extensive reading) rather than via the General English course used for teaching Communication Skills at the institution where the researcher works. Furthermore, the study required that participants respond objectively to the questionnaire set for study purposes. With research ethics in mind, the researcher held a session prior to study implementation, during which she discussed the study's aims and requirements in detail. Study subjects were offered the right to drop the course at any time during the academic semester whilst retaining the money they had paid for the course Communication Skills as a fee deposit. Study subjects were also offered the opportunity to remain anonymous when it came to documenting their responses to the questionnaire prior to and upon completion of the course, not to mention that their rights and opinions were respected and valued.

V. STUDY FINDINGS

This section of the paper is concerned with presenting research findings based on the statistical tests conducted for the sake of the current study. As stated earlier, the study tool was a pre-post questionnaire which required rating one's abilities in dealing with the short story, novella, and novel in English. To analyze the pre-post questionnaire, a paired *t*-test was conducted. Table two below portrays the results.

TABLE 2:
SUBJECTS' RESPONSES TO THE PRE-POST QUESTIONNAIRE
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

Pair		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	pr1	2.18	17	.951	.231
	po1	2.76	17	.752	.182
Pair 2	pr2	2.29	17	.920	.223
	po2	2.47	17	.717	.174
Pair 3	pr3	2.76	17	.752	.182
	po3	2.76	17	.903	.219
Pair 4	pr4	2.47	17	.874	.212
	po4	2.94	17	.827	.201
Pair 5	pr5	2.29	17	1.213	.294
	po5	2.65	17	.786	.191
Pair 6	pr6	2.06	16	.854	.213
	po6	2.38	16	.957	.239
Pair 7	pr7	2.71	17	.849	.206
	po7	2.82	17	.951	.231
Pair 8	pr8	2.24	17	.752	.182
	po8	2.88	17	.781	.189
Pair 9	pr9	2.06	17	1.249	.303
	po9	2.71	17	.920	.223
Pair 10	pr10	1.88	17	.993	.241
	po10	2.71	17	.920	.223
Pair 11	pr11	2.18	17	1.131	.274
	po11	2.65	17	.931	.226
Pair 12	pr12	2.13	16	.885	.221
	po12	2.63	16	.885	.221
Pair 13	pr13	2.41	17	.870	.211
	po13	3.12	17	.697	.169
Pair 14	pr14	2.41	17	.870	.211
	po14	3.00	17	.791	.192
Pair 15	pr15	1.94	17	1.144	.277
	po15	2.47	17	.874	.212

Paired Samples Test

Pair		Paired Samples Test					t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Paired Differences							
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	pr1 - po1	-.588	.507	.123	-.849	-.327	-4.781	16	.000
Pair 2	pr2 - po2	-.176	.529	.128	-.448	.095	-1.376	16	.188
Pair 3	pr3 - po3	.000	.612	.149	-.315	.315	.000	16	1.000
Pair 4	pr4 - po4	-.471	.717	.174	-.839	-.102	-2.704	16	.016
Pair 5	pr5 - po5	-.353	.931	.226	-.832	.126	-1.562	16	.138
Pair 6	pr6 - po6	-.313	1.014	.254	-.853	.228	-1.232	15	.237
Pair 7	pr7 - po7	-.118	.857	.208	-.559	.323	-.566	16	.579
Pair 8	pr8 - po8	-.647	.862	.209	-1.090	-.204	-3.096	16	.007
Pair 9	pr9 - po9	-.647	1.169	.284	-1.248	-.046	-2.281	16	.037
Pair 10	pr10 - po10	-.824	.883	.214	-1.277	-.370	-3.846	16	.001
Pair 11	pr11 - po11	-.471	.624	.151	-.792	-.150	-3.108	16	.007
Pair 12	pr12 - po12	-.500	.730	.183	-.889	-.111	-2.739	15	.015
Pair 13	pr13 - po13	-.706	.985	.239	-1.212	-.199	-2.954	16	.009
Pair 14	pr14 - po14	-.588	.939	.228	-1.071	-.105	-2.582	16	.020
Pair 15	pr15 - po15	-.529	.943	.229	-1.014	-.044	-2.314	16	.034

The *p-value* (*Sig.*) confirms the presence of significant differences between subjects' answers to the first, fourth, eighth, ninth, tenth, eleventh, twelfth, thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth items before and upon course completion, in favor of the post-questionnaire's responses.

VI. DISCUSSION OF STUDY FINDINGS

This section of the paper seeks to offer valid answers to the research questions of this study, in light of the findings provided by the statistical tests. As mentioned earlier, question one is concerned with measuring EFL undergraduates' attitudes towards the role novels; novellas; and short stories play in relation to enhancing critical thinking skills. The study findings prove that there are significant differences between subjects' responses to ten out of fifteen items in favor of the post-questionnaire. The items which are significantly different and are related to the first question are: *appreciating figurative language*, and *going beyond the short story/novella/novel predicting possible outcomes*.

Moving to question two which is concerned with measuring EFL undergraduates' attitudes towards the role novels; novellas; and short stories contribute in terms of promoting the skill of reading in a foreign language, the study findings

indicate that there are significant differences between subjects' responses in favor of the post-questionnaire as regards the items of *identifying the theme*, *identifying characters' attitudes and moods*, *identifying the conflict*, *identifying the genre*, *recognizing symbolism*, and *recognizing irony*.

Proceeding to the third question which is concerned with measuring EFL undergraduates' attitudes towards the role novels; novellas; and short stories occupy as regards boosting the skill of writing in a foreign language, there are significant differences in favor of the post-questionnaire regarding the items of *summarizing a story* and *writing a short story*.

Based on the research findings, we can conclude that novels, novellas, and short stories can play a significant role in terms of enhancing critical thinking and increasing mastery of language skills, within EFL Higher Education contexts.

VII. CONCLUSION

This study has three limitations. The number of participants is fifteen, the number of participating institutions is one, and the duration of course implementation is one academic semester. It is recommended that similar studies be conducted involving larger samples, more institutions, and longer durations.

A purposeful course to focus on novels; novellas; and short stories from a critical perspective should first expose students to the basic differences among paraphrasing, explicating, describing a text, and critical enquiry. The course should then expose students to a variety of criticism tools such as those of stylistics which are necessary to read and write critically. To ensure quality outcomes, criteria are required to highlight the qualities of thought learners should strive to aim for such as precision, relevance, inquisitiveness, validity, accuracy, logic, clarity, adequacy, depth, objectivity, specificity, and breadth.

To conclude, enhancing critical thinking and language skills via literature should be amongst higher education institutions' priorities, for as is known, today's critical thinkers and effective communicators are tomorrow's healthy citizens. True it is though that for higher education institutions to empower students with critical thinking skills via utilizing novels; novellas; and short stories within foreign language contexts can be demanding in several ways. Yet, if we do not experience authentic challenges throughout our journey to attain targets, hardly can we perceive the tasty seeds we plough!

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Stance-taking on Brexit in Small Stories on Facebook

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Abstract—This paper looks at how the stance of English-speaking Facebook users towards Brexit is actualized in their comments to posts addressing this issue. By using a mixed research approach, which combines narratological analysis of small stories (Georgakopoulou, 2007) with stance-taking theory (Du Bois, 2007), this paper puts to scrutiny 187 small stories which appeared online in January-June 2021. In the focus of attention are verbal and non-verbal stance-taking devices which are analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively. It is shown that both rational and affective stance of anglophone tellers of small stories about Brexit is mostly negative, which can be accounted for by fears and worries caused by the negative trends in home and foreign affairs in the United Kingdom in the post-Brexit period.

Index Terms—Brexit, Facebook, post-Brexit, small story, stance (affective, rational), stance-taking

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper offers an analysis of stance-taking in small stories found in the English segment of Facebook in commentaries to posts in the post-Brexit period.

In the information society, social networks play a crucial role in the life of people, providing vast opportunities for their personal and professional self-expression as well as their political self-identification. Facebook is a compelling example of that. Having over a billion registered users, it is the most popular social network in the world. As Georgalou aptly remarks (Georgalou, 2015, p. 1), Facebook performs the function of a "cardiograph" of society. This function is evident, *inter alia*, in how people recount their perceptions of major socio-political events, Brexit being one of them.

The withdrawal of the United Kingdom from the European Union is not a short-time happening, but a long-term process rooted historically in the complex relationship of the United Kingdom with mainland Europe. The growing tension in the relations of the United Kingdom with the European Union resulted in a referendum that took place on June 23, 2016, where the majority of voters expressed their desire for the United Kingdom to leave the European Union. This event is the starting point of the Brexit timeline which ends on December 31, 2020 (<https://www.cer.eu/brexit-timeline>), marking the completion of the transition period and beginning of the post-Brexit one (Gymglish). "Post-Brexit" is a new term that has not been universally accepted so far but has already made its way into the present-day public sphere constituted around networks of communication.

Digitalization of interpersonal communication, where two communicants (the addresser and the addressee) keep changing roles on a more or less equal basis, has resulted in the emergence of mass self-communication (Deuze, p. 6) – a network that connects many addressers and addressees both live (for example, in a video call) and online (for instance, commenting on someone's post on Facebook). Thus, mass self-communication combines the features of interpersonal and mass communication. The rapid growth of this form of communication caused the appearance of new narrative forms, one of which is a small story. Georgakopoulou defines a small story as a non-prototypical variety of narrative activity, such as tellings of ongoing, future or hypothetical events, which may be known or unknown to the addressee, as well as allusions to tellings and refusals to tell (Georgakopoulou, 2007, p. 148). Small stories differ from the Labovian canonical stories: they typically occur in ordinary conversation and do not have the canonical narrative structure (the beginning, middle, and end) (Georgakopoulou, 2006; Georgakopoulou & Bamberg, 2005). Being outside the scope of traditional narratological inquiry, small stories are of interest not only to narratologists of functional orientation, but also to communication researchers, psychologists, sociologists, etc.

Small stories about post-Brexit actualize the attitudes of Facebook users to the economic and political changes in the United Kingdom after its decision to leave the European Union entered into force on December 31, 2020. Unlike many traditional media (print and broadcast), Facebook has practically no restrictions for its users to express their stance: comments on Facebook are deleted only in case of extremely obscene language, while the group administration promotes different fields of vision. Stance is understood here after Du Bois (2007) as a linguistically articulated form of social action construed within the broader scope of language, interaction, and sociocultural value.

This research belongs at the intersection of linguo-narratological and communication studies. Its **object matter** is small stories about Britain's withdrawal from the European Union, more specifically, about the post-Brexit phase of the process. The **subject matter** is linguistic and extralinguistic means of stance-taking in the small stories under consideration.

The **aim** of the analysis is to bring to light the stance-taking means used by tellers of small stories about post-Brexit. In order to achieve this aim, two **objectives** have been set forth: first, to identify epistemic and affective linguistic and extralinguistic stance-taking means used in small stories about post-Brexit; second, to determine the qualitative characteristics of stance-taking in small stories under analysis.

The paper has a conventional structure. The introduction is followed by a theoretical section, where the notions of narrative, small story, and stance are considered. In the section to follow, the data and methods are described. The next part of the paper presents the main findings and discusses them. The conclusion offers some implications and outlines prospects for further research.

II. THEORETICAL PREREQUISITES

Here we consider two main approaches to narrative analysis, specifying the one that this research belongs to, then define the content of the term ‘small story’, after that, describe how the term ‘stance’ is treated in modern linguistics and characterize its affective and rational varieties.

Within the **structuralist** approach (Labov & Waletzky, 1967), a narrative is defined as a text that portrays events, i.e., changes in some initial state of things. These changes can be external (natural events, social interactions) or internal (mental events). Structuralists take temporality to be the main feature of a narrative, which means that discourse, to be considered a narrative, should be based on some structural scheme that reflects a sequence of events. Narrative blocks (abstract, orientation, complicating actions, evaluation, resolution, and coda) are components of the canonical narrative structure. All kinds of ‘deficient’ narratives, i.e., the ones that do not have the canonical structure, remain out of the scope of structurally oriented narratological inquiry.

The **functionalist** approach, which focuses on teleological aspects of discourse, on the contrary, considers that non-prototypical varieties of narratives, small stories in particular, do merit scholarly attention.

Functional theorists postulate the interconnection of the two main functions of language: cognitive and communicative. They recognize that narratives are construed as a kind of interpretative phenomenon, which is a part of the human experience of the world (Fisher, 1987, p. 24; Crites, 1971; Carr, 1997). Consequently, they adhere to the prototypical view on the structure of a category, which presupposes drawing a distinction between the nucleus (the prototypical member) and periphery (marginal members). According to this approach, the prototypical member of the category of narrativity is the canonical story that has a complete set of structural components (abstract, orientation, complicating actions, evaluation, resolution, and coda), while the small story has the status of a peripheral member, which possesses only some of the components, for instance, complicating actions and coda.

Research into small stories is different from the traditional line of inquiry into ‘grander’ narratives that provide a ‘panoramic’ view elicited from autobiographies, interviews, etc. The framework for analyzing small stories was suggested by Bamberg (1997) and further developed by his associates (Bamberg & Georgakopoulou, 2005; Georgakopoulou, 2007, 2013, 2017; Georgalou, 2015). The scholars emphasized the role these stories play in identity construction and positioning (Georgakopoulou, 2007, 2014; Sadler, 2018; Page, 2010).

Phylogenetically, people’s brains are hardwired for narrative: since time immemorial, a good story has been the best vehicle to share one’s idea with another person. Appealing not only to reason, but also to emotions and the subconscious, a narrative connects the situation to numerous contexts (Morozova, 2019, p. 327). Facebook offers its users an opportunity for rich participation in commenting, allowing for narratives to be told by a large number of users in different contextually conditioned Facebook segments, which makes this social network a good source for studying the discourse subject’s stance-taking. It is in small stories told in the ongoing user performance on Facebook rather than in canonical narratives that stance-taking is accomplished more effectively.

Du Bois’ definition of stance as a linguistically articulated form of social action indicates that stance is contextually dependant, its types are dependent on the situation, time and the place of stance-taking (Du Bois, 2007, p. 139). As universally known, *ratio* and *emotio* are two basic spheres of human perception. Thus, stance-taking involves both of them. Researchers (Biber, Finegan, 1989; Biber, 2004; Jaffe, 2009) draw distinction between emotional states (‘affective stance’) and commitment to the propositional content or degree of reliability (‘epistemic stance’). Some scholars also consider as a variety of stance-taking the way something is told, the manner it is linguistically expressed. Such stance-taking acts deal with aesthetic appreciation, emotional effect, as well as moral judgment. This type of stance is rendered by sentence adverbs and is called stylistic stance (Myers, 2003, p. 254). In this article, stylistic stance is taken to be a variety of affective stance.

As for stance components, researchers usually consider them to be as follows: a stance-taker, stance-object, and addressee(s), as well as stance resources like evaluative lexis, modal verbs, punctuation, typography, different languages (Barton, Lee, 2013). Such stance resources as typography and punctuation go under the name of metagraphemics (Baranov, Parshin, 2018). Metagraphemic devices embrace various means of visual transformation of a text using the resources of variability of broadly understood alphabetic writing signs as well as possibilities of semantic interpretation of pictorial components of a text, such as pictures, figures, diagrams, schemes, etc. (Baranov, Parshin, 2018, p. 6).

Metagraphemic devices used on the Internet keep attracting the attention of scholars. For example, the research into the ‘Like’ feature on Facebook (Barton, Lee, 2013) has shown that this device can be used for many purposes: to express a positive stance but not willing to write a comment, to express interest in some post or its content, to show

support to the poster, to agree or align with the stance of the status poster, to answer in the affirmative to a question raised in the post, or to indicate that the post has been read.

Stance-taking in comments to posts on Facebook involves devices of various kinds: reported speech, rhetorical questions, intertextuality, irony, concession, and conversational devices. Stance-taking can be instantiated with the help of different grammatical constructions: verb and clause complement, adverbial constructions, modal and semi-modal verbs, and even separate sentences (Myers, 2010).

III. DATA AND METHODS

The synergetic and interdependent nature of small stories is determined by the architectural specificity of threads on Facebook, which can be observed within a particular post or page, as well as between several comments. This synergy is supported by the 'reply' and 'time stamp' Facebook features.

The 'reply' feature shows how a small story can be coreferential with: 1) the initial small story contained within the post; 2) a thread of small stories to which it is a reply; 3) another small story to which it is a reply. For instance, the post in Fig.1 refers to the initial small story – "Whoops a daisy. Bye bye business 🙄". Each small story that appears in the comments to this post will be thematically related to the initial small story.

Since a user can reply to a specific small story causing a thread of small stories to emerge, there is a certain unity between small stories within a thread, as Fig. 1 illustrates. In this thread, there are three comments, which contain three stories addressing the same topic.



Figure 1. Thematic unity of small stories within a post

Thematic unity can be achieved when replying to a specific small story. In the example above, John Flanagan replies to Brian Thompson in the form of a small story, indicating the unity with the initial small story in the thread. The 'timestamp' feature demonstrates how a particular small story affects creation of small stories by other users. When the timestamps of several small stories are closely related in time, it means that the respective users have accessed the post simultaneously and the content of one small story has influenced other(s). In particular, it may concern the message of the small story on the whole or its particular fragment, in which case it may be either mentioned by the user or not. Moreover, the time stamp is an important feature of mass self-communication on the whole.



Figure 2. Timestamp feature within a post

Fig. 2 is the example of the timestamp feature showing that time gap between the two small stories is insignificant, thus their thematic bond is stronger.

The dataset of our research comprises 112 discourse fragments that explicate the narrator's stance towards Brexit. They have been selected from 187 small stories told by Facebook users in their comments to three news posts about Brexit in the post-Brexit period. The news posts were published by the community "Very Brexit Problems" (<https://www.facebook.com/veryBrexitproblems/posts/>).

The descriptive qualitative method applied here aims at comprehensive explanation of stance-taking in small stories in comments to posts on Facebook. The unit of analysis is a synergy of linguistic and metagraphemic means of expressing the narrator's stance. For example, discourse fragments (1) and (2) illustrate stance-taking with the help of textual and metagraphemic means.

(1) Sean Papenfuss

But i thought the EU dictated everything to the countries within, how could they possibly have their own immigration laws 🤔🤔🤔🤔🤔

At least the nhs is booming and the superpower is pushing forwards 🤔🤔

The username of the teller is hyperlinked to his personal profile, and thus is given in blue and underscored. The teller neglects some capitalization rules (*i, nhs*) and punctuation marks (a question mark after the first sentence and a full stop at the end of the second), using emoticons which express their affective stance instead.

(2) Alex MacPhee

*I have more **respect** for someone who made a mistake and admitted it and apologized for, than someone who stubbornly digs in and refuses to face the facts. If this rotten business is ever to be turned round, it will be by getting more people onside, and not by poking people in the eye with a sharp stick and forcing them to be dogs in the manger.*

In this comment, the negative rational stance is expressed linguistically by the noun *respect*.

Thus, a small story in Facebook comments to posts expresses the teller's stance which contributes to their interactional identity. In other words, identity works through positioning of the teller of a small story. As can be seen in examples (1) and (2), the stance of the teller is of interactional nature, expressing their attitude towards the events described in the piece of news posted by somebody else or somebody else's comment.

IV. RESULTS

As stated above, the notion of stance refers to epistemic or affective components of perception. The epistemic component concerns the origin of the speaker's knowledge about the object of stance-taking (evidentiality) as well as the subjective reflexivity of the current situational context (modality). The affective component relates to the speaker's emotions, feelings, assessments, and attitudes towards the stance object and towards other communicative participants and their stances. As Ushchyna sums up the views of stance researchers, the epistemic stance indicates the speaker's certainty about what is being told, while the affective stance indicates their emotional attitude to it (Ushchyna, 2015, p. 174). In small stories about Brexit that appeared in comments to Facebook posts in the post-Brexit period, both stance types, affective and epistemic, were registered.

As the exchange of comments on Facebook is close to everyday talk, this kind of communication process inherits a number of features of everyday talk, in particular, narrative stance-taking (Georgakopoulou, 2017, p. 316), which is treated as an attested systematic practice for sharing life as breaking news. In other words, in this case, the practice of telling stories becomes a certain stance. For example, selecting certain friends as ratified and primary led to taking a

narrative stance of a co-produced story (Georgakopoulou, 2017, p. 331). More specifically, narrative stance-taking indicates that an activity is being offered or taken up as a story, thereby positioning participants as tellers-recipients-(co)-tellers, etc. and/or consisting of events and characters in specific spatial/temporal scenarios whose actions and speech are assessable.

Taking into account the character of comment-sharing on Facebook is essential to research stance-taking in small stories of post-Brexit. The post under analysis is called “Whoops a daisy. Bye bye business 🙄”, which is a small story about the ongoing economic decay occurring because of Brexit. In the picture presented in Fig. 1, one can see two workers employed in the export industry. The workers express their negative stance towards the delays in exporting to Europe non-verbally.

Very Brexit Problems

Whoops a daisy. Bye bye business 🙄



Figure 3. Image from the post in “Very Brexit Problems” (<https://www.facebook.com/veryBrexitproblems/posts/>)

The headline of the post reads: “Whoops a daisy. Bye bye business 🙄”. The lead of the article is presented in the following way: “I made a mistake voting for Brexit’ says business owner as stock sits waiting to leave warehouse”. This information together with the image of the two workers with the dissatisfied facial expression provides a context to the small stories analyzed below.

The post has 557 comments, 187 of which contain small stories reflecting the teller’s stance towards the economic changes in the country. Both affective and rational types of stance come in positive and negative varieties. Instantiation of a particular type of stance depends on the teller’s approval or disapproval of a situation or viewpoint expressed with the help of different linguistics and / or non-linguistic means.

(3) **Helen Edwards** *Why on earth* (1) *vote leave when your business exports to Europe. Also note the reasons are Europe dictating employment and H&S – so someone who would prefer her employees to have fewer rights in terms of employment or H&S. So now she is drowning in unnecessary red tape. As someone who wanted fewer workers rights as a reason for leaving I find any **hard to have any sympathy*** (2) *but at least she has admitted she was wrong, one of the few brexiteers who will do so.*

Helen Edward’s small story contains two negative affective stance expressions: a rhetorical question (1) and a negation (2).

(4) **Tony Clarke** *90% of your business is exported to the EU. And you voted leave* (1). *Another clear thinking business person. Thanks for all your efforts* (2). *At least it might be cheaper to sack your poor employees.*

The small story by Tony Clarke opens with a negative rational stance expressed with the help of explicating the paradoxical logic of his interlocutor’s thinking (1). It is followed by the negative affective stance rendered with the help of two ironic statements (2).

(5) **Barry Ellis-Jones**

*It’ll be **easier*** (1) *to find business partners who aren’t in the U.K. no reason why businesses in the EU will bother with the extra complexity just to deal with us.*

Barry Ellis-Jones’ positive rational stance-taking in the small story above is expressed with the predicate *it’ll be easier*.

Quite a number of small stories under analysis express stance-taking towards changes in the foreign relations of Great Britain. The main post has the following heading: *Just when you think this government can’t get any more pathetic*

(6) **Richard Shannon**

No matter how the UK government wants to define the EU, it is how it defines itself and its scope of activity that matters. UK can adopt an aggressive stance towards the EU if it wants, that’s the right of any sovereign nation.

The EU and its predecessors have never been simply a trading bloc, trade was a means to a deeper & closer relationship between European nations. Perhaps De Gaulle was right back in the 60's that UK has not reconciled itself to no longer being a global imperial power and is therefore unwilling to engage in the European project. And perhaps his assessment remains valid for at least half of UK's population. And in hindsight perhaps the EEC back in the 1970's should have refused UK's application to join, and left UK to face the consequences of lost markets, contracting global relevance and declining industry.

IMO the effect of Brexit is to take UK back to 1969 (1), and to face the very same issues that have largely remained unresolved. What will be the future for UK is anyone's guess but whatever it is it will be nothing like the fantasy of wealth & power that the Leave campaigners described.

The small story told by Richard Shannon is focused on the political situation caused by Brexit. The teller's negative rational stance (1) is expressed explicitly by a statement that contradicts the present state of affairs.

(7) Sean Papenfuss

But i thought the EU dictated everything to the countries within, how could they possibly have their own immigration laws 🤔🤔🤔🤔 (1)

At least the nhs is booming and the superpower is pushing forwards 😂😂 (2)

The small story by Sean contains the emoticons of 'laughing to tears', which usually signals that someone finds something extremely funny. However, in this case it may also be said to explicate the paradoxical nature of the statements, which can be interpreted as a negative rational stance combined with the negative emotional stance.

(8) Albert Godfrind *"She admits to having voted 'leave' because she was sick of employment and health and safety rules originating from Brussels." That says it all.*

*My answer: you got what you voted for: you are free from the "rules originating from Brussels". And you are also free from your largest export market. **Well played!***

Albert Godfrind's rational stance is contained in the whole comment. The final sarcastic remark reflects the teller's negative stance towards foreign affairs.

Stance-taking with the help of metagraphemic means is especially vivid in memes and GIF images. One of the popular symbols is the miniature violin, which symbolizes Britain's tragic state.



Figure 4. Playing the world's smallest violin
(<https://www.facebook.com/veryBrexitproblems/posts/>)

Nero's playing the violin amidst chaos and destruction (<https://www.history.com/news/did-nero-really-fiddle-while-rome-burned>) has been reflected in numerous violin memes, one of which is presented in Fig. 4. Moreover, the post-Brexit phase does not just impede U.K. musicians' freedom to tour in Europe, but also jeopardizes artists' ability to rehearse, as well as blocks the violin trade.

V. DISCUSSION

The data contain four types of stance-taking towards post-Brexit: positive epistemic (E+), negative epistemic (E-), positive affective (A+) and negative affective (A-). The quantitative characteristics of stance-taking means used in small stories of Brexit are summed up in Table 1.

TABLE 1
LINGUISTIC MEANS OF STANCE-TAKING
IN SMALL STORIES ABOUT BREXIT IN THE ANGLOPHONE SEGMENT OF FACEBOOK

E+	E-	A+	A-
need v. (3)	affected	serves	stupidity (3)
think v. (2)	never mind	bright (3)	stupid (3)
respect n.	made a mistake	right <i>adj.</i>	pesky immigrants
suggest	think (8)		idiot(s) (4)
consider			fear
accurate			sad <i>adj.</i>
easy (2)			damn
well played		well played	surprise n.
won			lies
			sympathy (15)
			should (7)
			apology
			happy (3)
			bleed
			pathetic
			too late
			haha
			no comment
			whoops (2)

As can be seen in Table 1, positive epistemic stance is found in 13 cases, which is 15,2% of the total of 78 linguistic means of expressing stance. This type of stance is expressed mostly with verbs.

Negative epistemic stance is found in 13% of all tokens, most of them being verbs, in particular, the lexeme *think*.

According to our data, the most representative type of stance-taking is negative affective stance. Unlike epistemic stance, negative affective stance is represented by 27 lexemes with strong negative connotation (*bleed, stupid, idiot*). The emotional state of the tellers is expressed more vividly with interjections like *haha* and *whoops*.

Positive affective stance is found in only 6% of cases. This type of stance is expressed mostly with adjectives, with the help of which tellers tend to describe their positive feelings and emotions.

It is noteworthy that linguistic means with the positive connotation can be used to express negative stance. For instance, the noun *sympathy* is widely used in negative constructions, i.e., expresses absence of sympathy towards the post-Brexit situation, which agrees with the general opinion that Brexit has been a wrong decision.

Templeton Blair

Her stupidity cost me my EU citizenship.

Does she want sympathy or forgiveness?

Sharon Rees-Williams

No sympathy it was obviously going to result in this. Should have thought about it before they voted

Danielle Handy Hayden

She voted for it. Suck it up lady. Zero sympathy. My children are now disadvantaged in their future choices involving Europe because of your vote so you can reap what you have sown

Metagraphemic means of stance-taking have turned out to be less representative than linguistic ones (34 discourse fragments). The types of metagraphemic stance-taking included variability of punctuation, ellipsis, and iconic graphemics (pictures, photos, emoticons).

VI. CONCLUSION

Post-Brexit is a stage of Brexit that triggered a wide response among Facebook users. After the United Kingdom left the European Union, the comments to posts on Facebook evidence the crisis in the economy of the United Kingdom.

Stance is a characteristic feature of small stories that unveils the positioning of the teller. Its analysis in Facebook comments demonstrates that people are prone to utilize Facebook as a powerful narration medium during the post-Brexit period, as a channel for telling their small stories: to express fears, share political viewpoints, give insights, evaluate, understand, reflect upon and respond to what is happening.

The analysis of 187 small stories which contain 112 discourse fragments explicating stance, has brought to light 78 tokens of stance expressed linguistically and 34 tokens – with the help of metagraphemic means. The stance-taking analysis has evidenced the representativeness of such types of stance as epistemic positive and affective negative, which indicates that the current situation in the economy and foreign affairs in the United Kingdom is uncertain and has a negative trend.

Affective negative stance followed by the epistemic stance as to the changes in economy may evidence the fears of anglophone Facebook users towards the trade relations between the citizens in the European Union and the United Kingdom to be the most important change for the citizens. Epistemic positive stance towards economic changes follows the two previous ones, which suggests the importance of this sphere for the majority of Facebook users in comparison with other spheres.

The analysis has demonstrated that Facebook users are frustrated by the economic changes, thus the negative affective type of stance prevails and may be one of the reasons that the social unrest in the United Kingdom persists.

Linguistic means of expressing stance towards post-Brexit on Facebook include verbs, nouns, adjectives, and interjections. The prevailing type of stance is negative affective, expressed mostly by nouns. The verb *think* is mostly used to express negative rational stance. Adjectives in 75% cases are used to express negative affective stance. The presence of interjections is episodic and is related to the whole situation described in the article.

Facebook represents stance-rich environment; it combines both linguistic and metagraphemic means. In particular, such metagraphemic means as memes, emoticons, GIF images are the most representative. Ellipsis is used as a non-standard punctuation mark in place of a period to express uncertainty on the part of the teller.

The Facebook timestamp for each following comment reflects the close time relation (linearity) and the high speed of stance-taking within a small story, which gives grounds to claim the high level of affect in small stories of post-Brexit.

The prospects for further research lie in the study of cumulative effect of linguistic and non-linguistic stance-taking means in the comments to posts on Facebook.

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The Perceptions of Tertiary Level Learners on the Use of Mobile App ‘Balloon Vocabulary’ in Improving Vocabulary for Reading Comprehension

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Abstract—The challenges that the English as a Second Language (ESL) learners encounter during the reading process impede their reading comprehension. During the reading process, they need to pick up the information and stimulation around the text to comprehend it. Learners with a low vocabulary repertoire usually face difficulties to understand the lengthy text. Therefore, in this study, a mobile application labelled ‘Balloon Vocabulary’ was developed to help Ibanese tertiary learners to enjoy their reading and develop their vocabulary repertoire. This study employed a mixed-method approach that aimed to seek the perceptions of 125 tertiary level Iban learners on the usage of ‘Balloon Vocabulary’ towards improving their vocabulary repertoire. This study was also embarked to discover the learners’ performance after they completed both pre-test and post-test by using the application. Descriptive and inferential analyses were used to analyze the data. The qualitative data were analyzed and transcribed into themes. From the findings, the process of experiencing gamification and language games has led the learners to discover their skill related to vocabulary. Furthermore, their passion for learning was increased due to the involvement of technology in learning. This application is hoped to serve as a potential platform for learners to gain new experience dealing with new technological ways of learning English. Then, it will tread a new path for teachers as they will be able to attract learners’ attention and realign their focus to achieve desired content in learning.

Index Terms—mobile application, reading, English as a second language, vocabulary, tertiary learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Intensive reading is always a challenge to English as a Second Language (ESL) learners especially when they have to read lengthy texts (Hamdan et. al 2017). Chandran and Shah (2019) have proposed how learners often neglected reading for other purposes and only focused on their studies only. Learners’ perception would only change if only the reading strategy is organized in such a way that it triggers their attention to focus more on reading activity. This effect has been shown in a study done by Rahim et al. (2017) whereby learners who employed graphic elements in their text were likely to score better in the reading text compared to a group who practiced solely on reading text. Zhu et al. (2016) also consider this breakthrough as another educational value and innovative teaching that could be the game-changer in a reading lesson. Zhu et al. (2017) agreed that reading activity can be made easy as vocabulary enhancement can be done by using interesting methods such as using graphic enhancement or technological assistance.

Vocabulary learning is the pivotal element of achieving a goal in reading lessons. It is very crucial to have sufficient vocabulary knowledge when acquiring a second language like English. Ibrahim et al. (2016) has conducted research associated with vocabulary and they supported the idea that vocabulary is a vital component in language learning because it has to support the process of enhancing reading comprehension. This task can be challenging for the new learners as they need to adapt and progress well with their peers. Peters (2018) has been scrutinizing the figures studied by van Zeeland and Schmitt (2013) whereby they projected that language learners should know between 2000-3000 words families to reach a proficient level of 95%. Peters (2018) then concluded that these figures reflect the demanding task that a learner has to undergo to reach a certain level of language proficiency. It is unlikely for the learners to

acquire all these words in a language classroom alone due to time constraints. This is where Nation (2015) proposed a leading method of extensive reading to enrich learners' vocabulary. In his article, Nation (2015) stated that extensive reading will supply learners with continuous occurrences with unfamiliar words. He further argued that the unfamiliar words will be fostered by their mental capacity and the process ends when the words are searched in a dictionary. However, some young second language learners might not have the opportunity of experiencing such conditions due to limitations concerning their demographic background and cultural exposure (Kraut, Chandler & Hertenstein, 2016). Therefore, many tertiary ESL learners are struggling to fulfill the reading task given to them. This problem is even worse especially during the Covid19 pandemic whereby learners are detached from face-to-face lessons as most of the lessons at the tertiary level are conducted online. Thus, the researchers should attempt to address the learners' difficulties in reading particularly due to their poor vocabulary repertoire and reading interest.

ESL teachers in Malaysia have now adopted a fun and interesting way to make certain of an exciting class (Morat, Shaari & Abidin, 2016). They have progressively gone very well with the advancement of technology. Generation Z learners prefer reading and vocabulary lessons that are integrated with ICT especially mobile learning (Azli, Shah, & Maslawati, 2018). This would generate their motivation in learning (Gikas & Grant, 2013). A study done by Umar and Hassan (2015) to 7320 teachers all over Malaysia has found that ICT could significantly influence learners' learning and improves the effectiveness of the lessons. In fact, according to Zou and Li (2015), mobile learning influences the mood of learners in the classroom as they consider this to be a good medium for learning English. At the institution where this study took place, first-year learners must enroll in two courses- English for General Purposes and English for Academic Enrichment. It is a compulsory course whereby they must pass this paper. At the end of this course, they would be equipped with reading strategies, dictionary skills, and related skills. These courses were chosen because the content of the syllabus had extensive opening remarks for vocabulary topics that will help them to answer the questions in the application. The Iban learners tend to treat the second language as their mother tongue. This language interference has made the reading process a bit of a daunting task to them. This claim however contradicts the study done by Kai and Hua (2021) whereby they claimed that the mother tongue can indeed assist learners if educators can manipulate the learner's mother tongue for optimizing the learning outcomes.

Learners' understanding seems to be contrasted when it comes to comprehending English text. According to the faculty record of this university, for three consecutive years (2016-2019), the performance of 125 learners on the reading test has shown a sharp increase in their cumulative average point. The integration of technology particularly mobile learning as classroom activities has resulted in the learners feeling motivated in learning. Nevertheless, it is quite challenging to maintain the ESL learners' commitment to learning since, for most of them, mobile phones are just a tool of entertainment. To tackle this problem, the researchers have developed a mobile app or 'Balloon Vocabulary' to spark and sustain the learners' interest and achieve the course objectives simultaneously. The learners were asked to complete the reading assignments uploaded in the app. Therefore, this study was embarked to answer two research questions:

1. What are the learners' experiences in learning through 'Balloon Vocabulary'?
2. How does the mobile app 'Balloon Vocabulary' affect learners' vocabulary?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *The Reading Models*

There are three underpinning models the researchers adopted in designing the activities in the mobile apps 'Balloon Vocabulary'. The reading models are bottom-up, top-down and interactive reading models.

The bottom-up approach can also be known as phonics, which allows the learners to match letters with sounds in an explained sequence. The reading in this context is a linear process whereby readers decode a text word by word or a single unit, linking words into phrases and then sentences. The bottom-up model also describes the information as a flow of series of stages that changes the input and passes it to the next stage without any feedback of future stages. This would result in the readers being passive recipients of the information in the text. The reader has to reproduce the meaning residing in the text. As for the context of ESL learners, the textbook is influenced by this situation that includes tasks that rely on the reader's comprehension without giving much attention to the reader's knowledge or experience on the subject matter. This is simply because activities are based on recognition of other subject matter. The learners of tertiary level in the institution where this study was conducted are keen on reading with the recognition of single words. From the single word, they would move on to identifying the rest of the content in the text to get the whole picture. Early frustration may be common at the first stage of reading because the unknown meaning of the words is the cause of the demotivation among the readers. As for the Iban learners especially, the spirit and determination may become weary after a few trials in reading because there is not enough support from peers and limited vocabulary to understand the reading passage.

Secondly, the concept of the top-down reading model. Reading is not just extracting meaning from a text but a process of connecting information in the text with the previous knowledge the reader brings to the act of reading (Pardede, 2008). In this situation, the readers' background will function as the main role in comprehending a text. The readers will undergo the process of hypothesis testing, whether to confirm or reject them by using their prior knowledge and relate it to the text they are reading.

In this study, interactive reading was practiced when the students use the app to develop their reading comprehension.

Several studies have been conducted to measure the effects of interactive reading on learners' language development in L1 and L2 simultaneously (Davison & Qi, 2017; Guiberson & Ferris, 2019). The study of interactive reading was explained by Remy and Leroy (2016) and it can be defined as an instrument that focuses on encouraging printed stimulus and language development through storybooks while rendering the reading strategies explicit to enhance the understanding of a story. As claimed by Remy and Leroy (2016), interactive reading is widely used because it does not need large resources of printed materials and it can be adapted to cater to the needs of learners and communication styles. The mobile application 'Balloon Vocabulary' is adapted from printed materials that came from an extended reading activity in one of the topics taught in the class. The reading texts have been amended so that the content was made to be interactively interesting to Ibanese learners. The level of difficulties was lowered by simplifying the sentences. The given reading task is also tailor-made to the student's proficiency level. In order to sustain their reading interest, the app is infused with cultural Iban elements in the application namely the *sape* musical instrument and Iban cultural theme as the screen layout. This strategic way was hoped to make it appeal to the eyes and ears of the learners while sustaining the goals in reading lessons.

B. Schemata Theory

Schemata theory revolves around the background knowledge that the learners have and will eventually interact with the text. Schemata theory tests the learner's background knowledge interacts and responds to text and illustrations and deciphering them (Shin, Dronjic & Park, 2019). This would be the fundamental role in the pursuit of comprehending a text if they can fully utilize their schemata or background knowledge. The notion of past experiences that lead to the creation of mental frameworks is called the schemata theory. Smith (1994) describes this theory as the "extensiveness representations of more general patterns or regularities that occur in our experience". Whatever the learners may read, it will relate to their past experiences that may include the knowledge of objects, situations, or events that will help the reader to organize and interpret information. It is emphasized that one has found a mental 'platform' if he has comprehended a text. The 'existing' home of the mental platform will be modified to accommodate that new input of knowledge. For ESL learners, they have nothing to refer to or link except the knowledge of the mother tongue. Due to their limited vocabulary repertoire of the second language, it is difficult to establish schemata knowledge. Therefore, some information transfer will occur from the L1 repertoire to the L2 setting. This results in the poor comprehensible quality of knowledge of the L2 and reading activity cannot achieve its full desirable result. As for Iban learners, the interference of the mother tongue is the main issue when it comes to understanding the reading text because they tend to treat the text as their L1 language.

As for ESL learners, they have to relate to the knowledge of their mother tongue in terms of linguistic features as well as culture (Maslawati, 2012). Due to their limited vocabulary repertoire of the English language, it is a challenge for them to fully understand all the words' meaning in a reading passage (Misbah, Melor, Maslawati & Azizah, 2017). Therefore, according to them some information transfer and interferences will occur from L1 repertoire to L2 setting. This resulted in the poor comprehensible quality of knowledge of the L2 and reading activity cannot achieve its full desirable result. As for Iban learners, the interference of the mother tongue is the main issue when it comes to understanding the reading text because they tend to treat the text as their L1 language.

C. Connectivism Theory

George Siemens, the founder of connectivism theory, has paved a new model of learning which fits into the current context of the knowledge society. Siemens (2017) coins the term 'connectivism' because the Internet has made a huge paradigm shift in the education domain. Siemens (2017) describes that currently, knowledge could be obtained through multimedia and the internet is the source of the constant flow of information and people need to draw meaning from it. The evolution of learning theory has made it clear that being relevant to a digital society, connectivism is the end of the scheme of evolution which will bring shape to the future of knowledge. What intrigues the researcher about this theory is that learning is inevitable for learners and they will always learn new knowledge with what they have with the network. The activities that the learner does when they practice learning on ICT are just like expanding and building themselves, together with the current trend of the world in certain connected ways.

To what Siemens has assumed relating to connectivism learning theory, he postulates the following principles that made up the theory.

- Diversity of opinions will shape learning and knowledge
- Process of connecting specialized nodes and information sources is for learning to take place
- Learning can be stored in non-human appliances (Technology appliances)
- To ask more for what has been known is critical
- Connections must always be maintained to create a continuous learning facility
- Core skills are the ability to see connections between fields, ideas and concepts.
- The learner must have an autonomous decision in learning and be responsible for his outcome in learning.

The power of connectivism in the ESL classroom context brings a very similar situation to their learning process. In this study, the usage of mobile learning in the classroom is about the process of self-exploration and they need to connect their schemata to the learning materials found in the mobile apps known as 'Balloon Vocabulary'. The bridge of learning is required to optimize the input they receive via mobile apps.

D. Gamification and the Game Experience Questionnaire

The game experience is defined as “an ensemble made up of the player’s sensations, thoughts, feelings, actions, and meaning-making in a gameplay setting” (Ermi and Mayra, 2005). The experience that gamified service creates could ensure an effect on the gamification experience on the target behavior (Huotari & Hamari 2017; Seaborn & Fels 2015; Werbach 2014; Landers et al. 2018). Despite its relevance, gamification research is yet to fully establish the idea of the gameful encounter. There are just a few significant contributions to this construct, many of which are recent. One of the studies can be found in the case done by Landers et al. (2018), who formally described the experience as (a) perceiving that goals are not trivial and achievable; (b) a willingness to achieve these goals, but under restricting guidelines that the consumer is prepared to follow; and (c) a conviction that participation is voluntary. In ESL context, the participation by the learners is always voluntary. In fact, during the entire process of this study, the learners’ positive response was yielded and sustained throughout their reading process and task completion. This also accords with the discussion made by Mahmud, Husnin and Soh (2020) in their study, which showed that gamification experience that the participants felt could lead to active engagement of the game and sustain their motivation in learning. They later hypothesized that the sense of teaching presence which was initially absent in the process of learning could be acknowledged through social interaction and scaffolding during the gamification process. The previous study on the process of interaction and scaffolding among peers was supported by Vygotsky (1978) and Dicheva et al. (2015) whereby both scholars stated that learning could be livelier and meaningful.

The questionnaire that was used for this study was adopted and developed from the Core Elements of the Gaming Experience Questionnaire (CEGE) or simply known as CEGE Questionnaire (Carvillo-Gamez, Cairns & Cox, 2015) and was later revised and remodeled to GAMEX (Eppmann et al., 2018). The questionnaire was created with 14 items and they were divided according to three constructs or dimensions: Social Experience, Playfulness and Sensory Experience. The detailed explanation and definition of each construct will be explained below.

Social Experience

Social experience can be induced by competition (Vorderer et al., 2003). It is a game that takes up a different setting with the combination of socializing, relationship formation and teamwork (Yee 2006). As had been proposed by Rogers (2017), there was a piece of evidence whereby the feeling of togetherness happened when people playing mobile games. Furthermore, social activity has once been told that a gamer would experience a realistic condition as being in the actual one in the game.

Playfulness

The pleasurable behavior is voluntary and caused by fragments of imagination without being under the control of social and systematic rules.

Sensory Experience

A few authors claimed the sensory experience to include only visual (Wiebe et al., 2014 and Wyeth et al., 2012). However, Calvillo-Gómez et al. (2010) and Ermi and Mäyrä (2005) had disputed the claim that visuals must be accompanied by audio input. These variations are systematic nevertheless.

These constructs are important and it was set to be the foundation elements to develop the mobile application. Lately, second language learning has put more focus on gamification as the subject of interest by various researchers when the education scenario now has demanded technology to be embedded in classroom activities (Melor & Hua, 2021). However, there are several limitations of the questionnaire designed for ESL Iban learners. One of the limitations is that the learners still could not figure out the meanings of the items asked in the questionnaire which prompted the assistance of researchers at all times. Another limitation came from the technical aspect of the mobile phone used during the activity. Some learners were still using the old and outdated smartphones and this caused retardation on the smoothness of the application to operate. As a result, a gameful experience could hardly be achieved and the questionnaire would be almost meaningless to them. Figure 1 is the snapshot of the mobile application activities which reflect the Sensory Experience. The visual and graphic stimulus presented in the application has aroused users (learners) to be engaged in more realistic feelings while completing the tasks. Tasks and the interface provided must resonate with excitement because this would trigger the learner’s interest (Faiella & Ricardi, 2015). The background of the interface portrays the legendary Iban warrior holding a cock in his arm while facing the black apparition (demon) from the afterlife. This sensory element brought a homey atmosphere to learners and this emulates the experience that they heard in classic Iban folklore during their childhood period.

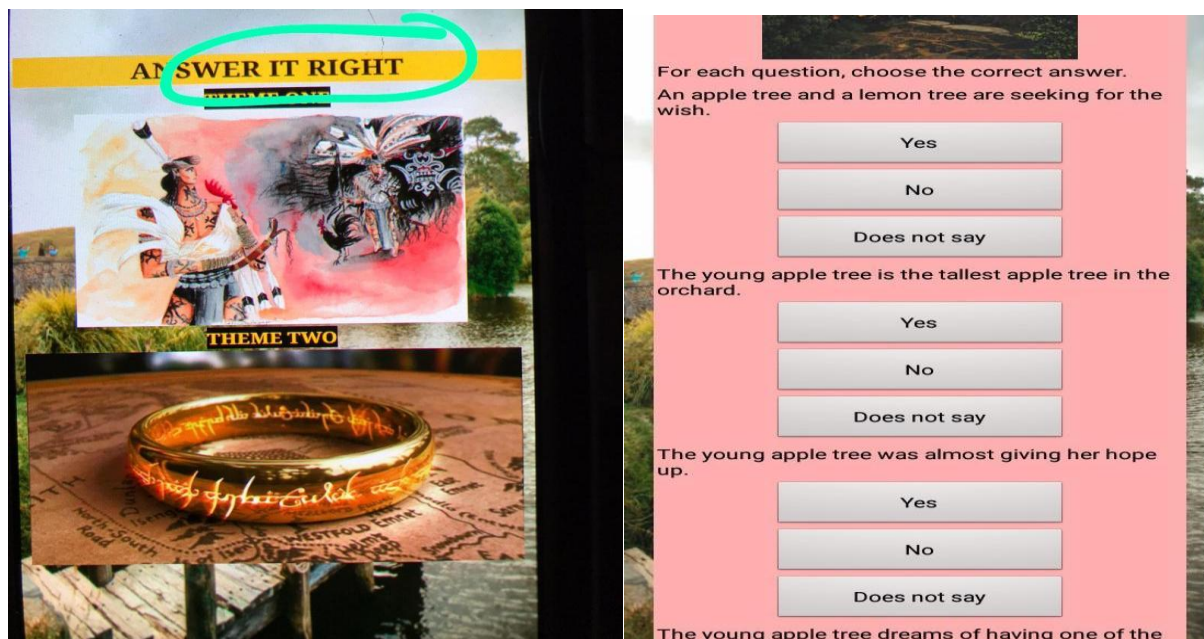


Figure 1 Balloon Vocabulary Snapshots

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

This study employed a mixed-method approach. A mixed-method approach is employed because according to Gibson (2017), a multi-source of data is best employed by using a mixed-method approach as it collects from both inside the focal entity and outside of the focal entity. Overlapping of variability can happen if the data is collected from a single course. Therefore, it is important to initiate the independence of data and avoid taking from a single-source data as it can lead to bias (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Creswell and Clerk (2011,p.8) also agreed to the significance of employing a mixed-method approach as they stated that “A mixed-method approach provides a better understanding of research problems than one approach only; in particular, those problems in which one data source may be insufficient, results need to be explained, exploratory findings need to be generalized, or a second method is needed to enhance a primary method, a theoretical stance needs to be employed, and an overall research objective can be best addressed with multiple phases or projects”.

In this study, the researcher used four research instruments: semi-structured interviews, field notes, ‘Balloon Vocabulary’ evaluation (pre and post-test), and questionnaire. Table 1 shows the summary of the research methodology in this study.

TABLE 1
SUMMARY OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

No.	Research Questions	Analysis	Instruments
1.	What are the learners’ experiences in learning through ‘Balloon Vocabulary’?	Mean, SD, Percentage, Thematic	A questionnaire, Semi-structured Interview, Field Notes
2	How does ‘Balloon Vocabulary’ affect learners’ vocabulary?	(SPSS) Inferential Statistics (T-tests)	Pre-test and Post-test

B. Respondents

Iban learners, the Indigenous English Language Learners in Borneo

Morgan (1968) describes Iban as the Sea Dayaks, who live in almost every part of Sarawak. They belong to the Proto-Malay group and are originally from Kapuas district in West Kalimantan of Indonesia. Currently, the Ibanese people in Sarawak, a part of Borneo Island, can be found scattered throughout the Sarawak state. At present, the population of Iban people flourishes throughout the island of Borneo, Malaysia. They move along well with modernization, just like others. In this study, the Ibanese learners who took part in this study reside around the city and neighboring division of Kuching. A total of 96% (120) of the ESL learners have both Iban parents whereby the remaining 4 % (5) have mixed parentage (either the mother or the father is an Iban). Although they are of mixed parentage, their upbringing is quite similar to those who have Iban as both parents. They can converse in the Iban language and share similar experiences in terms of culture, rituals and customs. They are undergraduate students with the age range between 21-23 years old. Most of them are in the intermediate proficiency level.

Sampling

Purposive sampling was used in this case study because the researcher wanted to understand as much as possible from the subjects, as agreed by Creswell (2014). This group of participants was selected because they were able to meet the researchers' criteria. There were two criteria required in selecting the participants. One of the criteria was the learners must undertake a compulsory first and second-semester subject named English for General Purposes and English for Academic Enrichment respectively. These subjects were chosen because the content of the syllabus had extensive opening remarks for vocabulary lessons that require them to answer the comprehension and vocabulary questions in the application. Secondly, the learners that were chosen were all Iban, with at least either one of their parents is an Iban. The summary of the respondents and instruments used is shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
SUMMARY OF THE RESPONDENTS AND RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS USED IN THIS STUDY

No.	Instruments	Analysis	Respondents
1.	Questionnaire	Mean, SD, Percentage	125 learners
2	Field notes observation	Thematic	125 learners
3	Semi-structured Interview	Thematic	5 learners (A1, A2, A3, A4 & A5)
4	Pre-test and Post-test (Balloon Vocabulary Apps)	(SPSS) Inferential Statistics (T-tests)	125 learners

C. Research Instruments

The researchers employed four research instruments in this study: researcher's field notes, semi-structured interview, questionnaire and Balloon Vocabulary pre-test and post-test. The semi-structured interview was categorized into 14 sub-themes and they were divided according to three constructs or dimensions: Social Experience, Playfulness and Sensory Experience

1. Instrument Internal Reliability

The Cronbach Alpha reliability index was used to determine the reliability of the instruments. The study drawn by Jackson (2006) stated that reliability is an important indication that proves the stability and congruency of the intended measuring instrument. Table 3 shows the reliability values that indicate the high reliability of a measure.

TABLE 3
CRONBACH ALPHA VALUE

Alpha Value	Reliability Level
.70 – 1.00	Strong
.30 - .69	Moderate
00 - .29	Weak

If the above table is referred to, a good value of internal consistency will yield Cronbach alpha with a coefficient value of 0.7 and above. From the pilot test conducted earlier, the result yielded a very favorable value which is 0.89. Table 3.4 shows the Cronbach Alpha value for each construct.

TABLE 4
CRONBACH ALPHA VALUE FOR EACH CONSTRUCT

Constructs	No. Of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Social Experience	5	.89
Playfulness	5	.81
Sensory Experience	4	.82
Total	14	.89

2. Internal Validity

The items of the questionnaire were reviewed and validated by three experts in the field of study. The first expert is the Head of Department of the university's main campus. The second expert is a senior lecturer of the same university who has taught English for more than 25 years. The third expert has 10 year-experience as an English paper examiner. All the items in the questionnaire were validated and accepted with minor corrections on the grammar and question ambiguity. Upon the completion of the validity process, the questionnaire was further tested in a pilot study.

