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Multimodal Narrative Practices in Adult ESL: Negotiating Linguicism and Developing Language

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***Abstract*—Multimodal pedagogies and narrative practices in the language classroom have been found effective in facilitating adult English language learning and the development of learners' identity (Crandall, 2018). Further, racism and linguicism are aspects of adult learners' lives that affect learners' learning trajectories (Corona & Block, 2020). Few studies, however, examined how multimodal narrative practices in the classroom can allow adult language learners space to negotiate linguicism and become legitimate members of the target community. This study investigated the role of narrative practices in negotiating linguicism and developing language. The study was conducted in a beginning intermediate ESL class in the Mid-south, USA. The class comprised five immigrant women participating in a multimodal narrative-based language teaching approach designed by the instructor. The learners each wrote ten multimodal narratives in a shared Google Docs over the period of 10 weeks about their English-speaking experiences and retold those narratives in the classroom. The findings showed that multimodal narrative practices not only facilitated language development but also helped learners negotiate racism and shape identity.**

***Index Terms*—multimodal narratives, racism and linguicism, language learning, and investment**

I. Introduction

In discussing classroom pedagogies, multimodal pedagogy and narrative practices in the language classroom were found to be fruitful in fostering ESL learning and exploring learners' identity and agency (Crandall, 2018). Learners may not fully invest in the language practice (Norton, 2015) since the practice might "position them as inadequate, incapable, or unworthy" (Darvin, 2019, p. 245) and the investment in a target language is "contingent on the negotiation of power" (Darvin & Norton, 2015, p.37). Learners invest in language learning with the understanding of acquiring symbolic (language and friendship) and material resources (job and money) (Norton, 2015). Moreover, learners often experience racial microaggression (Corona & Block, 2020) and linguistic racism (Dovchin, 2019) both inside and outside of the classroom because of their color, race, and the way they use language. Multimodal narrative practices in the adult language classroom; however, have received relatively little attention to identify its implication in negotiating linguicism that learners face in the dominant community. The current study focuses on multimodal narratives in which adult immigrant women talked about their everyday experiences of using English that included social inequity and linguicism. Furthermore, facing linguicism impact the learners' investment in language learning which is different from the learners' motivation to learn or practice language.

Investment refers to the learners' commitment to the goal and willingness or desire to learn the language and engage themselves in the language learning process (Norton, 2013). The extent to which learners invest in language learning depends on the negotiations of power between interlocutors (Darvin, 2020). The existing dynamic of social power might affect the learners' access to the dominant community and the situation under which learners speak. A person who is in the position of power serves as a gatekeeper of a context; therefore, the person who is not in the power of position must negotiate the imposed linguistic norms given by the host nationals. Immigrant learners tend to endure cognitive pressure during speaking in English both in institutional and noninstitutional settings as they frequently face implicit and explicit linguicism (Dovchin, 2019). Now the question is how immigrant language learners can become aware of the existing racism and feel confident in negotiating linguicism. It is the responsibility of the educators to help immigrant learners become aware of the existing social discrimination and help them negotiate linguicism to become legitimate members of the community. Very little studies have focused on adult language classrooms that can work as a platform with the aim of helping learners understand linguicism and how to negotiate social inequity.

I will frame the paper within a discussion of linguicism which refers to ideologies or actions that violate human rights based on the way people use language (Dovchin, 2019). Linguicism is something which is experienced by many speakers of different identities for varied reasons that are often related to social power structures. For example, race, gender, ethnicity, social class gap, and the way people use language are the main reasons for facing linguicism. In explaining linguicism, scholar Dovchin (2020) added two new dimensions- 'ethnic accent bullying' and 'linguistic stereotyping'. Ethnic accent bullying can be defined as making fun of one's usage of language or accents, while linguistic stereotyping can be classified as people expected to have less proficiency in English and not to speak well

because of how they racially and ethnically look. Additionally, language learners often face preconceived notions about their language proficiency, which further clarifies that language is not judged in separation from the speakers. Moreover, the existing English language ideology places native speakers of English in a position of power. On the contrary, English language learners have lacked this power. Thus, one of the jobs for teachers in the language classroom is to equip students to negotiate linguicism as they are building language skills for the real world. It is classroom responsibilities to create students' democratic spirit that will allow learners to discuss texts or real-life situations in relation to racial equalities, identities, forms of justice and injustice, bias and oppression, and human rights. This type of classroom practice can help learners use their voice and agency to make a positive difference in the world. Keeping that in mind, this study looks at ways in which multimodal narratives can be used to promote discussion in the classroom, develop language, build identity, and challenge linguicism. This study has developed the following research questions to identify the role of multimodal narrative practices in adult ESL classrooms in developing language, identifying identities, and negotiating linguicism.

1. How can multimodal narrative practice help adult language learners develop language through investment?
2. How can multimodal narrative practice help immigrant adult language learners negotiate difficult experiences outside the classroom?

II. Multimodality and Narrative in Language Classroom

Recently, multimodality gained prominence and attention by language classrooms and educators. The language classroom went beyond the boundary of using communicative language teaching methods (CLT) which failed to prepare l2 learners for the complex world as the method allowed learners to acquire only a limited number of words and grammatical forms (Zapata & Ribota, 2021) and failed to provide space for critical thinking. Multimodal pedagogy and narrative practices have been widely used in the language classroom since they helped reveal learners' lived experiences and identify learners' fluid identities. Prior studies noticed that storytelling in a digital tool can enhance learners' motivation to use the language both inside and outside the classroom (Reinders, 2011). Most studies on classroom pedagogies found that web-based language teaching, digital storytelling, and multimodal literacy foster language learning and help immigrant learners construct identities (Zakaria et al., 2016). They found that 'story bird' worked as a pedagogical tool in teaching language and had a positive impact on language learning as it helped learners produce narrative texts. By implementing a narrative approach in the classroom, teachers can understand who their learners are, what their relationship is with the world (Burner, 1990). Moreover, Bamberg and Georgeakopoulou (2008) suggest that analyzing short narratives that include everyday conversation helps identify the identity of the narrators and how participants navigate their contradictory identities. Wortham (2006) found that analyzing short narratives about interactions not only helped understand the events of the narrative but also helped identify what narrators did during the interaction. Additionally, Crandall's (2018) study suggested that teachers would find more positive results if they implemented life-based writing instead of merely preparing learners for the exam.

Multimodality, which was originally introduced by the New London Group (1996), is a communication practice that includes textual, aural, linguistics, spatial, and visual modes to convey a message. Scholars such as Somerville & D'warte (2014) have noticed learners felt enthusiastic when they used multiple modes for sharing their everyday experiences of using the English language. Miller et al. (2017) conducted a study on English language learners to see whether participating in the multimodal and dual-language identity text intervention fosters the length of discourse and lexical variations when they tell stories. The result showed that participants' vocabulary skill improved in terms of numbers and variations. In addition to that Veum et al. (2021) also noticed that immigrant learners constructed spatial identity, relational identity, and functional identity by using linguistic and visual resources. Most studies emphasized pedagogical approaches for exploring learners' complex shifting identities. Learners' identities are shaped by their investment in the target community which is a site of struggle since they wrestle with existing social inequity. Very few studies have not examined multimodal narrative practices that would allow adult language learners space to negotiate linguicism.

III. Linguicism and Racism

Linguicism refers to beliefs or ideologies that discriminate against human beings based on language. This ideology regulates the unequal division of power between people based on how an individual uses language; therefore, such ideology blocks learners' entry into the external community since learners remain under pressure when they speak and face discrimination because of their language, color, and race. Corona and Block (2020) noticed that language learners experienced racial microaggression by their teachers because of their color, race, and language. Both institutional and noninstitutional settings are considered sites of struggle for language learners given that learners fail to convey and discuss complex ideas when they are in the classroom setting (Dobinson & Mercieca, 2020) and learners are forced to accept the linguistics norms given by the gatekeepers when they are in a noninstitutional setting. If the classroom practices position learners as unworthy, inadequate, or incapable (Darvin, 2019), they would not position themselves as valued members in the context where they face discrimination. For example, in the Mongolian context, a minority ethnic group was often discriminated against because of having 'broken Mongolian' and speakers of the ethnic group

had to negotiate to the linguistic norms set by the educational institute (Dovchin, 2019). The situation becomes more complex when learners' first language is not English; therefore, immigrant language learners endure more discrimination.

Experiencing linguicism made the learners feel that they were not legitimate members of the target community. Learners' legitimacy in the target community is important because language learners always want to be accepted by the host nationals. Learners' rejection by the people of the target community affects their investment in language learning. Jean-Pierre (2018) found that Quebec English speakers experienced discrimination and were considered illegitimate members of the Quebec community because of having power difference between Anglophones and Francophones. The unequal power differences made Quebec English speakers outsiders in the community. Immigrant language learners even endure more discrimination not only because of their accent but also for their race and ethnicity. For instance, Asian learners are often mocked by the peers of the target community because of their 'broken' and 'Ching-Chong English' (Chun, 2016). Such discrimination deteriorates learners' sense of belonging in the community. Multilingual learners' shuttle between different languages that is not considered their asset, rather it is seen as their liability (Wei, 2018). While a few studies have examined how multimodal narrative practices in L2 classrooms can allow adult L2 learners space to negotiate linguicism to become legitimate members of the target community, this study investigates the role of multimodal narrative practices in negotiating difficult experiences that immigrant adult language learners face in their subsequent investments in language learning.

Critical Race Theory (CRT) is an appropriate lens to understand the immigrant language learners' experiences since the theory advocates historically marginalized people's experiential knowledge (Charles, 2019). CRT emphasizes two important aspects: "Whiteness as property"- jobs are reserved for white native English speakers; and "permanence of racism"- hierarchical structure in which Whites considered ideal and authentic. Immigrant people are historically marginalized because of their race, color, and language; thus, learners' experiences need to be analyzed with the lens of CRT since one of the principles of CRT is the commitment to social justice. CRT sets three goals which include stories of marginalized people, race analysis, and other hindering factors. CRT would help understand and analyze the ideology, hierarchical structure or class power in the dominant society, and immigrant learners' real-life experiences. The study also used narrative analyses to analyze adult language learners' narratives that they produced. Narrative and Identity often go together since the narrative is considered a primary vehicle to understand who the narrator is.

IV. Methods

A. Participants

Five immigrant adult language learners whose language proficiency was beginner level participated in this study. All of them enrolled in the 'Speaking well in the U.S.' course which aimed to prepare learners to speak well. The age range of the participants is between 25 to 48 years. Three participants were from Brazil and two of them were from Venezuela. The length of their residence in the U.S. was from 2 weeks to 10 years. Only one participant who was 48 years old had been living in the USA for ten years. The rest of them had been living here for a short period of time. Three of them have not taken any English language courses in the USA before. Two of them took different English language courses before taking the 'Speaking well in the US' course. Pseudonyms were used to protect the participants' confidentiality in accordance with IRB (Institutional Review Board) protocol. Table 1 shows participants' pseudonyms, length of residency, and age range during data collection.

Table 1
Participants' Data

Participants	Length of Residence in USA	Language Course Taken	Age	From
Molly	2 weeks	First time	32	Brazil
Amy	1 year	First time	28	Brazil
Camelia	10 years	Not first time	48	Brazil
Genia	10 months	First time	35	Venezuela
Arena	4 years	Not first time	25	Venezuela

B. Data Collection

The study relied on qualitative research and took a qualitative ethnographic approach. In addition, the study employed action research that refers to a "form of self-reflective inquiry undertaken by participants in order to improve the rationality and justice of their own practices, their understanding of these practices, and the situation in which the practices are carried out" (Carr & Kemmis, 1986, p.162). For finding the answers to the research questions, learners' multimodal narratives about using English in their daily lives, and oral reflection of their narratives were collected.

Learners were asked to write one multimodal narrative story per week about their experiences of using English by using a shared Google document. The prompt of the narrative was adapted from Norton's (2012) study and was optimized. The writing prompt was modified based on learners' needs and the study's purpose. The prompt asked learners to write about their experiences of using English in their daily lives and add relevant images or videos. Since learners wrote their narratives in the shared Google doc, everyone had access to their and peers' narratives. Learners were asked to:

> "Write down a narrative about your experiences of using English this week. Focus on one specific event. When did you use English this week? Whom did you speak English to? What did you say? How did you feel about your own English? Tell us in detail and add any pictures or videos or any relevant information". (Writing Prompt)

Learners were also required to retell and reflect on their stories in the classroom. Five narrative reflection sessions were video recorded. During the reflection session, I pulled up the google doc in the projector where all learners could visually see the multimodal narratives. During reflecting on the narratives in the classroom, learners were asked to explain the photo mode that they used in their written narratives. Learners shared the reasons for choosing specific photos, the relation between the photo mode and the narratives, and introduced the characters, places, or objects in the photos.

C. Data Analysis

For analyzing data, NVivo 12 plus, which is computer assisted qualitative data analysis software, was used. Interview data were transcribed and coded for finding learners' ideology about language and their initial desire to practice the language. Learners' written multimodal narrative was coded in finding learners' range of investment that means how desired learners were to learn English. Written narratives also helped find how learners constructed their images, how they shaped identity, how learners positioned themselves, and were positioned by others. After coding learners' written narratives, the photo mode was analyzed based on Van Leeuwen's (2008) theories of multimodal critical discourse analysis. Leeuwen's theories helped analyze the possible meanings of identity that learners presented in multimodal text. In terms of identity in multimodal text, Van Leeuwen categorized three different identity types, "Spatial identity', 'Relational Identity', and 'Functional Identity'. This study analyzed 'who or 'what' was represented in the images and how learners constructed themselves in the images.

V. Findings and Discussion

Learners' narrative writing about experiences of using English and reflection on the narrative in the classroom suggest how racism and linguicism become part of the conversation that learners face periodically in various circumstances. Oral reflection and classroom discussion on the multimodal narrative helped learners become aware of the social problems and understand their inner resources, which are essential for multilingual learners in combatting social injustice. Learners' written narrative, photo modes that they used, and oral reflection portrayed both visible and invisible linguicism that they encountered in different contexts. In this study, Molly, Genia, Arena, and Camelia had to experience a certain type of discourse that made them feel excluded in the community. Moreover, Arena experienced explicit racism because of the way she used language. Like all other participants, Camelia felt marginalized when she had a conversation with the person who had the position of power. However, discussing learners' experiences in the classroom helped them recognize the pattern of linguicism, the ways of negotiating linguicism, and the ways of becoming an integral part of the target community.

A. Multilingual Learners Shuttle between Different Languages

People from various races face linguicism or linguistic racism when they are unable to speak English "properly," and they are considered less intelligent because of their "broken English". As I mentioned above that Molly, who had been living in the USA for three months during collecting data, tried to utilize all possible opportunities that she had for practicing English and used metacognitive strategy to develop her language learning. Molly managed a job as an assistant teacher at a church school where she felt welcomed by her colleagues; however, her students did not receive her warmly because of the way she pronounced English.

Excerpt: 1

'Why Your English is So Funny'

> M: As everyone know this week, I started my work. I am assistant teacher…For me it is very important because umm not money because my pay. I pay very little. But I practice English. Speak with the kid is very easy for me. I like speak with the kids. I am very happy because people in the US my family in the US speak to me O you teacher you job in Brazil in school but not in the US is not possible. You not teacher here…
>
> T: How did you feel?
>
> M: I am very happy. I can practice English. In the picture you can see my colleagues and boss. My supervisor is not here. But I talk to my supervisor all day and she talk my job umm my responsibility…
>
> T: Okay. Did you face any incident that hurt you?

M: No, in fact they are very receptive (respectful). **Only once did a student ask me why my English was funny and a teacher quickly said: This is because she speaks two different languages and that leaves her with a different structure, but the important thing is that you understand her** "That is, they always tell me respect.

Figure 1: Molly-Reflection on Narrative in Class, August 14th

In this context, Molly was ridiculed by one of her students who described her English as 'funny'. If we interpret the word ‘funny’, it can be something to laugh at or something that sounds strange and different. By saying the word ‘funny’, the student might want to mean that Molly’s English was different from the norms, or it sounded something to laugh at. Molly’s experience echoed Dovchin’s (2019) study that showed a minority ethnic group was often discriminated against because of having 'broken Mongolian'; language speakers of the ethnic group had to negotiate the linguistic norms set by the educational institute and workplace. Moreover, Asian learners are often mocked by the peers of the target community because of their 'broken' and 'Ching-Chong English' (Chun, 2016). If we delve into the word ‘funny English’ that Molly’s student mentioned, we find that it promotes the ‘permanence of racism’, that conveys a hierarchical structure in which ‘Whites are considered ideal and authentic’ and the norms that English language speakers follow are treated as standard and authentic. In the case of English, standard language ideology, which is an inherent part of political agenda, has been perpetuated through social, political, and economic forces in the USA for hundreds of years (Lippi- Green, 2012). English language speakers who are often white, have long since maintained this ideology. In this context, by saying the word ‘funny English’, the student wanted to prove that Molly’s English deviated from the rules that English language speakers follow. This is one of the examples that show how people from immigrant backgrounds face linguicism in their everyday life and how human beings’ fundamental rights are violated by expecting a discourse of appropriateness. However, Molly’s reflection of her narrative in the classroom also disclosed English speakers’ growing changing attitudes towards linguistically marginalized people.

When the student said why Molly’s English is funny, Molly immediately received a response from her colleague, who said that "this is because she speaks two different languages and that leaves her with a different structure, but the important thing is that you understand her”. It is very important to note that by saying the above statement, Molly’s colleague is inviting change in existing social injustice. The statement also reveals that multilingual learners shuttle between different languages or variation of languages which is often considered their liabilities rather than their resources (Wei, 2018). In this context, Molly's colleague acknowledged Molly’s English since her English was comprehensible, no matter how deviated her English was from the norms that the English speakers follow. By doing so, the colleague is not only challenging the dominant ideology but also critiquing the rules of appropriateness-based approaches to language diversity in education (Flores & Rosa, 2015). The statement suggests that focus needs to be placed on how comprehensible the language is but not on how closely people follow supposed rules of appropriateness or on perceiving multilingual learners’ language use in a racialized way. It is also important to note that the statement promotes Critical Race Theory (CRT) that invites change in existing social injustice. In addition to that, Critical Race Theory is an appropriate lens to understand the immigrant language learners’ experiences since the theory advocates historically marginalized people’s experiential knowledge (Charles, 2019).

Moreover, considerable attention needs to be paid to the statement “this is because she speaks two different languages…but the important thing is that you understand her” from different angles. The statement suggests that understanding is the key point, but the question is whether this response really celebrates the differences and promotes tolerance and understanding, or simply seeks to excuse it. Eventually, we need to consider the difference between intelligibility and acceptability that refer to the capability of being understood and the quality of being tolerated or allowed. Meanwhile, ‘understanding’ the language and ‘accepting’ the language have two different dimensions that might provoke thinking about language deficiencies or hierarchical dichotomies of language proficiency. It is worth noting that Molly heard negative criticism regarding her language only once which means she felt valued at her workplace most of the time. Rather than seeing multilingual learners’ language as deficit, native speakers of English should see it as critical resources to be affirmed and valued. Talking about Molly’s experience in the classroom not only

helped other learners understand their inner resources but also helped them realize how to negotiate challenging situations in the future.

Moreover, Molly's reflection on her narrative in the classroom helped all learners recognize their multilingual identities. Molly's identity is initially shaped by dominant ideology which is defined as "dominant ways of thinking that organize and stabilize societies while simultaneously determining modes of inclusion and exclusion" (Darvin & Norton, 2015, p.18). Molly's student primarily did not see her English as acceptable that represented English speakers' ideology about what is good, bad, acceptable, or unacceptable (De Fina, 2003). However, Molly's colleague recognized her English as being acceptable since her English was comprehensible. As a researcher, I noticed how different ideologies shaped Molly's identities in different ways, for example, Molly's professional identity was her 'achieved' identity which means 'teacher identity'; however, this identity is questioned by her student and transformed into an 'imposed identity', 'that is illegal speaker of English', which implies how others see her (Hu, 2018). Finally, her 'imposed identity' was modified and newly shaped as 'multilingual identity' by her colleague's ideology. In this context, Molly's identity possesses different layers like an onion and became fluid (Darvin & Norton, 2015). In the above narrative, Molly focused on her job which is one of her great achievements. As a researcher, I understood that having a job in a target society is part of the language learning process. Language learners come to the language classroom intending to acquire symbolic and material resources (learning a language, making friendships, managing jobs, etc.) At this stage, Molly acquired both symbolic resources and material resources. This new job shifted her identity from a language learner to a teacher.

B. Multilingual Learners Do Not Belong to USA

Like Molly, Genia, who was from Venezuela and came to the USA only ten months before when I started collecting data, was discriminated against, and insulted in various ways based on how she spoke in English. Genia talked about her experience in one of her narratives in which she focused on her conversation with a cashier who insulted her since she was an immigrant. She said:

Excerpt: 2

I do not Speak Spanish. I am American

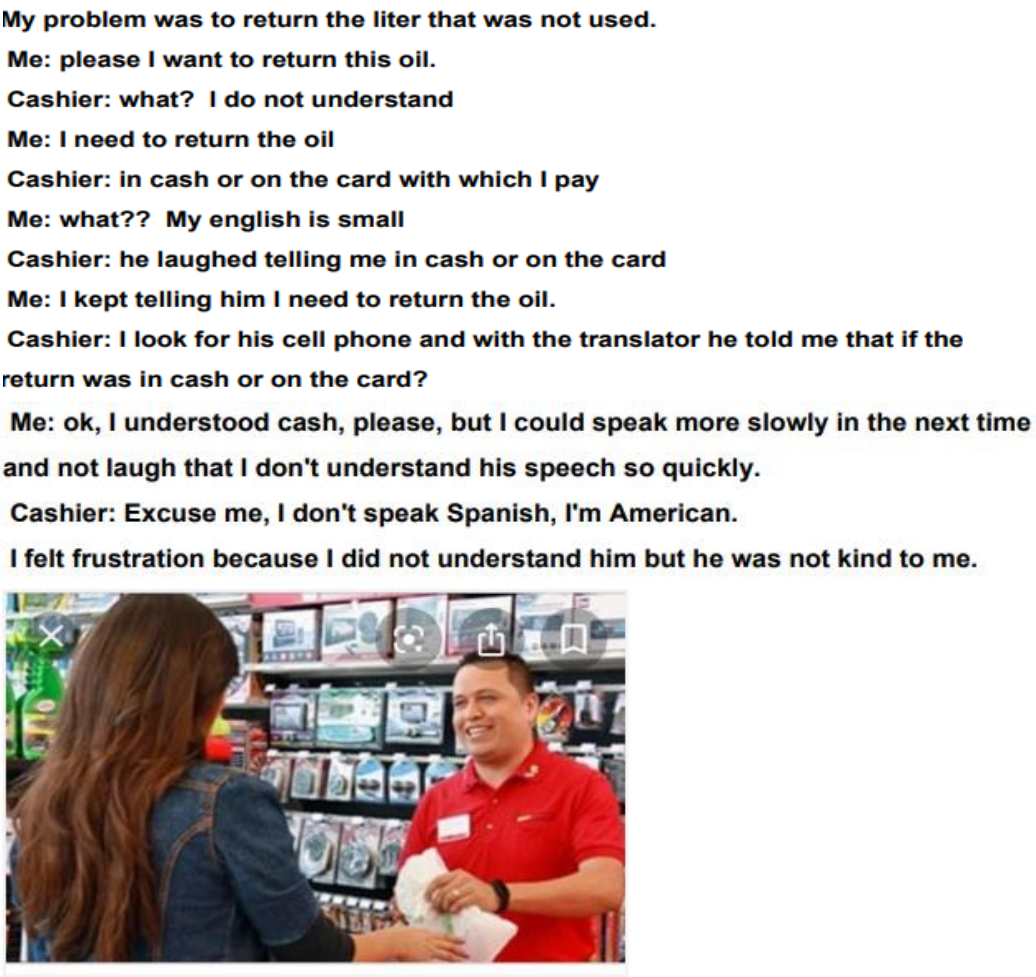

Figure 2: Genia Multimodal Narrative Writing, Sept 14th, 2019

Genia experienced linguicism because of her ethnicity, broken English, and having a particular type of accent. She went to a store where she noticed the existing social power. The cashier considered himself superior in society since he knew how to speak English. When Genia did not understand the cashier, she said her "English was small," which sounded funny to the cashier as he started laughing. By adding the photo, that Genia collected online, she tried to show the cashier's laughing face which portrayed a clear insult. Although the photo mode shows he is a person of color, he makes it clear that he is from the dominant culture by saying “Excuse me, I do not speak Spanish. I am American”. Immigrant people are frequently derided by the people who are from the dominant community because of their accent or having broken English. This finding is also echoed by prior studies, such as, Dovchin's (2019) study, which found that a young Mongolian immigrant girl was mocked by her peers because of having a Russian accent in her English.

The cashier considered himself superior as he was an American and knew how to speak in English, which means he had the *symbolic* and *capital* resources that made him feel superior: 'Excuse me, I do not speak Spanish. I'm American’. By saying the words ‘I' and American,’ the cashier proved his American identity and high status in society. At the same time, he tried to distinguish his American identity from an immigrant identity: ‘I do not speak Spanish. I'm American’. He wanted to mean that Americans speak English, and if anyone does not speak English, he does not belong to the USA. Like Molly's student’s statement 'why your English is funny', the cashier's statement 'I am American’ also explicitly invoked racial discrimination that hurts Genia's feelings: ‘I felt frustration (frustrated) because I did not understand him, but he was not kind to me.’ In this statement, the word 'not kind' indicates that the cashier's behavior was offensively impolite; that happened because of the way Genia used English. Here the person portrayed an uneven and unequal linguistic power between language users as the cashier directly attacked Genia's feelings based on how she spoke. Like Molly, Genia was distinguished because of her race and language since she was shuttling between Spanish, and English and her translanguaging ability was not considered her asset (Wei, 2018); instead, it was considered her lacking.

Facing challenging situations can obstruct learners’ investment in learning language or can ruin learners’ desire to practice language further. The above-mentioned statement indicates how Genia wanted to negotiate an unwanted situation. Although Genia was in her initial stage of learning, she portrayed her agency in negotiating meaning. It is also worth noting that although Genia faced direct discrimination that made her feel excluded from the community, she raised her voice by saying “speak more slowly in the next time and (do) not laugh that I do not understand”. This statement demonstrates that Genia was aware of her rights to be heard and her rights to speak. Mostly, immigrant language learners remain silent, not by their choice, as they are afraid of being treated as outsiders and excluded from the community. However, in this context, Genia chose not to remain silent, which is a sign of her courage that immigrant language learners are aiming for.

Genia's multimodal narrative revealed her experience of linguicism and the way she negotiated the meaning. The reflection on the narrative in the classroom helped learners become aware of their own rights and the strategy to find a way over an obstacle path. For instance, discussing how to negotiate linguicism in the classroom assisted Arena in negotiating linguicism in her workplace later. Arena talked about her experiences as an Uber driver in one of her narratives.

C. Immigrants Will Never Melt into White Americanness

Arena, who was from Venezuela and was 25years old, used to work at a Mexican restaurant where most of her customers were Mexican. One of Arena’s multimodal narratives was about her experiences of facing linguicism as an Uber (taxi) driver which was her part-time profession. When she reflected on the story in the classroom, she not only explained her experiences as an Uber driver but also informed how she was criticized by an American because of her language.

Excerpt: 3

What are You Doing in this Country if You Don’t Speak English?

T: So, Arena in your story you mentioned that sometimes you worked as a Uber driver. Right?

A: When I am free, sometimes I drive Uber because I like that. I like drive. So, one customer asked me hey where are you from? Because he listened my accent when I said how are you. He said where you are from. I said I am from Venezuela. Oh good. He said. I said I do not speak English. My English is horrible. Then he said no your English is better than my Spanish…

T: How did you feel speaking with an American?

A: Good. I feel good. Sometimes I feel shy when people do not understand. I am in silent for the speak but for the good people I can speak more. I felt comfortable with him to speak. But sometimes **I feel afraid when the people make fun of me. You know. I remember one day when one person I do not remember his name. He told me hey hmm what are you umm what are you doing in this country if you don’t if you don’t speak English.**

T: Oh, my goodness!

A: Uhm. Yah. I felt very sad. Okay. But I said **do you speak other language**? Because I am trying to learn other language. Spanish is my first language. **Do you speak Spanish?** At that moment, I felt terrible. I need to speak English right now. Because **When I speak English, I feel need freedom**. Yes. I think this is a process. Now this class is motivation for me. I need to communicate with you in English. In my work too. I think I have I have been a grow. For example, if people tell me about my

pronunciation about my grammar it is difficult for me. I am trying every day. This is the important point.

T: I mean this country is open for everyone. Was he an English speaker or from a different country?

A: No, He is American. American people.

(Classroom Reflection, September 2nd)

The above excerpt demonstrates the ongoing prejudice and discrimination that block the mobility of immigrants in society. Arena clearly stated that 'she feels afraid when people made fun of her' which proves that immigrant learners frequently face criticisms that make them feel insecure. It is very important to mention here that the person's statement "What are you doing in this country if you don't speak English" shows hegemonic ideology about immigrants as the person takes part in reinforcing power structures willingly and denotes the dominance or authority of one group over another. Moreover, the above-mentioned statement is reminding us of Rosa's finding that immigrants or Latinos will never melt into White Americanness and will remain separate and an outsider from White Americanness (2016). Like Genia, in this context, Arena also heard the question about her belongingness that is determined by the dominant group based on the language proficiency. The statement is a clear example of overt discrimination as it illustrates that if a person does not know English, she has no right to be a part of this country. This hegemonic ideology is responsible for keeping immigrants in disfranchised groups and in making them historically marginalized. Additionally, the statement reflects that the language learners are not authentic speakers of English; thus, they are not considered legitimate members of this country.

It is noteworthy that Arena demonstrated the knowledge, that she acquired from Molly's reflection and classroom discussion, in the real-life context: "do you speak other language; I am trying to learn other language. Spanish is my first language. Do you speak Spanish?". These statements essentially portrayed Arena's awareness of inner resources that enhanced her confidence to speak up for the first time against the existing social inequities. Without being afraid, this time, Arena gathered the courage to ask a counter-question with the aim of changing the ongoing social injustice. Like Molly's colleague, who believed that it is important to focus on the comprehensibility of the language rather than focusing on how perfectly a person is following the given norms set by the dominant community, Genia also raised her voice against social discrimination.

It is also important to recall how Molly's colleague recognized Molly's multilingual identity when her student asked why Molly's English sounded funny. In this context, learners' narrative writing and narrative reflection helped other learners understand what challenges language learners may face, how they negotiated the challenges, and how to utilize that knowledge in various contexts of their real-life situations. Arena's statement "now this class is a motivation for me" indicates how the classroom practice helped invest in language learning and understand how to negotiate racism and linguicism in real life. Talking about familiar stories helped language learners use and practice the language in natural and realistic settings (Ghareeb & Alwehebi, 2021).

However, when comparing the above results with those of our older studies, it must be pointed out that 'natural language learning' does not always ensure language learning if "natural language learning is frequently marked by inequitable relations of power in which language learners struggle for getting access to social networks" (Norton, 2013, p.149). Investment in language learning mostly depends on the situation in which learners can practice English in a safe and supportive environment. The situation that Camelia faced in her child's school was very similar to Molly, Genia, and Arenas' experiences. Camelia had been living in the USA for ten years but rarely had access to the people of the host community as the outside world was mostly hostile and uninviting for her. For instance, in one of her narratives, she said-

Excerpt: 4

I Felt Frustrated

"They don't know that I'm Latin and I don't understand English, use my children as translators, but notice that the secretary doesn't like me not to understand. I asked him to speak more slowly. I felt frustrated not to understand him"

Figure 3: Camelia's Multimodal Narrative Writing, Aug. 18th

Previous studies have also noticed that native speakers of English are impatient with the immigrants and are not eager to negotiate meaning with them (Norton, 2012). When language learners find such situations, they can stop investing in language learning and lose their motivation as with some of the participants in Norton's study. Therefore, despite being highly motivated, there were some unwanted situations under which Camelia felt uncomfortable speaking in the target community. In the above excerpt, Camelia used two Internet memes in which the first one features a man of color who stared at the audience with the caption "What?!" and the second one shows the text "I do not understand". The implied meaning that Camelia wanted to present through using Internet memes was the attitudes that the people, who are in a position of power, have toward immigrants. The meme that she used carries typical racial stereotypes against a minority group of people like Mexican and Asians (Yoon, 2016). Although Camelia used a photo of a man of color who could potentially be interpreted as a Spanish speaker, her pronoun choice 'they' in the sentence 'they do not know that I'm Latin' demonstrates that the person does not belong to her community. The pronoun 'they' usually refers to 'other' who are not from the same group of community. Moreover, the photo mode also reflects the person's confused look that does not happen often. Using the internet memes, Camelia wanted to present how she felt when she understood that the school secretary did not like her since she did not understand his English. In this context, the meme with the man who started at the audience with the caption 'what/!' depicted how immigrants face questions about their legitimacy because of their race, color, or language. Discrimination can be both verbal and nonverbal by which one can attack people based on their color and the way they use language (Corona & Block, 2020). Camelia felt disappointed as the person did not like her lack of understanding of English. It seems the person's weird gesture positioned Camelia as an "illegal immigrant" in the U.S where immigrants are often stereotyped in different ways like "illegal immigrants", "forever foreigner", and "model minority" etc. (Reyes, 2016). Using photo mode in the narrative writing not only helped Camelia talk about the real event in the classroom but also helped the learners understand what type of challenges a language learner might go through. It is also important to mention here that talking about the photo mode that reflects the person's weird face also denotes that a comfortable environment is essential for immigrant language learners in ensuring learners' desire to practice English as well as successful conversation.

VI. Conclusion

In sum, the above examples show how immigrant language learners are judged in different contexts like at their work, child's school, and shopping stores. The multimodal narrative writing and reflection on the narratives revealed how immigrant language learners are discriminated against, for instance, immigrant learners are often criticized because of their accent or multilingual identity that is not considered their asset. In most of the above-mentioned circumstances, language learners felt that they would never melt into American Whiteness as the student criticized Molly's English, the person in the store questioned about Genia's belongingness, the person in the workplace criticized Arena's presence in the USA, and the school superintendent did not like Camelia's lack of understanding. However, Molly's colleague is advocating for social justice by stating that it is important whether we understand a person's speech or not; however, it is not significant to observe whether a person's accent is close to the norms set by the English speakers who are considered gatekeepers. The statement would likely provide strong contributions to understanding the rights of multilingual learners. Being multilingual learners, they have the right to be heard, the right to speak, and the right not to be criticized. Multimodal narrative writing about learners' everyday experiences and reflection on the narratives specifically helped learners understand how to negotiate existing racism and linguicism in real-life situations as learners face multiple challenges in the dominant society. The present study reveals that dominant ideology often determines the legitimacy of minority people and questions their belongingness in the dominant society. The findings of the current study urge that using a certain type of language is not just about the medium of communication; rather it is related to promoting social justice and presenting a person's identity. Therefore, language classrooms should include minority learners' experiences of interactions with the people of the dominant culture.

As we have noticed above that language learners' desire to learn the language or learners' investment depends on the dynamic negotiation of power, the current study supports extending antiracist practices in the language classroom to help foster learners' understanding of racism and linguicism by addressing challenges that learners face outside the classroom. The current study suggests that natural language learning repeatedly blocks learners' desire to practice the language given that 'natural language learning is often marked by inequitable relations of power' (Norton, 2013, p. 149). Prior studies showed that teaching theory or grammar is not always sufficient for adult language learners to make them feel confident in interaction with the people of the target community as language learning and the social world are interrelated (Chik & Ho, 2017). Without ignoring a focus on grammar, I argue that language teachers need to help language learners understand what racism is and how to negotiate racism and linguicism in various learning contexts. This type of classroom-based social research will help educators understand what types of challenges learners are facing in terms of practicing the language with the speakers of the English language and how learners' inner resources can help learners negotiate difficult experiences outside the classroom. Moreover, the current study shows that using photo modes in writing and talking about both linguistic and visual modes relevant to their everyday life facilitate the developing of language and social awareness as the practices help broaden learners' thinking during speaking about social injustice.

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Role of Morphology in Visual Word Recognition: A Parafoveal Preview Study in Arabic Using Eye-Tracking

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***Abstract*—Words in Semitic languages such as Arabic and Hebrew are composed of two interwoven morphemes: roots and word patterns (verbal and nominal). Studies exploring the organizing principles of the mental lexicon in Hebrew reported robust priming effects by roots and verbal patterns, but not by nominal patterns. In Arabic, prior studies have produced some inconsistent results. Using the eye-tracking methodology, this study investigated whether the Arabic morphological classes (i.e., root, verbal pattern, nominal pattern) presented parafoveally would facilitate naming of foveally presented words among young native Arabic skilled readers. Results indicate that roots and both word patterns accelerated word naming latencies, suggesting that morphological knowledge contributed to word recognition processes in Arabic. The inclusion of the three morpheme classes into one study represents so far the most comprehensive study of morphological priming effects in Arabic.**

***Index Terms*—Arabic morphology, parafoveal priming, morpheme, mental lexicon, eye-tracking**

I. Introduction

The question of the organization of words in the mental lexicon and the way words' representations are accessed has been debated for decades (Schiff et al., 2011; Velan et al., 2005). The mental lexicon refers to a repository of words, which provides linguistic and conceptual knowledge about language (Ravid, 2004). It contains phonological, orthographical, morphological, semantic and syntactic information about words and deals with how words are activated, stored, processed and retrieved (Jeffrey, 2004). In this regard, the study of morphologically complex words provides a good opportunity to investigate the organization of this lexicon (Juhasz, 2007). However, since complex words in the different languages are composed according to different morphological principles, reading studies seek to take into consideration the specific aspects of the morphological and other linguistic characteristic of the system at hand (Share, 2008; Boudelaa, 2014).

The Arabic language presents several unique features that include more particularly a complex orthographic system and a rich morphology. The Arabic orthographic system, written from right to left, has an "*abjad*" system that consists of 29 consonant letters of which three act also as a long vowel. In addition, short vowels are represented as diacritical marks above or beneath the letters (Saiegh-Haddad & Henkin-Roitfarb, 2014). Depending on the use of the short vowels (that appear as diacritics above or below the words), the Arabic writing system has two orthographic versions: vowelized and unvowelized one (see details in Abu Rabia, 2001; Asadi & Khateb, 2017). When written with short vowels, the orthography is considered transparent and reading relies mainly on sub-lexical processes. When written without short vowels (unvowelized), the orthography is considered deep since words lack part of the phonological information, and reading is said to rely on lexical processes and context cues because many words become homographic (Abu-Rabia, 2001). The children first learn to read with transparent text and start to use the deep orthography around

the fourth grade. In this regard, it has been suggested that thanks to morphological structure of Arabic words, the reader can extract phonological information from print even in the unvowelized words (Saiegh-Haddad, 2013, see also Saiegh-Haddad, 2018). Actually, in Indo-European languages such as English, complex words are composed of stems and affixes that are combined linearly, while each individual morpheme can be identified as a unit by itself (Watson, 2002). In these systems, complex words that are morphologically related (e.g., help/help*ful*, dog/dog*s*) are also phonologically, orthographically and semantically related making it difficult to distinguish effects of morphology from other types of relations between words (Boudelaa & Marslen-Wilson, 2001). Words in Arabic are minimally bimorphemic and comprise two unpronounceable bound morphemes: a root and a word pattern (Saiegh-Haddad, 2018). This morphological structure, although nonlinear, is defined by some authors as transparent in the word's orthographic representation and this makes diacritics unnecessary to reading accuracy (Saiegh-Haddad & Schiff, 2016). Roots are composed of three (rarely two or four) consonants while word patterns include vowels or both consonants and vowels. The root usually conveys the core semantic meaning of the word whereas the word patterns usually specify the phonological structure and morpho-syntactic information (Boudelaa & Marslen-Wilson, 2000, 2005; Ryding, 2005b; Watson, 2002). For example, the word <مطبَخ> (/*mat*ˤ*baχ*/) for kitchen is a derivation of the root < ط.ب.خ > (/*t*ˤ*.b.χ*/), which is inserted into the nominal pattern *ma*C_1C_2*a*C_3, with $C_{1\text{-}3}$ representing the three consonants of the root morpheme. The root < ط.ب.خ > refers to anything related to cooking, while the pattern *ma*C_1C_2*a*C_3 is often related to a name of a place. Thus, the combination of this root and word pattern creates the meaning kitchen (i.e., the place where food is cooked). In this manner, the root < ط.ب.خ > can be combined with another pattern, C_1*a*C_2C_2*a:*C_3, to produce the word <طبّاخ> (/*t*ˤ*abba:χ*/) meaning cook (Holes, 2004; Watson, 2002; Ryding, 2005b).

Word patterns in Arabic can be further subdivided into verbal and nominal patterns. To create verbs, fifteen possible verbal patterns exists in Arabic (Danks, 2011; Holes, 2004). As for Arabic nouns, most of these are derived from a root that is interwoven into a nominal pattern. Yet, other nouns are constituted of a basic morphologically complex word, such as <مكتب> (/*maktab*/) for office and <مكتبـة> (/*maktaba*/ for library), or a solid stem, such as <قمر> (/*qamar*/ for *moon*) which is linearly combined with a suffix to produce <قمري> (/*qamari*:/ for *lunar*) (Ryding, 2005a). There are about one hundred frequent nominal patterns in Arabic, with the most frequent ones being verbal nouns, participles and derivatives (Holes, 2004).