In order to test the internal validity of the application, 10 learners were asked to describe their experiences in a test run concerning different elements in the content. By including all the suggestions, comments and questions, the researcher aimed to cover enough game design elements that can afford sufficient scope of different experiences to create an application model that is friendly and interesting. These categories include the choice of traditional Iban music, stories/theme, difficulty level and language. As an example, the word "initiate" was asked by every learner during the test run. Therefore, the word was replaced with a similar meaning – "to begin".

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The semi-structured interview responses of learners' experiences on using the mobile application, 'Balloon Vocabulary' are categorized into three themes or constructs: Social Experience, Playfulness, Sensory Experience. Next, the findings on the analysis of the paired sample t-test were also computed.

RQ1: What are the learners' experiences in learning through 'Balloon Vocabulary'?

A. Social Experience

Table 1 shows the findings of the questionnaire items which focus on their social experience while using the 'Balloon Vocabulary'. The highest score was obtained by Item 3, 'I do not feel threatened because other learners do not know me as the player' (Mean = 4.67) whereby 99.8% (121 participants) agreed to the statement. The smallest value of mean recorded for item 2, 'I feel closer when doing an activity with my friends' (Mean =4.28.) or 80% (100 participants) agreed to the statement.

These findings are clearly in proportion with Zou and Li's (2015) findings whereby the respondents were happy when using mobile apps in learning vocabulary. They claimed that mobile phone learning is a good medium for learning as they are more engaged in the activities. Furthermore, the background music is relaxing and the features are user-friendly.

Additionally, the findings are also parallel with the Socio-constructivism theory proposed by Vygotsky (1978) whereby it is explained that learners can benefit from the L2 acquisition process with the presence of more skilled individuals or peers that could assist them in their task completion. In this study, the respondents enjoyed the task completion with the assistance of other classmates. In other words, these activities increased and sustained their motivation as well. Furthermore, they did not feel pressured or threatened because their identity was not revealed to others throughout the games.

TABLE 5
LEARNERS' SOCIAL EXPERIENCE ON 'BALLOON VOCABULARY'

No.	Item	Strongly Disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %	Mean
1.	I love doing an activity with my friends	0.8(1)	3.2(4)	4.0(5)	28.8(36)	63.2(79)	4.50
2.	I feel closer when doing an activity with my friends	0.8(1)	5.6 (7)	13.6(17)	24.8(31)	55.2(69)	4.28
3.	I do not feel threatened because other learners do not know me as the player.	0.8(1)	1.6(2)	0.8(1)	23.2(29)	73.6(92)	4.67
4.	I like the usage of pseudonyms because other learners do not know the real me.	2.4(3)	3.2(4)	8.0(10)	16.0(20)	70.4(88)	4.49
5.	I enjoy receiving motivation from my friends because they will cheer for me	1.6(2)	1.6(2)	3.2(4)	29.6(37)	64.0(80)	4.53
6.	I like my friends helping me and guide me to achieve my goals	1.6(2)	1.6(2)	5.6(7)	32.8(41)	58.4(73)	4.45

Key: (Mean value) 1- Strongly Disagree, 2- Disagree, 3- Neutral, 4- Agree, 5- Strongly Agree

The data from the questionnaire were also confirmed by the semi-structured interview responses of five participants. The interview question that was posed is:

1. Did you have fun when using the 'Balloon Vocabulary' with your friends?

One of the respondents, (A2), was delighted to know her score almost instantaneously after playing the application. She was impressed with how fast the game analyzed her answer and provided the score almost instantaneously.

'Every time I finish the game, I know my score right away. Very fast!'

From one of the researcher's field notes, he noted that most participants were smiling when playing the game and the expression of joy could be seen on their faces. This shows active and positive engagement from the learners as they felt content with the achievement. Furthermore, they bragged about their triumph feelings to others which was a good indicator of the good outcome from the game.

B. Playfulness

Table 6 shows the findings of the questionnaire items on the construct 'playfulness' while experiencing the 'Balloon Vocabulary'. The highest score was obtained by item 5, 'I love it when playing an active game' (Mean = 4. 57) whereby 92% (115 participants) agreed to the statement. The lowest mean score was obtained from item 1 which is 'I love it because I can learn new things' (Mean =4.18) or 73.6% (92 participants) agreed to the statement. Previous studies have shown a great deal of support to these findings and one of them was done by Dicheva et al. (2015). They

stated that games and interactive learning applications invigorate the learning atmosphere to be livelier and more motivated. Faiella and Ricciardi (2015) were also in agreement with these findings and they claimed that learning tasks can simply be transformed from ponderous to exciting and vibrant ones.

TABLE 6
LEARNERS' PLAYFULNESS EXPERIENCE ON 'BALLOON VOCABULARY'

No.	Item	Strongly Disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %	Mean
1.	I love it because I can learn new things.	2.4(3)	6.4(8)	17.6(22)	17.6(22)	56.0(70)	4.18
2.	I feel enjoyed when doing this activity	0.8(1)	1.6(2)	5.6(7)	24.8(31)	67.2(84)	4.56
3.	I enjoy the positive reinforcement given in the 'Balloon Vocabulary'	1.6(2)	6.4(8)	16.0(20)	17.6(22)	58.4(73)	4.25
4.	Funny memes make it fun to use 'Balloon Vocabulary'.	3.2(4)	8.0(10)	2.4(3)	14.4(18)	72.0(90)	4.44
5.	I love it when playing an active game.	1.6(2)	2.4(3)	2.4(3)	24.8(31)	68.8(86)	4.57

The respondents felt thrilled when they attempted the game. They felt excited because of the positive reinforcement that they received upon the completion of every task in the game application. Furthermore, the fun continued when they experienced funny memes displayed on the application. This statement is derived from the interview responses to the question: *'Did you experience any pleasurable moments while attempting to play the game?'*

There was one learner, A2, who expressed the practicality of having the application in the classroom because it enabled them to perform multi-task activity which was learning and playing (*"It was awesome! Two things done in one time- learning and playing!"*). From the researcher's field notes, it was documented that their eyes were glued to their phone screen from the beginning of the game until the end.

Another learner (A3) seemed to be very excited when she discovered how lovely the memes were on the application. From the field notes, the learner looked mesmerized by the images displayed on her phone screen.

"(Burst in laughter) The memes are so funny la. And cute some more"

Next, another learner (A4) emphasized the fashionable and sophisticated way the application looked like. She even demanded to experience another application that was similarly exciting (*"Cool! Very cool...like super cool, Sir. Make one game more please"*). From the researcher's field notes, most of the learners expressed happiness by smiling throughout the activity. In conclusion, the explorative aspect in the game had provided a "mystery" element to the learner which increased the pleasurable aspect of the activity. Besides, they were able to create room for imagination and creativity throughout the game.

C. Sensory Experience

Table 7 shows the findings of questionnaire items that highlighted their sensory experiences while using the 'Balloon Vocabulary'. The highest mean score is by Item 3, 'The graphics and colors are visually pleasing' (Mean=4.71) whereby 96% (120 participants) agreed to the statement. The least value of score recorded by item 4, 'The layout graphic design is suitable for my age' (Mean=4.24) or 86.4% (108 participants) agreed to the statement. When the respondents attempted the application, most of their responses were very favorable. The graphic portrayed a huge cultural value to the Iban learners as the background showed the image of the legendary Iban warrior. Furthermore, the impact of background music proves to be utterly satisfying.

The study carried out by Zou and Li (2015) supports the findings of this study findings. Zou and Li (2015) explored the area of the effectiveness of mobile applications to learners' sensory learning and their results were positive. They discovered that the learners' interest became intensified when they used the technology in their learning. The learners were entertained by the application's graphic layout. They loved the combination of graphics and colors and this produced a pleasing sensory moment. The game layout design was appropriate to their taste.

TABLE 7
LEARNERS' SENSORY EXPERIENCE ON 'BALLOON VOCABULARY'

No.	Item	Strongly Disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %	Mean
1.	I enjoy the music background.	3.2(4)	0.8(1)	9.6(12)	16.8(21)	69.6(87)	4.49
2.	The interface is user friendly	1.6(2)	0.8(1)	3.2(4)	28.8(36)	65.6(82)	4.56
3.	The graphics and colors are visually pleasing.	2.4(3)	0.8(1)	0.8(1)	15.2(19)	80.8(101)	4.71
4.	The layout graphic design is suitable to my age	1.6(2)	0.8(1)	11.2(14)	44.8(56)	41.6(52)	4.24
5.	The font type and size look attractive.	2.4(3)	3.2(4)	8.0(10)	21.6(27)	64.8(81)	4.43

Key: (Mean value) 1- Strongly Disagree, 2- Disagree, 3- Neutral, 4- Agree, 5- Strongly Agree

The data was then triangulated by other interview question responses. The question was: *How did you visually describe the experience using the 'Balloon Vocabulary'?*

One of the learners, A1, expressed her joy when she described the graphics and colors displayed on the application ('*"The colors..wahh..colorful and happy"*'). The next learner (A3) had somewhat reminisced about her hometown when she listened to the background 'Sape' music in the application in which she enjoyed it very much ('*The song I like the 'Sape' sound. It reminds me of my longhouse*'). The researcher's field notes indicate that the learners were surprised to listen to the Sape instrumental music. They could not believe that their cultural song was embedded in the game. In summary, the games themselves offer a purely aesthetic value and sense of ownership to them. The music, the sound, the graphics and the storyline were all very close to their heart.

D. Findings Learners' Experiences in Learning through 'Balloon Vocabulary'

Inferential statistics were used to analyze the performance of learners' vocabulary levels through the application. Before the test was given, the process of learners' familiarization with the application was applied to avoid any complications during the actual process. The learners have used the app multiple times. This would enable them to be mentally ready and also ensure their mobile devices are functioning well. Two tests were given namely pre-test and post-test. There were 125 learners of ESL Iban tertiary learners involved in the tests. Before performing the paired sample t-test, a normality test was performed first between the two scores (Pre-Test and Post-Test) to examine the distribution of the data. After the test was conducted, according to the Shapiro-Wilk distribution of normality, the p-values ($p=0.338$) for the pre-test and post-test are greater than the Alpha value ($p=0.05$) which signifies that the scores data are normally distributed. According to Table 4.4, there was a significant difference between the mean of the Pre-Test and Post Test, $t(124) = 0.00$, $p < 0.05$. This shows that the learners' vocabulary performance has improved significantly. The findings concur with Isa et al.'s findings that (2011) showed that online games via mobile applications could change the teaching and learning atmosphere - enhance learners' language skills especially in ESL classroom learning.

TABLE 8
PAIRED SAMPLE T-TEST ON 'BALLOON VOCABULARY'

Paired Differences									
					95% Interval Difference	Confidence of the			
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	Score on Test before Treatment- Score on Test after Training	-1.944	2.519	.225	-2.390	-1.500	-8.630	124	.000

V. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of this study, it could be concluded that 'Balloon Vocabulary' is a useful online game tool and user-friendly in which most learners could benefit from playing it. Learners could perform better in vocabulary and reading when they are engaged in technology and perform collaborative learning with others. This application could promote a fun and active learning experience as it increases learners' social experience, playfulness and sensory experience in completing the task. Furthermore, it enhances learners' learning ability to solve problems in vocabulary learning.

It is hoped that the government and authorities could consider slotting more time for the integration of mobile learning in English language classrooms since the young learners are more engaged in learning through mobile learning. Therefore, it is recommended for the teachers to utilize relevant mobile language games applications as their teaching materials to cater to Generation Z interests.

The 'Balloon Vocabulary' application has tremendous potential to promote active learning at all stages of education level. Therefore, further studies on different demographic backgrounds of learners, other language skills such as listening, writing and skills should be carried out. Therefore, further information on how this application can be used to enhance other learners' language learning experience could be explored. In conclusion, the use of 'Balloon Vocabulary' is beneficial as it gives a positive impact on Ibanese tertiary learners' vocabulary and reading comprehension level.

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Binding Relations and Their Implications for Word Order in Arabic

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Abstract—This study aims at investigating the distribution of the possessive pronouns in Modern Standard Arabic. It shows that when the possessive pronouns are used as reflexives they have implications for the word order. The different positions occupied by the objects are determined by the presence of these pronouns and the binding relations within the c-commanding domain. Building on the basic assumptions of Binding Theory, possessive pronouns are best treated as normal pronominal elements which are subject to condition B. However, when they are used as anaphoric elements in certain contexts, they have to be c-commanded by their antecedents. Depending on the derivational level at which c-command relation is established between the reflexive possessive pronoun and its antecedent, movement of the possessive pronoun along with the phrase containing is optional in certain structures or, in other structures, the pronoun becomes frozen in the position in which it is base-generated.

Index Terms —Arabic, binding theory, C-command, reflexives, possessive pronouns

I. INTRODUCTION

It has been observed by a number of authors that possessive pronouns in different languages can be ambiguous between normal pronouns and reflexives. In English, for example, the possessive pronoun can be interpreted as a pronoun or a reflexive as (1a) and (1b) below illustrate respectively (cf. Rooryck & Vanden Wyngaerd, 2011; Truswell, 2014).

- (1) a. The man_i likes his_k house.
 b. The man_i likes his_i house.

Being a reflexive, the possessive pronoun is bound locally in (1b), which is not the case in (1a) where the pronoun is free locally. Modern Standard Arabic (henceforth MSA) is similar to English in this respect. As the examples (2a) and (2b) below show, the possessive pronoun can be used as an anaphoric reflexive which is bound or as a normal pronoun that has to be free locally (cf. Benmamoun & Choueiri, 2013).

- (2) a. zara ar-rajul_i-u ṣadeeq-a-hu_{i/k}
 visited.3ms the-man_i-nom friend-acc-his_{i/k}
 ‘The man visited his friend’
 b. yaʔalmu ar-rajul_i-u an tazura al-mumaridat-u ṣadeeq-a-hu_{i/k}
 hope.3ms the-man_i-nom that visit-3fs the-nurse-nom friend-acc-his_{i/k}
 ‘The man hopes that the nurse visits his friend.’

In (2a) the possessive pronoun can have a reflexive reading; hence, it is co-indexed with the c-commanding DP subject. In (2b) it is a normal pronoun which has no antecedent within the same domain (i.e. that clause which constitutes a CP). In fact, the anaphoric possessive pronoun which behaves as a reflexive bears resemblance to the true reflexive in both the form and use. Morphologically, the Arabic reflexive is composed of a possessive pronoun and the noun *nafs* ‘self’. Thus, the structure of the true reflexive in (3) below is identical to the combination of the possessive pronoun and the noun in (2a) above.

- (3) yuḥibu ar-rajul_i-u nafs-a-hu_{i/*k}
 like.3ms the-man_i-nom self-acc-his_{i/*k}
 ‘The man likes himself.’

The similarity between the possessive pronoun which has a reflexive reading in (2a) and the possessive pronoun which is part of the true reflexive in (3) is confirmed by the fact that they both have the same distribution. In other words, what applies to the whole structure of the true reflexive applies to the object which contains the possessive pronoun in (2a) in terms of Case marking and word order. In addition to the VSO word order in (2) and (3) above, VOS word order is possible.

- (4) a. zara ṣadeeq-a-hu_{i/k} ar-rajul_i-u
 visited.3ms friend-acc-his the-man_i-nom
 ‘The man visited his friend’
 b. yuḥibu nafs-a-hu_{i/*k} ar-rajul_i-u
 like.3ms self-acc-his_{i/*k} the-man_i-nom
 ‘The man likes himself.’

MSA is predominantly VSO language which allows SVO as an alternative word order. However, VOS word order is generally allowed with topicalized objects or when the object is a pronominal clitic attached to the verb; the pronominal object appears in a position preceding the subject (cf. Alenazy, 2009 for extensive discussion). However, VOS word order is obligatory under certain conditions. Binding relations have their implications for the positions occupied by the object; therefore, the word order of the subject and the object must achieve c-command relations (see the discussion below). As (5) below shows, when the anaphoric possessive pronoun, which is coreferential with the object, appears within the structure of the subject, VSO word order is disallowed.

- (5) *dahana sahib-u-hu_i al-bayt_i-a
 painted.3ms owner-nom-its_i the-house_i-acc
 'Its owner painted the house.'

This sentence is ruled out because its configurational structure, as we shall see later in section 4 below, does not achieve the required c-command relation between the antecedent (i.e. the object) and the anaphor (i.e. the possessive pronoun within the structure of the subject). Nevertheless, this assumption does not seem to be straightforward as, contra to (5) above, when the anaphoric pronoun is contained within the structure of the object, VOS word order is allowed. In (6) below, the anaphoric coreferential possessive pronoun is in a superficial position preceding the antecedent.

- (6) dahana bayt-a-hu_i at-tajir_i-u
 painted.3ms house-acc-his_i the-merchant_i-nom
 'The merchant painted his house.'

This paper concerns itself with the contrast between these two word orders and how they are linearly achieved; it explains why the anaphoric pronoun in (6) can precede the antecedent while it cannot in (5). It claims that the object position with respect to the subject is determined by the presence of an anaphoric element within the structure of the object itself or the structure of the subject. Put differently; if the structure of the object contains an anaphoric element that is coreferential with the subject, the object can optionally move to a position preceding the subject, i.e. optional VOS word order. However, if the anaphoric element is within the structure of the subject and it is coreferential with the object, object movement to a position preceding the subject becomes obligatory and the subject is frozen in its canonical position. I ascribe this discrepancy to c-command relations. I argue that if c-command relation between the antecedent (the subject) and the coreferential anaphoric pronoun within the DP object is obtained during the course of derivation while they are in their base positions the object, along with the anaphor within its structure, is allowed to move to a position preceding the subject as in (6) above. However, if c-command relation is obtained during the course of derivation by object movement of the antecedent to a position preceding the subject to bind the anaphoric pronoun within its structure, the subject is frozen in its base position in accordance with what I call Anaphor Freezing Condition (henceforth AFC). The proposed analysis adopts the latest minimalist assumptions made in Chomsky (1995, 2007, 2008). The CP, as a phase, is taken as the minimal c-commanding domain within which constraints about binding relations are established. The notions of External Merge (i.e. the operation Merge) and Internal Merge (i.e. the operation Move) are essential for the description and analysis of the reflexive possessive pronouns and their distribution.

II. BINDING RELATIONS

Binding Theory is concerned with the distribution of nominal elements based on structural configurations. The early version of Binding Theory (Chomsky 1981) does not in fact distinguish between binding and coreference. However, many authors have distinguished between the two concepts. For example, Reinhart (1983) argues that binding conditions are concerned with syntactic binding not coreference. Binding Theory defines a c-commanding domain within which the use of different nominal elements is determined by different conditions (Reinhart 1976; Chomsky 1981). The c-commanding domain, according to Chomsky (1995), is the minimal clause structure within which both the antecedent and the anaphor exist. In line with Chomsky (2008), clause structure is represented as a CP. Nominals are classified into the following three different types:

- i. Anaphors, such as reflexives, which derive their meanings from nouns preceding them within the same c-commanding domain.
- ii. Pronouns which derive their meanings from nouns outside the c-commanding domain.
- iii. R-expressions which derive their meanings from the entities to which they refer in the real world.

While an anaphor is bound locally in that it is c-commanded by a co-indexed antecedent that exists in the same domain, a pronoun can be co-indexed with a noun that should not be in a c-commanding position; i.e. it is free locally. R-expressions are always free. The constraints on the distribution of these nominal elements, which are known as Binding Conditions (cf. Chomsky 1981), are:

Condition A: anaphors are bound locally.

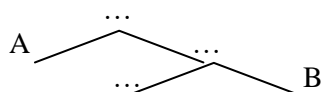
Condition B: pronouns are free locally.

Condition C: R-expression are free everywhere.

Conventionally, since Reinhart (1976), when the antecedent binds a coreferential pronoun, the former has to asymmetrically c-command the latter. The structure (7) below shows the configurational relationship between the

antecedent A and the coreferential pronoun B. The c-command relation here is said to be asymmetrical because A c-commands B but B does not c-command A.

(7)

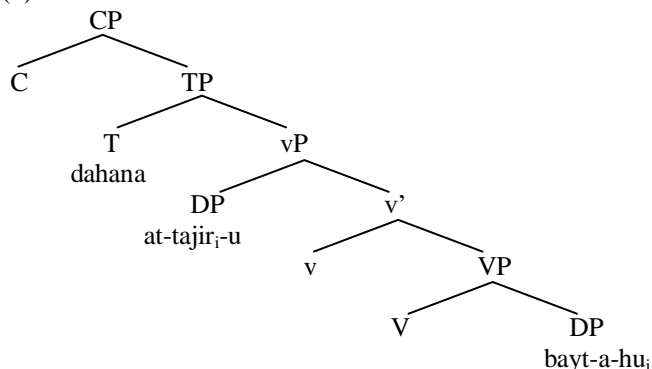


In MSA, the coreferential anaphoric pronoun normally follows its antecedent as we can see from (8) below.

- (8) dahana at-tajjir_i-u bayt-a-hu_i
 painted.3ms the-merchant_i-nom house-acc-his_i
 'The merchant painted his house.'

In this sentence, the object contains a reflexive possessive pronoun which is coreferential with the subject. The grammaticality of the sentence suggests that the reflexive possessive pronoun is c-commanded by the subject, as the structure (9) shows.

(9)

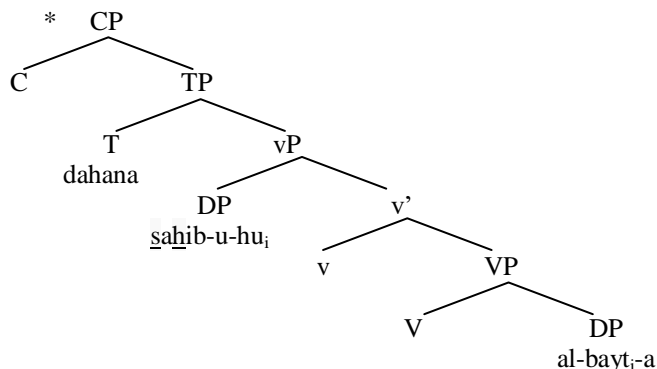


The ungrammaticality of the following sentence demonstrates that the c-command relation is crucial. The coreferential possessive pronoun here is contained within the structure of the subject and it has the object as its antecedent, which is not in a c-commanding position. The sentence in (5) above is repeated here as (10).

- (10) *dahana sahib-u-hu_i al-bayt_i-a
 painted.3ms owner-nom-its_i the-house_i-acc
 'Its owner painted the house.'

The structure (11) below illustrates that the object does not c-command the anaphoric pronoun, which means that the former cannot bind the latter.

(11)



In order to get a grammatical version of (10) above, the object is obligatorily moved to a position intervening between the verb in T and the subject in the specifier of vP. I assume following Alenazy (2009) that this position is an outer specifier of vP. From this position the object binds the possessive anaphoric pronoun; hence, the following sentence is grammatical.

- (12) dahana al-bayt_i-a sahib-u-hu_i
 painted.3ms the-house_i-acc owner-nom-its_i
 'The house's owner painted it.'

Interestingly, however, the object with the coreferential possessive pronoun in (8) can be moved to a position preceding the subject. In contrast with (12), where object movement is obligatory, object movement is optional in (6) above which is repeated here as (13).

- (13) dahana bayt-a-hu_i at-tajjir_i-u
 painted.3ms house-acc-his_i the-merchant_i-nom
 'The merchant painted his house.'

Apparently, (8) and (12) raise no problems because the antecedents linearly precede the coreferential reflexive possessive pronouns. However, the question arises here is: *why is the contrast between (10) and (13)?*

The contrast between (10) and (13) is explained in the Arab grammarians' literature (cf. Hassan, 1961; Ibn Hisham, 1964, for instance) in terms of grammatical-function hierarchy which claims that the rank of the subject is hierarchically higher than the rank of the object.¹ In (10), the coreferential pronoun which is contained within the subject cannot refer to the unmoved object because the rank of the latter is lower than that of the subject. Consequently, the object has to linearly precede the reflexive pronoun, as (12) above shows.

In (8), on the other hand, linear precedence is not necessary, which means that object movement is optional, as in (13). This optionality is ascribed to the fact that the rank of the antecedent, i.e. the subject, is higher than the rank of the object which contains the coreferential pronoun (cf. Mohammad, 2000). However, the ungrammaticality of the following sentence is not captured by the Arab grammarians' explanation.

- (14) *raʔat ibnat-a-hu_i ʔum-u ar-rajul_i-i
saw.3fs daughter-acc-his_i mother-nom the-man_i-gen
'The man's mother saw his daughter.'

Under the assumptions of the Arab grammarians, (14) should be grammatical as it is can be treated on a par with (13). However, the coreferential possessive pronoun within the structure of the object *ibnat-a-hu* 'his daughter' cannot precede its antecedent *ar-rajul_i-i* 'the man' which is contained within the structure of the subject that has a higher rank than the pronominal object. In other words, VOS word order is not allowed here; it is possible only if the possessive pronoun is free and in this case it is subject to condition B. With the reflexive reading of the possessive pronoun the antecedent must precede, hence the grammaticality of (15) below.

- (15) raʔat ʔum-u ar-rajul_i-i ibnat-a-hu_i
saw.3fs mother-nom the-man_i-gen daughter-acc-his_i
'The man's mother saw his daughter.'

I shall argue below for a different explanation that can capture both (14) and (15) and at the same time accounts for why object movement is obligatory and optional in (12) and (13) above respectively. I attribute the grammaticality and ungrammaticality of these sentences to the presence of different types of c-command relations.

III. COREFERENTIAL PRONOUNS AND C-COMMAND RELATIONS

The data show that the coreferential pronoun, and the DP within which it is contained, must remain in its base position if it is not c-commanded by its antecedent when they are externally merged before any Move operation takes place. The c-command relation that is achieved by movement (i.e. Internal Merge) of the antecedent to a position preceding the coreferential reflexive pronoun is not enough to allow the latter to move. I refer to this restriction on the movement of the coreferential reflexive possessive pronoun as AFC and initially reformulate it as follows:

- (16) A reflexive possessive pronoun along with the DP within which it exists is frozen in its base position if it is not c-commanded by its antecedent at the stage of External Merge.

It is worth mentioning at this juncture that Binding itself does not derive movement. Rather, movement of the antecedent of a reflexive is triggered by its need to be highlighted or focused. In fact, the idea of this interaction between Binding and focus is not new as it has been investigated by several authors in different languages (cf. Baker, 1995; Charnavel, 2009). I assume that focus is the underlying force of the antecedent movement required by the condition (16). Furthermore, AFC I am assuming here is different from *Freezing Effect*, a well-known condition on operator-variable relations. According to Bošković (2008), "[o]perators in operator-variable chains cannot undergo further operator movement." (p. 250). To exemplify, in (17b) below, the noun phrase *every problem* is topicalised (by movement) establishing an operator-variable relation. Both sentences below are taken from Bošković (2008).

- (17) a. Someone thinks that Mary solved every problem.
b. Someone thinks that every problem, Mary solved.

Bošković argues that the topicalization has freezing effect. The topicalized noun phrase in (17b) cannot undergo quantifier raising because it is located in an operator position before quantifier raising takes place. Rizzi (2006) deals with freezing effect in terms of the criterial properties of the position occupied by the moved item. In a clause such as *which book should you read?*, Rizzi (2006) claims that the *wh*-phrase *which book* has two interpretive properties. The first is that it is a patient of the verb *read*; the second property is that it is an interrogative operator. While the first property is of a semantic nature, the second property is criterial. Criterial position is determined by "Criteria" which require that a specifier-head configuration between a given head and question words, Topics and Foci. Rizzi's Criterial Freezing claims that a "phrase meeting a criterion is *frozen* in place" (Rizzi, 2006, p.112) [Emphasis added]. The following examples illustrate that the *wh*-phrase cannot undergo further movement in (18b) because it has met the criterial properties of the specifier position of CP in the embedded clause.

- (18) a. Bill wonders [which book C [she read t]]
b. *Which book C does Bill wonder [t C [she read t]]?

¹ Arab grammarians' grammatical – function hierarchy is similar to the relational hierarchy (cf. Johnson, 1977) which claims that the subject outranks the direct object and the direct object outranks the indirect object.

In this paper, I restrict the use of the term *freeze* to the DP which contains a reflexive possessive pronoun. Depending on the configurational structure and the relative position of this DP with respect to other constituents within the c-commanding domain, its movement is sometimes not allowed; i.e. it is frozen in its base position.

Let us now see how the condition (16) is satisfied in (13) but not in (10) and (14) above. (10) is ungrammatical because the coreferential pronoun within the subject is not c-commanded by the object antecedent. Therefore, the object is required to move to a position preceding the subject in order to c-command the coreferential pronoun, as in (12) above. Since the c-command relation between the antecedent (the object) and the coreferential pronoun is achieved by movement of the former, we find that, in conformity with (16) above, the movement of the subject to a preverbal position is completely disallowed.

- (19) **sahib-u-hu_i* *dahana* *al-bayt_i-a*
 owner-nom-it_i painted.3MS the-house_i-acc
 'Its owner painted the house.'

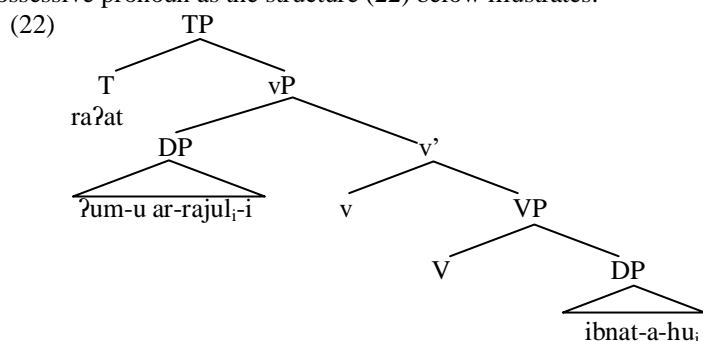
Put differently, subject movement to a preverbal position induces a violation of the AFC condition. One might ask then why the object movement which contains the coreferential pronoun in (13) does not violate this condition. The answer to this question is straightforward. The base position of the subject is higher than that of the object (see the structure (9) above). The c-command relation between the coreferential pronoun within the object and its antecedent (the subject) is established while both elements are in their base positions. Therefore, the condition (16) allows the movement of the object across the subject. In fact, the object can move not only to a position preceding the subject but also to a preverbal position. In a sharp contrast with (19), the movement of the object with the coreferential pronoun to a preverbal position is acceptable as the grammaticality of (20) below suggests.

- (20) *bayt-a-hu_i* *dahana* *at-tajir_i-u*
 house-acc-his_i painted.3ms the-merchant_i-nom
 'The merchant painted his house.'

Building on this discussion, we return now to account for the ungrammaticality of (14) above, repeated below as (21) for convenience. In this sentence, the object which has the coreferential reflexive pronoun appears in a position preceding the subject which has the antecedent within its the structure. In contrast with (13) above, this object movement here renders the sentence ungrammatical.

- (21) **raʔat* *ibnat-a-hu_i* *ʔum-u* *ar-rajul_i-i*
 saw.3fs daughter-acc-his_i mother-nom the-man_i-gen
 'The man's mother saw his daughter.'

One possible scenario to account for the difference between (21) and (13) above and why the movement of the object with the anaphoric pronoun is possible in (13) while it is not in (21) is to assume that in the VSO variant of (21) the antecedent *ar-rajul* which is contained with the DP structure of the subject can by no means c-command the reflexive possessive pronoun as the structure (22) below illustrates:



This means, in other words, that the possessive pronoun is not anaphoric, and it is free in this context. However, this conclusion cannot be taken for granted. If the possessive pronoun were free, its appearance before or after the subject (i.e. VSO or VOS word orders) would raise no problems. The possessive pronoun cannot refer to the noun *ar-rajul-u* if it follows it; the sentence is acceptable only if the DP object which contains the possessive pronoun remains in situ, as in (15) above, repeated here as (23), which suggests that the possessive pronoun is bound locally and this implies that a type of c-command relation is present.

- (23) *raʔat* *ʔum-u* *ar-rajul_i-i* *ibnat-a-hu_i*
 saw.3fs mother-nom the-man_i-gen daughter-acc-his_i
 'The man's mother saw his daughter.'

In fact, the sentence (23) is problematic and its behaviour casts doubts on the validity of the condition (16) above. On the one hand, its grammaticality suggests that there must be a kind of c-command relation that allows the anaphoric reading of the coreferential possessive pronoun contained within the structure of the object. On the other hand, it seems to obey the condition (16) above; the movement of the unc-commanded anaphoric reflexive renders the sentence ungrammatical. Accordingly, the current version of AFC, as represented in (16) above, doesn't capture (21). To propose

a unified analysis that account for all the instances of the anaphoric possessive pronouns discussed so far, I revisit the condition (16) above in the following section.

IV. TOWARDS AN ANALYSIS

I argue that an explanation for how the coreference relation is established between the antecedent and the reflexive possessive pronoun in (23) above is obtained by adopting the notion of indirect binding (cf. Kayne, 1994; Hornstein, 1995; Boeckx, 2003). According to Hornstein (1995), binding of a coreferential pronoun by a non-c-commanding antecedent is possible under what he calls the notion of “almost c-command” (p. 108). He proposes that the specifier position of a given DP can acquire the c-command domain of the whole DP; in other words, he argues that a pronoun can be bound by its antecedent if this antecedent c-commands the pronoun or when the maximal projection that dominates the antecedent c-commands the pronoun.

I extend Hornstein’s (1995) notion of *almost c-command*, and call it *indirect c-command*, to our present analysis and propose that in (23) the antecedent can bind the coreferential pronoun because the maximal projection that contains the antecedent, i.e. the whole DP, c-commands the possessive pronoun within the structure of the object. In other words, the coreferential pronoun is c-commanded indirectly by the antecedent.

However, this kind of indirect c-command has to be distinguished from the normal c-command, which I will refer to here as direct c-command.² In the light of this distinction, I revise the condition (16) above as follows:

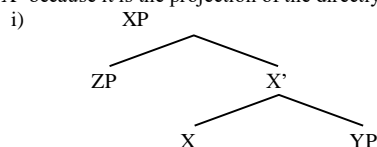
- (24) A reflexive possessive pronoun along with the DP within which it exists is frozen in its base position if it is not **directly** c-commanded by its antecedent at the stage of External Merge.

The revised version of AFC in (24) above captures all the examples discussed so far. It implies, on the one hand, that a DP which contains a reflexive pronoun can move from its base position if the direct c-command relation between the antecedent and the reflexive possessive pronoun is achieved when they are first merged. On the other hand, indirect c-command (i.e. almost c-command, using Hornstein’s term) suffices to allow coreference and binding between the reflexive possessive pronoun within the structure of the object and its antecedent within the structure of the subject, but it does not allow object movement. It explains perfectly why the object movement is obligatory in (12) and optional in (13) above. In (12), as discussed earlier in the previous section, object movement is obligatory to bind the coreferential reflexive possessive pronoun within the structure of the subject. Because this c-command relation is achieved by Internal Merge (i.e. object movement) the subject becomes frozen; in conformity with the AFC, its movement to a preverbal position is not possible; accordingly, (19) above is ungrammatical. However, in (13) the reflexive possessive pronoun within the object is c-commanded by its antecedent at the stage of External Merge. Therefore, the object is not frozen and it can optionally move to a position preceding the subject. The condition also captures (23) above. The object cannot move because, in accordance with what the condition requires, the reflexive possessive pronoun is not c-commanded directly by its antecedent. As a result, it cannot move. Building on the behavior of the examples above and on the presented discussion, we conclude that different MSA word orders achieved by object movement are restricted. When reflexive possessive pronouns are present, the movement of the DP phrase containing them, be it the subject or the object, is attributed to two constraints. The first is AFC (24) above, and the second is related to whether the c-command relation is achieved at the stage of the External Merge or the stage of the Internal Merge.

V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

To summarize the discussion and conclude, object movement across the subject is optional, in principle. However, depending on the binding (and c-command) relations and on whether the reflexives are contained within the DP structure of the subject or the object, object movement becomes obligatory or disallowed. Object movement to a position that linearly precedes the subject is obligatory when the subject structure contains a reflexive possessive pronoun that is coreferential with the object. However, in contexts where the antecedent within the structure of subject does not directly c-command the anaphoric possessive pronoun within the structure of the object, object movement is disallowed, which is not the case when direct c-command is achieved; the object with the possessive reflexive pronoun moves optionally to a position preceding the subject antecedent. These different possibilities of object movement which is strongly associated with the presence of reflexive possessive pronouns within the c-commanding domain result in different word orders. I argued that the movement of a DP containing a reflexive pronoun is subject to AFC that

² My definition of indirect c-command in this paper departs from Zubizarreta’s (1998) definition. She distinguishes between direct c-command and indirect c-command; the former corresponds to the standard definition of c-command. However, the latter holds between a specifier and its sister. In the structure (i) below, the ZP in the specifier position directly c-commands both the head X and the complement YP, and indirectly c-commands its sister X’ because it is the projection of the directly c-commanded items.



requires an established direct c-command relation at the stage of External Merge; if this requirement is not met, movement is not permitted and the DP containing the reflexive is frozen in its base position.

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The Semantic Structure of Color Terms in Arabic: A Cognitive Approach

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Abstract—The acquisition of the ability of perceiving and naming colors through language is an important topic in which languages vary and differ. The construction of color concepts and naming them are directly influenced by the culture and environment of each society. This can be noted by observing two aspects: Cognitive Semantics and its effect on the collective mind. This study focuses on the cognitive foundations of color terms in Arabic, and the semantic relation between the color concepts and terms in selected examples from both old and new usage of these color terms in Arabic. The study aims to cover the most dominant semantic components for color terms in the Arabic language, using the cognitive linguistic approach and the descriptive analytics method to determine the structure of cognitive perception of color terms in a language. Furthermore, the study stands on two pillars; the first reveals the way the conceptualization pattern of color terms occurs in Arab mindset displayed through selected examples of theoretical data on cognitive semantics, whereas the second addresses the semantic principle of color classification in Arabic. Finally, the conclusion, confirming the results about the notion that color naming in Arabic is based on the visual images associated with the colors in Arab environment, related to night and day. Hence, the color term becomes connected in the Arab mindset with the visual image, and under each color are colors similar to it in hue.

Index Terms—cognitive semantics, categorization, prototype, metaphor

I. INTRODUCTION

Some linguistic and cultural problems are related to our perception, categorization, and naming of colors. The universe, including its nature, human beings, languages, and distinct cultures, is a comprehensive subject that cannot be studied by linguistics alone; studying it is also not limited to the physical sciences alone. The humanities and physical sciences must work together to understand the language use aspects and their interpretation. This research represents a viewpoint based on the way in which the colors are expressed in Arabic language. Accordingly, this research studies the perceptual horizons for color terms in Arabic regarding semantic data relating the use of color terms “Ahmer (red), Asfar (yellow), Akhdhar (green), Azrag (blue), Abiyadh (white), and Aswad (black),” and discusses the semantic meaning of colors in Arabic regarding the semantic structure of colors, their classification, and their names.

This paper deals with the problem of the cognitive semantics of colors in Arabic, based on the cognitive sciences of linguistics. This is to reach a conceptual structure through which the meanings of color terms in Arabic language are formed, which in turns depends on the metaphorical perception of meaning first and the principle of classification or category second. Color metaphors in Arab culture are not limited to language alone, but they are found in our thinking, and in our classification of things around us. Language is an important source of evidence of how the conceptual system of vocabulary connotations operates in Arab mindset. This is based on the linguistic data of the use of color terms in ancient and contemporary Arabic. The views that we promote in this research have directly influenced by the linguists Lakoff & Johnson on the one hand (Lakoff & Johnson, 2009). and by what Eleanor Roch called the theory of prototypes and basic-level classes on the other hand (Rosch, 2013).

Cognitive Semantics

It is meant by semantics "the study of meaning", but the question that arises in this area is (what is the meaning?) Philosophers have discussed this question, and none of them provided a sufficient answer to it, and one of the reasons for the difficulty of answering such a question may be its formulation, as it raises two presupposition: The first is that what we refer to with the word 'meaning' is some kind of existence or reality; and the second is that what is referred to as meaning is similar in nature to what is in existence or reality, and we may call these, respectively: the presupposition of existence, and the presupposition of homogeneity (Lyons, 1987).

The literal semantic theory explains how the reference and the value of truthfulness related to linguistic expressions. It is the way that is expressed by common sense, whereby the words say something about the world. When I say, “A tree has red leaves,” I am referring to a type of tree that exists in the real world (red maple). When I point to something specific and say, "This is a tree," the demonstrative pronoun "this" refers to something in the world that was pointed to. Intuition also requires that sentences have truth-values because of how they relate to the world. A sentence such as "My name is Sarah" is a truthful sentence if a female named 'Sarah' said it and is an untruthful sentence if a female said it, her name is not 'Sarah'. Thus, the processing of linguistic meaning is related to the relationships that the language

establishes with what exists outside of it; Language has the property of referring to properties or things outside of it. Meaning located in the interaction between living things and their environment (Ghalim, 2010)).

Understanding the meaning of color accurately and specifically is an issue that is neither easy nor simple, as the meaning is a mental image that appears only as a coding in the color terms. The area of meaning includes the relationships of the terms to each other on the one hand, and the relationships of these terms with the outside world on the other hand. Colors are one of the basics of sensory perception, which are key factors in human communication, but for humans: Are the concepts of "yellow" or "green", as example, universal constants of humanity? In the sense that the biological makeup of the eye and brain are what shapes the concept of these colors, or that the culture and the surrounding environment shapes the concepts of colors in every human society in a unique way. Language does not express concepts accurately, meaning that there is no clear and specific list of the concepts and their corresponding names. "Language, in order to be able to convey accurate ideas that involve complex relationships between different concepts, needs much more than a list of concepts." (Deutscher, 2015))

We can arrive at a meaning close to accuracy in the context of a cognitive semantic theory that considers natural language a mental representation, where the meaning that language conveys is shaped by the way the mind organized the experience. This information, which is manifested in linguistic representations, cannot refer to the real world but to projected world is the result of this structure and the product of mental organization. If language has a connection with the world outside, then it is through the mediation of perceptual systems, such as the visual system and auditory system, and not through a mysterious relationship between the mind and the world, such as the intentional relationship or something else (ibid).

The perception system of color terms semantics in Arab mindset

Color in Lisan Al-Arab book by Ibn Manzoor (1993, p. 585) is defined as "a (form/shape property), such as as-Sawad (blackness) and Al-Humarah (redness). The color of a thing is what distinguishes it from others". The definition of color here shows us the direct relationship between color, darkness, and light. The boundary that draws the line between things and gives them their visible form is the color. Color cannot be perceived in darkness, and it can only be perceived in the presence of light.

The cognitive semantics using the data of cognitive psychology explains the mind mechanism of understanding the meaning of color terms. The human visual memory represents visual information by modeling its components and external characteristics. Language provides us with data that can lead to general principles for understanding the meaning of each color term. These principles require not separate words or individual perceptions, but whole systems of perceptions. Also, these principles are often of metaphorical nature, requiring an understanding of the meaning of for example, 'blackness' through human experience with darkness, or the absence of light. We perceive 'whiteness' in a natural metaphorical way through light. Our natural perceptions are naturally reflected in our linguistic expressions. So Akdhar (green) means good and prosperity, Aswad (black) means dark and bad, and Abyidh (white) means light and purity.

The problem of color perception is related to the local culture. In a study conducted by Brent Berlin and Paul Kay on color perception, when they compared common color terms in different cultures (European, Asian, African, and American), they went on to say that there is a group of names, depending on the nature of the languages and the people's lives. If some of these languages and peoples have a rich or poor list of color terms, they, for example, may be characterized by a clear dominance of semantics of 'white' color versus a lack of semantics of 'green' color or vice versa. This sensitivity towards colors is relevant to peoples' lifestyles. The inhabitants of the Arctic possess in their language dictionary a wide range of color terms for white because they are living all year round in a snowy and icy environment, while the Amazon Indians who live in the midst of the forests have a series variety of names that are especially related to the colors green and brown (Aharchaou, 2002). In the Ethiopian language, the meaning of colors is associated with the objects in nature. The color white is expressed by the words for milk, ash, foam, ice, and cotton. Black is described as darkness, charcoal, and jinn/devil. Red color is associated with blood, fire, amber, pepper and dusk. The green color is described by words derived from tree leaf, cabbage and grass. The yellow color is taken from flower, yolk, banana, and honey (Leyew, 2016).

As a cognitive being, the speaker has the visual experience of colors that appear in the environment in which he lives. Here, the concept of visual experience does not refer specifically to the individual experience of a specific person, but rather the experience that we, as human beings are living on the surface of the earth, agrees upon and interacts about it with the community. It is also an active changing element that is affected by the changes of humans and their interaction in their natural, social, and cultural surroundings. The human mind is thus instrumental in determining the semantic perceptions of colors, and in creating new semantic perceptions as well. (Lakoff & Johnson, 2009).

To build a correct perception of the semantic meaning of color terms in the Arabic, a multidimensional approach that considers linguistic and non-linguistic indicators is required. This is because human mind is not neutral; it is directly affected by human experience, one of the most important elements of which is the human possession of an erect body with a head and eyes affected by light and color. In addition, the meaning is related to an imaginary projection using category and metaphor. Perhaps, the best quote to illustrate the use of color terms in Arabic language is what Safi al-Din al-Hilli said after he took his revenge:

- 1) *Sal Al-Rimah Al-Awali an M'alina*
Wastsh~hid Al-Biydh hal Khab ar-Rja Fina
 2) *Biydh Snaiou'ana Sowd Waqaieona*
Kodhr Marabi'auna Houmr Mawadhina (al-Omari, 2002).

In English literally translates as:

- 1) *Ask the high rising spears, of our aspirations*
Bring witness the whites (swords), did we lose hope
White are our deeds, black are our battles
Green are our fields, red are our swords.

"Whites" in the first poetic verse mean "swords", and the Arabs in the past called the sword "white". "White weapon" is currently defined as "every tool that is incisive, perforating, shattered or bruising tool, such as swords, daggers, arrows, lances, harpoons, bayonet sticks with a spear and fists, and the like". According to the Saudi Weapons and Ammunition Regulation issued on 08/30/2005, while "whites" in the second poetic verse is a metaphor for the good deeds (favours), "black are our battles" is a metaphor for wars, "green are our fields" is a metaphor for goodness and prosperity, and "red are our swords" is a metaphor for many killings. Here, the target domain, which is the events from (deeds, wars, goodness, and courage), for the poet, is associated, respectively, with the source domain, which is the color terms (white, black, green and red). Since the concept of (color) is used to build the concept of (event) by depicting it with concepts and relationships derived from the color domain.

Al-Aswad (Black): Arabic dictionaries define color terms by providing a general analysis of how people understand colors, or define a color by its opposite, or through systemic metaphors such as: al-Aswad (black) is dark, Al-Abiadh (white) is purity, and al-Akhdhar (green) is prosperity, and al-Ahmar (red) is the 'Ajami (*an Arabic word meaning mute, which refers to someone whose mother tongue is not Arabic*), or al-Aswad (black) is jinn/devil and as-Sawad (blackness) is the majority.. etc. Ibn Manzoor says in section of the letters (Sein Waw Dal [س و د] [*in English = s w d*]), "as-Sawad (blackness) is the opposite of al-Baiyadh (whiteness) ... and Sawad al-Qawm (*literally=the blackness of people*) is the great majority of people." Here, he first defined color by comparing it to its opposite, then borrowed the color term to describe the great majority of people.

In another context, Ibn Manzoor cites the word Ahmar (red), with a hadith narrated on the authority of Abu Dharr that he heard the Prophet (may Allah's peace and blessings be upon him) say "I have been given five things which were not given to any amongst the Prophets before me: I was sent to the Ahmar (red) and the Aswad (black), and I have been made victorious with the awe from a one month distance ..etc". Then, in his interpretation of the meaning of these two-color terms in this context, he quotes Shammar's saying: "It means Arabs and Ajam (non-Arabs)." He explains this by that the skin color of Arabs was primarily known to be as-Sumrah (brown) and al-Adamah (dark brown) whereas the non-Arabs were known to be al-Baiyadh (white) and al-Humrah (reddish). Here we notice that the explanation of the description combines the names of the colors that are close to the semantic field of "black", which are (as-Somrah [brown] and al-Adamah [deep brown]), and the names of the colors that are close to the semantic field of "red", which are (al-Baiyadh [white] and al-Humrah [reddish]). Here we can understand the direct similarity relationship between 'red' and 'redness' colors. But it is difficult to explain the similarity relationship between red and white colors! This will be shown later in the semantic cognitive analysis of the contexts of using these two-color terms in Arabic usage. It is difficult to completely distinguish between the literal and the metaphorical use of color terms. In another interpretation of the meaning of the above-mentioned hadith that: The Prophet meant humans and jinn, as it was narrated on the authority of Abu Mashal that he said about the Prophet's saying "I was sent to the Ahmar (red) and the Aswad (black)": that the Prophet means by black 'the jinn', and by red 'the humans'. He explained the reason for the naming of 'humans' as 'red' by the blood that is in them and leaves the reason for the naming of 'jinn' as 'black' without explanation. This is maybe because that the two terms 'jinn' and 'black', in the Arabic usage, have the same semantic meaning. This is because the origin of the meaning of the word "jinn" (by doubling the letter 'Noon') is "hide a thing; it is hidden, which means cover it. Everything was hidden from you, it was covered from you. Night descend: it is so dark and became so black." (Ibn Manzoor, 1993) Here it becomes clear how the term 'black' acquired its meaning. The similarity between black and covering something from your sight and the darkness of the night is clear.

The color term 'black' acquired its semantic meaning in the Arab environment, which first knew black color in the darkness of the night, and then used it as a metaphor for things which resembles it in color. Everything is in darkness and its color and shape disappeared, even partially, is called 'black'. It is said: "Asawd An-Nas (literally meaning black people) passed by us, it is meant by 'black people' a person, because a person from afar is seen black (ibid) as-Sawad (literally the blackness) is the group of palms and trees for their greenish and dark in color. It was said: this is because greenness is close to blackness (ibid). Thus, we notes that the use of 'black' term extended to meanings other than the basic meaning. Dark or deep colors are called Aswad (black). According to the scientific classification of colors, white and black colors are not included in the color classification. 'Black' and 'white' terms are metaphors for expressing light and darkness in real life. When we enter a well-lighted place, we do not say this place is 'white', rather, we say it is Modha'a (lighted). According to Al-Skafi (2018) when we enter a dark place, we do not say this place is 'black', rather, we say it is Modhlim (dark). The use of white term or black term here is to indicate the degree of brightness or the degree of darkness of a color. Therefore, the green or red or dark blue color, are called by the Arab, black.

As for the use of the meaning of the term black in the context of modern Arabic language, it appears in many verbal correlatives that show us the cognitive dimensions of the meaning of 'black' term (Aswad) in the modern Arabic context. It is meant by verbal correlation "the words that stick and join together to form units that are frequently used and circulated among people, then the words forming these units do not come to mind individually, but as holistic units that are often distinguished by being intuitive and having fixed structures (Haji & Ibrahim, 2018). This includes the 'black' term, which is verbally associated with contexts of resentment of actions, events, or persons. For example, when the supplication is made against a person who has done a disgraceful act, it is said: Sawad Allah Wajhak meaning "May Allah make your face black". On the other hand, if a person has done a good deed, it is said: Baiydh Allah Wajhak meaning "May Allah make your face white." A day that carries with it a bad event is called "Tarikh Aswad meaning (A Black History), Ayam Sawda'a meaning (Black Days), and Safha Sawda'a meaning (a Black Page)," and it is said Aihfadh Qirshak Al-Abiyadh lil-Yawm al-Aswad meaning (Save Your White Money for the Black Day.) 'White Money' is used as a metaphor for prosperity, and 'Black Day' is used for a metaphor for the day of poverty and need. Malafah Aswad meaning "He has a 'black' file" is said about a person with bad deeds, and Qalbah Aswad meaning (His heart is black) is said about the person with malicious intents. The market in which illegal goods are traded is called a Swq Sawda'a meaning (black market). And for the only small bad deed among a lot good deeds, it is said: Nuqtah Sawda'a meaning (A black dot in a white paper), and Nadharah Sawda meaning (Black glasses) is metaphor for pessimism.

When looking at the contexts in which the supplication "May Allah make your face white", we can easily notice that this supplication is not limited to praying for people with a specific skin color; It is completely unrelated to skin color; but rather it is related to feelings of pride and for the person to be known among people with good deeds. From afar, in Sawad Al-Nas meaning (the crowd of people), a person cannot be known. This is because the person cannot be recognized or seen with a large number of people or because it is difficult to know the identity of the person or see his features as a result of the distance. Therefore, we pray for people of all skin colors by saying: "May Allah make your face white," meaning, "May Allah makes you known among people by doing good deeds."

Abiyadh (White): According to Lisan Al-Arab book, 'al-Bayadh' (whiteness) is the opposite of 'as-Sawad' (blackness); the color Abiyadh (white) can be found in animals, plants, and other similar things. In a hadith of the Prophet (PBUH) he said: "I have been given the two treasures: Al-Ahmar wa Al-Abiyad meaning (the red and the white)." The 'red treasure' refers to the kingdom of the Levant and the 'white treasure' refers to the kingdom of Persia. The people of Persia are referred to by the color term Abiyadh (white), either because most of their money was silver, or because of the whiteness of their skin. The people of the Levant are referred to by the color term Ahmar (red), either because most of their money was gold, or because of the redness of their skin.

The most hated thing for an Arab was to have a child born to him from his female slave wife, and this is according to what was reached by Yusef Khalif (1959). Sometimes the Arabs enslaved their children from their female slave wives, and refused to recognize them. The worst luck and the lowest social standing among those half-breeds were the children born of black female slave wives who inherited blackness from their mothers. The Arabs hated black as much as they loved white (Khalif, Yusef. (1959). Quotes: "Biydh Al-Wojwh Bani Am wa Ikhwan" (literally meaning: Their faces are white they are cousins and brothers)." (Al-Jamhi, n.d). "Biydh Al-Wojwh ala Al-A'dw Thiqal (literally meaning: Their faces are white*they are heavy on

the enemy) Al-Muthanna, (1998). In Surat Al-Imran (verse: 106) "On the Day [some] faces will turn Abiyadh (white) and [some] faces will turn Aswad (black)." (*in this verse "white" is a metaphor for radiant and shining*) "The inhabitants of Paradise are marked by their white faces"(Al-Tabari, (2001). However, this does not mean that Arabs describe a white face as a sign of beauty only, but rather used it in the context of pride in beauty as well as purity of reputation. And "their faces are white is meant they did not commit shameful acts that would bring shame upon them." (Al-Muthanna, n.d) Thus the meaning of the term white here relates to the concept of a person known for purity of reputation. Among these are the poetic verses of Hassan bin Thabit in praise of the family of Jaffna: (Al-Qurashi, 1981).

1) *Bid Al-Wujoh Karimatn Ah-Sabuhum** Shum Al-'Onoofi mi al-Tirazi al-Awali*

2) *Yughshawn Hata ma Tahir Kilabuhum ** La Yas'alwon an as-Sawad al-Muqbili*

In English literally translates as:

1) Their faces are white and they are noble descent ** Their noses are high and they are first-class

('white faces' here refers to purity and chivalry/generosity)

2) Many people come to them, so that, their dogs no longer bark **

They do not ask about the blackness of people coming to them

('blackness of people' here refers to a large number of people)

In the Holy Quran text, the Abiyadh (white) color term was mentioned twelve times in the contexts of referring to the divine power, describing the drink of the people of Paradise, the reflection of good deeds on the faces of the righteous people of Paradise, and explaining the temporal meaning associated with acts of worship. In Surat Yusuf (verse 84) "his eyes became white from grief", the 'white' term turns into a pathological state to denote the extent of the calamity (Al-Jahiz, Amr. n.d). It should be noted that the Arabs did not always prefer the white color. It was preferred except for eye color and hair color. The eye does not become white except from grief and disease, and hair color turning white is a sign of aging and elderliness. If the Arabs say so-and-so (male) is white or so-and-so (female) is white, then the meaning is that the purity of his/her honor and he/she did not do a disgraceful act. If the Arabs, about so-and-so (male)

or so-and-so (female), say his/her face is Abiyadh (white), they mean the purity of his/her face color from freckles/wrinkles and pimples (Ibn Manzoor, n.d).

The Arabs also say Al-Ayam Al-Baidh (the white days), so they use the term 'white' as a description of the days in the middle of the lunar month when the moon is full and bright. They are the nights of thirteen, fourteen, and fifteen of every lunar month. "Among the white nights is the thirteenth night of every lunar month, and Arabs said: Affra Night" (Qutrub, 1985). It is meant by 'Affra Night' the thirteenth night of every lunar month. "Al-'Afar" (*an Arabic word from which the word Affra is derived=dust in English*) is "the top soil", its color is "red-dust". 'A'afar antelope: it is a type of antelope with a white-reddish color (*Arabian gazelle*). "Aufrah" meaning is a white color but is not an extremely bright white. It is a color close to the color of the earth's surface (Ibn Manzoor, 1993). This includes the saying of the Arabs: "They had Al-Baydha'a (*the white one*) and Al-Sawda'a (*the black one*) (Ibn Abd Rabbo, 1983) Al-Baydha'a is the dry area of land without vegetation, and Al-Sawda'a is the very green area of land with trees and plants.

Ahmar (Red): According to Lisan Al-Arab book: "al-Humrah (redness): It is a well-known middle color" (Ibn Manzoor, 1993). The intermediate colors, in the words of the Arabs, are the colors ranged between black and white. Al-Biruni says: "As for the intermediate colors, they are the colors between the bright white and dark black tracts in the mountains" (Al-Biruni, 1990). In Arabic dictionaries, we find the word Ahmar (red) is used to refer to words that can be regarded as synonymous metaphors, such as al-Nabid (wine), al-Lahm (meat), and ad-Dam (blood), or in entries referring to death, life, gold, and saffron. Dictionaries do not indicate how we understand the term Ahmar (red) from these synonymous metaphors, or how people understand the meaning of the color red, and they do not clarify how to distinguish the boundaries that separate between its semantic meanings for red color and yellow color. Perceptions that are used through metaphors to define other color perceptions in turn correspond to natural species in human experience. If we look at the light saffron water, we will see it is yellow. While before soaking it in water, its color is a bit red. Therefore, you find that saffron in some places is mentioned to refer to things of yellow color, and in other places to refer to things of red color.

Ibn Faris (395 AH) quoted from the Arabs that they said: "Al-Hussn (beauty) is Ahmar (red)". He explains: "Al-Humrah (rosy white skin woman) is not hated by almost all souls." And their saying about the rain that: "Gaith Himro" (literally: red rain = heavy rain), if it was raining extremely hard, and the rain swept the lands away (Ibn Faris, 1979). Naming the rain as "Red Rain" is taken from the Arab environment, as the dry land color is light red with white (Affra), and if a heavy rain falls on it, its color turns to red brown, so they called it "Gaith Ahmer" literally meaning red rain. An-Naka': An Arabic word that describes everything red. Al-Nak'ah (*singular of An-Naka' in Arabic*): An Arabic name for a fruit tree of some kind, its produce is red (Ibn Saidah, 2000). In our words today, we say: "Ahmer Nāqī'a" meaning "very red". And we say "Mawt Ahmar" (literally: A Red Death); "Mawt Ahmar" means "the violent death by murder." This is because, in this type of murder, a lot of blood is spilled, which is red in color. "Mawt Ahmar" as a metaphor may be used to refer to the severity of death in the war. Abu Zaid Al-Tai says in describing the lion:

*Ida 'Alqat Qarnan Khatatif Qarnih ** R'aa Al-Mawt Rai Al-Ain Aswada Ahmar*

In English translates literally as:

(When it [the lion], by the claws of its paw, catches a prey's horn

**It [the prey] will see with its own eyes the black and red death meaning (it will inevitably die))

"It (the prey) will see with its own eyes the black and red death"; the poet said, "with its own eyes", as an affirmation. Because death cannot be seen by itself with the eye, he then said, "the black and red death". Black and red are colors, which are not seen except by the eye. He portrayed death as a visible thing, so we could understand it (Ibn Saidah, 2000). Black is the color of the unknown, death is black, and red is the color of blood. Therefore, the color term Aswad (black) is always associated with death and fear, and the color term Ahmar (red) is always associated with death caused by murder.

Akhddhar (Green): According to Lisan Al-Arab book: "al-Khudhrah (greenness): It is a color; the color Akhdar (green) can be found in animals, plants and other similar things. Ibn al-'Aarabi said that, the color term Akhdar (green) is used to describe the water as well. Green water is water that is greenish in color because of its purity. Allah the Almighty said: "fatusbihi al-ardu mukhdarratan" meaning "Do you not see that Allah has sent down rain from the sky and the earth becomes green?" (*Quraan*) Akhdar (green) is a color between Abiyadh (white) and Aswad (black), and it is closer to black. This is why Akhdar (green in color) is referred to as Aswad (black in color) and vice versa. "Sawad Al-Iraq meaning (Blackness of Iraq)", is said for a place where greenery abounds (al-Isfahani, 1992) Al-Khuadra (greenness/dark green) was called Al-Dahmah in Allah Almighty's saying: "*Mudhammatani*" (*Quran*), meaning (two gardens are dark green [in color].)

A person with Aswad (dark brown) skin color may be called Akhdar (green). Al-Khudr: It is an Arab tribe, so named because of (Khodhrat Alwanihim) meaning (the greenish color of their skin (Al-Zubaidi, 1965). By 'greenish' in people's colors, he means: dark brown; Al-Lahabi says:

*Wa Ana Al-Akhddhar mn Y'arifuni?***Akhdar Al-Jildat fi Baiyt Al-Arab*

This translates literally as follows: (I am Al-Akhddar (the green man), who knows me?)

*** A man with green skin color from the house of the Arabs)

By his words "I am Al-Akhddar" meaning (I am a man with dark brown skin color), he wants to say that he is from a pure Arab race because the skin color of Arabs was primarily known to be as-Sumrah (brown)" (Al-Jawhari, 1990). Ibn Berri says: "By Al-AKhdhar "green" he meant that his skin color is brown, but by this he wants to point to the purity of

his lineage, and that he is of pure Arab race, because the early Arabs describe their colors as 'dark brown/blackness' and the colors of the non-Arabs as 'red/redness'. "Banu Khudayr (literally meaning the descendants of greenish man): They are those who were born of black and white parents" (Kahala, 1994). Here we note that the green color ranges from white-green to black-green, and the darker it becomes, the Arabs call it black.

Asfar (Yellow): According to Lisan Al-Arab book: "al-Sufra (yellowness): It is a color; the color Asfar (yellow) can be found in animals, plants and other similar things. Ibn al-'Aarabi said that, the color term Asfar (yellow) is used to describe the water as well." Here we see that the yellow color, according to Ibn Manzur's description, can be seen in everything, animals, plants, and water as well. In the Arabs mindset, it is associated with things in which the yellowish color appears.

On the other hand, there is a cultural perception of the color term Asfar (yellow), as it is found in the plant, when it dried out, it will be seen dry and yellow after its liveliness and greenness. Allah the Almighty Said: "*fatarahu musfarran*" meaning "then they (the plants) dry and you see them turned yellow." (*Quraan*). This means that when the plants dry out, you will see them dry and yellow after their liveliness and greenness. If the plant dries out, it turns from green to yellow (al-Ṭabarī, n.d). The Arabs called the Romans, "Banu al-Asfar". "Banu al-Asfar: Romans of Byzantine" (Ibn Manzoor, 1993). Here we are confused, and it is difficult for us to understand the reason for why the color of Byzantine Romans described as yellow? Is it because of the color of their skin, or the color of their hair? Or is it because that an Abyssinian fathered children from a Roman woman, and these children inherited the whiteness from the Byzantine Romans and the blackness from the Abyssinian, so they were yellow and black in color? Or is it because they have descended from the Abyssinian and the Arabs for the person with Aswad (dark brown) color skin, they called him the Asfar (yellow)?

(Al-Katani, 1981). Here, the semantic meaning of the color term Asfar (yellow) is a local related to the Arab cultural context. Therefore, the Arab can understand that "as-Sufrah (yellowness) also means as-Sawad (blackness)." (Ibn Saidah, 2000). This is what Al-Fara explains by saying: "Al-Sufr (the yellow ones): the black camels. When you see any black camel, you will see that it is yellowish in color, and this is why 'the camels with black color' were called by the Arabs, 'Al-Sufr (the yellow ones)'." (Al-Azhari, n.d). The yellow color with its tones that ranges from golden to red appear in the Arab environment in saffron and gold, which are called: "Al-Asfaran (the two yellow things)." (Al-Zubaidi, 1965). Here, we find that the semantic meaning of the two color terms black and yellow was formed from a visual image derived from the Arab environment through a single object, which is (the camel), because the black camels are always imbued with some yellow. The visual image of the black camel determined the semantic meaning of the color term Asfar (yellow) as referring to the black color. The semantic meaning of a color term is thus formed through another color term.

The degrees of the color yellow in the Arab cultural context also named as follows: "Light yellow, close to white, tends to red like the color of the earth" is called ('A'afar).

This includes "Yellow-'A'afar". (Koraa' Al-Naml, 1989). Al-Asfar Al-'As'hab meaning (the reddish-yellow in color): Al-Ma'il ila Al-Baiyadh meaning (whitish-Yellow in color). It was said: Asfar Khalis meaning (pure yellow); and very close to white: "Asfar Fadhih" (Al-Qalqashandī, 1982). or "Asfar Dahabi meaning (golden yellow)" (Al-Nuwayrī, 2002).

Azraq (Blue): In the Arabic context, the color term Azraq (blue) is associated with the color of the eyes, water, and blade. Ibn as-Sikkit said: "Nasl Azraq baiyn Az-Zaraq (A clear blue blade), if it is a very clear. For the clear water, it is said: Azraq (blue). Zawraq meaning (boat): Is a type of ships." Here we see that the name of a boat in Arabic "Zawraq" was derived from Azraq (blue), the color of the clear water. Zurqat Al-Aiynain (blue eyes in color) means strong eyesight or for blue pupil color. Among this is "Zarqa al Yamama" (she was a blue-eyed Arab woman), is an example for Arabs in terms of good eyesight and visual acuity (Al-Thaalibi, n.d), Al-Aiyn Al-Zarqa (the blue eye) could mean the blue blind eye as a result of a disease. "It is when the black part of the eye covered with white," (Ibn Manzoor, 1993), so the eye becomes blue in color. In describing the eye, if its pupil is like glass, it is said: Zargaa meaning (a blue eye in color). (al-Dīnawarī, 1997). Regarding the variety of grapes in Taif, and in describing the color of one of its types, which is called "Umm Habib," Abu Hatim said: It is a grape with large clusters and large blue-black grains." (Al-Dīnawarī, 1997).

II. THE SEMANTIC PRINCIPLE OF CLASSIFICATION OF COLORS IN ARABIC LANGUAGE

Cognitive linguistics has benefited from Rosch's findings in her thesis, which seeks to derive formal models of human memory about the concepts and their processes. She concluded that defining things strictly would not be congruent with the real psychological status. The objects that are perceived by the senses do not have strict and well-defined boundaries. Instead of there being a separation between conceptual areas, there are marginal areas between objects. To provide maximum information with minimum cognitive effort, the brain resort to categorize objects and concepts. So we see a great deal of variation in the way that colors are described by the Arabs. The Arabic language does not literally reflect what is happening in the retina of the eye. Rather, culture interacts with biological aspect in the cognition of colors and thus their names. Therefore, we see interference between the color terms green and black, red and black, blue and green, and yellow and black.

Terms of many colors, with their different gradations, do not refer to specific objects or shapes in the world, but rather they refer to classified color categories. For example, the black color (Aswad) category terms refer to darkness, night and the unknown, which directly reflects what the Arab see in his environment. The color term Aswad (black), in the Arabic usage, is used to refer to a group of colors that were classified as dark colors.

The perception of colors goes through certain stages, depending on the daily stimuli that an Arab receives from his environment. Because daily stimuli exceed the human capacity due to their large number, the human decides the most important data/information to be aware of and based on this importance, the data/information be selected and then be perceived.

In the Arab experience, the selection of color terms is related to the colors of the most striking things in the Arab environment, which are the colors appear in the sky during the day or night, or that appear on the surface of the earth in sand or trees, or that appears on the Arabian desert animals, hence the second stage of perception, which is selection. After the selection of most prominent colors in the Arab environment, these colors and the similar or close colors to them are classified into categories indicate each other, and the perception of each color is associated with the first natural phenomenon that resembles it in color or from which the Arab borrowed the name of the color. Thus, we can interpret the semantic meanings of color terms based on the stimuli in the Arab environment that formed the common Arab experience in perceiving, naming and classifying color. Perception is a unified process that does not happen spontaneously, but rather passes through stages that allow the correct perception of stimuli and then choose from them what must be perceived.

Rosch's prototype theory is based on that all members of a category bear a family resemblance, even if in one feature, between the central meaning of the category and the concept of a prototype. In other words, the central exemplar of or the best central reference to dark colors is the color term Aswad (black). The idea of the prototype requires that the categories of dark colors are not composed of semantic components that are equidistant from the term Aswad (black) that combines them; Rather, the term Aswad (black) includes semantic components such as Qatm (dark in color) or Daakn (deep in color), which are the best exemplars denoting to these colors than others. By contrast, the central exemplar of and the best central reference to light/bright colors is the color term Abiyadh (white).

The semantic meaning of the color term Abiyadh "white", for example, is not found in the speaker's mind only, but is a matter of the entire linguistic community. The concept of color has a social nature, as individuals in society share linguistic roles through agreed synonyms with each element of the use of terms of color in a given context. So, if the word (red) belongs to the color group of white and if the word (green) belongs to the color group of black, we should decide to present a typical description of these two colors that members of the linguistic community agree on. (Wittgenstein, 2007).

Ironically, we always claim that we reject racism against any group in society, and specifically against black people. But our language exposes our insides that we hide from others. This appears in our expression when we say "His heart is black", as a metaphor that describes a person who is full of hatred. Or when we say "His heart is white" as a metaphor for purity and soundness of intention. And we describe all bad deeds as black, "black file, black history, blacklisted...etc." And when we pray for good for someone, we say: "May God make your face white." And when we pray for evil against someone, we say: "May God make your face black." Our unintended language always reveals what we are trying to hide in our intended language. In my opinion, expressing hatred of the color black, or fear of it, may have been an indication of intellectual childhood. In other words, intellectual maturity makes us perceive colors as being more diverse and acceptable without fear of dark colors, or a great desire for bright colors. This is because that the wide perception of what we feel from the sensory perception of colors makes them more acceptable, and makes us more understanding the meanings that their words refer to away from the limited understanding of Aswad (black) and Abiyadh (white) as two terms referring to evil and good.

For an Arab, color metaphors appear in his perception of the concept of color, but do not appear in his naming of color itself. Color naming by the Arabs is related to the way they think about the color. The semantic meaning of the two color terms Aswad (black) and Abiyadh (white) in the Arabic language directly reflects the Arab ideas about night and day, darkness and light, the unknown and the known, fear and safety. The semantic meaning of the color terms Asfar (yellow), Akhdhar (green) and Azraq (blue) directly reflects what the Arabs see in the desert sands, the waters of the valleys, the colors of camels and trees, and the colors of people's skin and eyes. The Arab's metaphor of these two-color terms (Aswad [black] and Abiyadh [white]) in particular is an essential tool with which he thinks and represents his vision of the world. These two-color metaphors are rooted in the Arab mentality and their appearance in linguistic use is one of the aspects of their realization.

III. CONCLUSION

What the eye perceives of colors are signs related to the human sensory experience. The color term does not have a specific and independent meaning, but rather its meaning is related to the total human experience. Managing the memories stored in our minds that are related to the perceptual dimensions of each color, enables us to contribute to improving the prevailing culture towards different colors. This is by guiding perception towards color-diversity and categorizing colors without taking a negative or racist attitude towards any color, and dealing with colors with

intellectual maturity and categorizing them according to their diversity without making any childish judgments against any color based on traditional perceptual fears related to light or darkness in every society.

The concept of color term in Arabic language is generally related to human experience. The Arab forms a visual image of a color, which is then linked in the Arab mindset to the color name, and under each color are colors similar to it in hue. The main reference to the semantic classification here is night and day; the day is something Abiyadh (white), and the night is something Aswad (black). All colors are visible in the daytime. The black and white colors represent two fulcrums from which the gradations of colors start, and each color that is darker is called Aswad (black), while the color, which is more lighter/brighter, is called Abiyadh (white). Therefore, it cannot be argued that there is a unified concept of color perception in all languages. In the ancient Arabic language, the semantic meaning of color terms is a spatial connotation related to the Arab environment, but recently color names/terms in Arabic language have become more accurate and more diverse, and each color group/category has a specific name/term. Hopefully, this study will lead to further research on modern color terms in the field of cognitive semantics.

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Translation Alternatives of Indonesian Public Signs

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Abstract—Public signs written in two languages are found everywhere in public places in Bali. Appropriate translations of the public signs could help foreigners get information and they also could reflect good image of the places. To be able to create better image of the place, deep investigation on the translations of public signs is needed. This study examined the translations of public signs from Indonesian into English found in Bali. Deploying the concept of translation equivalence by House (2015) and translation strategies by Malone (1988), this study focused on target text alternatives when a certain strategy was applied in translating public signs from Indonesian into English. The data were collected in two regions in Bali, i.e. Denpasar city and Badung regency. This research revealed that the Indonesian public signs were translated by applying strategies of substitution, amplification, reduction, condensation, and re-ordering. The strategies resulted in some translation alternatives. In some cases, the alternatives induced by the translation strategies applied involved the changes of pragmatic and textual meanings. However, they are semantically equivalent.

Index Terms—public signs, equivalence, translation alternatives

I. INTRODUCTION

Public signs become the windows of a place, especially the one that functions as tourist destination. When the signs are created in the right forms, they can direct foreigners and deliver correct information. So, the promotion of the tourism depends very much on how the signs are designed that the tourists will feel convenience and could get information in a short and comfortable way. One of the tourist destinations in Indonesia is Bali.

Bali as a tourist destination is visited every year by foreigners from many parts of the world. To support this, public signs are found everywhere in public places in Bali. Many public signs are written in two languages, Indonesian and English. Indonesian and English, to some extent, are linguistically and culturally different. How the public signs are designed in Indonesian is not always applicable for the culture of the English speakers. The different way in viewing world between Indonesian and English speakers could influence the way how the public signs are designed and translated from Indonesian into English. Public signs which are appropriately translated could give good impact to the place, since the image of the place is also reflected in the signs. Based on this consideration, the study on the translations of public signs from Indonesian into English is important to be investigated. The research results could give overview to the signs under study whether the translations need correcting or not.

Public signs have become many researchers' concerns. Numerous researches have been conducted in some places. One of them is in China. There have been a number of translation researches of Chinese public signs found (Liu, 2013; Ma, 2014; Beili & Tuo, 2015; Shi, 2014; Bi, 2017; He, 2019; Liang, 2019; Yu, 2019; Jia, 2020). The researches showed that public signs were examined from different points of view. Shi (2014) investigated public signs from the perspective of Functional Equivalence Theory; Jing (2014) from Eco-translatology; Beili & Tuo (2015) from Linguistic Landscape; and Jia (2020) from Skopos Theory. This present study viewed the translations of public signs from different perspective. It was to reveal the translations of Indonesian public signs in English. Indonesian is different from other languages, including China. This difference could result in different degree of analysis. By deploying the translation equivalence of House (2015) and translation strategies of Malone (1988), this study investigated the translation alternatives of Indonesian public signs in English when certain strategies were applied. It also examined the differences of meaning which occurred when there were changes in the target text (TT) forms.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The forms of public signs in public places are commonly influenced by culture. Every culture has its own way to express meaning. Since public signs always come with culture, this research applied the theory of translation which also

views translation equivalence from the perspective of culture. The results of the translation are influenced by the strategies applied, so this research also applied the theory dealing with translation strategies. The followings are the descriptions of the theories used.

A. House's Translation Equivalence

Equivalence is a main concept in translation. The goal of the translation work is to achieve the closest equivalent of the source text (ST) in target language (TL). There are a number of translation experts who consider equivalence necessary in translation (Nida, 1964; Catford, 1965; Neubert, 1970; House, 2015). However, some consider equivalence as unnecessary and unimportant concept (Hatim and Mason, 1990; Munday, 2008).

As long as translation equivalence is concerned, Nida (1964) proposed the concept of 'dynamic equivalence' as the closest natural equivalent to the source-language message. Catford (1965) viewed that equivalence in translation is essentially situational. Furthermore, Neubert (1970) proposed that translation equivalence includes syntactic, semantic and pragmatic components since it is a 'semiotic category'. To House (2015), text and context are two elements that always interconnect each other in translation. This is the basic concept of House's translation evaluation. Since context and text always show interconnectedness, House defined that to preserve meaning in TL, the three kinds of meaning which include semantic, pragmatic, and textual meanings must be evaluated (House, 2015, p. 21). Based on this concept, the source language (SL) texts are re-contextualized in TL to achieve equivalence. The TL texts must be equivalent in terms of their semantic, pragmatic, and textual meanings. Semantic meaning concerns with the relationship of the linguistic units to the reference of any world constructed by the human. Pragmatic meaning is about the relationship between the linguistic units and the participants in the situations of a given communication. Textual meaning is referred to the constitution of a text. This concerns with how any component relates one another to form a coherent text.

B. Malone's Translation Strategies

The results of translation depend on some factors. There are some classifications of translation strategies proposed by the translation experts. Malone (1988) suggested nine strategies. They include strategies of equation, substitution, divergence, convergence, amplification, reduction, diffusion, condensation and reordering. Eight of the strategies are put in pairs into a group as the followings:

- a. matching (equation and substitution)
- b. zigzagging (divergence and convergence)
- c. recrescence (amplification and reduction)
- d. repacking (diffusion and condensation).

Equation obtains when elements of the source text are rendered by target text elements deemed the most straightforward texts available (Malone, 1988, p. 16). Substitution obtains when source text elements are rendered by target elements deemed as being other than the most straightforward texts available (Malone, 1988, p. 16). Divergence is when elements of the source text may be mapped onto any of two or more alternatives in the target texts (Malone, 1988, p. 17). Convergence as the mirror image to divergence is when two or more distinct source text elements may each be mapped onto one and the same target element (Malone, 1988, p. 17). Amplification is a pattern when the target texts pick up a translational element in addition to texts of a source element (Malone, 1988, p. 41). Reduction is when source expressions are partially translated into target texts and partially omitted in its target texts (Malone, 1988, p. 46). Diffusion strategy concerns with the way when an element or construction of the source text is in some sense rendered by a more loosely or expansively organized target text (Malone, 1988, p. 55). Condensation refers to the strategy when a source element or construction corresponds to a tighter or more compact target text (Malone, 1988, p. 59). Reordering is about the kind of the strategy when one or more target element appears in a position different from that of the source text (Malone, 1988, p. 65).

III. RESEARCH METHOD

This research involved public signs in two languages. The ones written in Indonesian were used as source texts and those written in English as target texts. Public sign meant is a kind of language that is displayed in public places. This includes public notices, guides for tourists, advertisement, road signs, brochures for product. They were collected in two regions in Bali, Indonesia. They are in Denpasar city and Badung regency. The research areas include police station, court, shopping malls, places of tourist interest which include hotels and beaches. The signs were collected by applying the methods of photo-taking and note-taking. Descriptive and qualitative approaches were applied in analyzing the data. The analysis was carried out in some stages.

Firstly, the public signs chosen as data of the SL were examined in terms of their forms. The forms meant include the word classes and their syntactic structures. The same things were also applied for the data of the TL. Secondly, the SL texts and their translation were compared to investigate the changes of their forms. The changes were noted as the adjustments carried out by the translators to achieve the translation equivalence. By applying the same method, the translation strategies applied were also analyzed by identifying how the SL texts change in TL. Lastly, the SL forms, the strategies, and the TL forms were compared to identify the translation alternatives of the SL texts when they were

translated by applying a certain strategy. To identify how the changes of forms in TT affect the translation equivalence, the meanings of the ST and TT were compared and evaluated from semantic, pragmatic, and textual perspectives.

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The source public signs found are in some forms. The forms of their TT are also various. The research result revealed that the Indonesian public signs were re-contextualized in English. This re-contextualization process results in some changes in English and they are regarded as the translation alternatives of the Indonesian public signs. The changes are as the impacts of the translation strategies applied. The strategies which influence the translation results include strategies of substitution, amplification, reduction, condensation, and reordering.

A. Strategy of Substitution and Its Impacts

Strategy of substitution results in the changes of the English forms. The followings are some data in the forms of a word that are translated by applying substitution strategy.

- (1) ST: *Masuk*.
TT: In.
- (2) ST: *Keluar*.
TT: Out.
- (3) ST: *Masuk*.
TT: Entry.
- (4) ST: *Masuk*.
TT: Entrance.
- (5) ST: *Tutup*.
TT: Closed.

The public signs presented are all in the forms of a single word realized by word class of verb *masuk* in (1), (3), and (4), *keluar* in (2), and *tutup* in (5). As their equivalents in English, these STs are realized in different word classes. Verbs in (1) and (2) are realized by preposition word class represented by *in* and *out*. The same cases also cover the STs of (3), (4) and (5). Verbs in (3) and (4) are realized by noun *entry* in (3) and *entrance* in (4), and by adjective *closed* in (5). In these translations the equivalence is achieved by using the strategy of substitution. One word class is substituted by another word class. This strategy results in the change of word class from verb into noun and adjective.

B. Strategy of Amplification and Its Impacts

Amplification strategy was also applied in translating public signs from Indonesian into English.

- (6) ST: *Jaga jarak*.
TT: Keep your distance **to one another**.
- (7) ST: *KUTUS KUTUS*.
TT: Kutus **Bali Oil**.
- (8) ST: *Terima kasih untuk tidak membawa makanan dan minuman dari luar Starbucks*.
TT: **We** appreciate your cooperation not to bring outside food and beverage into Starbucks.

Strategy of amplification includes the addition of information in the TT. This information is not necessary to be included in the ST because the texts have come with clear context. For the Indonesian context, the ST of (6) represented by *Jaga jarak* meaning 'Keep distance' is to mean that *keeping distance* is between people. The meaning of the text is communicatively accepted by the speakers of Indonesian. In TL, additional information is regarded necessary to be included by using *to one another*. This information could be used to strengthen the instruction. In (7) *KUTUS KUTUS* is a kind of oil produced in Bali. Balinese people are very familiar with this oil, but people outside Bali might not. That is the reason why 'Bali oil' needs to be put after the 'Kutus'. In this translation the form changes from a phrase without Modifier *KUTUS KUTUS* into a phrase with premodifier *Kutus* (Mod) *Bali* (Mod) *Oil* (Head). The addition of some information is also important to do when the source text is rendered into a formal construction by using Subject *we* in (8). This is a kind of personalization. By this form, the TT speaker wants to make the language more formal. The translations show that the strategy of amplification changes the forms of the SL texts in TL.

C. Strategy of Reduction and Its Impacts

Strategy of reduction was also applied in translating public signs in Bali. Some data found are as the followings.

- (9) ST: *Terima kasih telah berpakaian sopan di lingkungan kepolisian*.
TT: Thank you for your good appearance.
- (10) ST: *Wajib pakai masker*.
TT: Wear face mask.
- (11) ST: *Tempat cuci tangan*.
TT: Wash basin.

The public sign of (9) is found in the police station. *Di lingkungan kepolisian* meaning 'in the police station' functions as Adverbial of place. Since the sign comes with a clear context, the use of Adverbial of place becomes

unnecessary, except for strengthening the message. That is the reason why the TT comes without any Adverbial of place. This datum shows that strategy of reduction makes the TT come without Adverbial of place. The omission of element in the ST is found in datum (10). The word *wajib* meaning 'it is obligatory' is not translated in TL. For the speakers of Indonesian, the use of the word *wajib* is to emphasize the instruction. For the speakers of English, the expression 'Wear face mask' has implied that it is obligatory for all people coming to that place to wear mask. Semantically, the two texts express the same meaning. They are different if they are viewed from pragmatic perspective. The (11) public sign is found in the hotel area in such a position. Seen from the context of place, *the basin* is for washing hands. In Indonesian culture, when the basin is used for washing hands, word collocation consisting of the words *cuci* meaning 'wash' and *tangan* meaning 'hands' is commonly used. In English, the meaning of *tangan* is not realized since the sign is in a clear context. So, the TT is formed without adding the word *hands* after *wash*.

D. Strategy of Condensation and Its Impacts

A number of Indonesian public signs were also translated by the strategy of condensation. This strategy refers to the change of forms where simpler construction is used in TL to express the source meaning. The followings are some of the data found.

- (12) ST: *Dilarang berkumpul.*
TT: No crowding.
(13) ST: *Jaga jarak.*
TT: Physical distancing.
(14) ST: *Silakan penggunaan pintu lain.*
TT: Next door please.
(15) ST: *Pintu ditutup sementara.*
TT: Temporary closed.

The data above include the change from sentence into phrase which is induced by the condensation strategy applied. As a result, the constructions of the TL texts are simpler than the SL texts. The SL texts of (12), (13), and (14) are in the forms of imperative sentences, while (15) is in the form of declarative sentence. The strategy applied results in the change of forms in the TT. The TTs of (12), (13), and (14) are in the forms of noun phrase, while the one of (15) in the form of adjective phrase. Condensation strategy was also applied in the following translation.

(16) ST: *Jika melakukan pelanggaran dari hal tersebut di atas maka pelaku pelanggaran akan dikenakan sanksi sebesar 2 Juta Rupiah.*

TT: Any violation will be subject to a sanction of IDR 2 Million.

The strategy of condensation also results in the change from complex sentence into simple sentence as seen in the following analysis.

TABLE I.
THE CHANGE FROM COMPLEX SENTENCE INTO SIMPLE SENTENCE

THE CHANGE FROM COMPLEX SENTENCE INTO SIMPLE SENTENCE				
ST	Jika melakukan pelanggaran dari hal tersebut di atas		pelaku pelanggaran akan dikenakan sanksi sebesar 2 Juta Rupiah	
	Subordinate clause		Main clause	
	Complex sentence			
TT	Any violation	will be	subject to	a sanction of IDR 2 Million
	S	V	C	A
	Simple sentence			

From the aspect of the textual meaning, the ST and TT have different meanings. The information which is put initially as the more important information is different between the two texts.

E. Strategy of Reordering and Its Impacts

The strategy of reordering involves the change of source text elements in TL. Some translation alternatives occur when the Indonesian public signs are translated into English by using the strategy of reordering.

- (17) ST: *Dilarang masuk mall bagi semua yang demam/batuk.*
TT: For those who have fever/cough are forbidden to enter the mall.

The change from active into passive form is found in (17). From the textual meaning point of view, there is a change of meaning. By active form, the speaker gives more priority to the information represented by the verb *dilarang masuk* meaning 'it is forbidden to enter', while by passive form, the speaker puts the more important information to the Subject *those who have fever/cough*. Pragmatically, by passive sentence, the speaker intends to avoid addressing direct instruction. This English translation of the sign needs correcting by crossing out the *for*.

- (18) ST: *Hari bebas kendaraan bermotor.*
TT: Car free day.
(19) ST: *Arah evakuasi tsunami.*
TT: Tsunami evacuation route.

Nominal clauses with noun head *hari* in (18), *arah* in (19) and post modifier *bebas kendaraan bermotor* in (18) and *evakuasi tsunami* in (19) change into nominal clauses with noun head *day* in (18), *route* in (19) and pre modifier *car free* in (18), *tsunami evacuation* in (19). The changes which occur are obligatory since the changes are induced by the different language system between Indonesian and English.

(20) ST: *Motor dilarang naik.*

TT: No motor allowed.

The datum (20) concerns with the different position of the negation marker *dilarang* in ST and *No* in TT. In ST the negation is before the verb *naik*, while in TT before the noun *motor*. As a result, textually, the ST and TT have different nuance of meaning because the focus of negation is different.

(21) ST: *Semoga liburan anda menyenangkan.*

TT: Hopefully you will have a pleasant holiday.

(22) ST: *Dilarang masuk mall bagi semua yang demam/batuk.*

TT: For those who have fever/cough are forbidden to enter the mall.

(23) ST: *Para pengunjung dan pencari keadilan supaya berpakaian sopan dan rapi.*

TT: The visitors and justice seekers please dressed polite and neatly.

To the datum (21), the strategy of reordering can also change intensive clause with S and V elements into mono-transitive clause with S, V, and O elements. Pragmatically, when the information is conveyed by using transitive verb, the speaker expresses his message in indirect manner. The change of pragmatic meaning induced by strategy of reordering is also found in (22) and (23). Datum (22) concerns with the change from imperative sentence into declarative sentence, while datum (23) from declarative sentence into imperative sentence. By using declarative sentence, the speaker wants to soften the instruction. So, data (22) and (23) have different pragmatic meaning. However, semantically, they are equivalent.

To summarize, some data show that Indonesian public signs are translated by using strategy of substitution. One kind of word class representing ST is substituted by another word class as TT.

ST: *Masuk.*

TT: Entrance.

This datum shows that there is a change of viewpoint in this translation. The writers of the ST and TT view the meaning of the texts differently. The ST writer gives emphasize on the action. That is people could enter the building through the place where the sign is displayed. On the other hand, the TT writer gives emphasize on the place. That is the entrance where people could enter.

Public signs in the forms of passive imperative using the verb *dilarang* meaning 'it is forbidden', such as *Dilarang berkumpul*, *Dilarang berenang*, *Dilarang berjualan* show consistency in their English translations. The signs are mostly translated into noun phrase using the word *No* followed by noun, such as *No crowding*, *No swimming*, *No selling*. As long as this kind of translation alternative is concerned, this is a common translation phenomenon from Indonesian into English which can be used as a model.

ST: *Dilarang berkumpul.*

TT: No crowding.

This kind of translation proves that the concept of translation equivalence proposed by House (2015) was applied by the translator to achieve adequate translation. The role of culture in the translation of public signs from Indonesian into English is represented by the linguistic choices which are associated with who the participants are. Most of the translations are equivalent from the aspects of semantic, pragmatic, and textual meanings.

Contextual consideration in this translation is also found in the omission of Adverbial of place in the sign. For instance, the following sign that is displayed in the police station comes with Adverbial of place *di lingkungan Kepolisian* meaning 'at the Police Station'. Since the context of place of the sign is very clear, the element representing the place is possible to be omitted in its TT. Strategy of reduction results in this change.

ST: *Terima kasih telah berpakaian sopan di lingkungan kepolisian*

TT: Thank you for your good appearance.

Reordering strategy applied by the translators is induced by some reasons. When the speaker wants to soften the instruction, he or she can change the ST form from imperative sentence into declarative sentence. Depersonalization can also be adopted in Indonesian-English translation by rendering the source active sentence into passive sentence. This also becomes one of the considerations in House's pragmatic equivalence. When the translation equivalence of Indonesian public signs is compared with other translation concepts proposed by other experts, it is correlated with eco-translatology analysis which views texts from the linguistic, cultural, and communicative dimensions (Yu, 2019).

Summarizing the translation strategies applied in the translations of public signs from Indonesian into English, this research reveals that the impacts of the strategies on the TT are as the followings.

TABLE II.
TRANSLATION ALTERNATIVES OF PUBLIC SIGNS FROM INDONESIAN INTO ENGLISH

Source Text Forms	Strategies	Target Text Forms
Verb	Substitution	Preposition
		Noun
		Adjective
Word	Amplification	Phrase
Informal sentence	Amplification	Formal sentence
Sentence with Adverbial	Reduction	Sentence without Adverbial
Complex sentence	Condensation	Simple sentence
Sentence	Condensation	Phrase
Active sentence	Reordering	Passive sentence
Noun phrase with post-modifier	Reordering	Noun phrase with pre-modifier
Imperative sentence	Reordering	Declarative sentence
Declarative sentence	Reordering	Imperative sentence
SV structure	Reordering	SVO structure
Verb negation	Reordering	Subject negation

V. CONCLUSION

Various translation alternatives occur in the translation of public signs from Indonesian into English. Some kinds of translation strategies take part in the changes of the ST forms in TL. The translation equivalence of Indonesian public signs into English is achieved by evaluating the meanings of the texts to be conveyed. Firstly, semantically, the signs realized in Indonesian and English have meanings and every sign denotes a reference in the world of the Indonesian and English speakers. Secondly, pragmatically, public signs are also influenced by the users of Indonesian and English. The forms selected to be used are associated with to whom they are displayed for. Thirdly, the source and target texts are equivalent textually. The forms chosen are associated with what information is considered to be more important.

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The Application of NLTK Library for Python Natural Language Processing in Corpus Research*

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Abstract—Corpora play an important role in linguistics research and foreign language teaching. At present, the relevant research on the corpus in China mainly uses WordSmith, Antconc and other retrieval tools. NLTK library, which is based on Python language, can provide more flexible and rich research methods, and it can use unified data standards to avoid the trouble of various data type conversion. At the same time, with the help of Python's numerous third-party libraries, it can make up for the shortcomings of other tools in syntax analysis, graphic rendering, regular expression retrieval and other aspects. In terms of the main links in corpus research, such as text cleaning, word form restoration, part of speech tagging and text retrieval statistics, this paper takes the US presidential inaugural speech in the corpus as an example to show how to use this tool to process the language data, and introduces the application of Python NLTK library in corpus research.

Index Terms—corpus, python, natural language processing, NLTK

I. INTRODUCTION

At present, many fields of linguistic research pay more attention to the application of the corpus, for the corpus, taking massive and real language data as the research objects, is scientific and accurate (Feng, 2020). With the rapid development of computer technology, the corpus has entered a stage of systematic theoretical innovation and extensive application in the field of linguistics. More and more researchers from different academic backgrounds have joined the corpus research team, and many research fields, such as lexicography, sociolinguistics, stylistic analysis, pragmatics and so on, cannot do without corpus.

Both the construction of the corpus and the study of the corpus are inseparable from the processing of corpus data. Currently, the commonly used corpus processing tools include WordSmith, AntConc, Range, PowerGREP, etc. Most of the above tools provide functions such as retrieval, segmentation, substitution, statistics, etc. However, they are limited to the lexical and lexical collocation level, rather than the syntactic and discursive level. In addition, due to the limitation of the software design, it cannot be flexibly customized, so researchers may have to learn the operation of different software when necessary. The NLTK library, based on the computer programming language Python, is a toolkit that can be used for natural language processing. The toolkit not only has the retrieval function commonly seen in the above tools, but also has many functions such as text cleaning, word form merge, part of speech tagging, grammar analysis and semantic analysis. Through this toolkit, researchers can complete the whole process from corpus construction to research retrieval in one environment, eliminating the inconvenience of switching between different software and data conversion, and further expanding the scope and depth of research.

Based on the introduction to the application of Python NLTK library in terms of text cleaning, word form restoration, part of speech tagging and text retrieval statistics, this paper will take the American presidential inaugural speech in the corpus as an example to introduce how to use the natural language processing toolkit to process the language data. Consequently, corpus researchers will get familiar with and use them, research tools will increase, and corpus linguistics research will develop rapidly.

II. INTRODUCTION AND INSTALLATION OF NLTK LIBRARY

NLP (Natural language processing) is a science integrating linguistics, computer science and mathematics. The research in this field will involve natural language (that is, the language used by people in daily life), so it is closely related to the research of linguistics, and is an important direction in the field of computer science and human

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intelligence. It mainly studies various theories and methods that can realize effective communication between human and computer with natural language. At present, the main computer programming language used in natural language processing is python.

As a high-level programming language, Python, with its elegant, concise, clear rules, is very suitable for non-computer professionals to learn. In addition, Python has a large number of third-party expansion library support, making it greatly applied in the web crawler, data analysis, machine learning, artificial intelligence, natural language processing and other fields, so that Python is an excellent programming language that is now widely regarded.

NLTK (Natural Language Toolkit) is one of the most widely used Python libraries in Natural Language processing. NLTK is a Python library that can process Natural Language text quickly and easily. The toolkit was developed at the University of Pennsylvania as a research and teaching tool for natural language processing. NLTK has a large number of built-in corpora, including various types of text materials such as novels, news, network chat texts, film reviews, etc. It includes Brown's Corpus, Gutenberg's Corpus, Inaugural Address Corpus, Reuters Corpus, etc. (Kambhampati, 2019). In addition, NLTK provides easy-to-use interfaces to over 50 corpora and lexical resources such as WordNet, along with a suite of text processing libraries for classification, tokenization, stemming, tagging, parsing, and semantic reasoning, wrappers for industrial-strength NLP libraries, and an active discussion forum. In collaboration with Python's powerful standard library and other third-party libraries, it can conduct secondary processing of the processing results. It provides a solid backing for processing complex text (Li, 2019).

The NLTK library is not a Python standard library, so it needs to be downloaded before using it. The platform used in this paper is Windows, the Python version is 3.6.2, and the download and installation of NLTK is completed by using the PIP tool. Use "pip install nltk" in command line to complete the automatic download and installation, as shown in Figure 1.

```
C:\Users\Administrator>pip install nltk
Collecting nltk
  Downloading https://files.pythonhosted.org/packages/5e/37/9532ddd4b1bbb619333d5708aad9bf1742f051a664c3c6fa6632a105fd8/nltk-3.6.2-py3-none-any.whl (1.5MB)
    35% |#####| 512kB 1.5MB/s eta 0:00:01
    35% |#####| 522kB 1.8MB/s eta 0:00:01
    36% |#####| 532kB 1.8MB/s eta 0:00:01
    37% |#####| 542kB 812kB/s eta 0:00:02
    38% |#####| 552kB 853kB/s eta 0:00:00
    38% |#####| 563kB 832kB/s eta 0:00:00
    39% |#####| 573kB 787kB/s eta 0:00:00
    40% |#####| 583kB 819kB/s eta 0:00:00
```

Figure 1. NLTK download and installation

After NLTK is installed, the necessary datasets / models need to be installed to use specific functions. You can install the packages by running the following code in Python's Interactive Development Environment (IDLE):

```
>>>import nltk
>>>nltk.download()
```

This will open the graphical NLTK Downloader, in which you can download various corpora, models, etc. as shown in Figure 2.

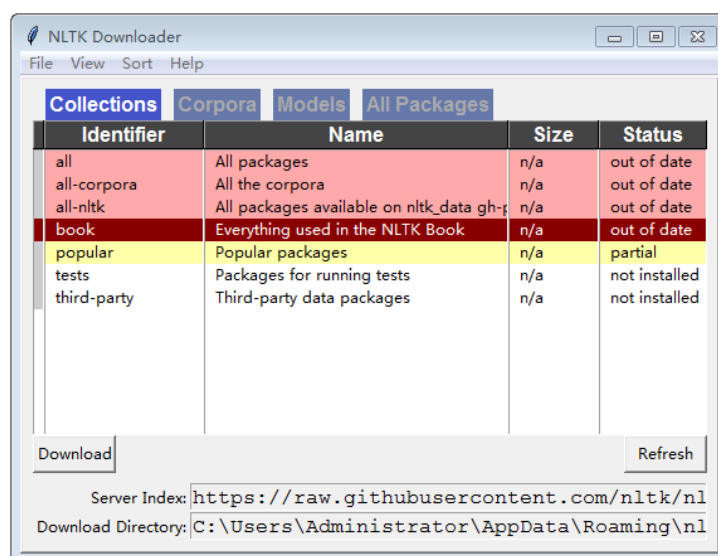


Figure 2. NLTK downloader

You can select the collection you want in the "Collections" tab. It is recommended that you select "all" to install all

the collections. If you need a corpus related to books, you can select “book” and then click the “Download” button to download. The corpus such as Moby Dick, Sense and Sensibility, The book of Genesis, Inaugural Address Corpus and so on can be available. If you only want to download the corpus you need, you can switch to the “Corpora” tab, and then select the corresponding corpus to download, such as “inaugural”.

If you only need the Inaugural Address Corpus, you can also download it with the following code in IDLE:

```
>>>nltk.download('inaugural')
```

III. APPLICATION CASES

The inaugural address of the president of the United States is publicly delivered by the President-Elect on the inauguration day, which comprehensively reflects the basic policies and guidelines of the new president in politics, economy, foreign affairs, military and other aspects. Every speech was written by excellent speech writers. From the vocabulary, syntactic structure, rhetorical devices and so on, every speech is a masterpiece. Therefore, speech has become a hot topic in the field of linguistics. The Inaugural Address Corpus in NLTK contained presidential Inaugural speeches from 1789 to 2017, with 59 texts and a total number of 149,797 words. The corpus is distinguished according to the age of speech, which corresponds to independent subtexts. This paper takes Inaugural Address Corpus as the object of English study to introduce the use of NLTK library in natural language processing.

A. Corpus Import and Show

The Inaugural Address Corpus used in this case is derived from the NLTK library and the installation method has been described earlier, it can be imported with the command “import” before use. Each corpus contains many files or documents. To get a list of these files, you can use the corpus’s fields() method. The result of viewing the Inaugural Address Corpus is shown in Figure 3. The code is as follows:

```
>>>import nltk
>>>from nltk.corpus import inaugural          # Import the Inaugural Address Corpus
>>>print (inaugural.fileids())                # Output the corpus file name

>>> print(inaugural.fileids())
['1789-Washington.txt', '1793-Washington.txt', '1797-Adams.txt',
 '1801-Jefferson.txt', '1805-Jefferson.txt', '1809-Madison.txt',
 '1813-Madison.txt', '1817-Monroe.txt', '1821-Monroe.txt', '1825-Adams.txt',
 '1829-Jackson.txt', '1833-Jackson.txt', '1837-VanBuren.txt',
 '1841-Harrison.txt', '1845-Polk.txt', '1849-Taylor.txt', '1853-Pierce.txt',
 '1857-Buchanan.txt', '1861-Lincoln.txt', '1865-Lincoln.txt',
 '1869-Grant.txt', '1873-Grant.txt', '1877-Hayes.txt', '1881-Garfield.txt',
 '1885-Cleveland.txt', '1889-Harrison.txt', '1893-Cleveland.txt',
 '1897-McKinley.txt', '1901-McKinley.txt', '1905-Roosevelt.txt',
 '1909-Taft.txt', '1913-Wilson.txt', '1917-Wilson.txt', '1921-Harding.txt',
 '1925-Coolidge.txt', '1929-Hoover.txt', '1933-Roosevelt.txt',
 '1937-Roosevelt.txt', '1941-Roosevelt.txt', '1945-Roosevelt.txt',
 '1949-Truman.txt', '1953-Eisenhower.txt', '1957-Eisenhower.txt',
 '1961-Kennedy.txt', '1965-Johnson.txt', '1969-Nixon.txt', '1973-Nixon.txt',
 '1977-Carter.txt', '1981-Reagan.txt', '1985-Reagan.txt', '1989-Bush.txt',
 '1993-Clinton.txt', '1997-Clinton.txt', '2001-Bush.txt', '2005-Bush.txt',
 '2009-Obama.txt', '2013-Obama.txt', '2017-Trump.txt']
```

Figure 3. List of documents in Inaugural Address Corpus

B. Preprocessing of Original Corpus

The original corpus can be obtained by web crawling, manual input or software recognition and conversion, and this case corpus is from NLTK. Usually these texts are unstructured, there are many problems of nonstandard format in the text, such as punctuation in Chinese and English, case-sensitive, special symbol, useless space and so on. Therefore, before the corpus research, we need to do some pre-processing for the text to solve these nonstandard problems. In Python, you can call some methods of string to clean up the text. Such as `isalpha()` method, it can determine whether the symbols in the text are letters, so as to filter out the non-letter parts of the text. The `lower()` method can convert uppercase letters to lowercase letters, so that words in the text can be lowercase processed. The `strip()` method can remove the spaces around the string, thus removing the useless spaces before and after the word.

After finishing the first step of text cleaning, we can take the next step called tokenization which is to cut the string in the text into a list of recognizable words. In this case, we directly call the `words()` method of `inaugural` corpus to get the word list of text. In addition, we can also use the `word_tokenize()` method to achieve word tokenization.

In order to have more accurate data in the next step, we need to further clean and filter the tokenization results. The text contains some stop words, such as “is”, “be”, “to”, “a” and so on. These words are meaningless for research, so they should be deleted. This work can be done by calling the stopwords corpus in NLTK, which contain the common high-frequency words with no practical meaning (Li, 2019). In this case, importing the English stopwords corpus of NLTK, and filtering out the words belonging to the stopwords corpus in the Inaugural Address Corpus.

The specific code of cleaning text is as follows:

```
>>>import nltk
>>>from nltk.corpus import inaugural # Import the Inaugural Address Corpus
>>>from nltk.corpus import stopwords # Import the stop word corpus
>>>text = nltk.Text(inaugural.words()) # Read the Inaugural Address Corpus
>>>text = [ word.lower() for word in text if word.isalpha() ] # Convert letters in words to lowercase
>>>print(len(text)) # Output the number of words
>>>T = len(set(text)) / len(text) # Calculate word richness
>>>print(T) # Output word richness
>>>stop_words = set( stopwords.words( 'english' ) ) # Import English stop words
>>> filtered_words = [ word for word in text if word not in stop_words ]
# Extract words from Inaugural Address Corpus that are not in the Stop Words Corpus
```

In the above code, after importing the corpus, the `isalpha()` and `lower()` method are used to preserve and unify the English words in the text into lowercase, and then the list of words is filtered by using the stopwords corpus. The built-in Python function `len()` is used to calculate the number of imported words, and the `set()` function is used to eliminate duplicate words in the text to calculate the word richness `T`. Vocabulary richness is used to analyze the number of words in the text and reflect the overall use of words in the text. The lexical richness of the Inaugural Address Corpus is 6.713%. The larger the `T` value is, the richer the vocabulary in the text, and the use of the vocabulary in the text can be visually displayed numerically.