In the Arabic and Hebrew Semitic languages, which share certain morphological similarities, the role of the morphological components in lexical access had been investigated using different priming paradigms (For Arabic see Abu-Rabia & Awwad, 2004; Boudelaa & Marslen-Wilson, 2000, 2005, 2011; Shalhoub-Awwad & Leikin, 2016; Shalhoub-Awwad, 2019) and for Hebrew (Frost et al., 2005; Bentin & Feldman, 1990; Deutsch et al., 1998; Deutsch et al., 2003; Deutsch et al., 2000, 2005; Feldman & Bentin, 1994; Feldman et al., 1995; Frost et al., 1997; Frost et al., 2005; Velan et al., 2005). Studies using the masked priming paradigm in Hebrew reported that robust priming effects were induced by roots (Deutsch et al., 1998; Frost et al., 1997) and verbal patterns (Deutsch et al., 1998) but not by nominal pattern (Frost et al., 1997). In Arabic, a recent study by Shalhoub-Awwad and Leikin (2016) using a cross-modal paradigm in second and fifth grade children and showed that the root induced a priming effect when shared in both verbal and nominal patterns, suggesting that the root plays an important role in the processing and representation of Arabic words. Shalhoub-Awwad (2019) showed also that nominal word patterns facilitated lexical decisions, although in terms of accuracy only but not in response speed. However, in a large series of studies, robust priming effects were reported by the three morphological morphemes: root (Boudelaa & Marslen-Wilson, 2001, 2005; Frost et al., 2005), verbal pattern (Boudelaa & Marslen-Wilson, 2001, 2005) and nominal pattern (Boudelaa & Marslen-Wilson, 2001, 2005, 2011). However, Boudelaa and Marslen-Wilson (2005) have suggested that identification of the consonantal Arabic root occurs earlier than identifying word-pattern. Based on such empirical data stressing the important role morphology plays in the organization of the mental lexicon in Arabic, the model conceptualized by Boudelaa (2014) proposed that all content words in Arabic undergo a process of "obligatory morphological decomposition" (OMD) by which their roots and word patterns are accessed as lexical entries.

In addition to the studies using classical priming paradigms, other investigations relied on eye movement tracking techniques. In particular, eye tracking shows that information a reader can extract is not limited to the fixated word, but extends to the next one or two words. This is because readers can allocate their attention independently from gaze position, so that the process of word recognition often begins before fixating on the foveal word (i.e., in the parafovea). This attention allocation is script-dependent: to the right in English (Rayner & Pollatsek, 1989) and to the left in Hebrew (Pollatsek et al., 1981). Due to the early information extraction from the parafovea and thus the partial activation of the mental lexicon, the integration of the foveal information (i.e., the fixated target word) is facilitated, as evidenced by the "boundary technique" that measures the parafoveal preview benefit effect (Rayner, 2009). Here, the subject fixates a central point while a prime word is simultaneously placed in the parafovea. When the participants' eye passes an invisible boundary, located between the fixation point and the prime word, a target word replaces the prime word. This replacement occurs during saccade execution and is thus not perceived by participants due to saccadic suppression (Rayner, 2009). The advantage here is that in contrast to the masked priming paradigm, which uses a rather "artificial experimental manipulation", the parafoveal preview mimics the processes of word recognition in natural reading conditions (Deutsch et al., 2000). Studies on Hebrew using the parafoveal preview benefit effect reported similar findings to those obtained using the masked priming paradigms (i.e., namely robust priming effects by the root

and the verbal pattern but not by the nominal pattern), suggesting that both techniques might tap similar cognitive processes in word recognition (Deutsch et al., 2000, 2003, 2005).

Considering the fact that the parafoveal preview benefit effect is a technique which mimics more natural processes of word recognition, the current research used this technology to examine the extent to which the different morphological classes of Arabic (i.e., root, verbal pattern, and nominal pattern) facilitate word recognition/reading processes. For this purpose, all the three morphological classes were examined within the same participants, allowing thus to compare facilitation effects across the same readers. This design is thought to provide more reliable findings by reducing the impact of interfering factors such as inter-individual differences and by improving comparability of the different morphological structures. Unlike previous studies on Arabic which relied exclusively on lexical decision tasks, the naming task used in the current study implies phonology and pronunciation, two aspects that have yet to be implemented in studies on reading. Given the fact that each type of tasks (i.e., lexical decision and naming) can tap different aspects of reading performance (Katz et al., 2012), both tasks have been used in other languages and were shown to provide complementary results (e.g., Deutsch et al., 1998; Frost et al., 1997). In this regard, this study was predicted to provide new insights into the existing literature on Arabic, and allow strong conclusions concerning the role of the different morphological structures in Arabic word recognition. Based on previous studies, we hypothesized that the presentation of the three morphemic units in the parafovea would facilitate reading of the foveally presented words. This facilitation should appear as priming effect for morphologically related words as compared to unrelated ones.

II. Methods

A. Participants

A group of 60 native speakers of Arabic participated in the current study. Twelve participants were excluded due to eye tracker related problems (e.g., long eye lashes, insufficient calibration accurateness, or excessive blinks). Hence, 48 participants ($M_{\text{age in years}}$ = 21.8, *SD* = 2.3; 25 males) were finally included in the analysis. All of them were right handed (self-declared) students at the University of Haifa and participated for payment (50 NIS) or for course credit. Participants with corrected vision (either with glasses or contact lenses) were not invited to participate. None of the participants suffered from psychiatric or neurological disorders or from any form of learning impairment.

B. Design and Stimuli

Three experiments for three morphological classes (i.e., root, verbal pattern, and nominal pattern) were designed and carried out by each participant. In each experiment, all prime words were length-matched with their corresponding targets words (see Table 1 for examples). Three conditions in each of the experiments were created in which each target word was paired with one of three different prime types. In the Identical Condition (IC) the target word was the same as the prime word. This condition aimed at triggering the maximal expectable priming effect, referred to also as repetition priming. In the Morphologically Related (MR) condition the target word shared the same morphological structure/or root with the prime word. In the unrelated Control Condition (CC) the target word shared no morphological relation with the prime. Only the MR condition varied in each experiment as shown in detail below and illustrated in Table 1.

In the first experiment, Root priming, the target words were nominal forms that shared the same tri-consonantal root with the prime word, but within a different word pattern. In the second experiment, target words were verbs that shared the same Verbal Pattern with the prime word, but with a different root. Here, all targets were conjugated with one of five different verbal patterns that were inflected on the basis of past, singular, masculine form (see Table 1). In the third experiment, the target words were nouns that shared the same Nominal Pattern with the prime word, but with a different root. All targets were declined into one of five different nominal patterns that are common in modern standard Arabic. Since targets and primes appeared without any textual context that would normally provide hints about phonology, all stimuli were partially vowelized. That is, one short vowel was added in order to avoid ambiguity concerning the meaning and/or pronunciation of words.

TABLE 1
EXAMPLES FOR STIMULI IN THE THREE EXPERIMENTS VARYING THE MORPHOLOGICAL CLASSES AND THE PRIME TYPES

	Target	**Prime type**		
		CC	**MR**	**IC**
Root	بستان /*busta*:*n*/ (garden)	**دخول** /*duχu*:*l*/ (entering)	إدخال /*ʔidχa*:*l*/ (inserting)	**إدخال** /*ʔidχa*:*l*/ (inserting)
Verbal pattern	تأليف /*taʔli*:*f*/ (composition)	امتنع /*ʔimtanaʕa*/ (prevented)	احترم /*ʔiħtarama*/ (respected)	احترم /*ʔiħtarama*/ (respected)
Nominal pattern	تقليص /*taqlisˁ*/ (shrinking)	مزرعة /*mazraʕa*/ (farm)	مكتبة /*maktaba*/ (library)	مكتبة /*maktaba*/ (library)

For the selection of the words and in order to control for words' familiarity, a questionnaire was filled in by 15 native

Arabic speakers. They were asked to rate a list of 900 words on a five-point scale (1 for not familiar and 5 for very familiar). The average familiarity for each word was then computed, and on the basis of items analysis, that allowed removing problematic items (i.e., either items with very low familiarity, or items with large response variance etc.) the final list was constituted with highly familiar words (mean familiarity >4).

Each experiment contained 69 target words associated to one of three prime types (i.e., 23 words per prime type). In order to avoid stimulus repetition (e.g., the same target word primed by an identical word and again by a morphologically related word), three stimulus lists (A, B, and C) were created. These lists contained the same target words, but the prime-target association varied. Participants were allocated to one of the three lists randomly so that 19 participants were tested on list A, 15 participants on list B, and 14 participants on list C. Also, in order to avoid any list effect, stimuli in each list were controlled for the parameters: familiarity, word length, number of phonemes, and number of syllables. There were no significant differences in any of these parameters as indicated by one-way ANOVAs performed on these measures (see Table 2).

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (MEANS AND SD) FOR THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE THREE LISTS OF WORDS

Item characteristics	Lists				
	A	B	C	*F*	*p*
Word familiarity	4.7 (0.2)	4.7 (0.2)	4.7 (0.2)	0.01	.98
Word length	4.3 (0.4)	4.3 (0.4)	4.3 (0.4)	0.00	1.00
Number of phonemes	6.2 (1.3)	6.2 (1.3)	6.2 (1.3)	0.00	.99
Number of syllables	2.5 (0.7)	2.5 (0.7)	2.5 (0.7)	0.03	.97

C. Procedure

Before running the experiments, participants were asked to read the instructions presented on the screen in Arabic and to accomplish 18 training trials to ensure a full understanding of the task demands. The order of the three experiments was varied to allow using one of six possible combinations to avoid order effects, while the order of the stimuli was randomized for each participant and list.

Participants were seated at a distance of 50 cm in front of a computer screen (LG Flatron L226WTQ, 22 inch diagonal, screen resolution 1440 x 900 pixels, refresh rate 75 Hz) with their head leaning on a forehead-rest. Since the participant's response demanded oral naming, a chin rest was not used. Eye movements of the right eye were recorded by an SR-Research Ltd. (Canada) EyeLink 1000 tower-mount eye-tracker; however, vision was binocular. The oral response was recorded by a highly sensitive condenser microphone (AKG perception P170, Austria; pre-amplified through a Behringer Xenyx 1002FX, Germany). In addition, a low latency sound card (Creative Soundblaster X-Fi, Singapore) ensured an accurate timing of the sound recording.

Stimulus presentation was accomplished through the Experiment Builder software (SR-Research, Canada). All stimuli were presented on a grey background (RGB 180, 180, 180). After an initial calibration and validation with a standard nine-point grid, the participants were asked to fixate a point that was placed in the center of the screen (i.e., drift check). When the experimenter observed a stable fixation on the drift check position, the trial start was initiated manually through button press. The sound recording started, the drift check point changed into a plus sign (comprising 0.34 ° visual angle) and simultaneously the prime word (font: regular New Courier, size 12, black, covering on average 1.6 ° visual angle per word, located on the left at a distance of 2.5 degrees between the plus sign and the first character of the prime word) appeared on the screen. One character space to the left of the plus sign an invisible boundary was located. As the participants' eye passed this boundary, a target word replaced the prime word. This replacement occurred during saccade execution and was thus not perceived by participants due to saccadic suppression. Participants were instructed to name the then foveally presented stimulus (i.e., to read aloud the target word; see Figure 1).

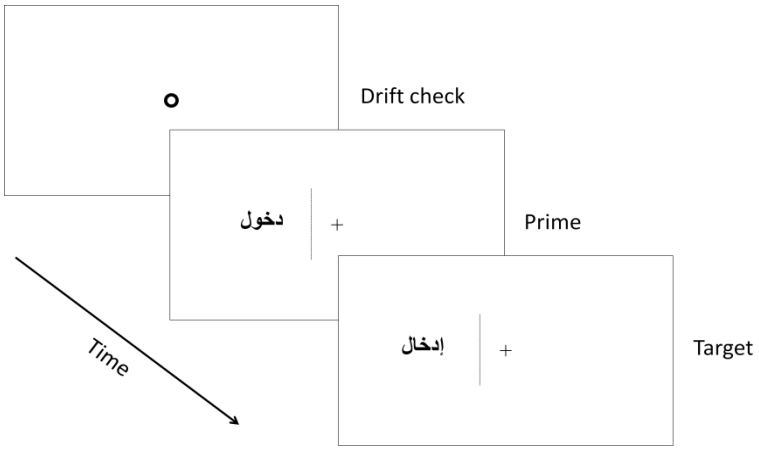

Figure 1. An example for a trial sequence; the grey vertical line represents the invisible boundary and was thus not visible to the participants.

One second after voice onset (detected by the voice trigger of the Experiment Builder), the sound recording stopped; the target word disappeared and a drift check point was presented on the screen, indicating the preparedness for a new trial. Before a new trial was initiated, the quality of calibration was examined and recalibrations were conducted if a deviation from the drift check position by more than one degree was evident.

D. Data Analysis

The DataViewer analysis software (SR-Research, Canada) was used to extract the eye tracking parameters for the time of boundary crossing, fixation durations and blinks. In addition, markers indicating the exact start of the sound recording were extracted, which allowed the alignment of the oral response to the appearance of the visual stimulus. To ensure that participants could benefit from the parafoveally presented prime, trials in which participants crossed the invisible boundary prematurely (i.e., earlier than 10 ms after trial onset) as well as trials containing blinks in the critical period between appearance of the prime and voice onset were discarded. The average of the discarded trials ranged from 21% to 25% of the whole stimuli, with no significant differences between morphological classes, p = .41, or between prime types, p = .73.

Voice onsets were marked and transferred into text files after visual and auditory inspection of the recorded sound files using the PRAAT software package (Boersma & Weenink, 2012). Response accuracy was also verified at this stage and trials containing incorrect responses were not included in further analyses. For each participant, the mean reaction time (RT) for correct responses (i.e., voice onset times from the presentation of the prime in ms) and the percentages of correct responses (accuracy) were computed for each experimental condition. Also, priming effects were determined for each participant as the difference between RTs to CC minus RTs to MR (i.e., morphological priming) and the difference between RTs to CC minus RTs to IC (i.e., repetition priming). The individual RTs and accuracy were then subjected to a repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA).

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (MEANS AND SD) FOR REACTION TIMES IN EACH OF THE MORPHOLOGICAL CLASSES AND PRIMING CONDITIONS TOGETHER WITH MEAN PRIMING EFFECTS

Conditions	Morphological classes		
	Root	NP	VP
IC	766 (88)	766 (83)	790 (80)
MR	777 (83)	785 (87)	797 (76)
CC	797 (95)	797 (82)	822 (82)
Repetition priming	31 (57)	31 (46)	32 (52)
Morphological priming	20 (55)	12 (44)	25 (42)

Abbreviations: NP = nominal pattern; VP = verbal pattern; IC = Identical Condition; MR = Morphologically Related; CC = Control Condition.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (MEANS AND SD) FOR RESPONSE ACCURACY (%) IN EACH OF THE MORPHOLOGICAL CLASSES AND PRIMING CONDITIONS

Conditions	Morphological classes		
	Root	VP	NP
IC	98.3 (3.4)	98.5 (3.0)	97.6 (3.1)
MR	97.6 (3.4)	98.6 (3.0)	97.6 (3.1)
CC	97.2 (3.4)	98.5 (3.0)	98.2 (2.7)

Abbreviations: NP = nominal pattern; VP = verbal pattern; IC = Identical Condition; MR = Morphologically Related; CC = Control Condition.

III. RESULTS

The descriptive statistics of mean reaction times for each of the morphological classes and priming types are presented together with the mean priming effects in Table 3. A 3 × 3 repeated measures ANOVA was performed on the individual RTs using the morphological classes (root, nominal pattern and verbal pattern) and the prime types (IC, MR, and CC) as within participants' factors. It showed a significant main effect of morphological class ($F(2, 94) = 4.19, p <. 018, \eta 2 = .082$). Bonferroni post-hoc tests showed that this effect was explainable by the fact that on average responses to verbal patterns ($M = 803$ ms, $SE = 10.7$) were slower than responses to nominal patterns ($M = 783$ ms, $SE = 11.6$, p = .061) and to roots ($M = 780$ ms, $p = .029$), with the later two not differing (p = 1). Also, there was a significant main effect of prime type ($F(2, 94) = 25.09, p = .001, \eta 2 = .348$). Bonferroni tests showed that responses to IC were shorter ($M = 774$ ms, $SE = 10.5$) than to MR ($M = 786$ ms, $SE = 10. 4. p =.025$) and to the unrelated CC ($M = 806$ ms, $SE = 10. 8, p = 0.001$). Also, the difference between MR and CC was significant (p < .001, see Figure 2 also for illustration). No significant interaction was found between the morphological class and prime type factors (p = .71).

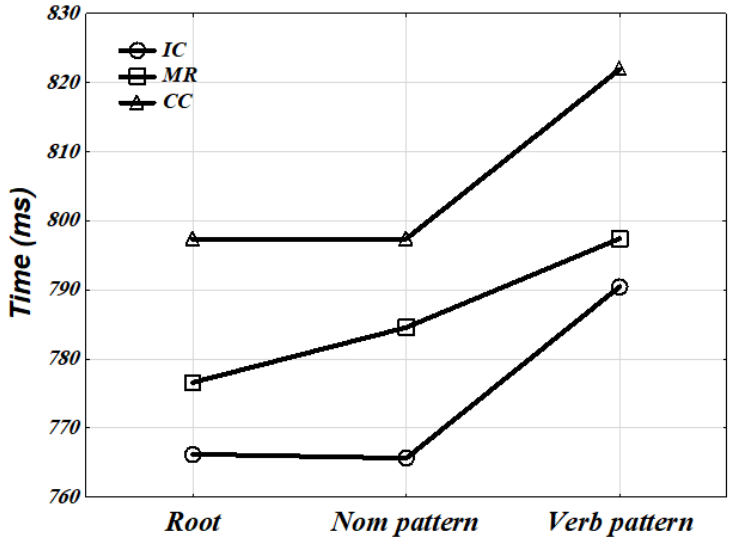

Figure 2. Mean of the participants RTs (in ms) by morphological class and prime type.
IC = Identical Condition; MR = Morphologically Related; CC = Control Condition.

The mean accuracy (percentages of correct responses) over participants and standard deviations for each of the morphological classes and priming conditions are presented in Table 4. The 3 × 3 ANOVA performed on the individual percentages of accuracy using the morphological class (root, verbal pattern and nominal pattern) and the prime type (IC, MR, CC) as within participants' factors showed neither significant main effect of class nor of prime type. Also, no interaction was found between the two factors.

In order to assess the extent to which the parafoveal preview influenced priming, a measure of the central fixation duration (i.e., the time participants spent fixating the cross and consequently perceived the prime parafoveally) was computed for each individual participant. A correlation analysis was then conducted between this measure (mean fixation time of each participant) with the individual size of the two priming effects, that is, repetition priming (M = 31.44, SD = 31.41) and morphological priming (M = 19.36, SD = 31.75, see Table 3). As illustrated in Figure 3, positive correlation was found between the fixation duration measure and the size of the priming effect both for repetition priming (r = 0.349, $p < 0.05$; A) and for morphological priming (r = 0.314, $p < 0.05$; B) showing that longer fixations were associated with stronger priming effects.

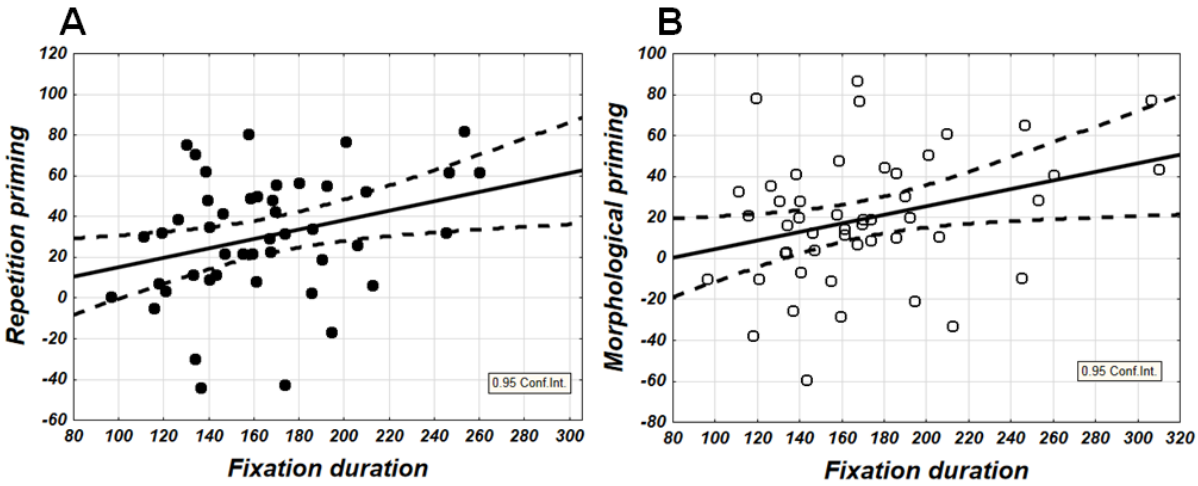

Figure 3. Scatter plot showing the correlation of fixation duration with A) repetition priming effect and B) with morphological priming effect in three experimental conditions.

IV. Discussion

The current study investigated how morphological structures affect visual word recognition in Arabic. For this purpose, we used the parafoveal preview method that closely mimics the natural reading process, and a word naming task. We assessed the effects of morphologically related prime words (in contrast to unrelated and identical words), presented parafoveally, on the identification of the foveally presented target words. Unlike earlier findings from Hebrew,

the other Semitic language, these results clearly indicate that all three morphological classes contribute to word identification in Arabic.

A significant facilitation was obtained when a prime word shared the root letters with a target word. This finding is consistent with previous studies in Arabic using masked priming (Frost et al., 2005), incremental masked priming (Boudelaa & Marslen-Wilson, 2001, 2005) and cross-modal priming paradigms (Boudelaa & Marslen-Wilson, 2000, 2004; Shalhoub-Awwad & Leikin, 2016) and quite similar to findings obtained in Hebrew (e.g., Deutsch et al., 1998; Deutsch et al., 2000, 2005; Deutsch et al., 2003; Frost et al., 1997). This finding contradicts the earlier results in Arabic by Abu-Rabia and Awwad (2004) where priming effects were neither observed for roots nor for nominal patterns using the masked priming technique. Possible methodological differences between the current and the above-mentioned study might explain the discrepancy between these observations. These results are however in line with recent observations from a recent study using cross-modal paradigm by Shalhoub-Awwad and Leikin (2016) suggesting a central role for roots in both verbal and nominal patterns. All together our results strengthen the claim that in Semitic languages, root priming occurs even when the prime and the target belong to different syntactic categories, indicating that this morpheme functions as an abstract organizing unit of the lexicon.

The present findings demonstrated also that both nominal and verbal word patterns contribute significantly to Arabic word recognition. These results are also consistent with previous studies in Arabic using masked priming (Boudelaa & Marslen-Wilson, 2011), incremental masked priming (Boudelaa & Marslen-Wilson, 2001, 2005) and cross modal paradigms (Boudelaa & Marslen-Wilson, 2000, 2004). In line with previous observations, the present findings suggest that the word pattern morpheme constitutes an independent lexical entity that plays a crucial role in the processing of Arabic words. This finding highlights the difference between the two Semitic languages, since only verbal pattern (but not nominal pattern) seems to serve as an organizing principle of the lexicon in Hebrew (Frost et al., 1997). The strong role of the verbal system in Arabic and Hebrew is explainable through its relatively small size as compared to the nominal system. Its patterns form a grammatically closed system in the sense that no new members can be added to the group, and any verbal form in the language must be adapted in form to one of the existing patterns.

However, the question remains as to why nominal patterns act as an organized entity in the process of word recognition in Arabic but not in Hebrew? The word pattern is thought to convey the phonological structure and morpho-syntactic information but does not supply semantic information. Our findings however, challenge this view and suggest that the word patterns in Arabic supply semantic characteristics, since there is often a good deal of overlapping of meaning between the forms (Muhammad, 2006). Indeed, each of the verbal patterns in Arabic can be distinguished semantically from one another (Watson, 2002). Moreover, the semantic relations between the various patterns are much more restricted in the verbal than the nominal system in Hebrew but not in Arabic. In Arabic, although the group of the nominal patterns is huge, it seems that most nominal patterns are semantically transparent so that words that are derived from a given nominal pattern are semantically related to other words that share this nominal pattern. For example, the words <شارب> (/*ʃa:rib*/ for drinker, the one who drinks) and <كاتب> (/*ka:tib*/ for writer, the one who writes) belong to the same nominal pattern $C_1a:C_2iC_3$ that means "the doer of the action". Thus, beside the semantic information the root supplies, the nominal pattern seems to supply additional information about semantics. These effects should be ascribed to the productive character of nominal morphology in Arabic, and this result would constitute a genuine cross-linguistic difference between Arabic and Hebrew.

Since this is the first investigation in Arabic that used the parafoveal preview technique, it seemed necessary to demonstrate that the observed acceleration of word identification in the fovea can unequivocally be attributed to the presentation of a prime word outside of the fovea. When correlating the size of each priming effect (i.e., repetition priming and morphological priming) with the fixation duration on the fixation cross before crossing the invisible boundary, positive correlations were observed. These results indicate that prolonged parafoveal exposure to the prime resulted in stronger preview benefits. Accordingly, the parafoveal preview technique represents a valid technique for assessing priming effects also for studies using Arabic words.

However, our results also call for further investigations of individual differences in priming effect size. As shown in the correlation graphs, some participants clearly profited from parafoveal preview while others exhibited even prolonged reaction times albeit comparable fixation durations. Hence, the size of the preview effect was only partially explained by individual differences in fixation duration. Since parafoveal information extraction is considered crucial in natural text reading, future investigations of parafoveal benefit might uncover possible sources for reading impairments such as dyslexia.

Several unique and innovative aspects of this study should be emphasized. The first one is the level of comprehensiveness of the study design which examined the three morphological classes within the same participants, improving thus the comparability of the different morphological structures. The second aspect is related to the naming task used in the current study which implies the articulation aspect of reading. Given that each type of task can tap different aspects of reading performance, the results presented shed new lights on the existing literature on Arabic and allow for strong conclusions concerning the role of morphological structures in Arabic word recognition.

To summarize, the findings presented in this study demonstrated that the three morphological structures in Arabic could contribute to word recognition and thus support previous conclusions regarding the organization principles of

morphologically complex words in the Arabic mental lexicon. In line with recent literature on the matter (Saiegh-Haddad, 2018), this study provided further evidence about the role morphology plays in reading Arabic.

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Commissive Modality of International Legal Discourse: An Implicit Mitigation of the Bindingness

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***Abstract*—This research focuses on the problem of the correlation between discursive modality and illocutionary force - with substantiating variations in illocutionary force as a pragmatic basis for the scale-paradigm of deontic modality, influencing the binding force of international instruments. Guided by the criterion of explicitness and implicitness of illocutionary force markers, as well as their localization in performative or propositional part, the paper categorizes five classes of commissives in relation to speech acts: direct commissives, hedged direct commissives, indirect commissives, indirect implied commissives, hedged indirect implied commissives. Direct commissives when hedged preserve the performative verbs of self-commitment in their illocutionary part, while contain hedge structures and means of generalization in propositional part, scaling down the strength of commissive illocutionary force and associating deontic modality of commitments. Indirect commissives are illocutionary bicomponent acts, combining either expressive-commissive or assertive-commissive illocutionary forces. Indirect implied commissives and hedged indirect implied commissives rank at the penultimate and last levels of the scale of commissive deontic modality. They are devoid of a phrase subject designating the subject of the implementation of obligations. Predicates with the meanings of 'necessity' and 'requirement' indirectly mark obligations assumed whereas passive structures, nominalization, hedges, generalization, and other markers of decreased illocutionary force and associated deontic modality de-intensify such in international legal discourse.**

***Index terms*—deontic modality, illocutionary force, international legal discourse**

I. Introduction

Correlation between modality meanings and illocutionary force is assumed by discourse-forming functions of these phenomena, which is especially evident in the international legal discourse. Deontic modality in international legal discourse is conveyed by directive and commissive speech acts, which various intensity may affect the intensity of such modality and, finally, the legal force of the document.

The problem of "modality – illocutionary force" correlation remains underexplored in both discursive and pragmatic studies. From a pragmatic perspective, this problem primarily deals with the grammatical differentiation of the purpose-based types of a sentence – with illocutionary types being associated with three grammatical illocutionary modalities, i.e. assertive, imperative, and interrogative (Palmer, 2001). Accordingly, each utterance either fits within the scope of one of these three illocutionary modalities, or possesses zero illocutionary force. Consequently, with such a "purely" grammatical approach, a discourse-forming facet of "modality – illocution" correlation remains unattended and open for thorough study and discussion.

In the discursive aspect, the correlation of modal and illocutionary meanings is fragmentarily touched upon in a few studies that focus on the means of expressing modality, thus, arising as the markers of illocutionary forces (Bybee & Fleischmanm, 1995; Šandová, 2015). From this perspective, "modality-illocution" correlation is vectored from modality

to illocutionary force conveyed by it. The novelty of this article lies in the reverse vector of specification for these categories, i.e. when illocutionary force is analyzed as a means of expressing modality. The illocutionary act, the minimal constructive unit of discourse, also constructs modality as a discursive category, which is of particular importance in international law since the choice and formal-structural arrangement of illocutionary forces directly affect the deontic modality of the document by strengthening, masking or de-intensifying its legal force.

II. Theoretical Framework

The theoretical basis of the paper integrates research approaches underlying (a) discursive function of speech acts, (b) discursive function of modality, (c) the gradual nature of both phenomena, and (d) their interface.

Despite the lack of unanimity in differentiating the classes of modality, researchers reached a certain consensus on highlighting the following types: epistemic (modes of knowing), deontic (modes of obligation), alethic (modes of truth), existential (modes of existence), teleological (modes of purpose), volitive (modes of desire) (Hacquad, 2011; Hegarty, 2016; Nuyts, 2016; Palmer, 1986; Von Fintel, 2006). Deontic modality is traditionally understood as the modality of permission and obligation, covered by commands, demands, prohibitions, permissions, recommendation, advice, invitations, requests, wishes, etc., and correlative with directive illocutionary force. The commissive speech acts of commitments, which are the focus of research in this article, are also included in the deontic modality, based on Searle's attribution of the undertaken obligations, along with duties and rights, etc., to deontic forces, which create new forms of social reality (Searle, 1995).

The discursive potential of modality has attracted wide attention of scholars from various linguistic disciplines, who considered it as an aspect of interpersonal metafunction (in M. Halliday's *Systemic Functional Linguistics*) (Halliday 2004), a way of introducing attitudinal voice to discourse (Martins & David, 2003), or constructing discursive identity, attitude of the addresser regarding the proposition being presented (Fowler, 1985, p. 72).

At the same time, modality as a discourse-forming category in international legal communication has not been the subject of scientific research. Considering the specificity of such a discourse as the collective will of the parties to an international document, that have undertaken to implement it, the deontic modality of self-obligation, based on commissive acts, becomes discourse-forming.

With that in mind, a new aspect relating to a discursive study of modality, specified in this paper, is the impact of commissive acts, differing in degree of their strength, on intensifying or de-intensifying the modality, underlying the legal force of the document.

The idea of the discursive function of speech acts as the basic constitutive unit of discourse, which constructs the contexts of social interaction, is not new. Thus, at the end of the previous century, J. Searle emphasized that in his later works (Searle, 1983, 1995); then, more researchers and scholars developed it further in their numerous studies, including those that deal with legal (domestic) and international legal discourses. Such specially attributed illocutionary forces pertaining to creation, modification, or termination of rights and responsibilities in connection with individuals or institutions (Kone, 2020; Kravchenko, 2006; Kravchenko et al., 2020) characterize this discursive function of speech acts as the basic constitutive unit of discourse.

Furthermore, discourse-constructive properties of illocutionary acts extend to the construction of discursive categories, including modality, which in its deontic mode is a key category of international legal discourse. Taken as described, it would be reasonable to expect that the degree of strength in a relevant speech act directly affect the scale of the corresponding modality.

In this regard, in its theoretical premises the paper relies on the notions of 'force of illocutionary acts', or 'illocutionary force', introduced by Austin (1962, p. 100); 'degrees of strength' in such speech acts (introduced by Holmes, 1984); and the idea focusing on the 'strength of modality', often referred to as the modal "force".

Of core importance for our conceptual premises is research, which specifies some relationship between illocutionary force and mitigation and/or reinforcement. Among the features of the speech acts that affect their variations in the degree of strength are "matters of power, the speaker's status within the ongoing interaction" (Diamond, 1996). In this vein, illocutionary force and mitigating or reinforcing strategies work together in defining or redefining the kind and level of the speaker's power (Sbisa, 2001, p. 1793). Among the studies, which examine the relationship between mitigating and/or reinforcing devices and illocutionary force (Blum-Kulka, 1985; Sbisa, 2001; Caffi, 1999), of primary interest to our article is an attempt to describe conventional illocutionary effects in terms of 'deontic modality', considering the matters of degree. Thus, Sbisa states that deontic modal notions are in many respects matters of degree, displaying varying degrees of strength, as well as qualitatively different shades of meaning, in particular: "So, obligations can be legal or moral, and more or less binding; rights may be competencies, capacities, or authorities; the scope of their contents may vary, too" (Sbisa, 2001, p. 1798).

Apart from the studies connected with phenomena of mitigation and/or reinforcement, from the point of view of 'degrees of strength' in relation to illocutionary force, the concept of different modal strengths made a definite contribution to the problem of "modality—illocution" correlation (Palmer, 1986, p. 57-58). That also includes the modality variations associated with the degree of commitment and inclination (Quirk et al., 1985), as well as the scale-paradigm of modal meanings within the framework of functional grammar, for example, the scale-paradigm of 'probability' (Halliday, 2004, p. 148).

Therefore, first, accounting for the connection highlighted between the type of speech acts / illocutionary force and a particular modality, and second, given the gradation of both the illocutionary and modal meanings, the paper assumes that a change either in the type of act or in its illocutionary intensity will directly affect the characteristics of modalities in a discourse structured by such acts, and international legal discourse, in particular.

III. Methodology

The different scale of deontic commissive modality in the texts of international law depends on the degree of strength of illocutionary force expressed either by direct or indirect commissives. The main criterion for distinguishing direct acts from others is the presence in their performative part of indicators of illocutionary force, i.e. the verbs with the meaning 'to put oneself under obligation to perform some actions'.

The data corpus showed that the means of de-intensification of the commissive illocutionary force are centered either on illocutionary / performative part or focus on propositional content. In accordance with the hypothesis of this paper, in the first case, there is a transformation of a direct act into an indirect one, and in the second, it is de-intensification in the illocutionary force of the act, which remains direct, though hedged.

The underlying in the paper is the method of speech act analysis, applied in its traditional aspect and as proposed by Searle (1969) and Austin. (1962), and such acts are commitments, promises, orders, expressions of emotions and feelings, institutional acts of declarations. A new aspect in the method, proposed in this article, is the introduction into scientific circulation of the two concepts: 'indirect indicators of illocutionary force' and 'de-intensifiers of illocutionary force', emphasizing the differentiation of these categories. Another novelty is the use of the criterion 'compliance / non-compliance, with felicity conditions for commissive acts as a contextual intensifier or de-intensifier of the deontic modality.

The stages of analysis are as below.

The first step in identifying implicit means of mitigating the deontic modality of documents relies on distinguishing between nuclear and peripheral means of expression of illocutionary force, which depends on the position of relevant markers in the structure of the speech act.

The second stage includes analysis of the mitigating and/or reinforcing markers of illocutionary force, centered in the performative part of commissives (commissive speech acts), in terms of their interaction with the deontic modality.

Finally, the third stage focuses on mitigation procedures centered in the propositional content and their peripheral impact on de-intensification of deontic modality in the international legal discourse.

IV. Sampling

The corpus of the texts analyzed includes eight international legal documents, including both hard and soft law texts: five Conventions and three Declarations. The double data selection criterion included (a) the commissive illocutionary force indicating devices – (commissive) IFID, both explicit and implicit, as well as (b) de-intensifying markers of illocutionary force, which indicate a decrease in the degree of deontic modality in relation to the fragments that include them.

V. Discussion and Major Findings

A. Non-canonical Commissives as Acts of Collective Will

The commissive modality is a subcategory of the deontic modality, found in international legal discourse and identified via direct and indirect commissives (commissive acts). Both the latter refer to speech acts, by means of which the parties to the document undertake to perform the action described by the propositional content of the act. Thus, the structural formula of the commissives includes, on the one hand, the performative / illocutionary part, which introduces self-obligation. That embodies into the speech act by means of using such illocutionary verbs as *(to) undertake, (to) commit [oneself], (to) promise,* etc., or other markers of the commissive illocution. On the other hand, the structural formula of the commissives contains the propositional part, which formulates the normative content, for example:

The Parties ***undertake*** (illocutionary or performative part) *to take appropriate measures to protect persons who may be subject to threats or acts of discrimination, hostility or violence as a result of their ethnic, cultural, linguistic or religious identity* (propositional normative part) (Article 6 (2), FCPNM).

Despite the deviation from the canonical formula *'I/We + x', 'I/We + x + Inf',* and *'I/We + x that …',* the acts still remain explicit commissives, built according to the paradigmatic set of admissible manifestation of the formula. Instead of a personal pronoun as a deictic marker of the performative, the phrase subject in the performative part is presented by the nomination of the *Generalized Addresser = Addressee* of normative utterances, designated as the Parties, Member States, etc. A variation in the international legal text of the canonical formula *first person pronoun + performative verb* into Generalized Addresser = Addressee + IFID endows the commissive act with the institutional significance of an act of collective will in connection to the states that are parties to the document.

The commissive illocutionary force of non-canonical commissives is evidenced by their consistency with a basic felicity condition for this type of acts, which wraps into the ability and authority of the subject to secure their own obligations, as such are undertaken by participating States, vested with sovereign power in their implementation.

In this vein, it is appropriate to refer to the opinion of E. Benveniste, who, insisting on the strictness of the criteria for distinguishing acts that are not performatives (i.e. actions), however, attaches paramount importance to the condition of the authority of the speaker / addresser. In particular, the scientist points to official documents, which are usually signed by persons endowed with power, and which are acts of expression of individual and collective will (Benveniste, 1971, p. 274).

The commissives identified in the international legal discourse are characterized by the different scale of illocutionary intensity, which directly affects the deontic modality of documents and their binding force. Based on the explicitness and implicitness of the markers of illocutionary force, as well as their localization in performative or propositional parts, the paper categorizes five classes of commissives as displayed in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1
CLASSES OF COMMISSIVES FOR THE CRITERION OF DECREASING ILLOCUTIONARY INTENSITY

Speech act	Formula	Examples
Direct commissives	Addresser = Addressee + commissive IFID + propositional (informative) part	***States Parties undertake*** (illocutionary part) *to ensure the child such protection and care as is necessary for his or her well-being, taking into account the rights and duties of his or her parents, legal guardians, or other individuals legally responsible for him or her, and, to this end, shall take all appropriate legislative and administrative measures* (propositional part) (Article 3 (2), CRC)
Hedged direct commissives	Addresser = Addressee + commissive IFID + propositional (informative) part with lexical-semantic and syntactic hedges that reduce the illocutionary force of commissive obligations	***The Parties undertake*** (illocutionary part) *to adopt,* ***where necessary, adequate measures*** *in order to promote, in all areas of economic, social, political and cultural life,* ***full and effective equality*** *between persons belonging to a national minority and those belonging to the majority. In this respect, they shall* ***take due account*** *of the specific conditions of the persons belonging to national minorities* (propositional part) (Article 4 (2), FCPNM) >> hedge *(where necessary)* + generalization marked with semantically vague idioms *take due account, adequate measures, full and effective equality*
Indirect commissives	Addresser = Addressee + expressive or assertive IFID + propositional (informative) part marked by felicity conditions for commissives	***States Parties recognize*** (illocutionary part with assertive IFID) *the right of every child to a standard of living adequate for the child's physical, mental, spiritual, moral and social development* (propositional part) (Article 27 (1), CRC)
Indirect implied commissives	Object / patient of action + predicate with a seme of 'necessity / requirement' + propositional (informative) part + contextual markers of felicity conditions for commissives	***Such protective measures should*** (illocutionary part) ***as appropriate****, include effective procedures for the establishment of social programmes to provide necessary support for the child and for those who have the care of the child* (propositional part) (article 19 (2), CRC)
Hedged indirect implied commissives	Object / patient of action + predicate with obligative meaning + propositional (informative) part with hedged normative context + contextual markers of felicity conditions for commissives	*No restrictions* ***may be placed*** *on the exercise of these rights* ***other than those imposed in conformity with the law and which are necessary in a democratic society in the interests of national security or public safety, public order (ordre public), the protection of public health or morals or the protection of the rights and freedoms of others*** >> modal verb + extended multicomponent hedge (Article 15 (2), CRC)

To briefly sum it up, considering the first two classes of commissives, these are direct speech acts, including that de-intensified by lexical-semantic and grammatical means of the propositional part of the acts.

B. Hedged Direct Commissives: Implicit Weakening in Commissive Modality of Obligations

The deontic modality scale in international legal discourse (ILD) varies from direct to hedged indirect implied commissives. In turn, direct commissives are subdivided into direct unhedged and direct hedged acts as in (1) and (2):

(1) ***States Parties undertake*** *to respect the right of the child to preserve his or her identity, including nationality, name and family relations as recognized by law without unlawful interference (Article 8, CRC),*

(2) ***The Parties undertake*** *to recognise that every person belonging to a national minority has the right to use his or her surname (patronym) and first names in the minority language and the right to official recognition of them, according to modalities provided for in their legal system (Article 11 (1), PCPNM).*

The first type of direct commissives can be explicated by the following formula: ILD Addresser = ILD Addressee + commissive IFID + propositional (informative) part.

It slightly varies for the second type of acts in its propositional component, i.e. by including lexical-semantic and syntactic hedges that reduce the illocutionary force of commissive obligations: ILD Addresser = ILD Addressee + commissive IFID + propositional (informative) part with lexical-semantic and syntactic hedges that reduce the illocutionary force of commissive obligations.

As this research deals with de-intensified modality, which is also distinguished by different degrees of 'strength', it makes sense to go straight to the analysis of modality, based on the second type of direct commissives.

The propositional part of the act contains modality markers based on hedged direct commissives and, therefore, they do not change their illocutionary force. Not transforming the direct commissive into an indirect one, such markers, nevertheless, weaken the commissive illocutionary force and the associated deontic modality. Among such means, the paper identified several: (i) hedges, (ii) means of generalization, (iii) mitigation, (iv) passivation, (v) objectification, (vi) marked theme, and (vii) nominalization as in (3), (4), (5), for instance.

(3) With regard to economic, social and cultural rights, each State Party undertakes to take measures *to the maximum of its available resources* and, *where needed,* within the framework of international cooperation, with a view to achieving *progressively* the full realization of these rights (…) (Article 4 (2), CRPD),

(4) The Parties, with a view to the reduction and eventual elimination of doping in sport, undertake, *within the limits of their respective constitutional provisions*, *to take the steps* necessary to apply the provisions of this Convention (Article 1, ADC), and

(5) States Parties undertake to make the principles and provisions of the Convention widely known, *by appropriate and active means*, to adults and children alike (Article 42, CRC).

In the above acts, the markers of weakening the commissive illocution, affecting the de-intensification of the ILD deontic modality, include a set of de-intensifiers. First, these are hedge structures – both punctuated parenthetical constructions and semantic hedges, different in scope and structural complexity: *to the maximum of its available resources*; *where needed; where necessary*, *within the limits of their respective constitutional provisions*. Such structures provide an implicit possibility of alternative compliance / non-compliance with the undertaken commitments, especially in the absence of the circumstances specified in the hedge (*where needed; where necessary*). Therefore, hedge structures introduce into the commissive-based deontic modality contextual connotations of permissive modality (imply the possibility of non-compliance with requirements) and dynamic modality (the execution of an action under certain circumstances), de-intensifying the core modality meaning.

Accordingly, the degree of alternativeness increases, and, on the contrary, the degree of the binding force of the document decreases. Idiomatically hedged acts, which de-intensify commissive illocutionary force although they are an integral feature of any international document, include *as far as possible and within the framework of…; taking into account…; where appropriate, where relevant, as appropriate*, etc.

Another group of devices, scaling down the strength of commissive illocutionary force and its associating deontic modality of commitments, includes the means of generalization, based on vague semantics of words and/or idioms. In particular, in (3), the adverbial modifier *progressively* (with a view to achieving *progressively* the full realization of these rights) due to its denotative, ontological seme ‘gradually’ (Cambridge Dictionary) presupposes the gradualness of the realization of rights in “blurring” unspecified chronotopic framework. An additional marker of generalization in the given local context is the gerund achieving (*progressively)* - as a means of nominalization, structurally complicating a phrase and, accordingly, distancing the subject of the phrase from the “promised” actions.

Generalized semantics with a wide range of vague meanings is also characteristic of the idioms *to take the steps* in (4), *by appropriate and active means* in (5), etc.

Such “general phrases”, on the one hand, refer to the peculiarities of the implementation of norms, and on the other hand, their vague conceptual scope negates their function as an action modifier: rather than indicating how an obligation is being fulfilled, they perform the opposite function of somewhat detaching subjects from the action, thereby softening the deontic modality.

De-intensification of commissive illocutionary force is often carried out by a complex use of mitigating means, centered in the propositional part, i.e. nominalization, passivation, hedges, formal-structural complications, including repetition and semantic redundancy, abstract words and idioms with “vague” denotatum as exemplified by (7) and Table 2.

TABLE 2
ILLOCUTIONARY FORCE DE-INTENSIFIERS IN HEDGED DIRECT COMMISSIVES

(7) The Heads of State and Government of Latin America and the Caribbean (…) (5) Commit to develop and / or strengthen policies and programs aimed at preventing and fighting corruption in their respective countries and promoting the exchange of information and best practices in preventing and fighting corruption with the objective of evaluating the possibility to be recognized and incorporated by country members of CELAC, according to their practices and respecting the laws of each country (SDTFC)	
De-intensifier	Example
Nominalization (gerund)	*(aimed) at preventing and fighting; promoting; in preventing and fighting; of evaluating*
Passivation	*to be recognized and incorporated*
Extended hedge	*according to their practices and respecting the laws of each country*
Mitigator	*(of evaluating) the possibility*
Generalization: idiom with “vague” denotatum	*best practices*

All above means “distancing” of phrase subjects from their own actions, associated with self-obligations on the document, which results in mitigating its deontic modality. The correlation between the structural complication and length of the utterances, which “iconically” distances the subjects from their commitments, was specified by both critical discourse analysis of ideological discourses (Fairclough, 2003) and some pragmatic research (Kravchenko & Zhykharieva, 2020). The accumulation of devices, implicitly reducing the responsibility of the subject for their own

commitments also correlates with the concept of non-preferential speech moves in conversational analysis (Heinrichsmeier, 2020; Kravchenko & Zhykharieva, 2020; Kravchenko & Blidchenko-Naiko, 2020; Pomerantz, 1984). Such moves iconically reproduce the delicacy of the situation: the more complex / delicate the designated situation is, the more structurally complex is the utterance denoting it.

In the projection on the International Legal Discourse, such a correlation can be formulated as follows: lexically and grammatically complex propositional part of the acts reflects the difficulties in reaching consensus between the parties to the document at the stage of document discussion. On the other hand, de-intensifiers can also be considered the means of negative politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987) as the politeness, which "distances and reduces "pressure" on the addressee - implementer of the norms" (as indicated in 3.1, the addressee of ILD coincides with its addresser, forming the category of a generalized communicator). Structural complications, generalization, etc. correlate with strategies of negative politeness of non-imposition strategies, for instance, use of hedging, minimization in the degree of pressure and coercion, and nominalization of the statement.

C. Indirect Commissives: Volitive / Epistemic vs. Deontic Modalities

The next on the scale of weakening the deontic modality are ranked indirect commissives, which modify the basic formula of commitment in two variants:

(a) performative part [Addresser = Addressee < marker of expressive illocutionary force / markers of felicity condition of sincerity for commissives] + propositional part [markers of other felicity conditions for commissives];

(b) performative part [Addresser = Addressee < marker of assertive illocutionary force] + propositional part + contextual "register" actualizers of commissive illocutionary force.

In the first case, the bicomponent expressive-commissive illocution underpins the intersection of the volitive and deontic modality. In the second case, the assertive-commissive illocutionary force underlies the correlation of epistemic and deontic modalities, which in any case weakens the obligative modality and legal force of the document.

The most common marker of indirect commissive is the coordination of a phrase subject - the pronoun *We*, which nominates the Parties to the document, with a verb or other words that do not contain the denotative seme of "commitment", but contextually connotate it in a local or wide context of the international document.

Let us analyze the speech act of the indirect commissive, which represents the first version of the model - with a marker of expressive illocutionary force in the "right" part of the act.

(8) ***We are determined to:*** 22. *Intensify efforts and actions to achieve* (…); 24. *Take all necessary measures to eliminate* (…) *and remove*; 25. *Encourage*; 26. *Promote* (…). 27. *Promote* (…); 28. *Take positive steps to ensure* (…) (BD).

On the one hand, definitions of the adjective *determined* in Cambridge dictionary points to such connotative semes as *strong* (desire) and *very much:* wanting to do something *very much*; showing the *strong desire* to follow a particular plan of action even if it is difficult. As these semes are associated with the maximum degree of desire / wish, they mark an expressive illocutionary act and its corresponding volitional modality.

On the other hand, the above speech act also contains commissive illocutionary force, which puts it in the category of indirect commissive. First, the utterance matches the world-to-words direction of fit, i.e. the speaker wants the world to be changed to fit his / her words, which is typical for directives and commissives and is not inherent to expressive speech acts.

Second, the speech act satisfies a set of felicity conditions for the commissives, i.e. (a) the propositional content condition as it focuses on acting in the future that is evident in the "left" informative part of the act; (b) sincerity condition as an intention to perform the action. In the latter case, the sincerity condition is indexed by an adjective "determined"; (c) essential condition: addresser intends to make addressees recognize that the utterance counts as a wish that certain action be done. The essential condition is supported by both verbal expression "to be determined to…" and infinitives of propositional part, explicating the ways of realizing the commitment: ***Intensify efforts and actions to achieve the goals*** *of*; ***Take all necessary measures to*** *(…),* etc.

The same two-intentional speech act with implicit commissive illocutionary force is presented in (9):

(9) ***We reaffirm our commitment to:*** *(…) 9. Ensure the full implementation of the human rights of women and of the girl child as an inalienable, integral and indivisible part of all human rights and fundamental freedoms; 10. Build on consensus and progress (BD).*

Expressive illocutionary point is marked by conventional connotative seme *emotionally impelled* in the componential structure of the meaning *commitment* (the state or an instance of being obligated or ***emotionally impelled*** - CD). At the same time, rather than making words fit the world or feeling, which is typical of expressives, the Addresser intends to make the world fit the words. Such world-to-word direction of fit is expressed by propositional content of the speech act - its infinitives, specifying the Parties' commitments to some future course of action, and points to commissive speech acts, underpinning deontic modality of the document.

In addition, the above speech act falls into the class of implicit commissives as it also satisfies the Essential felicity condition for this class of illocutionary acts, if to base on Austin's definition of commissives, i.e. assuming of an obligation or ***declaring of an intention*** (Austin, 1962, pp. 151-163). Both the illocutionary and propositional parts of the act confirm the illocutionary point of "declared intention". Moreover, the former, due to their "high style" stylistics,

equalize the meanings of the verbs "reaffirm" and "declare" as contextual synonyms, and at the same time, convey the seme "intention" using infinitives, which denote the intended actions of the Addressee.

In (8) and (9) both the expressive illocutionary force and the sincerity felicity conditions for commissives are marked by the same means – the words with the seme of emotions, feelings, exaggerated intensification, as well as the grapho-stylistic marker of highlighting the illocutionary part in bold.

At the same time, the fact that such utterances are implicit commissives is evidenced by other felicity conditions they satisfy, i.e. essential condition and preparatory ability condition, presupposed by the status of the parties, implicated under "we" as the sovereign agent of the document implementation, as well as world-to-word direction of fit indicative of a commissive illocutionary point.

Accordingly, in the multi-intentional indirect acts, combining both expressive and commissive illocutionary forces, the formation of discourse is provided not only by the volitional modality associated with the expressives, but also by the commissive-based deontic modality, albeit de-intensive.

Indirect commissives may also be conveyed under the formal-structural arrangement of assertive acts as in (10) and (11).

(10) *The Parties* ***recognize*** *that comprehensive non-price measures are an effective and important means of reducing tobacco consumption* (Article 7, FCTC)

(11) *States Parties* ***recognize*** *the rights of the child to freedom of association and to freedom of peaceful assembly* (Article 4, CRC).

(12) *States Parties* ***agree*** *that the education of the child shall be directed to:* (Article 21 (1), CRC).

Assertive illocutionary force in the above acts is primarily associated with factitive presuppositions based on the factitive verbs ***recognize*** and *agree*, which imply that their object (the complement) is true. Such meaning of presupposition constitutes the essential felicity condition for direct assertives (Kravchenko, 2017). In addition to the factitive verbs, such an illocutionary marker as a declarative type of a sentence suggests the assertives.

At the same time, the illocutionary force of the indirect commissive is indicated by the nomination of the parties to the document, which is a structural part of the commissive performative formula, as well as presuppositions, association with the "register" of international legal documents. That relates, in particular, to the below:

(a) A speech act is a part of legal discourse, where the "complement" part of the act relates to normative provision presupposing their implementors, and

(b) Implementors are the parties to the document, which are vested with sovereign power, that is, the very fact of their participation in the document presupposes their subsequent actions to implement it in one way or another.

Maximum de-intensification of deontic modality is provided by the use of indirect implicit commissives and hedged indirect implied commissives, which, respectively, rank at the penultimate and last levels of the scale of mandatory deontic modality.

Indirect implicit commissives fit the following formula:

Implicit performative part [Action object / patient < illocutionary marker of indirect commitment / obligation] + propositional part [contextual markers of felicity conditions for commissives] as in (13) and (14):

(13) ***Strong political commitment is necessary*** *to develop and support, at the national, regional, and international levels, comprehensive multisectoral measures and coordinated responses (*Article 4 (2), FCTC),

(14) ***Tolerance*** *at the State level* ***requires*** *just and impartial legislation, law enforcement and judicial and administrative process* (Article 2 (2.1), DPT).

The main difference between implicit commissives and indirect commissives is that in the former the subject of the action responsible for the undertaken commitments, is excluded from its own discourse. Accordingly, the place of the phrase subject is "occupied" by the object (patient), to which the legal actions of the actual "excluded" subject should be directed: *political commitment, tolerance*. As a result, the utterance takes the form of an affirmation, statement, etc., expressing the intention to "fit the world to words", which is characteristic of the assertive illocutionary force and the epistemic modality of the speaker's confidence in the communicated message. Commissive illocutionary force is marked with predicates, that contain the semes of "necessity" and "requirement", which altogether only indirectly refers to the obligations assumed by the participating States.

The minimum intensity of commissive illocution and their associated deontic modality is conveyed by speech acts, which contain in their implied performative part the meaning of "obligation", being then scaled down in the propositional part by the markers such as a passive state, nominalization, and a compound predicate with no nomination of the subject-performer as a phrase subject.

(15) For this purpose, ***the child shall*** *in particular* ***be provided*** *the opportunity* ***to be heard*** *in any judicial and administrative proceedings affecting the child, either directly, or through a representative or an appropriate body,* ***in a manner consistent with the procedural rules of national law*** (Article 12 (2), CRC) – passivation, hedge structure, the patient as a phrase subject;

(16) *The exercise of this right* ***may be subject*** *to certain restrictions,* ***but these shall only be such as are provided by law and are necessary****:*

(a) ***For respect of the rights or reputations of others****; or*

(b) ***For the protection of national security or of public order (ordre public), or of public health or morals*** (Article 13 (2), CRC) – modal verb of possibility, one-word hedge (*only*), extended multicomponent hedge (in bold).

VI. Conclusion

The article examines the controversial problem of the correlation between discursive modality and illocutionary force - with substantiating variations in illocutionary force as a pragmatic basis for the scale-paradigm of deontic modality, influencing the binding force of international instruments. Based on the theoretical premises about discursive functions of speech acts and modality, their gradual nature and facets of correlation, the paper has reached the main findings about the classes of commissives in ILD, differently affecting the deontic modality.

Guided by the criterion of explicitness and implicitness in the markers of illocutionary force, as well as their localization in performative or propositional part, the paper categorizes five classes of commissives: direct commissives, hedged direct commissives, indirect commissives, indirect implied commissives, hedged indirect implied commissives.

Hedged direct commissives preserve the performative verbs of self-commitment in their illocutionary part, while they contain the markers of de-intensification of illocutionary force in the propositional part. Such acts remain direct though with a weakened degree of strength, affecting a decrease in binding deontic modality of the documents in ILD. Illocutionary force de-intensifiers include hedge structures, different in scope and structural complexity, nominalization and means of generalization, based on semantically vague words or idioms, which negate their function as an action modifier, thus, scaling down the strength of commissive illocutionary force and its associating deontic modality of commitments.

Indirect commissives in ILD are illocutionary bicomponent acts, combining either expressive-commissive or assertive-commissive illocutionary forces. They are based on an incomplete part of the performative formula, which includes the nomination of the parties to the document, coordinated with expressive or assertive IFID.

Indirect commissives are identified in variants that further weaken the commissive illocutionary force and deontic modality, such as indirect implied and hedged indirect implied commissives, ranked at the penultimate and last levels of the scale in the mandatory deontic modality. Both classes of indirect implied commissives are deprived of the phrase subject, that designates the subject of the action, responsible for the undertaken commitments, although the latter are indirectly referred to by predicates with the semes of "necessity" and "requirement".

Hedged indirect implied commissives additionally scale down the commissive deontic modality by incorporating in its propositional part the passive structures, nominalization, hedges, generalization, and other markers of de-intensification.

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Clarifying Learner Englishes From Greater China Using Native Language Identification — A Pilot Study

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***Abstract*—The purpose of this paper is to identify the characteristics of learner Englishes from the three major regions of Greater China, namely, Mainland China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan. To achieve this aim, a comparative study is conducted into the three learner Englishes via Native Language Identification (NLI). The average identification accuracy yielded in this study is 60 % on spoken monologues and 59.8 % on written essays. With these two satisfactory accuracies, this paper profiles the three learner Englishes by probing into their best-identifying indicators. The results show that learner English from Mainland China are characteristic for high degree of collectivistic involvement and uncertainty, low informativeness, and underuse of conjunctions; learner English from HKG is highly informative and impersonal; the two types of learner English from Taiwan are similar in that they share an individualistically involved style but differ in that the English essays by Taiwan L2 learners are found to be high on uncertainty and negation but low on informativeness and the usage of conjunctions..**

***Index Terms*—learner English, greater China, native language identification, spoken monologue, written essays**

I. Introduction

The integration of Greater China (i.e., mainland China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, and Macau) into globalization in the last two centuries has witnessed the exponential growth of English-language learners in this area. The penetration of English in the societies of Greater China is shown by the unprecedented passion of people to learn English (Feng, 2012), and as a result, learner English of L1 Chinese has received enormous attention from Chinese and international researchers. It must be admitted that plenty of current research focusing on learner Englishes from the different areas of Greater China is comprehensive and illuminating. There still are two major research voids waiting for filling.

The first void is that the research regarding L1 Chinese learners English appears to be fragmented despite the fact that learners share the same first language (L1) and cultural background and that the three major regions of Greater China (viz. Mainland China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan) are geographically close to each other. The majority of the learner English research which claims to be Chinese-targeted, is more likely mainland Chinese-centered, while researchers from Hong Kong or Taiwan often put particular concerns on learners from the region where they originate. Although a separate analysis could offer a more in-depth look, it might not be able to distinguish whether one linguistic phenomenon is shared by learners from other regions or not. Their similarities and differences thus remain unclear.

The second void lies in the fact that in learner English corpus research, corpus linguists invariably construct separate corpora for the three regions with no substantial linguistic evidence offered for doing such a division. Indeed, the societies of the three regions are "hugely different" (Feng, 2012, p.363) and their language policy, planning and pedagogical implementation therefore also show great discrepancies (Crystal, 2011). For English-language learners from mainland China and Taiwan, English is a foreign language (EFL) mostly spoken and learned in the classroom, while in Hong Kong, English is a second language (ESL) and serves as an official language other than Chinese. Another major difference regarding language is that Greater China is diversified in terms of dialects: Putonghua (or Mandarin) is vastly spoken in both Mainland and Taiwan while in Hong Kong, Cantonese, one major dialect of Chinese that is hardly intelligible to people from the other two regions, prevails among the local inhabitants. This study therefore hopes to provide some linguistic evidence for doing the division.

Given the above research voids, the present study is dedicated to profiling the learner Englishes (both written and spoken) from three regions of Greater China by employing Native Language Identification (NLI).

II. NLI and Learner Language Study

NLI refers to "the task of automatically identifying the first language of a language user based on the person's production of the target language" (Jarvis & Paquot, 2015, p.605). Its identification function is achieved through categorizing the certain traits transferred from a language user's mother tongue in his or her target language productions. The emergence of NLI is motivated by the need for solving a variety of practical issues. One of the major benefits

brought by NLI is that it offers an essential method for mining the information about the authorship of a text produced by an anonymous author, which is crucial for countering security threats in real life (Koppel et al., 2005), especially in today's world where cybercrimes become increasingly covert. Another primary application of NLI is that it can enhance the robustness of NLP tools and techniques on performing tasks that might be related with non-native English varieties, including parsing, speech recognition, and information extraction as currently a notable of NLP tools and techniques are designed solely based on native speaker data (Jarvis & Paquot, 2015).

Since NLI is guided by the theory of language transfer in SLA research, detecting L2 learners' mother tongue might offer pedagogical insights for language learning and teaching (Malmasi, 2016). According to the transfer theory, there are roughly two types of transfer - positive transfer and positive transfer, with the former being the transfer of L1 that might boosts L2 learning and the latter as the transfer that might hinder or pose difficulties for language learning. Adopting NLI into pedagogical settings thus could provide certain feedbacks, especially on the negative transfer for L2 learners and educators. For example, fossilization, a typical learner language phenomenon that might be amplified by negative L1 transfer (Tarone, 2012), can be further determined through NLI conducted between different learner groups from varied L1s. Also, NLI can contribute to the SLA theory building (Jarvis & Paquot, 2015) and Forensic Linguistic studies (Perkins, 2015).

So far, English has dominated the NLI research, which is not surprising at all given that English is the lingua franca of the world. However, such a situation is under changing recently due to the increasing international migration and the consequent need for learning or acquiring other languages. Malmasi and Dras (2014c) use a Finnish learner corpus which is composed of L2 Finnish writings by learners from 9 L1s to determine the availabilities of the NLI techniques which are developed based on L2 English in the context of Finnish. They achieve a 69.5 % accuracy against the baseline of 20% in predicting learners' L1 and 97 % in distinguishing non-native from native writings. In their another study on Chinese learner corpus (Malmasi & Dras, 2014b), they find that the models using part-of-speech tags, context-free grammar production rules, and function words identify Chinese L2 learners from 11 L1s with 71 % accuracy and the same models can also achieve a similar accuracy on English L2 learners. Other major NLI research that deals with non-English language learners' production includes Malmasi and Dras (2014a) on Arabic, del Río et al. (2018) on Portuguese, Malmasi et al. (2015) on Norwegian, to name but a few.

It might be arguable, however, that NLI, in theory, targets at L2 learner groups with varied L1 backgrounds, whereas the three L2 learner groups chosen in this study share the same mother tongue and cultural background. The consideration for this study not to follow prior NLI research is that it is the classification mechanism of NLI instead of its theoretical framework that is adopted. To be more specific, in common NLI research L2 learner groups from various L1 backgrounds are assumed to be distinctive to each other by default and the reached results are termed as the traits left by corresponding L2 learner's L1 regardless of the fact that L2 learners' target language productions, in addition to L1, are also subject to influences of other factors including, but not limited to, social context (Tarone, 2007), target language environment (Håkansson & Norrby, 2010), language varieties of L1 (Nisioi, 2015). Similarly, this study, with the assumption that the three learner Englishes from Greater China are distinct to each other, attempts to investigate the extent to which they can be distinguished and what the most discriminative features are.

TABLE 1
SELECTED CORPORA

L2 Corpus	Register	Document
Mainland China	Spoken	200
	Written	200
Taiwan	Spoken	200
	Written	200
Hong Kong	Spoken	200
	Written	200
Singapore	Spoken	200
	Written	200
Japan	Spoken	200
	Written	200
Native English speaker	Spoken	200
	Written	200
Total		2400

III. CORPUS AND METHOD

The present study is conducted based on the texts extracted from the International Corpus Network of Asian Learners of English (ICNALE hereinafter) - a corpus developed by Ishikawa (2013, p.91) for "a contrastive interlanguage analysis of varied English-language learners in Asia". This corpus consists of both spoken and written data which are collected under well-controlled conditions, including prompts, speaking or writing time, genres, and so forth. The

newest version of ICNALE (until August 2019) contains 15160 texts produced by English-language learners at college level from 11 Asian countries or regions and 370 texts by native English speakers from UK, Australia, US, and New Zealand. There are four modules in ICANLE: Spoken Monologue, Spoken Dialogue, written essays, and edited essays. In this study, the Spoken Dialogue module and Edited Essays module are ruled out due to their limited number of texts (425 and 640) in comparison with the other two modules. Out of the extracted texts from the Spoken Monologue module and Written Essay module of ICNALE, six corpora are built, namely, mainland China (CHN), Taiwan (TWN), Hong Kong (HKG), Singapore (SIN), Japan (JPN) and native English speakers (ENS). The later three subsets are chosen to provide references for the former three subsets since they represent respectively three different types of English status: English as second language (ESL), English as foreign language (EFL), and English as native language (ENL). Each corpus consists of 200 spoken monologue texts and 200 written essays that are randomly selected from corresponding corpus of ICNALE (See Table 1).

TABLE 2
SELECTED INDICES

Statistical Indices	Average number and rate of tokens and lemmas. Average length and number of sentences.
Morphologic Indices	Average number and rate of unknown words, verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, connectives, number words, proper words, singular 1st person pronouns, 1st person plural pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, past and present tenses, and punctuations.
Syntactic Indices	Average number and rate of active and passive subjects and objects. Average number and rate of attributives, adverbials and coordinations.
Semantic Indices	Average number and rate of uncertain words, negation words, epistemic modals, investigation words, weasel words and peacock words. Average number and rate of emotional words including joy, fear, sorrow, anger, positive, negative. Average number and rate of content words, function words, private verbs, public verbs and suasive verbs.

There were two steps carried on in this study. The first was to perform a NLI experiment to determine the extent to which the English corpora from the three regions of Greater China can be identified. UDpipe developed by Straka and Straková (2017) was applied to conduct POS tagging on the 12 chosen corpora (6 spoken corpora and 6 written corpora). In total, 85 linguistic indices that can be divided into statistical, morphological, syntactic and semantic categories were used (See Table 2). Once the corpora were tagged, a SVM model (Cortes & Vapnik, 1995) was selected to train the language data on Weka 3.8.4 (Hall et al., 2009) under the conditions of Weka's default settings and ten-fold cross-validation. It is expected that after this step, the identification accuracies of the investigated corpora can be obtained.

Considering that the starting point of this study is to profile the three learner Englishes from Greater China, the second step focused on features that contribute most to the discriminations of the corpora, by which the three corpora were profiled. This step was implemented through calculating ANOVA F-scores for the 85 investigated indices from each corpus once the corpora were confirmed to be effectively identified. The calculation of ANOVA F-scores was undertaken between the corpus in discussing and a reference corpus that is comprised of the rest corpora. The statistically significant features from each corpus were then retained for an in-depth discussion.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 3 summarizes the identification results of the corpora investigated in this study. It can be seen that the average identification accuracies of spoken and written corpora are both around 60% - an accuracy that is well above the baseline of 16.67%, indicating that the corpora can be effectively classified. Besides, it should be noted in particular that although the identification accuracies of the three learner Englishes from Greater China appear to be relatively low, they in fact can be higher if the reference corpora (i.e., ENS, JPN and SIN) are removed. In sum, it is safe to say that the three learner Englishes are distinctive to each other.

TABLE 3
IDENTIFICATION ACCURACY

	Spoken			Written		
Corpus	Precision	Recall	F-score	Precision	Recall	F-score
CHN	0.614	0.580	0.596	0.507	0.525	0.516
ENS	0.597	0.583	0.583	0.757	0.725	0.738
HKG	0.477	0.474	0.474	0.505	0.550	0.526
JPN	0.743	0.754	0.754	0.697	0.770	0.732
SIN	0.610	0.610	0.610	0.600	0.600	0.600
TWN	0.562	0.610	0.585	0.528	0.425	0.471
Average	0.600	0.601	0.600	0.598	0.599	0.597

Given that the three learner Englishes from Greater China can be correctly identified with relatively satisfactory accuracies, it is necessary find out the major features that primarily contribute to the classification of the three groups. The present study conducts ANOVA F-score calculations for each significant feature ($p<0.05$) from each corpus. Due to the limited space, only the top 15 significant indices from each corpus are selected and discussed.

A. Spoken Monologue

This section is to profile the characteristics of monologues included in the three corpora from Greater China based on the indices proven to be statistically significant for identifying corresponding corpora. In the following part, the frequency information of the statistically significant indices from each corpus is compared and discussed in detail. In addition, to make findings more reliable, indices with ratio values are focused given that the corpora investigated vary considerably with respect to average monologue length (*Mean = 119, SD = 31.2*).

1. Mainland China

The best indicator for CHN is associated with two indices related to 1st person plural pronouns (Pl1PronNum & Pl1PronRate). As Table 4 shows, learners from CHN use Pl1Prons far more frequently than other learners/native speakers of English, suggesting that they prefer a highly involved style and tend to think and speak from a collective perspective. Besides, the overuse of Pl1Prons is found to be persistent in CHN across proficiency-levels. Scrutiny of the monologue texts from CHN shows that upper-level learners even use more Pl1Prons: 1.52 (per 100 words) for A2 learners, 2.0 for B1 learners, 1.96 for B1_2 learners, and 2.86 for B2 learners.

TABLE 4
TOP 15 INDICATORS FOR CHN (SPOKEN MONOLOGUE)

Rank	Feature	F-score	CHN	ENS	HKG	TWN	JPN	SIN
1	Punct	143.14	**24.550**	20.870	18.580	14.880	12.460	18.080
2	Pl1PronNum	97.32	**2.915**	0.505	1.160	1.135	1.515	0.850
3	Pl1PronRate	90.02	**0.212**	0.023	0.064	0.087	0.185	0.041
4	ConjRate	54.43	**0.066**	0.080	0.084	0.077	0.079	0.087
5	ConjNum	52.81	**7.295**	12.710	10.760	7.370	5.340	13.180
6	UncertainRate	30.90	**0.014**	0.008	0.010	0.011	0.008	0.007
7	PresentNum	30.57	**5.270**	9.080	6.475	5.920	4.500	7.990
8	VerbNum	29.29	**14.275**	22.840	17.770	14.255	9.975	20.51
9	PeacockRate	29.25	**0.129**	0.142	0.138	0.151	0.147	0.135
10	AdverbNum	25.74	**8.315**	13.990	10.465	8.055	5.680	14.545
11	AdvNum	24.63	**7.515**	12.465	9.975	6.920	4.650	14.285
12	UncertainNum	21.89	**1.530**	1.285	1.245	0.980	0.580	1.115
13	WeaselRate	18.92	**0.113**	0.102	0.106	0.106	0.084	0.102
14	AdjRate	17.43	**0.067**	0.059	0.058	0.054	0.062	0.062
15	DemPronNum	16.10	**0.385**	0.745	0.640	0.290	0.735	0.930

The massive use of Pl1Pron in CHN might be a carefully designed speaking technique for increasing the persuasion of the statement. Both *I* and *we* are categorized as ego-involvement (Chafe, 1985), with the difference that the first one is ubiquitously "referring to the speaker/writer" (Biber et al., 2007, p.93) while the latter one includes both the speaker/writer and the addressees. *We* is shown to be a powerful linguistic device to establish the group identity (Íñigo-Mora, 2004) by involving the speaker and the addresses together. As can be seen from the following text, apart from the first sentence where the author uses 1st person singular pronoun to highlight his/her central opinion, the rest part of the whole monologue is switched to a collective angle. The speaker seems to use 1st person plural pronouns to shorten his/her distance to the possible listeners, thus creating an impression to the possible addressees that the central topic is associated with not only his/her warfare but also theirs.

> *I agree that it's important for college students to have a part-time job. The reasons are as follows. First, have a part – having a part-time job can help a – help us earn some money by our own which can share some economic burden with our parents and, uh, if we have some money of our own we can spend – spend the extra and something we – well, like we haven't something that's generally or buy something we wish to. Second, we can get prepared for entering the society after we graduate from the university. We want to be more experienced. (SM_CHN_PTJ1_088_B2_0)*

An alternative possibility is the influence by the unique social system of Mainland China. It should be noted that societies of Mainland China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Singapore, and Japan are shown to be preferring a collective pattern (Hofstede, 1984; Dadkhah et al., 1999). Given that learners from Hong Kong and Taiwan share the same culture and L1 background with those from Mainland China and that there is a strong relationship between collectivism and socialism, the abnormally frequent 1st person plural pronouns in CHN might be ascribed to the unique social ideology of Mainland China, i.e., the ideology of socialism strengthens the collectivistic sense of the English-language learners from mainland China, resulting in their heavy use of plural 1st person pronouns.

The next best indicators for CHN are two indices of Conjunction (ConjRate & ConjNum). Different from Pl1Pron, conjunctions in CHN occur infrequently in comparison with other corpora. This contradicts Liu and Miao's (2011) finding that Chinese students appear to overuse connectives in their oral English. To take the casual conjunction because as an example, L2 learners from CHN seem to be underusing because when expressing a causal relationship in their monologues. In the two hundred texts of CHN, only 109 are found while this number is 205 in ENS, 275 in HKG, 161 in TWN, 180 in JPN and 305 in SIN.

Other indicators that are worth noting in Table 4 are three indices related to uncertainty, including UncertainRate, PeacockRate and WeaselRate. The three types of indices are discussed together here as they both can be used to mark

the uncertain epidemic stance of language users (Vincze, 2013), especially when referring to a piece of unknown or vague information. The frequent uncertainty-related words in CHN may demonstrate that English learners from Mainland China tend to produce ambiguous information regarding the prompts compared with learners from other groups. The low uncertainty of learners from CHN can be partly observed from the above text that is cited for the discussion of *we*. In this text, the author seems to favor the use of hedge *can* and weasel words *some* and *something*.

2. Hong Kong

Table 5 shows that statistical indices are the most effective indicators for detecting monologue texts of HKG. We can see that HKG stands out with its long SentenceLength (this feature is included here as it is not directly affected by the length of monologue) and high TokenRate (per sentence). This might reflect the high informativeness of the monologue texts from HKG. The high ratios of coordination (CoordRate), condition clause (ConditionRate), conjunction (ConjRate) in HKG also reinforce the above argument since in English those features are commonly used for packing information. AttRate (attributive rate) is another indicator that is relevant to the high informativeness of monologues of HKG given that its major function is to add extra information to a linguistic form that is being modified. High ratios of passive subjects (PassiveSubjRate & PassiveSubjNum), and objects (ObjRate), but low ratios of 1st person singular pronouns (Sg1PronRate) and general personal pronouns (PronRate) indicate that HKG, in comparison with the other corpora, display an impersonal and low author-involved style.

TABLE 5
TOP 15 INDICATORS FOR HKG (SPOKEN MONOLOGUE)

Rank	Feature	F-score	CHN	HKG	TWN	JPN	SIN	ENS
1	SentenceLength	48.89	23.19	**33.96**	29.51	16.99	30.04	26.03
2	TokenRate	46.64	28.32	**38.77**	33.92	19.96	33.51	29.34
3	AttRate	43.26	0.91	**1.25**	0.76	0.61	1.12	0.893
4	PassiveSubjRate	34.29	0.04	**0.12**	0.04	0.05	0.08	0.05
5	ObjRate	27.25	1.48	**2.00**	1.92	1.01	1.59	1.41
6	NounNum	23.46	22.80	**26.89**	18.76	16.14	30.21	29.90
7	LemmaNum	22.58	61.31	**70.44**	53.71	42.03	81.40	80.87
8	ConjNum	19.34	7.30	**10.76**	7.37	5.34	13.18	12.71
9	Sg1PronRate	18.44	0.20	**0.16**	0.31	0.30	0.14	0.21
10	SentenceNum	18.37	5.78	**4.66**	4.20	4.70	5.57	6.82
11	SubjNum	17.99	12.52	**13.84**	12.35	9.20	15.81	18.83
12	PronRate	16.83	0.13	**0.12**	0.15	0.14	0.12	0.14
13	PassiveSubjNum	16.68	0.22	**0.47**	0.16	0.20	0.44	0.35
14	ConditionNum	16.04	0.84	**1.39**	0.65	0.26	1.89	1.37
15	CoordRate*	14.06	1.14	**1.53**	1.52	0.89	1.22	1.22

The most noticeable feature of the monologue text below is the long sentences with low repetition (compared with monologue text cited in Mainland China section): the author expresses his/her 157-words-long opinion towards the topic "*to ban smoking in the public place*" within only four sentences by using coordinate and, conditional if and conjunction but. Besides, compared with the texts cited in the "Mainland China" section, the author, in stating the supporting arguments, seems to favor an impersonal and objective tone. As can be seen from the text, the author only uses I once to express his/her claim, whereas in the rest of the monologue, s/he makes heavy use of inanimate subjects (*cigarette*, *smoking*, *the government*, *other crimes*, etc) or animate subjects with no specific referents (*some people*, *people*, *no one*, *the public,* etc). Moreover, the author is prone to using passive voice without concerning the negative effect brought by the repeated expressions though there are alternative options, for example, active voice. As can be seen from the text, the author uses the same passive construction three times with minor alteration (*smoking should be completely banned*, *if smoking is completely banned and smoking cannot be completely banned*). In general, the author speaks the way s/he writes since even if we remove the repetitions and pauses, the monologue text still will be a traditional informational argumentative essay.

> *These days some people say that smoking should be completely banned at all restaurants in country, and I disapprove with this statement. First of all, cigarette is a part of the tax income of the government; if smoking is completely banned people may somehow see – uh – may still smoke secretly and they will try to buy the cigarette from the black market, and therefore the government may – uh – gain a less – uh – tax income and also there will be – uh – other crimes rising. Apart from that also smoking is one of the source of the poor air quality – to the air pollution and it may also cause damage to our health, but there is no right for the government to deprive people from – uh – smoking. It is the right of the public to choose their own habits and no one can stop them from this one right, and for smoking cannot be completely banned at all public.... (SM_HKG_SMK2_032_B1_2)*

The high informativeness in HKG is likely due to the influence of learners' high language proficiency as it is not surprising that advanced learners are more capable of making long and informative sentences, which, to some extent, can only be achieved on the basis of mastering certain degree of the target language. Moreover, the low rate of pronouns of HKG can be explained in the same vein. Pronouns are learnt at an early stage and massively utilized in daily communication. Advanced learners might be motivated to replace these early adopted lexicons to avoid repetition

when they have alternatives. For the salient impersonal and informative style manifested by low frequency of pronouns, learners from Hong Kong might ignore the spoken nature of monologue and mix it with argumentative writing. As a matter of fact, Hong Kong learners have long been proved to prefer low impersonality, especially in writing, which has been documented and criticized by Hyland (2002a & 2002b). The monologue text cited above, to some extent, highlights that the author transplants the ways of composing argumentative writing into performing monologue.

3. Taiwan

The monologues contained in TWN are relatively short. In Table 6, TWN and JPN, two corpora that are close in terms of average monologue length (69.42 for TWN, 58.14 for JPN), are quite similar on a number of indicators but are distinct from the other corpora which contains longer monologues, implying that pure frequencies are severely skewed by monologue length. Therefore, the discussion to Taiwan spoken monologues excludes AttNum, NounNum, AdjNum, HedgeNum, ConjNum, AdvNum, Punct, AdvNum, AdverbNum, WeaselNum, DemPronNum, VerbNum and EpitemicNum though they appear in the forefront of the top 15 indices of TWN, and concentrates on indicators with ratio values, viz, PronRate (pronoun rate), Sg1PronRate (1st person singular pronoun rate), SubjRate (active subject rate), and PrivateVerbRate (private verb rate).

TABLE 6
TOP 15 INDICATORS FOR TWN (SPOKEN MONOLOGUE)

Rank	Feature	F-score	CHN	HKG	TWN	JPN	SIN	ENS
1	LemmaNum	101.16	61.31	70.44	**53.70**	42.00	81.40	80.87
2	AttNum	93.86	4.42	4.745	**2.56**	2.51	5.675	5.51
3	NounNum	92.49	18.76	22.80	**26.89**	16.14	30.21	29.90
4	TokenNum	90.67	110.43	128.10	**94.56**	68.88	151.86	160.27
5	AdjNum	84.29	7.43	7.45	**5.06**	4.28	9.43	4.28
6	SentenceNum	56.99	5.78	4.66	**4.20**	4.70	5.57	6.82
7	HedgeNum	56.99	10.41	11.96	**8.24**	6.23	14.00	13.85
8	PronRate	49.82	0.13	0.12	**0.15**	0.14	0.12	0.14
9	ConjNum	49.04	7.30	10.76	**7.37**	5.34	13.18	12.71
10	AdvNum	44.48	7.52	9.98	**6.92**	4.65	14.29	12.47
11	Sg1PronRate	39.79	0.20	0.16	**0.31**	0.30	0.14	0.21
12	Punct	37.21	24.55	18.58	**14.88**	12.46	18.08	20.87
13	SubjRate	35.34	2.61	3.61	**3.83**	2.24	3.10	2.96
14	AdverbNum	33.64	8.32	10.47	**8.06**	5.68	14.55	13.99
15	PrivateVerbRate	33.52	0.22	0.20	**0.25**	0.18	0.18	0.20

As in HKG, PronRate and Sg1PronRate are also listed as the best indicators of TWN, with the difference that they appear here due to their high values. More specifically, TWN is distinctive from the other corpora for its relatively high percentage of pronouns and 1st person singular pronouns. This reflects Taiwan learners' overt involved style in monologue, and different from the involved style of their peers from Mainland China, they rather speak from an individualistic perspective. Taiwan learners' involved style is also manifested by the high rate of another top indicator – PrivateVerbRate. Being a special type of verb that are specifically used for "overt expression of private attitudes, thoughts, and emotions" (Biber, 1988, p.105), Private verbs are viewed as an involvement feature that is typically found in spoken registers. In the text cited below, 1st person singular pronoun I collocates frequently with private verbs such as think, want, know to express author' opinions, feelings, and beliefs. Unlike the author of the Hong Kong monologue cited previously, the author here deeply involves him/herself to the discussion.

> *I think smoking should be banned at all restaurants in this country because I am a nonsmoking people, and I really don't like the smell of smoke and if in – in the inside, I – inside the room of a restaurant I don't want to have second smoke – second-hand smoke because I know it's bad for my health and people smoking – people who smoke it – it – they don't – they don't have – they don't know how the smell – how bad....(SM_TWN_SMK1_040_B2_0)*

The last indicator of TWN with ratio value is SubjRate, an index concentrating on the active subjects in a syntactic structure. The high rate of this indicator probably also relates to the involved style of Taiwan learners. From above two texts, it can be seen that the central opinions and supporting argument are full of subjectivity of the authors, which is in a stark contrast to the impersonality of the Hong Kong monologue text cited before.

B. Written Essay

This section focuses on describing the characteristics of the three corpora. Due to the fact that the six corpus shows a minor difference in terms of writing length (*Mean = 234.3, DS = 7.9*), indices are attached with equal importance no matter they are with frequency information or ratio values.

1. Mainland China

The written essays in CHN show certain similarities to the monologues in CHN with regard to their best indicators. As is evident from Table 7, CHN stands out among the surveyed corpora mostly because of its frequent 1st person plural pronouns (Pl1PronRate and Pl1PronNum) and features that mark authors' uncertainty including peacocks

(PeacockRate and PeacockNum), weasels (WeaselRate & WeaselNum), and hedges (HedgeNum). Likewise, the writings contained in CHN, therefore, can be characterized by collectivism-oriented, involved, and lacking certainty.