C. Part of Speech Tagging and Lemmatization

The English word has different forms, such as singular form, plural form, tense, and so on. For example, “do” has five forms: “do”, “dose”, “did”, “done” and “doing”. In the actual study of the word, different forms of the same word need to be combined as if they were the same word. This process is called lemmatization. The purpose of lemmatization is to restore different forms of words to a common basic form. If we do not lemmatize the form of words, there will be a big deviation in the statistical results. Lemmatization can be achieved by using `WordNetLemmatizer` module provided by NLTK (Deng, 2017). The `lemmatize()` method is used to lemmatize the word form, whose first parameter is the word, and the second parameter is the part of speech of the word, such as noun, verb, adjective, etc. The returned result of the method is the result of lemmatization of the input word.

So the part of speech of each word needs to be determined before lemmatization, so as to get the accurate result. Part of Speech Tagging is the process of automatically marking the parts of speech of all words in text according to the context information in the text. That is, corresponding labels are added after all kinds of nouns, adjectives and verbs in the text to facilitate retrieval and processing (Liu, 2015). The Part of Speech Tagging can be achieved by calling the `pos_tag()` method in NLTK. The specific code is as follows:

```
>>>from nltk import pos_tag # Import pos_tag
>>>from nltk.corpus import wordnet # Import Semantic Dictionary wordnet
>>>from nltk.stem import WordNetLemmatizer # Import lemmatization tool
>>>wnl = WordNetLemmatizer()
>>>words_tag = pos_tag( filtered_words ) # Add part of speech tags
>>>original_words = [ wnl.lemmatize(i, j[0].lower()) if j[0].lower() in [ 'a' , 'n' , 'v' ] else wnl.lemmatize(i) for i, j in words_tag ] #Complete lemmatization according to part of speech
>>>words_tag [:30] # PoS tagging results
>>>original_words [:30] #lemmatization results
```

In the above code, import the necessary libraries and modules first, and then calling the `pos_tag()` method for Part of Speech Tagging. Finally, `lemmatize()` method is used to lemmatize all the words in the word list.

Part of Speech Tagging can not only accurately restore the form of words, but also help to analyze the sentence components and divide the sentence structure. Part of Speech Tagging adds a part of speech tag to each term, as shown in Figure 4. For example, “fellow” is marked as an adjective, “citizens” is marked as a plural noun, “among” is marked as a preposition.

```
>>> words_tag[:30]
[('fellow', 'JJ'), ('citizens', 'NNS'), ('senate', 'VBP'), ('house', 'NN'), ('representatives', 'NNS'), ('among', 'IN'), ('vicissitudes', 'NNS'), ('incident', 'JJ'), ('life', 'NN'), ('event', 'NN'), ('could', 'MD'), ('filled', 'VB'), ('greater', 'JJR'), ('anxieties', 'NNS'), ('notification', 'NN'), ('transmitted', 'VBD'), ('order', 'NN'), ('received', 'VBN'), ('day', 'NN'), ('present', 'JJ'), ('month', 'NN'), ('one', 'CD'), ('hand', 'NN'), ('summoned', 'VBD'), ('country', 'NN'), ('whose', 'WP$'), ('voice', 'NN'), ('never', 'RB'), ('hear', 'JJ'), ('veneration', 'NN')]
```

Fig 4. Results of the first 30 parts of speech tagging

The lemmatization results are shown in Figure 5. Through the comparison, we can see that the words such as "citizens", "filled", "forms", "flags" are successfully restored to "citizen", "fill", "anxiety" and "transmit".

```
>>> original_words[:30]
['fellow', 'citizen', 'senate', 'house', 'representative', 'among',
 'vicissitude', 'incident', 'life', 'event', 'could', 'fill',
 'greater', 'anxiety', 'notification', 'transmit', 'order', 'receive',
 'day', 'present', 'month', 'one', 'hand', 'summon', 'country',
 'whose', 'voice', 'never', 'hear', 'veneration']
```

Fig 5. Lemmatization results of the first 30 words

D. Analysis and Statistics

After text cleaning, Part of Speech Tagging, lemmatization and other processing, the text can basically meet the needs of research and it can be used for vocabulary, sentence, text and other levels of analysis and research. The operations for a single word include context extraction, words in the same context extraction, double conjunctions extraction and so on. Part of Speech Tagging and syntactic analysis can be used for a single sentence. Text analysis and statistical analysis can be carried out in text, among which statistical analysis is the most commonly used tool (Wiebke, 2010).

NLTK provides a large number of tools for conducting these studies, and only several commonly used tools are described in this article.

NLTK provides three methods for the context retrieval of the target word (Liu, 2019), using `concordance()` to retrieve the output of the sentence containing the target word, using `common_contexts()` to find the common context of the vocabulary set, and using `similar()` to find words that have similar meaning and usage to the specified word. Through the above three methods, we can find the target vocabulary and provide the basis for the next step of analysis. The sample code is shown below, and the result is shown in Figure 6.

```
>>> text = nltk.Text(inaugural.words())
>>> text.concordance('China') # Search the text for the frequency the word "China" appears and its context
>>> text.common_contexts(['this', 'that']) # Search text for words that are common in the context of "this" and "that"
>>> text.similar('country') # Search text for similar words that appear in the context of "country"

>>> text.concordance('China')
Displaying 2 of 2 matches:
honorably in the thrilling scenes in China , while new to American life , has b
he French soldier who dies in Indo - China , the British soldier killed in Mala
>>> text.common_contexts(['this', 'that'])
of_country of_government of_day and_is to_end but_is of_union
at_moment in_great of_character and_i from_day all_we to_high
of_conflict of_spirit of_people at_point themselves_is people_is
>>> text.similar('country')
government nation people union world time constitution land citizens
peace states laws spirit system power way faith future executive earth
```

Fig 6. Retrieval results

As the most commonly used mathematical analysis method in NLTK, probability statistics is used for data processing and analysis in text. In Python, we use the function that calculates the frequency defined in NLTK to count the word frequency, word length and other related operations on words, collocations, common expressions or symbols that appear in text. The `FreqDist()` in NLTK can realize the function of word frequency statistics. First call the function to create a frequency distribution, and then you can call the `most_Common(n)` method to extract high-frequency words from frequency distribution, and the `tabulate(n)` method can be called to output results in the form of table, where parameter `n` is the number of extracted words (Steven, 2009). Some of the results are shown in Figure 7. And the specific code is as follows:

```
>>> fdist = nltk.FreqDist(filtered_words) # Create a frequency distribution for the cleaned and filtered words
>>> fdist.most_common(30) # Extract the top 30 high-frequency words
>>> fdist['target word']
# Use the created frequency distribution to find the number of occurrences of the target vocabulary
>>> fdist.tabulate() # Output in tabular form
```

```
>>> fdist.most_common(30)
[('government', 600), ('people', 584), ('us', 478), ('upon',
371), ('must', 366), ('great', 340), ('may', 338), ('world',
338), ('states', 333), ('country', 318), ('nation', 316), ('
shall', 314), ('every', 299), ('one', 257), ('peace', 255),
('new', 252), ('citizens', 247), ('power', 236), ('public',
226), ('america', 220), ('time', 217), ('would', 211), ('con
stitution', 206), ('united', 202), ('nations', 199), ('union
', 189), ('freedom', 189), ('free', 184), ('war', 178), ('am
erican', 163)]
```

Figure 7. The top 30 items with the highest frequency

E. Graphic Display

In addition to the direct output of data results, you can also use Python's third-party libraries for secondary processing of data to display data results in a visual form, which is more intuitive and better.

Matplotlib is a library for visualization in Python, which can be used to draw statistical charts for structured data, such as histogram, sector chart, line chart, histogram and so on. The statistical data obtained in the previous stage are displayed in the form of frequency line chart, as shown in Figure 8, from which we can see the comparison of different vocabulary frequencies. The code is as follows:

```
>>>fdist.plot(30) # The top 30 items with the highest frequency are shown in line charts
```

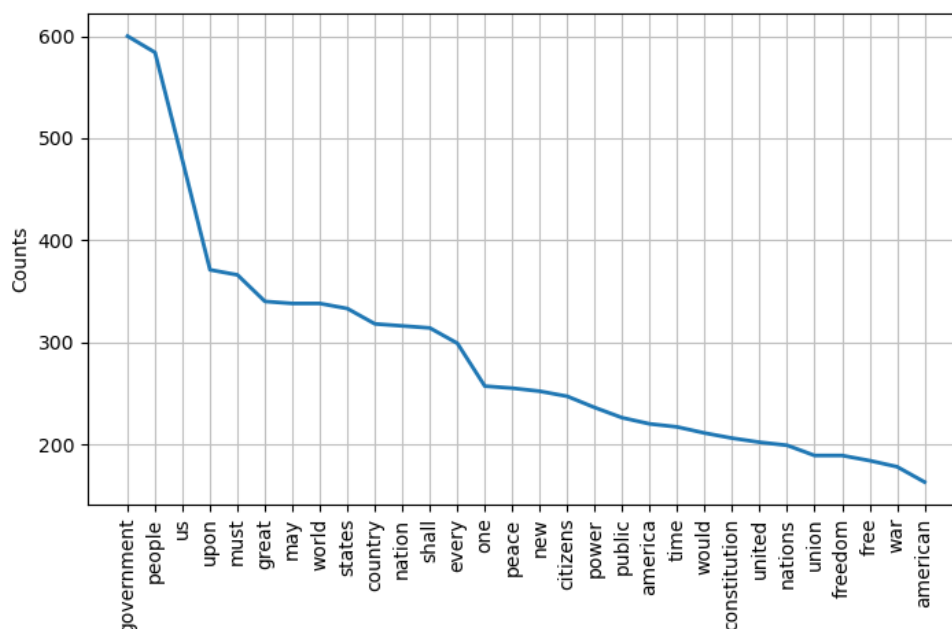


Fig 8. Line chart of word frequency

You can also use the `dispersion_plot()` method to show the positions of words in the text in the form of a discrete graph. The implementation code is shown below, and the results are shown in Figure 9. It can be seen from the figure that the frequency of "us" in recent years is significantly higher than that in the early stage. Combined with the chronological structure of the inaugural address corpus, we can see that there are significant differences in the frequency of different speech words over time.

```
>>>text.dispersion_plot( ['government', 'people', 'us', 'citizens'] )
# Show the position of "government", "people", "us" and "citizens" in the text in the form of discrete graph
```

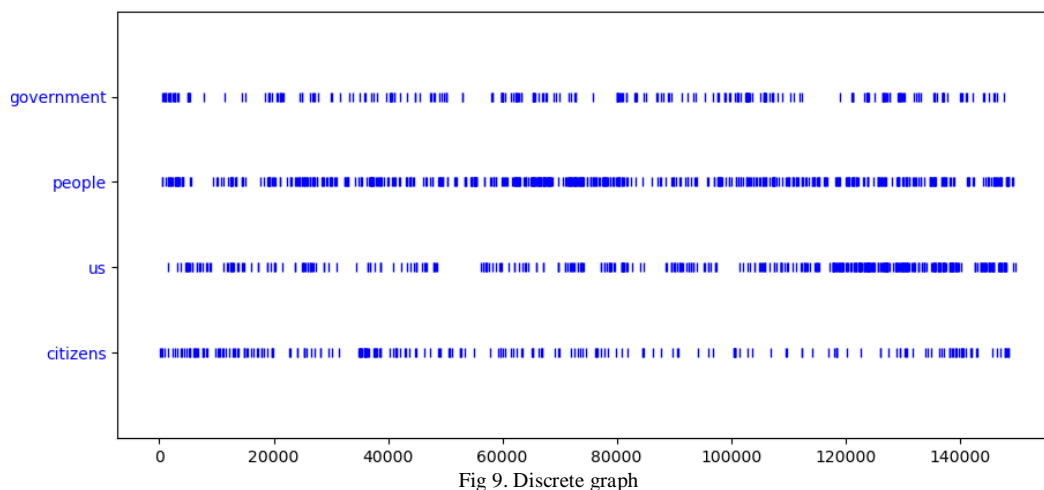



Fig 9. Discrete graph

An interesting feature of the inaugural addresses corpus is its temporal dimension, so we can compare the frequency of keywords used in inaugural addresses in different years to see the usage of words over time. We can use the NLTK ConditionalFreqDist() method to see how many times each keyword appeared in speeches over time. The following code takes the two keywords "American" and "citizen" as an example. First, we use `w.lower()` to convert the words in the inaugural addresses corpus into lowercase, then use `startswith()` to check whether they start with the target words "American" and "citizen", and finally count the frequency of words in each speech text. The statistical results are displayed in the form of line chart, as shown in Figure 10. It can be seen from the figure that the word "citizen" peaked in the text of 1941. The specific implementation code is as follows:

```
>>> cfd = nltk.ConditionalFreqDist( ( target, fileid[:4] )
    for fileid in inaugural.fileids()
    for w in inaugural.words( fileid )
    for target in [ 'american', 'citizen' ]
    if w.lower().startswith( target ))

#Use the conditional probability distribution method ConditionalFreqDist
# The frequency of two keywords is compared with the line chart

>>> cfd.plot()
```

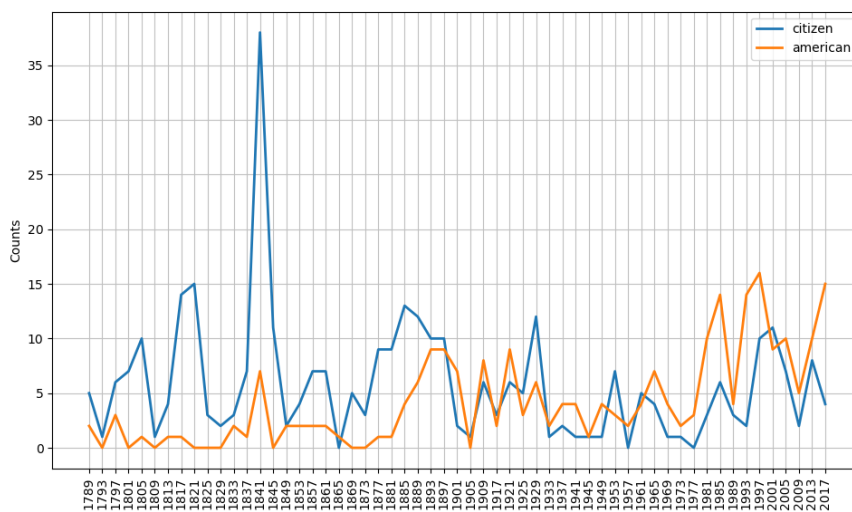


Fig 10. Line chart of key words frequency

In addition, the word cloud image is also an effective form of data display. Word cloud image, also known as text cloud, is a visual display of high frequency words in the text. Word cloud image filters out a large number of low-frequency and low-quality text information, so that the viewer can appreciate the theme of the text as long as he has a glance. The wordcloud library in Python can be used to generate all kinds of beautiful word cloud image. In this case, the results of lemmatization are displayed in word cloud. First, import the wordcloud library and Matplotlib library, then call the `generate()` function of the WordCloud module to generate the word cloud. Finally, use the `pyplot` function in Matplotlib library to display the word cloud. The word cloud image is shown in Figure 11, and the specific code is as follows:

```
>>> from wordcloud import WordCloud          # Import WordCloud
>>> import matplotlib.pyplot as plt          # Import pyplot
```


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Effects of Teaching Approach Based on Three-dimensional Grammar on Grade Eight Students' Acquisition of English Phrasal Verbs

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Abstract—Phrasal verbs, an essential but complex aspect of English vocabulary, are difficult for Chinese EFL learners to acquire, whose first language lacks of phrasal verbs. This quasi-experiment explores the effectiveness of the teaching approach based on three-dimensional grammar on the acquisition of English phrasal verbs by Chinese middle school students compared with that based on conceptual metaphor theory. The finding is that there is a significant difference between the effect of three-dimensional grammar teaching and that of conceptual metaphor teaching, and the former is of great benefit for learners to acquire English phrasal verbs.

Index Terms—English phrasal verbs, three-dimensional grammar, Chinese EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Wilkins (1972) once stated that “Without grammar very little can be conveyed; without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (p. 111). It can be seen that vocabulary plays an important role in language teaching and learning. Phrasal verbs, integral to English vocabulary, defined as the verb plus particle combinations by Bolinger (1971), present multiple challenges for second language (L2) learners of English, which are related to the influence of the learners' first languages (L1s), inappropriate teaching methods, and the complexity of phrasal verbs themselves. In addition, only a few languages have phrasal verbs, which undoubtedly limits the possibility of acquiring for those learners whose first language lacks of phrasal verbs. There is no phrasal verb in Chinese, so it is difficult for Chinese EFL learners to learn English phrasal verbs. Therefore, this paper attempts to explore a more effective approach for Chinese EFL learners to acquire English phrasal verbs.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This paper adopts three-dimensional grammar and output driven hypothesis as its theoretical foundations.

A. Three-dimensional Grammar

Larsen-Freeman (2003) argued that when learning grammar, apart from knowing their forms and meanings, it is more important to know when and why to use them, that is, the combination of form, meaning and use, which are interrelated and interacted with each other. So she put forward the theory of three-dimensional grammar (2005), which not only focuses on form and meaning, but also attaches great importance to learners' ability of usage.

The three dimensions are depicted in Figure 1.

The first dimension is the form of a language, which includes both visible and invisible units: phonology, graphology, morphology and syntax.

The second dimension is the meaning of a language, which relates to semantics. It mainly refers to the meaning of language forms, which can be found in dictionaries.

The third one is the use of a language, which can be referred to pragmatics. The basic units of it are social functions (such as promising, invitation, agreement and apologizing) and discourse patterns (such as those that contribute to the cohesion within texts).

These three dimensions are interrelated and interacted with each other.

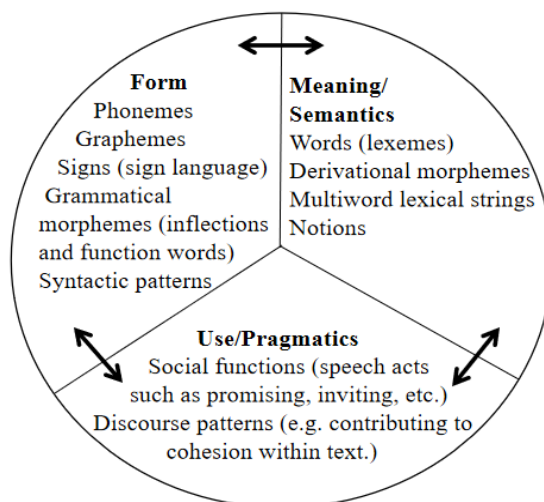


Figure 1. Prototypical Units of the Three Dimensions (Larsen-Freeman, 2005)

Larsen-Freeman stresses all the necessity of form, meaning and use, which can be indicated by three questions, namely: how the grammar is formed (form), what does the grammar mean (meaning) and when and why the grammar is used (use). The following figure clearly demonstrates the explanation of the three dimensions.

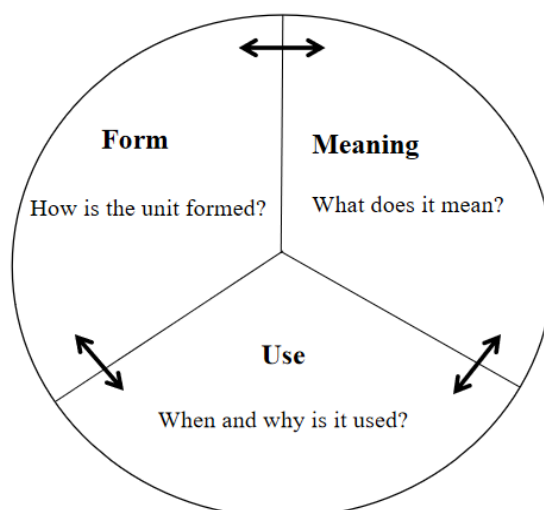


Figure 2. Explanation of the Three Dimensions (Larsen-Freeman, 2005)

In summary, the three dimensions exist in a dynamic and holistic system. The three arrows respectively connect one part of the whole with others, which means changes in any one dimension will influence the other two.

B. Output Driven Hypothesis

As an improvement of Krashen's input hypothesis, Swain (1985) proposed comprehensible output hypothesis, and believed that the output could not only improve language fluency, but also have the functions of noticing and triggering, hypothesis-testing and meta-language so as to improve the accuracy of the second language.

Inspired by Swain's output hypothesis, Wen Qiufang (2013) put forward output driven hypothesis, which consists of three sub-hypotheses. Firstly, from the perspective of psycholinguistics, this hypothesis regards that output is a greater driving force for the development of foreign language ability than input. Secondly, from the perspective of the needs of workplace English, this hypothesis indicates that the development of students' expressive skills of speaking, writing and translating is more socially functional than the development of listening and reading skills, especially the oral and written translation skills. Thirdly, as for foreign language teaching, the hypothesis holds that the output-oriented comprehensive teaching approach is more effective than the single or individual skill training method, which is more suitable for students' future needs.

Both three-dimensional grammar and output driven hypothesis emphasize the use of language.

III. PREVIOUS STUDIES ON THE TEACHING OF PHRASAL VERBS

There are two main approaches to teach vocabularies/phrasal verbs: form-focused instruction and meaning-focused

instruction.

Form-focused instruction refers to “any planned or incidental instruction activity that is intended to induce language learners pay attention to linguistic form” (Ellis, 2001, p.1-2). Focus-on-forms (FonFs) is often connected with traditional grammar-based L2 instruction, where the typical procedure of teaching is first presenting the structures and rules of the objects, then followed by drills, memorizing through repetition, and translating the learned knowledge (Sun & Wang, 2003; Chan & Liou, 2005).

But the effect of form-focused instruction is not so good, and Chinese EFL learners still have difficulty in acquiring vocabularies/phrasal verbs, so it is still needed to explore other effective approaches (Wang, 2020; Gao, 2021). Then, some researchers turn to meaning-focused instruction. Long (1991) agreed that the focus of L2 learning should be on meaning but acknowledged the need for some focus on grammar, which should be within the context of meaning-based communicative activities and interactions (Lu, 2021).

In contrast to the traditional theory of phrasal verbs, which holds that one phrasal verb is an inseparable unit and there is no other special meaning of the particle (Gibbs, 1990), that phrasal verbs are learned as whole units (Nippold, 1998) and that they are usually acquired by mechanical memory, cognitive linguistics believes that phrasal verbs are separable as well as analyzable, and each particle of phrasal verbs has many other meanings which originated from its basic meaning (Lakoff, 1987; Langacker, 1992; Boers, 2004). Teaching vocabularies based on conceptual metaphor theory is an effective method (White, 2012; Veliz, 2017; Li, 2017; Luo, 2020), which belongs to meaning-focused instruction.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Since three-dimensional grammar teaching has a significant effect on students' acquisition of grammar (Lightbown, 2000; Liviero Sara, 2016; Hao, 2018; Song, 2019), and conceptual metaphor teaching is beneficial for acquiring phrasal verbs, then between teaching approaches based on three-dimensional grammar and conceptual metaphor theory, which approach is more effective for Chinese EFL learners to acquire phrasal verbs?

The research questions are posed as follows:

1. What effect does three-dimensional grammar teaching have on the acquisition of English phrasal verbs by Chinese grade eight students compared with that of conceptual metaphor teaching?
2. What are the learners' perceptions towards the teaching approach based on three-dimensional grammar?

V. THE EXPERIMENT

A. Participants

Three intact classes of Grade Eight in Jiaozuo No.17 Middle School are chosen for this study, in which students are all Chinese native speakers. All these three classes are taught by the same teacher both in Grade Seven and Grade Eight. One class is used for the pilot experiment and the other two classes are for the formal experiment.

Students are asked to take Nation's VLT (Vocabulary Level Test) first within 15 minutes (the full score is 18). Nation's VLT includes five different word-frequency levels, and according to The Academic Test for the Junior High School Students of English in 2020, students need to acquire about 1600 words, therefore, the 2000 word-level is chosen for this study.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF 3 CLASSES

	Statistics of Class		Tests of Normality	
	N	Mean	K-S Sig.	S-W Sig.
Class 1	55	12.636	.067	.133
Class 2	54	12.593	.059	.109
Class 3	55	12.436	.065	.160

In Table 1, it can be seen that the Sigs of the three classes are 0.067, 0.059 and 0.065 respectively, which are all larger than 0.05, and in Table 2, the four Sigs are all larger than 0.05 as well, which mean that all these statistics of the three classes are in accordance with normal distribution and they have the same variance. Therefore, the scores of these students can be statistically analyzed by one-way ANOVA.

TABLE 2.
TEST OF VARIANCE

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Scores	Based on Mean	.834	2	161	.436
	Based on Median	.729	2	161	.484
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.729	2	159.192	.484
	Based on trimmed mean	.839	2	161	.434

As indicated in Table 3, there is no significant difference between these three classes ($p=0.838>0.05$), which shows that students in these three classes have the same range of English vocabulary.

TABLE 3.
ONE-WAY ANOVA OF 3 CLASSES

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.215	2	.607	.177	.838
Within Groups	551.292	161	3.424		
Total	552.506	163			

Before the experiment, students in two experimental classes are required to finish the phrasal verbs test (the full score is 24) within 15 minutes. The phrasal verbs test including 12 questions is conducted to check participants' command of English phrasal verbs. Students with scores higher than 12 are excluded, and the remaining students with low scores are the participants in the formal experiment. Thus, in fact, the number of participants is 99: there are 44 in Class 1 and 45 students in Class 2, whose scores are valid data.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF 3 CLASSES

	Statistics of Class		Tests of Normality	
	N	Mean	K-S Sig.	S-W Sig.
Class 1	44	5.681	.056	.121
Class 2	45	6.002	.065	.157
Class 3	45	6.178	.061	.103

As shown in Table 4, all K-S Sigs are larger than 0.05, which implies that all these statistics are in accordance with normal distribution.

TABLE 5.
TEST OF VARIANCE

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Scores	Based on Mean	.266	2	131	.767
	Based on Median	.329	2	131	.720
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	.329	2	128.812	.720
	Based on trimmed mean	.259	2	131	.772

The four Sigs in Table 5 are 0.767, 0.720, 0.720 and 0.772 respectively, which reveal that the three classes share the same variance. Thus, the data can be statistically analyzed by one-way ANOVA.

TABLE 6.
ONE-WAY ANOVA OF 3 CLASSES

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.608	2	2.804	.422	.657
Within Groups	870.123	131	6.642		
Total	875.731	133			

As shown in Table 6, there is no statistical difference between these three classes ($p=0.657>0.05$). The 134 students are not familiar with the target phrasal verbs, therefore, the experiment can be carried out with these participants.

B. Materials

With a view not to disturb the normal teaching contents and progress, the materials used in the experiment are selected from the participants' English textbook *Go for it*, published by People's Education Press. Target materials include particles "up" and "out", and the relevant phrasal verbs are *cheer up*, *give up*, *put up*, *call up*, *fix up*, *set up*, *give out*, *try out*, *hand out*, *take out*, *stay out* and *help out* from Unit 2 and Unit 3.

C. Instruments

On the basis of quantitative research method, the results of the experiment are analyzed through SPSS 22.0. There are two instruments adopted in this experiment to make comparison between Class 1 and Class 2: tests and questionnaire.

Tests

The immediate posttest is taken to reflect the acquisition of target phrasal verbs of participants after being instructed with different approaches in the two classes. It is made up of two parts: 15 choice questions and 15 translation questions. Question 5, 10 and 15 of each part are distractions, which do not include the target phrasal verbs, so the scores are not counted. The immediate posttest should be finished in 40 minutes and students can get two points for getting the right answer.

All the participants are given 40 minutes to complete the delayed posttest after the teaching period of the experiment (two weeks later). Compared with the immediate posttest, the content of the delayed posttest is the same, but the sequence of the questions is changed randomly in order to minimize the effect of the immediate posttest on the delayed posttest, with an aim to investigate the effect of the two different teaching approaches on the retention of phrasal verbs.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire is given out after the experiment based on the questionnaires from Hao (2018) and Song (2019) in order to get participants' feedback of three-dimensional grammar teaching. There are 15 choice questions, and according to the Likert Scale, options from 1 to 5 represent a tendency from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Questions 1-3 are mainly about students' attitudes towards the learning and teaching of phrasal verbs. The next five questions aim at investigating the perceptions of participants towards three-dimensional grammar teaching. Then questions 9-12 intend to figure out whether three-dimensional grammar teaching affects participants' learning of phrasal verbs. The last three questions reveal participants' general feelings and hopes towards the teaching and learning in English lessons.

D. Procedure

The experiment was carried out in March and April 2021. The teaching procedure of the experiment is consistent with the standard teaching schedule in Jiaozuo No.17 Middle School. In addition, given the number and the location of phrasal verbs in the textbook, the experiment lasted for about two months. There are classroom teaching, the immediate posttest and the delayed posttest in both classes.

In the normal teaching process, when target phrasal verbs are encountered in Class 2, with three-dimensional grammar teaching, the teacher first explains the definition and form of the phrasal verb, and then shows the meaning of the particle and various meanings of the phrasal verb through some examples and interactions. Secondly, the teacher requires students to work in groups to practice the phrasal verbs they have just learned in their own situational dialogues. Finally, one or two group will be chosen to show themselves.

While in Class 1, based on conceptual metaphor teaching, the teacher first shows the students the picture of the particle of the phrasal verb, for instance, the basic meaning of the particle "up" means more and to a higher position, which can be depicted as the following picture (Figure 3). Based on the picture, students can easily figure out that "put up" means putting something from a lower place to a higher place. Then the teacher asks students to draw their own pictures of the meanings of the phrasal verbs and share them with the classmates together. Time spent in teaching phrasal verbs in these two classes is the same.

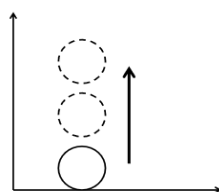


Figure 3. Picture for comprehending "up".

After teaching all the target phrasal verbs, the participants need to complete the immediate posttest in the following self-study class. And after two weeks, the delayed posttest should be finished as well.

E. Results

Results of Immediate Posttests

The reliability of the two parts of the immediate posttest is 0.803 and 0.718 respectively, indicating that the test has a high reliability and can be used as an instrument to test participants' learning results.

TABLE 7.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF 2 CLASSES

	Statistics of Class		Tests of Normality	
	N	Mean	K-S Sig.	S-W Sig.
Class1	44	28.727	.079	.159
Class2	45	31.533	.085	.175

In Table 7, the Sigs of the two classes are 0.079 and 0.085 respectively, which are all larger than 0.05, so they are in accordance with normal distribution. Besides, the Sig. in Table 8 is 0.904, which means the two classes share the same variance. Therefore, the data can be statistically analyzed by independent-samples t test so as to make sure that there is statistical significance between Class 1 and Class 2 in immediate posttests.

TABLE 8.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T TEST OF 2 DIFFERENT APPROACHES

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Immediate posttest	Equal variances assumed	.015	.904	-2.102	87	.038	-2.806	1.335
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.103	86.935	.038	-2.806	1.334

According to Table 8, the Sig. (2-tailed) is 0.038, which indicates a significant difference between Class 1 and Class 2, while the mean score of Class 2 is larger than that of Class 1 in Table 7. It can be concluded that three-dimensional grammar teaching is more effective in instructing Chinese middle school students to acquire English phrasal verbs than the method based on conceptual metaphor theory.

Results of Delayed Posttests

All statistics in Table 9 are in accordance with normal distribution (the Sigs of the two classes are 0.081 and 0.067 respectively, which are all larger than 0.05).

TABLE 9.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF 2 CLASSES

	Statistics of Class		Tests of Normality	
	N	Mean	K-S Sig.	S-W Sig.
Class1	44	25.568	.081	.152
Class2	45	29.755	.067	.120

What is more, the Sig. in Table 10 is 0.697, which implies the two classes have the same variance. So these statistics can be analyzed by independent-samples t test.

TABLE 10.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T TEST OF 2 DIFFERENT APPROACHES

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Delayed posttest	Equal variances assumed	.153	.697	-2.008	87	.048	-2.775	1.382
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.006	86.369	.048	-2.775	1.383

According to Table 10, the Sig. (2-tailed) is 0.048, which reflects that there is a significant difference between the two classes, indicating that three-dimensional grammar teaching is significantly better than conceptual metaphor teaching for phrasal verbs retention.

TABLE 11.
PAIRED-SAMPLES T TEST OF 2 DIFFERENT APPROACHES

		Paired Differences		Std. Error Mean				
		Mean	Std. Deviation		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
Conceptual metaphor teaching (Class 1)	Pair 1	1.000	1.642	.248	4.039	43	.000	
	Pair 2	2.159	2.551	.385	5.614	43	.000	
	Pair 3	3.159	3.778	.570	5.546	43	.000	
Three-dimensional grammar teaching (Class 2)	Pair 4	1.156	1.930	.288	4.016	44	.000	
	Pair 5	.622	1.862	.278	2.241	44	.030	
	Pair 6	1.778	3.437	.512	3.470	44	.001	

In Table 11, pair 1 refers to part 1 of both the immediate posttest and the delayed posttest of Class 1, pair 2 is part 2 of the two posttests of Class 1, and pair 3 means both two parts of the immediate posttest and the delayed posttest of Class 1. Pair 4, pair 5 and pair 6 are the same as pair 1, pair 2 and pair 3, which refer to Class 2. We can tell that the Sig. (2-tailed) of Class 2 in paired-samples t test is 0.001 and Class 1 is 0.000, which are both smaller than 0.05. Thus, there is a significant difference.

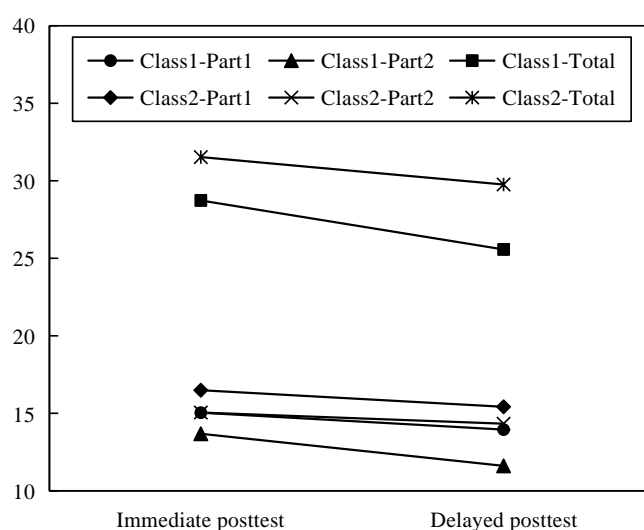


Figure 4. Comparison of Immediate Posttest and Delayed Posttest

The differences between the immediate posttest and the delayed posttest in two classes show directly and clearly the effectiveness of three-dimensional grammar teaching. In terms of Figure 4, the mean gap in Class 2 is smaller than that in Class 1, which implies that students in Class 2 outperform in the delayed posttest after two weeks and they tend to have a longer and better retention in remembering target phrasal verbs, which reflects that the approach of three-dimensional grammar has a greater impact on retention. Therefore, it can be drawn that three-dimensional grammar teaching is more effective for Chinese middle school students to acquire English phrasal verbs than conceptual metaphor teaching.

Results of Questionnaires

Among the 45 questionnaires that were sent out, 45 were collected and 45 were valid. The Cronbach's alpha of the questionnaire is 0.788, indicating that this questionnaire scale is of internal consistency and high reliability.

From question one to question three, it can be summarized that more than 29% of the students think it difficult to learn phrasal verbs. About 47% of the students do not have interest in learning phrasal verbs, and some learn phrasal verbs just for the requirement of exams, which reveal that they do not realize the important role of phrasal verbs in English learning. As for the results of the next five questions, it can be seen that about 76% of the students enjoy the teaching approach of three-dimensional grammar who believe that with the help of this approach, they are more interested in learning phrasal verbs. They are more willing to participate in various classroom interactions. But there are still 6% of the students do not have particular preference to get involved in the class actively and reckon that this teaching approach is dull. According to the percentages of questions nine to twelve, more than 74% of the students hold the view that three-dimensional grammar teaching does good to their learning of vocabulary and writing. Besides, their oral communication skills have also been improved. While 7% of the students think it has little effect on their English learning. They have no enthusiasm to use the new learned phrasal verbs. And on the basis of the results of question thirteen to question fifteen, which have shown students' general feelings and hopes towards the teaching and learning in English lessons, about 86% of the students deem that three-dimensional grammar teaching makes them more interested in learning English phrasal verbs and they have confidence in their future English study, who also hope that in the future English class, more and more various activities related to their daily life or their interests should be provided. However, on the other hand, there are about 4% of the students still think three-dimensional grammar teaching has no special effect on the phrasal verbs learning and even English learning.

F. Discussion

From the results of the immediate posttests, it can be found that Class 2 instructed with three-dimensional grammar teaching approach outperforms Class 1. Effective output is a crucial part of output driven hypothesis, and the last step of three-dimensional grammar teaching in this experiment is to output with lots of practice. Namely, in Class 2, after knowing the meanings of the particles and the phrasal verbs, students were asked to work in pairs and to make oral communication by using the phrasal verbs they have already learned for the reinforcement, and they could better understand how to use the particles correctly and output the proper phrasal verbs in certain contexts. As a contrast, students in Class 1 were asked to draw their own pictures but not practice the phrasal verbs they have learned.

According to the results of the delayed posttests, the students in Class 2 get higher scores, and they are more retentive in remembering target phrasal verbs effectively, which reveal that three-dimensional grammar teaching has a greater impact on long term retention. In Class 2, students were requested to use the phrasal verbs in order to reinforce the understanding. During the period of group work, the forms and meanings of the particles and phrasal verbs were used many times, which can leave a deep impression on the students. Therefore, in the delayed posttest, students could recall the scene of interactions and the experiences related to practicing the target phrasal verbs they had in class, and performed better on the

delayed posttest.

Besides, in terms of Figure 4, in the second part (translation questions) of the two tests, the mean gap of Class 2 is smaller than that of Class 1, indicating that students in Class 2 remembered the target phrasal verbs better than students in Class 1 and forgot them more slowly. The reason is that in classroom teaching, students in Class 2 practiced and produced the target phrasal verbs through making dialogues, and then they had a better retention of the target phrasal verbs. However, students in Class 1 did not produce the target phrasal verbs they had learned, so they didn't remember the target phrasal verbs as well as students in Class 2.

What is more, student Zhang in Class 2 said that "Before that, I thought English phrasal verbs were very difficult to remember and they were not used in oral practice. But in this semester, my teacher taught us English phrasal verbs and asked us to practice them more, I could understand their meanings better and use them more accurately than before." This also reflects that students like the teaching approach based on three-dimensional grammar.

VI. CONCLUSION

Research questions put forward in this study are answered as follows: Three-dimensional grammar teaching is more effective than conceptual metaphor teaching for Chinese middle school students to acquire English phrasal verbs and the application of three-dimensional grammar teaching can effectively improve their retention of English phrasal verbs. Furthermore, students are fond of three-dimensional grammar teaching approach in classroom teaching, and this teaching approach positively affects their learning of phrasal verbs, and they are willing to take part in practice related to the phrasal verbs in English class.

VII. LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS OF THE STUDY

First of all, the particles of the target phrasal verbs studied in this paper are only limited to "up" and "out". Future research could choose more particles to further check the effectiveness of two different teaching approaches based on three-dimensional grammar and conceptual metaphor theory.

In addition, if the students instructed by conceptual metaphor teaching were also asked to practice the phrasal verbs they learned just the same as students instructed by three-dimensional grammar teaching, then which teaching approach is more effective?

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The Effects of WordWall Online Games (WOW) on English Language Vocabulary Learning Among Year 5 Pupils

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Abstract—In the effort to upgrade pupils' vocabulary learning experience, the potential of interactive educational games is increasingly explored as supplementary teaching and learning materials. While the eagerness to integrate mobile technology into English language education is noticeable, there is a lack of evidence on Malaysian English as Second Language (ESL) learners' views of the feasibility of online games in vocabulary learning. This study aims to determine the degree of improvement in pupils' vocabulary performance. The quantitative data was analysed using descriptive and dependent t-test analysis. The cross-sectional survey was adapted from the ACRS-V model. The questionnaire was distributed to Year 5 pupils from a national primary school in Negeri Sembilan who are using the syllabus of The English Language Curriculum for Primary Schools (KSSR). The findings show a moderate level of *Satisfaction, Attention, Relevance, Confidence and Volition*. In addition, a paired sample t-test indicates a significant improvement in the pupils' vocabulary scores after using WordWall (WOW) as a vocabulary learning supplementary material. The effect size demonstrated is also larger regarding its effects in behavioural sciences. This study provides important insights as a guide for primary school English teachers in integrating online games as a learning tool for English language learning, especially in developing pupils' English vocabulary repertoire.

Index Terms—ESL learners, online game, primary pupils, vocabulary learning

I. INTRODUCTION

The online game serves as a continuation from lessons in school, intending to strengthen and support memory with real-life applications. There is a feature in the online game that records each pupil's vocabulary scores and achievements. It supports the currently employed Classroom-Based Assessment in Malaysia education system which takes into consideration pupils' progress in learning via various mediums to reduce exam-oriented assessments. Therefore, the declining proficiency of English language ability among Malaysian pupils and the weak grasp of English vocabulary has been a matter of concern to Malaysian linguists, educationists and policymakers. Many undergraduates possess insufficient vocabulary repertoire and fail to achieve the minimum word level (2000 words) out of five word-level (Lateh, Shamsudin & Abdul Raof, 2018). The word level consists of high-frequency vocabulary which is also used to gauge pupils' capabilities in English communication. The undergraduates' lack of mastery in English writing skills is affected by their vocabulary deficiency mastery and limited ability to use vocabulary effectively for communication purposes (Ashrafzadeh & Nimehchisalem, 2015).

In addition, there are cases of low vocabulary repertoire among Year 5 pupils' (Wang & Yamat, 2019) which results in delays for pupils to comprehend reading materials efficiently (Sidek & Harun, 2015). The traditional teaching methods of vocabulary which are currently employed in most schools are less interesting, ineffective as well as less

motivating (Mohamad, Sazali & Salleh, 2018) and often requires pupils to memorize unfamiliar words with paired translations (Nejati et al., 2018). It leads to issues of low vocabulary acquisition among Malaysian pupils. They only develop their listening and writing skills but not their thinking and questioning skills (Chen & Lee 2018). Consequently, they become passive learners and are often quiet and uninterested in their learning. In line with the concerns highlighted, the World of Words (WOW) online game in WordWall platform can assist and enrich pupils' experience in acquiring English language vocabulary through 200 vocabularies. This game is accompanied by colourful pictures to help retain players' attention, association of words with images, strengthen the memory of spelling as well as support the understanding of word meaning directly and indirectly. The design of the WOW encourages the use of mobile and gamified learning in class as a teaching aid and serves as supplementary material to encourage fun and independent out-of-class learning.

On the ground that there is great anticipation for the use of mobile learning in education, it is eminent to take pupils' perceptions towards the ease of use of online educational games into consideration to ensure the effectiveness and successful implementation of online games in education. After all, the game is designed for their language learning. Earlier studies indicate that pupils' acceptance, attitude, and perceptions towards online games are influenced by several factors. Although Fagan (2019) states that enjoyment and performance expectations contribute to the difference in perceptions among pupils, thus far, there are still limited studies conducted in investigating the relationship between these factors with pupils' perceptions of online games in vocabulary learning. Thus, the purpose of this study is to (1) investigate pupils' motivation levels towards using WOW interactive online games in vocabulary learning and (2) examine the effects of WOW interactive online games on pupils' vocabulary development.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Several studies have recorded teachers' concern over Malaysian pupils' poor recall of vocabulary. They are largely unable to remember the vocabulary they had learned from the previous day (Chong & Kee, 2019). For instance, if they learn four new words in an hour lesson for the day, generally they will only be able to recall one word during the lesson on the next day. There are also pupils who can recognize the written or oral form of the words but cannot determine the meaning of the words without guidance from the teacher. Afzal (2019) underscores the ineffective teaching practices adopted in vocabulary teaching and learning as one of the factors in Malaysian pupils' poor vocabulary mastery. Some teachers lack techno-literacy and traditional teaching methods are largely unappealing to learners to learn the subject.

The advancement of technological devices and the internet environment has uncovered a multitude of probabilities for pupils of all levels to learn particularly focusing on the new generation of technology-savvy learners. The emergence of Mobile-assisted Language Learning (MALL) is an advancement to language experience through the facilitation and improvisation using mobile devices (Gangaiamaran & Pasupathi, 2017; Klimova, 2019). In Malaysia and beyond, there is a growing demand to incorporate independent learning using online platforms in teaching and learning (Kessler, 2018; Nasir et al., 2018; Nasir, 2020). The concept of integrating mobile devices in 21st century education has been the interest of many teachers to improve English competency. The Malaysian government facilitates the greater adoption and diffusion of ICT through several initiatives to improve capacities in education fields which is in line with Malaysia Education Blueprint (MEB) 2013-2025. In the 10-years strategic plan of MEB, the goal is to restructure education as future-proof in line with the industrial revolution 4.0 (Niko Sudibjo et al., 2019).

Nejati, Jahagiri and Salehi (2018) suggest that vocabulary is like building blocks of a language. A limited number of them inevitably disrupt pupils' development in other language skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing. Alqahtani (2015) states in his study that ESL learners majoring in English rely heavily on their vocabulary knowledge rather than their knowledge in other language areas like grammar. Practitioners and researchers acknowledge that vocabulary acquisition is a challenging task, especially for English as a second language (ESL) learners. Afzal (2019) states that non-native speakers of English face problems relating to the meanings of the new words, spelling, pronunciation, correct use of words, guessing meaning through the context and others. Without sufficient vocabulary, ESL learners are more likely to struggle in comprehending common reading materials, understand and apply grammar rules when using the language (Nejati et al., 2018). Sidek and Ab. Rahim (2015) highlight that the issue of poor vocabulary contributes to difficulties in other language skills as lexical knowledge is fundamental for effective communication.

Many scholars define online games in learning as the integration of game thinking and game mechanics (Takahashi 2010; Bakhsh 2016; Chapman & Rich, 2018). Mobile learning is known to optimize the potential of mobile devices as learning tools in language learning environments (Daud et al., 2015). The rapid global development of mobile technology speeds up the popularity and proliferation of mobile learning in Malaysia. Kung-Teck et al. (2020) reveal that the incorporation of mobile learning into heutagogy teaching instruction is highly advantageous, as it facilitates interactive, versatile, and multi-modal learning via Google Docs, e-Portfolio, Twitter, YouTube, Quizizz and MindMap. Thamilarasan and Ikram (2019) developed a mobile application tutor service called MyMUET as a supplementary learning aid for Malaysian learners sitting for MUET (Malaysian University English Test). Their findings of the survey note that learners agreed that the mobile application is highly useful for supplementary materials for out-of-class learning. To date, the application of mobile technology in education or 'mobile learning' has been generating interest among academicians. A growing body of literature has recognized that mobile learning is becoming more popular and

appreciated due to its adaptability in language learning as the younger generation is generally more technology-savvy. Issham et al. (2016) deduce that one of the driving forces behind the utilization of mobile learning in education is the growing use of mobile devices by the current generation of learners. Perrin and Duggan (2015) also note that online games are favourably approved by young pupils, especially among the pupils at the age of 10 to 18 years old.

Andreani and Ying (2019) found that interactive online game has succeeded in enhancing the language learning experience for low proficiency EFL elementary learners. There is an improvement in pupils' English vocabulary skills after the intervention of mobile application in vocabulary learning. Similar studies are also conducted by Govindasamy et al. (2019) and Fazil and Said (2020). The online game integrates thinking and game mechanics to solve pupils' problems and engage them in interactive learning (Bakhsh, 2016; Chapman & Rich, 2018). Letchumanan et al. (2015) and Azli et al. (2018) studies indicate that pupils' experience more gratification in learning English with mobile games. Game elements are the contributing factors in engaging, motivating and facilitating interest in ESL learners' vocabulary learning experience. Generally, there is no limit to subject areas in vocabulary learning. Pupils must be engaged in task-based activities whereby they are able to apply the vocabulary in context to learn and retain new words effectively. With functional game elements, pupils are more motivated, autonomous, and prone to develop problem-solving skills as well as being intrinsically motivated. Azli et al. (2018) reinforce that online game facilitates learning experience and the use of online games in class is very beneficial for pupils.

Wordwall is the most suitable game platform for vocabulary practice. It provides a wide selection of game formats that are beneficial and appealing to the target audience; in this context, the primary school pupils. In contrast, it is crucial to select a game that is exciting while effectively meeting the learning goals as there are games with learning advantages but with little fun factor (Jantke & Hume 2015). Some games are lacking in educational purposes thus are not employable to the learning process with learning goals. A mindful selection of materials for mobile learning is necessary for the efficient incorporation of learning theory into mobile learning that can blend education and entertainment harmoniously and consequently, spur pupils' interest and boost motivation to learn.

Motivation acts as the essential factor that contributes to language learning efficiency (Tanaka 2017; Dornyei, 2007). Online learning often requires learners to be intrinsically motivated as the online environment is dependent on pupils' self-regulation, curiosity and interests. Other factors such as family socioeconomic status (Shereen & Tang, 2015; Chukwuere, 2017; Hashim et al, 2017; Zakaria & Mohamad, 2019), races (Tankari, 2018; Kumi-Yeboah & Yuan, 2017), familiarity with mobile devices (Alzaza & Abdul Razak, 2011; Roslina Ibrahim et al., 2011; Adams et al., 2018; Fagan, 2019; Uppal & Ali, 2020) contribute to the motivation of learning English vocabulary.

In contrast, some studies discovered the acceptance of online games is evident among learners in Malaysia regardless of age and capabilities. It is also widely received by teachers who utilize online games due to their benefits in teaching and learning (Hasin & Nasir, 2021). Since the proliferation of mobile technology in learning, there is a tremendous buzz of using online games to promote learning through their multimedia capabilities. Tertiary learners remark a positive perception and experience towards mobile learning practice and application to deliver courses in higher education (Karim et al., 2018; Deris & Shukor, 2019; Mohamad et al., 2020). They are Generation Z learners with complex visual imagery as a result of their brains responding to external conditions Rothman (2016). Learners in Malaysia gradually show general acceptance towards online games. Past studies and literature reviews collected indicate that mobile assisted learning provides a fun learning environment, drives learners to actively participate in lessons and is necessary for accommodating learners' increasing interest and competency in technology.

III. METHODOLOGY

The research design for the undertaken study is quantitative which focuses on the pupils' perceptions - the experimental study. The sample consists of 121 Year 5 pupils from a national primary school in Negeri Sembilan who are using the current syllabus for primary school, Language Curriculum for Malaysian National Primary Schools (KSSR). They are chosen through convenience sampling, as they are easily accessible to the researcher and generally possessed a similar level of English proficiency, which is low intermediate. They are selected from the three income groups, which are B40, M40 and T20. The term B40 represents the percentage of the country's population of Bottom 40% who earns RM3,000. M40 is Middle 40% whose median household is at least RM 6,625 while T20 is Top 20% whose median household income is at least RM13,148. A questionnaire is used as an instrument. It is adapted from ACRS-V model (Keller, 2016), Mohamad et al. (2020) and the Year 5 KSSR syllabus (Ministry of Education, 2015) to suit the objectives of the study and participants' level. The questionnaire comprised of two parts; Part A which consists of several demographic multiple-choice items and Part B comprised of items to gauge learners' perceptions towards the use of WOW online games in vocabulary learning. There are five motivational components which are *Attention*, *Relevance*, *Confidence*, *Satisfaction* and *Volition*.

The questionnaire consists of 30 statements with a 4-point Likert scale response, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree, to indicate their level of agreement to various statements. Additionally, the pre and post-test comprised of 30 vocabulary questions that covers six units of vocabulary in the WOW online game introduced in stages. The items in the questionnaire were validated by an English language Excellent Teacher from the school and two senior lecturers who are the experts in the field. They validated in terms of the relevance of the contents in the questionnaire to ensure the language is accurately translated and the contents are relevant to the research questions. The survey was conducted

by distributing the questionnaire via face-to-face to all the participants. Participants answered the questionnaire, within the time allocated. The questionnaire was distributed to the participants after they completed the six units of the online vocabulary games or known as WOW.