TABLE 7
TOP 15 INDICATORS FOR CHN (WRITTEN ESSAYS)

Rank	Feature	F-score	CHN	HKG	TWN	JPN	SIN	ENS
1	Pl1PronRate	119.07	**0.165**	0.053	0.087	0.110	0.028	0.031
2	Pl1PronNum	112.70	**5.425**	1.600	2.895	3.675	0.885	5.425
3	PeacockNum	54.27	**8.535**	7.005	7.280	6.330	6.065	6.610
4	WeaselNum	46.19	**30.560**	28.100	28.565	23.725	27.815	24.220
5	PeacockRate	42.82	**0.035**	0.030	0.032	0.028	0.024	0.029
6	SentenceNum	42.49	**14.820**	13.890	13.345	16.400	11.350	9.365
7	SentenceLength	40.21	**16.837**	17.835	18.334	14.294	22.722	25.900
8	WeaselRate	39.30	**0.128**	0.118	0.125	0.106	0.113	0.107
9	SuasiveVerbNum	37.77	**0.865**	1.245	1.335	1.220	1.840	1.595
10	TokenRate	37.51	**18.933**	19.945	20.657	16.148	25.086	28.096
11	SuasiveVerbRate	36.89	**0.027**	0.040	0.042	0.038	0.058	0.052
12	Punct	36.20	**30.375**	28.630	29.470	29.855	26.095	20.010
13	CoordRate	33.87	**0.519**	0.548	0.674	0.459	0.761	1.062
14	ConjRate	30.43	**0.057**	0.055	0.059	0.063	0.064	0.078
15	HedgeNum	28.83	**22.265**	20.110	20.045	18.375	20.035	20.905

As for the last two indices relating with suasive verb (SuasiveVerbRate & SuasiveVerbNum), CHN shows a lower rate than other corpora. The retrieving results indicate that this low rate of suasive verb of CHN is mainly contributed by the infrequent use of suasive verb agree. Although the essays contained in investigated corpora share a similar size, only 50 agree are found in CHN while the frequencies of agree are 71 in ENS, 62 in HKG, 112 in TWN, 138 in JPN, and 80 in SIN. Besides, suasive verbs are "those which intend to effect a change of some sort" (Grant & Ginther, 2000, p.131), whereas most of the agree found in investigated corpora are used in a way similar to private verbs since they frequently collocate with personal pronouns to express author's personal opinion: to agree with the propositions in discussing (as shown in the following essay). Therefore, the rare presence of suasive verb in CHN is more likely the result of learners' frequent use of private verbs which mark the involvement of the author.

> *In my opinion, I am strongly agree with the idea that, it is important for our college students to have a part-time job. Now we can see ... So why they do these jobs? What advantages benefit us? I think the main reason is money. With the improvement of our living standards, a lot of study material are expensive than before ... By doing so, we can also have the ability to travel or buy some items we like. We also hope that through this way, we can no longer dependent on our parents. In addition, we can also accumulate some social experience. From kindergarten to high school, what we learned is totally the knowledge from books. In this way, it does a lot benefits to our future jobs. In a word, there are many advantages for our college students to do some jobs. Not only make money, but also develop our independence... (W_CHN_PTJ0_002_B1_1)*

This 201-word essay includes 13 1st person plural pronouns (we and our) but only three 1st person singular pronouns (I and my) and one 3rd person pronoun, indicating a pronounced collectivistic sense as well as a highly involved writing style. Concerning the terms that mark uncertainty, this essay shows a heavy use: weasel terms - *a lot*, *many*, *some* and *a lot of*, peacock terms - *important*, *everywhere* and *totally*, and hedge – *can*.

2. Hong Kong

The top indicators of HKG overlap largely with the features included in the first dimension of Biber's multidimensional model (1988) on explaining the variation across spoken and written language. This dimension is a continuum ranging from the informational production pole to the involved production pole. Written genres are characterized for high-frequent informational features with negative loading and therefore have a relatively low score on this dimension while spoken genres usually contain more involvement features with positive loading and thus often obtain a high score. In the present study, Table 8 shows that features with positive weights, including pronouns (PronRate, PronNum, Sg1PronRate & Sg1Pron), present tense (PresentNum & PresentRate), and private verbs (PrivateVerbRate & PrivateVerbNum), appear less frequently in HKG than in other corpora, whereas Nouns (NounNum & NounRate), a typical feature marking informativeness, are found more in HKG, thus indicating that HKG are more informative than other corpora. Besides, the left indicators also add evidence to this finding. In Table 8, HKG, compared with other corpora, is low on the rate of Subjective Sentences (SubjRate), function words (FunctionRate) and doxastic verbs (DoxiasticRate), but high on the rate of content words (ContentRate), which mirrors that in writing L2 learners of English from HKG, in general, favor an impersonal and informative writing style. This finding is exactly in tune with the observation by Hyland (2002a, 2002b) and Kobayashi and Abe (2016) on the English writings of Hong Kong Chinese learners. Again, a text is cited for a better explanation:

> *Recently, banning smoking at all restaurants becomes a hot topic of discussion. Government also implants the law to ban smoking in public area. The supporter points out that banning smoking in restaurants can ... Other people such as restaurant owners argue that this can cause loss in term of*

profit. As a whole, the benefit of banning smoking in all restaurants outweighs its drawback … Customers still inhale second hand smoke when sitting at non-smoking area due to the air-conditioner system of restaurant. Passive smoking can even greater harm to health of non-smokers than active smoking. That explains why smoking should be banned in all restaurants. Some people argue that some smokers may not go to restaurants after banning smoking and result in the loss of profit. They also add that some restaurants such as discos and bars as most customers at such places are smokers … Passive smoking in bars and discos still cause harm to their workers. (W_HKG_SMK0_036_B1_1).

This essay demonstrates a highly informative and impersonal style – a similar style found in the monologue text of HKG. We can see that except for they and their which respectively occur only once, no other pronouns are used in this 235-word-long essay, indicating that the author tends to establish a detachment instead of an involvement relationship with the discussion. Besides, as they are in the cited HKG monologue text, inanimate subjects or subjects without definite referents (*the government*, *banning smoking*, *passive smoking*, *people*, *supporters*, etc.) are used in this essay with a high frequency. At the same time, features associated with subjective sentiments or opinions like subjective objects and private verbs that are common in other corpora, seem to be avoided by the author. Moreover, reporting verbs or verb phrases that are typical in academic writing such as *point out* and *argue*, make the essay academic-like.

TABLE 8
TOP 15 INDICATORS FOR HKG (WRITTEN ESSAY)

Rank	Feature	F-score	CHN	HKG	TWN	JPN	SIN	ENS
1	PronRate	119.03	0.106	**0.078**	0.107	0.113	0.080	0.105
2	PresentRate	94.77	0.310	**0.240**	0.302	0.403	0.247	0.300
3	PresentNum	92.53	10.050	**7.545**	9.910	13.115	7.880	9.360
4	PronNum	89.95	25.565	**18.505**	24.74	25.295	19.66	23.475
5	Sg1PronRate	88.34	0.090	**0.058**	0.144	0.174	0.061	0.169
6	SubjRate	87.39	1.600	**1.501**	1.822	1.597	1.741	2.422
7	NounRate	82.54	0.243	**0.267**	0.242	0.247	0.255	0.214
8	Sg1Pron	79.94	2.855	**1.795**	4.710	5.665	1.920	5.175
9	ConjRate	68.11	0.057	**0.055**	0.059	0.063	0.064	0.078
10	PrivateVerbNum	66.72	5.310	**3.605**	5.730	5.710	3.660	5.110
11	PrivateVerbRate	57.81	0.163	**0.115**	0.173	0.175	0.115	0.167
12	ContentRate	56.61	0.532	**0.550**	0.531	0.533	0.533	0.512
13	FunctionRate	56.43	0.467	**0.449**	0.468	0.466	0.466	0.488
14	NounNum	55.37	58.625	**63.775**	55.71	55.415	63.025	48.890
15	DoxasticRate	39.93	0.011	**0.008**	0.011	0.017	0.006	0.011

3. Taiwan

The highest-ranked indicators for identifying TWN are two indices relevant to attributives (AttRate andAttNum). Table 9 reveals that TWN obtains a comparatively small value on the two indicators, reflecting that the essays in TWN are not as informative as those in other corpora. The next indicator is UncertainNum. This indicator, along with another high frequent uncertainty-related indicator, WeaselRate, signals the high uncertainty of Taiwan learners. The low value of TWN on the two indicators, ProperRate and ProperNum, might also be associated with learners' high uncertainty considering that proper nouns are nouns that have specific referents or "unique denotation" (Quirk et al., 1985, p.288). The indicator next to ProperNum is Punct. TWN is shown to be overusing punctuations, and the reason behind might be the underuse of another indicator of TWN - ConjNum. The following indicators are NegationRate and NegationNum, which is quite surprising as they are the only two sentiment-related indices found to be functioning for the corpus identification. The relatively frequent negation words in TWN possibly indicate that learners of English from Taiwan prefer negative structures to highlight their statements. Other noteworthy indicators are three indicators that are often connected to involved, informal writing style: PrivateVerbRate, PrivateVerbNum and PronRate. TWN is shown to have high values on the three features and therefore might be regarded as involved.

I think it is important for college student to have a part-time job. Most of our parents don't give us too much money. For example, I can 4000NT per month from my mother. But minus the daily basic meal costs and MRT costs, I only have 500NT left to watch a movie with friends or to buy CDs or other things. Apparently, that is not enough. Also, college students will soon join into social live and finding a formal job. If we college students don't get a part-time job and experienced working life, we must tend to be frustrated after we graduate and start working...if you want to buy something, you need to pay effort on it … some people will earn even more-is enough. Through this process, college student will know that earning money is not easy, and will be precious the money their parents earn and things they have got. It is not only a good experience before graduate, but also a nice education. That's why I think part-time job is important.

Above essay reflects an overly involved and interactive style of TWN. In addition to *I* which marks the involvement of the author, the author repeatedly uses pronouns such as *you*, *we*, *our* and *us*, to connect the topic under discussion with the readers. For the use of attributives, we can see that most of the attributives are limited to simple attributives and numeral adjectives (*important*, *basic*, *enough*, etc.). Besides, the author uses several negative sentences to highlight the

necessity for students to find a part-time job (*our parents don't give us*…, *if students don't get*…, *though part-time didn't*, etc.), instead of directly demonstrating the benefits of a part-time job. Lastly, the text also displays a high degree of uncertainty, which is manifested by a number of uncertain expressions including *most of*, *much*, *other things*, etc.

TABLE 9
THE TOP 15 INDICATORS FOR TWN (WRITTEN ESSAYS)

Rank	Feature	F-score	CHN	HKG	TWN	JPN	SIN	ENS
1	AttRate	35.05	0.832	1.005	**0.809**	0.515	1.238	1.374
2	AttNum	29.13	11.750	13.290	**10.145**	8.200	13.520	12.210
3	UncertainNum	27.46	2.635	2.590	**2.660**	1.820	2.035	2.100
4	ProperRate	23.44	0.106	0.178	**0.091**	0.133	0.180	0.165
5	ProperNum	23.34	0.455	1.330	**0.415**	0.870	1.650	1.385
6	Punct	22.79	30.375	28.630	**29.470**	29.855	26.095	20.010
7	NegationRate	21.87	0.014	0.013	**0.017**	0.017	0.011	0.013
8	NegationWord	21.68	3.275	2.970	**3.855**	3.695	2.640	2.980
9	ObjNum	20.99	16.615	15.395	**16.630**	14.625	14.590	13.730
10	PrivateVerbNum	20.23	5.310	3.605	**5.730**	5.710	3.660	5.110
11	ConjNum	19.18	13.620	13.005	**13.550**	14.215	15.845	17.580
12	VerbRate	18.90	0.135	0.132	**0.143**	0.145	0.131	0.137
13	PronRate	18.28	0.106	0.078	**0.107**	0.113	0.080	0.105
14	WeaselRate	17.82	0.128	0.118	**0.129**	0.106	0.113	0.107
15	PrivateVerbRate	16.22	0.163	0.115	**0.173**	0.175	0.115	0.167

V. CONLUSION

The present study is a comparative study that is conducted into the three learner Englishes from Greater China via the approach of NLI. It yields an average classification accuracy of 60% on spoken language and 59.8% on written language. With the two relatively satisfactory accuracies, this study further probes into the most significant identifying features.

The results reached in the exploration of the most discriminating indicators of the three learner Englishes reveal that despite the commonly recognized differences between written and spoken genres, the three learner Englishes from Greater China show a high homogeneity between spoken monologues and writing essays, or in other words, learners speak the ways they write or vice versa. In general, the major characteristics of the three learner Englishes from Greater China can be summed up as follow:

1) The spoken monologues and written essays by L2 learners of English from Mainland China are characteristic for high collectivistic involvement and uncertainty, low informativeness, and underuse of conjunctions.

2) Learner English of Hong Kong is significantly distinct from that from Mainland China and Taiwan though learners from the three regions share the same L1. It is found that the spoken monologues and written essays by L2 learners from Hong Kong feature high informativeness and an impersonality.

3) Both spoken monologues and written essays by L2 learners from Taiwan reveal a high degree of individualistic involvement. Besides, their English essays are found to be high on uncertainty and negation but low on informativeness and the usage of conjunctions.

The implication of this study is that this study benefits future corpus linguists for doing the division on L1 Chinese learners of English from the three major regions of Greater China. The overall classification accuracy around 60%, along with the most discriminating features for each corpus, partly provides an empirical basis for doing such a division. Another major implication is that it will hopefully increase learners' genre awareness towards spoken and written registers. As is noted earlier, the three groups of L1 Chinese learners of English exhibit a consistent way when delivering spoken monologues and writing argumentative essays, which could be problematic in many aspects. For learners from Hong Kong, their overly informative and formal style in monologue might make their speech tedious and less interesting for the listeners, and in writing, their overuse of features marking formality and informational focus, including objectivity, impersonality, low self-involvement and passive voice, may be detrimental to gain credibility and acceptance for their arguments from readers (Hyland, 2002a). As for learners from Mainland China and Taiwan, the problems primarily lie at their salient involved style in writing. Excessive involvement will make their written productions full of subjectivity, and more importantly novice-like since it is often connected to the lack of genre awareness – an issue that novice writers often meet (Gilquin & Paquot, 2008).

This study is not immune from limitations. Firstly, the corpora adopted are relatively small in size. Although the language data are highly comparable from the point of view of corpus linguistics, the limited size might confine the generalization of the findings. It is hoped that future studies could mend this limitation by conducting similar research on a larger learner corpus. Secondly, the number of features chosen in this study is relatively small in comparison with other NLI studies. Therefore, it is hoped that more features will be taken into account for future classification of the three learner Englishes from Greater China. Lastly, in discussing the top indicators of the classification of three learner Englishes, only the top 15 features are selected, which might contribute to the missing of other important indicators.

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Comparative Genre Analysis of Research Abstracts: Philippine Versus International Colloquia

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***Abstract*—Abstract is the gateway to whether the intended audience reads the rest of the research article or not. This is one of the many reasons why, across disciplines and cultures, the rhetorical structure of research article abstracts has been explored. Taking a different approach, this comparative genre-based study, which employed a hybrid method, investigated the rhetorical structure of research abstracts of non-native English-speaking undergraduate students in Philippine and international research colloquia. A corpus of 116 research abstracts, 58 from each group, in the field of education was purposively selected and explored using Hyland's model of five-move abstracts. Categories of move occurrence along with the frequencies were utilized to compare the move use of the two groups. Findings indicated that the three moves which are purpose, method, and product frequently occurred in local and international writers' research conference abstracts. The number of words was also recorded through frequency and average. The local conference abstracts were lengthier than the international ones. The findings can have some pedagogical implications for the academic writing professors and assist novice writers or undergraduate students, primarily those in the field of teacher education in organizing their abstracts for the international audiences.**

***Index Terms*—genre analysis, corpus, move structure**

I. Introduction

There has been a significant number of studies on abstracts in comparison to other sections of scholarly texts (e.g., Lorés, 2004; Pho, 2008; Tseng, 2011; Alhuqbani, 2013; Dorá, 2013; Zanina, 2017; Majid & Omid, 2018; Amnuai, 2019; Alyousef, 2021) over the years. It is conceivable that the fascination with abstracts in academic writing stems from the fact that they have a big effect in demonstrating the importance of the ongoing study to previous work in the field (Bhatia, 1993). Therefore, unlike the title that, for example, only gives the reader a few details about the work, the abstract provides the audience with a quick overview of the work's major points.

Swales and Feak (2004) mention that abstracts are useful for reviewing new research, because abstracts are the first to introduce new research to readers, and they serve a crucial role in academic knowledge-making. Hyland (2000) claims that abstracts serve both informative and persuasive purposes, with the latter being especially tied to disciplinary

conventions. Furthermore, Flowerdew (2008) also points out that abstracts can be troublesome for non-native speakers of English, L2 writers, for instance, to compose. These writers have difficulties in writing academic texts for an international readership (Hyland, 2016), which is very intimidating as they described it (Li & Pramoolsook, 2015; Al-Khasawneh, 2017; Javadi-Safa, 2018).

Thus, Hyland (2000) suggested a five-move framework to analyze research abstracts, which anchors in a principle that abstracts are made up of different activities for each move. Move in genre analysis is defined by Santos (1996, as cited in del Saz Rubio, 2019) as a genre stage that has a specific minor communicative purpose to achieve that, in turn, contributes to the major communicative goal of a genre. Swales (2004, as cited in Amnuai, 2019) also termed move as a discursive section that serves a specific communicative purpose.

From Swales' (1990) perspective, a genre is a collection of communicative occurrences that all have the same set of communicative goals. These goals are recognized by expert members of the parent discourse community, and they serve as the genre's foundation. This foundation determines the discourse's schematic structure and influences the content and stylistic choices. Aside from the communicative goal, exemplars of a genre share a number of characteristics in terms of structure, style, substance, and intended audience. The parent discourse group will see the exemplars as prototypical if all high possibility expectations are met. The genre names obtained and produced by discourse groups and brought by others create important ethnographic information, but they usually require further validation.

II. Theoretical Background

Genre encompasses not just different forms of literary texts, but also predictable and recurrent patterns of everyday, scientific, and literary texts that occur in a given society (Vogler & Schwaiger, 2021). A genre, either articulated or printed, is usually identified based on its communicative function or role in a discourse community. Genres, as stated by Swales (1990), that share the same societal goals belong to a certain text type. Genres are increasingly viewed as providing unique communicative goals in contemporary linguistics and pedagogics and looked into rhetorical and communicative move frameworks (Swales, 2004).

According to Derewianka (1990), there are six genres based on their societal goals. First is the narrative that narrates a story and is usually just for entertainment. Second, the recount genre describes what occurred. Third is information reports that give accurate facts. Fourth is the instruction genre that instructs the audience on what they should do. The explanation is the fifth one that elucidates how or why something occurs and finally, the expository texts that offer or defend a perspective.

The linguistic inputs of the text, for instance, the rhetorical structures and grammatical realizations of language, are determined by the social aims of the text genres.

Rhetorical structures refer to the text's internal structure or text arrangement (opening, body, and ending), while grammatical realizations comprise linguistic features like tense, voice, associativity, grammar, among others which the writers must employ in order to transfer information into comprehensible texts.

Revisiting Genre Analysis

In the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), genre analysis has become a popular approach to textual analysis. It is a critical assessment of discourse that takes into account the underlying social and cultural elements. The connection of text genres and their contexts had been a major focus of a genre-based approach (Nagao, 2019). As a result, its goal is to assist students, teachers, and researchers in becoming productive members of their academic and professional communities (Hammond & Derewianka, 2001).

In some ways, genre-based methods to the second language are an outgrowth of past product approaches that prioritized linguistic expertise, vocabulary, and grammar (Badger & White, 2000). Hyland (2003) discusses three key schools of genre that have embraced the genre-based approach: The New Rhetoric; The Systemic Functional Linguistics, and The English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

The New Rhetoric focuses primarily on the rhetorical context of genre and its interrelationship with the texts rather than text elements and textual qualities, and it mostly employs ethnographic research techniques. The Systemic Functional Linguistics has its origins in linguistics, emphasizes regular connections between grammatical and rhetorical patterns and the context, and focuses primarily on pre-genres in a broad cultural framework. The English for Specific Purposes, finally, emphasizes how discourse communities shape and their unique communication aims rather than the wider and broader culture.

Even though the three schools differ in some ways, there are some common threads that run through them. All three approaches, according to Hyland (2003), share the goal of contextualizing regularities of meaning, structure, and situated social action whereby the ESP, in particular, has likely the largest impact on L2 writing. Within the ESP genre paradigm, genre is seen as having a standard structure that consists of a defined set of moves. Moves, in this framework, are viewed as communicative or rhetorical tools that accomplish a subset of communicative aims linked with a genre's overarching generic communicative structure (Bhatia, 2001).

To explore the rhetorical structure of research abstracts, embracing the ESP approach in genre analysis, Hyland (2000) introduces a five-move framework as a coding model, which is: 1) Introduction that establishes the context of the paper and motivates the research; 2) Purpose that indicates and outlines the aim behind the paper; 3) Method which

provides information on design, procedures, data analysis, etc.; 4) Product that indicates results and the argument; and 5) Conclusion which points to applications or wider implications and interpretation scope of the paper.

Hyland (2003) further emphasizes the need for L2 language learners to be acquainted with written genres as this may help them gain access to different discourse communities locally and internationally.

Within this perspective, determining the communicative role of text units is considered as one of the ways to divert the attention of both teachers and students from the text structures to the usage of texts in a social setting or discourse community (Ren & Li, 2011; Zhang et al., 2012; Darabad, 2016; Tnako, 2017; Amnuai, 2019).

By focusing on the communicative functions and structures of text units, writers' texts would be useful not only for reading but also for pedagogical implications. Thus, the study aims to investigate the move structure of research abstracts in the field of teacher education in two different discourse groups (local and international research conferences), drawing on Hyland's (2000) five-move model for research abstracts. Since no studies in the literature have ever tried to include the word count feature of research conference abstracts, thus this paper attempts to bridge that gap in the literature. The questions, therefore, are:

1. What is the move structure of local and international research abstracts?
2. Are there any similarities and differences between local and international research abstracts in terms of the employment of the five moves proposed in Hyland's (2000) move model?
3. What is the average word count of local and international research abstracts?

III. Methodology

This study employed a hybrid method: qualitative for the move analysis of abstracts and quantitative for the move comparison, and word counts of the two corpora.

A. Corpus Management

The research abstracts as the main corpora are taken from the books of abstracts of four research conferences written by undergraduate students. The local research conferences were organized by the State Universities and Colleges (SUCs) in Cagayan Valley or Region 02 in the Philippines while the international conferences were sponsored by universities in Singapore and Thailand.

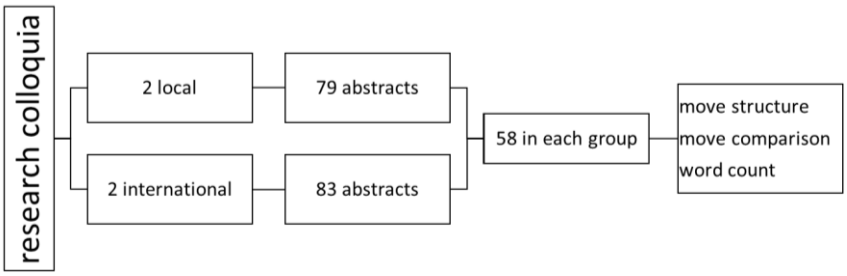


Figure 1. Corpus Management and Analysis Process

Figure 1 shows that there are 79 abstracts from the two local colloquia while 83 abstracts are from the two international colloquia. To prevent any analysis disparity, only abstracts on teacher education were considered, whereby 116 abstracts—58 in each group—were purposively selected.

B. Analysis Process

1. Move Structure

The study adapted Hyland's (2000) five-move model for research abstracts as a coding framework. In order to classify and compare the moves identified in the abstracts, the study followed the three categories of move occurrence introduced by Kanoksilapatham (2005), which are obligatory (if the move appears in 100% of the corpus), conventional (60-99% move appearance), and optional (less than 60%) moves. Figure 2 presents the model with excerpts from the corpus as examples.

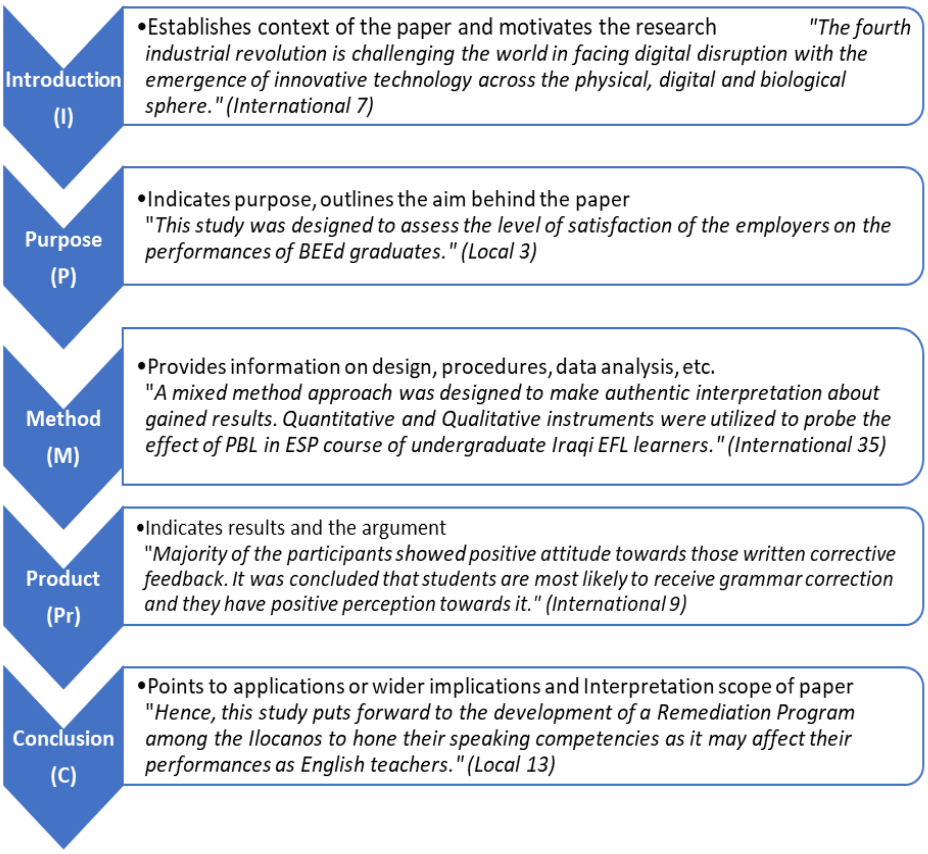


Figure 2. Hyland's (2000) Five-move Model of Research Article Abstracts

2. Move Comparison and Word Count

Two online tools were used: Mean Calculator, an online social science statistical tool, for the comparison in terms of move use and Easy Word Count, an online word count tool, for the number of words.

3. Intercoder Agreement

The services of two language professors with linguistic sophistication (Magday & Pramoolsook, 2021, 2020; Pramoolsook & Magday, 2019) were tapped to be the intercoders. The MAXQDA Intercoder Agreement (VERBI Software, 2019) was utilized to compare the findings of the researchers and intercoders using Intercoder Coefficient Kappa (Brennan & Prediger, 1981, as cited in O'Connor & Joffe, 2020). The agreement, in this study, was 95%, which is considered as high intercoder reliability.

IV. Results and Discussion

This section presents the findings of the analysis of 58 local and 58 international research abstracts presented in four research colloquia in terms of the rhetorical move structures, difference of the employment of the moves, and abstracts' average word counts, as well as offers some explanations for the main findings.

TABLE 1
MOVE STRUCTURE

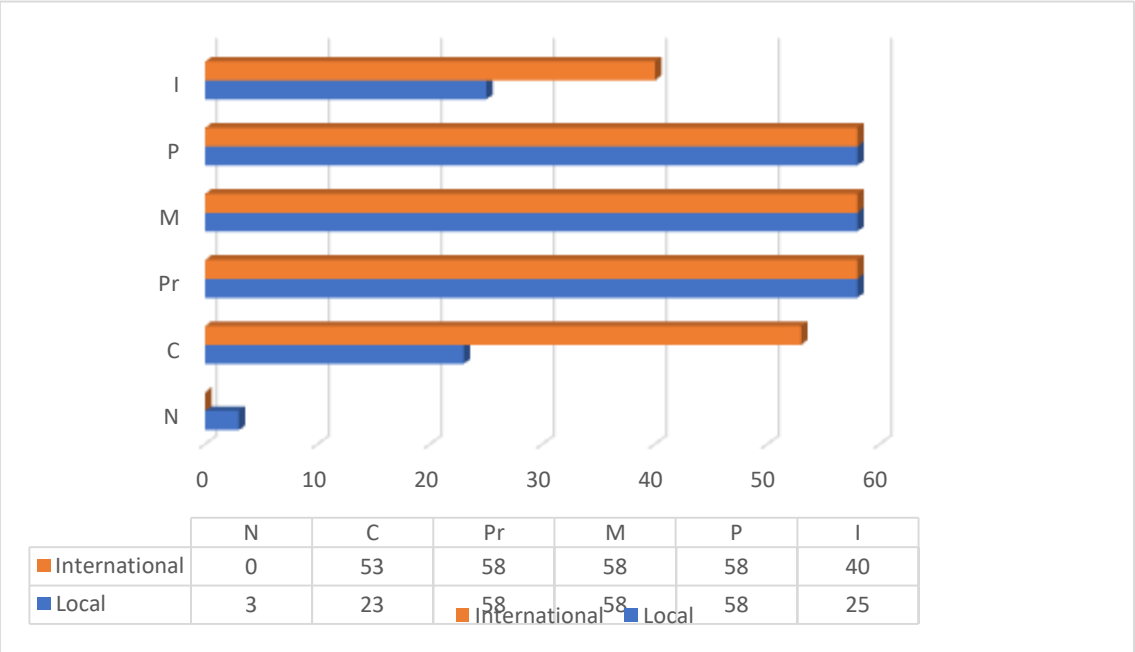
Move	Abstracts					
	Philippines/ Local (58)	Percentage	Classification	International (58)	Percentage	Classification
Introduction (I)	25	43.10	Optional	40	68.97	Conventional
Purpose (P)	58	100	Obligatory	58	100	Obligatory
Method (M)	58	100	Obligatory	58	100	Obligatory
Product (Pr)	58	100	Obligatory	58	100	Obligatory
Conclusion (C)	23	39.66	Optional	53	91.38	Conventional
New (N)	3	5.17	Optional	0	0	0

Table 2 shows that the international group has three Obligatory moves: Purpose, Method, and Product and two Conventional moves: Introduction and Conclusion. Meanwhile, the local group has also three Obligatory moves: Purpose, Method and Product and two Optional moves: Introduction and Conclusion.

The result of the obligatory and optional moves agrees with the study on Chinese and English research article abstracts in chemistry and linguistics of Yun (2011), which appeared that purpose, method, and product were also found to be obligatory moves while introduction and conclusion were optional.

Aside from the usual moves of research abstracts, a new move that occurred in three papers (Local 7, 19 & 43), which was labeled as the Limitation move by the researcher, was also recorded. This move was all identified in the last part of the three abstracts.

It is interesting to note that this move, along with structure and promotion moves, is also seen in the comparative study of Ren and Li (2011) on the rhetorical moves of abstract research articles and master's foreign-language theses. However, it is mentioned that the fact that no RA includes this move in the abstract, though every paper has its limitation, may suggest that it might not be a good idea to eagerly admit the limitation of the paper in the abstract before the actual presentation of the paper.



	N	C	Pr	M	P	I
International	0	53	58	58	58	40
Local	3	23	58	58	58	25

Figure 3. Move Similarities and Differences

Figure 3 displays the similarities and differences of the two groups in terms of move use following Hyland's five-move model. First, for the similarities, three moves: Purpose, Method, and Product were all present in the research conference abstracts (RCAs) of both groups. A similar result is shown in the study of Sidek et al. (2016) in their analysis of the move structure of conference proceeding abstracts in the field of linguistics. Their analysis findings reported that the most commonly employed moves were purpose, method, and product. The study of Zanina (2017) on move structure of management research abstracts also confirmed that these three moves frequently occurred in the corpora. Further, the study of Hwang et al. (2017) using move analysis for scientific abstract sections in nanoscience and nanotechnology revealed that authors often use the three moves: purposes, method and results in their abstracts.

Second, two moves: Introduction and Conclusion were also found in some RCAs of both groups. For the differences, first was the presence of a new move, which was identified by the researchers as Limitation move, in 3 RCAs from the local group while there was no recorded new move in the international group. Second, there were big gaps between the two groups' employment of Introduction and Conclusion moves. Twenty-five (25) RCAs from the local group had Introduction move while 40 RCAs from the international group had this move. Twenty-three (23) RCAs from the local group had Conclusion move while 53 RCAs from the international move had this move. An interesting difference was also observed between the two groups, that is in the local group, a new move (Limitation) was identified in the 3 RCAs. Another difference was noticed between the groups in terms of the occurrence of linear and non-linear move patterns as shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
MOVE SEQUENCE

Group	Linear	Percentage	Non-linear	Percentage
Local	41	70.69	17	29.31
International	56	96.55	2	34.48

The occurrence of the linear pattern was more evident in the international group, 41 RCAs or 96.55% than in the local group, 56 RCAs or 70.69%. This finding may imply that international authors are more conservative in following the conventional standard linear sequence, as suggested by Hyland (2000) in his model, than the local authors.

This finding refutes previous results reported in the literature, e.g., Jeon and Eun (2007), Martin (2003), and Wang and Tu (2014) whereby non-native English writers followed the linear pattern of writing abstracts than the English or international authors. However, in this current study, the local writers were found to be not in compliance with the linear five-move RA abstract structure of Hyland (2000). Another significant difference in the RCAs of the two groups is their word count which is presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3
WORD COUNTS

Research Conference Abstracts (RCAs)	Average per move					Least Number of Words	Most Number of Words	Total Number of Words	Word Average
	I	P	M	Pr	C				
Local	63	48	53	65	61	210	380	16,820	290
International	47	39	48	58	48	150	240	12,130	209

Local RCAs were longer, that had a word average of 290, than international RCAs that had a 209-word average. It is also obvious that the average word count in each move in the local RCAs was higher than the international abstracts. The total number of words for local abstracts was 16,820 while the international abstracts had 12,130. The longest RCA in the local group was 380 and 240 for the international group, while the shortest RCA in the local was 210 and 150 for the international group. This finding could only mean one thing and that is the RCAs presented in the local colloquia were much longer than the international abstracts.

This finding provides comparable insight into a study of Viera (2019) that explored the move structure in abstracts of research articles published in Ecuadorian and American English-speaking contexts following Hyland's (2000) five-move model with 20 abstracts in each group. The study reported that the Ecuadorian abstracts (also referred to as local papers) recorded 170,32 words, which was higher compared to the American or international abstracts with 166,50 words. Thesis abstracts and research article abstracts were also compared in terms of structure in the study of Ren and Li (2011) where it was found out that thesis abstracts are usually longer than RA abstracts with an average of 434 words for thesis abstracts and 199 words for RA abstracts.

Considering the above findings, the researcher suggested a research article abstract structure anchored in Hyland (2000) with a word-count framework that can be used by the teacher education students and teachers in writing and teaching the abstracts of their research for presentations.

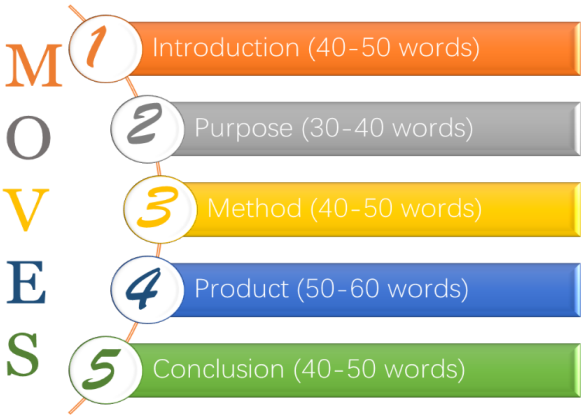


Figure 4. Move Structure and Word Counts of Abstract

Figure 4 displays the proposed model of the researchers in writing a research conference abstract (RCA). The moves are inspired by the five-move model of Hyland (2000) in analyzing and writing research abstracts, and the suggested word counts were based on the findings of the study.

V. CONCLUSION

The single most remarkable observation from the data comparison in this study is the unique characteristics of each group. The results show rhetorical variations in the move structures of RC abstracts of the local and international colloquia. It is reported that there is a difference between the two groups in terms of move sequence and word counts and remarkable similarity of the two groups' Purpose (P) Method (M) and Product (Pr) moves which are stable or compulsory. A new or extra move which is termed by the researcher as Limitation (L) is also found in the local group. This extra move might not do much to convince the reader of the value of the paper, if not undermine it. Although publication guidelines recommend a length of 150 to 250 words for abstracts (APA, 2010, p.27; Chicago Manual, 2010,

p.42), longer and shorter RC abstracts were noted in local and international RC abstracts corpora. One of the longest abstracts in the corpora of the local group with 380 words was verbose and repetitive whereas the shortest one from the international corpora with 150 words displayed accuracy, in terms of structure and content. It is deduced then, that the construction of accurate RC abstracts is not dependent on the number of words used, but rather on how the information is organized by the writers. Thus, the findings support the claim that diverse discursive conventions and discourse community norms influence writers' preferred rhetoric and composing patterns in academic writing. This study, therefore, suggests pedagogical implications for both research professors and students in a teacher education institution, and the framework anchored in Hyland (2000), as suggested by the researcher, is perceived to contribute to this effect.

One of the study's limitations is the corpora's small size, which may limit the testability of the findings and conclusions. Because of the small corpus, it was also impossible to conduct a closer study of the move structure than that described in the paper, such as integrating steps and their sequences. Another significant limitation is the limited use of quantitative methodologies, which results in the current study's primarily descriptive nature, and it did not set out to provide a full account of the move frequency, nor to provide a thorough cross-cultural examination of the disparities uncovered. Furthermore, the findings of the study could be explained from a cross-cultural perspective.

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From Page to Screen: Exploring Wordsworth's "I Wandered Lonely as a Cloud" Through the Computational Lens of "*Transpoemation*"

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***Abstract*—Literary critics value the process of "close reading" which involves focused word-by-word and line-by-line reading of a literary work to derive meaning from the entire corpus and establish the role of different aspects of text in this process. As this strategy may yield previously unnoticed connotations, it is rarely performed using computer software. Although this is a widely established view, in this paper, we posit that "distant reading" using an appropriate combination of automatic/computer-assisted analytical methods can still achieve this purpose. While we do not undermine the value of the traditional process, we demonstrate that a detailed visualization of the literary work in focus (in our case a poem by William Wordsworth) through digital tools like "transpoemation" could augment the literary analysis process.**

***Index Terms*—literary criticism, close reading, visualization, distant reading, transpoemation**

I. Introduction

During the 20th century, literary studies reached a crisis point. They faced stringent controversial debates, ranging from new criticism to deconstruction, through new historicism and cultural materialism, to postcolonial criticisms. Yet, close reading has remained the most prevalent reading method, which aims "to brush history against the grain" (Benjamin, 1968, p. 257). The multiple approaches that had been used in literary studies over the past century reflect the historical efforts by literary scholars to make their research responsive to developments within the academy. As a result, different approaches and ways of reading a literary text are now adopted for close reading. Some of those paradigms closely attend to the language and assign particular importance to the formal text elements, such as sentences or words. Other reading methods are either focused solely on abstractions, ideas, or figures found within the text, or depart completely from the written corpus. This range of reading styles illustrates the ability of literature to sustain numerous approaches to reading, discussing, and interpreting literary texts.

In today's technology-driven world, it has become trite to suggest that computers have transformed our way of reading, studying, and analyzing poetry. As the 21st century unfolds, the debate over incorporating computational frameworks and visualization tools into literary studies is gaining momentum. Much headway has been made to this effect by creating a myriad of computational and visualization systems to respond to the new changes and challenges. In such rapidly changing globalized environment, literature has gained new meanings and has forged intersections with digital media, owing to the increasing utilization of educational technologies.

Yet, a traditional critical approach is still perpetuated by mainstream traditional literary critics who see no value in adding the new software-based analytical methods to this process. On the other hand, many eminent scholars and pedagogues are of view that now is the time to employ novel analytical frameworks and open up new perspectives and possibilities for poetry criticism.

Despite creating various new models of scholarship and several successful applications of new visual literary analysis methods, prominent traditional literary scholars still advocate for "close reading" purporting that it allows uncovering "layers of meaning that lead to deep comprehension" (Boyles, 2012, p. 37), and thus facilitates a thorough and objective interpretation of a text passage based on the analysis of events, ideas, themes, words, text structure, and style.

With this in mind, the present study foresees an urgent need to map a new approach to literary criticism and practices based primarily on the visualization tools and the "transpoemation" paradigm offered by modern technology. On these grounds, the computational framework endorsed in this paper is not limited to highlighting the rationale and premises of this paradigm. This novel approach also strives to give English majors at Sultan Qaboos University an opportunity to experiment with, practice, and engage in this method and directly experience the benefits of the "transpoemation" technique.

In light of the above, the authors argue that the field of literary study needs the computational support provided by a variety of computer-based frameworks for literary analysis. In what follows, however, we do not attempt a

comprehensive survey of all computational or visualization approaches and theories to poetry analysis. Rather than offer a hasty sketch of the entire field of computational criticism, our aim is to outline and emphasize the theory that has most profoundly impacted the first author's interpretation of William Wordsworth's poem "I Wandered Lonely as a Cloud"—namely "transpoemation"—and was thus used in our classrooms.

Against this backdrop, we present an overview of two dominant approaches relevant to the present context and explore the tenets, aims, and processes of traditional critics' foundational reading and analytical methods. Concepts such as "close reading" and practical criticism are discussed before introducing "transpoemation" with a special focus on "distant reading" and visualization. This discussion is substantiated by a case study demonstrating how English majors in the English Department at Sultan Qaboos University employ "transpoemation" to digitally visualize William Wordsworth's poem "I Wandered Lonely as a Cloud".

II. An Overview of Literary Analysis Methods and Software Tools

A. "Close Reading" and Traditional Literary Criticism

Close reading has been a subject of extensive research, based on the view of its early theorists, practitioners, and advocates that it is a science of literature. However, according to most authors, this method derives from Richards' (1929) *Practical Criticism* and Empson's (1947) *The Seven Types of Ambiguity*, and is described as a paradigm which enhances "symptomatic reading" by focusing on the structures and patterns in a text.

In her seminal work *What Was Close Reading? A Century of Method in Literary Studies*, Smith (2006) defined close reading "not only as an activity with regard to texts but also to a type of text itself, [as] a technically informed, fine-grained analysis of some piece of writing, usually in connection with some broader question of interest. The practice has multiple ancestors, including classical rhetorical analysis, biblical exegesis, and legal interpretation, and it also has some cousins, such as iconology and psycho-analysis" (p. 58).