The pilot test was carried out among a different group of Year 5 pupils with similar language proficiency. The researcher assessed four pupils involved in the pilot test to gauge pupils' comprehensiveness towards the format, content and terminology used in the questionnaire. The researchers identified and revised the items before distributing the questionnaire during the actual administration of the questionnaire. The pilot study was also conducted to identify the duration needed for the pupils to complete the questionnaire. The Cronbach Alpha values for all the items were higher than 0.70. It demonstrates an appropriate level of reliability; thus, all 30 items were included in their questionnaire.

The design of WOW is to cater to the needs of designing follow up activities after learning English vocabulary at school. It serves as a supplementary material or tool in pupils' vocabulary learning. The pupils have accessed WOW after school hours. The words incorporated into WOW were categorized into themes according to the units. WOW designed for this study introduces 200 vocabularies to players. The selected vocabularies are adapted from Curriculum and Assessment Standard Document (for Primary School) (DSKP) and textbook for Year 5 pupils. DSKP is a reliable source of reference for all national schools in Malaysia. Thus, the words presented are the must-mastered vocabulary for all pupils in Year 5. Descriptive analysis is used to analyse and concisely present vast quantities of quantitative data. The analysis of the dependent t-test is utilised for pre-tests and post-tests to calculate the difference in pupils' performance before and after the intervention.

IV. FINDINGS

Out of 121 participants, only 60 participated in the study which yields 49.59% return rate. The majority of the participants are Malay, which is 75% (n=45). The second largest group is the Orang Asal or Indigenous people which makes up 18.3% (n=11) of the whole population of the study, while, 6.6% (n=4) of them are Indian. In terms of socioeconomic status, a significant 63.3% (n=38) of the participants are from the B40 group, 30% (n=18) are M40, and only 6.6% (n=4) are from the T20 group. The B40 group refers to the group with a median household income of less than RM4,360. The final variable is the participants' level of familiarity with mobile devices. The data obtained through a survey showed that 38.3% of the participants (n=23) are highly familiar with mobile devices while 43.3% (n=26) of the participants are in the medium familiarity group and the low level of familiarity group consist of 18.3% of the participants (n=11). The participants' level of familiarity with mobile devices is measured by the frequency of using mobile devices, their aptness in handling mobile devices without help and the regularity in using mobile devices for learning and playing games.

TABLE 1
MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION, LEVEL AND CRONBACH'S ALPHA VALUE OF EACH CONSTRUCT IN ARCS-V MODEL

Constructs	Mean	SD	Category	Cronbach's Alpha Value
Attention	3.54	0.36	Good	0.786
Relevance	3.51	0.50	Good	0.718
Confidence	3.46	0.45	Quite good	0.513
Satisfaction	3.64	0.42	Good	0.805
Volition	3.35	0.50	Quite good	0.507
				Overall: 0.775

Referring to Table 1, the construct with the highest value of mean is *Satisfaction* (Mean=3.64, SD=0.42). Followed by *Attention* (Mean=3.54, SD=0.36) and *Relevance* (Mean=3.51, SD=0.50). Next, the *Confidence* construct obtained a mean value of 3.46 (SD=0.45) and the construct with the lowest mean value was *Volition* with mean=3.35 (SD=0.50). and normally distributed. ARCS model proposed five categories of motivation which are Very Good category (range from 4.50-5.00), Good category (range from 3.50-4.49), Quite Good category (range from 2.50-3.49), Less Good category (range from 1.50-2.49) and Not Good category (range from 1.00-1.49) (Jamil et al., 2019). Based on the proposed category, the majority of the constructs were in the good category with a range from 3.5-4.4.9; *Satisfaction*=3.64, *Attention*=3.54 and *Relevance*=3.51, the majority of the constructs were in the Good category with a range from 3.5-4.4.9. The overall reliability of all the scales on standardized Cronbach Alpha was 0.775 (n=30) which suggested good reliability of items as acknowledged by Chang and Chen (2015) and Huang and Hew (2016).

Additionally, a series of pre and post-tests were conducted on 40 participants to assess whether there are any improvements in pupils' vocabulary learning. The assumption and conditions for the test were assessed. Participants were tested on the spelling of the new words introduced, their association with pictures as well as applying the vocabulary in sentences. The topics for each unit are as follows: Unit 1: Family Day, Unit 2: Saving, Sharing and Spending, Unit 3: Superheroes, Unit 6: Self Protection, Unit 7: The King's Decision and Unit 11: Natural Disasters. A

paired or correlated sample t-test indicated that the post-test unit 1 to unit 7 and unit 11 had on average significantly improved on vocabulary score after using WOW as vocabulary learning tool than pre-test unit 1 to unit 7 and unit 11, $t(39) = -14.29, p < .001, d = 20.39, t(39) = -14.64, p < .001, d = 106.38, t(39) = -16.47, p < .001, d = 48.25, t(39) = -16.92, p < .001, d = 6.66, t(39) = -11.15, p < .001, d = 18.38, t(39) = -17.92, p < .001, d = 9.36$ respectively. All paired sample t-test effect size was computed using WebPower's (2021) effect size calculator shows much larger than typical based on Cohen's (1988) guidelines for effects in the behavioural sciences.

V. DISCUSSION

The WOW interactive vocabulary game, as an external stimulus, contributes to the increase in scores between the series of pre and post-tests. The study proves that mobile phone application in learning increases pupils' comprehension and understanding of vocabulary as cited in Govindasamy et al. (2019) and Paulus et al. (2017). The vocabulary can be found in the form of images and the pronunciation of the word can be listened and seen in the form of audio or video which is also in line with Alnatour and Hijazi (2018). The use of online games promotes engagement via repetition contributes to a deeper understanding of the vocabulary and the ability to recall spelling easily. This is similar to a past study that supported the positive and long-lasting effect of online game learning on pupils' motivation (Darmi & Albion, 2017).

This research highlights two significant challenges for pupils in incorporating WOW online games which are the limited number of mobile devices to access WOW and a stable internet connection. Pupils use their devices to access WOW at home. However, it is a challenging experience for some pupils who are from poor families due to inability to purchase mobile data and mobile phones. Acknowledging the issues, stakeholders, such as schools and parent teacher associations shall take the necessary steps to improve the pupils' learning experience by providing sufficient devices and internet connection through the optimization of the school's facilities. The school in the study has a problem with low maintenance and support of the internet and computers which prompted the researchers to conduct this study by integrating WOW as supplementary materials to be used at home.

Year 5 pupils had high *Satisfaction*, *Attention*, and *Relevance* motivation. However, their *Confidence* and *Volition* were at a moderate level. The results could educate pupils on utilizing various tools to enhance learning, such as online educational games in mobile applications and awareness. These findings could provide information on the necessity to design online educational games in line with the national syllabus. The WOW online games provide a positive learning experience, multiple game types, scores, and challenges. It was also found to amplify intrinsic motivation and persistence to achieve desired goals and ranks through healthy competition promoted in games. Self-directed learning is one of the skills highlighted in Education 4.0 as it facilitates independent learning via technology-enhanced educational tools as suggested by Min and Nasir (2020). Indirectly, this application can be used as supplementary or revision materials for Year 5.

In essence, educators need to embrace the technology-immersed classroom to cater to the current generation inclination towards technology-enhanced learning. Simultaneously, there is a great need to employ the appropriate online game-based learning that adheres to the national syllabus and outlined standards to provide easy integration of the innovations and pedagogical focus in the education system (Purgina et al., 2016). The study is limited to the development of the English vocabulary of the Year 5 KSSR syllabus. Other than that, this study only measured pupils' views of online vocabulary games on one platform. Hence, pupils' perceptions could not be generalised towards other English vocabulary online games. Exposing learners to multiple online games may require better resources and a longer time for the researchers to produce games on multiple virtual platforms that is of similar standard based on the national syllabus.

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A Study of the Reflection of Naturalism in the Heroine in *Sister Carrie*

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Abstract—*Sister Carrie* is one of the greatest works composed by Theodore Dreiser, one of the representatives of naturalists in American literature at the beginning of the 20th century. Among numerous works of Theodore Dreiser, *Sister Carrie* enjoys a quite high literary status, and also meets with different comments after its publication. The novel mainly tells the personal experiences of a rural beautiful girl Carrie in the big city Chicago. Driven by natural desires and urban environment, she changes her social status and original values in the end. Naturalism is a scientific and literary approach employed here to depict the characters in the novel where a person's fate is decided or predetermined by impersonal forces of nature and environment beyond human control. The novel is an experiment where the author could discover and analyze the natural forces and survival laws that influence personal behaviors, emotion and fate. This paper introduces the origin, development and characteristics of naturalism in American literature, studies the effect of human weakness on their life, and makes clear the influences of environment on people's way of thinking and way of life.

Index Terms—naturalism, *Sister Carrie*, human weakness, environment

I. INTRODUCTION

Sister Carrie is one of the great naturalistic novels of the American realistic writer Theodore Dreiser. The novel tells a story of a pure and beautiful country girl Carrie, who goes up social ladder from the bottom line of society to a recognized one, a Broadway star. In the process where Carrie pursues her dream, she has gone through the hardship of job hunting, diseases, unemployment until an accident puts her to fame and wealth. In the novel Dreiser points out the influences of human weakness and environment on the girl and her fate. The novel has a distinctive naturalism style. It can be seen that Carrie, by nature, is a pure, timid and innocent girl, it is nature that has formed Carrie. She entrusts herself first to one man, then to another out of desire for a better material life. She is like a leaf carried by wind, lucky enough, she follows a right direction in the pursuit of the American Dream. In-born vanity, desire for wealth and fame and hard living circumstance drive her to reach her goals. But she is lonely even when she gets what she has dreamed, she does not know what is true happiness in her endless pursuit, she is a victim of her own desire.

In the late 19th and early 20th century, the United States went through a profound change in economic development, industrialization and urbanization. A rich variety of commodity was provided and people were encouraged to compete with each other to purchase and show off their newly-bought goods: the rich built mansions and bought expensive clothes; girls were main stream of consumers of luxurious goods; men were proud of attracting and occupying beautiful women. Driven by fashion and inner desire, surrounded by colourful advertisements and articles, and trying to show her own value and importance, at last Carrie could not help but follow suit, in this sense, she is a victim of environment.

A brief introduction to the author Dreiser helps to read and understand the novel better. Dreiser was born in a large, poor, immigrant family at Terre Haute, Indiana in 1871. He had his childhood in bitter poverty, lacking enough education, job skill and social status. His family moved from house to house followed closely by poverty, insecurity and internal division. He hoped to realize his dreams when he went to Chicago at the age of 15. In Chicago, he did a lot of odd jobs for a very low wage in different places, it was hard to earn a living for him. Dreiser went to all the major cities in the United States as a reporter at 23, he witnessed the hard life of people who struggled in low class, in the meantime, he saw a luxurious life of the rich. Dreiser's early experiences destroyed his fantasy, he gradually realized that ethics was a luxury for the poor. Dreiser's own bitter experiences of poverty as a youth and his early yearnings for wealth and success would become dominant themes in his novels. In 1900, the first novel *Sister Carrie* was published, followed by *Jennie Gerhard* in 1911. As a naturalistic writer, Dreiser stressed determinism in his characters in his novels. His characters cannot assert their will against natural and economic forces. Dreiser held that people were not entirely to blame for what they were and what they did, for they were not under the control of their own will.

II. AN INTRODUCTION TO NATURALISM

Naturalism is a kind of new critical realism developed under the war and social turmoil which affects people's beliefs in their early ages. It is known that naturalism came from Europe, and was first put forward by the French novelist Emile Zola, who held that the purpose of a novelist was to be a scientist, to place his characters in a situation and then to watch the influences of heredity and environment on them (Ye, 2013). This idea was picked up by writers in different countries, they held that realism was too genteel in tone to reveal the harsh reality, then a literary movement called

“Naturalism” started. Naturalism in America had been shaped by the war, by the social upheavals that undermined the comforting faith of an earlier age, and by the disturbing teachings of Charles Darwin. Darwinism seemed to stress the nature of animal in man, to suggest that man was dominated by the irresistible forces of evolution (Wu, 2005)). In reflecting the reality of life, naturalistic writers tended to show the feature of sentimentalism of early romanticism (Wu, 2005). The difference between naturalism and romanticism is that naturalists take the attitude that the world is lack of morality, people have no willing of freedom, their lives are controlled by heredity and environment (Wu, 2005), people lead a miserable life when they are alive, but they are forgotten by others after they are dead. Though naturalism reveals the weakness of the world by the way of extremely strict realistic technique, it sometimes paves the way to improve the world by social reform (Wu, 2005).

With the development of economy, science and culture, influenced by European naturalistic literature, American naturalistic literature emerged in the late 19th century and the major representatives were Stephen Crane, Jack London, Frank Norris and Theodore Dreiser etc. These writers’ detailed depiction of the lives of the miserable and the abnormal, their frank treatment of human passion and sexuality, and their portrayal of man and women overpowered by blind forces of nature still exert a powerful influence on modern American literature (Wu, 2005).

The main characteristics of American naturalism can be outlined as follows: First of all, naturalists put more emphasis on details, trying to present life as real and clear as possible, keeping true and loyal to the harsh reality and even going to the extreme to show the harsh and inhuman truth. Second, the characters naturalistic writers portrayed in their novels were usually from the lower class, whose destiny was restricted by environment and heredity (Wu, 2005). The characters were driven by basic needs, such as hunger, fear and sex. Therefore, Naturalists took the moral attitude for all human behaviors, no blame and no praise. Third, naturalists made use of simple and sometimes “strong” words to describe the crude lives of the poor. Finally, pessimism and deterministic ideas of naturalism pervaded the works of such writers as Stephen Crane, Jack London and Frank Norris, Henry Adams and Theodore Dreiser etc, they believed that the world was amoral, that the destiny of humanity was misery in life and oblivion in death (Wu, 2005).

III. THE EFFECT OF HUMAN WEAKNESS ON THE HEROINE

Naturalists believe that human beings, under the blind forces of their nature, can not control themselves in making sound judgement and right decisions. Just like animals, their behaviour is largely determined by the inner passion and desire, not by reason or logic, this is clearly reflected in the heroine Carrie and in the other characters as well in the novel. The following will act as proof to show the effect of human inner desires on the life experience of the heroine Carrie.

A. *Carrie’s Hunger for Comforts*

Carrie was a rural and simple girl from a low class in the remote countryside, she did not get much into touch with modern enlightenment. “Books were beyond her interest. In the intuitive graces she was still crude. She could scarcely toss her head gracefully. Her hands were almost ineffectual. The feet, though small, were set flatly. And yet she was interested in her own charms, quick to understand the keener pleasures of life, and ambitious to gain in material things.” (Dreiser, 1991). She was often unsatisfied with her living condition there and also her social status. She left home for her father’s thin income was not sufficient to buy her pretty clothes and provide her with a comfortable life. She dreamed of leaving her home and being a member of an upper class one day, then she could enjoy all of the things that she had desired. On the train, she was expecting of a good life in Chicago, but when she was living at her sister’s home in Chicago, she discovered that her life there would be far from the happy, carefree existence, and her dream was broken. To earn herself a living, she had to go job-hunting and got a job in a shoe factory, but lost it because of a bad cold. While she was looking for a job, she met the salesman Drouet again, who could satisfy her with beautiful clothes and enjoyment in life. Just as what is described in the novel “Her advantages and disadvantages she had understood, and also quickly understood the further fun in life there were, she was eager to get material comforts. She was a little knight not equipped with all, but she enlarged her courage to take risks in this mysterious city, doing step beyond the bounds of an empty dream of peace.” (Dreiser, 1991). Carrie looked like a knight who was not fully equipped, risked exploring this mysterious city, imagining that she could dominate her life one day in the future.

Perhaps, we cannot simply say that Carrie has no sense of what is right and wrong, it is her desire for comforts that leads her to make choices or decisions in life and in jobs. She leaves the factory for she has got accustomed to the slow, free life in the country, “at home she got up at seven or eight o’clock every morning, and now she must get up at six, and in rural areas, she was free, can go wherever she wants to go” (Dreiser, 1991), but now she was bound in the dark factory. Her nature of pursuit of comforts rebels against the strict requirements of the factory and forces her to seek another way of life to satisfy herself.

B. *Carrie’s Pursuit of Money*

Pursuit of money plays an important role in Carrie’s life and drives her to rise from a timid and simple girl all the way to a Broadway star. Even at her early age, she understood the importance of a full pocket, and never stopped struggling for it. When she arrived at Chicago, she was much attracted by many bright clothes, shoes, hats, scarves and high buildings. She felt shabby and a little ashamed of herself in front of the women in fashion and the magnificent city.

Also she had to pay her sister the hard-earned money as rent, and this even drove her into poverty. She realized that the only way to get rid of poverty was to earn sufficient money so as to assure her survival in big city and then comforts. After that, pursuit of money became a major goal in her life. She agreed to live with Drouet for his financial help, for the some reason, she abandoned Hurstwood because of his bankruptcy in business. Under her inner drive for wealth, Carrie tried hard to look for a job, then luck began to fall on her. She got a job as a chorus girl, then became a well-known actress, and a guest at a local hotel. In the end, she had money and all the comforts and luxuries which appealed to a country girl.

C. *Men's Desire for Beauty*

Dreiser's novels of businessmen often introduce the notion that men of high sexual energy are financially successful, the two businessmen who chased Carrie may not be considered financially successful, but they both had strong sexual desire for beauty. When Drouet first met Carrie in the train to Chicago, he was much drawn to her beauty, but he did not fell into love with Carrie, to him women were like goods displayed in the shop window, "Drouet paid attention to some of the trendy clothing or appearance of beautiful women, on their overcritical in the street." (Dreiser, 1991). Like most men of his age, he took interest in women, in their beauty, in the way women carried themselves, "He saw how they set their little feet, how they carried their chins, with what grace and sinuosity they swung their bodies. A dainty, self-conscious swaying of the hips by a woman was to him as alluring as the glint of red wine to a topper." (Dreiser, 1991). He was born with sexual desire, he chased a beautiful woman perhaps to satisfy his curiosity or to meet his sexual desire. Therefore, he would not choose to marry Carrie, he only desired to possess Carrie to satisfy his innate sex desire, to highlight his power and success. For this reason, he felt thrilled that Carrie finally lived together with him. And then, he could not wait to invite his friend Hurstwood to his home to show his power and charm.

It is just the same with Hurstwood, he was almost twice Carrie's age, and was attracted by Carrie's appearance too, for Carrie was so young and beautiful, she could meet his physical and psychological needs. To some degree, Carrie had to thank the two men who had helped her to go through the hard days and then survive in the unfriendly city, but it is through the life with them that Carrie began to understand what money meant to her, and what she had to do to gain a comfortable and luxurious life as she had dreamed.

IV. THE INFLUENCE OF ENVIRONMENT ON THE HEROINE

Environment is another factor that will certainly produce effects on the life experiences of humans, for no one can survive without exchange or interaction with the things and persons around him, no one can remain the same all the way without being influenced by his living surrounding, Carrie is no exception. Her beliefs and values were greatly changed since she arrived at Chicago, her life experiences were sure to be changed by what happened in America, by what people believed at that time. The following will show the effect of environment on her beliefs and values.

A. *Consuming Concept*

The late 19th and the early 20th in America was an age of great prosperity. Increased wealth and desire for its conspicuous display gave rise to a gingerbread era of American design whose prime function was to attract attention (Wu, 2005). Success in business led to a general growth in wealth and then in consumption, consumption was the most popular thing in the United States at that time. People were encouraged to compete with each other and to show off their wealth. American millionaires built Gothic mansions and decorated them with various ornaments. Rooms of rich men were filled with art imported from Europe, as were the symbols of culture. Wealthy Americans adopted European dress styles and manners. People invested in and built a variety of restaurants, hotels, cafes to make luxurious life easier. Riches began to be taken as a symbol of one's social status, riches were also believed to be in league with virtue. All of these were the examples to show what the consuming concept was like in America at that time. People listened to their instinct, "as consumers will make pleasure as their own obligations, enjoyment and satisfaction as a cause" (Auster, 1984). Consumption became men's main social activities.

In this social circumstance, Carrie could not reject the temptation brought about by highly developed industrialization and commerce, she was eager to follow the fashion, to share those pretty clothes, nice carriages and the like to show her taste and social identity. When Carrie arrived in Chicago and saw an array of merchandise in store, or when a gorgeous woman passed by, she felt important to have these and did not hope to be looked down upon by the rich women while she was still in her shabby clothes. Later on Carrie never gave up an opportunity to be a city consumer, she began to understand that clothes were the tickets to enter the consumption-focused community. Therefore, national prosperity and a new idea of commercial consumption had an effect on Carrie's way of thinking and the way of life.

B. *Richness in Commodities*

Dazzling progress in business and industry helped provide a richer variety of commodities such as hats, shoes, dresses and jewelry for people to approach and choose, but they were available to only those rich women, perhaps not to Carrie. In spite of this, those precious items filled her with unbelievable magic, in her eyes, "there is nothing that she need not, there is nothing that she did not want. Exquisite slippers and stockings, beautiful ruffled shirt and skirt, lace, ribbons, combs, wallets, everything affects her personal desires" (Bassham, Ben L, 1978). Carrie had a special longing

for the exquisite items not only to satisfy her vanity, but also to change her low social standing. The American anthropologist Marshall Sahelisi said “dress is not just a series of objects to wear, but also symbols through which people can know which member of social groups the wearer belongs to, and reveals the existence of genders or social class differences.” (Luedtke, Luther S.ed, 2001). Carrie’s simple, indecent clothes was an indicator of her low social rank, which Carrie was not willing to accept, it hurt her pride and upset her mentally.

C. Social Circle

In Carrie’s growth from a pure country girl to a Broadway star, two groups of persons play an important part in it. One group is Mrs. Hale and Mrs. Vance, who introduced Carrie to new wealth, the other group is Drouet and Hurstwood. Mrs. Hale took Carrie to the mansions in Chicago and caused Carrie to expect something a little better than Drouet could afford. Mrs. Vance presented Carrie the Broadway fashion show, then Carrie began to be dissatisfied with her own life and would have an urge to move forward.

Drouet first helped Carrie move out from her sister’s home and escape from a life pressed hard by lack of money, then provided Carrie with necessities in life. More than this, Drouet bought Carrie what she was fond of and let her know what the life in Chicago was like, giving her a hope and hunger for a dreamed life in big city. Further, being young and curious, Drouet often got Carrie to start something new and encouraged her to go on with it, for example, Drouet offered Carrie an opportunity to act on the stage where she found an acting talent in herself and grew confident of herself. From then on she believed that she could depend on herself to make money and to be in fashion if she had an opportunity.

While on the other hand, Hurstwood was quite different from Drouet in manner and behaviour. Hurstwood was a man of wisdom and taste. His keen eyes, his good manner, his fine clothes and all things about him were so good in Carrie’s eyes that she learned them to improve herself. As a matter of fact, it was through his wealth, status and influence that Carrie rose high in life and on the stage. Besides, he was strong in providing the social context in which Carrie could succeed. Both Drouet and Hurstwood had done much to contribute to Carrie’s success as an actress.

Moreover, Carrie’s sister Minnie is another person who brings about changes in Carrie’s attitude to life. Faced with the hardship in life, living on the bottom line of social ladder, Minnie had to save every hard-earned penny, life to her was actually a matter of endless struggle for a survival. This was a kind of life Carrie was unwilling to endure and accept, so she decided to start her journey to seek a new way of life for herself.

Dreiser stated in this novel “when a girl leaves her home at eighteen, she does one of two things. Either she falls into saving hands and becomes better, or she rapidly assumes the cosmopolitan standard of virtue and becomes worse.”(Dreiser.1991). Long exposed to and gradually affected by the cruelty of consumer society, Carrie began to care more about herself and finally decided to leave Hurstwood while he gradually sank to deprivation and suicide. Carrie’s “constant move to something better was not to be denied” (Rosenblatt, Roger, 1999), her choice to leave Hurstwood was almost completely motivated by finances. Whether Carrie’s life in the cities finally turned her for better or for worse depended much on how she took it morally, but without doubt, after living in city for many years, Carrie was no longer what she had been in the country, city life has changed her into another girl.

V. CONCLUSION

From what has been presented above, one can see that the heroine Carrie in *Sister Carrie* is depicted mainly from the literary approach of naturalism. Naturalism, the harsher realism, helps the reader understand the helplessness of the characters who are the victims of their own weakness (nature) and environment. The central figure Carrie is dominated by her instincts such as desires, needs and fear to search for money, success and sensual gratification on the one hand, and she is influenced by consumerism and her social circle to meet her satisfaction of desires on the other hand. Carrie seemed to end up in success for she gained what she had dreamed, but it was an empty success, for she was still lonely sitting in a rocking chair, she did not understand what was true happiness and true success. Born and growing up in a poor family, Carrie was not taught by her family members to have a right view on wealth. What is worse, a rapid increase in national wealth and a wide spread pursuit of money brought American people a value crisis, they were puzzled, blind by the dazzling wealth of “the Gilded Age” in America, as Mark Twain called, and then got lost.

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ICC Nurturing Strategies in the Context of Sino-foreign Institutes

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Abstract—This paper discusses intercultural communicative competence (ICC) education in the context of Sino-Foreign Institutes (SFIs). Through an overview of the development of internationalization of higher education in China, the paper puts forward four strategies that are widely adopted to facilitate the development of students ICC. The four strategies are provision of ICC specific courses, integration of ICC in subject courses, integration of ICC with foreign language education, and intercultural activities and projects. Towards the end, the paper argues that more empirical research is needed to evaluate the effects of the strategies on students' ICC and challenges the SFIs face in the post-pandemic era.

Index Terms—intercultural communicative competence, ICC nurturing strategies, Sino-foreign Institutes

I. INTRODUCTION

In the process of internationalization, the importance of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) (Byram, 2021) has been widely recognized as an essential component of global talents who can 'build and nurture constructive intercultural relationships' (Jackson, 2019, p.4) in various international cooperative programs. Deardorff defines ICC as 'the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one's intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes' (Deardorff, 2004, p.194). ICC is also widely believed to be one of the key objectives of universities to prepare their students for interactions with people from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds in this globalized world.

The pandemic of Covid 19 has a huge impact on globalization, and the rise in populism (Jackson, 2019) in some countries where political activities or ideas that claim to promote the interests and opinions of domestic ordinary people has further threatened cooperation among peoples and nations. Therefore, it can be predicted that the post-pandemic era will be complex and volatile in terms of cross-national communication. Thus, constructive and effective intercultural communication (IC) has never become more crucial. The Chinese government has realized it, in fact eight ministries including Ministry of Education (MOE) released guidelines in June 2020 to strengthen and accelerate internationalization of education in this new era (MOE, 2020).

Internationalization of higher education in China has developed prosperously, nevertheless. The number of students choosing to study abroad in China consistently increased six years in a row by 2020 (XingDongFang, 2020), though due to the impact of Covid 19, some students choose to cancel or postpone their plan in 2020 (iiMedia Research, 2020). It is commonly believed, however, that this is contemporary and the trend will continue. To achieve the aim of cultivating students who can 'act interculturally' (Feng, 2009), these Sino-Foreign Institutes (SFIs) should integrate intercultural education into their curriculum. However, what are the strategies of ICC education that may facilitate the cultivation of students ICC and what may impede it? This paper addresses this question with an overview of the previous studies on ICC education both in China and abroad.

II. THE CONTEXT OF SINO-FOREIGN INSTITUTES

The process of internationalization of Chinese higher education has lasted for more than four decades starting from the late 1970s and it has not always been a smooth one. This paper will first go over this development briefly with focusing on some crucial milestones.

A. Internationalization of Higher Education in China

The primary form of transnational higher education (TNHE) in China has started its course after the economic reform and open-door policy in 1978 (Ong & Chan, 2015). The development of TNHE in China, known as the 'Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in Running Schools' (CFCRS), has accelerated in the 1990s to support its soaring economic growth. In 2001, China became a member state in the World Trade Organization (WTO), which further boosted the development of CFCRS (ibid.).

Regulations of the People's Republic of China on Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in Running Schools issued in 2003

by the State Council has provided legal protection for the stakeholders and led to the dramatic development of CFCRS (Wang, 2005, p.188). Up to 2017, HEIs in China had signed mutual recognition of academic qualifications and degrees with their counterparts in 46 countries and regions (Ma, 2021). By Jan. 2020, there were 66 CFCRS undergraduate institutions and 50 postgraduate institutions, 930 undergraduate programs and 220 postgraduate programs being listed officially by the Ministry of Education. These institutions and programs spread to 31 provinces and areas throughout mainland China.¹

The implementing of *The Outline of National Medium and Long-Term Education Reform and Development Plan* (2010-2020) has no doubt further pushed this development. The objective of the outline is to establish 'a number of role model Sino-foreign institutions and projects' in the era of globalization of HE (MOE, 2010). Nevertheless, the development of transnational higher education in China at that time are seen as 'dramatic and chaotic' (Ong and Chan, 2015, p.117). In six rounds of evaluation of CFCRS before 2009, there had been 22 programs which were rated as unqualified thus being shut down. Another 109 have since applied for voluntary withdrawal due to poor management (Sun & Chen, 2018). The closure rate of CFCRS is generally felt depressing (Table I), 18% on average, and with the closure rate of postgraduate programs reaching staggering 40%.

TABLE I.
THE TOTAL NUMBER OF CFCRS AND CLOSURE BEFORE JAN. 2020

Types of CFCRS/number	Undergraduate institutions	Undergraduate programs	Postgraduate institutions	Postgraduate programs
Total number	66	930	50	220
Closed	5	197	2	87
The rate of closure	7.5%	21%	4%	39.5%

Source: Information Platform for the Supervisory Works on CFCRS. Retrieved and revised on Jan.30 2020 from <http://www.crs.jsj.edu.cn/aproval/orglists/1> & <http://www.crs.jsj.edu.cn/aproval/orglists/2>

In this context, it is uncertain whether some newly established SFIs can provide their students with education which is seen as of good quality and effective in achieving objectives of internationalization. One of the key objectives, many educators and researchers argue, is to equip the students with intercultural communicative competence so that they may survive and thrive in intercultural encounters. Students who lack intercultural awareness will experience serious cultural shocks and painful transition from the home country to the host country. Therefore, ICC training needs to be permeated into the whole curriculum of CFCRS and be evaluated to ensure its effectiveness at the same time. That is exactly what most scholars believe to be the strongest rationales for international learning experience (Deardorff, 2004; Byram, 2018).

Nevertheless, most of the existing research has been focusing on Chinese students' cultural and academic experiences abroad (Tian, 2008; Wang, 2010). There is limited attention paid to home students in SFIs and to the strategies the SFIs adopt to provide ICC education for this group of students.

B. *The Role of English in SFIs*

In this globalized world, English is widely used in business, science, and government. In fact, it is the world language in practice, that is English as the lingua franca (ELF). It means in today's international interactions, English is more frequently used by non-native speakers than by native speakers (Kaur, 2011). According to the United Nations statistics in 2015, non-native English speaker has reached about 1,500 million, which hasn't included the official use of English in international organizations or in numerous academic publications (Candel-Mora, 2015).

Apparently, the role English plays in communication between native and non-native speakers is different from that among non-native speakers where there is no presence of native speakers. Linguistic, cultural, and power issues could vary hugely in each situation. In SFIs where English is the first language of the foreign university, such as the University of Nottingham Ningbo China (UNNC) or Xi'an Jiaotong-Liverpool University (XJTLU), the native speakers of English enjoy a superiority covertly or overtly in interactions, particularly in formal domains. On the other hand, there are quite a number of SFIs where English is used for communication and teaching, but is the mother tongue of neither side (for example, the Sino-German Institute at Zhejiang Wanli University), the power issue may reflect itself in very different ways as there is no immediate advantage for either party. This phenomenon is well worth studying as the number of such SFIs in Shanghai alone is as high as 36, these SFIs in nationwide are also developing fast².

Of course, linguistic skills alone do not guarantee satisfactory communication outcomes, because it is quite possible for someone who is fluent with several languages yet lacks familiarity with cultures other than one's own (Sewell, 2013). As a result, the interaction between language and culture in the context of ELF is dynamic, multifaceted, and sometimes even ambivalent. It is therefore the work of the educators, including language teachers and subject teachers from SFIs to provide students with critical cultural awareness of language variations (ibid.) and intercultural communication. In short, it is the combination or integration of the linguistic and intercultural skills that will prepare students to enter variety of discourse communities in intercultural encounters.

¹ The data is retrieved from <http://www.crs.jsj.edu.cn/aproval/orglists/2> on Jan. 30th, 2020.

² The data is retrieved from <http://www.crs.jsj.edu.cn/aproval/orglists/2> on June 20th 2021.

III. STRATEGIES ADOPTED TO NURTURE STUDENTS' ICC

A holistic review of the previous studies on ICC education in general and studies conducted in SFIs in particular, we could identify four key strategies that are used to facilitate the development of students' ICC. They are ICC specific courses, integration of ICC in subject courses, integration of ICC with foreign language education, and intercultural activities and projects.

A. ICC-specific Course Offered in SFIs

In China, the study of intercultural communication as a subject started in the early 1980s, with approximately 300 papers being published in the following twenty years (Li, 2002). Since the culture turn of the new millennia, great progress has been made both in ICC research and in practice of intercultural education. This focus on ICC has become a necessity with the development of internationalization of high education and has been well supported by the government (MOE, 2010, 2017). Studies on ICC courses have also become prosperous.

From one of the biggest platforms of Chinese journals, Weipu, 228 journal articles could be found through a search under the key word of 'ICC courses', with 28 of them being grouped as from first class journals.¹ Various innovative ideas and attempts in ICC pedagogy are identifiable. For example, by encouraging students to interview foreigners and display the outcome in class, Zhang Li (2013) helped her students to perceive cultural differences through personal experience, enhancing their cultural sensitivity, tolerance, and flexibility, and building up their ICC.

Some have integrated new technology into ICC course to make it more effective. Liang (2010) applied networking in intercultural communication courses by encouraging her students to correspond with students from cooperative U.S. universities. From the data of questionnaires and interviews, Liang found that students' intercultural communication ability has been improved in cognition, affection and behavior. There are also those who have explored incorporating flipped classroom and MOOC (Massive Open Online Courses) in intercultural courses (Chi et al., 2016; Wang, 2018) and reported positive outcomes.

While most studies of ICC courses highlight the aspects of teaching methods and modes, informed by constructivist theory, Chen and Wang (2013) proposed the ICC course mode of 'learning - communication experience - ICC'. Based on this model, they designed an *Intercultural Communication Course* whose teaching procedures take into account both language skills and communication ability in order to reach the goal of cultivating college students' cross-cultural communication ability. They reported that this new teaching mode is more effective in improving students' autonomic learning, linguistic skills, cooperation with group members, intercultural communication and learning strategies.

While educators and researchers have developed some strategies and models for ICC nurturing, some have conducted evaluation of the existing practice. In the context of SFIs, 59 papers were retrieved under the keywords of ICC courses and CFCRS, among which less than ten articles are relevant to the context of SFIs. After interviewing Chinese students and French teachers in a Sino-French Institution, for example, Jin and Guo (2018) found that Chinese students studying in France generally lack cross-cultural communication skills, are poor in linguistic skills and poor in practicing and innovation. Besides, they cannot fit in the group activities of projects completion and formative evaluation system. These may at least partly explain the expelling of 8,000 Chinese students by US universities in 2015 (Wholeren, 2015).

In their paper, Jin and Guo (2018) not only analyzed the reasons of the hardship students face but also put forward seven suggestions, among which three are about intercultural communicative competence. They concluded that the SFI is responsible for their students' poor academic and intercultural performance and should do more to equip their students with skills they need to study in France. Kuang's (2014) research based on the questionnaire of the students who will go to study in Germany draws similar conclusion of deficiency of ICC in curriculum design.

This accumulating research has presented a panorama of intercultural study in China which demonstrates huge progress being made for last two decades in developing strategies and practical model for ICC education. Nevertheless, the problems found by the studies cannot be ignored. Though, there are some studies attempted to deal with them from different aspects (Chen and Wang, 2013; Jin and Guo, 2018), for such a complex issue in a wide variety of context, the effects are far from satisfactory. The innovative strategies, variety of models adopted so far and evaluative studies, however, are assets for designing, implementing and assessing future ICC training courses for specific contexts.

B. Integration of ICC in Subject Courses

Though ICC specific courses are vital in cultivating students' ICC systematically, it is usually found to be insufficient alone. Intercultural teaching integrated into subject courses has the advantage of addressing cultural diversity specifically in relation to everyday teaching practice of various subjects (Dunn et. Al., 2009, p.534) and thus it has become a strategy in many contexts. These subjects give intercultural learning detailed contexts within different borders and make significant contributions to the cultivating of students' ICC.

To address the potential epistemological conflicts between intercultural learning which focuses on diversity and highly structured subject knowledge, Nordgren (2017) adopts the concept of 'powerful knowledge' (Young, 2008) to justify incorporating intercultural learning into school subjects. Young defines powerful knowledge as specialized knowledge that every student should have a right to learn to better understand and explain the world (ibid.). Therefore,

1. The data is retrieved from <http://qikan.cqvip.com> on Feb. 4th, 2020, surveying papers from 2009-2018.

disciplinary knowledge is an important resource to achieve the goal of egalitarian education rather than an end for its own sake. This gives epistemic legitimacy to integrating intercultural teaching with school subjects, as this powerful knowledge may include knowledge that is intercultural. To some extent, the intercultural goals of education are largely based on the expected outcome of subject specialization in the process of internationalization of education.

There are many studies on intercultural disciplinary teaching at tertiary level. In *'Intercultural Competence in Higher Education: International Approaches, Assessment and Application'*, Deardorff and Arasaratnam-Smith (2017) have included ten papers of case studies on different subject courses focusing on developing students' intercultural competence. The case studies involve a wide range of different subjects, such as medicine, art and business; and took place in countries in America, Europe and Asia. The issues studied range from motivation of integrating intercultural teaching into subject courses; institutional context; disciplinary context; teaching methodology; students' attitude to measuring outcomes.

Krebs (2020) has reviewed these case studies and other attempts of improving students' ICC in different courses. He summarizes that though these studies have provided a diverse possibility of practices, they have not reached any agreement on 'pedagogical actions' (Krebs, 2020:38). After synthesizing the commonalities across the efforts and presenting their creativity in practice, he stresses the value of outcome assessment and gives proposals for further research. These proposals include extending intercultural teaching to alumni in professional context, designing effective intercultural subject courses throughout the degree programs and studying on beneficial classroom interventions.

It is not rare to the integration of ICC into subject courses in SFIs in recent years in China (Xia & Ren, 2019). The SFI where the first author works requires that all its three majors (brand design, brand communication and brand management) and their subject courses to permeate intercultural communication education whenever applicable. After two years of curriculum construction, the SFI has developed several courses which have successfully integrated ICC into subject teaching and two of courses have won the title of Provincial Excellent Courses.

C. Integration of ICC with Foreign Language Education

It is widely believed that intercultural communication is an indispensable part of foreign language education (Feng, 2007; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013; Byram, 2021). Byram (2018, 2021), in particular, has persistently advocated integrating foreign language education (FLE) with the development of students' ICC. He believes foreign language teaching has a responsibility to prepare learners for interaction with people from other cultural backgrounds, teaching them intercultural skills, attitudes, and knowledge (Byram, 2018, p.140).

However, this cultural FLE is not always well accepted in China and there are heated debates on English education at all levels, especially at tertiary education in teaching College English (English education for non-English major students). It lies in Chinese government's principle of *zhongxue wei ti xixue wei yong*, which refers to adopting value-free western science and technology for pragmatic purpose of developing Chinese economy while keep intact the essence of traditional Chinese culture (Gil & Adamson, 2011). Thus, English could be nothing more than a tool to achieve this goal. However, as a component of culture and medium of communication, language is also dynamic, complex, and powerful. The integration of ICC into FLE has drawn more serious debates among academics and educators.

The core of the debate seems to lie in what should be the fundamental objectives of English teaching and in turn its course system, namely, English for General Purpose (EGP) or English for Specific Purposes (ESP). As a strong advocate of ESP, Cai (2017) claims that the most important goal of English teaching in university should be training students who are both professionally competent and are fluent in English communication. He represents those who believe "the most significant function of a language is a tool of communication" (P. 3). Valuing only the instrumental role of English, these educators reject involving cultural education in English teaching (Cai, 2018).

Other commentators such as S.R. Wang (2011), on the other hand, believe ESP, together with EGP and English for General Education (EGE), is an integrated part of College English teaching (p. 3). He disagrees with Cai to that ESP is the only way to the future development of College English teaching in all colleges and universities (Cai, 2018). S.R. Wang (2011) states that College English teaching should help students understand foreign civilization (including ways of thinking and living habits), look at foreign culture and core values with a critical eye, be familiar with Chinese and foreign cultural differences, and cultivate intercultural communication skills.

Integrating culture with FLE gradually is gaining momentum among policy makers and EFL stakeholders (Zhang, 2012; Yang, 2014; Wang, 2016; Sun, 2016) despite constant debates. It is officially established when *Requirements on College English Teaching* (2007) define the nature of college English as "both instrumental and humanistic" (p. 3). And *Guidelines on College English Teaching* (2017) explicitly includes intercultural communication as a major branch of College English, enjoying the same status as ESP and EGP (MOE, 2017).

Despite the growing recognition of ICC in English teaching in theory and policy making, there are still many problems. The most prominent two, according to Zhang (2012), are firstly; cultural teaching in practice is an accessory to language teaching thus it is not systematic. Secondly, the unclear objectives and incomplete teaching content has long been a troubling issue. During the years, many scholars and practitioners have contributed to address the problems. For example, Zhang and Yao (2020) have proposed a theoretical framework in the Chinese context: 'Integrated Model for Chinese Students' Intercultural Competence Development' (Fig.1).

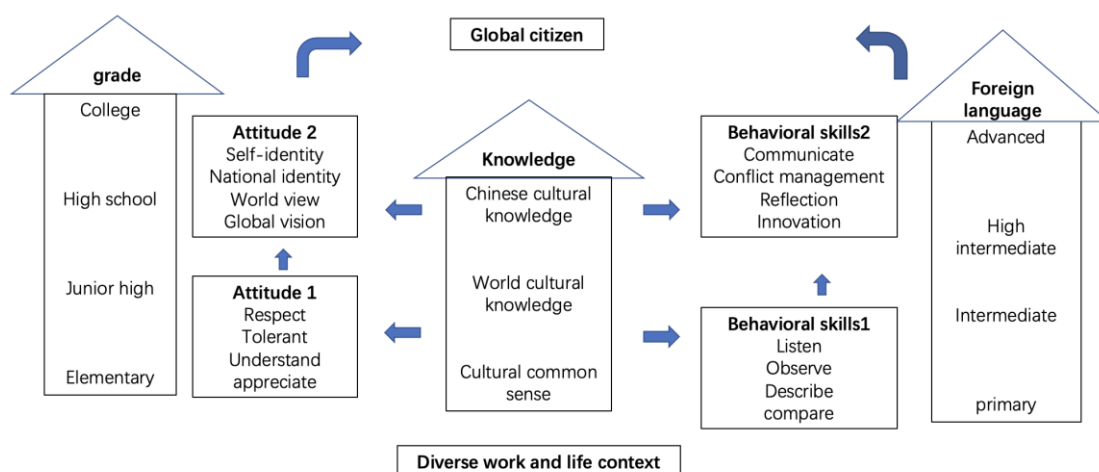


Figure 1. Integrated Model for Chinese Students' Intercultural Competence Development

This model states clearly that the objective of FLE is to educate students to be global citizens and achieving this need to integrate ICC components like attitudes, knowledges, and skills into FLE from primary school to university. Their study is not only theoretical but also practical. It ranges from designing intercultural textbooks for English class at different levels to organizing regional and national intercultural competence contests (Zhang et al., 2018).

D. Intercultural Activities and Projects

To improve students' ICC, it is essential for them to learn or experience more critical incidents (Flanagan, 1954). **Critical incident** refers to a communication situation which makes a participant(s) in an intercultural encounter feel so uncomfortable, amused, confused, or even shocked that this incident stays in mind. These incidents, like stories, involve characters, a cultural setting, a plot line, and an ending (De Frankrijker, 1998). The endings of the critical incidents usually relate to some cultural misunderstanding, awkwardness or difficulty, which are thought provoking.

Therefore, educators of foreign language courses and intercultural communicative courses often design class activities that involve critical incidents. These activities may include case analysis, role play, shooting video, interviewing, taking pictures, group discussion, experience sharing, storytelling, reflective journal writing, etc. Teachers may also encourage students to empathize with the characters of the critical incident by asking how they would do if they were the characters as such events which usually involve cultural clashes where something unexpected may happen. The objective of the critical incidents in intercultural communication is to avoid misunderstandings, accomplish tasks and develop relationships.

When designing intercultural activities, teachers should also consider the students' cultural background and ICC level, so that the activities generally match the students' level of intercultural competence. Therefore, it is necessary for teacher to conduct a survey to have a general idea about students ICC. Otherwise, too challenging tasks may trigger the defensive responses of the learners which is detrimental to the effect of learning (Fig. 2).

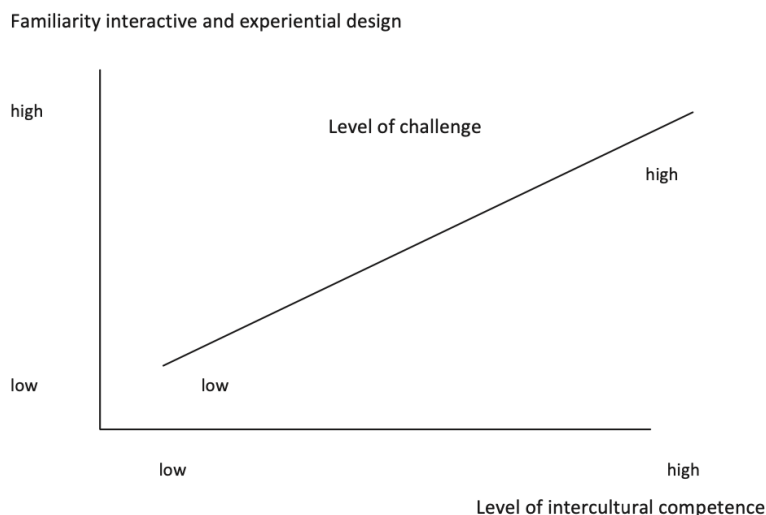


Figure 2 Level of Challenge in Program Design (Gregersen-Hermans & Pusch, 2012)

This program design figure shows how individuals will be more likely to be successful in the tasks they are confident

of. Therefore, designing activities at the appropriate level of challenge will be more likely to ensure emotional responses, active participation, and transformative learning experience (Gregersen-Hermans & Pusch, 2012, p.29).

Universities may also initiate projects that provide genuine intercultural encounters at the institutional level. These projects may involve organizing international fair participating by both domestic and overseas students, short term exchange or internship programs to cooperative universities abroad. In this way, students may have more opportunities to either witness or experience critical incidents from which they may see the difference among cultures and be aware of the potential misunderstandings (ibid.).

In Qin and Dai (2013)'s research, they have evaluated intercultural communication courses offered by an SFI. These IC courses all involve activities like case study, group presentation and report writing. They have found from data that these activities are more helpful than the traditional lecturing class in developing students' multicultural awareness.

To achieve optimal learning outcome, it is vital to help student to form the habit of reflection after critical incidents through, for example, reflective journals (Holly, 1989). The first author has been adopting reflective writing in her intercultural communication course in her SFI. By keeping a reflective journal, student can have the chance to relive the incident, have a dialogue with facts and interpretations, and learn from experience. It has been one of the most popular activities from students' feedback. If student have formed the habit of keeping ICC reflective journals, it can be very beneficial to the students' lifelong learning of ICC.

IV. CONCLUSION

Universities especially SFIs must respond to the wider global societal needs that arise from increasing intercultural interactions in the background of globalization. This means transforming students into graduates who are capable of 'behaving and communicating effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations' (Deardorff & Bok, 2009), which is also the goal of modern universities. While there are scores of studies on theoretical study of ICC (Deardorff, 2006; Kupka, 2008; Feng, 2009; Spencer-Oatey and Franklin, 2009; Byram, 2021) and some on application and assessment (Deardorff & Bok, 2009; Deardorff & Arasaratnam-Smith, 2017), there is still a rarity of empirical studies in the context of Sino-foreign institutions, particularly the studies to analyse the effectiveness of the strategies adopted to develop the ICC curriculum.

This overview of strategies is of value to shed some lights on the field of intercultural communicative competence curriculum design at tertiary level in the context of SFI and ELF, especially in the context of rapid development of internationalization of HE where many may compromise on quality. Further studies may focus on the evaluation of the four strategies, namely, ICC specific courses, integration of ICC in subject courses, integration of ICC with foreign language education, and intercultural activities and projects, and the interrelationship between them, in nurturing what are normally called global citizens or international talents (a term often used in China) the world desires for the 21st century.

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Comic Function in the Animated Ecodiscourse (Case Study of “Zootopia”)

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Abstract—This study focuses on the role of comic functions in exposing and challenging hidden ideologies, intentions, potential significance and other phenomena behind the animated ecological discourse of the film "Zootopia". The paper consistently considers two views on the ecology of animated discourse and comic functions that are used to uncover violation and establish an eco-friendly relation by means of language forms. The material of the English-language animated discourse of the film "Zootopia" examines cooperation of verbal and nonverbal modes, exposes problems and encourages solving them as well as promotes establishment of sustainable relationships between humans themselves, humans and nature as well as its phenomena.

Index Terms—animated discourse, comic, ecolinguistics, mode, multimodality, Zootopia

I. INTRODUCTION

Ecolinguistics is a modern science that focuses on discovering language means that encourage eco-friendly interaction with and about nature. Ecolinguists Alexander and Stibbe (2014, p. 104) gave a very detailed definition of ecolinguistics as “the study of the influence of language on the life-support relationship between human beings, other organisms and the physical environment. In other words, ecolinguistics focuses on how language forms, maintains, influences or destroys the relationship between human beings, other forms of life and the environment.” Lingvoecological analysis of comic animated discourse is constrained to attract attention to ecological problems, reveal hidden ideologies, ideas, stereotypes and propaganda behind discourse. Arran Stibbe (2015) classifies discourses into three categories: beneficial, ambivalent and destructive discourses.

In our study, we consider the comic animated discourse “Zootopia” as a beneficial ecological discourse because it is favourable to humans, nature as well as animals. The main characters of “Zootopia” are anthropomorphic animals who help the viewer to put animals at the same level as humans and show that both are an equal part of nature.

Comic animated discourse exists between real and fiction worlds. The fictional side of animated discourse is represented by an alternative view on animals as it shows them very human-like. They can speak, walk on hind legs, wear clothes, have work and act in different situations, which breaks the wall between humans and animals by using the same words and language constructions. The real world in this type of discourse is represented by stereotypes, interests, ideologies, facts and ecological problems. Comic animated discourse directly, metaphorically or hyperbolically reproduces various cultural phenomena and stereotypes of society.

This paper is an attempt to explore how the language in the animation “Zootopia” influences people's attitudes towards various things and phenomena of the world, thus shaping behaviour, beliefs, reactions and interactions of the viewers.

II. THEORETICAL PREREQUISITES

Animated discourse is a communicative system that is a complex semiotic structure, which is formed by different modes, which are viewed in the context of multimodality. The latter is a term that has recently been coined within the realms of media studies (Peeters, 2010, p. 104) to account for discourse forms in which the borders between the linguistic and non-linguistic levels or modes are transcended. Furthermore, through its focus on the effects of discourse on people, the concept of multimodality may explicate ecological functions of the animated discourse.

Mode is a part of a multidimensional communicative network (Bay et Al., 2003, p. 37). “This mode of modality could be coined by way of integrative multimodality. The perfect example would be an animated discourse, where video, dialogue voices, sounds, music and subtitles are attuned to such a degree that the viewer does not notice them as separate entities anymore, but rather sees them as part of the reality of the discourse” (Peeters, 2010, p. 123). To put it more simply, the mode is an information transmission channel which authors use to fully implement ideas, ideologies and conceptions about ecological issues or manipulate the viewer’s opinion.

The two main modes shape the content of animated discourse. Firstly, the verbal mode forms the linguistic system of the film (character speech, voice-over, captions, titles, inscriptions, street names, cities, etc., which are part of the world of a film). Secondly, the nonverbal mode includes the non-linguistic system of the animated discourse: visual mode (visual images, character movements, distance between them, scenery, scene, shot angle, the size ratio of the objects)

and audio or sound mode (the way they speak, i.e. prosody of the characters and voiceovers, natural noises, music, songs, etc.).

Animated discourse may be considered ecological due to two definitions. The first one, stated by Ivanova is as follows: "The ecological discourse is any set of statements and texts about existence and interaction of humans with other living organisms between each other and with the environment" (Ivanova, 2015). In other words, ecolinguistics deals not only with investigations made by ecologists but also takes into consideration all kinds of research that in one way or another covers ecological problems and speaks about natural phenomena. According to the second point of view, animated discourse can be considered ecological if it performs ecological functions. Stibbe maintains that ecolinguistics is simply "the use of techniques of linguistic analysis to reveal the stories-we-live-by, opening them up to question and challenge from an ecological perspective" (Stibbe, 2015, p. 5). For instance, animated discourse not only reflects problems of the real world but also challenges them through the comic.

Comic is a breakthrough in the essence, truth and fundamental eternal human value (Samokhina, 2012, p.7). We would add, it is not only a way of life but a way of surviving. Don and Alleen Nilsen (2019, p. 23) also claim that comic can be used to bond people in a social group, teach concepts, make people relieve stress, may encourage to investigate the nature of things, may require people to view issues from various perspectives.

Using comic people "look for and find the superiority or hostility aspects of humour, or the incongruity and incongruity resolution aspects of humour, or the release and relief aspects of humour" (ibid., p. 24). Comic components exist in all spheres of life, even in such strict and serious aspects as politics, medicine and ecology. It is the only story that has the "courage" to talk about all aspects of life (Stibbe, 2015, p. 5). Therefore, its subjects may even include discrimination, racism, ecological issues that people are not supposed to joke about.

Comic "is based on violation of immutable rules (linguistic, pragmatic and social), which are an integral part of the human worldview" (Samokhina, 2012, p. 183). The ecological essence of comic is violation of norms, stereotypes, clichés, etc. Due divergence from a norm in humour a new ecologically friendly norm is created which is considered the norm of comic perception of the world [ibid.]. "Comic blurs boundaries between real and imaginary world, violates established norms and laws that hinder ecology, thus promoting it. In a comic situation, a person intuitively comprehends the discrepancy between the inferior, imperfect and non-ecological content of a phenomenon and its form which claims to be complete, significant and environmentally friendly" [ibid.]. The viewer understands the difference between a high goal — promotion of the ecological attitude towards the world and its phenomenon by absurd, preposterous and ludicrous means of uncovering non-ecological sense.

Therefore, comic is a unique phenomenon whose ecological competencies function most vividly in animated discourse. A bright and quirky world of animation allows the author or authors to embody the bravest ideas. Some comic functions classified by Samokhina (2012), may also perform purely ecological functions in animated discourse: the **entertaining function** – ecological aim of which is to make people laugh, relax, distract from everyday life so that the problems of real world not to interfere with perception of the information revealed by other functions. In other words, this function creates favourable conditions to immerse oneself in funny world of animation and acquire information from it correctly; the **phatic function** – establishes eco-friendly comic contact or maintains it; the **attractive function** – the purpose of which is to draw the viewer's attention to ecological problems in comic animated discourse; the **regulatory function** – comic is a kind of evaluation of behaviour of members of society (good laughter motivates, and bad laughter shows that something is wrong), so it regulates behavioural eco-friendliness; the **critical function** – encourages critical thinking and attitude to the facts concealed in discourse. The critical function maintains healthy attitude and can assist the exposing function; the **exposing function** – comic may violate norms, stereotypes, etc., thereby revealing their obsolescence, inappropriateness and environmental (un)friendliness; the **function of detabuization** allows authors to express their thoughts and feelings on issues more loosely preserving the ecology of communication (in particular, with the help of characters from animated discourse); the **masking function** provides the author with the opportunity to mask (which does not mean to cover or conceal, as information is to be seen and understood) any information in order to transmit it in a gentle ecological way; the **function of self-affirmation** – comic enables ecological creative development of both authors and viewers; the **adaptive function** – comic helps a person to adapt more easily to the conditions of the world, so as not to harm the world; the **distracting function** – is a distracting manoeuvre that prevents people from wasting energy on things that are not worth it and may be harmful to the person and ecological world.

Broadly speaking, a comic component excavates hidden information, reveals language power and shows how language may become the tool of ecology. So, the authors' choice of language means is not some obituary decision. "The reason why a particular text expresses a particular meaning is the result of the choice of a speaker or creator. In many cases, the speaker's choice of a language form is cautious, purposeful and conscious, because only by choosing the suitable form can the proper meaning be expressed; while in other cases, the speaker's choice of linguistic form is subconscious or even unconscious" (Zuo, 2019, p. 40). However, whether this choice is conscious or not, it needs to be investigated by what method the meaning in discourse is built and by what means encourage a healthy emotional connection between humans and nature.

III. METHODOLOGY

The methodological background of this work is an ecological discourse analysis, which helps to improve sustainability of communication in social ecosystems employing a multimodal approach which takes into account verbal and nonverbal modes, as well as national and cultural specifics of discourse. The discursive approach to the comic animated ecodiscourse allows to study particular qualities of its implementation and considers comic functions, such as entertaining, attractive, regulatory, critical, exposing, masking, adaptive, distracting as well as the function of self-affirmation and detabuization. The integrative nature of the study requires a number of specific cooperating methods, the most important are ecological discourse analysis, intent analysis and, the method of cognitive modelling which benefits the study cognitive mechanism of incongruity.

The study tries to explore how the language, modes and comic components of the animation “Zootopia” help the author express his thoughts, ideas and attitudes towards nature and its phenomena and show how the choice of verbal and non-verbal means may influence the viewer’s relationship with other people and natural phenomena.

The current study is based on the 108-minute animation “Zootopia” from which we have chosen 5 extracts which vividly demonstrate how comic functions explore stereotypes, ideas and ecological problems behind comic animated discourse and help the viewer to establish sustainable attitude towards other people, natural world and its phenomena.

IV. SOME PRELIMINARY REMARKS ON THE ANIMATION “ZOOTOPIA”

“Zootopia” (Howard & Moore, 2016) is an American computer-animated comedy-adventure film produced by Walt Disney Animation Studios and released by Walt Disney Pictures (Zootopia WIKI). It was created by Byron Howard and Rich Moore, co-directed by Jared Bush and has a record box office success in several countries. It became the 25th film that crossed the \$ 1 billion milestones. In 2017, the film won an Oscar for the nomination “Best Animated Feature Film”. The film was chosen by the American Film Institute as one of the top ten films of 2016 and won the Academy Award, Golden Globe, Critics Choice Movie Award and Annie Award for Best Animated Feature Film and received a nomination for the BAFTA Award for Best Animated Film (Zootopia).

The film tells about Zootopia – a modern city inhabited by different animals, from huge elephants to tiny shrews. Zootopia is divided into areas that completely overlap the natural habitat of different animals. The film’s coverage of the hot topics of prejudice, stereotypes, social and environmental issues earned critical acclaim. Zootopia constantly asks its characters to look past species stereotypes, and not to use the “speciesist” language or repeat harmful assumptions (Seitz, 2016). In other words, it teaches viewers not to be a racist, not to use the racist language, not to be biased, and not to believe in prejudice and stereotypes. It stimulates people to establish healthy, positive and eco-friendly relations with other people, nature and its phenomena.

V. RESEARCH AND DISCUSSION

Scene 27 “Assistance from Bellwether” (Howard & Moore, 2016) presents the viewer with more information about Assistant Mayor Bellwether who is “underestimated, underappreciated” (as she claims later in the film) by predators. The comic component in this scene performs several ecological functions. First, the comic highlights ambiguous information which is explicated by the attractive function – entertaining the viewer. Dawn Bellwether is a sheep, therefore her swearing in the following example (e.g. 1, underlined) encourages the viewer’s attention:

(1) **Leodore Lionheart:** *Okay! I heard you, Bellwether, just take care of it! Please. And clear my afternoon, I'm going out.*

Dawn Bellwether: *Oh, no, but sir, you do have a meeting with Herds and Grazing, sir, if I can just...! Oh, mutton chops.* (Zootopia: time step: 01:00:53 – 01:01:08; Howard & Moore, 2016)

The authors must have intentionally put this ambiguous swearing (e.g. 1, underlined) where “mutton” means meat from an adult sheep eaten as food, and “chop” is a small piece of meat with a bone still in it. These meanings imply cruelty towards sheep though the swearing creates a comic effect being used by one of them. This attracts the viewer’s attention to the situation and especially to her outfit which is “ironically made of wool” (Bellwether). On the other side, “muttonchops” – in one word, stands for “side-whiskers that are narrow at the temples and broad and trimmed short at the jawline, the chin being shaved both in front and beneath” (Muttonchops). This meaning is supported by the visual mode of the animation — Mayor of Zootopia wears muttonchops (Fig.1) which hints that Bellwether may address the Mayor. The comic encourages critical thinking in order to solve this ambiguity. Also, the last meaning suggests the allusion to the saying describing the relationship of the Mayor and his assistant “In like a lion, out like a lamb” which provides an adaptive function, that helps the viewer understand the animation in general.



Figure 1. Zootopia: time step: 01:00:54 (Howard & Moore, 2016)

Later, in the same scene, Assistant Mayor is helping the main character Officer Judy Hopps and her civil assistant Nick Wild with their case:

(2) **Dawn Bellwether:** *I mean, you know, I never get to do anything this important.*

Judy Hopps: *But you're the assistant mayor of Zootopia.*

Dawn Bellwether: *Oh, I'm more of a glorified secretary. I think Mayor Lionheart just wanted the sheep vote. But he did give me that nice mug. Feels good to be appreciated.* (Zootopia: time step: 01:01:42 – 01:01:57; Howard & Moore, 2016)

The name “Bellwether” is used in attractive and adaptive functions. It attracts attention to several oxymorons in example 2 and explains them in order to help the viewer understand the hidden meaning in animation. The former part of the last name “Wether” means “a castrated male sheep, bred only for meat” (*Bellwether*). This explains the first oxymoron “*never get to do anything this important*” – “*But you're the assistant mayor*” which is quite strange as her position must be very important in the city, but she still feels underappreciated. Also, the whole last name supports verbal mode “*Lionheart just wanted the sheep vote*”, as the term “Bellwether” refers to a “sheep that leads a herd” (*ibid*). Therefore, it can be seen from the name that Mayor hired the sheep only to manipulate the voters – so, the comic name and the verbal mode detabuizes not only discrimination of the sheep (women) but also the problem of unfair elections. At this point, we should recall the names mentioned in example 3 “*Herds and Grazing*”, the former last name has the root “herd” which means a group of animals and the latter — land where farm animals feed on grass. This implies that the lion asks his assistant to cancel meetings with some farm animals, most probably sheep.

The next comic oxymoron is built on the incongruity of the visual (Fig. 2) and verbal modes: the sheep says that she is “*a glorified secretary*” and “*good to be appreciated*” which is a hyperbole and hidden sarcasm. The visual mode shows the mug that says “*World's greatest ~~dad~~ assistant mayor*” presented to the sheep by the lion. The above mentioned implies two possible surmises. The first is that the Lion underappreciated his children's gifts and the second is that his assistant uses the mug to store writing tools in her office where no one sees it. The above stated utterance opposes the verbal mode and enhances the comic functions of critical thinking and regulatory function as it regulates the attitude to the situation and supports rethinking.

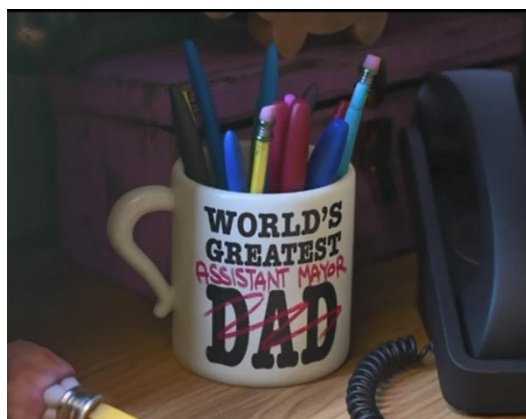


Figure 2. Zootopia: time step 01:54:01 (Howard & Moore, 2016)

The second predator the Sheep deals with in the animation is the Fox who helps the main character to investigate the case. The visual mode shows that they don't interact as “human beings” at all. The fox treats her as an object:

(3) **Nick Wilde:** *So fluffy!*

Judy Hopps: Hey!

Nick Wilde: Sheep never let me get this close.

Judy Hopps: You can't just touch a sheep's wool!

Nick Wilde: It's like cotton candy!

Judy Hopps: Stop it! (Zootopia: time step: 01:01:20 – 01:01:33; Howard & Moore, 2016)

This example demonstrates that the predator treats the prey like an object. He touches her wool and notes that it is “*So fluffy*” — something soft which describes characteristics of an object, not a person. Though the word “*fluffy*” has a slang meaning — “usually describing a person or behaviour that is soft, cute and anything unmanly normally seen as an insult or an embarrassment” [Peckham], and this meaning is also offensive. The fox pays attention only to her wool and uses the description “cotton candy” which denotes a type of food. These meanings are supported visually as the fox looks very excited touching her wool (Fig. 3). Collaborating the modes create the comic effect and perform the exposing function, the Fox’s behaviour turns out to be very offensive thus he means well.



Figure 3. Zootopia: time step 01:01:23 (Howard & Moore, 2016)

The authors in this scene also use allusion to the famous mental exercise before sleeping “*Nick Wilde: You think when she goes to sleep, she counts herself?*” (Howard & Moore, 2016). The situation appears absurd, the comic effect encourages the viewer to critical thinking. The practice has been so commonly referenced by cartoons and other mass media and has become deeply integrated into the stereotypical notion of sleep. Medical studies show that it is no more than a stereotype as “insomniacs in the group that had to count sheep took *longer* than usual to fall asleep” (Stibich 2019). So, this scene teaches the viewer not to believe stereotypes and appreciate both people and animals for who they are and the work they do.

Another bright example is presented in scene 23: “Nick’s Childhood” (Howard & Moore, 2016). In this scene, the Fox Nicolas Wild tells a story as he tried to become a member of The Junior Ranger Scouts (group of young prey mammals in Zootopia) (Junior Ranger Scouts):

- (4) **Nick Wilde:** *No, it's true. I think I was eight or maybe nine, and all I wanted to do was join the Junior Ranger Scouts. So, my mom scraped together enough money to buy me a brand new uniform because by God I was gonna fit in, even if I was the only predator in the troop, the only fox.*

Woodchuck Boy: Okay, Nick.

Nick Wilde: *I was gonna be part of a pack.* (Zootopia: time step: 00:58:18 – 00:58:44; Howard & Moore, 2016)

Above all, the character's last name implements a critical function. “Wilde”, is a play on the word “wild” which conflicts with the context of the animation. Nick lives in Zootopia city since childhood, so he is not wild, rather social. Furthermore, the verbal mode (e. g. 4, underlined) supports that his childhood dream was to “*fit in*” in a social pray organisation despite being a predator. In his speech, Nick uses three synonymic phrases “*I was gonna fit in*”, “*even if I was the only predator in the troop, the only fox*”, “*I was gonna be part of a pack*” (Howard & Moore, 2016) in order to highlight that he was not prejudiced then. Still, in the latter phrase, he uses the word “pack” which commonly describes a group of predator animals.

- (5) **Woodchuck Boy:** Okay. Now raise your right paw and deliver the oath.

Young Nick Wilde: I, Nicholas Wilde, promise to be brave, loyal, helpful and trustworthy!

Woodchuck Boy: Even though you're a fox?

Young Nick Wilde: What? No, no! What did I do wrong, you guys? No, please! Tell me what did I do wrong? What did I do? Gah!

Woodchuck Boy: If you thought we would ever trust a fox without a muzzle, you're even dumber than you look.

Nick Wilde: I learned two things that day. One: I was never gonna let anyone see that they got to me.

Judy Hopps: And two?

Nick Wilde: If the world's only gonna see a fox as shifty and untrustworthy, there's no point in trying to be anything else. (Zootopia: time step: 00:58:52 – 01:00:03; Howard & Moore, 2016)

This example presents incongruity between the oath given by the Fox “*brave, loyal, helpful and trustworthy*” and the common stereotype about foxes – sly, “*shifty and untrustworthy*” as Nick mentions himself which performs two functions. The first is the exposing function which shows that unprejudiced Fox turns out to be a victim of prejudiced prays who bullied and muzzled him. This function is intensified by a visual mode (Fig. 4) as Nick looks smaller than

prays even the woodchuck who is much smaller than foxes in the real world. The second is the function of detabuization as authors imply the problem of discrimination and do not interfere ecology of communication with the viewer. They encourage the viewer to come to a conclusion that is incongruous to Nick's that under such circumstances "*there's no point in trying to be anything else*", where he uses the negative words (underlined). The verbal mode supports it as the main character, using positive lexis, implies "*Judy Hopps: Nick, you are so much more than that*" (Zootopia: time step: 01:00:03 – 01:00:08; Howard & Moore, 2016). So, the authors in this scene teach the viewer not to be prejudiced and follow your dreams even if it seems the whole world is against you.



Figure 4. Zootopia: time step 00:58:48 (Howard & Moore, 2016)

The comic component appearing in different modes performs a set of ecological functions. First of all, it entertains and helps the viewer to relax from the routine and problems, in this way preparing the viewer to the perception of further information. It helps the viewer employing animation understand the world they are living in, think over or rethink some behaviour, attitudes and beliefs and learn how to deal with the world in an ecologically friendly way. On the other hand, it provides the author with the opportunity to express their thoughts and ideas more freely by masking (not hiding and one of the main comic functions is to expose) them under zoomorphic animals. The comic component also attracts attention to the problems stated in comic animated ecodiscourse, exposes them and encourages critical thinking.

VI. CONCLUSION

Comic animation discourse teaches the viewer both young and adult about the values, such as the value of life, both human life and the life of other animals and plants, nature value and social value, the role and value of diversity and biodiversity.

Broadly speaking, the ecological comic functions in animated discourse cooperating with the verbal and non-verbal modes provide authors with the opportunity to express their ideas and thoughts even on such topics as discrimination, racism and environmental problems more freely. At the same time, they help the viewer relax, entertain and stimulates positive exploration of the world of comic animated ecodiscourse, attract attention to important facts and issues, maintain an intellectual and rational understanding of verbal, visual and audial information. Through the prism of animated discourse, ecological comic functions show the problems of real world, help the viewer adapt to them and discover possible solutions. Moreover, the functions motivate for eco-friendly relation between human beings and natural phenomena, support ecological creative development and distract from harmful and destroying ideas, attitudes and behaviours.

The ecological comic functions display the language means that encourage, maintain and influence eco-friendly communication, behaviour and warn about linguistic means that destroy or discourage from eco-friendly communication, behaviour and contribute non-ecological ones.

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Analysis of Speech Humor in Crosstalk From Principles of Cooperation and Relevance Theory

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Abstract—Cross talk is one of the unique performing arts in China, and most crosstalk gives the audience happy feelings through the delivery of humorous language. This paper interprets the generation of humor in crosstalk through the cooperation principles and the relevance theory, and the generation of the humorous results comes from the contrast between ostensive-inference model and the contrast between maximal relevance and optimal relevance.

Index Terms—humorous, cooperative principle, relevance theory

I. INTRODUCTION

As people step into the fast-paced life of 996 and with increasing pressure from all circles, people feel more and more anxiety. At present, one way for people to release pressure is to watch a variety of drama programs, such as “Top Funny Comedian”, “Smile”, etc. Various comedy programs have won the audience applause and smile with different works, their essential feature is that they produce humor. As a common language phenomenon, humor plays an important role in people’s life. It can not only relieve their anxiety, tension, but also resolve the embarrassment between people in communication. There are many forms of humor, such as words, facial expressions, body language, especially in discourse. At the same time, as a unique art form of China which inherits a long history, crosstalk is worthy of research and discussion by scholars. This is not only a way to preserve Chinese cultural treasures, but also a way to show Chinese traditional art to the world and carry forward Chinese culture to the world through discussion. Given this, the author will analyze the speech humor in crosstalk from the perspective of cooperation principle and relevance theory. Through the analysis, the author aims to reveal the laughter mechanism in crosstalk for the reference of scholars studying humorous discourse, while further confirming that the principle of cooperation and relevance theory have a strong interpretation of speech humor.

II. COOPERATIVE PRINCIPLE

In 1967, the American philosopher Grice, who first proposed the principles of cooperation in his speech “logic and communication”, believed that in oral and written communication, people must follow certain rules to achieve the communication effect, that is, the two persons communicate around the same theme and achieve a certain purpose. In this process, both sides should make different efforts to cooperate with each other to make the dialogue go smoothly in the right direction. The principles of cooperation include four maxims, namely maxim of quantity, maxim of quality, maxim of relationship and maxim of manner. Mengjing Liu (2020) said that maxim of quantity requires both sides to provide appropriate amount of information as required without excess information, it includes two more criteria, first, providing the information needed for this communication, second, don’t make yourself say more than you ask for, maxim of quality requires that what the communicators say must be true, accurate and supported by certain evidence, that is, first, don’t say the words without basis. Second, don’t say anything untrue, the maxim of relationship requires that what the two sides says should relate to the subject discussed, maxim of manner requires what the both sides says must be organized, easy to understand, and to avoid ambiguous. However, in everyday life, sometimes somebody may not follow the principles of cooperation in conversation, and the actual situation is that people often violate certain maxims to achieve some purpose. When the listener realizes that the other side has not adhered to the principles, he attempts to identify the other side for the violation and thus infer the implied meaning of the conversation.

III. RELEVANCE THEORY

Sperber & Wilson (2001) said in “Relevance: Communication and Cognition”, that relevance theory belongs to the field of cognitive linguistics, mainly studying the discourse in speech communication. In 1995, Sperber & Wilson proposed two major principles of relevance theory---cognitive and communicative principles. Cognition is designed to maximize the communicative conversation. Their proposed view of communication suggests that communication is a process of explicit---reasoning. Shiyang Zhang (2021) said that the speaker express information, and the listener uses reasoning to understand the meaning of the words expressed by the speaker. The success of communication depends on maintaining the best relevance. The degree of relevance of discourse said by the communication depends on the context

effect and reasoning effort. Zheshi Mao (2005) said that contextual effect refers to the effect produced by the new information in communication under certain conditions. The greater the effect, the stronger the correlation. The generation of context effect is related to new information and current context assumptions. Jinbang Du & Weihe Zhong (2013) said that there are three relationships between new information and current context assumptions, firstly, new information strengthens the current context assumptions and makes it more credible, secondly, new information contradicts or conflicts with the current context hypothesis and replaces it, provided that the new information is stronger than the current context hypothesis, thirdly, the new information combines with the current contextual hypothesis to obtain the updated contextual hypothesis. Fei Wang (2017) said that the reasoning effort is that the listener deals with what the speaker says by contextual assumptions and deductive reasoning to derive contextual implications.

IV. ANALYSIS OF LANGUAGE HUMOUR FROM THE VIEW OF COOPERATION PRINCIPLES

Ning Wang (2013) said that Grice noted in his "Logic and Dialogue" that only both sides adhere to cooperation principles in communication and the two were able to have a smooth dialogue. If people intentionally or unintentionally violate one or more principles, it can easily lead to disagreement, conflict, and sometimes humor. The generation of humor is closely related to violations of the principles of cooperation. While this violation does not appear literal uncooperative in most cases, it reflects a deep collaboration. The speakers use this way to express their implied meaning, and humor appears.

A. Humour Caused by Violating of Maxim of Quantity

Mengjing Liu (2020) said that the maxim of quantity requires both sides in the conversation provide appropriate information, no more or no less. By violating of the maxim of quantity, the two sides provide too much or too little information, too much information will make the listener aware of the humor that the other side wants convey, too little information will make the other side feel ambiguous, resulting in humorous. The author will give two examples to analyze the humor that violates the maxim of quantity below.

A: As long as the weekend, I, my daughter- in-law, My dad and mom, My parents- in -law, a few of us, get up at 3: 30 a. m.

B: Why so early?

A: All of them were responsible for preparing what to use for a day in class.

B: Musical Instruments, books or something else?

A: Yes, Like football, basketball, table tennis, soldier ball, Chinese brush, painting brush, crayon, oboe violin, shelf drum, electric guitar, bass effector, piano conductor and trumpet.

B: OK, don't say more.

A: Pi pa, three-strings and South Xiao.

B: OK, Don't say more, Stop describing it again.

——Selected from "Such a Parent"

In this example, B asked A whether what they had prepared for his child was a musical instrument, books and so on. According to the maxim of quantity, A should answer yes or not, but he continued to list what he had prepared and made the audience laugh.

A: I ask you a little question.

B: You said.

A: Cross talk actors have four subjects which are "say, learn, tease, sing", did you know what are they?

B: Er.....

A: Silly.

B: So do you know what are they?

A: Say, learn, tease, sing ah!

B: Didn't you ask something like this?

A: The answer to the question is just the question itself ah!

B: Ah, I don't know who is wrong between us.

——Selected from "The Legend of the White Snake"

In this dialogue, A asked B what were the four subjects "say, learn, tease, sing" that crosstalk actors learned. B failed to give the answer. A said the correct answer was "say, learn, tease, sing". The answer given by A was actually the question itself, so that B failed to answer. According to the principle of cooperation, A obviously violates the quality principle, makes B feel confused, thus makes the audience laugh, produce humor.

B. Humour Caused by Violating Maxim of Quality

Feng Xie & Shuyun Zheng (2007) said that violation of quality principles means that the speaker fails to tell the truth or provides information which is short of sufficient evidence. Maxim of quality requires participants to ensure in the dialogue that what they say is real. In a collaborative dialogue, one should avoid lying, exaggerating or boasting and thus follow cooperative principles. However, in many crosstalk, the two sides of the dialogue create humor by violating quality principles. The following are cases in violation of quality principles.

A: Who do you want to see when you come here? As the name suggests, the steel wire festival.

B: Steel wire festival.

A: Everyone came to see the steel wire.

B: Yes. Wait for a minute.

A: This is the communication between friends.

B: You don't say anything, we come here to see the steel wire in steel wire festival?

A: Of course.

B: So what about the Strawberry Music Festival?

A: See the strawberries.

—— Selected from “Three Flower Lane”

In the case of A and B, the performance is held in the wire festival, they say the reason that audience come here is to see the wire, but in fact, the wire festival is just a name, the purpose of the audience is to come to listen to crosstalk, so they violated the first criterion of the maxim of quality-----what they said was not true, thus causing humor, making the audience laugh.

A: All of the audience, thank you for getting here so close, standing so straight to listen to me. Today what to say is the character that the helm of the world Jinnan Chen, there is an old-saying that do not see Jinnan Chen in life, no one can call him a hero. He was eight feet tall and his waist is eight feet, too.

B: Wow! Isn't that all square?

A: Four sides mean nothing, like the function of rice is to raise a hundred kinds of people. I will tell you that his martial skills, even nine days and ten Bodhisattva shook his head for fear of thunder palm. A palm was hit, within a hundred miles around, regardless of livestock, shrimp and crabs, fleas, all turned into flying ash ah !

—— Selected from “The Deer And the Cauldron”

In this dialogue, A said clearly against facts to highlight the excellent skills of the characters he elaborated, such as A said that nine days and ten Bodhisattva shook his head for fear of thunder palm"! A palm hit, within a hundred miles around, regardless of livestock, shrimp and crabs, fleas, all turned into flying ash ah, it obviously violated the quality principles in the principles of cooperation, making the audience laugh.

C. Humor Caused by Violating of Maxim of Relationship

A: It's an old elevator. A big iron fence door is strict and we can see inside from outside and see outside from inside, it is next to a big iron weight, when iron weight goes up, the elevator comes down, as soon as the elevator goes up, the iron weight down, then I was closed here.

B: What year is the elevator?

A: I don't know the year, maybe the generation of my great grandmother called it my great uncle.

——Selected from “Elevator Adventure”

In the above example, A wants an answer about the year when the elevator was used: “What year is the elevator?”However, instead of answering his questions directly, B answered some words that seem to be unrelated to A's questions. He replied: “My great grandmother called it my great uncle.”Although he did not give a direct answer, it is also seen from his answer that the elevator was old. This answer made the conversation very interesting.

A: In fact, many audience especially like you.

A: (You) have helped me a lot.

B: I dare not say it.

A: If A has such a little achievement, (referring to B)it is so completely effective at myself.

B: If you introduce me, could you please not to describe me using your hands?

A: I am not finished.

B: You say it.

A: Single silk is not a line, lonely wood is not a forest. Iron is an iron nails.

B: It's true.

A: Can you be success without the help of him (referring to B)?

B: Dare not say.

A: Take this opportunity to thank my wife well.

B: I haven't been here.

——Selected from “the Discussion of Festivals”

This example is a classic crosstalk in China. The joke that makes the audience laugh is against the principle of relationship. A intended to give thanks to B for his help along the way. Because it is a crosstalk performance, when every topic turns to B, he offered his gratitude to his wife and avoided his original will. There is nothing to do with the original intention of the passage, thus creating a sense of humor that made the audience interesting.

D. Humor Caused by Violating of Maxim of Manner

From above, we know that maxim of quantity, quality, and relationship tell people what to say, but maxim of manner tells us how to say. The maxim of manner requires the speaker to avoid obscurity, ambiguity, and should be clearly and orderly. In crosstalk, actors sometimes deliberately speak vague or back-guided words to produce humor. See the

following example:

A: In fact, my cold is very strange, and my cold comes once a month.

B: Your cold comes once a month?

A: Well.

B: Especially accurate, I catch a cold every month.

A: Once a month he didn't catch a cold, which frightened him a lot.

B: Yes.

——Selected from “Language Art”

In this example, A and B took the cold as the main line, and understood B's cold as an example leave for women returning every month in an ambiguous manner. B replied that “once a month he didn't catch a cold, which frightened him a lot”. This sentence made the audience deepen their speculation, thus stimulating funny points and producing humor.

A: “Jin Fei is coming, I tell you, Jin Fei, now the hairdressing salon can not go, do you know? I went there just now, I said that have a perm, you guess what? That person opens her mouth with me for two thousand. “Why so expensive” I said.

B: “sister-in-law, you are wrong, two thousand dollars are just nothing, you grow so beautiful, use two thousand dollars to have a perm, it's worthy, do you know? Just my daughter-in-law, your brother and sister do their hair two days ago which spent 20,000, do you know?”

A: So expensive? Where is it make?

B: At home, take boiling water.

——Selected from “Speak Smoothly”

In this clip, A and B are discussing the price of having a perm. By ironing the multi-layer meaning of the word, making the audience understand become scalded by boiling water, resulting in the cost of 20,000 yuan. Through this ambiguous way, A violates the principle of methods, thus causing humor.

V. ANALYSIS OF LANGUAGE HUMOR FROM THE VIEW OF RELEVANCE THEORY

Xue Liang (2012) said that the understanding of humorous discourse is different from the understanding of everyday discourse. First, the listener habitually makes inferences and assumptions under psychology, to obtain the maximum correlation with minimal effort. When the listener realizes that his reasoning and presumption are inconsistent with the intent of the speaker, his original reasoning is fruitless. In order to gain the best relevance, the listener must consider the speaker's discourse again. And the generation of humor lies in the contrast between the maximum correlation and the best correlation. To understand humorous words, it cannot be limited by maximum relevance and stops paying as little effort as possible. Instead, a more effective effort is needed in order to achieve humor. The creation of humor takes advantage of the instinct of people to look for maximum relevance, cleverly setting obstacles, and induce one to consider the perspective of maximum relevance firstly. When people find that maximum relevance does not solve the problem, they turn to best relevance for help and generate humor.

A. *Humor Caused by the Contrast of Ostensive-inference Model*

For both parties, the ostensive process is that the speaker expresses the intention of information, the inference is the process when the listener realizes the communication intention. The obedient understands its internal meaning and has communicative intent by inferring the message conveyed by the speaker.

A: How is your father?

B: My father is gone.

A: When is he gone?

B: A moment ago.

A: Go to the toilet. I come to call him, a person just go.

B: Go where, not gone, he has passed away.

A: Go to the free market, do sales, sell nuts.

B: Who said?

A: Sell a fool melon seeds, that is a fool.

B: Passed away, he has died.

——Selected from “The White Council”

In the selected example, B replied “my father is gone” and wanted to euphemistically say that his father died, and A did not reason about the meaning he meant to express, but only understood the literal meaning, so he continued to ask where his father went. The generation of humor here lies in the obedient failure to make appropriate reasoning about the speaker's express information, only focusing on the literal meaning and forming a huge contrast.

A: You drunk and then to drive. Didn't you see how much traffic was going on on the road?

B: I saw it.

A: Dare to open it even?

B: I did not see the police.

——Selected from “Drinking Without Driving”

In the conversation, A asked B “that you drink and drive, the express purpose is to hope that B can answer to drink without driving, everyone should obey the traffic rules, but B answered “I didn’t see the police”, the reasoning of B is different from the expected result, which conflicts with the standard answer established by the audience, making the audience reestablish the context and produce humor.

B. Humor Caused by the Contrast between Maximal Relevance and Optimal Relevance

Liya Song & Xiaomin Yao (2019) said maximal relevance and optimal Relevance are the two basic concept of relevance theory, maximal relevance is that the listener pays the minimum effort to obtain the maximum contextual effect, and optimal relevance is that the speaker pays enough efforts to obtain the best contextual cognitive effect.

A: But say again, only in school is not good enough, did you sign up for your son’ training class?

B: Training class, of course.

A: Say something to me.

B: Chinese, English, mathematics, all of those.

A: Over? My son has already learned it from kindergarten.

B: I also signed up to my son for that talent class.

A: What talent?

B: Painting.

A: You let everyone hear about it, Now painting, calligraphy and piano dance, which child does not learn, is this still called talent, this is a required course

B: What class did you sign up for your son?

A: That is called talent.

B: What talent?

A: Climbing flag poles, play flying forks, hit slingshots, pinch dough, swallow iron balls and chew light bulbs.

B: Your son is a street performer? Besides, it is not a talent, it is a stunt, my god, chew the light bulb.

——Selected from “Such a Parent”

In the example, A and B make a conversation about talent class, Wang Kowloon asked “What talent?” A answered climbing the flagpole, playing flying fork, slingshot, pinching dough, swallowing iron balls, chewing light bulbs. B in asking talent, according to the cognitive context of the text and talent definition of life, people will guess piano, chess, painting and calligraphy talent, but A answer talent and listener and the audience’s reasoning, so that the audience overturn the previous judgment, draw a new conclusion, form the best association, thus produce the biggest correlation and the best correlation contrast, cause humor.

A: B, I say that this house will be yours, I have evidence, I have a lot have evidence, how well did you talk for so many years

B: A, You are not only good crosstalk, your photography is good, you have held the film festival

A: You have seen?

B: Of course

A: OK, come and sit

B: Of course, you can listen to the name of the festival, “Cattle Watch at Home”, it just like judge people by wealth and power ,your Chinese zodiac sign is cattle, my Chinese zodiac sign is a chicken, I hold a film festival called chicken see its feet, right?

At the beginning of this conversation, the context conveyed to the audience is that both people praise each other and think the other party is better, the house should belong to the other. In this cognitive context, B should continue to praise it when he talked about A’s show, but the fact is that B began to satirize the name A gave the show was funny. The crosstalk creates humor through the contrast from the beginning to the end.

VI. CONCLUSION

Daren Tan (1997, p.14) once said: “Language is only used as a tool to cause laughter, humor is the plot recorded by the language, and the language itself is not laughable. But if one returns to the humor of language creation, one can find that it created by the funny person “reversed”, “left and right, and created by multiple linguistic means, language is no longer purely a tool of expression, but a source of laughter.”As a unique art form in China, crosstalk has brought people a lot of laughter, what this paper discussed is the laughing mechanism of all levels of language. It examines how cross talk people use language elements to create language humor and achieve the purpose of communication. Through analysis, it is found that speech humor in crosstalk is a worthy topic worth research, crosstalk is the language art, and the formation of funny purpose is closely related to language skills. This paper collects statistical typical humorous fragments of counterpart crosstalk based on facts. The double crosstalk between A and B is analyzed from the perspective of cooperation principles and relevance theory respectively, and the reasons for the humorous jokes are drawn. From the perspective of cooperation principle, the author analyzes the crosstalk from the principle of quantity, quality, relationship and manner. Each excerpt crosstalk violates the principle of quantity, principle of quality, principle of relationship and principle of manner. From the perspective of relevance theory, humor comes from the contrast of

express-reasoning, maximum relevance principle and best relevance principle. In fact, there is much crosstalk that conveys humor through the combination of cooperative principle and relevance theory, sometimes it is not enough to explain humor alone with one principle, relevance theory is built on cooperative principle. Therefore, the author believes that both theories have their interpretation power and persuasion to the generation of humor.

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An Overview of History of Contract Law Translation in China

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Abstract—Legal translation enjoys significance in both empirical and theoretical aspects, while the historical perspective can help the academia and translators to know the past of certain specific field of laws so as to produce better translation versions. Based on commonly accepted translations theories, this article explores the historical importance of contract law in perspective, analyzes the process of development, exhibits the translation achievements and experiences from major translators and agencies, thus, some paradigm and future advices can be drawn therefrom. Employing a theoretical method in a history angle is not that frequently used in translation practice, however it is also not that rare, it can be a start for not only contract law per se, but the whole legal translation in balance.

Index Terms—historical theory, contract law, translation, paradigm

I. INTRODUCTION

In the study of legal translation, historical perspective draws little attention by the academia, yet it is essential to help the translators to practice better after knowing the histories of one specific aspect, the major translators and translation agencies, from whom the theoretical analysis can hopefully provide useful reference in future legal translation. Application of translation theoretical history can be focused on certain law in a narrow sense to demonstrate the method of study. This article, for example, will take an angle of contract law. As a matter of fact, the translation of laws began in China since Qing Dynasty, as of today, the law translating become common and necessary. Contract law, as an important market transaction rule, not only serves the domestic market, but also has great significance in the international market in the era of globalization. Therefore, China's contract law has been translated into many languages, as for English versions, there are several different ones. A standardized translation of contract law can avoid transaction risks caused by language ambiguity and ensure transaction safety, and help to improve the openness of China's laws and promote the exchange and dissemination of China's rule of law concept and legal culture (Li Jie, 2013).

To be mentioned, legal translation is more specialized and technical than general translation, and of course more difficult, hence legal document is regarded as one of the most difficult types of texts to translate. Since legal language itself has the characteristics of accuracy and seriousness, and different legal systems have different legal cultures, translators should observe certain methods and principles in the translation process in order to achieve parity in the legal languages of different countries as far as possible. Since legal translation is considered a special type of translation, it is necessary to understand the prevailing translation theories in China and abroad. In the development of China's contract law, a large number of translations of legal texts and jurisprudential works from Western countries are taken as references, among which the works in English will be taken into account in this article. It's notable that there are great differences in legal culture and systems between China and common law countries, due to the institutional differences between them, there will always be abundant hard issues to crack, such as linguistic heterogeneity, which may arise due to the different cultures of common law systems and the ambiguity of language; the lack of uniform standards in the early stages of translation, which leads to confusion in the translation names.

The translation of contract law also has been guided under translation principles and theories, some of those are well-recognized since its beginning. In China, the most famous theory comes from through Yan Fu, a famous translator in Chinese history, who put forward the famous “faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance” doctrine during the translation of the *Treatise on the Evolution of Heaven*, which had a profound influence on modern Chinese translation (Guo Fang, 2016). The so-called “faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance”, in plain words, means that the translator should be faithful to the original text, accurate and fluent in expressing the meaning, beautiful in writing and rich in literary style when translating. Yan Fu's translation theory has influenced Chinese translation scholars since the late Qing Dynasty until now, and is one of the most influential translation theories in China. Meanwhile, in the west, the most famous “dynamic equivalence” translation theory was advocated in 1964 by Eugene Nida (1964), “the patriarch of translation study and a founder of the discipline”, who exerted a great influence all over the world (Snell-Hornby, 1988; Baker, 2006). This theory focuses on achieving functional equivalence of language, which means, the translation should be able to make the readers of the translation feel similar to the readers of the original text when they read it. Nida's

theory has been attracting much attention since it was introduced to China in the 1980s. Guided by these translation theoretical doctrines, China's contract law translation developed so rapidly in the last four decades, that other laws can hardly surpass it.

II. DEVELOPING PROCESS OF CONTRACT LAW IN CHINA

It did not start as a "contract law" in China as a matter of fact. The enactment of the *Economic Contract Law of the People's Republic of China* on July 1, 1982 announced the official beginning of the history of contract law in China. Later, in order to protect the legitimate rights and interests of the parties to foreign-related economic contracts and promote the development of China's foreign economic and trade relations, on March 21, 1985, China promulgated the *Law of the People's Republic of China on Foreign-Related Economic Contracts*. To promote the development of science and technology as well as protect the legitimate rights and interests of the parties to the contract, on June 23, 1987, China promulgated the *Law of the People's Republic of China on Technology Contracts*. Not before long, the *General Principles of Civil Law of the People's Republic of China* was also promulgated on April 12, 1986, and came into effect on January 1, 1987. Before the promulgation of the *Contract Law of the People's Republic of China*, the field of contract law in China presented a confusing situation of three laws co-existing, namely the *Economic Contract Law of the People's Republic of China*, the *Law of the People's Republic of China on Foreign-related Economic Contracts* and the *Law of the People's Republic of China on Technical Contracts*, and there were many legislative contradictions among the three, so the introduction of a unified contract law was particularly important. It was against this background that the *Contract Law of the People's Republic of China* was finally adopted by the National People's Congress on March 15, 1999, after four years of revision, and came into force on October 1, 1999.

Since then, in order to further promote the comprehensive rule of law, China began to compile the *Civil Code* in 2015, and after years of brewing and drafting, through the persistent coordination of the legislature, the final result of gathering the academic achievements of generations of jurists and the practical experience of the rule of law in the practical community, the compilation was completed and published in 2020 that will come into force since January 1, 2021. As a result of our national commercial codification style, contract law was incorporated into the *Civil Code*, thus, China's contract law has entered another climax. The table below can demonstrate the process in regard of contract law in China, which obviously illustrates that the contract law has become generalized during the past decades.

Time	Name
1982	<i>the Economic Contract Law of the People's Republic of China</i>
1985	<i>the Law of the People's Republic of China on Foreign-Related Economic Contracts</i>
1987	<i>the Law of the People's Republic of China on Technology Contracts</i>
1987	<i>the General Principles of Civil Law of the People's Republic of China</i>
1999	<i>the Contract Law of the People's Republic of China</i>
2021	<i>Civil Code of the People's Republic of China</i>

No matter how the exact names have changed in contract law aspect, the legal terminology is always an important part in its expression, so the correct translation of legal terminology is the premise and foundation for translating the entire legal text. Thus, semantic equivalence should be maintained as much as possible in the translation process of the terms. However, there are many synonyms and near-synonyms in legal English terms, especially in contract aspect, encountering words expressing similar or same meanings in different contexts is hence inevitable (Daria Martemianova, 2019). Different scholars hold different views on the strategies and methods of translating contract law terms. Take Li Zhenyu and Qu Wensheng as an example, Li believes that from a macro perspective, the main methods of legal translation are direct translation, meaningful translation and direct meaning supplemental method (Qu Lin, 2015). In addition, there are also many special translation methods for legal translation, such as direct translation with commentary method. Qu Wensheng's research on legal translation techniques mainly focuses on subtraction, addition and selection of word meanings. Contract law is the characteristic of common law, and the pluralistic and open style of British and American contract law is in line with the worldwide trend of unification and commercialization of contract law, which makes British and American contract law not only become the common rules of international business, but also profoundly influence Chinese contract law in a subtle way (Liu Chengwei, 2020).

Since the sentence structure of English and Chinese is different, English sentences pay more attention to logic and important information is often at the beginning of the sentence, which is very different from the grammatical structure of Chinese, the difficulty of translating sentences arises, and the translator needs to switch freely between English and Chinese. After completing the translation of terms and sentences, the importance of discourse becomes particularly acute. The translation of discourse is very important in legal translation because many terms and syntactic features can be perfectly explained only through their functions in discourse, the purpose of discourse analysis is to describe linguistic features that extend beyond the scope of the sentence. Identifying and analyzing legal discourse features is much more difficult than identifying and analyzing lexical and syntactic features; after all, the first two difficulties can be solved at the lexical and grammatical levels. However, the translation of the discourse requires the translator to choose the form of language expression that conforms to the expression habits of the target language, so that the translation can be fully understood by the readers. In the past, legal discourse analysis mostly focused on the fragment

of text, but paid less attention to the similarities and differences between different texts and different language domains, which resulted in such defects as confusion and illogicality of discourse, and led to difficulties in translating discourse.

III. EFFORTS OF MAJOR TRANSLATORS AND TRANSLATION AGENCIES

The mature legal system of any country is inseparable from the contribution of legal translation, and the development of Chinese law to the Qing Dynasty, especially the more complete legal system in the late Qing Dynasty is more thanks to a large number of translations of legal texts and jurisprudential works of Western countries.

As the process of China's reform and opening up continues, foreign rule of law exchanges are becoming an important way for us to dialogue with the international community on an equal footing and safeguard our rights and interests. The translation of laws, regulations and rules is an important window to show the achievements of China's reform and opening up and rule of law construction. Over the years, the translation of laws, regulations and rules has fully demonstrated the good image of China's rule of law state and rule of law government, enhanced the country's soft power, and improved the international community's understanding and knowledge of China's economy, politics, culture and other aspects. The translation of laws and regulations is an important position for foreign exchange and plays an important role in China's foreign exchange. The English translations of laws and administrative regulations published in China are of great significance to other countries in systematically understanding our legal system. The importance of translation of laws and regulations in China is gradually increasing, and translation agencies and translation talents play an irreplaceable role in this process.

A. Main Translators

Translators are the key factor in legal translation, and the improvement and development of legal translation is often driven forward by the joint efforts of the translator community. The unification and standardization of the translation of legal terms is inseparable from the joint efforts of translators. Taking the term “Consideration” as an example, consideration is a core principle in British and American contract law, which is one of the necessary conditions for contract formation. To apply a historical analysis method, in all times of China, one meaning that expressed in the English term never appeared in China's legal system. Since there is no exact term corresponding to it, translators then are supposed to notice even the slightest differences to make some degree of creation under reasonable circumstances to seek the deeper meaning of this legal concept to correspond to China's law. Right now, there are two major Chinese translations of this term in China: “对价” and “约因” (Yu Danling, 2009). When encountered in different occasions, the translator will decide which Chinese version should be, during which, the historical perspective can just do the assistance for accuracy.

TABLE 2

English concept	Chinese translation choice
<i>consideration</i>	“对价”Dui Jia means one party gives another party some rights/interests/profits/endurance, etc. This meaning is included in Chinese legal history, and existing laws.
	“约因”Yue Yin means a promise for which one party has to pay something to make it legally bounding. Since this meaning is not included in China's legal provisions historically, when conducting EC translation, it's essential to think about its context and apply explanation when necessary.

The word “consideration” above is just one leaf in the forest, while the reality in translation has always been even more complicated. However, a lot of translators have devoted in legal translation process, and made quite achievements. The earliest translators of Western political and legal thought to the Chinese were missionaries from the West, such as Morrison, Millais, and Guo Shira. They used their limited knowledge of Chinese to translate and import various political and legal ideas of the modern West to the Chinese people. A series of legal terms with rich connotations, such as “equality before the law,” “separation of powers,” and “judicial independence”, were translated into China at this time. In addition, the pioneers of modern legal translation were not the Chinese themselves, but the clergy from the West, among whom the earliest translators of foreign legal documents to China were American William Ding and English Lanya Fu. They were the foreign translators who translated the largest number of legal and juridical works for China and had the most far-reaching impact.

Modern influential Chinese legal translators are also numerous, like Chen Zhongcheng, Li Kexing, Li Changshuan and so on. Chen Zhongcheng was the compiler of *the Yanzhao Dictionary of English and American Law*. Mr. Chen's translation works are more practical in content, and he also gives his own translation principles for vocabulary translation, namely, the principle of “phonetic priority” and the principle of “unification” (Yu Lu, 2015). Li Kexing (2020) argues that the greatest difficulty in English to Chinese translation of legal texts is the understanding of long sentences, and that to understand long sentences exactly is often the greatest problem faced by translators. In response to this assertion, through a series of researches, he gives the basic rules and processes of English to Chinese translation of complex legal texts. He believes that in translating complex legal texts, in order to translate a legal text with professional standard and can be put into practice, the translator needs to be familiar with relevant legal knowledge, and the first thing he should understand is the sentence structure of the original text, the grammatical relationship of each component of the sentence, etc. In his book *Legal Translation and Legal Texts*, he proposed the method of translating

long and difficult sentences by “turning vines into bamboo sections”, and also put forward his own opinions and views on other aspects of legal translation, making great contributions to the translation of long legal sentences. He believes that conditional sentences with “where” as the guiding word are most suitable for expressing legal provisions that do not depend on the context, while conditional sentences with “if” as the guiding word are often used to express conditions or restrictions of lower importance and dependence (Li Kexing, 2018). After a comparative study of existing translation strategies, he proposed the concept of “static equivalence” as opposed to “dynamic equivalence”, taking into account the special and specialized nature of legal translation (Li Kexing, 2010).

Li Changshuan (2019) argues that terminology translation, like scientific research, requires a scientific method to guide the process of finding a perfectly equivalent or almost perfectly equivalent translation through repeated investigation and verification. He thinks that translation can be divided into three aspects: understanding, expression, and trade-off (Li Changshuan, 2017), and how to perfectly accomplish the above three aspects requires cultivating sufficient critical thinking. In response to the problem of inaccuracy and unnaturalness of the concept of translation, he proposes the method of qualitative and quantitative analysis to ensure the accuracy and naturalness of the translation. He also proposes a reasonable solution on how translators should deal with errors in the original text found during the translation process - correcting or pointing out errors in the original text. In addition, he introduces the concept of “parallel text” in his book *Non-literary Translation*, which refers to the original text and the translation that can be read side by side, sentence by sentence (Li Changshuan, 2006). In the process of translation, by reading a large number of parallel texts, translators can find more vivid and authentic expressions, and at the same time, they can complete the translation more quickly and improve efficiency.

B. Translation Agencies

After Western law books are translated into Chinese, they must be presented to the Chinese people through certain media, and publishing books is a common way. Modern translation and publishing institutions are divided into official and unofficial. The official publishing institutions have a great advantage in terms of personnel, capital and equipment. The largest of the official translation institutions in the late Qing Dynasty were the Beijing Tongwenkan and the Jiangnan Manufacturing Bureau Translation Hall (Hu Zhaoqing, 2007). As the official translation institutions, they made great contributions to the translation of Western studies, among which the Beijing Shi Tongwenkan translated more than 200 kinds of Western books, and the translation hall of Jiangnan Manufacturing Bureau translated 199 kinds of Western books in 40 years, which included Western legal documents. Through the translation and publication of Western legal books, many modern Western legal ideas and systems were disseminated to the country, which to some extent contributed to the development and modernization of Chinese law. Unofficial publishing institutions include church publishing institutions as well as private publishing institutions. Representative ecclesiastical publishing institutions include Mohai Book House, Meihua Book House, and Puzzle Book Club. In the process of translating Western books in the late Qing Dynasty, church publishing institutions actively participated in the translation and publication of a large number of Western legal and political books, which made significant contributions to the introduction of Western studies. The representatives of private publishing institutions were the Commercial Press and Guangzhi Shuhui, among which the contribution of the Commercial Press in particular was the most outstanding. The main characteristic of private publishing institutions, which emerged in large numbers after 1898, was their relative economic independence and therefore considerable freedom in publishing content. It was because of these publishing institutions that Western law was able to spread in China and thus influence the development and reform of Chinese law.

Since the founding of New China, especially after the reform and opening up, China has gradually paid more attention to the translation of laws and regulations, and has set up several different institutions to specialize in legal translation work.

The Compilation and Translation Bureau of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China (CPC), established in 1942, is an institution directly under the CPC Central Committee, whose main task is to compile and study the classic works of Marxism and translate the important documents of the Party and the state as well as the writings of leaders. The Bureau of Compilation and Translation of the CPC Central Committee has a large number of talents in translation, research, information and editing, and employs foreign experts in English, German, French and other languages to assist in its work all year round. It cooperates extensively with many related organizations and institutions at home and abroad, and the field of academic exchange is constantly expanding. The Central Compilation and Translation Bureau has organized the translation of a large number of English laws and regulations, which has greatly contributed to the progress of China's legal translation business.

The Legal Affairs Commission of the National People's Congress (NPC) was established in 1979, and the Commission is the legal working body of the NPC Standing Committee. It is responsible for compiling, translating and reviewing legal documents, etc. It is one of the most authoritative legal translation agencies in China. It plays a crucial role in the field of legal translation in China, and it has established working bodies dedicated to the validation of legal translation. The work of standardization and standardization of legal terms in China consists of two parts of work, namely, the unification and standardization of Chinese translation of foreign terms and the unification and standardization of Chinese legal terms for foreign translation. The current achievements of these two pieces of work are associated with the efforts of the Legal Affairs Commission of the NPC. The Committee is responsible for organizing

and carrying out the validation of English translations of legal terms and promoting the popularization of unified translations of legal terms (Qu Wensheng, 2012).