Guided by this paradigm, proponents of close reading, the New Critics, argued that a text is a "unified entity, complete in itself and contains meaning without any reference to external evidence such as the author's intention/history, biography or socio-cultural conditions" (Mambrol, 2016, para. 1). Advocates of close reading like Wimsatt and Beardsley (1946) rejected what they call "intentional fallacy" and discouraged the misinterpretation of literary works grounded on biographical evidence or the author's intention. Instead, they proposed close reading as the primary methodology of literary studies that "ought to be judged like any other parts of a composition (verbal arrangement special to a particular context" (p. 484).

In literary criticism, the term "closed" in "close reading" is seen as a misnomer (Wu, 2018, p. 1008), for it refers to the careful, sustained interpretation of a brief passage of a text. Thus, it is an experiential reading method that treats a text as a self-contained and self-referential unit. Heightening attention to the words on the page and dispensing with biography, history, paraphrasing, and linguistics allows the reader to make a connection between the syntax, the flow of the content, and the different structures to derive meaning. Nonetheless, close reading is not completely devoid of external influences, as Jancovich (1993) pointed out:

> Close reading was not an attempt to seal the text off from its context, but an introduction to the reading of literature as literature…. It was supposed to direct students to an awareness of paradoxes and contradictions of social and cultural activity, and hence to a critical engagement with their society and culture. (p. 88)

Similarly, Simpson (2020) purported that close reading has become a fundamental critical method in the 20th century, as it "involves paying attention to the details of a text: its diction, syntax, patterns of imagery, metaphor, and so forth" (p. 2). Reacting to the impressionistic, biographical, and moralistic approaches of earlier critics, Simpson also argues that close reading, as a result of New Criticism, is the dominant mode of literary study and "a way of discovering the tensions and paradoxes of a text in order to find their resolution into a coherent whole … de-emphasising contextual considerations" (p. 2).

In *Teaching Literature*, Showalter (2003) showed a similar positive attitude towards close reading when she claimed:

> the close reading process, or *explication de texte*, that we use in analyzing literary texts does not have to come with the ponderous baggage of the New Criticism, or with political labels. Before or along with attention to factors outside the text, students have to understand something about the verbal, formal, and structural elements of the words themselves. Close reading can be a neutral first step in understanding literature. But this sort of reading is far from intuitive, and if we want students to learn how to do it, we need to give them both models and practice. (p. 56)

In this spirit, in *Ways of reading*, Dobson (2019) described close reading as "a tool to understand and explain a text … a way to explicate the meaning of the text…. Every metaphor, word, element of punctuation, and even the blank space between words and lines, was to be framed according to poem's interior logic" (p. 547).

Jasinski (2001) concurred, purporting that "The principal object of close reading is to unpack the text. Close readers linger over words, verbal images, style elements, sentences, argument patterns, and entire paragraphs and larger discursive units within the text to explore their significance on multiple levels" (p. 14).

On the grounds of the arguments presented so far, one may surmise that traditional critics exclusively rely on "close reading" to explore meaning in poems and "unearth all possible types of ambiguities and ironies" (Looy & Baetens, 2003, p. 4). One may also concur with Brummett (2010) who opined:

> the critic's job is to uncover these meanings in such a way that people have an 'aha' moment in which they suddenly agree to the reading, the meanings the critic suggests suddenly come to focus. The standard of success for the close reader who is also a critic is, therefore, the enlightenment, insights, and agreement of those who hear or read what he or she has to say (p. 18).

Yet, although "close reading" has some benefits, such as ensuring an objective and accurate examination of poems and deriving meaning from a printed text, it has many flaws and can be challenged on several grounds, as pointed out by Menand (2015):

> There is a small but immitigable fallacy in the theory of close reading, … and it applies to political journalism as well as to the reading of poetry. The text does not reveal its secrets just by being stared at. It reveals its secrets to those who already pretty much know what secrets they expect to find. Texts are always packed by the reader's prior knowledge and expectations before they are unpacked. (para. 55)

In light of this evidence, will the new "distant reading" framework inspired by computational and data visualization through "transpoemation" and "Lumen5" visualization tool help scholars and students make new observations, generate new hypotheses, and open avenues for more possibilities of meaning in a poem? Indeed, this question has motivated the work presented below.

B. "Distant Reading" and Literary Criticism: from Page to Screen

As we entered the new millennium, and given the proliferation of digital texts that are published and exchanged through the internet and an array of social media platforms, our habitual reading practices have undergone radical changes and have shifted from a focus on the page to a concern with the screen and digital texts. Accordingly, reading practices and approaches dominated by the close reading method within literary studies have been revisited and reevaluated. Recent critical approaches, in this respect, depart from symptomatic close reading and embrace a digital, computational, and distant reading method.

Distant reading is a novel method of reading texts that Franco Moretti introduced at the beginning of the 20th century. Moretti (2000) proposed that literary studies would derive benefit from abandoning close reading and adopting a new practice known as 'distant reading'". In an essay titled "Conjectures on world literature", Moretti (2000) described distant reading as "a little pact with the devil" (p. 57), and as a shift from the page and observation of a text to the screen and visualization of the global features of single or multiple texts:

> The trouble with close reading (in all of its incarnations, from the new criticism to deconstruction) is that it necessarily depends on an extremely small canon…. And if you want to look beyond the canon … close reading will not do it. It's not designed to do it, it's designed to do the opposite…. What we really need is a pact with the devil: we know how to read texts, now let's learn how not to read them. Distant reading … allows you to focus on units that are much smaller or much larger than the text: devices, themes, tropes—or genres and systems. (pp. 57−58)

Suggesting that the emphasis should no longer be on close reading of individual texts but rather on computational studies of a large body of literary texts, Wilkens (2011) also pointed out that "we need to do less close reading and more of anything and everything else that might help us extract information from and about texts as indicators of larger cultural issues" (p. 251).

Jockers' (2013) proposal in *Macroanalysis: Digital Methods and Literary History* meshes with Moretti's suggestion that literary analysts should imitate scientists by gathering careful and exhaustive evidence and re-envisioning literary studies:

> Back in the 1990s, gathering literary evidence meant reading books, noting "things" … and then interpreting: making sense and arguments out of those observations. Today, in the age of digital libraries and large-scale book digitisation projects, the nature of the "evidence" available to us has changed, radically…. Massive digital corpora offer us unprecedented access to the literary record and invite, even demand, a new type of evidence gathering and meaning making. The literary scholar of the twenty-first century can no longer be content with anecdotal evidence, with a few random "things" [and] … can no longer risk being just a close reader. (pp. 8−9)

Moretti, Wilkens, and Jockers are not alone in their enthusiasm for employing computational methods in literary studies. Other scholars like Burdick also called for a reinvigoration of "distant reading" in order to allow for an objective, scientific, and exhaustive digital analysis and visualization of data in literary texts. Referring to the tools necessary for digital analysis of literary texts, Burdick et al. (2012) wrote:

> one way of navigating this process is through distant reading: a form of analysis that focuses on large units. It is a term that is specifically arrayed against the deep hermeneutics of extracting meaning from a text through ever-closer, microscopic readings. (p. 39)

A considerable headway has been made in capitalizing on the latest technology to achieve the goals of "distant reading" and open new possibilities for literary analysis as it applies to poetry in particular. Through computation and visualization, computer scientists and poetry scholars have created a "magic lens" that allows us to rethink, gain access to different attributes of a poem, and unearth its hidden meanings and ideas, as McCurdy et al. (2015) explained:

> The use of digital tools across disciplines in the humanities has exploded during the last decade. Popular projects such as the 'Google Ngram Viewer' and 'Wordle' have harnessed the power of computation to look

> across huge corpora of texts, leading to insights that had never been available before. Tools such as these are highly effective in supporting what is called *distant reading* – a term coined by literary scholar Franco Moretti to describe critical approaches that seek to understand literature and literary history by aggregating and quantitatively analyzing large text corpora. (p. 1)

Accordingly, many new digital methods and visualization tools have been developed, allowing poems to be viewed from different perspectives. Owing to these technological advances, scholars are now able to carry out the critical analysis of poetry by synthesizing and bringing forward specific features and key elements in poems that traditional literary critics have ignored.

Among the most frequently used visualization tools created for this purpose is "Lumen5"—a free video creation software that helps users without any technical expertise to create video content with ease. However, many other visualization tools for poetry analysis are available, including "Myopia", a framework which facilitates poetry analysis by visually emphasizing the structure of the narrative, the poem's organization, language elements, and metaphors employed (Chaturvedi, 2011). Other interesting poetry visualization systems and text visualization tools which were created in support of "distant reading" and for the analysis of poetry include "Vimeo", "Animot", "TextArc", and "Wordle". Tools designed to focus on the frequency and distribution of individual words and phrases to help scholars discover patterns and concepts in any text by leveraging human visual processing include "Poem Viewer", a visualization technique with the ability to identify sonic elements automatically, and a visualization tool which "employs rule-based visual mapping techniques to present a range of information about the poem" (McCurdy et al., 2015, p. 2), as well as "GistIcons", "Docuburst", "Compus", and "Galaxies", which employ semantic analysis of key concepts to allow users to gain a quick overview of texts. In the current study, "Lumen5" was adopted as a visualization tool to analyze William Wordsworth's poem "I Wandered Lonely as a Cloud" because it is free, simple, and easy to use.

C. "Lumen5" Visualization Tool: A Case Study at Sultan Qaboos University

Despite the reluctance of literary scholars and pedagogues in the English Department at Sultan Qaboos University to incorporate visualization tools into the realm of literary-critical enquiry, the work presented here proposes and details the functionality and practical application of "Lumen5" as a visualization tool for the critical analysis of William Wordsworth's "I Wandered Lonely as a Cloud" and creation of videos. The "Poetry in Motion" initiative, as a part of which students animated poems and translated them into movies started in James Franco's class at NYU's Graduate Film program. The topic was "How to Direct Poetry".

However, our efforts in this respect primarily derive their inspiration from three seminal works, namely Emert's (2013) *The Transpoemations Project*, Jockers' (2013) *Macroanalysis*, and Delmonte's (2014) *A Computational Approach to Poetic Structure, Rhythm and Rhyme*.

"Lumen5" is an experimental visualization tool with a visual interface that can be used to analyze poems, as it displays a wide range of poetic elements, such as texts, pictures, and music. Based on this visualization framework, these elements are uploaded manually, allowing users to act as "active constructors of meaning" and moviemakers (Gainer & Lapp, 2010, p. 63). Moreover, as they process text automatically and uncover new knowledge and ideas, their understanding is amplified.

Most of our students taking the "Introduction to Poetry" course in the English Department at Sultan Qaboos University have limited technical expertise. Thus, the fact that shortly after they were introduced to "Lumen5" they could apply its various features to William Wordsworth's poem "I Wandered Lonely as a Cloud" demonstrates the practical utility of this visualization tool. The project culminated in the creation of a movie (animated pictures) that combines text, images, and music. This "transpoemation" exercise gave students an opportunity to experience the filmmakers' interpretation of the text by reading poems in a way that writers and filmmakers would. According to Czarnecki (2009), by imitating elements of the poet's composition, students can engage in a creative process that requires them "use their imaginations" (p. 18), paying particular attention to the poem's structure, tone, diction, and elements of style. In the experimental phase, students progressed through three stages of "transpoemation".

In the first stage, students were asked to read and respond to Wordsworth's "I Wandered Lonely as a Cloud", which features a lonely speaker expressing admiration for the beauty he perceives in nature in general and the majesty of the daffodils in particular. While students viewed and read the poem on the screen, they attended to the poet's use of language and analyzed themes. They were playful in their interactions with the text, as their aim was to create a film by imitating the poet's style, poetic structures, rhythm, literary devices, and language. In order to move from page to screen, they had to translate the written text into a visual format, i.e., a movie, using a simple moviemaking software.

The second stage in the "transpoemation" exercise consisted of reading each stanza of the poem aloud, before having a group discussion on the poet's choice of words, repetition, exaggeration, wordplay, and the poem's language.

In the last stage in the "transpoemation" exercise, students moved to the computer lab, where they learned to use "Lumen5" MovieMaker software and gained the requisite technology skills. They also practiced searching the internet for images, uploading, downloading, saving, and filing the documents for later use. As most students were not proficient in the use of computers, they spent some time organizing their files into folders and directories to facilitate subsequent access and retrieval. Once they were sufficiently familiar with these tasks, students translated the lines of the poem visually, revised their work and their choice of images, music and tone, and downloaded a "soundtrack" that fits

the mood and tone of the poem. Finally, students created the drafted versions of their movies, paying attention to timing and details that could affect viewers' evaluation (cf. Appendix).

III. Conclusion

As can be seen from the practical application of "Lumen5" in the classroom when analyzing a poem, when latest technology is used in the right context, it can serve as a valuable tool that supports "close reading" and the traditional critical framework. Thus, scholars and literary critics should not abandon this traditional criticism model, since exploring meanings in any literary work, including poems, would benefit from the application of both "close" and "distant" reading paradigms.

It is equally important to note that dispensing with close reading in the new millennium does not deny its benefits and potential effects, since close reading remains a fundamental critical method, as Gallop (2007) maintained when she wrote:

> not because it is necessarily the best way to read literature but because it, learned through practice with literary texts, learned in literature classes, is a widely applicable skill, of value not just to scholars in other disciplines but to a wide range of students with many different futures. Students trained in close reading have been known to apply it to diverse sorts of texts, --newspaper articles, textbooks in other disciplines, political speeches—and thus to discover things they would not otherwise have noticed. This enhanced, intensified reading can prove invaluable for many kinds of jobs as well as in their lives. (p. 183)

Although "transpoemation" and the visualization tools offered by "Lumen5" enable literary critics and literature students to interpret a poem and attain a richer and healthier understanding of poems, it would be dishonest to pretend that a computational approach solves all the problems of mutually exclusive interpretations of poems.

The existence of "massive digital corpora" has made the traditional ways of interpreting literary texts inappropriate, impractical, and "untenable" (Jockers, 2013, p. 21). However, the new possibility of literary interpretation through computational processing does not undermine their value. Rather, it prompts new questions, which would lead to the exploration of unknown avenues and new practices, while sharpening or revising the existing ones.

While supporting the incorporation of recent theories and practices—namely "distant reading", visualization, and "transpoemation"—into the literary study, the evidence presented here certainly does not challenge the "follow us or die" view defended by Saklofske et al. (2012). These authors debated that digital reading, owing to multimedia technology, has recently become a cornerstone of text analysis:

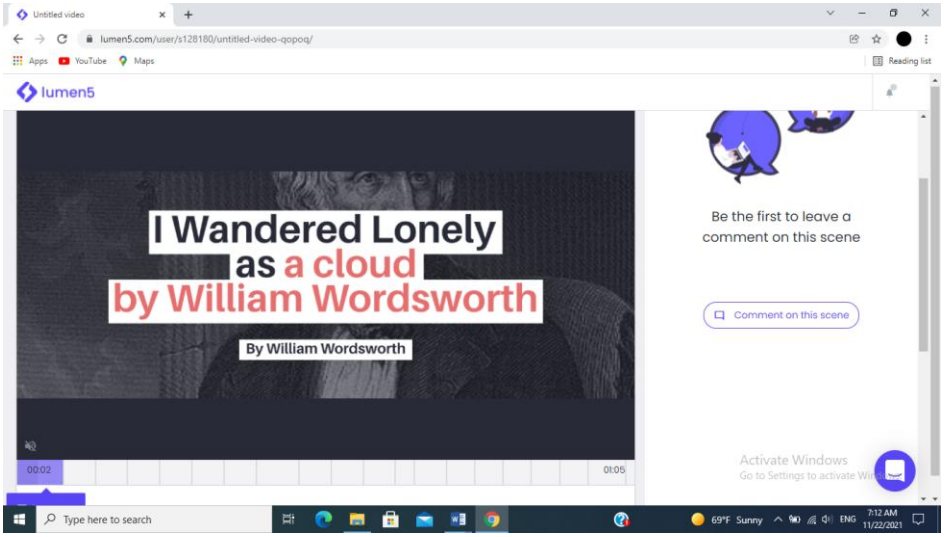
> Taking a wait-and-see attitude that cautiously preserves the status quo is akin to choosing an unnecessary slow death over the possibility of an innovative cure. In an era of budget crisis, enrollment uncertainty, and an increasing lack of connections between university-level career preparation and professional practice, it would be foolish to ignore an opportunity to reinvent [the humanities] and reconsider existing paradigms and practices. Digital humanities represent an already-established movement from the doom-inviting stasis of the second hand conservatism of universities that know the Net Generation has come, and yet decline to build the education system Net Geners both want and need. (p. 329)

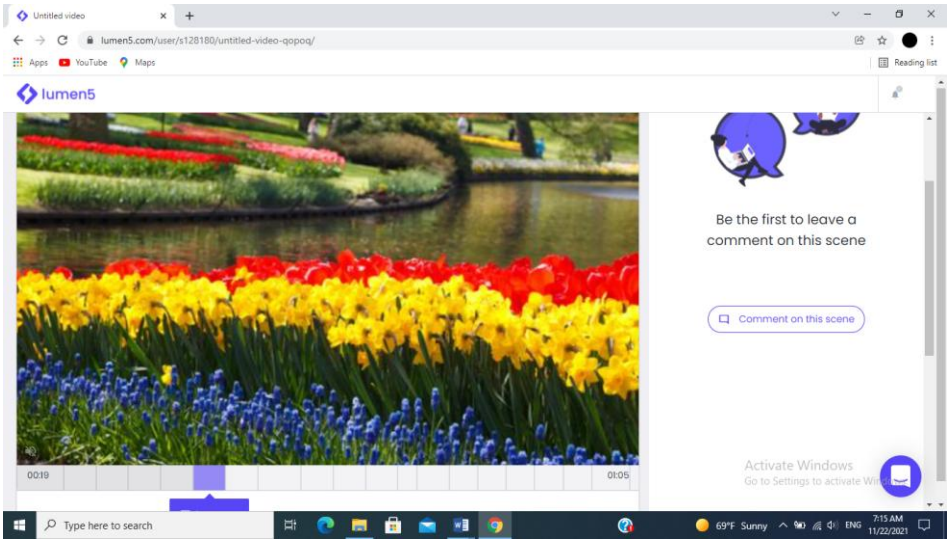
From this perspective, this paper does not offer a definitive prescription or a fixed paradigm that must be followed. Rather, its aim is to convey a spirit upon which an argument for an ongoing struggle to unravel a vexing tangle in literary analysis should rest. Likewise, the proposed visualization framework cannot be easily applied like an "ointment" because no one can claim to understand everything or have a latchkey to the "correct" meaning of a literary text. In sum, the main aim of this paper is to entice scholars and academics to opt for an approach that "opposes centered modes of analysis and enhances plurality and open-endedness for genuine inquiry, an approach where the only way to go wrong is to show refutation or reservation towards other modes of analysis and to decline to meet the challenge" (Ben Zid, 2013, p. 39).

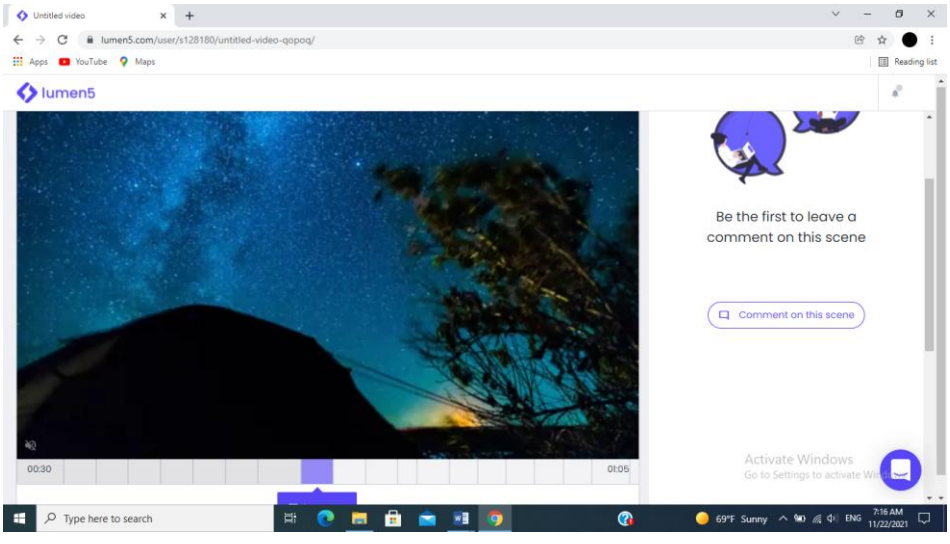
Appendix 1. Links to Student Sample Videos

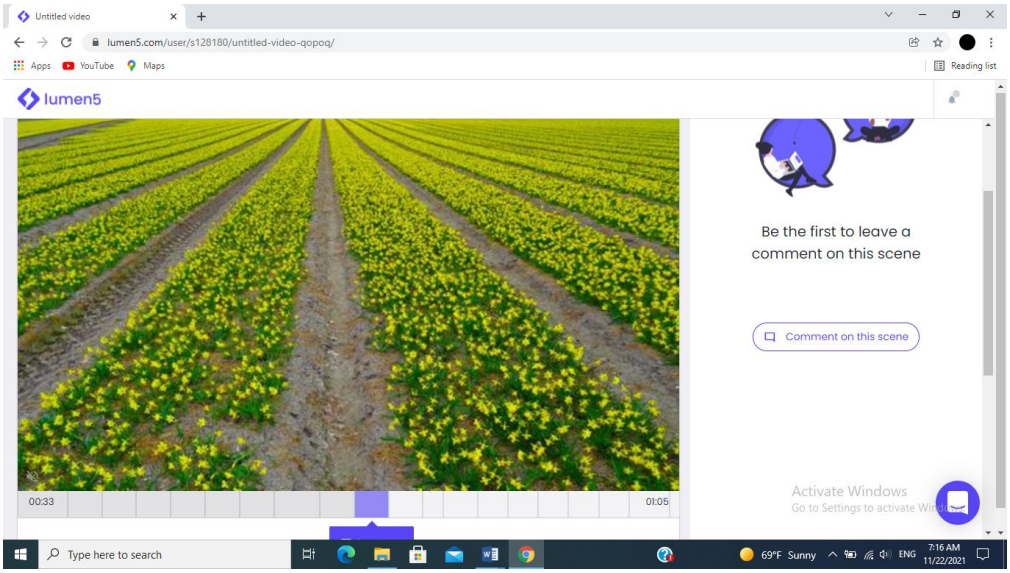
https://lumen5.com/user/s128180/untitled-video-qopoq/
https://drive.google.com/file/d/1OREmNhHAiH48XT6sFnmQCeyfNM3t2zl2/view
https://lumen5.com/user/s125469/untitled-video-abukw/
https://lumen5.com/user/maravilloso67/untitled-video-ojofz/
https://drive.google.com/file/d/1ueqPB76HkpyfbM4DOz1IfkWkg0dWByZY/view
https://lumen5.com/user/s125815/al-safa-humaid-al-ho-qa6h8/
https://lumen5.com/user/s125832/alla-rashid-al-maama-s2cu3/
https://lumen5.com/user/s120367/i-wondered-lonely-as-b30z4/
https://lumen5.com/user/s128180/untitled-video-qopoq/

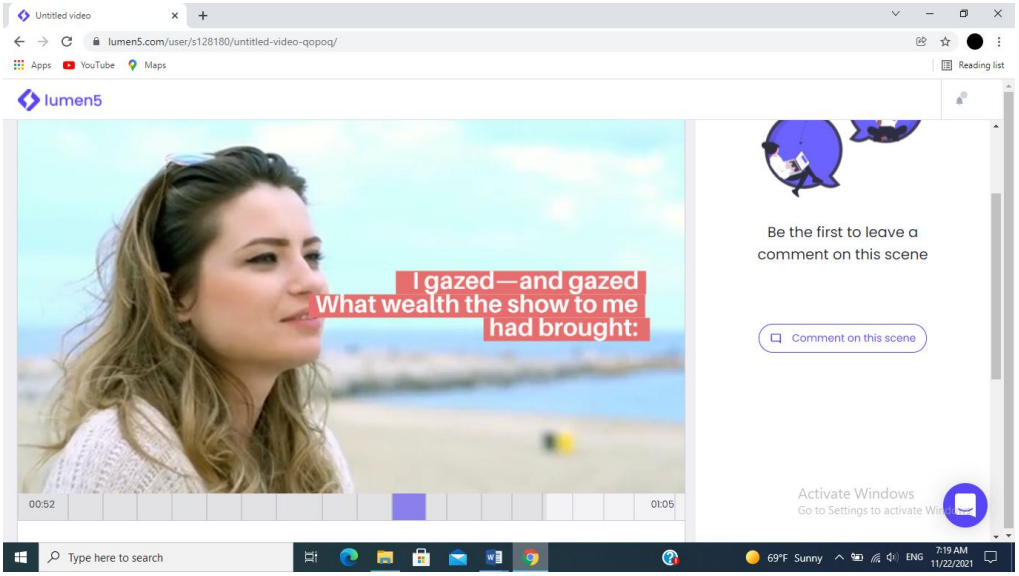
APPENDIX 2. STUDENT SAMPLE VIDEO IMAGES

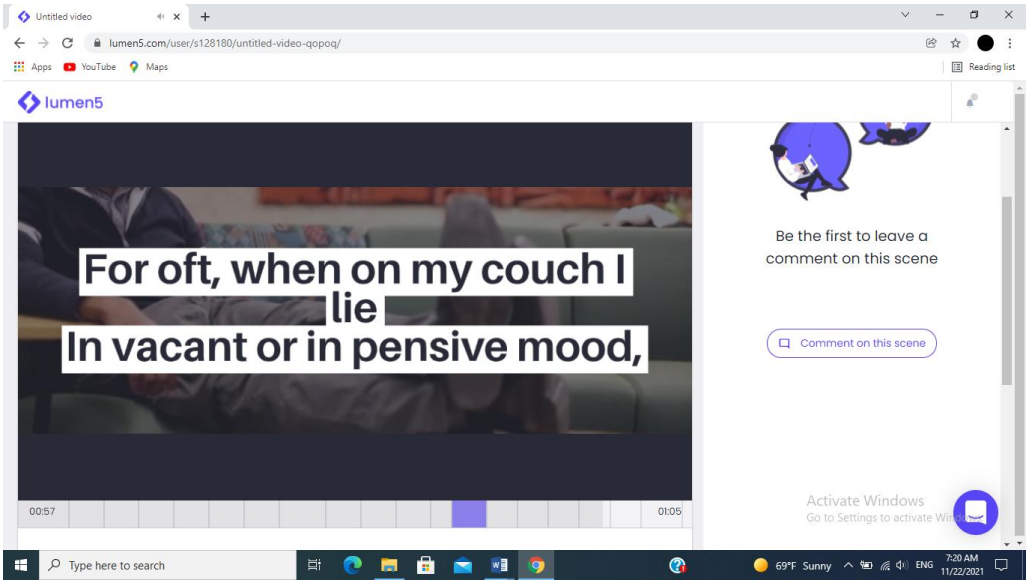












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Dissent by Design: A Multimodal Study of 2019 Women's March MY Protest Signs

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***Abstract*—The power of texts and visuals in the repertoire of protests – in both its production and consumption – allows protest movements to not only spread their message faster and mobilise support, but also promote active engagement in the public sphere. The present study examined multimodal discourse of protest by analysing textual and visual resources in protest signs used to express and negotiate feminist ideology at the 2019 Women's March MY in Kuala Lumpur. Following Kress & van Leeuwen's Visual Grammar (2006) and van Leeuwen's Social Actor Network (2008), three themes of the march were selected for multimodal analysis. Findings of the study show that multimodal representations through verbal and visual resources vary in its salience across different themes – where some protest signs lean more towards texts in conveying its messages with minimal visuals, others show a higher reliance on textual and visual convergence to convey meaning as well as to bait the attention of readers. Weighing in on the Malaysian feminist discourse, this study puts forth the potential of multimodal strategies through verbal and visual resources in conveying feminist messages and negotiating social change through the act of protest.**

***Index Terms*—social movement, slogan, protest sign, visual grammar, multimodality**

I. Introduction

In present day Malaysia, the public's ambivalence towards feminism and the fight for women's rights in Malaysia prevails – mainly rooted in the common misconception that the movement is an exclusively western-borne ideology. The clashing attitudes – both positive and negative – towards feminism and the women's rights movement in Malaysia were aptly captured by the 2019 Women's March MY which took place in Kuala Lumpur. The media reported over a thousand people from all walks of life coming together in solidarity to march for women's rights in conjunction with International Women's Day. Women's Aid Organisation (WAO) and Sisters in Islam (SIS) were among the women's groups present alongside activists, students, and members of the public – with the set of demands calling for elimination of gender discrimination, a ban on child marriage, an end to violence against women - reinforcing women's rights in all spaces and pushing for equal opportunities and wages (Yong, 2019). The event itself was met with an uproar of disapproval from religious and political parties, with a backlash going as far as calling it *"a misuse of democratic space"* by a ministry official (Radu, 2019) due to the controversial inclusion of LGBT issues. It is reasonable to presume the discourse of women's rights in Malaysia – considered taboo by some – as a form of negotiation for enacting social change with regards to women's issues. Alongside chanted slogans like *"End child marriage"*, "*Stop Sexism"* and *"Go Die Patriarchy"*, the march displayed over hundreds of protest signs surrounding women's issues, which is the point of interest of this study.

As proposed by Condit and Lucaites (1993), the analysis of slogans in political discourse may provide deeper insights on how social and political problems are constituted and negotiated through political discourse. Signs serve as powerful *"mediational means"* (Scollon, 2001), as it conveys many important messages in the act of protest, which deserves scholarly attention (Kasanga, 2014). Multimodally, with regards to the potential of visual images in relation to the repertoires of protests (e.g., images, memes, photographs, posters, videos), Milner (2013) argued that the production and consumption of images in participatory media helps new protest movements to not only escalate their message faster and mobilise support, but also promote active participation in the public sphere.

The present study acknowledges the following three in building its premise of inquiry: the conflicting acceptance and attitude towards the advocacy of women's rights in Malaysia, the lack of analysis on feminist discourse in the local literature, and the capacity of multimodal resources of protest signs and slogans in conveying dissent. This study serves as a point of intersection in examining how languages – both textual and visual – are mediated by those who engage in the advocacy of women's rights via protests. The present study aims to look at the multimodal representation of the language of dissent in the protest signs at the 2019 Women's March MY.

A. Social Movements and Protests

Social movements, as Jasper (2009) defined it, are *"sustained and intentional efforts to foster or impede social changes, primarily outside the normal institutional channels encouraged by authorities"* (p. 4451) – one among the many definitions that settle onto a form of power struggle. It emerges following the collective desire of the people for the same change, whereby a systemic structure exists to mediate the desire of the public (Blumer, 1969; Mauss, 1975; McCarthy & Zald, 1977; Tilly, 1978). Protests, on the other hand, are the materialisation of social movements. Both terms have been used interchangeably in the literature. The relative distinction between the two can be seen in the sense that protests serve as the main form of communication of social movements with their intended audience (Tratschin, 2016), and is perceived as a set of political actions that include strikes, petitions, sit-ins, and more (Keren, 2006).

Observing the connection between language and ideology through the lens of power dynamics and the act of disruptive protests, Beќar (2015) posits that English is used to practice power balance – whereby the oppressed attempts to exert or seize power to further their ideologies through an act that deliberately disrupts and inconveniences the system the authorities, who holds power granted by said system.

The impact of social movements and protests, however, exists on a spectrum – where its most extreme implication would take form in revolutions and collapse of the system, the minimal expectation that entails an act of protest is to facilitate social change within the system. Social movements through its various realisations – from rallies to sit-ins and protests, both static and mobilised – depend on visibility to succeed. Achieving visibility goes beyond ensuring public attention to its key message and demands, it also inspirits the masses to join the cause. Recognising visibility as a requisite for success in protests – whether to enact social change or to incite the downfall of a system – the visual and verbal language of dissent holds a certain weight of power in communicating key demands. The focal point of most studies concerning protest discourse has fixated on the impact of languages on the audiences (e.g., Sonntag, 2003; Frekko, 2009; Bassiouney, 2012; Lahlali, 2014; Bahrudin & Bakar 2022). Calibrating the focus onto the expressions of dissent within the context of the women's rights movement in Malaysia, the present study seeks to contribute an analytical insight on the verbal and visual resources employed in the creation of protest signs, further looking into protesters' multimodal strategies as a conscious choice to express their dissent to contest and negotiate the feminist ideology within the local community.

B. Feminism in Malaysia

In Malaysia, feminism and the women's rights movement has grown its roots since the nation's pre-independence, but the present-day acceptance of the concept representing advocacy for women's issues still varies among Malaysians in history. The perspective towards the concept of feminism, according to Rohana (1999), is viewed as a western ideal deemed unsuitable to the local community as women's demands in Malaysia need to be conveyed with respect towards the state, family, and religion. The Malaysian feminist activism has well garnered its due recognition over the years, however the fight is often absorbed and marked under the banner of women's struggles against discrimination and injustice. In other words, the typical Malaysian struggles are feminist, but are not branded nor recognised as such. This provides an understanding of the stigma around the term 'feminism' and words closely associated with it among Malaysians. Due to the misinterpretation of feminism being perceived as an unfitting, irrelevant western ideal, many Malaysian women are especially hesitant to identify themselves as feminists, and the advancement of any attempt henceforth by individuals and a coalition of women groups to elevate the status of women in Malaysia is compromised due to the reluctance to embrace feminism (Rohana, 1999). It is also worth noting that the multiracial and multiethnic nature of the Malaysian demographic plays into the compromised prospects for collaboration and alliance among women's groups (Mohamed, 2000).

Mired in the academic discourse, local academicians have also sought to define just what 'Malaysian feminism' means but to no avail, which is why the question of what makes a feminist movement 'Malaysian' is still being negotiated and contested (Rohana, 1994). Debunking the need for an objectively singular identity, Ng, Maznah and Tan (2006) assert that various manifestations of feminism exist in Malaysia which instead acknowledges and accepts the differences along sub-ideological lines (Yusoh et al., 2018, Bakar, 2020; Noor et al., 2022). According to Shymala (1995), gradual acceptance of feminism in Malaysia shows that, as found in a survey, most Malaysian women do embrace a moderate or liberal form of feminism (Rohana, 1999). Stemming as early as Malaysia's pre-independence, the persistent objective of the women's rights and feminist movement in Malaysia had always been to liberate and uphold women above oppression. However, in its progression across history, its goals within politics, gender-based violence, as well as inequality oriented towards personal faith have all shifted in its emphasis.

Looking into the Malaysian feminist movement from a linguistic point of view, Alicia (2013) argues that the linguistic landscape of feminist discourse is influenced and conditioned by these historical and political conditions. Acknowledging the diversity of feminist manifestations in Malaysia, Ng et al. (2006) marked the trajectory of feminism in Malaysia within four phases throughout history: nationalist feminism, social feminism, political feminism, and market-driven feminism. Although the resources surrounding the development of the Malaysian feminist movement are fairly accessible in the literature, scholarly attention and analysis on the language use in feminist discourse in Malaysia are limited (Alicia, 2013). Merging the context of Malaysian feminism through the lens of language and ideology, the present study attempts to examine the use of multimodal strategies in protest signs to express dissent by participants of the 2019 Women's March MY.

C. Multimodality in Protests

Multimodality is described as employing two or more modes in meaning-making process, whereas modes are semiotic resources enabling realisations of discourses and various types of interaction and representation of social life (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001). Different semiotic modes are chosen and brought together from the range of available options and is expressed "according to the interests of a particular communication situation" (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001, p.22). Idiagbon (2014) examined the multimodality of images displayed by protesters against the Federal Government of Nigeria and the Nigeria Labour Congress Face Off with the aim of showing the inter-semiotic and semantic connection and coherence in the written and graphic meaning of the written mode. Using unedited video footages as empirical data, Day et al. (2018) undertook a multimodal study that covers a wider range of modality alongside the context of the protest performance in Cape Town, South Africa. Looking into the visual, aural, embodied, and spatial aspects, findings of the study conclude that moments of protests shift dynamically, and the enactments within it seem to be essential in the resistance to power, insurgence, cooperation, and legitimate or illegitimate actions as defined by official discourse.

From the perspective of physical protest posters as a medium of communication, Yanker (1970) asserts a clear reliance on visual and verbal representations for protest posters to invoke positive attitude and encourage reaction in its intended audience. Crawford (1979) adds that protest posters serve to project information and affect attitude. Perceived as rhetorical presentations made for public display, protest posters are salient in both its visual and verbal dimensions, often comprising captivating graphics and straightforward catchy phrases. Studying protest posters as multimodal rhetorical artifacts, Zhao (2017) explored the mutual connection between rhetorical purpose and multimodal concision in protest posters before and during the Québécois student movement in 2011 and 2012, refining the framework of multimodality while accounting for style sensitivity through an economy-of-sign based semiotic approach.

Accumulating insights from past studies analysing multimodality in protests while noting the lack of multimodal research pertaining to protest discourse within the women's rights movement in Malaysia, the visual and verbal language used in Malaysian feminist activism becomes the point of interest in the present study.

II. Methodology

Focusing on multimodal representation of dissent, the framework of visual grammar proposed by Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) and van Leeuwen's Social Actor Network (2008) were used to examine verbal and visual realisations of selected themes of the march.

A. Data Collection Procedure

At the 2019 Women's March MY which took place on 8th March 2019 in Kuala Lumpur, the researcher captured as many images as possible protest signs of all types: cardboard signage, flags, and prints, from the start until the end of the event. Acknowledging the limitation of the researcher in photographing all signs while participating in the event, visual protest signs were also sourced online. Using the terms 'Women's March MY', '#WomenMarchMY', 'Kuala Lumpur' and 'Perhimpunan Wanita', signs, and posters were also searched on Twitter and Facebook daily for a week beginning 8th March 2019, to identify protest signs the researcher might have missed. Images of signs captured and uploaded by other participants were sourced with granted permission by the owners. Visual data sourced by the researcher herself through participation and online sources were merged and included in the analysis. Given the multimodal nature of protest signs, visual grammar framework (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006) was used to examine the interplay of different resources (i.e. images and texts) observed in the protest signs to reveal semiotic connection and cohesion in the multimodal representation of dissent.

B. Data Analysis Procedure

Employing a qualitative design following the Grounded Theory approach, a collection of images was used as the starting point, and themes and patterns of features were inductively identified and refined into categories for systemic examination. Individual protest signs were used as unit of analysis, whereby:

(a) Each sign was visible and decipherable, and was excluded if otherwise
(b) Two signs composing of the same words created by different movement members were analysed as two separate units
(c) Multiple signs that appear together in a photographed image were analysed separately as individual units

The analysis of data focused on identifying and examining social actor representation as well as the visual elements used for semiotic cohesion by the protesters. In grouping the 270 protest signs into its respective themes of discourse, the study utilised the constant comparative method to compare sign messages with one another, which were then be clustered into groups based on their similarity. The different types of social actor representation were identified in each protest sign and the data was then quantified and tabulated by aspects of thematic categories, social actor representation (van Leeuwen, 2008) and visual analysis (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2006; Bakar, 2015). The analytical approach chosen in the present study showed the emergence of multimodal representation patterns in selected protest themes through the interplay of textual and visual resources.

Hence, the present study aims to answer the following questions:

1. What are the emerging themes of 2019 Women's March MY protest signs?
2. How is multimodality represented by the protesters in conveying their messages of dissent at the 2019 Women's March MY protest signs?

III. Findings and Discussion

Acknowledging that the protesters' ways of meaning making is not exclusive to textual choices but also relies heavily on visuals to reinforce the delivery of the message forms the main crux of the analysis. Semiotic patterns in the protest signs were observed in the frame of multimodality, whereby textual components converged with visuals - pictures, fonts, and colour choices - in the construction of meanings (Kress and Van Leeuwen, 1996, p. 81). In this study, our analysis intends to observe the interplay of textual components and images (pictures and drawings) to construe different themes of the march in the protest signs.

In the context of Women's March MY 2019, the prominent visual images that emerged alongside texts were of (1) women (2) raised fist, (3) body parts, (4) children, and (5) symbols. In such categories, specific signs used certain texts along with images or drawings to reinforce intended representational meanings. Some visuals were used to mirror its verbal counterparts to provide characterization, seen through drawings of women and children. Other visuals went further beyond as means of sensationalisation, evident in the drawings of bare breasts and other body parts, reflecting the objectivation of social actors in the texts. Aside from mirroring and sensationalising, some visuals also served to project ideology through iconology and symbols.

A. Common Themes of 2019 Women's March My Protest Signs

In exploring the themes of the protest sign messages brought by the protesters, signs were compared to one another, identified, and refined into respective thematic categories. Weber et al. (2018) argued that Women's March embodies the notion of a connective action, in which Bennet and Segerberg (2013) pinned as *"organisationally enabled connective action"* featuring *"networks of organizations sponsoring multiple actions and causes around a general set of issues in which followers are invited to personalize their engagement (more or less) on their own terms"* (p. 13). Protests and mobilisations in the era of individualised politics, according to Bennett (2012), always involves an array of issues prompted into the same protests through a widely shared, late modern-day spirit of diversity and inclusiveness. Additionally, with such individualised orientations, it results in the public's engagement with politics as an expression of personal hopes, lifestyles, and dissent against injustice (Gordon & Mihailidis, 2016).

With regards to Women's March MY 2019, the prompted issues were evident in the five demands nominated by the organisers of the event, serving as the underpinning action themes of the march. The multitude of issues framed into five main demands include:

1. To end violence based on gender and sexual orientation,
2. To abolish child marriage,
3. To ensure the rights of women to make choices over their bodies and lives
4. To ensure a dignified minimum wage of RM 1800
5. To destroy patriarchy and build a genuine democracy at all levels of society.

As far as personalised politics go, the political engagement of the public in Women's March MY can be seen as their own expression of dissent and dissatisfaction as well as personal hopes for social progress. Aside from the already broadly defined demands of the march, some slogans fall into seven additional themes which emerged in the analysis of the protest signs. With reference to the frames identified in Women's March on Washington (Weber et al., 2018), several emerging themes are similar and are adopted in the context of Women's March MY.

1. Unity and Solidarity for Women
2. Criticism of Misogyny
3. Defining and Criticising Feminism
4. Gender Equality
5. Identity
6. Rejection of Gender Norms
7. Women as Powerful Agents of Resistance

Among the emergent themes, a number of protest signs that did not fall into any of the identified themes were categorised as *sui generis* (i.e., unique, of its own kind, in a class by itself). Due to neither of its textual or visual resources bearing any familiarity to any specific themes, the interpretation of said protest signs solely relied on the context of the protest. Table 1 below breaks down the common themes of demand in Women's March MY 2019 protest signs.

TABLE 1
COMMON THEMES OF 2019 WOMEN'S MARCH MY PROTEST SIGNS

Themes Of Demand	Frequency	Percentage	Examples
1. Women's Rights to Choices Over Their Own Body And Lives	47	17.53	*My Body My Choice* *Girls Just Want to Have Fundamental Human Rights* *My Uterus My Business*
2. Abolish Child Marriages	25	9.30	*Child Marriage Is Child Abuse* *Child Marriages Are Disgusting & Nasty* *Child Marriage Is Child Damage*
3. End Violence Based on Gender and Sexual Orientation	23	8.58	*Criminalize Marital Rape* *End All Violence Based on Gender And Sexual Orientation* *We Have No Place for Harassers On Campus!*
4. Destroy patriarchy and build democracy at all levels of society	28	10.44	*Dismantle the Patriarchy* *Hulk Smash the Patriarchy* *Strike the Patriarchy Down*
5. Unity And Solidarity For Women	20	7.46	*I'm With Her* *Empowered Women Empower Women* *I Am A Strong Woman Because Strong Women Raised Me*
6. Criticism of misogyny	33	12.31	*Cat Calling Is Not A Compliment* *Fight Misogyny* *Sexism Does Not Spark Joy*
7. Defining feminism	13	4.85	*FEM.I.NIST: (Noun) 1. A Person Who Believes in The Social, Political, And Economic Equality of The Sexes* *Feminism Is for Everyone*
8. Gender equality	15	5.56	*Men of Quality Do Not Fear Equality* *People of Quality Do Not Fear Equality* *To Those Accustomed to Privilege Equality Feels Like Oppression*
9. Identity	7	2.59	*We Exist* *I Am A Feminist* *I'm Trans And I Exist*
10. Rejection of gender norms	11	4.07	*Boys Will Be ~~Boys~~ Feminists* *We Are Not Ovary-Acting* *Teach Your Sons*
11. Women as powerful agents of resistance	38	14.07	*Respect Existence Or Expect Resistance* *Women Don't Owe You Shit* *We Resist*
12. Sui generis	8	2.97	*I ♡Naps but I Stay Woke* *Tweet Others How You Want to Be Tweeted* *It's 2019 I Can't Believe I Still Have to Protest This*
TOTAL	268	100	

B. Multimodal Representation of the Language of Dissent

Following Van Leeuwen's Social Actor Network (2008) and Visual Grammar (2006), the multimodal representation of dissent was explored according to common themes and the interplay of textual and visual elements as cohesive devices of meaning-making. Three themes were chosen to demonstrate the multimodal interplay of textual and visual elements in the creation of protest signs: (a) women's rights to choices over their own body and lives, (b) unity and solidarity for women, and (c) women as powerful agents of resistance.

1. Women's Rights to Choices over Their Own Body and Lives

Textually, the narrative of one's rights and agency in choices was actualised through the use of possessive pronouns *my, her,* and *our* in their slogans. The theme regarding women's rights to choices over their own bodies and lives was explicitly conveyed with noun phrases that denoted choices, like "*My Body My Choice*" and "*My Clothes My Choice*" (see Table 2). Protesters also conveyed the demand for choice in the sign "*My Hips Are My Own, Not Just For Childbearing!*" – asserting their right to personal autonomy through the use of possessive determiner (*my own*), meant as a swipe to the patriarchal culture that controls women's personal choices in many aspects of their lives, often minimising women, and their bodies to its functional worth (childbearing). A similar narrative was presented ironically in the sign "*my body belongs to 1. my father 2. my husband 3. my child NEVER to me*", indicating a woman's right to her own body is rooted in kinship, marital, and maternal functions and relations, instead of a woman's own agency as an individual.

Figure 1 Signs for Women's Rights to Choices Over Their Own Body and Lives Incorporating Possessivation

Where some sample signs only employed capitalised caps onto contrasting colour choices, some protesters visually employed the narrative of choice and agency through individual differences – the choice to don or not to don the headscarf, or to style their hair unconventionally – all in which served to signal personal identity (see Figure 1).

TABLE 2
VERBAL AND VISUAL ELEMENTS CONSTRUING WOMEN'S RIGHTS TO CHOICES OVER THEIR OWN BODY AND LIVES USING POSSESSIVATION

Thematic Category	Verbal Realisations	Visual Realisations
Women's Rights to Choices Over Their Own Body And Lives	1. Nouns '*body'* and '*choice'* 2. Somatisation of social actors, premodification of nouns with possessive pronouns; "*her body" "my body" "my hips*"	Depicted qualities and attributes: Hair styles, head gear, accessories

The visual representation of women's rights themes also constructed meaning in a sensationalised way with drawings of women's breasts. Figure 2 shows how protesters actively incorporated social actor representation via somatization, strategically paired with visuals of body parts.

Figure 2 Signs of Women's Rights to Choices Over Their Own Body and Lives Incorporating Somatization and Bodily Visuals

The phrase "*Let My Nips Be Free*" can be interpreted literally or figuratively – but essentially boils down as a callout to the culture of men controlling women's bodies on what they should wear, using breasts – the most sexualised body part of women – as the subject. The message can also be perceived as a swipe at the patriarchal culture that constantly sexualises women's bodies, which results in women being shamed for their clothing choices. Employing similar visuals, one protest sign reads "*Still Not Asking For It*", which aims to respond to the harmful, however very common commentary of sexual harassment victims "asking for it" regarding rape crimes, which perpetuates victim-blaming and further enables rape culture by normalising the crime and being apologetic of its perpetrators.

In the above collection of protest signs highlighting women's rights to choices over their own bodies, protesters employed the category of possessivated somatization in representing themselves as social actors in discourse (e.g. – *My Body, My Uterus, My Nips, My Vagina*). In their slogans, the act of reclaiming their rights to choices over their own bodies was apparent in the interplay between the two categories of Social Actor framework. The discussion of women's body parts, when isolated from the women themselves by others, can be deemed as sexual objectification. However, in voicing dissent, grounding their body parts as the subject of their slogans while asserting their rightful possession of their body parts through possessivation (insertion of possessive pronouns such as my, her, ours) is an act of reclamation from the protesters themselves. The interplay of textual strategy was also further reinforced with visuals of body parts to amplify the message, especially with drawings of bare breasts and the outline of a woman's bodily curves, things that are often sexualised in the media and society (see Table 3).

TABLE 3
VERBAL AND VISUAL ELEMENTS INCORPORATING SOMATIZATION AND BODILY VISUALS

Thematic Category	Verbal Realisations	Visual Realisations
Women's Rights to Choices Over Their Own Body And Lives	Nouns of body parts Somatisation of social actors, premodification of nouns with possessive pronouns; *"my nips" "our bodies" "my vagina" "my uterus"*	Depicted qualities and attributes: Body shapes, bare breasts, vagina and uterus, raised fist

2. Unity and Solidarity for Women

The theme Unity and Solidarity for women were realised textually using association to represent social actors, seen through the preposition *with*, displaying a direct association between the activation of the protester (*I am*) and women of the society (*her*). Echoing messages of "*I'm With Her*" in Figure 3 below were frequently seen in the protest, all similarly accessorised with arrows pointing outwards, denoting their association and solidarity with the women present in the protest. The recurring phrase "*I'm with her"* makes up a prominent sub-theme in Unity and Solidarity for women: mainly co-opting and echoing Hillary Clinton's run for presidency tagline in 2016 with similar use of icons and symbols to signify the collective action of meaning making by the protesters in their mobilisation (Bennet & Segerberg, 2013).

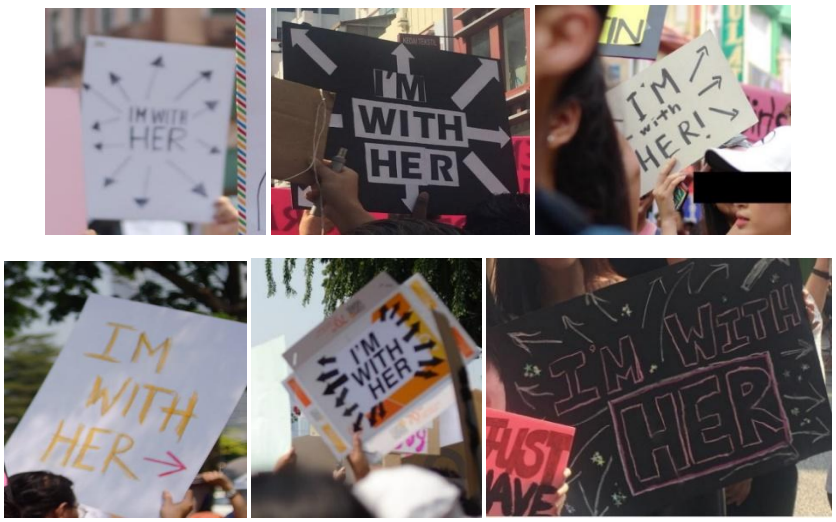

Figure 3 Signs for Unity and Solidarity for Women Incorporating Activation, Association, and Arrow Visual

In the signs above (Figure 3), the textual and visual analysis showed social actor realisation through the first-person pronoun *I*, association via the preposition *with*, and the visual use of arrows. Where other slogans opted for classification and relational identification to represent social actors in their message of unity and solidarity (e.g. – *Women support women, Support our sisters*), the use of personal pronoun *I* reinforced agency, acting as a dynamic force of action in their slogan regardless of their gender, age, or social group. Bound by spatial boundaries of protest signs, the interplay of textual and visual choices also served as the protesters' stance in grounding their physical presence as alliance with other fellow women marching for their rights. Previous studies have suggested protests as deeply physical and sensual experiences – which serves as both collective and connective action mobilising bodies and senses in space (Fabricant & Postero, 2013; Sutton, 2010). Their presence itself lent further context to the message displayed on the protest sign, and this served as an act of reinforcement – that women are not alone in the fight for their rights, but women should also not be overshadowed by their allies in the fight for women's issues. The recurring use of outwards arrow complemented her and served to direct readers' attention to the women at the march voicing their dissent.

The textual and visual interplay uncovered the transformation of individual agencies (through the use of singular first-person pronoun *I* and singular third person pronoun *her*) which became a collective show of solidarity, echoed from one person to another; the pronoun *her* symbolised women in society in general instead of one specific person. The multiple arrows surrounding singular pronouns connoted unity and solidarity towards women as an entire group.

In this context, manifested intertextuality is leveraged by the protesters through the adoption of ideas, icons, symbols and imagery of fellow activists and movements, allowing them to deliver their message of support and dissent within the women's rights movement in Malaysia.

TABLE 4
VERBAL AND VISUAL ELEMENTS CONSTRUING UNITY AND SOLIDARITY FOR WOMEN THROUGH ACTIVATION, ASSOCIATION, AND ARROW VISUALS

Thematic Category	Verbal Realisations	Visual Realisations
Unity and Solidarity with Women	Activation of social actors through the I-statement Verb clauses; relational process (being) Association of social actor realised by circumstances of accompaniment via prepositional phrase with "I'm with her"	Depicted action with vectors, iconography: Arrow icons pointing outwards

3. Woman as Powerful Agents of Resistance

In the emergent theme of Women as Powerful Agents of Resistance, Figure 4 showcases signs where the social actor is excluded by suppression. Protesters opted for agent deletion in constructing their dissent through nominalisation (e.g. – *Power To The Women*), and imperative sentences with covert subject (e.g. – *Rise Up Pussy Power, Fight Like A Girl, Respect Existence Or Expect Resistance*). Despite the deletion of agent via covert subject, protesters were also represented via classification, specifically by the female gender (*Women, Girls*) as well as its symbolism (*Pussy Power*). In some signs, this textual element was complemented by drawings of women, and in others by the female gender symbol (♀).

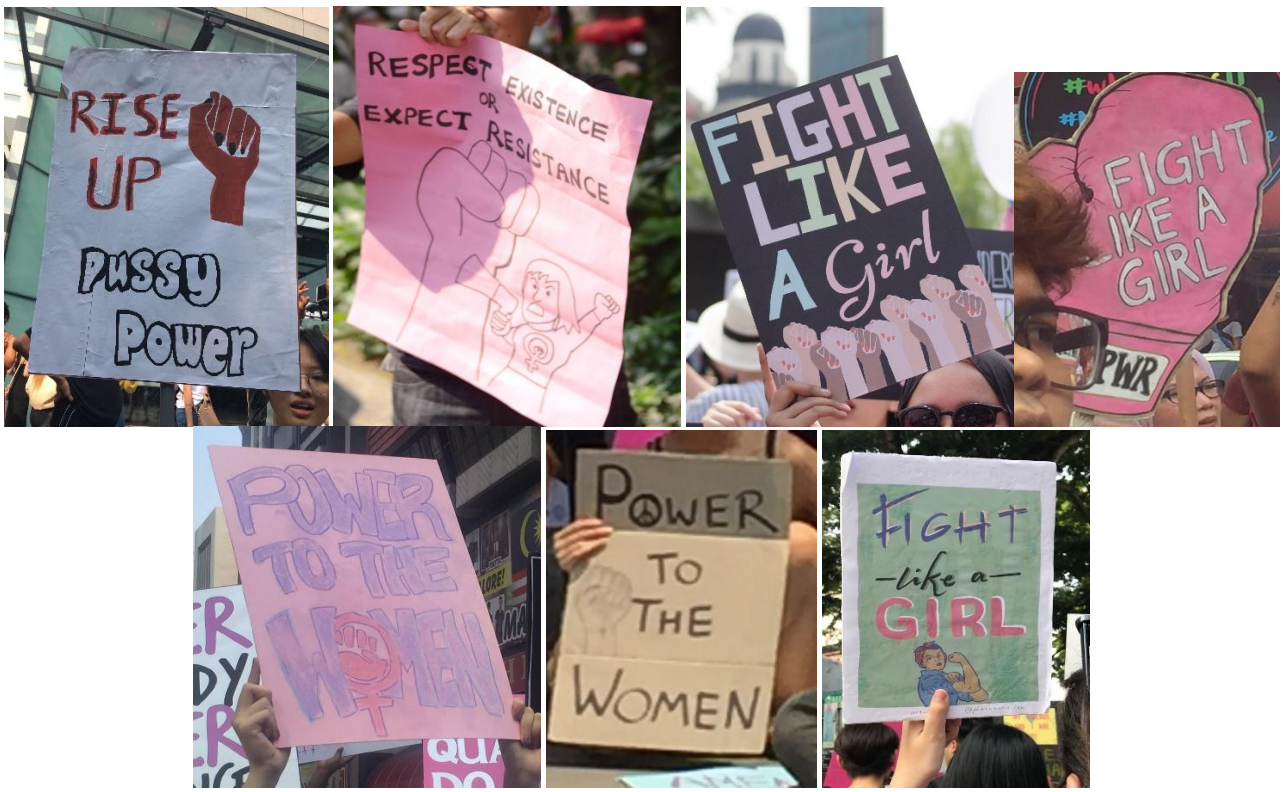

Figure 4 Signs for Women as Powerful Agents of Resistance Incorporating the Imperative Mood, Classification, and Visuals of the Femme Fist

The recurring phrase *Fight Like A Girl*, adopted from the popular #LikeAGirl campaign by the feminine hygiene company Always was echoed by the protesters in their signs to imply their explicit resistance in the fight for women's rights. Although adopted word for word, each protest sign was multimodally personalised in its own way while incorporating a shared visual – the femme fist. The femme fist was visually identified in multiple signs of resistance, which was appropriate given its historic context of the women's rights movement. Visually realised in different ways, one sign visualised the femme fist in a row of multiple women's hands of different skin tones raising their fists in

unison, another visualised the raised fist with a pink boxing glove which indicated a physical fight, and another through the graphic visualisation of Rosie the Riveter, a cultural icon representing female workers during World War II.

The femme fist was also seen in protest signs bearing the slogan *Power To The Women* – both incorporating the female symbol (♀); one was drawn on the wrist of a raised fist, in another the raised fist was superimposed into the circle of the female symbol (♀) (see Figure 4).

TABLE 5
VERBAL AND VISUAL ELEMENTS CONSTRUING UNITY AND SOLIDARITY FOR WOMEN THROUGH THE IMPERATIVE MOOD, CLASSIFICATION, AND FEMME FIST VISUALS

Thematic Category	Verbal Realisations	Visual Realisations
Women as Powerful Agents of Resistance	Classification of social actors by gender "girl","women" and the somatic equivalent "pussy" Suppression of social actors by nominalisation "POWER TO THE WOMEN" Suppression of social actors by agent deletion via the imperative mood Verb clauses; material process (action), mental process (affection, cognition) "FIGHT LIKE A GIRL" "RISE UP PUSSY POWER" "RESPECT EXISTENCE OR EXPECT RESISTANCE	Depicted qualities and attributes: Women, strong, loud Painted nails on raised fists Pink boxing glove Depicted action with vectors, iconography: Raised fist / femme fist, female symbol (♀)

Summarising the interplay of textual and visual resources in the selected themes above, specific texts or visuals appear to repeat across multiple protest signs, revealing the emergence of a pattern of multimodal representation. In representing meaning, some protest signs appear more text-oriented whereas others show a reliance on the merging of verbal and visual resources. Both textual and visual intertextuality was also identified across different themes, evident in echoing messages of "*I'm with her*" adopted from American politics as well as the femme fist symbol to signify feminist resistance, morphed into different forms as well as imposed into texts.

All in all, the public's political engagement reflects their personal hopes and dissent against injustice despite their individual political orientations (Bahrudin & Bakar, 2022), and the shared visuals and symbols from one protest sign to another alongside the co-option of slogans from existing social and corporate activism signifies the protesters' collective action of meaning-making in expressing dissent (Bennet & Segerberg, 2013).

IV. CONCLUSION

Revolving around current women's issues in Malaysia, the Women's March MY protest rightfully reflected the notion of individualised politics, prompting an array of social concerns through widely shared spirit of diversity and inclusiveness. Common themes of the march include the five demands nominated by the organisers of the event, which are (a) women's rights to choices over their own body and lives, (b) abolish child marriages, (c) end violence based on gender and sexual orientation, (d) enforce a minimum wage of RM 1800, and (e) destroy patriarchy and build democracy at all levels of society. Revolving around the underpinning action themes of the march, personalised protest signs also revealed emergent themes distinct from the organised demands, which include: (a) unity and solidarity for women, (b) criticism of misogyny, (c) defining and criticising feminism, (d) gender equality, (e) identity, (f) rejection of gender norms, and (g) women as powerful agents of resistance.

Multimodality represented through verbal and visual resources existed on a spectrum of salience in the context of 2019 Women's March MY. Where some protest signs were more text-oriented in conveying its messages with minimal reliance on visual resources, other protest signs showed a higher reliance on the incorporation of both textual and visual elements not only to convey meaning, but also to capture the attention of the readers. Women's Rights to Choices Over Their Own Body and Lives showed a varied salience of textual and visual interplay, with a distinction between slogans that allowed more tangible visualisations of the subject (bodily autonomy) and slogans that conveyed intangible concepts more broadly interpreted (rights to life choices). The former could be seen from the use of objectivation (referral of social actors by body parts) visually reflected in the drawings of bare breasts, lips, and even the vagina and uterus. To contrast with the latter, protest signs were more text-oriented with a focus on possessivation of social actors to highlight the narrative of ownership (e.g. – *my choice, my life*, etc.). Vibrance of textual and visual interplay was also seen in Unity and Solidarity for Women, with visuals of women across protest signs. In protest signs expressing solidarity through the message "*I'm With Her*", protesters complemented it with visuals of multiple arrows. Serving as a minimal visual representation compared to its textual counterpart, it fulfiled the association of social actors in a straightforward and concise way. The theme Women as Powerful Agents of Resistance comprised of symbols and drawings alongside assertive slogans of demand. Where protesters opted for the material process in its phrasal verbs (e.g. – *fight, rise, stop, smash*), the textual elements were paired with vibrant visuals of fists either raised upwards or

punching downwards. The classification of social actors (women) was also visually paired with the female gender symbol, as well as drawings of women.

The discourse of protest – specifically in the context of women's rights movement in Malaysia and the 2019 Women's March MY – projects the women's personalised expression of dissent and dissatisfaction, which this research managed to capture through its multimodal realizations of protest signs. In uncovering the potential of multimodal resources in protest signs, the findings of this study recognise its twofold importance: that understanding multimodal interpretation is deemed significant on both the producers and viewers to create meanings through different modes in designing posters, and to interpret the meaning created through the interaction of different modes, according to its context. This study concludes with this humble insight into the Malaysian feminist discourse, particularly on the reading of protest signs and its multimodal representation in conveying feminist messages in the public sphere.

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The Comparison of Motivating Factors for Taking English and Other Foreign Languages Among Thai College Students

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***Abstract*—This study adopted mixed method research to investigate motivating factors of Thai undergraduate students who took foreign language courses at a Thai university in the Greater Bangkok area, using Dörnyei's (2009) L2MSS as a study framework. One hundred and seventy-three undergraduate students completed a questionnaire, 25 of whom agreed to participate in the semi-structured interview session. Quantitative data were analyzed utilizing frequency, mean, standard deviation, one-way ANOVA, and two-way ANOVA, while interview data were content analyzed. The findings revealed different motivating sources for the students who had taken or were taking foreign language courses. English and Korean students reported the Ought-to L2 Self as their primary source of motivation, while French, Chinese, and Japanese students reported the Past L2 Learning Experience. The study suggested that teachers provide an adequate and supportive learning experience to foreign language students, leading to higher motivation and engagement in foreign language classrooms.**

***Index Terms*—L2 motivation self system, motivation in language learning, Thai undergraduate students**

I. Introduction

Motivation is an essential factor that affects both processes and results in acquiring a foreign language (Dörnyei, 2005). Motivation is the initial impulse of the students to begin their study and the driving force that accompanies them to acquire new knowledge. In addition, motivation has known to be one of the best predictors in conducting effective teaching and learning (Huitt, 2001; Kleinginna & Kleinginna, 1981). Motivation also explains why people do something, how long people will focus on making something, and the effort that people will give to complete tasks. Motivation is regarded as one of the crucial contributing factors for language learning. To date, research on second language motivation has been based primarily on English as a second language or a foreign language (FL), leaving a large number of other languages missing from the field of study (Boo et al., 2015; Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017; Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2017; Ushioda, 2017; Yang & Chanyoo, 2022).

Studies on motivation in learning languages revealed different results. Based on the Second Language Motivation Self System (L2MSS) theoretical framework, the strongest motivational predictor was the Ideal L2 Self within the groups of 16- to17-year-old learners of English and German in Hungary (Csizér & Lukács, 2010), and for Grade 8 Hong Kong students (ages 13-15) studying English and Mandarin (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). However, in a Chinese context, the Ought-to L2 self was the stronger motivational predictor for L3 Japanese, while for L2 English, it was the Ideal-self (Wang & Zheng, 2019). The last predictor —the L2 learning experience, which was highly related to global English, has been the least examined in relevant studies and has even been omitted from the questionnaires of some studies. Nevertheless, Huang (2019) found a significant role for learning experience in both English and eight languages other than English (LOTEs) of Taiwanese learners. Considering these inconclusive findings for sources of motivation in learning English and other foreign languages, investigating sources of motivation is vital to conduct in the Thai context. Knowing specific sources of motivation for students who have taken foreign languages will allow foreign language teachers to promote, support, and enhance the learners' language proficiency. Specifically, studies about motivating sources should be conducted outside of global English. The findings from such studies could suggest more effective support to foreign language learners (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2017; Yang & Chanyoo, 2022).

The studies using L2MSS as a conceptual framework revealed different factors on students' motivation to learn foreign languages. For example, the Past L2 Learning Experience was a significant motivational factor in the European and English-speaking contexts, while the Ought-to L2 Self dominates Asian learners learning LOTEs. In addition, studies on the comparison of L2MSS-based motivation for learning English and LOTEs are still limited in the Thai context. Therefore, the current study sets its objectives of the study as follows:

1. To examine motivational factors for college students in learning English;
2. To examine motivational factors for college students in learning English and LOTEs; and
3. To identify the differences (if any) of the motivational factors for college students in learning English and LOTEs.

In an attempt to gain an insight into the objectives of the study, the study then addresses the following research questions:

1. What are the motivational factors for college students in learning English?
2. What are the motivational factors for college students in learning LOTEs?
3. Are there any differences in the L2MSS factors for college students learning English compared to LOTEs?

II. Literature Review

A. Second Language Motivational Self System (L2MSS)

A more recent model of L2 motivation, and the one that was included in the framework of the current study, is Dörnyei's (2009) L2MSS. Markus and Nurius (1986) developed a model from the theory of possible-selves in psychology, along with conceptualizations from Noels (2003) and Ushioda (2001) in L2 acquisition. The model was seen as a way to move on from Gardner's (1985) concept of integrativeness that had previously dominated L2 motivation theory. The model consists of three parts; (1) Ideal L2 Self, (2) Ought-to L2 Self, and (3) Past L2 Learning Experience.

1. Ideal L2 Self refers to the person the learner would like to be regarding his/her L2 abilities. The concepts of integrativeness and instrumental motivations are included within this as they help to reduce the gap between our actual and ideal selves. Various studies on the L2MSS have determined the Ideal L2 Self to be the dominant factor within the system (Papi, 2010; Kim, 2012; Rattanaphumma, 2016) although some studies have indicated that the power of the Ideal L2 Self is determined by the age of learners (Ryan, 2009).

2. Ought-to L2 Self refers to the attributes of L2 that learners feel they are expected to possess by others, which tend to be more extrinsic than those of the Ideal L2 Self. Previous studies have come to various conclusions concerning the Ought-to L2 Self and its influence on learner motivation. It has usually been found to be weaker than its 'ideal' counterpart, with some studies questioning whether it has any impact whatsoever (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Aubrey, 2014). It should be noted that multiple studies found a strong correlation between the Ought-to L2 Self and specific instrumental motivations (Taguchi et al., 2009; Kim, 2012; Rattanaphumma, 2016), although these findings all occurred in Asian contexts, where students face tremendous pressure to achieve academic success. Therefore, it is questionable whether this result would be found in a wider variety of contexts.

3. Past L2 Learning Experience conceptualizes how specific learning environments and experiences might affect learners' motivation. Previous research suggests that the L2 Learning Experience strongly affects students' L2 motivation (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009). However, it would seem that the effect of the L2 Learning Experience is somewhat contextual. Taguchi et al. (2009) noted how classroom experience is not a motivational factor for Chinese students simply because they "cannot afford the luxuries of caring for the niceties of the classroom experience" (p.87), while it had a more significant effect on Japanese and Iranian students. Furthermore, previous studies have disagreed about the strength of the relationship between the Ideal L2 Self and L2 Learning Experience, which are cited as further evidence of the contextual nature of the effect of L2 Learning Experience on learners' motivation.

Noels (2003) mentioned that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation constructs focus on the pleasure gained from language learning and external factors relating to the motivation for taking a foreign language course. The sources of motivation could be from the intrinsic factor such as personal interest in the target language culture, or extrinsic factor such as the need to pass the examination. Nonetheless, the L2MSS has been proven a popular theoretical framework for recent global English research (Dörnyei 2005). Therefore, the L2MSS framework can be used as a complementary to the motivational framework for the study of LOTEs (Howard & Oakes, 2021).

B. Previous Studies

Studies on motivation in learning English and languages other than English have been done extensively in the Western hemisphere and China (Dincer, 2018; Duff, 2017; Wang & Zheng, 2019; Ushioda, 2017). For example, Dincer (2018) examined the relationship between motivational factors such as motivation types and motivational strength and language anxiety in the simultaneous learning of additional language among 86 multilingual Turkish-English learners. The findings suggested that the motivational factors in one language were positively correlated with the same factors in another. In addition, no differences were found among the learners' motivation, such as intrinsic, extrinsic, and integrative, along with the motivational strength to continue their education. However, learners were less anxious when they learned English than other languages. Busse and Walter (2013) investigated the time and context-sensitive nature of motivational attributes of first-year modern foreign languages students who enrolled in German degree courses at two major universities in the UK. Their findings suggested that apart from students' increasing wish to become proficient in German, their effort to engage with language learning decreased over the year, and the change occurred in conjunction with decreasing intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy beliefs.

Mendoza and Phung (2018) conducted a critical research synthesis of 30 studies that applied the L2 Motivational Self-System (L2MSS) to learners of languages other than English (LOTEs) between 2005 to 2018. The findings showed that students who started studying English later tend to have lower motivation for language learning. A synthesis of longitudinal studies in the European context showed that students' ratings of the L2 learning experience decreased over

time, even though their Ideal L2 Selves remained constant or grew more pungent, indicating the hope for their future using the languages despite classroom experiences. The same study also investigated L2MSS in the USA, the UK, Canada, and Australia. College students from the English native speaking countries showed that motivation to learn LOTEs is typically not integrative, except for heritage learners, and not all learners have a clear sense of why they will use the L2, yet those who do can achieve astonishing results. The classroom environment significantly impacts students' feelings toward a language in such contexts since the class provides much of their experiences with the language.

In the Asian context, two studies found that the Ought-to L2 Self is an equal or stronger predictor of motivated behaviors than the Ideal L2 Self (Huang et al., 2015; Kong et al., 2018), unlike in European L2MSS research, the explanation may not necessarily lie in collectivist value, which was not found to have an impact on the L2 Self System by Sugita McEown et al. (2017). The main reason for Asian learners not to have a solid Ideal L2 Self of foreign language is because they do not yet know whether and to what extent the language will be used in their professional future. In contrast, the Ought-to Self factor is understandably vital, such as the connection between language proficiency and passing the test (Mendoza & Phung, 2018). However, the recent study of Yang and Chanyoo (2022) revealed positive relationships between the Past Learning Experience and the Ideal L2 Self and intended efforts in learning East Asian Language among Thai students.

From the L2MSS and previous studies in exploring college students' motivation in learning foreign languages (both English and LOTEs), the current study sets its conceptual framework as follows:

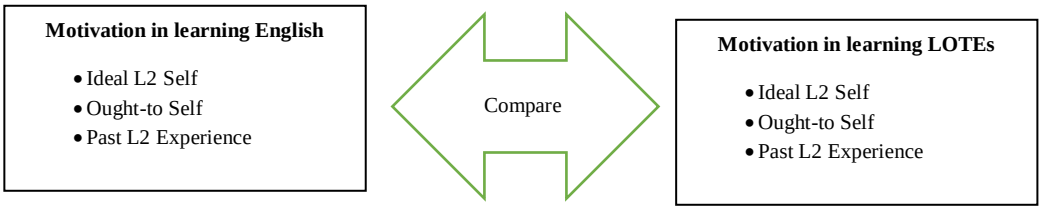

Figure 1 Conceptual Framework of the Study

The current study investigated the motivating source of English and other foreign language learners (namely, French, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean) to identify differences for motivating sources in these five target languages.

III. Research Methodology

A. Research Design

The study is a mixed-method design. The quantitative data were collected by administering the questionnaire, while the qualitative data were done through the interview.

B. Participants

Participants in the study were one hundred and seventy-three undergraduate students who had taken or were taking foreign languages as their major, minor, or elective courses offered at a reputable university in Thailand. Foreign languages offered at this university included English, French, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean. Therefore, the LOTEs in the current study refer to these four foreign languages other than English. Five students from each language class were randomly invited to participate in the interview session via a social media application's voice call. Upon their consent, twenty-five interviewees agreed to participate in the interview. The number of participants in the current study is presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Total Number Of Participants In The Study

Language	No. of participants	No. of interviewees
English	31	5
French	24	5
Chinese	42	5
Japanese	36	5
Korean	40	5
Total	**173**	**25**

C. Instruments

Two research instruments were employed in the study: a questionnaire and interview questions. A description of the instruments is provided below.

1. Questionnaire: the main instrument of the study was an adapted version of Dörnyei's questionnaire entitled English Learner Questionnaire. The researcher modified the question content according to the group of language learners to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire was based on the L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2005; You & Dörnyei, 2016; You et al., 2016). The question content in the questionnaire was identical across all foreign languages, and the

only change was made on the name of the language that the participants took. The questionnaire consists of three parts. Part 1 consisted of forty-two 6-rating scale questions asking about L2MSS. Among all question items, 15 asked about the Ideal L2 Self, 20 about the Ought-to L2 Self, and 7 about the Past L2 Learning Experience. For Part 2, five demographic questions asked about their personal information such as gender, language taken, age, and experience in living in a target language environment or studying with a native speaker to the target language.

2. Interviews: To support and detail quantitative data on the L2MSS factors in learning English and LOTEs among undergraduate students, five students from each respective language agreed to participate in a semi-structured interview. The interview lasted for ten minutes for each session, and a voice record was done and transcribed into the written notes. No information provided by the participants can be used to reveal their identity to keep their information confidential.

3. *Validity and reliability of the instruments*

Three experts were asked to validate the question items adapted from the original version. The index of item-objective congruence (IOC) was calculated for each item. With minor suggestions on clarification of language use, all question items were achieved 1.0 on the IOC score. The interview questions were validated and approved by three experts in the field. The experts advised no major revision. Internal consistency using the Corrected Item Total Correlation (CITC) method was employed to test for reliability of the questionnaire and achieved a Cronbach's alpha score of .937 for the set.

D. Data Collection

After getting approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB No. 2020/045 B2) and done with the instrumentation process, the researcher posted an invitation of participation on an online social platform and asked assistance from teachers in respective foreign language classes to spread the call for participation. The researcher's email address and contact number were provided in the advertisement. All participants agreed to participate voluntarily. The participants completed an online version of the questionnaire. Those who agreed to join the interview were asked questions via a voice call on a social media application. All participants were given a small token of appreciation worth about US$6.

E. Data Analysis

The quantitative data were analyzed by frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation for L2MSS factors within each language group. A one-way and two-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to identify differences in the L2MSS factors across languages. Content analysis was used to analyze interview data. A graduate student in applied linguistics was asked to verify the interview transcription to assure the reliability of the coding.

IV. Results

A. Research Question 1: What Motivational Factors Motivate College Students to Learn English?

Thai English learners reported the Ought-to L2 self as the strongest motivational factor for them in taking English course (M = 5.12; SD = .55), followed by L2 Learning Experience (M = 4.97; SD = .73), and Ideal L2 Self (M = 4.23; SD = .63) respectively. Fig. 2 illustrates motivational factors for Thai undergraduate students in taking college English courses.

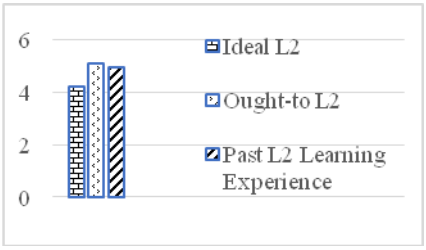

Figure 2 Mean Scores of Motivational Factors for Thai Undergraduate Students in Taking English Courses (n=31)

There was a statistically significant difference among sources of motivation, as determined by one-way ANOVA (F(2, 90) = 16.923, p = .000). A Dunnett T3 post hoc analysis revealed that the average motivational scores of the Ideal L2 Self were significantly lower than the Past L2 Learning Experience and the Ought-to L2 Self at ps<.05. No statistical significance was found between the Ought-to L2 Self and the Past L2 Learning Experience (p = .768).

However, the quantitative findings contrast to the answers of the questionnaire as all interviewees reported the Ideal L2 Self as their motivating factor that they see themselves as fluent English language users. Achieving native-like, bilingual, or multilingual competence was mentioned as a sufficient level of fluency.

"*I think that I am not good at English, so I want to improve my English skills. I want to be able to speak just like native speakers*". (SE-1, 2)

"*I like British literary works. If possible, I would like to see myself achieve a native-like level of fluency. I want to be able to use slang and idioms*" (SE-3)

"*I think everyone can speak more than one language so far. Furthermore, English is usually a second language people speak. I want to be able to speak at least two languages like this. So I think it is important to keep studying English*" (SE-4)

The participants also reported the past learning experience as they all agreed that teachers in their former classes were the ones who influenced their English study. They mentioned that learning the language with native speakers, having games and entertaining, and past achievements motivated them to keep studying English.

"*At first, I was not good at English, so I attended a tutoring school after school classes. At a tutoring school, a teacher who was a native speaker was very kind. I got great support from her, not too afraid to make mistakes. I was eager to speak out, and that improved my proficiency. I think the teacher is essential for students to study English*". (SE-1)

It is noteworthy to mention that even all interviewees reported their Ideal-L2 Self as a source of motivation to take English courses, they also reported the Ought-to L2 Self component. Some of them admitted that they kept studying English because significant people wanted to, while others mentioned about requirements of the university, applications for the scholarship, and future workplaces.

"*My family and relatives want me to be very good at English so that I will have a high payment at work*." (SE-1)

"*I want to be a cabin crew in an international airline company. It requires a certain score of TOEIC. So, I need to study to get that score*". (SE-2)

"*Yes, my parents think that English is essential. So, I need to perform well in English courses*". (SE-3)

"*I want to get a job in a hospital of my dream. However, the hospital requires a TOEIC score of 550, so I put much effort into studying English because I would like to pass that proficiency requirement*" (SE-4)

"*My parents are university professors. They graduated from foreign universities. So, they want me to be good at English because they expect me to get a good job after graduation*" (SE-5)

B. Research Question 2: What Motivational Factors Motivate College Students to Learn LOTEs?

TABLE 2
MEAN SCORES OF MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS FOR STUDENTS IN TAKING COLLEGE LOTE COURSES

Language	*n*	Ideal L2-Self (*SD*)	Ought-to L2 Self (*SD*)	Past L2 Learning Experience (*SD*)
French	24	3.01 (.78)	4.35 (.58)	4.69 (.81)
Chinese	42	3.56 (.98)	4.45 (.69)	4.80 (.75)
Japanese	36	3.57 (.64)	4.63(.44)	4.93 (.79)
Korean	40	3.53 (.71)	4.73 (.62)	4.53 (.97)
Overall	142	3.60 (.84)	4.66 (.63)	4.78 (.85)

In addition to investigating motivational factors in taking college English courses, the study participants who had taken or were taking the other foreign language courses were asked about their motivational factors for taking such courses. Table 2 illustrates the motivational factors for students to take college LOTE courses. As can be seen from Table 2, overall motivational factor for Thai undergraduate students to take foreign language courses was Past L2 Learning Experience (M = 4.78; SD = .85), followed by Ought-to L2 Self (M = 4.66; SD = .63), and Ideal L2 Self (M = 3.60; SD = .84), respectively.

The interview data also support participants' positive learning experience influencing their language studies. French and Chinese students stated that they kept studying the language because they did well in their past courses.

"*I used to take French courses during my high school years. Teachers were very kind, so I keep continuing taking French courses at a university*". (SF-1)

"*My Chinese teachers in high school were very kind. I liked to study with them. That is why I keep taking Chinese classes at a university*". (SC-4)

Good performances in the past motivated them to keep studying.

"*I used to study how to write Japanese characters, and I did it quite well. That led me to study further"*. (SJ-2)

Students in different language courses said they were impressed studying with native speakers of the target language. However, a student of the Japanese language showed her satisfaction of studying with a Thai professor who is proficient in Japanese. So, she took her as a role model in studying Japanese. She also emphasized that she did great with a Thai professor in this class. So, she thought that this was her primary source of motivation.

"*I used to study Japanese with a Thai teacher, but she is very proficient. I learned a lot and did well in her class. So, I keep doing this course*". (SJ-2)

Although Korean students' responses were quite similar to the other LOTEs, they emphasized that they did well in Korean because Korean is salient compared to other languages, and that is the main reason they kept studying Korean.

"*I took a Korean class, and I think I did it well, so I keep learning it*. (SK-1)

"*I think Korean is the easiest among East Asian languages. I did it well too. So I chose Korean*". (SK-2)

For the Ideal L2 Self component, students in all language courses shared the same ideas that they were interested in the language and culture of the target language. Specifically, the law language and fashion design were mentioned by French students, Anime and J-Pop from Japanese students, and K-pop from Korean students. A few of them reported watching Chinese movies without any captions for Chinese students.

"*I would like to study in the field of law or fashion design, so I think that knowing the French language would help me achieve my plan*." (SF-1)

"*I want to be able to read transcription from the interview of my favorite J-Pop singer. I am highly motivated to study Japanese*!" (SJ-1, 2)

"*I like K-Pop, and Korean language and culture. I would like to know more about Korean people*". (SK-1, 3, 4)

"*I would like to know the Chinese language and culture. I think it is crucial"*. (SC-3)

Being multilingual competence became the reason that motivated them to learn LOTEs. Students of Asian languages all reported that they studied all languages because they wanted to be multilingual people.

"*I want to be multilingual, so I chose Korean as my fourth language*." (SK-2)

As for the Ought-to L2 factors, it was evident that Japanese students wanted to study Japanese because they saw their opportunities to work in the Japanese company. Japanese students most cited this reason.

"*I want to work in a Japanese company, and it requires proficiency in the Japanese language*." (SJ-1, 2, 4, 5)

Korean and Chinese students see the opportunity from business connections between Thailand and China and Thailand and Korea.

"*I think studying the Korean language will be a plus for me to continue my study or even in a business*." (SK-3)

"*My parents want me to study Chinese because they think China will influence global business. I also agree with my parents*". (SC-2)

For students learning French, their main Ought-to L2 self factors were required to further their study in French-speaking countries such as Canada or France.

"*I want to further my study in Quebec, Canada. The university requires proficiency in French. So I need to prepare myself*". (SF-2)

Expectations from family members and significant people were only reported by students who took Chinese courses.

"*I was born and raised in a Chinese family. So, my parents and grandparents expect me to study Chinese. My grandparents immigrated from Mainland China*". (SC-2)

"*My mother sent me to a boarding school in China because she wanted me not to forget my root*." (SC-3)

C. Research Question 3: Research Question 3: Are There Any Differences in the L2MSS Factors for College Students Learning English Compared to LOTEs?

TABLE 3
MEAN SCORES OF MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS FOR STUDENTS IN TAKING COLLEGE ENGLISH AND LOTE COURSES

Language	*n*	Ideal L2-Self (*SD*)	Ought-to L2 Self (*SD*)	Past L2 Learning Experience (*SD*)
English	31	4.23 (.63)	5.12 (.55)	4.97 (.74)
French	24	3.01 (.78)	4.35 (.58)	4.69 (.81)
Chinese	42	3.56 (.98)	4.45 (.69)	4.80 (.75)
Japanese	36	3.57 (.64)	4.63(.44)	4.93 (.79)
Korean	40	3.53 (.71)	4.73 (.62)	4.53 (.97)
Overall	**173**	**3.60 (.84)**	**4.66 (.63)**	**4.78 (.85)**

Overall motivational factor for Thai undergraduate students to take foreign language courses was Past L2 Learning Experience (*M* = 4.78; *SD* = .85), followed by Ought-to L2 Self (*M* = 4.66; *SD* = .63), and Ideal L2 Self (*M* = 3.60; *SD* = .84), respectively.