In addition, the Ministry of Commerce and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, as important subjects of China's foreign exchange, have also made great contributions in legal translation. The Ministry of Commerce has played a vital role in China's foreign trade activities since the reform and opening up, especially after China's accession to the WTO. The Foreign Affairs Department of the Ministry of Commerce has a Translation Division, which is specifically responsible for translating legal documents for foreign commerce and trade, etc. The Translation Division of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the People's Republic of China, one of the organizational bodies of the Ministry, is responsible for the translation of important national foreign affairs activities, diplomatic documents and papers, and undertakes the coordination of simultaneous interpretation and multilingual translation for major international conferences.

As for online legal translation websites, with the advent of the Internet era, the Internet has begun to penetrate into all aspects of society, and legal English translation has likewise begun to emerge in the Internet field. In order to improve efficiency, many legal people are able to make full use of all kinds of internet as well as big data. A number of legal English translation websites have been established to provide new channels for legal English translation in China. The emergence of these translation websites has not only improved the efficiency of people's daily legal search, but also promoted the development and progress of legal translation to a great extent. In this paper, it will take two relatively authoritative websites as examples to discuss such new legal translation media. The first one is PKU LAW.com, which is the first set of legal search software in China. It is a search platform jointly launched by Peking University Legal Information Center and Beida Ying Hua Technology Co. It is one of the longest-running comprehensive legal databases in China. Its content sections are of great variety, including the English section, which is a new way to present legal translation in the Internet era. The other one is WK Advance, which is a professional legal information search tool specially created by Dutch WK Group for the Chinese market. As a bilingual legal database, its English legal translation version is of high quality and has a strong reference role for legal translation. As a new type of legal search tool in the Internet era, it is a new way of legal translation.

IV. IMPACT AND REFLECTIONS FROM CONTRACT LAW'S TRANSLATION

Since Chinese contract law was drafted relatively late, it was inevitably influenced by many foreign contract laws and international contract law documents. Moreover, contract law is a market transaction rule, and the Chinese must not only focus on the domestic market, but also look at the global market in the era of globalization, and therefore, in order to be in line with the international community, they must also absorb the legal system of advanced countries and international legal documents in contract law.

A. Impact of Contract Law's Translation

In addition to the contract law of specific countries, the development of China's contract law has likewise been influenced by many international documents like *the General Principles of International Commercial Contracts* and the *United Nations Convention on Contracts for the International Sale of Goods*.

The 1980 United Nations Convention on Contracts for the International Sale of Goods is the international legal document with the widest scope of influence, and as one of the earliest contracting parties to the Convention, China's contract law has drawn heavily on the relevant provisions of the Convention (Wang Liming, 2013). Specifically in the following aspects: (1) the formation of the contract, the Convention adopted the civil law country's doctrine of arrival, this rule is also adopted by China's contract law; (2) Performance of the contract, the Convention excludes the problem of failure to perform, This rule is expressed in our contract law that the parties do not have the right to dispose of the contract at the time of its conclusion, and the contract concluded by them is also valid; (3) Default system, the Convention establishes the rules of fundamental breach and anticipatory breach as well as strict liability for breach of contract, all of which have a profound impact on the development of China's contract law.

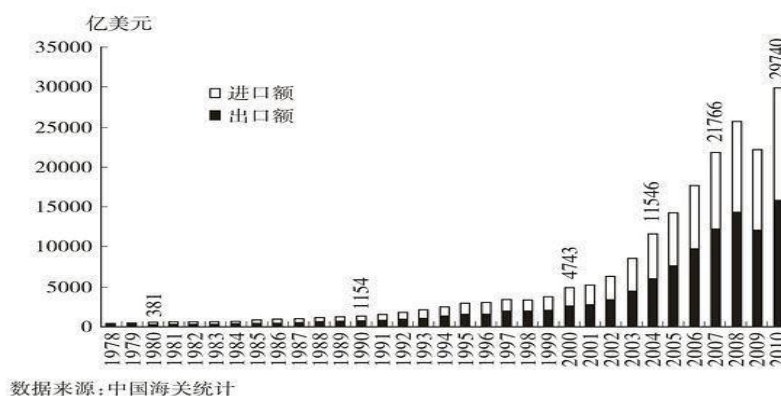
The Convention has had a positive impact on the formulation of relevant laws in China, promoting the convergence of China's law with international rules, and helping to eliminate legal obstacles in China's international trade, and promoting the healthy development of China's international trade. And all these beneficial results are inseparable from the contribution of legal translation. It is because of the existence of legal translation, a bridge between China and foreign laws, that China's contract law can be successfully connected with international legal documents and thus developed and improved.

The General Principles of International Commercial Contracts was published by UNIDROIT in 1994, and was a great success as a restatement of contract law at the international level, intended to be a "modern common law" reflecting the situation of all major legal systems in the world. It has influenced the drafting of Chinese contract law. The Chinese translation of the text was published in 1996 and has since entered the Chinese world and influenced the drafting of Chinese contract law (Han Shiyuan, 2015). The drafting of China's contract law has been profoundly influenced by a number of legal systems like "The subject matter of the contract cannot be performed from the outset", "Liability for contractual negligence" and "Pre-performance Defense".

Since the establishment of China's contract law, the amount of China's foreign trade has continued to increase, and the economic development trend is very good, especially after the reform and opening up, China has been upholding the

policy of opening up to the outside world, the most important of which is reflected in foreign trade, which plays an irreplaceable role in the development of China's economy. From the following chart, we can see that since 1980, the total amount of import and export of goods in China has continued to rise, and this situation is inseparably linked to the continuous improvement of contract law.

图1 1978—2010年中国货物进出口情况



B. Reflections from Contract Law's Translation

Some insights and reflections can be drawn from the translation of contract law, and these insights and reflections play an important role not only for contract law itself, but also for the translation of other department laws.

From the above statements, it can be concluded that legal translation is a very complicated task. How to translate legal terms accurately is the most important part of legal translation work. The author believes that the best way to improve legal translation at present is to establish a parallel corpus. With the frequent international business transactions and the rapid development of machine translation, the traditional translation industry has encountered unprecedented challenges. In order to promote the improvement of legal translation efficiency, many translation service agencies have applied the machine translation mode to legal translation in practice. Machine translation mode has greatly saved translation cost and improved translation efficiency. However, this mode of translation requires a strong legal parallel corpus as support to ensure the accuracy of translation. Parallel corpus is a computer that incorporates the texts of two languages exactly corresponding to each other, and searches the source text against the translated text to find out the correspondence between them, so as to explore how the same content is expressed in two languages. The parallel corpus is a new resource that provides translators with a working platform and reference tools that can be used to improve linguistic and cultural knowledge (Jiang Ting, 2005). The parallel texts in the corpus are essentially interchangeable, and they are supposed to transform and absorb each other. Parallel texts are original texts and translations that can be placed side by side and read sentence by sentence against each other. Take the translation difficulties mentioned in the first chapter as an example, the contract formation system in China's contract law corresponds to the contract formation system in the common law, so when the parallel corpus is established, this corresponding system is the parallel text, and when the contract formation is searched in the corpus, the corresponding text can appear. Another example is the translation of terminology. By terminology translation, we mean the transition from one language form to another through parallel adaptation, in which the semantic core of the term does not change. Therefore, it is possible to build a corpus of target language terms that are equivalent to the source language terms. In practice, due to the differences in legal system, legal system, legal culture, etc., it is easy to lead to the non-equivalence of terminology translation, and Song Lei divides the vacancies of legal terms into "absolute vacancies" and "relative vacancies". Although the absolute equivalence of terms is difficult to achieve, due to the advancement of legal globalization and the trend of integration between civil law and common law systems, the relative equivalence of terms within the same system can be achieved. In terms of understanding of various fields of law, accurate selection of legal terms and customary expressions, translations aided by parallel corpora are of higher quality than those using traditional resources (Jiang Ting, 2005). Also translators are able to complete translations more quickly and improve translation efficiency. Once the legal bilingual corpus is built, it can be directly used to develop a two-way translation system between English and Chinese to achieve rapid translation between English and Chinese, which greatly changes the traditional translation mode. As far as legal translation practice is concerned, the legal language parallel corpus provides a working platform and reference tool for translators to improve their linguistic and cultural knowledge. In terms of understanding various areas of law, accurate choice of legal terms and customary expressions, translations aided by parallel corpora are of higher quality than those produced by traditional methods such as purely referring to dictionaries. On the basis of improving the efficiency and accuracy of legal translation, it can also promote the development of legal translation.

Establishing a Paradigm in contract law translation is not only important for contract law per se, but also beneficial for other laws. The term "paradigm" was firstly introduced by American philosopher Thomas Kuhn in 1962 in his book

The Structure of Scientific Revolution. He believes that a paradigm is a recognized pattern followed by a specific scientific community engaged in a certain type of scientific activity, including a common worldview, basic theories, methods, steps, etc.

Understanding is the basis of translation, and only by accurately grasping the core content of laws and regulations can we use accurate words and phrases in the translation process. Culture differs from nation to nation and from country to country, and has its own unique connotation. Language is the carrier of culture, and Chinese and English belong to different language families. Chinese and English reflect different modes of thinking between China and the West. English emphasizes “form fit” and pays much attention to the logical structure of the text, while Chinese emphasizes “meaning fit” and focuses on the internal logical connection of the meaning of the language and is relatively lax in its formal requirements. This difference in the way of thinking and language expression is one of the important influencing factors of legal translation. Therefore, the difference of legal culture is the first factor that translators should consider when translating. Only after understanding the legal culture of the source language country and the target language country, can the translation be carried out in different legal cultural environments, and only then can high-quality legal translation be guaranteed.

The historical process of translation development, contains several branches, such as literary translation, scientific translation, and legal translation and so on. The study of the history of legal translation is an important part of translation research. The study of the history of legal translation contains many aspects, such as dictionaries, translators, translation activities (e.g. contract law), etc. Legal translation since modern times has played a role in promoting the modernization of Chinese law and reshaping Chinese law (Qu Wensheng, 2018). Without the translation of foreign laws, there would be no legal terminology and legal system in modern China. From the perspective of the history of legal terminology translation, given that legal translation follows the principle of precedent and terminology unification (Qu Wensheng, 2012), the study of the historical process of legal terminology translation provides an important historical basis for translation unification, which is of high reference value for guiding translation practice. The process of creation, development and gradual fixation of semantics of legal terms is one of the key points in the history of legal system, while the formation and definition of transliteration of legal terms is a very important topic in the study of the history of legal translation, and the formation and change of terminology translation has a non-negligible influence on legal practice. After the founding of New China, China had introduced a number of Soviet laws and jurisprudence works, and the translation of these had played a great role in promoting the improvement of China's laws. After the reform and open-up, legal translation re-entered an active period, and China once again translated a large number of laws from the United Kingdom, the United States and other Western countries. Nowadays, legal translation is more active than in any previous era, and is playing the role of bridging the Chinese and Western legal systems and serving the construction of the rule of law. Unlike previous legal translations, the current legal translations in China not only translate into foreign laws, but also pay more attention to translating our laws into foreign languages in order to promote China's foreign rule of law exchanges. The study of the history of legal translation is conducive to a comprehensive understanding of the development of legal translation, so as to learn from it and better complete the translation task.

V. CONCLUSION

It is widely acknowledged that as globalization proceeds, the world is becoming more and more closely connected, not only in economic aspects, but also in legal aspects, including contract law. Therefore, in order to be better connected with the international, our laws are bound to learn from the legal systems and rules of other countries in terms of content or form through translation in order to adapt to the trend and tendency of globalization. One of the most crucial factors in learning from and studying the laws of other countries is legal translation, and the quality of legal translation is directly related to the process of China's legal development. In the process of continuous improvement of China's legal system in the future, the role of legal translation will be more important, it is like a catalyst to accelerate the communication between countries in the legal field and play an indispensable role in the process of legal transplantation. However, the study of legal translation has always been a weak link in the development of legal translation, and at present, China's legal translation has not yet built a normative legal translation system, no authoritative methodology as a guide, and no unified English to Chinese standard for legal translation. All the above aspects need to be improved continuously, and the translation industry and the legal academy should work together to establish and improve the discipline of legal translation, so that legal translation can develop in a more scientific direction, and then legal translation can provide better help for the development of China's legal system.

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Nostalgia and Alienation in the Poetry of Arab-American Mahjar Poets (Emigrant Poets): Literary Criticism to Stylistics

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Abstract—Nostalgia and Alienation are defined as the feeling that one has when he finds himself alone without connection with the people around him. He considers himself as a stranger in the society where he lives. This is due to leaving the people and homelands. This is what happened to Arab- American poets, (Emigrant poets) who leave their homelands and people. The current paper presents Arab- American poets' longing, deep love, nostalgia and feeling of homesickness for their beloved countries in East. It also shows their adherence and alienation to their homelands by remembering the years and times they lived there. It emphasizes literary criticism of describing, analyzing and evaluating some of Arab- American poems.

Index Terms—Mahjar poets, nostalgia, alienation, and literary criticism

I. INTRODUCTION

It is not easy for the Arab- American poets (Mahjar poets) to leave the lands of civilization and the oldest cities like Damascus, Beirut and Cairo to find themselves in countries that have a different culture, thought, race, religion, etc. Orfalea and Elmusa (1988) state that "Arab Americans may be more inclined than more to ask the question: Is it right to isolate poetry based on ethnic origin? Descended from people that lived on the crossroads of East and West, their heritage is uniquely international. They know well that poetry is one of the few human means to break through barriers of race, religion, nationality, sex and language." (P.x111) Based on these challenges, they composed the best poems which were grounded on their love and belonging to the East. They composed their poems following a new form of poetry because of their contact with the West and used free verse of composing poetry which helped them express their ideas freely and easily. This is considered as a challenge against the classical Arabic poetry "qasida." Such type of poetry is suitable for them to express their longing, alienation and nostalgia to their ethnic origins freely.

Alienation is defined as the feeling one has when he finds himself alone without knowing anyone around him. Alienation in the ankle of sociology is isolation between one and a group of people in a specific society. As a result, he considers himself as a stranger because of leaving the people and homelands. Al-Issa (2003) identifies the major characteristics of Al- Mahjar poets (emigrant poets). He assures that nostalgia and alienation for their homelands and people are the central theme of their poetry. Mahjar poets focus on their deep love for their countries, their nostalgia of the memories of the past and their alienation for the childhood. Gibran Khalil Gibran (1883-1931) who is one of the Mahjar poets shows his belonging and adherence to the East even though he does not conceal his admiration for the west.

He states:

I shall remain an Easterner
No matter how much I admire Western progress.

Abumadi (1890-1957) remembers his homeland (Lebanon) with bitterness Lebanon is considered to him as the place of stars. In his poem "the baby and the old man", he remarks

وطن النجوم أنا هنا حذف انذكر من أنا
أنا ذلك الولد الذي دنياه كانت هاهنا

O, my staring fatherland
Stare at me, do you know who I am
I am the boy who lives here now

Nasib Arida (1887-1946) is a Mhjar Syrian poet. He also shows his homesickness to his beloved country "Syria". In his poem "The Narration of Experiences of Syrian Emigration", he composes the following verse:

غريب من بلاد الشرق جئت
بعيداً عن حمى الاحباب عشت

A stranger came from the East
Far away from my beloved homeland I lived

Zaki Qunsul (1916-1994) a Syrian writer remembers his life in his beloved homeland "Syria". He shows his longing in the following verse:

علم الله كم صبونا اليها واشتهننا تحت العريشة غفوة

Allah knows how much we love it (Syria).

and we like to take a very short sleep under the pergola.

It is difficult for anyone to leave his homeland and to find himself in a strange county with a different language and culture. This situation gives the person the feeling of homesickness. This is what happens to Mahjar poets (Emigrant poets). In late 1880s, the political circumstances and socio-economic crisis the Ottoman Empire faced led to large number of people into exile and immigration. A group of writers and poets emigrated to North and South America to avoid political problems. Others emigrated to Australia and Canada. They were exchanging ideas and literary works which led them to form a new kind of Arabic and English literature under the name of Adab al-Mahjar "literature of Diaspora". Gibran Khalil (1883-1931) who was the most important emigrant writer met some other emigrant writers like Rihani (1876-1940); Naimy (1889-1988) and Abumadi (1890-1957) and formed Al-Rabitah Al- Qalamiyah "The pen Association". It was the most prominent literary Association formed by Arab emigrant writers. It played an effective role in the development of modern Arabic literature. The members of the association helped in bridging the gap between the East represented by Arab literature and the West represented by American literature. MecHarck (2006) points out that the pen Association contributed to Arabic literature renaissance. Its members were considered as ambassadors of their homeland to the West. They, in their poems, celebrated the glorious past of the Arab world and were also impressed with values of freedom and democracy and the scientific progress as well in America. The emigrant poets lived as strangers in America because they left their homes and relatives to face and struggle in a country with a new culture and language. They did their best to keep their native language "Arabic". Accordingly, some of them wrote their literary works in English and Arabic as well. They interacted and responded to any cultural and political events that took place in their home countries. They focused on their writing about their feeling and yearning towards their countries and expressed their homesickness towards their beloved countries and people. The most important characteristic of Mahjar poets was nostalgia. They remembered passionately their beloved country they left behind. They tasted the bitter of emigration and found themselves as prisoners in jails in a strange country. They emphasized their adherence, love and belonging to the East.

The emigrant poets are divided into two types:

1. Poets of the North Diaspora: Those who emigrated from the East to the United States of America. Most of them are members of the pen association.
2. Poets of the South Diaspora: Those who immigrated from Syria and Lebanon to South America "Brazil, Argentina, and Mexico" like Fawzi Maalouf (1899-1930); Shafiq al Ma'luf (1905-1977); Mikhail Naimy (1889-1988) and Rashid Salim (1887-1984) among others. They established a literary association called Andalusian League in Brazil in 1933.

Arab-American poems are based on free verse. The poems are free from regular meter or rhythm which is applied in classical poems of the pre-Islamic period. Al-Issa (2003) remarks that the rhythm of Al-Mahjar poems is fixed and there is a variation of rhyme and line length. Morch (1976) adds that Arab- American poets followed the free-verse of writing their poems. They freed themselves from the classical Arabic form which contained a specific number of feet within a verse. The best poems written by Arab- American poets are mostly about longing to their beloved homelands.

II. HOMESICKNESS AND NOSTALGIA IN ARABIC POETRY

Love, eagerness, alienation and emigration are found in every age. In pre-Islamic era, people left their homelands searching for water, food or escaping from invasions and raids. The poets at that time showed their alienation to homes, mothers, beloved girls, friends and places. Alienation was the source of inspiration for the pre-Islamic poets to compose the masterpieces of poetry as founded in seven hanging poems "Al-Mu'alqat" which could be the best in Arabic literature. It is said that Hanging Poems "Al-M'alaqat" were called so because they were hanged at the walls of Ka'ba "Muslim sacred place" because of their importance and the best in Pre-Islamic Arabic literature (Ignorant literature). They are considered masterpieces of Arab poetry. Imru' AL-Qais was obliged to leave his relatives and parting love ones. He states the following verse in his masterpiece (al-Mu'laqa):

اجارتنا انا غريبان هاهنا وكل غريب للغريب نسيب

O our neighbor, we are strangers here

And each stranger is a brother for another

The psychological alienation lets the individual feel the absurdity of life and this reflects his behavior represented by his poetry. Turfa Ibn Aal'abd who was a pre-Islamic poet faced oppression of his relatives, so he was an alien and a stranger in his homeland. He expressed his situation in his masterpiece of poetry "AL-Mu'alqa" in Arabic in the following verse:

وظلم ذوي القربى أشدُّ مضاضةً على المرء من وقع الحسام المهند

Oppression and injustice of relatives are more agony and harmful
to a man than the blow of a cutter Indian sword (a sword is made from Indian iron).

Imru' AlQais a Pre-Islamic poet also longs for his beloved "Leyla" and walks by homes of Leila. He finds nothing, but the walls and remains, so he starts kissing them. He composes the following:

أمر على الديار ديار ليلى أقبل ذا الجدار وذا الجدار
وما حب الديار شغلن قلبي ولكن حب من سكن الديار

I walk by homes of Leyla. I kiss walls and remains;
It is not the walls and remains which occupy my heart,
but it is the love of the one (Leila) living there;

Bedouins living in the Arabian Desert were animal herders who migrated from place to another seeking for cultivated lands and water especially in the dry summer months. They lived in tents made from goat and sheep hair. Maysoon bint Bahdal was a great poetess who lived in the Arabian Desert. Muawiyah Ibn Abi Sufyan (602A.D-680A.D) the first Umayyad caliph was mesmerized by her beauty and married her in 645 A.D). She left the tent of her family in the desert and moved to a great palace in Damascus which was the capital of the Umayyad caliphate. She felt homesick to her homeland (Arabian desert) and family. She composed a great poem describing her longing to her homeland. The following is some verses of her poem:

لبيت تخفق الارياح فيه أحب إلي من قصر منيف

For a humble tent where winds fall

is better for me than elevated (lofty) palace

وليس عباءة وتقر عيني أحب إلي من ليس الشفوف

Wearing a cloak (Bedowin dress) and putting my mind at ease

is better than wearing soft dress.

واكل كسيرة من كسر بيتي أحب إلي من أكل الرغيف

And eating a broken bread from my family

is better than eating bread (loaf) (metaphorical meaning for delicious food)

وأصوات الرياح بكل فج أحب إلي من نقر الدفوف

and the sound of the wind in all directions

is better than tapping tambourines.

وكلب ينبخ الطراق دوني أحب إلي من قط أليف

A dog which barks the stranger in front of me

is better than a pet cat.

Ali Ibn Aljahm (803A.D- 863 A.D) was an Abbasid poet who composed the following verses after he was released from the prison and went to cemeteries as a comfortable place.

يشتاك كل غريب عند غربته ويذكر الأهل والجيران والوطن

When a stranger in alienation, he misses and retains in his memory people, neighbors and homeland,

ليس لي وطن امسيت اذكره الا المقابر اذ كانت لهم وطن

I have no homeland to remember other than cemeteries which become their homeland.

Ibn AL-Rumi (836A.D-896A.D) was a great poet in Abbasid era. He considered his house as homeland. He addressed his rich neighbor who coveted buying his house. Accordingly, he damaged the walls of Ibn- Al-Rumi's house in order to force him to sell it. Ibn AL-Rumi addressed him in a poem entitled "ولي وطن أليت إلا أبيعه" "I have a home I swear not to sell. The following verses are taken from the poem

ولي وطن أليت ألا أبيعه ولا أرى غيري له الدهر مالكا

I have a home I swear not to sell;

And I do not imagine seeing anyone as its owner;

مأرب قضاها الشباب هنالكا وحبيب أوطان الرجال اليهم

What made the homeland lovely to men;

is the desires and wishes that the youth had there

إذا ذكروا اوطانهم ذكرتهم عهود الصبا فيها فحنو لذلكا

When the men remember their homeland,

the homeland reminded them with boyhood covenants, so they yearn to it.

Qutada Abu-Aziz (1132 A.D-1219A.D) was Amir (prince) of Mecca. He shows his love and loyalty to his family and homeland the following verse:

بلادي وان جارت علي عزيزة واهلي وان ضنوا علي كرام

My country is dear to me even if it oppressed and subjugated me

and my people are generous even though they make things hard to me

Khairuddin Al-Zirikli (1893A.D-1976A.D) was a Syrian poet who was obliged to leave Syria because of French Mandate for Syria. He showed his homesickness to his homeland (Syria) in a poem entitled "العين بعد فراقها الوطن" "The eye after its separation from homeland". He states the following verses:

العين بعد فراقها الوطن لا ساكنة الفت ولا سكونا

The eye after its separation from homeland;
it is not adopted neither homes nor people there

ليت الذين احبهم علموا وهم هنالك ما لقيت هنا

I wish those whom I loved know;
and they are there what I met and suffer here;

Ibn Al-Mu'tazz (861A.D-909 A.D.) was also an Abbasid caliph and a poet who composed a poem about the separation and feeling homesick entitled

أشكو إلى الله أن الدمع قد نفدا "I complain to Allah that my tears run out"

He starts his poem with the following verses:

أشكو إلى الله أن الدمع قد نفدا وإنني هالك من حُبكم كمدا

I complain to Allah that my tears run out;
And I am mortal because of your gloomy and sad love;
قالوا الفراق غدا لا شك قلت لهم بل موت نفسي من قبل الفراق غدا

They said the separation will be tomorrow certainly, I informed them that my death will be tomorrow before the moment of separation comes.

Bilal IbnRabah was one of the companions of Mohammad Messenger of Allah (Peace Be Upon Him). He migrated from the oppression of the people of Mecca to Madina. He missed his homeland "Mecca" so much and he remembered the mountains and plants of Mecca. He expresses his homesickness in the following verse:

ألا ليت شعري هل ابينن ليلة بوادٍ وحولي اذخرٌ وجليلٌ

I hope to be pleased and happy if I am at the valley (Mecca)
and around me Ithkoruna and Jalilu (nice plants grown in Mecca).

Jamil Ibn Abdullah Al-Udhri (659A.D-701A.D) was considered a love poet in Umayyad caliphate. He was also called Jamil Buthayna after the name of his beloved "Buthayna" who belonged to another tribe. He composed the best poems flirting with her. Accordingly, her father refused to marry her to him and he was threatened by her tribe. This obliged Jamil Buthayna to save his life from death and left his homeland. He longed for his beloved Buthayna and homeland. and he expressed his miserable life in exile as follows:

ألا ليت شعري هل ابينن ليلة بوادي القرى إني إذا لسعيد

If only I could be at a'lqira valley (Buthayna's homeland);
I hope I will be pleased and happy.

III. HOMESICKNESS AND NOSTALGIA IN ARAB-AMERICAN (MAHJAR) POETS

Most Arab- American poets (Mahjar poets) left their homeland for political and economic reasons to live in one of the youngest countries in the world "America". Their life there was challenging. They lived in a country which had different language, religions, norms, customs, etc., so they had to adapt themselves with such a new life. They were obliged to write poems to express their feelings which were easy to be composed in comparison to writing novels and stories, so they saved their time and efforts. The Mahjar poets like Rihani (1876-1940); Naimy (1889-1988); Abumadi (1890-1957) among others established association, later called Al- Rabitah Al-Qalamiyah "The pen Association". The aim of the Association was to foster intellectual cooperation and understanding among Mahjar poets in America. They wanted to show the importance of literature in world understanding and to preserve and develop Arabic language. Mahjar poets were influenced by the American style of composing poetry. Moreh (1976) states that Mahjar poets followed new forms of poetry because of their contact with Americans. They freed themselves from the classical Arabic form which was formed from a certain number of feet within a verse whereas they used a new form of poetry "free verse". This form helped them to express their feelings and ideas freely and easily. Mahjar poets contributed to the development of modern Arabic poetry. They kept their native language traditions, national ideology and political issues of their countries. Diab (2015) assures that "Rihani was a visionary politician in his call for Arab unity; a reformer in his struggle to develop his homeland, and judicious leader in his appeal for tolerance of opposing cultures, politics and religions" (P.43). Mahjar poets have the freedom to use more than one metre within the same poem and to choose the topic which relate to their life in exile. They were romantics because they were influenced by European romantic literature which was one form of Romantic Movement found in Europe in 19th century. The advocates of this movement were William Wordsworth and Samuel Taylor Coleridge. Accordingly, Mahjar poets altered the verse-form of classical Arabic poetry because they were under the effects of European Romanticism. They wrote about nature, nostalgia and alienation. They also wrote about their bitter feelings of homesickness and their dual cultural life. Khafaji (1986) assures that Mahjar's poets in exile, their worry, sadness and longing to their homelands were expressed in their poems. Mahjar poets like Khalil Gibran among others contributed to Arabic literary renaissance. They revolted against Arabic classical literature. Their alienation to homeland gave them a strong motive and inspiration for composing nostalgic poems. They were flared with the fire of longing to their homelands and they called upon Arabism and patriotism. Their feelings towards their countries were honest and loyal. Elia Abumadi had lived and stayed in Egypt for short time, so he carried his memories to America. He also had a strong feeling towards his birthplace "Lebanon". He composed incredible poems about his homeland "Lebanon" because he considered his life in exile "America" a hell and

intolerable. If he saw a ship heading from America to Lebanon, this triggered his emotion. He addresses Beirut as follows:

بيروت يا بنت البحار الجارية فإذا سُئلت من البقايا الباقية
قولي لهم ان الحياة الهانية لم تُنسنا سكان تلك الناحية

Beirut, the girl of the running seas;

If you are asked about what remains in past;

(Lebanon after the war and colonization), say to them that beautiful and nice life does not make us forget the residents of that place (Beirut).

Abumadi also compared himself to a star because both were strange. He watched the star and asked himself:

ما لهذا النجم مثلي في الثرى طائرُ النوم شديد الوجل
أترأه يَتَقَي طارئة أم به أتى غريبُ المنزل

What is this star like me in the earth;

it cannot sleep and it is extremely scared;

Does it avoid something urgent or it is like me a stranger in a house.

Abumadi with tears in his eyes because of his longing to his homeland composed a poem under the title "Tears and sighs". He expressed his feeling as follows:

فأبكي لما بي من جوى وصباية وأبكي إذا ابصرت في الأرض باكياً
فلا تحسباني اذرف الدمع عادة ولا تحسباني انشد الشعر لاها
تمر الليالي ليلة إثر ليلة وأحزان قلبي باقيات كما هي
إذا خطرت من جانب الشرق نفحة طربت فألقى منكباي ردائيا

I cry because of my passion and extremely longing;

and I cry when I see the earth (reminding him with his homeland);

Don't think that I usually crying.

and don't think that I compose poems for fun;

The nights pass night after night;

and the sorrow of my heart stays as it is;

If gentle breeze comes up from East side;

I am delighted and overjoyed, so my shoulders throw my gown down;

He also describes his isolation and miserable life in exile in a poem entitled "My Neighbor". He describes himself as follows:

ما بالُ هذا الفتى في الدار معتزلاً كما توحد نسل ورهبان
يأتي المساء عليه وهو مكتئب وللحديث مجال وهو ملسان
وإن نكلمه لا يفقه مقالتنا إلا كما يفقه التسبيح سكران

What is wrong with this boy in the house, retired;

As the privacy and loneliness of monks and hermits;

The evening comes upon him and he is depressed and dejected;

And there is a field for talk, but he is silent though he is tactful speaker;

If we speak to him, he understands nothing;

except as the drunk man understands the praise of Allah;

The existential alienation made Elia Abumadi contemplates life and existence, so he finds himself confused and lost. This causes depression and despair to him. In his poem "Riddles" which touches the human thought and existence because of alienation. He concludes in his poem that no one can understand the secret of life:

جئت لا أعلم من اين وكلني اتيت
ولقد ابصرت قدامي طريقاً فمشيت
وسأقي ماشياً ان شئت هذا ام أبييت
كيف جئت؟ كيف ابصرت طريقي؟ لست ادري

I came;

Not knowing;

My feet saw the way;

And I walked there;

And I shall continue;

Whether I so desire or not;

How did I come;

How see the path?

I know not;

Translated by Ghareeb (1988)

In his poem "The poet is in the sky, Abumadi wished a summer or a winter in Lebanon because exile spoiled his life;

فقلت يا رب فصل صيف
في أرض لبنان أو شتاء
فإني ههنا غريب

وليس في غربة هناء

O, Lord I said a summer or a winter in;
Lebanon, I am here (in exile) a stranger;
and there is no felicity and bliss in exile;(P.74)

Mahjar poets wrote prominent and distinguished poems because of their yearning for nature and their nostalgia to their homelands. They used simple and subtle language. Ameen Rihani (1876-1940) went to New York City in 1888 to pursue his study in English. Karam (2013) assures that Rihani is prominent in modernization and universalism. He was obsessed with fostering social reform. He was also an important political figure. He was obliged to work in restaurants and other low salary jobs for the purpose of earning a living. In his poem "I Dreamed I was a Donkey Boy Again". He liked and longed for the primitive style of life because he suffered in a strange land and people in America. He wrote this poem:

I sit me on a bench and weep;
and in my heart, I sing;
O, let me be a burro-boy again;
O, let me sleep among the cyclamens;
of my own Land;
(Orfalea and Elmusa, 1988)

Jibran Khalil was one the prominent Mahjar poets who was a member of "the Pen Association" and helped in the development of Arabic literature. He expressed his alienation in a poem "Blocked Country". He insisted to leave the country of alienation:

هو ذا الفجر فقومي ننصرف عن ديار ما لنا فيها صديق
هو ذا الصبح ينادي فاسمعي وهلمي نقتفي خطواته
This is the dawn, let us leave;
From homes which we have no friends;
Listen to the call of the morning;
and let us follow its footsteps;

Jibran khalil in the lines stated above made the dawn is the time of departure from the bitterness of exile and loneliness. The dawn is followed by morning which is considered as a human being who calls for the departure of the country where we have no friends. He touches the horizons of self-alienation in a poem entitled 'yesterday':

يا بني أُمِّي إذا جاءت سُدَّ نَسْأَلُ الْفَتَيَانِ عَنْ صَبِّ كَنْيَبٍ
فَأُخْبِرُهَا أَنَّ أَيَّامَ الْبُعَادِ أَخْمدتْ مِنْ مَهْجَتِي ذَاكَ اللَّهْيَبِ

My people, if Suad (imaginary name) comes and asks the young about the severe depression. please tell her that the days of alienation put out the flame from my heart.

Jibran Khalil in his poem "There is no affable and friendship in Exile", complained about the cruelty of the alienation and the miserable life in exile:

في هجره لا أنس فيها للغريب ولا صفاء
There is no affable and purity in exile for the stranger

Nimah Alhaj (1896-1978) in a poem initiated by "I remember my family" shows his longing and love to his people and country:

تذكّرت أهلي في النوى وبلاديا وقد طال شوقي للحمى وبعاديا
تذكّرت هاتيك الربوع وأهلها ويا حبذا تلك الربوع الزواها
وداعاً وداعاً يا بلادي فأبني أودع مشتاقاً إلى لعود ثانيا
وقد يجمع الله الشتيين بعدما يظن أن لا تلاقيا
I remembered my family in exile;
And I longed for my country in the distance;
I remembered my country and its people;
You would like these wonderful countries;
Goodbye Goodbye my country;
I say goodbye and I longed for going;
Back to my country;
May Allah gather to persons after;
They think that they don't meet;

Al-Issa (2003) assures that "the sense of estrangement and alienation that accompanied the Arab-American immigrants was further deepened due to the impact of the American metropolis. Most of them came from smaller cities, towns and villages only to face huge high-rise buildings and factories that were scattered across America"(P.42).

Mikhail Naimy (1889-1988) was one of the prominent Mahjar poets who drew a beautiful picture for the future of the immigrants in America. He gave hope and support for them. In his poem "Close your Eyes", he states:

When clouds conceal your skies;
Close your eyes;
And see the stars beyond;

If earth is wrapped in snow;
 Close your eyes;
 And see the flowers below;
 When sickness knows no ease;
 Close your eyes;
 And see the cure in the disease;
 (Translated by Perry, J.R.,1988)

Edward Said (2003) remarks that the immigrants are those who uprooted from their homelands. Unlike nationalism, exile is considered as a discontinuation state of being immigrants are cut off from their homelands, their land and their past. Accordingly, they suffer from alienation because they are obliged to adapt themselves with a strange culture and people. Hamzah (2016) points out that it is difficult for poets and writers to leave their homelands and to be forced to give up their culture and relinquish their mother tongue. They become absorbed into strange new societies and culture.

IV. CONCLUSION

Adab alMahjar (Emigrant literature) stands for the Arab emigrant writers who settled in America during the 20th century. They received the support from the Association founded for this purpose. A group of prominent writers like Jibran Khalil Jibran (1883-1931); Mikhail Naimy (1889-1988) and Ameen Rihani (1876-1940) founded an association called "The Pen Association". It revolted the classical Arabic prose and poetry which focused on human emotions and imagination which were reflected in the topics they wrote about like love, criticism, philosophy and nostalgia. Jokandan and Shakib (2015) state that the major characteristics of Mahjar poets in North America were the love of their countries, their tendency to nationalism; their pessimistic outlook towards life and the innovation and introduction of new topics. Mahjar poets focused on their longing and nostalgia for the past. Their alienation was one of the major characteristics of their poetic reference. Because of the hard circumstances they experienced in America as exiles and immigrants, they composed the best poems showing their feeling of homesickness. Hamzah (2016) stresses that "exile is the antithesis of homeland and invites the use of motifs derived from the conflict between separation from one's homeland and soil and the desire to return. Among these motifs are memory, nostalgia, return and absence." (P.256) America was a rich place for the immigrants to write about their longing to homelands because it was a source of inspiration, so they composed great poems with free rhythm and verses. Khafaji (1986) adds that immigrants' feelings and sadness towards their people and homelands were highlighted in their poems.

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Can Word Segmentation and Length of Text Affect L2 Reading? Evidence From Advanced L2 Learners of Chinese and the Three Reading Models

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Abstract—The purpose of this article is to examine whether the word segmentation and the length of text will promote Chinese as a second language reading, and what the appropriate reading models are best for L2 learners when they processing Chinese language reading tasks. According to the experiment test, the results indicated that the main effects of word segmentation and length of text were not significantly different, and the interaction effect of the two factors was not significant in statistics too for advanced proficiency L2 learners of Chinese. This article concludes by using the approach of word boundary and choosing the useful reading models for teaching Chinese reading in classrooms are the valuable approaches for teachers when they combine other effective ways in L2 education.

Index Terms—word segmentation, length of text, reading models, advanced L2 learners of Chinese

I. INTRODUCTION

For most readers who use phonetic characters, there are always physical boundaries between words in their written texts, so there is no confusion between adjacent words. However, in the ideographic writing system with Chinese as the typical representative, there is no word segmentation, and also no natural boundary between words, but only the physical boundary between every character. Zheng (1981) asked the participants to identify the position of any Chinese character in the fast presentation of Chinese characters from the meaningful words (real words) composed of two Chinese characters and the meaningless words (non words) composed of the two Chinese characters. The results showed that the accuracy of recognition of native Chinese readers under the condition of real words was significantly higher than that under the condition of non words. Does the presentation of written Chinese text have an impact on the reading of Chinese as a second language? The research on this question is helpful to understand some deep mechanism of Chinese reading.

Gao (2006) conducted a survey on foreign students from Japan, South Korea and other countries with Chinese character culture circle, and found that word segmentation did not have any impact on such students' Chinese reading. Zhou and Xie (2007) conducted sentence and word segmentation experiments on 38 intermediate proficiency Chinese as a second language learners from Chinese character culture circle through oral test and paper-pencil test. Through the analysis of the experimental data, they pointed out that the reasons for the errors in word segmentation and put forward some strategies for word segmentation. Wang Di (2011) used spaces and shadows as word segmentation markers, and used DMDX program to record the reaction of Russian students who studied Chinese as a foreign language at different levels when reading Chinese declarative sentences. The results revealed that the Russian students had the shorter reading times under the condition of word segmentation. At the same time, their reading times under the condition of shadow word segmentation were relatively short. Word segmentation can promote the Russian students' Chinese reading speed, and students at high level spend less reading times than those who at middle and low level. Song (2014) conducted a text segmentation experiment on Indonesian and Thai L2 learners of Chinese. The results indicated that the higher the learners' Chinese proficiency, the stronger their word segmentation ability and the reading units will expand with the improvement of Chinese proficiency. Song (2014) conducted an experimental study on the influence of word segmentation on Chinese reading for foreign students. The experimental results showed that the primary level students were more suitable for the Chinese articles in the form of word segmentation, which had a certain role in promoting their reading. However, word segmentation had no obvious effect on the Chinese reading of intermediate and advanced students. Gao and Jiang (2015) conducted word segmentation and Chinese reading tests on Chinese second language learners with Pinyin background by means of paper-pencil test. The content of the experiment was the comprehension of different length articles with and without word segmentation. The results revealed that the effect of word segmentation on the reading ability of the participants was positively related to the length of the text. In addition, the research also revealed that the processing patterns of Chinese reading of primary and intermediate proficiency L2 learners of Chinese were very similar, which indicated that primary and intermediate levels of learners were likely to

rely mainly on the bottom-up Chinese reading comprehension pattern.

To explore whether the presentation of word segmentation and the length of a text will affect reading speed and accuracy of L2 learners of Chinese, there are two research questions this article focuses on:

1. Does word segmentation in text promote and decrease L2 learners' reading times?
2. Does text length affect L2 readers' reading comprehension?

II. METHODS

A. Participants

This study selected 20 advanced L2 learners of Chinese who studied in China's universities as participants, including 9 males and 11 females. Their Chinese levels reached the advanced stage, with an average age of 25.35 and an average Chinese language learning time of 4.73 years. The visual acuity or corrected visual acuity of all participants was normal, and there were no hearing impairment and dyslexia participants.

B. Materials

The tested materials used in the experiment were texts, and the selection process was as follows:

First of all, several learners who did not participate in this experiment selected the content areas they were interested in from the "People's Daily newspaper page names and corresponding contents / fields (categories) list" sorted out by the researcher. The researcher calculated statistics of the top ten content areas.

Secondly, the researcher selected the corresponding texts from the selected content areas, and only one text was selected as the experimental materials for each content area. The texts in these content areas were derived from the newspaper corpus of the *People's Daily* with an event span of one month. The selected experimental materials fully reflected event content and involved all kinds of news topics and language styles.

Thirdly, the learners who did not participate in this experiment read the experimental materials selected by the researcher to determine the acceptability and readability of each text. If a certain text was considered by most learners to be more difficult to accept or less readable, the researcher would reselect the materials in the corresponding content area until all the experimental materials had passed the acceptance and readability tests.

Fourthly, the number of words (including punctuation) of ten selected materials texts was calculated to count the length of the corpus. The average number of words was 197.70. The text less than or equal to the mean value was short, otherwise it was long. In this way, five of the ten texts were short and five were long. After the length was determined, all the learners who did not participate in this experiment were asked to make an acceptable judgment on the division of the length. After the judgment of acceptability, all the texts were segmented word by word by the researcher.

Fifthly, referring to the length and word boundary conditions, 10 participants used the non-word segmentation of "3 short texts + 2 long texts" and the word segmentation of "3 long texts + 2 short texts", while the other 10 participants used the non-word segmentation of "3 long texts + 2 short texts" and the word segmentation of "3 short texts + 2 long texts". In this way, each participant would read 10 texts, and five texts under two word boundary conditions and two types of length conditions.

C. Procedures

The participants were asked to complete the reading comprehension multiple-choice questions immediately after reading a text. Each experimental text was printed on 1/2 of A4 paper, one side was the material, and the other side was the reading question which needed the participants to choose the correct answer. The question of each text was two single-choice questions. The participants could operate according to the "instruction" of the experiment. There was no limit to the reading time, but when the participants finished the two questions, they could not look back at the experimental texts.

The concrete procedures of this test were as follows:

First of all, the researcher explained the intention of this experiment, the process of this experiment operation and the related precautions to the participants, and answered the questions about the experiment operation.

Secondly, after the participants understood the operation process of this experiment, they began the experiment. During the experiment, the participants were not allowed to consult dictionaries, textbooks and other materials, and they completed all the reading comprehension tasks independently.

Thirdly, after the participants completed all the experimental tests, the researchers immediately checked the participants' answers to ensure that the data were complete and correct.

The experiment was conducted in a separate way, and the relevant instructions before the experiment were in Chinese.

III. RESULTS

This experiment used the two factors within-group design to calculate the related statistic data. The independent variables in this experiment were word segmentation and text length. Word segmentation was divided into two levels, non-word segmentation and word segmentation. Text length was also divided into two levels, short text and long text.

The dependent variable was the number of reading comprehension errors.

The participants completed all the single-choice questions of reading comprehension. One wrong choice was counted as 1 point and two wrong choices were counted as 2 points, and so on. No wrong choice was counted as 0 point. The cumulative number of errors was only calculated in the same category of experimental data. Spss22.0 was used to calculate the experimental data.

TABLE 1
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF ERROR NUMBERS IN READING COMPREHENSION (N = 20)

	non-word segmentation				word segmentation			
	short text		long text		short text		long text	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Error numbers	0.85	0.88	0.60	0.82	1.20	0.89	0.65	0.68

The data in Table 1 were tested by analysis of variance (ANOVA), and the results are as follows:

(1) The main effect of word segmentation on the number of errors in reading comprehension was not significant ($f(1, 19) = 1.652, P = 0.214 > 0.05$). There was no significant difference in the number of reading comprehension errors between the texts with word segmentation and those without word segmentation ($MD = 0.35$) under short texts condition. There was no significant difference in the number of reading comprehension errors between the texts with word segmentation and the texts without word segmentation under long texts condition ($MD = 0.05$).

(2) The main effect of length on the number of reading comprehension errors was not significant ($f(1, 19) = 3.848, P = 0.065 > 0.05$). Under the condition of no word segmentation, there was no significant difference in the number of reading comprehension errors between short length and long length ($MD = 0.25$). Under the condition of word segmentation, there was no significant difference in the number of reading comprehension errors between short length and long length ($MD = 0.55$).

(3) The interaction between word segmentation and text length was not significant ($f(1, 19) = 1.132, P = 0.301 > 0.05$), and there was no significant difference between word segmentation and text length on the number of reading comprehension errors. The experimental interaction was not significant, which indicated that word segmentation and text length had the same effects on the participants' reading.

IV. DISCUSSION

A. Word Segmentation and Text Length on Reading

The results revealed that word segmentation and text length both had no effect on the number of errors in reading comprehension, and the interaction between them had no effect on the text reading. Further research showed that under the word boundary condition, the number of errors in reading comprehension of short and long texts was slightly less than that of texts with word segmentation. It could be seen that the word boundary information had little influence on the advanced stage participants when they read the text. On the other hand, under the same word segmentation condition, the number of reading comprehension errors in short texts was slightly more than that in long texts. From this result, it could be seen that the higher-level participants' comprehension and information integration of the longer discourse were better than those of the phrase discourse and the longer discourse provides more contextual information and language content.

Additionally, the results of Gao and Jiang (2015) text reading experiments on foreign students at the primary and intermediate stages also showed that the main effect of word boundary conditions on the number of reading errors was not significant. However, in their experimental results, the interaction of text length and article word boundary condition had significant effect on the number of reading comprehension errors. Through comparative observation and analysis, there were several differences between the experimental materials of this article and that of Gao and Jiang's.

First, the source of the tested texts was different. In this experiment, the researcher used the existing, unadapted, and native Chinese language oriented newspaper corpus. However, the materials used by Gao and Jiang were specially designed for the participants. Their tested materials were the Chinese reading materials compiled by researchers according to the existing Chinese reading and listening textbooks.

Second, the experimental design was different too. After reading the tested materials, the participants were asked to complete a closed reading comprehension test (single-choice test). But in the Gao and Jiang's experiment, the participants were asked to complete an open reading comprehension task (using Chinese characters or pinyin to answer subjective questions) after reading the tested materials.

The differences of tested materials' sources and questions design may lead to differences in the results of the text reading experiment. However, by comparing the two groups of discourse experiments, we discovered that the word boundary condition had no effect on the Chinese texts reading of the foreign students at the three stages of elementary, intermediate, and advanced levels, while the text length had a certain effect on the foreign students who at the elementary and intermediate levels. The result of this comparison proved once again that advanced L2 learners of Chinese rely more on top-down reading strategies in text reading.

B. Reading Models When Processing L2 Texts

Text reading is a complex and multidimensional psychological process of linguistic information. This process involves many steps of linguistic information processing at different levels, from the recognition of words, the understanding of sentence meaning to the construction of text meaning. Text reading comprehension is not only the process of the reader's immediate information, but also the integration of readers own existing background knowledge and language knowledge. Through the reorganization of the short-term processed language information and the long-term stored language knowledge, the readers can obtain new language content. There are three types of text reading models which includes bottom-up model, top-down model, and interactive model.

According to the bottom-up model of text reading, the reading process is an orderly bottom-up cognitive process from word to word, sentence to text. If the reader wants to extract and understand the text information well, he or she must rely on the understanding of the meaning of the sentences that compose the text. To understand the meaning of a sentence, readers must rely on the recognition and meaning understanding of the words that directly constitute the sentence, and the understanding of the words has to go to the recognition and meaning understanding of the Chinese characters that constitute the words. The reading process under this model is an extremely accurate cognitive processing process. The reader is gradually transiting from the perception, identification, processing and understanding of language symbols at the bottom to the perception, identification, processing and understanding of language symbols at the top. Therefore, as far as reading comprehension is concerned, it is a cognitive process of separation and integration of the language and words that constitute the text.

The bottom-up reading model is more useful for analyzing the primary stage of second language learners, because they are relatively lack of target language knowledge and are used to seeking language information from a single component. However, the intermediate and advanced stage of second language learners have stored appropriate target language knowledge in their mind, and they may be more affected by their own existing language knowledge and background knowledge in the process of text reading. For example, a certain letter is easier to be recognized in meaningful words than in meaningless and arbitrarily arranged strings, which is called "word optimization effect", which shows the influence of readers' existing language knowledge on their reading.

According to the top-down model of text reading, it is not a cognitive process from word to word, sentence to text, but a process of selecting, identifying, recognizing and processing the present text information based on the reader's existing knowledge of the objective world and language. Therefore, the extraction and understanding of text information is a top-down process based on the reader's prior knowledge and concept driven. For example, a word is easier to recognize in a context of definite meaning than when it appears alone, which is called "contextual effect".

The top-down reading model also has some problems. It overemphasizes the prediction of text information through the reader's existing background knowledge and language knowledge, and ignores the identification of the necessary lexical and syntactic structures. Some studies have shown that it is not the predictive ability of language information that makes the second language learners with stronger reading ability, but more importantly their decoding ability of the target text, which makes them have stronger reading ability. Second language learners' text reading ability is always from low to high. The foundation of their fast and accurate text information extraction and understanding is still their language information decoding ability.

Both bottom-up and top-down text reading models follow the principle of sequence processing of linguistic information. Information processing process is independent, and the previous processing results will be transferred to the subsequent processing stages, without mutual influence. The difference between them is that the former indicates that the reader has experienced the process of text cognitive processing from low level to high level, while the latter reveals that the reader's text reading is to verify the hypothesis and prediction of the text before reading after they get the language information. Each of the two reading models has its own limitations. The bottom-up reading model ignores the reader's existing language knowledge and overemphasizes the role of the reader's decoding ability in text information extraction and comprehension. On the other hand, the top-down reading model pays one-sided attention to readers' experience and ignores their decoding ability in the face of specific discourse content.

Reading is a complex psychological process. Advanced stage learners do not always read Chinese characters one by one, but may complete the reading in the form of phrases or chunks. The learners in this stage basically have a relatively complete ability of Chinese words, and they are closer to the reading habits and ability of native Chinese learners than the learners in the early and middle levels. The results of this experiment showed that word segmentation had no significant effect on the reading process, regardless of the length of the text. This revealed that the advanced Chinese learners no longer simply rely on the meaning of a single word to infer the meaning of the whole text. They may use a larger combination of language units to promote the reading comprehension of the text. Advanced stage learners have more knowledge of Chinese words and corresponding cultural knowledge, but also have better Chinese reading ability, and their perceptual range of reading is significantly larger than the coverage of a single Chinese word. It is undeniable that although the Chinese reading skills of advanced stage learners tend to be similar to those of native Chinese learners, it is difficult for them to achieve the reading skills of native Chinese learners in the end. When they encounter more difficult words in the process of reading, they may also take a more primitive way, that is, a single word processing way, to read. Therefore, there is a space of proportional distribution among learners of different levels in the three reading models of "bottom-up", "top-down" and "interactive reading style". For advanced stage learners, they may use the

"top-down" reading method in the reading process.

With the development of text reading experiment, more and more evidence shows that when reading the target text, the second language does not simply use one text reading model, but uses the bottom-up and top-down text reading models. When it comes to specific text reading, it is the question of how much of the two models are used. The interactive model of text reading has an impact on the cognitive processing stages of words, syntax, text and semantics. Schema theory is a typical representative of this interactive reading model.

V. CONCLUSIONS

This research conducted an empirical study on the texts reading of advanced L2 learners of Chinese. The results indicated that both word segmentation and text length had no significant effect on reading. Through the experiment, it was shown that the advanced Chinese as the second language learners may use more "top-down" reading style in the reading process. At this stage, the learners have acquired good Chinese words ability and relatively complete reading skills. In this stage of Chinese reading course, we can consider the following teaching suggestions.

First, increase the length of reading texts, integrate more word knowledge and cultural knowledge, and try to choose real-life texts without any manual modification, such as newspaper texts, academic texts and novel texts, so as to promote learners' access to more authentic language materials and improve their ability to solve practical communication problems in the target language.

Second, the reading materials can be articles with more chunks, which not only conforms to the language reading level of advanced learners, but also can continuously improve their reading skills and effectively promote their language information processing ability.