When inspecting each language individually, differences were spotted on motivational factors that Thai undergraduate students decided to take foreign language courses. The participants rated the Past L2 Learning Experience as the key factors for them in taking French (*M* = 4.69; *SD* = .81), Chinese (*M* = 4.80; *SD* = .75) and Japanese (*M* = 4.93; *SD* = .79). For students who had taken or were taking English and Korean, the major motivational factor for taking these courses was the Ought-to L2 Self (*M* = 5.12; *SD* = .55) and (*M* = 4.73; SD = .62), respectively. Student participants rated the Ought-to L2 Self on taking English language courses the highest among all motivational factors reported by the participants. Figure 3 illustrates the mean score of each motivational factor of students taking their college foreign language classes.

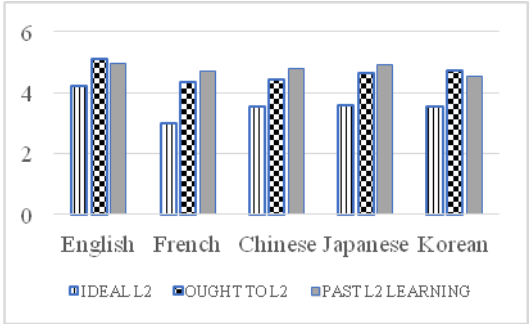

Figure 3. Mean Scores of Motivational Factors in Taking Foreign Language Courses of Undergraduate Students

In order to identify whether there was an interaction between different languages and motivational factors for students to take their college foreign language classes, a two-way ANOVA was performed. Levene's test of equality of variance revealed unequal variances of the scores received from five different learner groups, $F(14, 504) = 3.673$, $p = .000$. An interaction between different languages and motivational factors were statistically significant, $F(14, 1) = 23.640$, $p = .02$ with a small η^2 of .035.

The LSD pairwise comparisons were performed to identify different levels of overall motivational factors across five target languages. The highest motivational score in taking college foreign language courses was English ($M = 4.78$; $SD = .74$), followed by Japanese ($M = 4.38$; $SD = .86$), Chinese ($M = 4.27$: $SD = .96$), Korean ($M = 4.26$; $SD = .97$), and French ($M = 4.01$; $SD = 1.03$), respectively. Significant differences were found in motivational factors of undergraduate students in taking English courses compared to other LOTEs, *ps* <. 05. Motivational scores of undergraduate students who took Chinese, Japanese and Korean were significantly higher than those who took French courses, *p*s < .05. Students who had taken or were taking French courses reported their lowest motivational scores, as compared to all five target languages in the study, *p*s <. 05. No significant differences were found among the motivational scores of students who took Chinese, Japanese, and Korean.

V. Discussion

A. Discussion on the Findings

1. Research Question 1: What Motivational Factors Motivate College Students to Learn English?

The findings revealed the Ought-to L2 Self as the significant motivational factor for the participants to study English, followed by the L2 Learning Experience and the Ideal L2 Self. A possible explanation might be that the participants perceived that they needed to achieve a certain level of proficiency to graduate, continue their studies, or get a well-paid job. Some participants also expressed their thoughts in the interview session that they wanted to work as cabin crew in international airlines, so they need to meet the English proficiency required by the companies. Moreover, few participants reported that their parents and significant people expected them to be good at English, so they need to perform well. The findings are in line with those of Huang et al. (2015), Sugita McEown et al. (2017), Kong et al. (2018), and Mendoza and Phung (2018) in the Asian context. The researchers found that for Asian learners, the best predictor for motivation in studying English was the Ought-to L2 Self. Although it is not that clear whether parents or the future workplaces placed pressure on their shoulders about language proficiency requirements they need to pass, Sugita McEown et al. (2017) argued that the Asian students did not have a solid Ideal L2 Self in studying a foreign language. They were not sure why they needed to motivate themselves in studying languages. Therefore, the primary source of motivation came from what are more tangible, such as a cut-off score of proficiency requirements set by schools or companies. Interestingly, however, the participants in the current study seemed to know about the proficiency requirements set by the school or their future workplace and their significant people. It is possible to conclude that Thai students still take their significant people's viewpoints and expectations to motivate them to study English. From the interview, the students who needed to follow parents' or relatives' suggestions more or less agreed that English is essential in getting a better job in the future.

2. Research Question 2: What Motivational Factors Motivate College Students to Learn LOTEs?

In addition to investigating motivational factors in taking college English courses, the study participants who had taken or were taking the other foreign language courses were asked about their motivational factors for taking such courses. Although the participants mentioned their expectation to be proficient in the target language they were taking, the quantitative findings revealed that the Past L2 learning experience was the most potent motivating factor for Thai students to study the LOTEs, followed by the Ought-to L2 self, and the Ideal L2 Self.

The researcher's observation may be assessed to discuss this point. If we look back to the source of motivation among students taking different languages, the findings revealed that the Ought-to L2 self was the strongest predictor for Korean learners while the Past L2 Learning experience dominated in the study of French, Chinese, and Japanese. In line with Laohaviriyanon's (2019) study, she showed that the significant source of motivation for Cambodian low achievers was the Ought-to L2 Self. It is possible to explain why the Ought-to L2 self became the strongest predictor for Korean students in the current study. In the present study context, Korean language (i.e., Basic Korean I) was offered for the first time, and up to that time, it was unclear whether the subsequent higher Korean courses would be offered. Students who decide to take any language course for the first time would think about their instrumental benefits such as advantages in the job application, fulfilling the language proficiency requirement, or earning rewards.

On the contrary, students who took French, Chinese, and Japanese in the current study reported their primary source of motivation from the L2 learning experience. In the present study, quite many French, Chinese, and Japanese courses were offered. The participants in the study seemed to have taken more than one of the respective languages. So, they might have a strong vision that they could be more proficient by taking more courses in the university. Once the learners had developed their proficiency, the Past L2 Learning experience became the most substantial motivating factor. The findings from the current study also suggest that the Past L2 learning experience might positively relate to

the Ideal L2 Self of the students. In other words, if the students have a positive learning experience, their performance is good, and they can see themselves as proficient language users. So, they will put more effort into foreign language learning. The past learning experience also influences the learners' willingness to communicate, reflecting students' perception of their Ideal L2 Self (Darling & Chanyoo, 2018).

Previous studies in the EFL context also revealed the importance of enjoyment in students' courses. For example, Saito et al. (2018) emphasized joyful learning experiences that influence students' motivation. They also furthered that anxiety negatively affected motivation, placed on the other end of enjoyment. In a similar vein, Nattheeraphong (2020) revealed that the students' L2 learning experience provided a supportive learning environment for students to feel motivated in their language learning. Moreover, the number of courses offered, ranging from beginning to advanced, also provided information for the students to envisage whether they could be competent in the target language they were currently taking or had taken. Thus, course managers of foreign languages may need to design the whole language program. Providing the whole language program motivates students to do self-assessment, and their source of motivation might shift from the Ought-to L2 self to Past L2 Learning Experience and the Ideal L2 Self. According to Dörnyei (2019), the Past L2 Learning Experience could engage students more, reflecting better performance and a stronger Ideal L2 Self.

3. Research Question 3: Are There Any Differences in the L2mss Factors for College Students Learning English Compared to LOTEs?

The findings from the current study revealed significant differences in overall motivational factors for Thai undergraduate students to take foreign language courses, where the Past L2 Learning Experience became the primary motivational factor for them to keep studying a foreign language, followed by the Ought-to L2 Self, and the Ideal L2 Self. It is not surprising that English language learners reported the Ought-to L2 self because the English language assumed its position as a mandatory language subject for Thai students. Moreover, many organizations require English proficiency relevant to students' lives. For example, the university requires the students to pass a particular proficiency score to fulfill graduation requirements. If the student wants to apply for a job or a scholarship, they must also show proof of language proficiency from some standardized examinations such as TOEIC, TOEFL, or IELTS, to name a few. Moreover, the participants in the study were current students in a prestigious university in Thailand; some of them aim to work in international companies or organizations. Therefore, they perceived such Ought-to requirements that they needed to meet. The findings are in line with those of Huang et al. (2015), Sugita McEown et al. (2017), Kong et al. (2018), and Mendoza and Phung (2018) in the Asian context. The researchers found that for Asian learners, the best predictor for motivation in studying English was the Ought-to L2 Self. In other contexts, Yetkin and Ekin (2018) reported that the Ought-to L2 self was the strongest predictor of high school EFL students in Turkey. Chinese students demonstrated their high intended effort in the Chinese context because they wanted to avoid academic failure from instrumentality-prevention and parental expectation (You & Dörnyei, 2016).

Interestingly, Korean students reported the Ought-to L2 Self as a motivating factor for taking Korean courses. As discussed earlier, only Basic Korean I was offered at the study time in the present study context. Participants of the Korean language took the course for the first time, and they could be placed at a beginning level. The motivating factor for students to take Korean courses could not be from their Past Learning experience. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that the motivating factor for students to take any foreign language course for the first time was due to instrumental-promotion factors such as advantages in the job application, fulfilling the language proficiency requirement, or earning some rewards. The current finding is also supported by Laohaviriyanon (2019), revealing that the Ought-to L2 self is a motivating factor for EFL Cambodian low achievers.

The current findings clearly showed that the Past L2 Learning Experience was a primary motivating source for students who had taken or were taking LOTEs, except for Korean students. As discussed in the previous paragraph, to report the Past L2 Learning experience as a source of motivation, the students must previously have taken some language courses, and the Korean language is not widely offered at a high school level. Therefore, it sounds that the Korean students reported another L2 component as their primary source of motivation.

French, Chinese, and Japanese are widely offered in high schools. Students were familiar with these languages before they went to college. Therefore, it is not surprising that for those who want to keep studying a specific language, past learning experience must be one of the significant factors. Moreover, the findings from the current study also suggest that the Past L2 learning experience might positively relate to the Ideal L2 Self of the students. In other words, if the students have a positive learning experience, their performance is good, and they can see themselves as proficient language users. The students may feel positively in the learning atmosphere, where they feel highly motivated, engaged, and put more effort into learning. These factors would have satisfying outcomes or grades in their language courses with all of these factors. As a result, they could see themselves as proficient language users in the future. So, they will put more effort into foreign language learning. The importance of the Past L2 Learning Experience that contributed to motivation in foreign language learning is also in line with Saito et al. (2018) and Nattheeraphong (2020), reporting that a joyful learning experience and supportive learning environment promoted learning motivation of LOTEs. Moreover, students feel more engaged and willing to communicate in a target language if they have a positive experience of oral communication in the previous interactions (Darling & Chanyoo, 2018).

B. Teaching Implications

The current study shows that the Past L2 learning experience was the primary motivational factor for foreign language students. As mentioned by Oxford (1990, as cited in Doggol, 2014), "Positive emotions and attitudes can make language learning more effective and enjoyable." Therefore, building a supportive learning environment and psychologically secured atmosphere in the classroom may reduce students' negative feelings and boost positive learning experience the students. The practice aligns with Stephen Krashen's affective filter (1986) that the learners would engage more in the language learning classes when their anxiety level was low. Ni (2012) also mentioned that success in language learning occurs in the atmosphere in which learners' values and manners are supported, learners take a confident and enjoyable stance towards language. They would thus utilize the target language comfortably. In addition, the students would bring their experience from their past learning to anticipate for their current language classes. Dörnyei (2019) suggested five aspects that engage students in the learning process, including school context (e.g., aspects of belonging to the school community, adopting school norms, and developing academic confidence), syllabus, and teaching materials (e.g., curiosity about and interest in the content, matching the syllabus to students' needs, ownership and personalization of the materials), learning tasks (e.g., employing the principles of task-based, project-based, or problem-based language teaching and learning, goal-setting, and progress check), peers (e.g., relevant areas of group dynamics/ classroom management, social acceptance, group cohesiveness, norms of cooperation and tolerance), and teacher (e.g., student-teacher rapport, utilizing insights from leadership models, and conflict resolution). A foreign language teacher will engage students more in the language classroom concerning these five aspects. When students are motivated by the positive learning experience, they will put more effort into the study, leading to their satisfying level of achievement. When students achieve, and their motivating source is mainly from the Ideal L2 Self, they are more likely to attain proficiency in the language they are taking.

C. Recommendation for Future Studies

As the current study can be considered as a pioneering study to investigate motivational factors in learning foreign languages other than English of Thai college students and compare whether the motivational components in studying the English language is similar to other foreign languages, future studies should expand to investigate motivational components for students in taking other foreign languages such as neighboring and other modern languages offered in schools or universities. The findings from such studies will suggest a complete picture of motivational components for students to take such language classes. Understanding sources of motivation will benefit foreign language teachers to prepare their classes more effectively.

In addition, a variable of the length of time for taking a foreign language class should be considered a significant motivational factor for students to take language classes. The present study clearly shows that the Ought-to L2 self was the primary motivational factor for first-time course takers, beginner, and low proficient learners. Future studies should investigate whether the findings from this study hold or there may be some other factors provided by foreign language learners.

VI. Conclusion

The current study investigated different motivating factors of Thai undergraduate students who took foreign language courses at a Thai university in the Greater Bangkok area by adopting the L2MSS of Dörnyei (2009) as a study framework. A mixed-method research design was used to recruit 173 participants in the study, and a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview collected data. Data were analyzed quantitatively to answer the three research questions, while the findings from qualitative data analysis were used to support the quantitative findings. The findings revealed different motivating sources for the students who had taken or were taking foreign language courses. English and Korean students reported the Ought-to L2 Self as their primary source of motivation, while French, Chinese, and Japanese students reported the Past L2 Learning Experience. As suggested by scholars, the positive L2 Learning Experience is directly related to the strong perception of the Ideal L2 Self. Therefore, the study suggested that teachers provide an adequate and supportive learning experience to foreign language students, leading to higher motivation and engagement in foreign language classrooms.

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COVID-19 Outbreak, State of a Questionable Dilemma, or a Learning Escape: Second Language Acquisition Within Virtual Learning and Social Contact

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***Abstract*—Digital learning, social contact and COVID-19 outbreak are three different phrases have been often heard, read or spoken about since 2020. Undoubtedly, these phrases have brought fear of uncertainty, but also hope to find a new perspective to keep life matters on-going including learning in general, and language acquisition in particular. In order to find the impact of virtual learning and social contact on second language acquisition, a total of 389 second language university students have either online surveyed or been interviewed to validate the results and avoid any misleading. After analyzing the data, results revealed that virtual learning has given the learner a chance to develop understanding of different aspects of learning a second language. Flexibility, free-learning, and richness of knowledge source are positive aspects of virtual learning. Likewise, social contact has an essential role in deepen the understanding of contextual use, semantics and lexis, and other aspects of second language acquisition. Interestingly, both social and virtual aspects of learning motivate the learner to reach language mastery. Therefore, the findings urge the use of virtual learning regarding social contact in developing linguistic skills in second language acquisition. Further insights are recommended to enrich the future research in this topic.**

***Index Terms*—COVID-19 outbreak, SLA, social contact, virtual learning**

I. Introduction

During the last two years, we have witnessed surprisingly fast changes that were quite far for us to think about. The emergence of COVID-19 pandemic has brought people to live and to cope with new conditions that for many are new and quite difficult. One of the changes is the obligation to bring social distancing into the context, where people have to avoid as much as possible the social interaction in order to keep the pandemic under control. The prompt changes have urged people to massively use digital technology in most matters of life. New shapes of services, patterns of living, education systems, and learning process have either newly appeared or been emphasized intensely to be widely used as a way of coping. Education and learning have been mostly relied on e-learning and virtual environments (Krishnapatria, 2020). By moving to virtual learning, learners have entertained the opportunity to keep on-going with learning even when the COVID-19 pandemic has struck and shrank the learning opportunities and choices (Lamb & Arisandy, 2020).

Li et al. (2021) indicate that virtual learning environments (VLEs) have proven that learning is still continuous, this is not only due to its effectiveness, but also to its flexible and timely practices. Virtual learning has provided immense sources of knowledge, variety of perspectives and the ability to check the authenticity of the provided content (de Jong Derrington, 2013). Language Acquisition (LA) has been influenced through. However, the debate is that such aspects have either enriched theme of learning or negatively influenced the mastering skills of the Target Language (TL).

In terms of social development, Larsen-Freeman (2018) states that LA contributes in developing accepted communication tools to enable learners to express feelings within social group in everyday situations. Similarly, it contributes in forming social identity and emotional learning through finding means to gather and shape the learner's conceptualization of the values and cultural aspects of society (Nall, 2020). Not surprisingly, the need for social contact is vital as it supports the learner to practice and experience the knowledge and aspects of the TL (Fillmore, 1979; Clément et al., 1980; Kortmann & Szmrecsanyi, 2012; Mauranen, 2018).

Clearly, virtual learning and social contact are two factors with implications on Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Different arguments, points of view, and theories have been coined to tackle each factor aside. Yet, the present study aims at investigating the both factors together. Moreover, it attempts to highlight the effect of virtual learning and social contact on SLA among university students and brings both positive and negatives sides of the both variables into discussion. Thus, new insights are recommended towards SLA and some strategies are suggested as well.

II. Language Acquisition

According to Kidd et al. (2018), LA is a long timing process in which learners can obtain abilities to speak and use a TL. However, Hartshorne et al. (2018) believe that LA is seen as an instantaneous process that is determined by age and persistence of learner. Brown and Gaskins (2014) take the perspective differently in which they argue that learner's cognitive development is affected by the linguistic structure, socializing and bonding within the social group. Thus, SLA is affected clearly by those social-environmental factors. In addition, Swingley (2012) enriches similar perspective by adding that cognitive development helps learners in expressing wishes, needs and attitudes through constituting a solid conceptualization of terms that are socially understood. Rogers (2017) argues that cognitive development is influenced by how straightforward the language mastery can be and the ability to use expressive means in communicative processes. Similarly, Larsen-Freeman (2018) relates that learner's cognitivist paradigm codependently builds linguistic systems that encompass of cognitive categories that facilitate the process of acquiring a language and master it. As a result, these systems keep the learning process on-going throughout life span and develop in turn the socializing and bonding with another social group.

Montaño-González (2017) claims that accessibility to learning resources is not enough to acquire a language. Hence, the learner must have a genuine interest in learning and chooses the right approach and learning strategies (i.e., repetition, rote memorization …etc.). Some argue that grammatical approach is one of the most effective approaches to increase the efficiency of learning and LA, as it is directly connected to the teacher who simplifies the process of language learning (Alamri, 2018). In addition, this approach enables learners to increase their vocabulary and grammatical knowledge and the correct use of grammatical structures (Guasti, 2017). Meanwhile, Walter et al. (2021) discuss that some grammatical aspects might affect the process of acquisition such as the sensitivity to gender assignment. For example, German language requires gender marking.

Candlin (2016) states that communicative approach is more effective because it is directly connected to the learner, and enhances the assorted competences through learning strategies which consequently bring acquisition process into meaningful uses. To sum up, LA features a continuous process that initiates linguistic skills stimulated and developed by the learner's cognition. Some social-factors such as intensity of communication and social bonding can bring a hand into quicken the developing of linguistic skills. Interestingly, learners have a tendency towards using a communicative approach as it determines the ability to work within various learning methodologies. Besides, some language features in turn, such as grammatical structure, semantics and approach can contribute to language mastery. This brings our mind into the fact that the chosen learning strategies, social communication, and sources of learning can also play a determining role in the language mastery.

III. Second Language Acquisition

For Krashen (1981), SLA represents a process where learners show their direct or indirect orientation towards learning a language from its own speakers with a previous knowledge. By encouraging useful inputs, the learners become open to use effectively the acquired skills within conscious to their learning process. However, Spada and Lightbown (2010) see it as the focus on developing skills and appropriate use of language functions for learners who acquired previous knowledge of a first language. Loewen and Sato (2018) indicate that SLA process varies based on the learners' differences of language production, their cognitive development and the interplay of language inputs. Some researchers (Birdsong, 2018; Long & Granena, 2018; Flores & Rosa, 2019) believe that SLA is influenced by variables such as age, race, emotions, and language aptitude. Such variables vary in effect when it comes to SLA aspects. In the current study, a particular attention is paid to semantics and vocabulary aspects.

A. Semantics

Generally speaking, semantics include the logical nature and the meaning of word. This broad definition contains different sentence aspects, the components, the structure and the conventional meaning that can be taken within the phrases (Bates & MacWhinney, 1981; Ioninet al., 2008; Slabakova, 2010; Hawkins et al., 2017; Slabakova, 2016). These components intercept enormously with the lexis in terms of meaning variation. Therefore, lexical semantics

comes to fulfill the function of exploring the meanings of units and how each is related one to another within the lexical units. This part is essential to measure how further the learners are developed in linguistic skills and LA mastering (Geeraerts, 2010).

Another aspect stands on the meaning of syntactical units. By that, we refer to different elements that represent the umbrella of properties of word meanings. These properties include speech errors, sentence structure, functions and meanings of syntactical units together. Yet, they in turn reflect on the learners' understanding of what they have learned (Ionin et al., 2008; Levin & Pinker, 1992). When it comes to speech errors, we can see a reference to how frequent learner makes mistakes due to the relativity in the shared semantic features. Sentence structure (i.e., the composition of the sentence) including a compound, complex and simple sentence composition, and lastly, functions of syntactical units serve in providing the meaningfulness use of components within different contexts as well to identify the roles in a syntactic context. As one part, these properties that stand for the syntactical units and word meaning bring together the phrasal semantics. Consequently, the ability of the learners to differentiate between the lexical units is affected by the frequency of usage, approach and the expression of the meaning (Cruse, 1986; Geeraerts, 2010; Goddard & Wierzbicka, 2013).

Lexical unites also include phrases or words that feature opposition aspects or meaning, different phrasing or wording but has the same or similar meanings. The same phrases that can have different meanings based on context involve a phrase that represents a generic item to group of phrases and a phrase that is more specific within the generic term. All these characters of words are required by the learner to develop skills and master a language (Partee, 1995; Geeraerts, 2010; Pustejovsky, 2012; Levin & Pinker, 1992).

B. Vocabulary

One essential component in LA is the lexical riches. The lack of such component hinders the learners to develop the needed language skills to run an effective and meaningful communication (González-Fernández & Schmitt, 2017). Richness and variation of vocabulary not only enable the learners to be able to reach higher levels of communication but help them to define and recognize the linguistics features. All are essential in turn in developing a conceptualization of lexical use to reach language mastery (Viera, 2018). Conceptualization and word use can rely obviously on different techniques learners ought to use in their learning process. One technique that improves vocabulary acquisition is translation equivalent that embodies seeking the equivalent words that is often used in daily talk (Uchihara & Saito, 2019). This technique helps in increasing the lexical density and alternatives. Nevertheless, the learner might get in some mistakes when it comes to contexts and proper use of words, and such techniques, consequently, limits the pedagogical value and the understanding of the content weather being heard, read, spoken or written (Laufer & Aviad-Levitzky, 2017; Caselli & Pyers, 2020).

Another technique is enhancing the receptive mastery by improving the learners' ability to produce speech or their own writings improve the productive mastery (Schmitt, 2019). Kumar and Murthy (2020) stats that knowledge of vocabulary is a fundamental aspect of LA, this is mainly due to its role in developing comprehension and language mastering. This aspect, in turn, affects how the learners can use the vocabularies properly in different contexts in the daily life.

IV. Virtual Learning

The emergence of COVID-19 has led to enormous changes that tackled the learning process and literacy practices. Additionally, it has brought language development and learning motivation into total new shape (Lamb & Arisandy, 2020). Therefore, the need to use virtual learning has been profoundly appeared. Diverse online learning environments have emerged where students build their knowledge by engaging, exploring, interacting and having fun at the same time (Kuzilek et al., 2018). With an increasing number of studies on the impact of virtual environments, the value and impact of virtual learning environments need to be investigated. Technological advances have allowed the employment of new educational technologies with one of the most innovative tools which is virtual learning because it provides multimedia environments characterized by interaction. This educational tool stimulates students' motivation and maintains their attention during the learning process (Shamir-Inbal & Blau, 2021).

The transition from traditional face-to-face settings to a virtual learning environment has led to changes in communication patterns, notably the shift from verbal to speech writing. It also has led to the concomitant absence of language cues and the removal of traditional socio spatial cues that encourage participation in teacher-student discussions and prepare them for interaction in the classroom (Bogusevschiet al., 2020). Thus, we might expect this decrease in nonverbal communication to be a challenge for online teaching (Rashid et al., 2021) or, at least, that new ways of expressing emotions online are needed as these physical and spatial indicators have been abandoned. In other words, because nonverbal and physical cues are missing, intentions are misinterpreted by the structure of messages or words used in online conversation. Therefore, virtual learning appears to encourage negative emotions. However, other researchers argue that it is precisely the absence of social cues that makes the internet more private area of communication. According to Norman et al. (2021), many students are willing to engage in online chat to reveal their emotional secrets and otherwise intense personal details about themselves.

However, the lack of social aspect of learning has influenced the learning medium that led the learner to rely on online resources and media in order to keep the learning continues (Wargadinata et al., 2020). Hence, these changes have given the learners a chance to have access to expanded resources of learning materials and activities and made a new path to new ways of thinking (Li, 2020). Consequently, the LA has been improved, as such changes brought beneficial effects due to the sophistication of learning methods used in digital learning.

V. Social Contact

Strobl and Baten (2021) report that LA and demonstrating learning outcomes rely on the social contact of the learners with other learners and TL speakers. This is attributed to the fact that social activity helps the learner to borrow different vocabularies to use in their daily life within different contexts to express needs or to be a part of group. This in turn, gives the speaker a kind of control to drive or lead the speech in all its forms (e.g., conversation, negotiation ...etc.). Therefore, semi spontaneous speech is considered a main form in which learner can improve positively in vocabulary borrowing as it is a part of social contact and illustrates how the intensity can improve the learning outcomes of the learner. In addition, Adamou et al. (2016) argue that the frequency of using a language has a dominant factor on LA, this means, the more often the same vocabularies are used, the less new vocabularies can be acquired.

Social interaction improves the learner's social well-being (Jacoby & Lesaux, 2019; Baaqeel, 2020). Meanwhile, increased loneliness affects negatively the motivation towards learning which produces low level of acquiring knowledge. By contrast, emotional support, empathy and social unity within the group affects positively the learner's self-esteem which makes learning more enjoyable as long as the learner can feel the difference in daily life, and reduces the learning anxiety (Melani et al., 2020; Floyd & Castek, 2021). Another influential factor is that interaction among peers improves the oral skills, their Second Language (L2) competences, and eventually bringing their language proficiency up.

VI. Research Strategy

In this study, a strategy has been developed in order to meet the expectations. This strategy consists of two elements: planning the research and data collection.

A. Planning the Research

In order to develop the survey, the needs of this study have been identified in order to meet the expected goal. Later, the hypotheses have been phased and presented as follows:

- **(H01).** There is no impact of virtual learning on SLA among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$)
  - ✓ **H1-1.** There is no impact of virtual learning on SLA (semantics) among university students the customer dissatisfaction at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$).
  - ✓ **H1-2.** There is no impact of virtual learning on SLA (vocabulary) among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$).
- **(H02).** There is no impact of social intensity contact on SLA among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$).
  - ✓ **H2-1.** There is no impact of social contact on SLA (semantics) among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$).
  - ✓ **H2-2.** There is no impact of social contact on SLA (vocabulary) among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$).

B. Developing Survey

The researchers have followed a four-step model in order to bring the instruments in its final version. Firstly, they identify the study objectives clearly to keep the research scoop clear and direct. Secondly, the researchers have reviewed related literature in order to coin the survey questions in a clear and objectives-oriented language that can guarantee the comprehension of the target group. In that phase, the researchers have reviewed profoundly different scholar resources that tackle the study topic such as Fillmore (1979), Bates and MacWhinney (1981), Goddard and Wierzbicka (2013), Brown and Gaskins (2014), Taguchi et al. (2016), Karaaslan et al. (2018), and Krishnapatria (2020). Thirdly, a 32 questioned-survey has been developed measuring the impact of virtual learning and social contact on SLA. Finally, the survey has been reviewed after being discussed by different specialists in this field to have a second opinion and improvement.

C. Developing the Interview

A side from the questionnaire, an interview consists of ten open questions have been prepared to find out the impact of virtual learning and social contact on SLA. Like the questionnaire steps of preparation, a related literature has assisted the researchers to formulate the questions of the interview. The interview consists of five questions that focus on the virtual learning and five questions focus on SLA. A total of 20 students from different universities in Jordan have been interviewed.

D. Validity and Reliability

To check the reliability of this test, it has been given to experts to judge the extent to which the test is valid and reliable. For this reason, the test is designed to meet such requirements of the validity. The experts have been chosen according to their experiences in the field. To reach a degree of reliability of the test and the research goal, the researchers used reliability *Test for The Instruments of measurement* to highlight the stability of consistency to measure the concept and to assess the 'goodness' of a measure in order to compare if the students achieve stability. Table 1 below shows that the total Cronbach's alpha for the study fields was above than (0.60) which leads to the stability of the results for this study.

TABLE 1
CRONBACH'S ALPHA FOR THE STUDY FIELDS

Field Nr.	**Field**	*Value of (α)*
F1	**Virtual Learning**	*0.808*
F2	**Social Intensity**	*0.874*
Dependent Variable: SLA		
F3-1	**Semantics**	*0.826*
F3-2	**Acquisition**	*0.714*

E. Sampling

The current research surveys 389 randomly undergraduate students who study a L2 based major in their final year.

VII. RESULTS

The answers of the sample from both the interviews and the survey have been analyzed as follows:

A. Survey Results

In order to test the research hypotheses, Simple Regression Test has been relied on to test the impact of virtual learning and social contact as follows:

- **(H01).** There is no impact of virtual learning on SLA among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$). This hypothesis stems the following two sub-hypotheses.
  - ✓ **H1-1.** There is no impact of virtual learning on SLA (semantics) among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$).

Simple Regression test has been used to check the direct impact of virtual learning on SLA (semantics) among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$), as shown in the table below:

TABLE 2.
SIMPLE REGRESSION TEST TO CHECK THE DIRECT EFFECT OF VIRTUAL LEARNING ON SLA (SEMANTICS) AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS AT (A ≤ 0.05)

Dependent Variable	**R**	**R^2**	**F**	**DF**	**Coefficients**			
					Predictor	**B**	**T**	**Sig**
Semantics	.557	.310	169.857	1 368 369	**Virtual Learning**	0.477	13.033	0.000

Table 2 shows the impact of virtual learning on semantics. The result shows that there is significant effect for virtual learning on semantics, as the significant value (0.000) is less than (0.05). The value of R is the square root of R-Squared and is the correlation between the observed and predicted values of dependent variable is (0.557) and the coefficient of determination R2 (0.310). Thus, about 38.6% of the variation in semantics explained by virtual learning. Restriction Parameter (F) was (169.857) of semantics will be caused from virtual learning. Hence, we will reject the null hypotheses and accept the alternative one "There is positive impact of virtual learning on SLA (semantics) among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$)."

- ✓ **H1-2.** There is no impact of virtual learning on SLA (vocabulary) among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$).

Similarly, a Simple Regression test has been applied to check the direct impact of virtual learning on SLA (vocabulary) among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$), as shown in the table below:

TABLE 3.
SIMPLE REGRESSION TEST TO CHECK THE DIRECT EFFECT OF VIRTUAL LEARNING ON SLA (VOCABULARY) AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS AT (A ≤ 0.05).

Dependent Variable	**R**	**R^2**	**F**	**DF**	**Coefficients**			
					Predictor	**B**	**T**	**Sig**
Vocabulary	.242	.059	22.985	1 368 369	**Virtual Learning**	0.255	4.794	0.000

Table 3 shows the impact of virtual learning on vocabulary. The result represents that there is significant effect for virtual learning on vocabulary, because the significant value was (0.000) less than (0.05). The value of R is the square root of R-Squared and is the correlation between the observed and predicted values of dependent variable was (0.242) and the coefficient of determination R2 (0.059). Therefore, about 5.9% of the variation in vocabulary explained by virtual learning. Restriction Parameter (F) was (22.985) of vocabulary will be caused from virtual learning. Thus, we will reject the null hypotheses and accept the alternative one "There is positive impact of virtual learning on SLA (vocabulary) among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$)."

- **(H02).** There is no impact of social contact on SLA among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$). This hypothesis stems the following two sub-hypotheses.
  - ✓ **H2-1.** There is no impact of social contact on SLA (semantics) among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$).

Simple Regression test, as previously, is used to check the direct effect of social contact on SLA (semantics) among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$), as shown in the table below:

TABLE 4.
SIMPLE REGRESSION TEST TO CHECK THE DIRECT EFFECT OF SOCIAL CONTACT ON SLA (SEMANTICS*)* AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS AT (A ≤ 0.05)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	F	DF	Coefficients			
					Predictor	B	T	Sig
Semantics	.228	.052	20.236	1 368 369	**Social contact**	0.208	4.498	0.000

Table 4 demonstrates the impact of social contact on semantics. The result shows that there is significant effect for social contact on semantics, because the significant value was (0.000) less than (0.05). The value of R is the square root of R-Squared and is the correlation between the observed and predicted values of dependent variable was (0.228) and the coefficient of determination R2 (0.052). Consequently, about 5.2% of the variation in semantics explained by social contact. Restriction Parameter (F) was (20.236) of semantics will be caused from social contact. Thus, we will reject the null hypotheses and accept the alternative one "There is positive impact of social contact on SLA (semantics) among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$)."

- ✓ **H1-2.** There is no impact of social contact on SLA (vocabulary) among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$).

Simple Regression too is used to test to check the direct impact of social contact on SLA (Vocabulary) among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$), as shown in the table below:

TABLE 5.
SIMPLE REGRESSION TEST TO CHECK THE DIRECT IMPACT OF SOCIAL CONTACT ON SLA (VOCABULARY*)* AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS AT (A ≤ 0.05)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	F	DF	Coefficients			
					Predictor	B	T	Sig
Vocabulary	.369	.136	58.163	1 368 369	**Social contact**	0.254	7.626	0.000

Table 5 demonstrates the impact of social contact on vocabulary. The result reveals that there is significant effect for social contact on vocabulary, because the significant value was (0.000) less than (0.05). The value of R is the square root of R-Squared and is the correlation between the observed and predicted values of dependent variable was (0.369) and the coefficient of determination R2 (0.136). Therefore, about 13.6% of the variation in vocabulary explained by social contact. Restriction Parameter (F) was (58.163) of vocabulary will be caused from social contact. Thus, we will reject the null hypotheses and accept the alternative one "There is positive impact of social contact on SLA (vocabulary) among university students at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$)."

B. The Interview Answers

The answers of the sample on the interview questions show a tendency towards their belief that social factors, virtual environment, and SLA are positively related. Around 30 % of the answers demonstrate that learning and acquiring a L2 requires understanding and the social factors and environment. Meanwhile, 30% of the answers show that the content provided on e-learning mediums has the great impact on mastering a L2. About 40% of the answers show a tendency towards emphasizing the role of live experience to gain the knowledge as practicing through socializing helps mostly in learning and sharing knowledge between peers.

Most of the answers support the point that valid and varied resources of learning can be available online. This increases the opportunity of flexible learning and getting different perspectives toward a SLA. However, there is no doubt that language skills such as speaking requires socializing as using proper lexical needs practicing and observing through socializing.

VIII. Discussion

The findings of this study provide evidence that SLA is affected by the social factors and virtual environment. Interestingly, virtual learning enables the learner to gather information, build solid arguments and deepen understanding of semantics. By providing the flexibility, the learner feels freely to source out information and to build own learning experience based on their complete free well to learn (Guetl et al., 2013). The development of language learning mediums and tools offered by the web have brought a new scope into LA in which some aspects have been improved in the acquiring process due to the supported methods of e-learning. Consequently, that has positively influenced the process of instruction and brought desired results to the learning outcomes.

Practical e-learning tools can improve SLA and language components, as such tools keep the learners motivated to through the flexibility provided in learning and developing new knowledge about the TL. Similar results were reported by Rusu-Bodea (2016). Nevertheless, the current study gives evidence that the lack of live experience makes the learner unable to use the right words in its right time and situation. Similar result was highlighted by Dash (2008). Defining the context of a certain world to be used is associated quite often with the global context, which contributes often in shaping and bringing up the cognitive interference of the learner's TL and the reality to be used in.

The immense number of online resources support the process of LA and increase reading vocabulary and understanding of lexical units. Online learning gives the possibility not only to search for new information but to critically understand the knowledge and differentiate the types of knowledge about the LA components. This result is supported as well by Rusu-Bodea (2016). The current study perceives that the synchronous learning either provided in traditional way or virtually is less effective. This can be justified as the learner feels obligated to attend classes, therefore, the learning process is slower when motivation is missed. Motivation is a key factor in LA and self-choice of learning is essential in order to deepen the knowledge of language and mastery. On the other hand, this particular result is argued by Karaaslan et al. (2018) as synchronous learning can motivate the learners.

The nature of speech can be actively built due to the activity of communication with others within the same learning environment. Social activity including conversation, making arguments and requiring urge the learner to use effectively the oral skills in order to reach out the needs. Therefore, the researchers found that social contact activity increases the learner's ability of speech production. Such result has been confirmed partially by Taguchi et al. (2016) who found that speech production by the learners is associated indirectly by the social contact activity. Interestingly, the current study has found out that empathy in social contact does not help in developing a better understanding of words functions. This justifies that understanding of the lexical functions requires having experience based on learning process and sourcing the new knowledge. In addition, some social variables can involve more emotional contact and social communication to use new learned lexical. On the other hand, one study by Brown (1973) has found that empathy can affect understanding of lexical as it may help in learning the social nature of the L2.

Finally, the more vocabulary the learner knows the more the communication is better and the more the communication is live, and emotions being involved, the more the learner tends to seek up vocabularies to achieve the proper and deeper response in communication. These elements are interlinked and they affect one another. Therefore, the researchers believe that social activity has a positive impact on gathering vocabularies in order to produce deeper speech. In addition, socializing positively impacts the lexical density in SLA. This is in accordance with Rusu-Bodea (2016) who confirms that some socio-cultural circumstances can affect the process of SLA.

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The Feminism of Afro-American in Audre Lorde's Selected Poems

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***Abstract*—This research aims to discover the feminism of Afro-Americans in the selected poems of Audre Lorde by understanding the meaning and elaborating it with Lorde's attitude towards feminism. The research employed a descriptive qualitative method and structuralism is the determined approach to process the data. Therefore, this study is not only concerned with the structure of the poems but also combined with the feminism theory. The result of this research indicated that the objects contained several poetical elements: figurative language, imagery, diction, and tone, that have a main function in enriching the meanings and semantic atmospheres in order to disclose the feminism issues inside the poems. Therefore, the analysis of poetical devices shows how significant the author treats feminism inside her selected poems.**

***Index Terms*—feminism, Afro-American, structuralism, poem, Audre Lorde**

I. Introduction

Feminism has always been a serious topic to discuss, and its current struggles have yielded remarkable results for women's independence and gender equality in society. Several countries in various parts of the world are still struggling to achieve a better life for women. They pursue various goals for their prosperity, and one of the goals of the movement is to fight violence against women. While the types of violence vary, such as physical, sexual, and mental violence. In addition, one of the determining factors is ethnic background. Racial discrimination is something that is sensitive for women, which affects their existence in society.

African Americans in the Colonial Era: From African Origins through the American Revolution explains that the history of racial discrimination against black women has been going on for a long time, even in a liberal and multicultural country like the United States. In the Civil War (1860-1865), blacks were freed from slavery, but whites still treated them unequally because whites felt superior and saw blacks as inferior. Wright (2017) argued that Southern White racism descends into evil and absurdity (p. 228). African-Americans have different perspective way to define the racism in the novel. They cannot live in a free society on par with white people because of their claim of racial inferiority. Stereotypes such as "wooly" hair, snub noses, thick lips, and physical appearance make them subordinated in a society dominated by white people. Despite these conditions, some African-American writers in the 1960s such as Lorde had presented their works to show their emotional expression and complement the issues of racism, classicism, sexism, and homophobia and highlight what black women faced. Today, this is a part of minority cause the feminism of this novel (Lorde, 1977a, p. 20). She began to emphasize the ideology of feminism itself. Furthermore, she also emphasized the importance of understanding the essence of women's struggles in fighting civil and social injustices that she observed throughout her life. Most of her poetry and prose generally address issues related to feminism, civil rights, and the exploration of black women's identity. However, she developed the term "women" from the ideology of feminism as a perspective of social change based on the problems and everyday experiences of black women and other women from minority demographics. In this study, to reveal the intersectionality inside, the researcher decides to select the poems of one of the influential female authors, Audre Lorde (Azis et al., 2022, p. 6).

The emergence of the idea of feminism in African-American literature is one of the implications that is not only caused by gender oppression against women, but is also influenced by racial issues constructed by society. Authors use literary works as a unique tool to record social and historical facts at a time. As historical documents, literary works are a reflection of society that represents culture and tradition (Taylor, 1981, p. 60). This is related to Plato's idea that poetry is a mirror. On the other hand, Aristotle also states the relevant thing. In his Poetics, he defines poetry as an imitation with his statement, "Epic Poetry and Tragedy, as well as Comedy, Dithyrambic poetry, and the playing of the flute and the playing of the harp, are all viewed as a whole, the mode of imitation". Plato and Aristotle's explanation is similar to Abrams' Theory of Mimesis, which was developed with the concept of imitation. Thus, it can be implied that literary works and the universe are interrelated and related.

There have been several previous researchers who have written on topics related to feminism and racism or intend to express the same object as well. They are Mardanus (2016) and Suryanti (2015). Mardanus studied *Feminism in Maya Angelou's Selected Poems* in 2016. In this thesis, he aims to investigate how Maya Angelou expresses her feminist aspects in her works and her attitude towards feminism and women. The researcher uses Genetic Structuralism to analyze some intrinsic aspects by uncovering poetic devices. Then, another research related to this was written by Suryanti entitled *Feminism in Miles Franklin's My Brillian Career* (2015). This thesis raises feminist issues presented by female characters that reflect the image of women in the third wave of feminism. Like the two previous studies, this thesis also uses a Structuralism approach, specifically the Genetic Structuralism approach, and applies Female Eunuch, a radical feminist theory by Germaine Greer.