Third, it is necessary to increase the difficulty of words in the reading materials and select a certain number of super ordinate words, so that learners can solve the problems of words in the reading process and fully mobilize their subjective initiative through contextual information and semantic relevance of related words.

Generally speaking, in the actual teaching of text reading, teachers should give full consideration to the target language knowledge that the second language has mastered before, so as to ensure that the learners have enough language ability to complete the learning of target language. On the other hand, teachers should also consider the difficulty of the text and the adaptability of the learners' knowledge and ability of the target language. Appropriately, teachers can consider choosing a text that is slightly higher than learners' current language ability for teaching.

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On Embodiment of Predicative Metaphor: A Case of English Body-action Verbs

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Abstract—This paper presents an analysis of embodiment of predicative metaphor which is an important topic in cognitive linguistic study. Previous researches are mainly about the identification, classification and construal of predicative metaphor, while its cognitive motivation has not been discussed. Based on the conceptual metaphor theory and embodied philosophy, the cognitive motivation of the metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs is discussed. It is concluded that the metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs arises from the embodied experience. Concepts related to human body are preferred to be the source domain of the cross-domain mapping used to understand other concepts. The metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs is created through human body metaphor.

Index Terms—predicative metaphor, body-action verbs, motivation, embodied Philosophy

I. INTRODUCTION

Metaphor is “a matter of thought and action and only derivatively a matter of language” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p.153). *Most of the researches on metaphor within the scope of cognitive science focus on nominal metaphors. “Using isolated, nominal, clause-length metaphors as typical exemplars in theory-building may also be misleading”* (Cameron, 1999, p. 16). Verb plays a significant role in every language, and its metaphorical usage is also of great importance to metaphor study. The completeness of research on metaphor cannot be achieved without studying the metaphorical usage of other parts of speech, for example, that of verb. Relevant literature on the metaphorical usage of verbs has touched upon the identification, classification, construal of predicative metaphors (Su, 2017) and the metaphorical usage of certain subclass of verbs, for instance, sensory verbs. However, these aspects are primarily concerned with the linguistic manifestations of predicative metaphors. The cognitive motivation of the metaphorical usage of verbs, especially subclass of verbs, has not yet been explored. Body-action verbs are verbs indicating mechanical actions made by people using certain parts of their bodies (Wang, Li, Wu & Zhang, 2019). The conventionalized metaphorical usage of such high-frequency words is indispensable to conceptual metaphor study and the cognitive motivation of such usage is a necessity.

The present paper intends to analyze the cognitive motivation of the metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs under the conceptual metaphor theory and embodied philosophy hoping to make contributions to a better understanding of English body-action verbs as well as further the study on predicative metaphor. The paper begins by presenting previous researches on predicative metaphor before introducing the theoretical bases, namely Conceptual Metaphor Theory and the Embodied Philosophy. It then turns to discussing metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs. And the cognitive motivation of the metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs is explored.

II. PREVIOUS RESEARCHES ON PREDICATIVE METAPHOR

Literature review on predicative metaphor is presented in this part, and previous studies on the metaphorical usage of verbs are reviewed. And limitations of the previous studies are pointed out. Then an explanation of English body-action verbs is given.

Researches on the metaphorical usage of verbs have been increasing. They focused on such different aspects as identification, classification and construal of predicative metaphors (Su, 2017). Different scholars held different views to the identification of metaphorical usage of verbs. Kittay (1987) argued that identifying the unit of discourse that constitutes a metaphor is the precondition for the identification of metaphor, which applies to predicative metaphor as well. Goatly (1997, p. 79) thought that unconventional reference and/or semantic contradiction exerts a considerable influence on the successful identification of a metaphor. Torrealano, Cacciari and Glucksberg (2005) claimed that the level of abstraction of a verb serves well as a cue to metaphorical usage of verbs and through an experiment they showed that when a verb is interpreted at a higher level of abstraction, it is more metaphorical. Ge and Zhao (2010) pointed out different ways of recognition according to their classification of predicative metaphors. Semantic conflicts

resulting from collocation of non-phrasal action verbs and nouns which do not belong to the same category can be used as a cue. And the recognition of metaphorical usage of phrasal verbs can be achieved by examining the collocation of verbs and particles. Zhang and Zhu (2011) added that to see whether a verb is used metaphorically, the specific context should be considered. It is proposed that the identification be done by judging the authenticity of the reference of the collocation of verbs and nouns under common sense.

A few researchers made attempts to classify the metaphorical usage of verbs in their studies. Yang and Huang (2000) sorted predicative metaphor mainly into two types: metaphorical usage of denominal verbs and metaphorical usage of words which are verbs originally. Peng (2010) held that there are three types of metaphorical mapping of verbs: from specific domain to abstract domain, from one specific domain to another specific domain and from specific domain to another specific domain which is of abstract nature. Ge and Zhao (2010) analyzed their metaphorical usage of non-phrasal action verbs and phrasal verbs. Zhang and Zhu (2011) divided predicative metaphors into three types: metaphor arose from the semantic conflicts between subject and verb, between verb and object and between verb and both subject and object according to the ways of identification mentioned above.

The construal of metaphorical usage of verbs was another focus of previous studies. Goatly (1997, pp. 82-83) stated that the construal of predicative metaphor involves a process called “vehicle-construction”, arguing that “metaphorically used verbs can indirectly evoke imagery but only by being hooked up to their conventional colligates”. For example, when referring to the verb “kick”, the image of a foot may come into one’s mind. By applying the Dynamic Construal Approach put forward by Croft and Cruise (2004, p. 141), Zhang and Zhu (2011) presented a detailed analysis of the construal of metaphorical usage of verbs. From their perspective, construing predicative metaphor includes three stages, namely, perceiving the existence of a metaphor, finding out related concepts in the source domain, and connecting the target domain with the source domain. Some scholars viewed that embodied simulation contributes to the comprehension of predicative metaphor. Wilson and Gibbs (2007), conducting two experiments, revealed that real or imagined body actions help to promote the construal of metaphorical usage of verbs representing those actions.

Some researchers concentrated their studies on the metaphorical usage of certain subclass of verbs. Gao and Qin (2009) took Chinese and English verbs in the category of food as research objects, and comparatively analyzed the similarities and differences between their conceptual metaphor mapping. Peng (2010) explored the embodiment of structural metaphor, orientational metaphor and ontological metaphor in human body verbs and pointed out that metaphor plays a crucial role in the extension of the meaning of human body verbs. Peng and Lv (2015), from the perspectives of metaphorical image schema and metaphorical cognitive model, studied the metaphorical mechanism and cognitive operation of Russian verbs with the meaning of thought.

Previous studies on the metaphorical usage of verbs have, to some degree, enriched research on predicative metaphor and enhanced our understanding of this subject. However, the cognitive motivation of the metaphorical usage of verbs, especially that of subclass of verbs, has not been fully explored in the studies. It remains to be analyzed whether the cognitive, psychological and linguistic causes of metaphor can be applied to explain the motivation of predicative metaphor especially that of the metaphorical usage of body-action verbs. On this account, the present work is carried out with an aim to investigate the cognitive motivation of English body-action verbs.

Body-action verbs refer to verbs indicating mechanical actions made by people using certain parts of their bodies (Wang, Li, Wu & Zhang, 2019). Mostly monosyllabic and expressing concrete actions, almost all these verbs are native words in English and are frequently used in everyday speech and writing. They are so frequently used that their metaphorical usage is not easy to notice. They become conventionalized metaphors. “Those that are most alive and most deeply entrenched, efficient and powerful are those that are so automatic as to be unconscious and effortless” (Lakoff & Turner, 1989, p. 129). This means conventionalized metaphor, to some extent, can better reflect the essence of our cognition. This is also one of the reasons why body-action verbs are chosen as the research objects of the present study.

Human body can be generally divided into four parts: head (face included), trunk, arms (hands included) and legs (feet included). Since most body-action verbs used in daily life relate to hands or feet, the current study plans to divide the research objects into three categories: verbs related to hands, verbs related to feet and verbs related to other parts of human body. To ensure the reliability of the choice of the research objects, verbs used for the present research are selected from *Oxford Collocations Dictionary (Second Edition)*. Only verbs that are common and have metaphorical usage are chosen. Body-actions verbs appropriate for further studies are as follows.

Categories	Specific Body-Action Verbs
Verbs related to hands	beat, bring, catch, carry, clap, grab, grasp, hit, hold, knock, lift, pick, point, pour, pull, push, raise, reach, seize, shake, sweep, take, tear, throw, tie, touch, write
Verbs related to feet	jump, kick, leap, run, skip, stamp, stand, step, walk
Verbs related to other parts of human body	bite, chew, climb, lean, lie, nod, stretch, strike, sit, swallow

III. THEORETICAL BASES

Conceptual metaphor theory and the embodied philosophy serve as the bases of the following analysis. They will be

applied to discuss the metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs and their cognitive motivation.

A. *Conceptual Metaphor Theory*

Lakoff & Johnson (1980, p. 4) stated that “our ordinary conceptual system is metaphorical in nature”. Metaphor is not just a rhetorical device, but more of a way of thinking. It is “understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 5), metaphorical concepts are classified mainly into three types, namely, structural metaphors, orientational metaphors and ontological metaphors.

Metaphorical concept like “TIME IS MONEY” is an example of structural metaphor, in which “one concept is metaphorically structured in terms of another” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 14). In structural metaphors, words or expressions employed in one concept which is comparatively concrete and familiar to us are used to conceptualize the other concept that is rather abstract and complex. For instance, in the “TIME IS MONEY” metaphor, words that are normally used to describe money are applied to express time, such as “waste time”, “spend time”, “save time” and so on.

Oriental metaphors, as the name indicates, are metaphorical concepts built with respect to spatial orientations such as up and down, in and out. Ingrained in our physical and cultural experience, orientational metaphors give rise to a series of normal expressions in our daily life. For example, the expression “I’m feeling up today” (which means “I’m feeling happy today”) is acceptable because there exists a metaphorical concept — “HAPPY IS UP” in our experience (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 14).

Ontological metaphors can be further divided into entity and substance metaphors and container metaphors. Entity and substance metaphors arise from our experience of physical objects and substances. As the term suggests, they are metaphorical concepts structured in terms of entities or substances. Regarding abstract concepts such as emotions and events as concrete entities or substances enables people to understand it better. Taking “He broke down” (which means “He mentally collapsed”) as an example, an ontological metaphor “THE MIND IS A MACHINE” is involved.

B. *The Embodied Philosophy*

Different from the traditional western philosophy which mainly concerns with the divergence of perceptualism (includes empiricism) and rationalism, the embodied philosophy (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999) advocates the interaction between human beings and the objective world and insists the embodied research on human’s mind and cognition. It is regarded as the second-generation cognitive science (Wang, 2002). The conceptual metaphor theory, as a vital part of the cognitive science, is based on the embodied philosophy. Thus, to explore the cognitive motivation of the English body-action verbs metaphor, it is necessary to elaborate the embodied philosophy. The embodied philosophy consists of three basic principles: the unconsciousness of cognition, the embodiment of mind and the metaphorical nature of thought.

The unconsciousness of cognition indicates that “most of our thought is unconscious” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999, p. 20). Our thinking process is quite quick and complicated and involves lots of cognitive processes and neural processes. Therefore, it is impossible for us to perceive and control it. In this sense, those conceptual systems, meaning, inference and language in our cognition are mostly unconscious (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999, p. 21). The embodiment of mind holds that “concepts and reason are embodied” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999, p. 28). It is argued that human categories, concepts and reason are neither naturally earned, nor are they direct reflections of an external reality. Instead, they are closely related to our experience with the objective world, and form through unconscious cognitive processing. In other words, human brains and bodies play a vital part in the formation of concepts (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999, pp. 26-31; Wang, 2011, pp. 19-20). The metaphorical nature of thought reveals that human thought and language are essentially metaphorical. As mentioned above, human thought is by no means the direct reflection of the external, objective world. Therefore, it is inevitable that we understand and comprehend one concept with the help of another. Common subjective experience is conceptualized through cross-domain mappings, with our sensorimotor experience serving as the source domain. Metaphor makes it possible for people to think about subjective experience and judgment. It is a cognitive approach ingrained in human mind (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999, pp. 60-62; Wang, 2011, p. 21).

The conceptual metaphor theory and the embodied philosophy serve as the theoretical bases of the research for there are certain links among the theories and the present study. For one thing, conceptual metaphor theory concisely defines and clearly explains what a metaphorical concept is, making it possible for the present work to recognize the metaphorical concepts residing in English body-action verbs and to conduct a further study on them. The metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs belongs to ontological metaphor. Body-action verbs are collocated with physical entities and substance, for example, “kick a football”. However, when used metaphorically, they are applied to more abstract and subjective concepts. For instance, when used metaphorically, “kick” may be collocated with “a bad habit”. For another thing, this thesis aims at exploring the motivation of the metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs from a cognitive point of view. English body-action verbs metaphor, as a specific kind of conceptual metaphor, is also based on the embodied philosophy. Accordingly, discussion of the cognitive motivation of the metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs is carried out under the guidance of the three principles of the embodied philosophy.

IV. METAPHORICAL USAGE OF ENGLISH BODY-ACTION VERBS

In this part, a study on the metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs is carried out. Example sentences of the metaphorical usage of body-action verbs are chosen from *Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary* and are explored. For each category of body-action verbs, several examples that can well represent the common features of the metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs are analyzed.

A. Metaphorical Usage of Verbs Related to Hands

In terms of the metaphorical usage of verbs related to hands, examples of “catch”, “hit” and “knock” are selected.

(1) I caught a look of surprise on her face.

“Catch” originally means holding something concrete and tangible in one’s hand (Hornby, 2009, p.300), while here the object of it is “a look of surprise”. Taking one’s facial expression as a physical object, it is obviously an ontological metaphor. The verb “catch” in this sentence can no longer be literally interpreted as “take hold of something” since “a look of surprise”, being rather abstract, cannot be held in one’s hand. Instead, it should be metaphorically interpreted as “notice”.

(2) The tax increases will certainly hit the poor.

The literal meaning of “hit” is to hurt somebody or something with one’s hand or with an object in a quick and forceful way (Hornby, 2009, p. 969). While in the given example, the subject of “hit” is “the tax increases”. The increase of tax, which is an event, is viewed as an entity. The event may not cause physical damage to the poor but will certainly have a bad influence on them. The adverse effect of tax increases on the poor is like the damage that an entity or one’s hand can cause to people. Therefore, the verb “hit” in this example should be metaphorically understood as “have a bad effect on”.

(3) The criticism had knocked her self-esteem.

The original meaning of “knock” is to hit some material object like a door, a window or a desk to arouse attention (Hornby, 2009, p. 1118). In the above example, “her self-esteem”, which refers to a person’s subjective feeling, is unconventionally collocated with “knock”. Knocking material objects involves physical contact, while a person’s self-esteem, being rather abstract and intangible, cannot be physically hit. Taking the impact of “the criticism” can have on a person’s “self-esteem” into consideration, “knock” here should be metaphorically interpreted as “to hurt or damage”.

B. Metaphorical Usage of Verbs Related to Feet

As for the metaphorical usage of verbs related to feet, examples of “jump”, “stand” and “run” are chosen.

(4) Sales jumped by 60% last year.

Literally, “jump” means “to move quickly off the ground or away from a surface by pushing yourself with your legs and feet” (Hornby, 2009, p. 1100). In the above example, “sales”, which is the subject of “jump”, are inanimate things. Here, the sudden increase of sales is metaphorically regarded as people’s action of moving quickly off the ground, since the two concepts share a similarity. Regarding this, it can be inferred that the metaphorical meaning of “jump” is “to increase suddenly”.

(5) Modern plastics can stand very high and very low temperatures.

It is generally accepted that the verb “stand” refers to a person being in a vertical position with his or her feet or something put in a vertical position somewhere (Hornby, 2009, p. 1961). However, in this example, “temperatures” serve as the object of “stand”. “Temperatures” are intangible, so it is impossible for “the modern plastics” to be on it vertically. Therefore, the given sentence can only make sense through metaphorical interpretation. If modern plastics can “stand” up in very high and very low temperatures, it does not “fall”. Or to be more exact, it does not “melt”. Modern plastics remain undamaged in very high and very low temperatures. Thus, the verb “stand” should be metaphorically explained as “can resist something and remain in good condition”.

(6) A shiver ran down my spine.

Literally, “run” describes one’s body movement using his legs at a speed faster than walking (Hornby, 2009, p. 1749). When it comes to the verb “run”, the image of legs or feet may naturally emerge in one’s mind. In the above sentence, the subject of “run” is “a shiver”, indicating one’s subjective experience. Therefore, it can be inferred that “run” metaphorically means “to make somebody feel something”.

C. Metaphorical Usage of Verbs Related to Other Parts of Human Body

As for verbs related to other parts of human body, examples of the metaphorical usage of “strike”, “sit” and “chew” are presented here.

(7) An awful thought has just struck me.

The verb “strike” originally refers to hitting somebody or something with one’s body or with other entities. Nevertheless, the subject of it in the above sentence— “an awful thought” is nonphysical and quite abstract. Obviously, it is an ontological metaphor which views “thought” as a physical object. Striking somebody with body or a weapon involves contact, likewise, striking somebody with a thought may get the person to know the thought. It is then clear that “strike” here means “to come into one’s mind suddenly” (Hornby, 2009, p. 2000).

(8) Candidates will sit the examinations in June.

The verb “sit” is commonly understood as “to rest one’s weight on one’s bottom with his or her back vertical, for

example, on/in a chair” (Hornby, 2009, p. 1875). But in the above example, “sit” is collocated with “examination”. “Examination” is not an entity that can be used for people to rest on but an event. Therefore, metaphorical interpretation should be adopted. It is surely impossible for people to “sit” on the examination, while they can sit in the classroom where an examination is held. In this way, it is easy to conclude that the verb “sit” in this sentence conveys a metaphorical meaning, that is, “to take part in an exam”.

(9) In a few years he had climbed to the top of his profession.

The literal meaning of “climb” is to move up towards the top of something, like a mountain, a tree or a wall (Hornby, 2009, p. 358). In the example above, “the top of his profession”, which is the object of “climb”, is an abstract concept. Apparently, “climb” here no longer refers to changes in the relative position. Instead, it metaphorically means “the promotion in one’s social rank”.

V. MOTIVATION OF METAPHORICAL USAGE OF ENGLISH BODY-ACTION VERBS

Most verbs concerning certain parts of human body have metaphorical usage. In this part, further discussion on the cognitive motivation of the metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs is conducted according to the three principles of embodied philosophy.

A. Concepts Related to Human Body as Preferential Source Domain

Human cognition is limited not only by time and space, but also by the structure of our sensory organs. To explore the outside world or things and concepts beyond our body, it is inevitable that we experience those unfamiliar and abstract concepts in terms of the knowledge and concepts that are already known to us (Su, 2000). First and foremost, we encounter our body and learn or acquire concepts related to human. As the most familiar concepts to us, they are most commonly used to understand those abstract and complex concepts and ideas. Specifically, in the present study, concrete body-action verbs are applied to refer to events like “the tax increases” and “examinations”, subjective experiences like “an awful thought”, “a shiver”, “one’s self-esteem” and “a look of surprise”, nonphysical things like “sales”, “the top of one’s profession” and “very high and very low temperatures”.

As the unconsciousness of mind indicates, human thoughts are mostly unconscious. According to Lakoff and Turner (1989, p. 167), human naturally forms certain orders of the beings in the world. They called such orders “the Great Chain of Beings”. It is a cultural model ingrained in our cognition that somehow affects our understanding of ourselves, the world around us and the language we use. People unconsciously establish in their mind the great chain hierarchically in the order of human, animal, plant, inanimate object. And concepts in our cognition are also arranged in such orders (Hu & Xu, 2020).

“A look of surprise”, “the tax increases”, “sales”, “very high and very low temperatures”, “an awful thought”, “examination”, “a shiver”, “one’s self-esteem” and “the top of one’s profession” are all concepts related to human life. To gain a better understanding of these relatively abstract concepts that belong to the field of inanimate object, concepts from higher levels may be borrowed. Since they are closely related to human life, words and expressions from the highest level of the great chain—human, are preferable to be the source domain of metaphorical mapping. In this case, they are metaphorically collocated with body-action verbs in the semantic category of human, making them easier and more vivid to understand.

In brief, concepts related to human, ranking in the highest level of the unconscious great chain in our mind, are preferentially selected as the source domain to explore concepts of the lower order which are relatively complex and abstract.

B. Human’s Body Experience as Cognitive Basis

In the case of the metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs, people’s experiences of their own body play a vital role. It is always the case that people understand and experience the outside world based on experiences of their own body, since human cognition, at the very outset, starts from experiences of their own body and the spatial orientation. Based on these, our cognition develops from near to far, from concrete to abstract, from the body and the spatial orientation to other semantic domains (Wang, 2005). Man knows himself first, thus forms an understanding of his own and gains experiences of his own body, by which he explores and understands the outside world. As Protagoras, a well-known Greek Philosopher has pointed out, “man is the measure of all things”.

Referring to the example discussed in the previous part, “sales jumped by 60 % last year”, in which the dramatic increase of sales is metaphorically connected with people’s body action of moving quickly off the ground. Perceiving their own body experience first, people employ the verb “jump” to describe this kind of action. Then, as their cognitive domain expands to business activities, there is a need to refer to concepts, activities, events, etc. in this domain. To be more specific, in this example, there is a need to refer to the rapid increase of sales. And the rapid increase of sales is quite like people’s action of jumping off the ground quickly. With such a cognitive basis from our own body, “jump” is therefore metaphorically applied to depict this event. Likewise, as the promotion in one’s social rank shares a similarity to human’s body experience of moving up towards the top of a mountain or a tree, “climb” is metaphorically used to describe the improvement of one’s social status.

Lakoff and Johnson (1980, p. 25) mentioned that, “our experience with physical objects (especially our own bodies)

provides the basis for an extraordinarily wide variety of ontological metaphors". This is also consistent with "the embodiment of mind" held by the embodied philosophy. In conclusion, human's experiences with their own body serve as vital cognitive basis for the metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs.

C. Human Body Metaphor as Cognitive Approach

As revealed by the metaphorical nature of thought, human thought and language are metaphorical. Human body metaphor, embodied by the metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs in this case, is of great significance to human cognition. Metaphor, as an indispensable cognitive approach in human life, is one of the fundamental ways people understand the world and is primary in human thought. Human naturally forms subjective judgments and experiences about abstract things and concepts such as importance and desire. Since these subjective judgments and experiences are wide-ranging and quite rich, it is inevitable that we understand them through cross-domain conceptual mapping. That is, we conceptualize them or reason about them by experiences of other domains, mainly sensorimotor domains (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999, p. 50). As in the example given above, "an awful thought has just struck me", our subjective experience of having an awful idea is conceptualized in terms of the sensorimotor experience of being struck by an object. And in the example "I caught a look of surprise on her face", our subjective experience of noticing one's emotional feeling is conceptualized in terms of the sensorimotor experience of catching a physical entity.

Our subjective experiences and judgments, like "one's self-esteem" or "a shiver" are relatively complex, abstract and unfamiliar to us. Using experience of our own body to conceptualize and reason about them makes them easier to understand. Human body metaphors of such kind are pervasive in English language, and serves as important cognitive approach to those abstract subjective experiences. If not interpreted metaphorically, concepts of subjective experiences and judgments will be senseless and "impoverished" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999, p. 61). It can be said that human body metaphor justifies the existence of the metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs.

To sum up, the conventionalized metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs indicates that human body metaphor is a vital cognitive approach to our subjective experiences and judgments. This is also in line with the metaphorical nature of thought principle. Based on the above analysis, it can be concluded that the metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs arises from our embodied experience. Due to the limitations of human cognition, we experience and understand one cognitive domain in terms of another. Concepts related to human, as the most familiar concepts to us and topping the unconscious "Great Chain of Beings" in human mind, are preferred to be the source domain in such cross-domain conceptual mapping. It is based on human's experience with their own body that human body metaphor becomes a possible cognitive approach to abstract and complex concepts of subjective experiences and judgments. The metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs does not directly result from the external reality. Instead, it comes from the embodied experience of the mind.

VI. CONCLUSION

Metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs, mostly conventionalized, can reflect the essence of human cognition. This paper analyzed the cognitive motivation of predicative metaphor of three types of English body-action verbs. It was revealed that concepts related to human body, in most cases, are chosen preferentially as the source domain for cross-domain conceptual mapping. Based on human's experience with their own body and with a pervasive cognitive approach of human body metaphor in human mind, English body-action verbs are metaphorically applied to other abstract conceptual domains. The metaphorical usage of English body-action verbs comes from the embodied experience. In a broader sense, this research means a further step to explore predicative metaphor.

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Surmounting Stereotyping of International Students

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Abstract—This study attempted to investigate the experiences of international students towards stereotyping inside and outside of the campus. The purpose of this study was to explore the students' experiences on stereotyping and employed qualitative method as the mode of inquiry. Semi-structured interview was conducted with five postgraduates' students in one of the public universities in Malaysia. The respondents came from different countries and majors of studies. Finding from the study found that international students did experience stereotyping, but this encounter seemed not to affect their studies. Finally, future researchers are encouraged to adapt this study within a larger group of respondents to examine its confirmability and credibility. A careful exploration of stereotype in the areas of intercultural and cross-cultural communication among international students may provide more insights into their wellbeing in countries away from home.

Index Terms—stereotyping, higher education, international students, intercultural communication, multicultural communities

I. INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

The higher education, private or public universities and colleges are not only attracting secondary-school leavers to pursue their studies, but also working and mature individuals. With globalization, Malaysia has become an international education hub for students to pursue their higher education. With a total of more than 80,688 graduates in this university coming from more than 125 countries worldwide (Office of International Affairs, IIUM, 2020), the cross-cultural and intercultural communication are inevitable. It cannot be denied that international students face problems in adapting to a new environment, despite many efforts made to make them feel welcomed. Two of the most challenging problems are among others communication and miss-communication, which potentially lead to discrimination, bias, prejudice and stereotyping. The role of intercultural communication thus is pertinent in this concept. Intercultural communication can be defined as a communication of different cultures between individuals (Chen & Starosta, 1998). It could be in the forms of different races or ethnicities, socioeconomic status etc. Intercultural communication, in fact, offers chances and insight into exploring people's relationships in socially and culturally diverse societies. The higher education (HE) is expected to provide a social environment for society with harmonization albeit cultural diversity. Effective education for cultural diversity is largely dependent upon successful classroom practices, and most important of all, on effective communication between teachers, students and the community (www.docplayer.hu, 2011). HE should look for situations in that they can promote counter-stereotypical images of underrepresented groups and avoid biasness. This is important for staff and students of those institutions. If people in communities are always presented with an image of certain groups of people in certain roles, then the association becomes automatic and influences our view of that group of people and that role (Natalia, 2011). For instance, many literatures mentioned the association of black people with crimes and being uneducated or Chinese students with the mathematical ingenuity. HE needs to prepare staff and local students to acknowledge that while international students come from diverse backgrounds and cultures and may be very different in demographic and educational characteristics, they are sufficiently different from the locals to be treated as a separate entity (www.repository.um.edu.my)

Quite a handful of researchers carried out studies on international students' experiences on stereotyping in other parts of the world especially in European countries. A study conducted in Malaysia regarding international students and stereotyping and biasness was conducted by Pandian (2008) on Middle Eastern Students' Perceptions and Experiences in a Malaysian University. Since 2008, very few studies are found on this particular topic, thus there is a need to do a more extensive study on students' experiences on stereotyping and biasness in a multicultural Malaysia. It has been reported that local students are not aware of them being bias or practicing stereotyping. This is due to lack of cultural awareness and knowledge about others' cultures. As stated by Idrus (2021), Cultural Intelligence (CQ) should be inculcated and learned at a very early age for everyone especially in multicultural societies. Cultural intelligence can be understood as the capability to relate and work effectively across different cultures. Idrus further clarified that Cultural Intelligence is an individual's ability to wanting to know the cultures of others. This drive comes from the awareness

and knowledge about that 'others' and that the individual is willing to go beyond their daily norms. This is to avoid miscommunication and potential problems. Problems occurred are typically related to cultural adaption or are not able to being culturally responsive and not equipped with enough knowledge and exposure of cultural diversity. Thus, this ineptitude might affect students' academic performance and influence the growth and development of graduate students. Only certain situations have been revealed to involve discrimination, prejudice, tolerance, and stereotypes, but these encounters are rare and not rampant (Pandian, 2008). Therefore, the purpose of this current study was focused on investigating IIUM postgraduate international students' experiences in perceiving 'stereotyping' and to examine the ways they overcome being stereotyped. It is imperative to understand the problems faced by international students that are related to stereotyping in light of the notion and theories of inter-cultural communication.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Internationalization through Education*

During the Balkan War in 1990, there was a major movement of refugees and international migrants. One of the aftermaths of the migration was that it has changed people's perceptions of the cultures of others in many different ways (cited in Bhugra, 2005). In terms of education, as claimed by Line Verbik and Lasanowski (2007) the pattern of migrations for the sake of education has changed significantly after the incident of September 11. In the Asia continent, there were positive changes in the government's education policies, thus it has led international students to choose Asia as one of the potential destinations to study, including Malaysia (Zeeshan, 2013). It can be seen in Malaysia the enrollment of international students had increased from 30,397 in 2003, to 100,000 students in 2010. The 2018's statistics reported the number of international students was 130,245 (Ministry of Higher Education, 2018).

The Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia has made a recent move to transform the landscape of tertiary education where one main thrust aims at intensifying internationalization and ensuring a 10%–30% enrolment of international students (www.web.usm.my, 2008). This phenomenon is inextricably linked to rapid racial and ethnic diversification of its student body. Malaysia faces challenges in creating a new multi-channelled learning environment where international and local students study, connect and work with one another across classrooms, community and country borders in many exciting ways (www.csis.prod.s3.amazonaws.com, 2018).

The existence of multiracial community has created a chance for intercultural and cross-cultural communication to happen. While cross-cultural deals with the comparison of different cultures, intercultural describes communities in which there is a deep understanding and respect for all cultures. In cross-cultural communication, differences are understood and acknowledged, and can bring about individual change, but not collective transformations. In cross-cultural societies, one culture is often considered "the norm" and all other cultures are compared or contrasted to the dominant culture (www.zenaconsulting.com, 2020). The interaction is not easy to be built because it has found as potentially challenging due to the cultural and education background among international and local students (Bartlett, 2002). Hence, students feel more comfortable forming friendship and interacting with other students who have the same backgrounds. This in the end will lead to differences in daily social activities and lack of interaction among those two groups. The interaction between local and international students is found as one of the central issues that is increasing in internationalizing teaching and learning strategies in universities, even though internationalizing content was considered as easy to be addressed. Lack of exposure or interaction with international students or people with different cultures might lead students to create a certain stereotype because they only mainly depend on their prior knowledge of a particular group of people.

B. *Intercultural Communication in Higher Education*

Intracultural communication is a meaningful exchange between members of the same social group or of groups with similar cultural properties (Hashem, 2017). Such groups may be distinguishable from the mainstream society on the basis of race, ethnicity, tradition, values, religious faith, economic level, gender, age, or other traits and abilities (www.onlinelibrary.wiley.com, 2013). Culture and communication are closely related. The more people share in common, the easier their connections. Samovar (1998) defined intercultural communication as 'communication between people whose cultural perceptions and symbol systems are distinct enough to alter the communication event' (p. 48), while Chen and Starosta (1998) characterized intercultural communication as 'the communication between people from two different cultures' (p. 28). Based on these definitions, it can be inferred that cross-cultural communication occurs when both parties have distinct differences and these differences affect the process of communication (cited in Lindner, 2013). The aims of intercultural communication include decreasing misunderstanding (Chen and Starosta, 1998), tolerating cultural diversity (Gudykunst and Kim, 1984), expanding Cultural Intelligence knowledge (Idrus, 2021) and developing adaptive culture (Dodd, 1991).

Based on Pandian (www.usm.web.my, 2008) many areas of intercultural activities have been linked as part of graduate school's work and the exploration is still needed since the number of international students is multiplied in numbers. There are many vital reasons for international students to pursue their studies oversea and leave their countries. Some might feel the need to obtain quality higher education to equip themselves with employable international skills, to establish multicultural relationships with domestic students and to acquire skills that are vital for their country's

economy in the age of globalization and knowledge-based economies (Pandian, 2008). The enrolment of international students in university has benefited the economies of students' countries of origin, the host country's economy and students themselves, be it international or local students (Pandian, 2008). This combination of international and local students heightened the stature of educational institutions which provides a rich diversity academically, and socially, thus leading to the construction of multitudes of multicultural learning environment.

C. Higher Education Institutions in Malaysia

It is the Ministry of Education's aspiration to explore challenges as well as opportunities in dealing with the increasing numbers of students from various countries and cultures all over the world (<https://www.moe.gov.my>, 2013). International students provide the best platform for cross-cultural and intercultural learning and communication. However, it is undeniable that the students themselves may also face many challenges and barriers that might interrupt their learning experiences. Due to their differences in cultural-education background, international students pursuing their studies in foreign countries found that interacting with local students and university staff as potentially challenging (Bartlett, 2002).

TABLE 1
NUMBERS OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS IN MALAYSIA

Countries	2017	2018	2019
Bangladesh	30,829	34,455	30,525
China	12,947	11,718	14,854
Nigeria	10,775	15,262	13,529
Indonesia	8,956	8,653	9,762
Yemen	5,294	5,942	6,248
Pakistan	4,507	5,292	6,033
Libya	3,130	3,246	3,317
Iraq	3,292	3,264	3,257
Sudan	2,744	3,002	3,104
Iran	5,204	4,055	3,068
Other	32,720	35,388	40,163
Total	91,149	130,277	133,860

Source: Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) Malaysia (2019)

Data in Table 1 above includes all Public Universities and Private HEIs in Peninsular Malaysia only. Previous studies have investigated the challenges faced by international students in their adjustments to host countries. Pandian (2008) revealed that the main challenges encountered by Middle Eastern students were that they possessed the desire to have an improved quality and greater contact with local students, establish stronger bonds of friendships with their local friends and sought greater exposure in terms of the various kinds of social support networks (www.usm.web.my, 2008). The research also found that discrimination, prejudice, tolerance and stereotyping did happen, but these encounters were infrequent and not rampant.

D. Integrated Threat Theory (ITT)

According to Hogg (2013) Inter-group relations refers to the way in which people who belong to social groups or categories perceive, think about, feel about, and act towards and interact with people in other groups (<https://psycnet.apa.org>, 2013). Integrated Threat Theory suggests that an intergroup threat is experienced when members of one group perceive that another group is in a position to cause them harm (Stephan, 2000). The Integrated Threat Theory has examined these four threats which are realistic threats, symbolic threats, intergroup anxiety and negative stereotyping (Stephan, 2002).

Realistic threats are threats to the welfare of the in-group. According to an article from (www.digitalcommons.kennesaw.edu) it includes in-group's political or economic power, or physical well-being. Symbolic threats are threats to the in-group's value system, belief system or worldview (<https://oscarybarra.psych.lsa.umich.edu>, 2016). While negative stereotypes arise from negative stereotypes the in-group has about the out-group; and intergroup anxiety refers to anxiety the in-group experiences in the process of interaction with members of the out-group, especially when both groups have had a history of antagonism (Croucher, 2017). ITT is used as the framework for this current theory to understand how and why international students react to stereotyping based on the four (4) components of the ITT presented in the figure below.

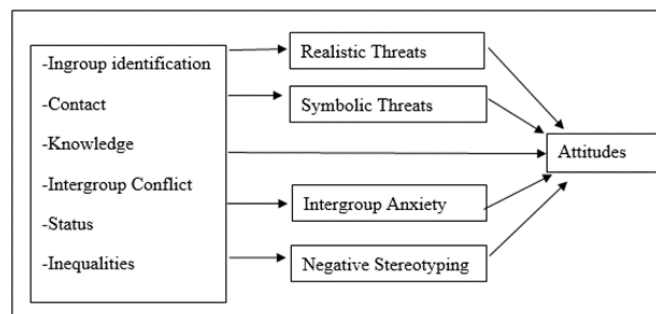


Figure 2.1 Original Threat Model

According to Integrated Threat Theory, the four components named realistic threats, symbolic threat, intergroup anxiety and negative stereotyping will cause danger to the in-group. A study conducted by Fritz (2008) examined the cultural adjustment process required of students who were studying abroad. This study examined the acculturation process of students living abroad and the effects of learning a new language, being separated from family and friends, and managing financial problems. The researchers looked at how Integrated Threat Theory addresses the issue of intergroup anxiety, where a student living abroad may experience feelings of being part of the “out” group. Based on the study’s findings, the researchers were able to recommend specific program that would help foreign students adjust better to a new culture (www.wikispace.psu.edu, 2017). More importantly, the study found that cultural sensitivity is the most important part of a successful program. A program designed to help Europeans adjust to studying in the U.S. would not be as helpful for a program designed for Asian students for example. Therefore, instead of grouping all foreign students together in a program to help them adjust, programs should be designed for specific cultural groups to help them adjust to their new environment (cited in Tinsley, 2017).

This study analyzes the attitudes of the respondents and possible causes of their behaviors based on the four components of Integrated Threat Theory, namely Realistic Threats, Symbolic Threats, Intergroup Anxiety and Negative Stereotyping. The reasons behind their perceptions are also investigated to relate them with their past experiences that might be related to the six elements mentioned in the theory.

E. Stereotyping among Students in Education Institutions

According to (Shirase, 2017), stereotype in education institution will lead to academic stress, satisfaction and commitment, self-efficacy and an individual’s mental state. Stereotype affected students’ identity development and their academic success. A study by Okagaki (2009) examined American Indian and European American students, hypothesized that one of the ways to counter negative stereotypes by students who experienced discrimination is through education. Negative stereotype will not only affect performance (Beilock, Rydell & McConell, 2007) but also student’s attitude and mindset (Rydell et al.). Other than that, continuous negative stereotype will develop social-psychological anxiety among students and it will lead to the decreasing of academic performance. Students’ anxiety on learning and study strategies will also be affected by their attitudes, motivations and beliefs (Yeboah and Smith, 2016). A research conducted in Higher Education and Student Affairs Graduate Preparation Programs by Harris & Patton in 2018 found that racial stereotypes occurred at the intersections of students’ multiple identities and that negative stereotype will reduce students’ self-esteem and increase their academic threats.

III. METHODOLOGY

The study focused on stereotyping experience faced by international students. Qualitative research design seemed to be the most suitable design to meet the purpose of this investigation. A case study is used to pursue in-depth information around the topic. Five international postgraduate students were chosen to participate in semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interview is selected because it best served to answer the main questions and purpose of the study. The study was conducted at the International Islamic University Malaysia (IIUM), Gombak, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. The participants of the study comprised of postgraduate students from different faculties, such as Education, Engineering, Human Science, and ICT. A purposive sampling procedure was used for selecting the participants. Purposive sampling is categorized as a non-probability sample where the respondents were selected based on the specific characteristics of a population and the study objectives. This technique was employed to ensure a fairly equal representation of the variables for the study (<https://courses.lumenlearning.com>, 2018). The researchers selected the sample based on age, which was between 25 to 40 years old, different genders, different nationalities and most importantly existing postgraduate students. The interview questions were piloted to ensure they were sound and served the actual purpose of the study. Certain terms and arrangements, questions leading to the same answers had been modified. Piloting is important since it can help identify if there are flaws, or limitations within the interview design that

allow necessary modifications to the major study (Kvale, 2007). The interview questions (see Appendix A) were aimed at eliciting relevant information concerning stereotype and experiences faced by the respondents. The interview questions were divided into three sections: A, B, C.

- i. Section A – Demographic information of the respondents.
- ii. Section B - Focused on the elements and tendencies of stereotypes.
- iii. Section C - Questions regarding the problem/challenges, and ways of overcoming those challenges by the respondents.

The interview session was recorded, transcribed, coded and rearranged in order to gather mutual information in the same category. To establish credibility, the researchers used the member-checking technique to establish agreement on the data gathered. Researchers use this technique in their qualitative research to establish credibility. With this technique, the data, interpretations and conclusions are shared with the respondents in which it allows the respondents to clarify what their intentions were, correct errors, and provide additional information if necessary (Kabir, 2016). During the interviews, the researchers remained neutral in every possible way to avoid being biased towards the topic discussed. The degree of neutrality in this research should be observed to produce valid findings. The researchers also probed moderately while conducting the interviews. This is to maintain objectivity of respondent's responses without getting distracted by researcher's potential bias to fit the narrative. The summary of the respondents' details is listed in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2
BIOGRAPHY OF RESPONDENTS

Respondent	Nationality	Age	Gender	Course	First Language
A	Somalian	33	Female	Master of Human Science	Somali and Arabic
B	Syrian	25	Male	Master of Education	Arabic
C	Pakistani	26	Male	Master of Engineering	Urdu
D	Sudanese	36	Female	PhD in ICT	Arabic
E	Thailand	25	Female	Master of Education	Thai

IV. ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Through rigorous coding and analyses, several themes were derived. The arguments are discussed in light of the framework used, respondents' experiences and extracts from the interviews and also support from the literature discussed at the outset.

A. Positive Stereotype towards Other Races

All respondents in this study agreed that Malaysia promotes a peaceful culture albeit her multicultural nature. Indeed, Malaysia is a melting pot of diverse cultures. Although both positive and negative stereotypes required people to generalize a group of people, but positive stereotype does not lead or rooted to prejudice due to the positive expression used and it indicate a positive view of a social identity.

A research done by Czopp and his colleagues in 2015 found that positive stereotype can have some positive effects such as helping to boost group's self-esteem and keep them to maintain their favorable impression of others. However, when it comes to interpersonal and group interaction, the effects are predominantly negative (cited in Marco, 2019). The target group of positive stereotypes might feel depersonalized since they need to behave according to a certain expectation. They experienced more anger, annoyance and deal with negative emotions when being associated with certain stigma, even though it is a positive stereotype (Miller, Smith, & Mackie, 2006).

One of the respondents kept on praising locals throughout the interview by saying all Malays are polite, good in completing their tasks and always respect others.

Respondent B:

"Yes! I adore Malay people.... Actually, it's like, you know, Malay are all cute and polite..." (B:486)

Respondent C:

"They are very friendly. I also found that Malaysian are very helpful. My supervisor is a Malaysian. He's very friendly and very good. As I heard he is good with other students, he is also good towards me. My lab assistant is a Malaysian sister and she gave me full access as she did to the locals. No problem." – (C:574)

Many researches had different take on Malay culture and politeness strategies. According to Tham (1990), "language is not merely communicative but cognitive as well. Language plays the surrogate for culture, maintaining and reinforcing cognitive patterns and preferences" (Tham 1990, p. 24). Malay and politeness, or to be exact the value of "kesantunan" (virtue) has been embedded in the culture since the dawn of history. It is suggested that the value of the

Malay culture will affect the way they look at the world around them, thus this orientation is reflected in their politeness strategies.

A research done by Munir, Razif and Sarjit (2010) on politeness of Malaysian undergraduate in a local university found that more than half of the samples ranked politeness as very important. The majority of the respondents claimed that they were always polite when communicating with their dean, lecturers, office clerks and strangers. However, it is interesting to note that they also agreed that there was no need to be polite when communicating among friends (<http://eprints.usm.my>, 2010)

B. Negative Stereotype towards Other Races

Two respondents did have negative stereotype towards other races. However, it is notable that those stereotypes they held towards other races did not affect their own academic performances. One of the respondents even admitted that he was swayed by a negative stereotype towards his own race, which is Arab. On the other hand, respondent A, did mention that the negative stereotype that she had towards African mostly were influenced by media and she never experienced any problem with African so far. She even established contact with them.

Respondent A:

"Okay I don't know about other races, but I think African... We have this idea that African are all criminals, they are bad people, we have to avoid them, we are scared of them." – (A:86)

"I don't know, but my friend showed me an article from a Malaysian's newspaper talking about African. I don't remember exactly but it was something really... really bad. It was all the stereotypes written about the typical African with criminal, bad people. We were shock." – (A:98)

She even added that her friend, who is an African used to be harassed verbally when she was walking around KLCC.

"A friend of mine told me she was walking around the KLCC and some locals shouted, "go back to your country!" so I think that's absurd." – (A:62)

Stereotyping towards African or black people is not a new issue. Many research reports stated that racial stereotype towards African students at Higher Education Institutions was still high. Chavous et. al (2003) investigated the relationships among stereotype, expectations, gender, and academic self-concept and performance of African American students and found negative stereotype affected students' academic outcomes. The same result was found in a research conducted by Nicole (2013) entitled "Our biggest challenge is stereotypes: Understanding Stereotype Threat and the Academic Experiences of African American Undergraduates." This research also revealed that stereotype threat acted as the biggest barriers to their academic success.

While respondent A was only focusing on stereotype towards African, respondent B mentioned about his perception towards Bangladeshis based on his personal experience.

Respondent B:

"...but people from Bangladesh are harsh. They don't have that kind of courtesy. Maybe its normal, their culture but they are very harsh. The way they speak, the way they shake their hands, every time I faced people from Bangladesh, I have problem. The first thing first, they are harsh." – (B:373)

One of the many stereotypes associated with Bangladeshis is gender stereotype where women are being put in less-prestigious rank compared to men. A study carried out by M. Niaz Asadullah, Kazi Md Mukitul Islam & Zaki Wahhaj (2018) on gender stereotype, mentioned:

We examined recent editions of grade 9 English language textbooks. Our analysis confirms a pro-male bias in textbooks. The overall proportion of female to male characters was balanced in Malaysia and Indonesia (44%) but not in Pakistan (24%) or Bangladesh (37%). (<https://journals.plos.org>, 2018)

It is possible for others who are not familiar to Bangladeshis communication style to perceive it as hasty because of the content of their speech. Other than that, in terms of greeting, men may shake hands if they are of equal status. This handshake tends to be held quite softly and respect is expressed after a handshake by placing one's right hand over one's heart (<https://culturalatlas.sbs.com.au>, 2016). This clarification of Bangladeshi culture contradicts with the experience faced by the respondent reported in this study.

Considering as part of the society, individual typically would not condemn their culture and people excessively. However, respondent B admitted that even though he is an Arab, he confessed that he hated Arabs' behavior. He specified a few negative characteristics that bothered him as a citizen of his country.

Respondent B:

"Even though I'm Arab, I hate Arab people...I will avoid Arab people and go to Malay." – (B:407)

He added, "Most of the time they are furious, blood boiling [angry], love to fight. Rarely you can find them gentle, they cannot adapt to other cultures, so they misbehave towards others. For me as an Arab, I criticize these people. A lot of people are stubborn, actually. They can't change their behavior." – (B:83)

Research entitled "Arab Postgraduate Students in Malaysia: Identifying and Overcoming the Cultural and Language Barriers" by Al-Zubaidi in 2010 stated that the numbers of Middle Eastern students who migrated to Malaysia to further their studies have increased since the event of 9/11 in 2011. They need to be given the opportunity to understand others' culture, enhance their language skill, adapt with new academic system and possess a contextual awareness of a new community. Thus, due to this significant escalation of numbers, there is a possibility that these Arab students' behavior became more apparent as compared to other nationalities especially when they started to misbehave.

Based on the Integrated Threat Theory, negative stereotyping happened because of intergroup conflicts. The differences of backgrounds and the feeling of being superior to the others contributed to even more strife within the community. Respondent B perceived the other Middle Easterners as 'stubborn', which might be different from the way he behaves.

C. Cultural Identity as the Main Reason for Friendship Building

Three respondents shared their common experiences, where their friendships in IIUM mostly started between people from the same nationality.

Respondent A:

"First... when I came here, I only make friends with my country mates and then later on with international students." (A:07).

Respondent B:

"I make friends with Arab at the first place, but as the time passed by, I became more comfortable to be with Malays." – (B:474)

Respondent C:

"When I first came here, all my Pakistani friends helped me a lot. So, in[during the] initial day, all my Pakistani friends were here and because of the Pakistani society, they recognized me and I got them here and they helped me a lot." – (C:513)

Peer relationship and intimate friendships between Arab mentioned that more communal societies social relationships are important but intimate and exclusive dyadic friendship among peers may be lower. A research entitled "Cultural Identity and the Challenges International Students Encounter" by Zeynab Jibreel (2015) found that international students who were living in United States struggled in the process of adapting to new culture, acquiring new language and understanding a different culture and they face countless difficulties. Thus, international students would be more than grateful if they managed to find someone who shared the same social and cultural identity as them. It is also worth noting from the same research, students started to experience cultural and identity transformation after spending sometime in the host country. International students must adjust to losing their identities (Tseng and Newton, 2002) and to learn a foreign language (Sherry, Thomas, & Chui, 2010).

It could be said that when international students first came to study abroad, they would be more comfortable to establish contacts only among students from the same nationality but as they are exposed to the other culture and started to mingle around, they tend to be open-minded and eventually build friendship with students from different countries, including locals.

D. Friendship between International and Local Students

Throughout the interview, all respondents shared a lot of experiences with their Malay friends. Based on their stories, it could be deduced that international students built positive friendships with locals, and the respondents even have had interpersonal relationships with the Malays. Interpersonal relationship in this context refers to a strong and close bonding of friendship. However, one the respondents did mention about loneliness.

Respondent A:

"Most of international students in that course they feel lonely. Because locals they like you know, go with each other, they don't mix with the international." – (A:79)

This statement is supported by a few researches in that they mentioned that one of the challenges international students need to face is isolation. In many aspects, international students will experience isolation and loneliness when they are studying abroad. Research conducted by Russel et. al (2010) found that over 41% of international students experienced substantial levels of stress among 900 international students in Australia.

Respondent A also added that she is considered lucky to be part of the communication faculty students. While most of her international friends moaned about the feeling of loneliness due to lack of friends or companies, she had to deal with the same problem. She even expressed her preference in completing assignments with locals instead of international students because according to her, locals are more organized and punctual.

Respondent A:

"People in communication, I think they are more outgoing and more accepting towards different ideas and cultures. It was easier to mix with locals in Faculty of Human Science." – (A:108).

"I think I like doing assignment with them because they are very organized, yeah, and I can learn a lot of things by doing assignment with local students. They are very organized even in their writing. Yes, very organize." – (A:154)

Respondent C:

"Locals help me when I have extra courses when I was in my undergraduate level because I switched from mechatronics to automotive, so one course is very difficult so local helped me." – (C: 605)

The same idea was expressed by the second respondent where he stated he would rank Malay as his utmost preference in terms of completing his assignment.

Respondent B:

"Next time I promise myself I only want to choose Malay mates in my group." – (B:462)

This finding contradicts with the research conducted by Mehar Singh (2012) where he examined 63 undergraduate international students from USM and it revealed that international students often have more friends from their home countries and other countries and not the host country. The findings also showed that aspects of interaction and socialization between international and local students are low. Similar result was also found in a research conducted by Eves (2005) where the findings stated that international students spent significantly less time interacting with local students and local students spent more time interacting with their in-group (local students) than with their out-group (international students).

Two respondents built a strong relationship with Malays even outside of their classroom. One respondent shared her experience living with a local for three weeks because of their project and she was also invited to the Malay wedding ceremony. The respondents were also invited to their friends' house during Hari Raya festival.

Respondent A:

"She even invited me during Eid, even when I was about to go back, she cooked something for me. Like that. She is so so nice! Amazing!" – (A:188)

Respondent B:

"Yes, I was invited and insyaAllah in future I want to invite him to Syria. I want to take him to the beach and Aleppo city. Mutual friendship. I feel very humble to be invited." – (B:505)

Respondent D:

"When I first came here, I decided not to be together with people from my country. I want to be with Malaysian. As you know, I want to make more friends and learn Malay language." – (D:196)

In sum, it can be said that international students will take time to 'warm-up' toward the local students. However, once that are acquainted and connected, they will never forget those experiences.

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the data obtained, two out of five international postgraduate students experienced stereotyping. International students have their own stereotype towards other races too, including Malays, be it positive or negative stereotypes. However, the most notable stereotype examined is negative stereotype towards African students where this group of people are usually associated with crime, unethical behavior and bad attitudes. Some international students even admitted that negative stereotypes were given to their own race, such as Arabs being hot-tempered people and good fighter are true. To answer the question regarding international students' experience towards stereotype, this study revealed that they do experience stereotype and it affected their decisions making and emotional wellbeing.

It is suggested that future researchers to replicate similar research in various universities in Malaysia especially in remote areas. In-depth investigations of intercultural area such as biasness, stereotyping, discrimination, prejudice are greatly needed currently especially long-term effects of these problems towards international students. It is also suggested to adapt this study to a larger group of respondents to examine its reliability and validity. A careful exploration of stereotype in these areas may provide more insights into how the intercultural and cross-cultural play a vital role in higher education.

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On Embodiment of Predicative Metaphor: A Case of English Body-action Verbs <i>Mingjie Huo and Jiaxuan Chen</i>	1114
Surmounting Stereotyping of International Students <i>Aini Syahira Jamaluddin and Faizah Idrus</i>	1121