In this study, the researcher tends to express African-American feminism in selected poems by one of the most influential female poets and writers while Lorde's attitude is based on the feminism found in the novel. One of the reasons is that she pays attention to her literary works about the women's place even though racial issues in society and their ethnic background, both issues, should be sensitive issues nowadays in a multicultural place like Indonesia. This study is expected to be able to empower women's self-awareness which is crucial but is always in the subconscious.

II. Review of Related Literature

A. Poetry

Apart from novels and plays, one of the most popular forms of literature is poetry which is generally made using word choice. Etymologically comes from the Greek word '*poiesis*' which means 'to make, form, create (in the word), or the art of poetry, or poetry'. As noted in Oxford Dictionaries, this is a work in which concepts are given intensity through the use of a distinctive style and rhythm and given expression of feeling. Equally relevant is Wordsworth's definition (1970) that "poetry is the spontaneous outpouring of one's strong feelings" (p. xviii).

In addition, Bode (1995) also states that one of America's greatest poets, Emily Dickinson, in Highlights of American Literature states: “If you read a book and it makes my body very cold and no fire can warm me, I know it’s poetry. If I feel physically as if the top of my head has been ripped off, I know it’s poetry” (p. 90).

Poetry attracts the public's interest with a language package consisting of selected words to help show its aesthetic value and meaning. The right word composition in poetry helps the reader to interpret the author's purpose by creating it. Furthermore, based on Abrams' framework (Abrams, 1971, p. 97) these works become the author's way of communicating his ideas and experiences which are called Expressive Theories.

To help understand the meaning in the interpretation of poetry, the writer uses several poetic devices in his work. In addition, readers also need to pay attention to the elements of poetry.

1. Figurative Language

As a writer's stylistic tool for aesthetically amplifying their work, figurative language makes sound work enjoyable. In a sense, this device is similar to the connotation that deviates from the conventionally accepted definition to convey a higher effect. Overall, it is divided into several general types.

2. Imaging

Imagery can be defined as the representation of sensory experience through language with visual, auditory, tactile, olfactory, gustatory, kinesthetic, and organic or subjective images. The author uses it when trying to describe something so that it appeals to our senses of sight, hearing, touch, taste, or influence. This creates a clear description for the reader's understanding. In addition, imagery is built on other literary devices because writers use comparisons to appeal to our senses, such as similes or metaphors.

3. Diction

Diction refers to the choice of words. It refers to the writer's linguistic choice to convey ideas and points of view. In literature, word choice can help the writer form a clear point and style. This means that a poet in the process of creating poetry will definitely choose certain words and eliminate words that are considered not to meet the artistic construction of the creation. The choice of words is closely related to the expression of an artistic idea so that the creation process is not a spontaneous process.

4. Tone

According to Perrine (1983, p. 10), tone in literary works, especially poetry, can be interpreted as the way the author relates to the subject, to the reader, or to himself. Tone is the emotional color or meaning of the author's work and is an important element of the overall meaning.

B. Feminism

The use of the term 'feminism' has developed successfully and has become commonplace in society. It correlates with several meanings such as the women's movement, women's ideology, women's liberation in the social, economic, and political fields. Some authors refer to the term as historical and political movements in the United States and Europe, such as women's suffrage or political legislation and consent. Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Lucretia Mott, Susan B. Anthony,

and Wilhelmina Drucker were some of the influential figures behind the movement (Puri, 2015, p.118; Paglia, 2008, p. 20).

There are also those who refer to the term 'feminism' with the belief that there is oppression that occurs against women as a gender phenomenon in social construction. According to feminists, oppression is the main problem faced by women from their unequal relations with men and the fundamental goal of this movement is to elevate women's lives above it (Leon & Schmidt, 2021, p. 112).

This movement was born as a reaction to the belief that women have experienced oppression, subordination, and marginalization in society for more than a hundred years. In a patriarchal society, women have been socialized to become victims of the ideology of male domination. As a result, the influence of their experiences and inequalities has an impact on social institutions, political systems, the economy, the family, and religion. Thus, feminism aims to change the ideology of women to become aware that they are oppressed by using the concepts of patriarchy and gender to examine the oppression of women (Taylor, 1998a, p. 242).

In the history of the feminist era, the basic idea of feminism was combined with several big and crucial things in society, one of which is racial or ethnic background (Chakraborty, 2021, p. 1612). This struggle was initiated by African American women for their freedom, justice, and equality despite the effects of colonialism and double slavery (Higginbotham, 1992, p. 60). Furthermore, the history of feminism in the United States is marked by two distinct periods or waves that are directly linked to two key movements in African-American history (Reger, 2012, p. 118; Taylor, 1998b, p. 26). The first was the abolitionist movement which culminated with the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment by suffrage in 1920. The second was in the 1970s Title VII and Title IX of the 1964 Civil Rights Act i.e. civil modern rights movement that refers to adoption (Halpern, 1995, p. 45).

During these two monumental historical periods, the third wave that followed was the countless black women activists who had developed a feminist consciousness and who provided them with an institution to fight for empowerment in their own way. Furthermore, collectively their feminism was more expansive than the agenda put forward by white women, especially in certain social, economic, and political issues facing the African-American community that were fed into the theoretical paradigm we now call black feminism. This movement had emerged in African American women's scholarship and activism during the late second wave of feminism in the 1970s and led to the third wave in the 1980s and 1990s (Taylor, 1998a, p. 240).

III. Methods

The methodology of this research includes methods of collecting data and methods of analyzing data. The analysis is categorized as qualitative research, which presents the object of analysis descriptively outside using scores in quantitative aspects. The primary data for this research is taken from The Collected Poems of Lorde's reprinted with the permission of Charlotte Sheedy Literary Agency and W. W. Norton & Company, Inc. The titles are A Woman Speaks, Coal, and Who Said It Was Simple. The secondary data to support the analysis are obtained from books, articles, journals, and other resources about poetry, feminism movement, Afro-American life, or other related subjects (Taylor, 1998a, p. 237).

IV. Finding and Discussion

A. Poem Analysis

1. A Woman Speaks

Moon marked and touched by sun
my magic is unwritten
but when the sea turns back
it will leave my shape behind.
I seek no favour
untouched by blood
unrelenting as the curse of love
permanent as my errors
or my pride
I do not mix
love with pity
nor hate with scorn
and if you would know me
look into the entrails of Uranus
where the restless oceans pound.

This poem begins with allusion attributes in the use of the word ‘moon’ and ‘sun’ in the first line. In some references related to ancient myths around the world such as Greece, Roman, Old-Norse, and Paganism, their ancestor cultures beliefs that there are goddesses represented as lunar deities. Besides, in Sanskrit-related languages (e.g., Latin, Greek, French, Italian, and Portuguese), the terms moon and sun have definite gender. For example, in French and many other Romanic languages, *Le Soleil* (the sun) is male and *La Luna* (the moon) is female. This is also similar to German and

other Germanic languages, *die Sonne* is male and *der Mond* is female.

Therefore, an allegory also comes up within the first to the fourth line. Lorde (the poet) represents women and their efforts to get a better place in this world as she writes **"Moon marked and touched by sun /my magic is unwritten**" (line 1-2). In these first two lines, the author is implying the social environment in natural illustration. She begins the poem with her ideas that women are affected by stereotypes or negativities constructed by society and it makes the common cause of their inability to express themselves. Then, the dictions of the next two lines are still dealing with nature attribute as the use of word 'sea' inside **"when the sea turns back /it will leave my shape behind"** (line 3-4). This part illustrates that even if she was gone, her words and efforts still have a lasting effect on her goal to seek equality.

The writer also expresses a sense of being unknown and her differential uniqueness as an outcast across the diaspora as she stated belong with the similes **"I seek no favour/untouchable by blood/unrelating as the curse of love/permanent as my errors/or my pride"** (lines 5 – 9). Further, he calls attention to the need for understanding and action rather than feeling sorry for this omission in lines 10 to 12, **"I don't mix /love with pity/or hate with scorn"** (lines 10-12). Belonging to Zeugma, he uses and continues to tell his readers about his infinity by others in his contradictions with the common people. The lack of voice she describes can be attributed to historical discrimination against women in the workplace and the lack of political representation for queer women in the context of American society in the late 70s to early 90s when Lorde was an activist and poet (Lorde, 1997b, p. 59).

In the last two lines of the first stanza, the author suggests her self-esteem as a black woman that she does not reveal any negative sentiment towards those people who discriminate against her, but disclose that there is more to her than her physical looks. Lorde writes it in the lines by hyperbole and visual imagery at once, **"and if you would know me/look into the entrails of Uranus/where the restless oceans pound"** (line 13-15). She noted that women are underestimated in society but they are more powerful and influential than people think. Besides, the use of visual imagery and the dictions within these lines claim an interpretation that women can still have an impact on the world even if they are not recognized as Lorde uses the diction of 'Uranus' which refers to one of the largest planets in our solar systems and 'restless oceans' which is referred to geology and oceanography terms of ocean water movement circulation. The words contribute a massive meaning to the author's imagery.

In the last two lines of the first stanza, the author suggests her pride as a black woman that she does not express any negative sentiment towards those who discriminate against her, but reveals that there is more to her than her physical appearance. Lorde writes it in lines with both hyperbole and visual imagery, **"and if you would know me/look into the entrails of Uranus/where the restless oceans pound"** (lines 13-15). She notes that women are despised in society, but they are more powerful and influential than people think. Moreover, the use of visual imagery and diction in the lines claims the interpretation that women can still have an impact on the world even if they are not recognized as Lorde using the diction 'Uranus' which refers to one of the largest planets in the world. Our solar system and the 'restless oceans' are called geology and oceanography, the term circulation of seawater movements. Words give great meaning to the author's image.

2. Coal

Some words are open
Like a diamond on glass windows
Singing out within the crash of passing sun
Then there are words like stapled wagers
In a perforated book—buy and sign and tear apart—
And come whatever wills all chances
The stub remains
An ill-pulled tooth with a ragged edge.
Some words live in my throat
Breeding like adders. Others know sun
Seeking like gypsies over my tongue
To explode through my lips
Like young sparrows bursting from shell.
Some words
Bedevil me.

Lorde speaks her idea of the openness of words as language in the second stanza. She goes on to explain and name the words and how some feel like **"an ill pulled tooth with a ragged edge"** (line 15), and how some words feel like **"passing crash of the sun"** (line 10), how **"some words like stapled wagers"** (line 11), until a few words bothered him. The parables and parables show her personal struggles as a black woman and how society with its power calls someone black or white and judges them based on their origin. Moreover, in line **"In a perforated book—buy and sign and tear apart—"** (line 12), she gained more deep diction to expose the stereotyping effect into discrimination as the way society recognizes, labels, and offends the black. The meaning continues with the tactile imagery in **"The stub remains /An ill-pulled tooth with ragged edge"** (line 14-15).

In the stanza above, Lorde is concerned that not every word will carry the same weight or value as she states in the lines, **"Some words live in my throat /Breeding like adders / Others know sun /Seeking like gypsies over my**

tongue /To explode through my lips /Like young sparrows bursting from shell" (line 15-20). Through the similes she used, Lorde claimed that the different impact of some words on her and, as a result, not everything can be easily said. She could have conveyed the fecundity with the word of 'breeding', but the images of 'adders' connotes danger, fear, and poison. Moreover, as she states **"Some words /Bedevil me"** (line 21-22) at the closing of the stanza, she implies dangerous words that must be held in, particularly for reasons of oppression. In contrast, the diction of 'sun' also supports substantial meaning as a natural element to affirm its fundamental need in the entire universe. Then, Lorde compares it to baby birds as she uses 'young sparrow' both to express their freedom and vulnerability, and as a representative of new life and hope.

3. Who Said It Was Simple

Setting in Nedicks
the woman rally before they march
discussing the problematic girls
they hire to make them free.
An almost white counterman passes
a waiting brother to serve them first
and the ladies neither notice nor reject
the slighter pleasures of their slavery.
But I who am bound by my mirror
as well as my bed
see causes in colour
as well as sex

The author presents the second stanza to find out the intersecting realities and what is happening around them. It follows the narrative line, **"sitting in Nedicks/the woman rally before they march/discussing the problematic girls/they hire to make them free"** (lines 4-7). Lorde describes the preparatory situation for the women's march that took place at a restaurant called Nedicks. Two pronouns should be underlined in this line, 'woman' and 'girl'. His diction may allude to age or class classification (oppressors and oppressed). More out of context, Lorde makes such satirical statements on the next line, implying bittersweet anecdotes. Those women are busy making liberation strategies for a group of other women, but ironically, they still employ them at home to do some household chores like cleaning or cleaning the house such as take care of the house and caring about their children.

Furthermore, Lorde keeps telling the ironic thing she witnessed. She writes**, "An almost white counterman passes / a writing brother to serve them first / and the ladies neither notice nor reject /the slighter pleasures of their slavery"** (line 8-11). These lines tell such an overlapped condition of society. Lorde, in her words, pictures the illustration in the same restaurant; there was a bi-racial man who passed another man just because he needs to serve the women who ordered. The word 'brother' is used as a term in Afro-Americans to call their fellows. Despite dealing with racial issues, these lines also indicate sexism issues in different perspective in thinking and idealism. The illustration Lorde brought in reflected its fatality of gender concept that society continuing and might be seen even in the smallest area, such a queue. Therefore, the ladies seem not to feel guilty of the 'specialty' they got from the man. It shows the readers that the adage of 'ladies first' that has been rooted in society would not create an equality system of gender. The women will always be put as the weakest ones that should get helped and respected at first than men, and this is not what the absolute purpose of the march they held, actually.

The next lines occur to contain Lorde's perspective as she concludes the whole reality around her. She writes, **"But I who am bound by my mirror /as well as my bed / see causes in colour /as well as sex"** (line 12-15). These lines show 'mirror' as a metonymy referring to her physical appearance and position as a Black person, and so 'bed' which refers to her sexual identity and role as a woman. Therefore, 'colour' is represented as a metaphor for the reality which can be seen in every corner of life. The author also correlates the 'colour' with 'sex' by the simile she used. This is such a bridge for Lorde to intertwine the cases of real and women's identity in order to show that they are closely related. She tells her readers that she is a witness to the twisted and complicated things that keep evolving within the society, and she cannot separate the layers of oppressions.

B. Audre Lorde's Attitude to Feminism

It is interesting to know that Audre Lorde is both a feminist fighter and a poet. Her idealism and attitude are reflected in her works. She is also known as a womanist, librarian, and civil right activist. Her three works are *A Woman Speaks, Coal, and Who Said It Was Simple* deemed worthy of representing her image with the various predicates she has. And that's Audre Lorde.

Figure.1: Audre Lorde

Audre Lorde was born in New York, at the height of the Harlem Renaissance, a cultural movement stepped in African-American identity, and 'Black, Lesbian, Mother, Warrior, Poet' were the words she would use for herself. She recognizes that diversity exists both among people and within them as well, and refuses to deny expression to any part of him. A queer black woman, Lorde came to the feminist movement with very different concerns than her white heterosexual counterparts, and her keen awareness of these differences tells a lot about her politics. One of Lorde's most enduring speeches was made in 1979, during a feminist conference in New York entitled “Teachers' Tools Will Never Destroy the Teacher's Home” (Bowleg, 2021, p. 237). This speech examines and criticizes second-wave feminism led by white and upper middle-class leaders such as Betty Friedan and Gloria Steinem (Anand, 2018, p. 30). At the start of her speech, Lorde announced, “I stand here as a black lesbian feminist”, citing her own trademark as a cornerstone and continuing all her qualifications: “I stand here as a black lesbian feminist on the only panel where input from feminists and representing black lesbians” (Oslon, 2000, p. 260).

In the speech and throughout her career as a poet, essayist, novelist, civil rights, and activist, she eloquently calls out the underlying racism within the feminist movement. Furthermore, some of her works are advocated the issues black women faced at the time like ethnicity, class, sexuality, gender, identity, disability, and age. Furthermore, her feminism is based on intersectionality, and the belief that gender oppression is inseparable from oppressive systems such as racism, sexism, classicism, transphobia, and heterosexism, among others.

Today, Lorde is sometimes referred to as a "woman", a certain "feminist" field. As an idea, womanism emerged as a social theory that aims to discuss the specific experiences of black women and women from other marginalized or oppressed minority groups. This idea was created by Alice Walker to sideline mainstream white feminists from women of color, and especially to fight Anti-darkness in the feminist movement. In addition, her ideas about this kind of feminism appear in the poems that she writes.

V. Conclusion

The first poem, A Woman Speaks, focuses on ideas about the image of black women as a minority in American society and the struggle to be seen as equal, powerful, and influential as men. Therefore, the author uses figurative language which is part of figurative language as the dominant element in this work to change his idea of identity into female self-awareness despite negative sentiments. Here, Lorde as a writer tries to broaden people's perspectives and stereotypes about black women, besides that she also expresses her independence and black pride.

Coal, in the second poem, the author reflects his personal views with the patriarchal ideology in the society he witnessed himself as a black person, similar to the first poem above, this poem is also a way for him to celebrate his identity and by expressing self-affirmation that his darkness can be the essence which is somewhat worth proudly. In addition, imagery is the most frequently used in this poem to give a clear picture to the reader.

The last poem, Who Said It Was Simple, is concerned with the intersectional issues in the society the author lives such as sex, class, age, and race. By the tone the poet used within, she transforms her beliefs that all of the issues are interconnected and cannot be separated from each other. She assumes that the movements might be successful if they support each other to reach the goals in fight the oppressions.

Based on the discussion, this study shows that Lorde used her poems to show up her feminist ideologies significantly by using specific poetical devices. This is related to herself as one of the feminist poets, figures, and activists.

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Problematizing the Postmodern Condition in *Em and the Big Hoom*

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***Abstract*—This paper investigates and problematizes the postmodern condition in Jerry Pinto's novel, *Em and the Big Hoom*. The complex, medical, psychoanalytic, and psychiatric history of the characters' psyche is traced out in the novel. Postmodernism is an outgrowth of Modernism. It denotes the status of contemporary society, the revolutions, modifications, and shifts in science, literature, and arts. Taking into account all of the significant shifts from Modernism to Postmodernism, the study explicates Postmodernism as a movement, the Postmodern era along with the postmodern condition, and the postmodern tenets. The Psyche of the postmodern characters as presented by the author in his psychological fiction is profoundly probed in the paper. There is an intense focus on how important tenets like fragmentation, non-linearity, intertextuality, and playfulness are inherent in the novel.**

***Index Terms*—postmodernism, postmodern condition, paranoia, problematizing, psyche**

I. Introduction

Postmodernism cannot be constrained to a concrete definition. It's a departure from Modernism. Lyotard, a well-known critic of the postmodern movement interrogated "What is Postmodernism?" in his book, *The Postmodern Condition* (1979), describing it as "the radically shifted status of knowledge and its dissemination." Postmodernism likely confines itself from launching a single definition. Also, Hassan (1998) says aptly: "I know less about postmodernism today than I did thirty years ago" (p. 03). Lyotard (1979) says, "[Postmodernism] designates the state of our culture following the transformations, which, since the end of the nineteenth century, have altered the game rules for science, literature and the arts" (p. 09).

Harvey (1989), in *The Condition of Postmodernity*, speculates the argument by classifying Postmodernism as: "modernist sentiments may have been undermined, deconstructed, surpassed, or bypassed, but there is little certitude as to the coherence or meaning of the systems of thought that may have replaced them" (p. 42). The shifts brought about by the postmodernist thought have paved the way for new strategies to be applied in literary works. Various literary devices and techniques are used in postmodern literary works. Fragmentation, parody, paranoia, dark humour, an untrustworthy narrator, authorial self-reference and self-reflexivity, and so on are among them. "Language constructs immense edifices of symbolic representations that appear to tower over the reality of everyday life like gigantic presences from another world" (Harvey, 1989, p. 130). So, Postmodernism discards traditional forms of writing as found in Modernism.

Currie (1998) says that Postmodern novels are usually considered as anti-realist. The link between fiction and reality is a "central concern" of a Postmodern novel. They create fictitious realms just to reveal them as crafted constructs. They like thematizing their own theatricality, frequently by erecting an internal barrier between fiction and reality, allowing for meditation on the relationship between fiction and reality, as well as the irony that both fiction and reality are, in the end, fictitious. They favor illusion-breaking devices, particularly those that emphasize the presence of an author, such as the intrusive authorial narrator who steps in to declare a fiction's fictionality, or the "surrogate author": a figure within the fictional world who takes on the role of an author, or one that is analogous to the role of an author. "Melepsis," which is commonly characterized as frame-breaking, is a crossing of some uncrossable border between distinct levels of reality or being, such as when a character goes out of a fiction or an author enters into it to interact with characters. Metafictions are fictions about fiction, self-aware fictions, and fictions that include critical and theoretical reflection in their fictional worlds. They are "historiographic metafictions" for a generation: fictions that raise concerns about history philosophy, the truth or knowability of historical representations, or the narrative strategies that give shape to historical data (Curie, 1998).

He also points out that Postmodern novels are "intertextual novels. They are acutely conscious of their situation in a world awash in representations, as well as their place within a tradition, or a history of representations, which includes other books. They are citational in the sense that they quote, allude to, refer to, borrow from, or absorb our works as a method of dramatizing their own relationship with the outside world by including the line between fiction and reality within a fiction. They honor intermediality, or the depiction of connections between novels and other media such as

films, television shows, photographs, and historical works. They favor the identification of a specific, typically well-known intertext in the form of a book, frequently in order to rewrite it, especially from a point of view that is critical of it. They favor identifying a specific, typically well-known intertext in the form of a novel for the goal of rewriting it, particularly from a point of view that was marginalized in, or not represented by, the original.

Novels set in the postmodern era describe a current stage of global culture influenced by new technology. The figurative shrinkage of the globe into a village, as well as the paradoxical forces of uniformity and diversification that define the contraction, are reflected in the form and substance of postmodern literature. On a content level, the postmodern novel depicts the contemporary phase of capitalism's world of simulation, expansion of representational technology, and personal and social archiving. They represent a world where simulations are becoming progressively inseparable from the objects they replicate, and where inseparability is an intrinsic part of the commodification process. They symbolize, above all, questions of cultural uniqueness and identity in the context of global, cultural uniformity. At the level of form, globalization and technological innovation resulting in experimental narrative forms, particularly those that replicate the interrelatedness of a global village, the loss of linearity in temporal experience, or the tendency to engage the present as a future depiction or recollection in technologically assisted ways.

"For to define the postmodern in a strictly temporal sense would be to immediately exclude a plethora of literary styles and works that would otherwise qualify as benchmarks of high-postmodernist writing. The list of scandalous exclusions would include – but would definitely not limited to – Francois Rabelais's *Gargantua and Pantangruel* (1693-94), Muguel de Cervantes's *Don Quixote* (1615), Laurence Sterne's *Tristram Shandy* (1759), Jonathan Swift's *A Modest Proposal* (1729), Oscar Wilde's *The Importance of Being Earnest* (1895) as well as James Joyce's *Finnegans Wake*, a novel published on 4 May 1939, four months before the start of the second world war." (Parui, 2018, p. 01)

Postmodernism is the 'after' of modern or now. It imbues postmodernist literature with the inability of definition and confinement that has come to characterize it. "This impossibility finds its aesthetic ally in the postmodernist avant-garde that permanently problematizes any division between high and low culture, tribute and parody, seriousness and flippancy" (Parui, 2018, p. 1). The postmodern literature may thus be defined as an "entanglement, an aesthetic of anti-authoritarianism and permanent polyphony that characterizes the works of Rabelais as well as Rushdie, Kafka as well as Calvino, Cervantes as well as Spiegelman" (Parui, 2018, p. 2). As a problem of presuppositions and essence, postmodernism subjects itself to its own critical tools and creative strategies in an inescapable loop of self-reflexivity and self-critique. Postmodern poetics has become a celebration of "simultaneity, interruption, incompletion, and incongruity" (Parui, 2018, p. 3) .

Meta fictionality, which involves self-referentiality, is a hallmark of postmodern writing. Metafiction is a narrative that does not simply tell a story; it punctuates the act of narrative by blurring the line between fact and fiction, "problematizing" the relationship between author and characters, demanding the notion of authorship, and, overall, including representations on the theory of fiction within the so-called fictional space. Postmodernism is a kind of writing that refers to the most general, general tendencies. There is a claim that most postmodern novels are historical. Postmodernism is defined by its inconclusiveness. The postmodern narrative not only "problematizes" the Aristotelian formula of a chronological and tripartite division of a plot (beginning, middle, and end), but it also subverts the concept of "narrative closure" by implying, as in Fowles' book, the potential of numerous endings. In general, final and conclusive assertions are regarded as reductive and essentialist, and a postmodernist should mistrust or avoid them. In this light, one may use Sarah Woodruff's mysterious persona as an example.

Similarly, the postmodern condition embedded in the novel, *Em and the big Hoom* is problematized in this article along with intensive close reading and investigation of the various postmodern tenets discovered in the novel.

II. Analysis

According to Modernism, the world is fragmented. The personality of every individual is schizophrenic. The major reason behind this is the radical change the world faced due to World War II. They are isolated as they are unable to alter to the new world order. They are forced into the state of being outcasts. And this is how modern man is considered schizophrenic. In terms of postmodernism, the modern man's schizophrenia turns into paranoia. This feature of language and form itself establishes a powerful reason for the paranoia of the era. We encounter split personalities in the modern world. But In the Postmodern era, we encounter multiple personalities.

In relevance to the study on paranoia, Mandic (2014) describes paranoia as "a symptomatic condition of post modernity" (p. 143). Paranoia as a postmodern condition is differentiated from the postmodern tenets. And It is apparent that postmodernity is a new kind of thought and attitude for the individuals of the new era to actually adapt. In this regard, the case of Dr. Schreber of Freud can be recognized as a good instance for the definition of paranoia of Mandic. In Dr. Schreber's case, "Freud speculates, paranoia is a defense and a strategy of adaptation" (qtd in Flieger, 1997, p. 91). When an era changes, the knowledge varies as well. One faces the challenges of the new upcoming age. The individual happens to alter his/her mindset. This force for alteration has become more problematic in the postmodern age. Paranoia is considered to be a defense from the challenges of a new period and a strategy of adapting to the new era.

Em, the narrator's mother is affected by Paranoia, "For two years, Em did not suffer the terrors of twitching depression, nor were her maniac states stratospheric. This did not make her an ordinary mother. She still refused to have

anything to do with the kitchen. She still thought baths were a necessary evil and tried, like the boys of hundreds of American cartoons, to avoid them. She still laughed immoderately and wondered aloud whether there would be news in the paper about trees because there was a white light shining out if the subabul outside our balcony" (Pinto, 2012, p. 63).

The term paranoia has an "extraordinarily complex medical, psychiatric and psychoanalytic history" (Bersani, 2003, p. 145). It is largely taken to mean "the fear of persecution." The symptoms of paranoia naturally include a greater sense of anxiety, frequently to the stage of delusion and irrationality, a craving for centrality, and the (imagined) loss of autonomy and feelings of disempowerment. Julia Kristeva defines this unsettling capacity of fear, presenting that "phobia bears the marks of the frailty of the subject's signifying system" (Kristeva, 1982, p. 35). The inception of terror and paranoia in postmodern American works has designed a discrete aesthetics. Postmodern artists and writers like Thomas Pynchon and David Lynch are the most prominent ones who employ desolation and excessiveness to voice out the horror, deception, outrage, absurdity, bizarre and surreal state. For Pynchon and Lynch, "the real-world terrors of war, slavery, colonialism, corporate corruption, the Hollywood industry, and sexual violence ground the horror of their narratives" (Jarvis, 1998, p. 189). Moreover, Pynchon and Lynch continually investigate "the geographical imagination […] which constitute[s] a dissident remapping, of variable effectiveness, of the hegemonic fable of North America as a post-industrial society" (Jarvis, 1998, p. 51).

Allan Lloyd-Smith presents postmodernism and its "populist tendency, its lurid, low-rent sensationalism and exploitation of affect, its opening up of tabooed realms […] its embrace of the fragmentary" and its "use of paranoia" (15). He records the cultural anxieties about race, gender, class, and sexuality and also a denial of order and hierarchical power systems formulated to oppress, marginalize and exclude. Pinto presents the horrors of everyday life, reflected in his narratives, and therefore, revealing the dark side of his childhood. His narration and characters unveil all the inherent sufferings and apparent paranoia. He exposes the everyday life where the nightmares of reality prevail.

The reality portrayed by Jerry Pinto, the family saturated with the bizarre, radically projects the postmodern condition and tenets. The novel highlights the condition of present-day society, in an age of abundant, almost limitless, information and endless sources of fear and paranoia. This particular work is defined by depression, chaos, and affection. It presents a family where these concepts are normal.

With the statement, "the world of undiscriminating cynicism, where no one is trusted and nothing is believed, is in many ways a comfortable one," Jonathan Schell presents an excellent explanation of skepticism and paranoia. (Coale, Qtd, 01). This sense of paranoia is reproduced in Jerry Pinto's monumental work, Em and the Big Hoom. In Em and the Big Hoom, there are many indications of skepticism and paranoia. Em, the main character, is a fantastic example in this regard.

The Mendes family is unlike any other. Pinto's life is described. They are from Goa and live in Mahim, Bombay, in a one-bedroom flat with a hall-kitchen. Imelda, Augustine, their daughter Susan, and their son, the story's narrator, are all members of the family. Em and the Big Hoom are the children's nicknames for their parents. Em is a family member who is insecure and unreliable. While the Big Hoom works hard at his office, she spends most of her days at home, preparing tea and smoking beedis. Em suffers from mental depression, which is the reason for this. The Mendes family is overflowing with real and unconditional love, but it is put to the test by the continual presence of darkness, which threatens Em at any moment.

"My mother is now in a state where her mind tortures her. It will not even let her sag into apathy. Sometimes I see her body twitching a little in pain. Sometimes I see her forcing herself into a rigid stillness. Nothing will help her answer whatever savage questions her mind is asking. This is darkness and all that we have as a remedy are pills. They don't work. Not when she is this way. My mother lives through the long black night of the mind. She longs for death. She asks us if we can give it to her. 'Kill me,' she says on days when the pain is so bad that she is panting with it, small barely audible sobs. 'Let me die.'" (Pinto, 2012, p. 60)

The children strive to cope with their changed mother, who is suffering from paranoia and insane sadness and is trying suicide. The family works together to care for her as they try to find serenity in the midst of Em's dreadful illness. When Em is in good health, the novel's environment is topped with the joy of her charming oddity; when Em is in the throes of her disease, the setting appears to be twisted in the domination of her anguish. To his son and daughter, the Big Hoom is a caring enigma. He is often concerned about the chaos in the house. His love for Em is palpable at all times. To the children, his love is a mystery.

Their son is interested in learning more about his mother's illness. He likewise tries to control his own peculiarity in order to avoid becoming insane. He recounts his parents' early years together. The mother, Em's journal entries, and letters to his father, the Big Hoom, add a new layer to the storey, her voice distressingly humorous at times and brutally cruel at others. Em and the Big Hoom's love, sympathy, and care are as stirring as a romantic tale, and as upsetting. Jerry Pinto, the author, treats mental illness as a form of sad poetry. The Mendes family is a mishmash of amusing nicknames, odd anxiety and comedy, and unconditional acceptance of one another. The youngsters are confronted with a twisted familial scenario. Pinto, on the other hand, has fashioned a wild, definitely original character in Em, and in the family that was once happy and now ripped apart by her paranoia.

"Em's maniac state was often ugly but it is how I remember her: as a rough, rude, roistering woman. In this state, she came at us as an equal. But it was the other Em who was my night terror. As if it were a wild animal with flecks of foam at its mouth, I feared her depression." "Depression seemed to suggest a state that could be dealt with by ordinary means,

by a comedy on the television or an extravagance at a nice shop." But "Em's depressions were not like that." (Pinto, 2012, p. 59)

The mother is admitted to a hospital, "She was in Ward 33 again, lying in bed, a bed with a dark sheet and a view of the outside." But there is a lack of seriousness and inclusion of playfulness and the narrator immediately switches on to a man and a woman getting out of a taxi. The man took the woman's hand. Em says that the Indian Women fall ill due to this, adding that the husbands would hold their hands.

One of the easily recognizable elements of postmodernism is the concept of "play" (which is connected to Derrida's philosophy or the concept presented by Roland Barthes in *The Pleasure of the Text*). Rather than the modernist hunt for meaning in a chaotic environment, the postmodern author dismisses the idea of meaning in a playful sense. Though the notion of using these in writing did not originate with the postmodernists (the modernists were frequently playful and satirical), they were essential elements in a number of postmodern works. The postmodernists consider grave subjects in a kind of playful and humorous way. A Postmodern work of art never takes the reader into a grave attitude. As postmodernism normally discards reality and metanarratives, a lot of seriousness formerly connected with diverse forms of modernism is abandoned. Postmodernism in all facets is playful, including, the play of language, meaning, structural forms, and images. The humor and playfulness with which it handles the very serious, grave, and delicate issue of mental instability and depression is a fascinating way to approach in a postmodern way. The novel is firmly humorous dealing with serious issues throughout.

The narrative of the novel is non-linear and fragmented. It keeps shifting. The plot goes forth in an analepsis (flashback) technique where the past and present of the characters are juxtaposed. Each fragmented chapter is given titles such as Someone turned on a tap, Hello buttercup, If he should try and rape you, the prayers of mentals, The ABC Professions, I am no I, The Disgusting Bitch, Three to get married, You won't do anything silly? All is discovered. Let us flee, Electro-Convulsive Throppy, Who wants a hot flush? The last great mystery. The language is fragmented as well. The examples detected in the title are, I am no I, Three to get married.

III. Conclusion

The Salient features of the postmodernist fiction can be traced out as a self-reflexive, self-conscious metafictional aesthetic with an responsiveness of its own erected quality, a resistance against and a retelling of all grand and totalitarian narratives of nation, culture, identity and history, an upgrade of the playful and the problematic that questions the perceptiveness informing the politics of presuppositions, an inclination towards textuality and narrativity: transforming time, identity, space, and history into texts and narratives that can be constructed as well as deconstructed, an economy of intersubjective intertextuality that is tangled to the metafictional quality of the narrative, whereby the fictional text tactically refers to, draws on, imitates, pays tribute to, parodies and creates mutable meanings out of other fictional texts furtively as well as outwardly.

What is instantly discovered in the "indicative (but by no means exhaustive) list of features above is a sense of polyphonic praxis that characterizes the postmodern problematic where the high and the low, the real and the fictional, the organic and the inorganic, are all endlessly enmeshed" (Parui, 2018, p. 3).

"Genre, like other formal aspects of literature, has been subjected to profound scrutiny over the past three decades' advance of postmodernism. Organizing the literary system into kinds – poetry, novel, drama; lyric, romance, tragedy – is no longer the transparent task it once seemed to a New Critical world steeped in classification. Within postmodernism, the poststructuralist critique of genre has focused on the fact that traditional genre theory has almost always been either merely descriptive or, worse, rigidly prescriptive, failing or not even attempting to explain the phenomenon of cross-textual patterning in literature." (Hart, 2017, p. 1265)

At a generic level, the text *Em and the big Hoom,* is a mixture of autobiography, narration, and conversational. The focalization on the characters keeps changing as well. Hence, it proves itself to be a postmodern text, breaking the conventional plot structure. The postmodern feature of intertextuality is explicit too. The text, *Em and the big Hoom* is intertextual as Freudian Psychoanalysis is embedded in mother's conversations (Pinto, 2012, p. 8). Imelda's manic world is infatuated with sex and seduction. It is believed that she involves herself in tabooed conversations with her son and daughter. She also narrates about illegitimate pregnancy and escapes from that as: "If you do put a loaf in some poor girl's oven, you will take her to a government place, you will announce that you are Mr. and Mrs. D' Souza… And after it's done you will take her somewhere to rest and relax and weep and you will stay with her until she can go home." She presents a postmodern narration of Imelda is a 'foul-mouthed blob of scum' to the son. Em is a typical Indian Postmodern woman with cigarettes or Beedi, breaking the mainstream projection of a woman who is supposed to be the primary care giver. The novel provides a contrasting picture of the father. Though the father is compensating for the loss, he became frightened when Em spoke about the cock and curt business, the Big Hoom slowly calmed the pressure by amplifying Freud, 'hypothesis' replacing 'Oedipus Complex'.

Em's conversations are an indication of her educated mind but going through paranoia. She breaks the conventional, stereotypical state of the woman but she is projected as a woman in her postmodern condition of paranoia. Thus, paranoia as a postmodern condition is problematized and the postmodern tenets including Non-linearity, Playfulness, Intertextuality and Fragmentation are situated in the novel, *Em and the big Hoom* by Jerry Pinto.

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On the Unmarked Passivized Unergative Construction in Mandarin

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***Abstract*—This paper introduces a particular construction named the unmarked passivized uneragtive construction (UPUC). The aim of this paper is to explore the underlying structure of UPUC from generative syntax perspective. In this construction, the subject is an Affectee, affected by the following VO sequence. The VO sequence denotes a passive meaning. In the second part, this paper summarizes the unique grammatical properties of UPUC, then points out that the UPUC are a benefit construction and the Affectee has the inalienable possessive relation with the Theme. Then the paper analyzes the derivational process of UPUC.**

***Index Terms*—passivized, unergative construction, generative syntax, affectee, inalienable possessive relation, unaccusative construction, three-place predicates, passive marker gei, body-part relationship**

I. Introduction

This paper aims at giving an analysis of certain syntactic and semantic peculiarities of a special type of unmarked passive sentences in Mandarin Chinese, shown in (1)-(5).

(1) Zhangsan zai yiyuan jiancha le shenti.
Zhangsan at hospital check ASP body
'Zhangsan has his body checked in the hospital.'

(2) Zhangsan zai lifadian li le fa.
Zhangsan at barbershop cut ASP hair.
'Zhangsan has his hair cut at a barbershop.'

(3) Zhangsan ba le yi ke ya.
Zhangsan pull-out ASP one CL tooth.
'Zhangsan has one of his teeth pulled out.'

(4) Zhangsan chou le xie.
Zhangsan took-out ASP blood
'Zhangsan has some of his blood taken out.'

(5) Xiaogou yijing jian guo mao le.
little dog already trim ASP hair SFP
'The little dog got its hair trimmed.'

The syntactic structure of these sentences is SVO, while the semantic (thematic) structure of these sentences can be loosely defined as Patient-Verb-Patient. The first patient can be understood as an Affectee, affected by the action denoted by the following VO sequence, while the second patient is the theme of the verb. However, the verbs occurring in these sentences are typical Agent-oriented transitive verbs, illustrated in (6)-(10).

(6) (a) Yisheng zai yiyuan jiancha le Zhangsan de shenti.
doctor at hospital check ASP Zhangsan DE body
'The doctor has checked Zhangsan's body in the hospital.'
(b) Yisheng zai yiyuan gei Zhangsan jiancha le shenti.
doctor at hospital GEI Zhangsan check ASP body
'The doctor has checked Zhangsan's body in the hospital.'

(7) (a) Lifashi li le Zhangsan de toufa.
barber cut ASP Zhangsan DE hair
'The barber has cut Zhangsan's hair.'
(b) Lifashi gei Zhangsan li le fa.
barber GEI Zhangsan cut ASP hair
'The barber has cut Zhangsan's hair.'

(8) (a) Mama yijing jian guo xiao gou de mao le.
mother already trim ASP little dog DE hair SFP
'Mother has already trimmed the little dog's hair.'
(b) Mama yijing gei xiao gou jian guo mao le.
mother already GEI little dog trim ASP hair SFP
'Mother has already trimmed the little dog's hair.'

(9) (a) Yayi ba le Zhangsan yi ke ya.
dentist pull-out ASP Zhangsan one CL tooth
'The dentist has pulled out one of Zhangsan's teeth'

(b) Yayi gei Zhangsan ba le yi ke ya.
dentist GEI Zhangsan pull-out ASP one CL tooth
'The dentist has pulled out one of Zhangsan's teeth'

(10) (a) Hushi chou le Zhangsan 20 haosheng xie.
nurse take-out ASP Zhangsan 20 c.c. blood
'The nurse has taken-out Zhangsan's 20 c.c. blood.'

(b) Hushi gei Zhangsan chou le 20 haosheng xie.
nurse GEI Zhangsan take-out ASP 20 c.c. blood
'The nurse has taken-out Zhangsan's 20c.c. blood.'

In (6a), the verb *jiancha* 'check' is a two-place predicate. The external argument assumes the semantic role of Agent, while the internal argument assumes the semantic role of Theme. With the same verb, we found different thematic structures represented by (1) and (6a), repeated here as (11).

(11) (a) Zhangsan zai yiyuan jiancha le shenti.
Zhangsan at hospital check ASP body
'Zhangsan has his body checked in the hospital.'
<Affectee> **<Adjunct>** **<V>** **<Theme>**

(b) **<Agent>** **<Adjunct>** **<V>** **<Theme>**
Yisheng zai yiyuan jiancha le Zhangsan de shenti.
doctor at hospital check ASP Zhangsan DE body
'The doctor has checked Zhangsan's body in the hospital.'

Based on the thematic structure of the sentence (11a), one analysis is to treat sentences (1)-(5) as examples of unaccusative constructions with retained object, illustrated by the following typical examples.[1]

<Experiencer> **<Adjunct>** **<V>** **<Theme>**

(12) (a) Wangmian qi sui si le fuqin.
Wangmian seven year-old die ASP father
'When Wangmian was seven years old, his father died.'

(b) Zhangsan bai le toufa.
Zhangsan white ASP hair
'Zhangsan's hair became white.'

(c) Zhangsan xia le yi zhi yanjing.
Zhangsan blind ASP one CL eye
'One of Zhangsan's eyes became blind.'

(d) Zuotian tamen fasheng le yi chang che huo.
yesterday they happen ASP one CL car accident
'Yesterday a traffic accident happened to them.'

(e) Tamen gongsi you chen le yi sou chuan.
they company again sink ASP one CL boat
'Their company again had a boat sinking.'

The subjects in these examples assume the semantic role of Experiencer rather than Affectee. But the subjects in our data (1)-(5) assume the semantic role of Affectee rather than Experiencer. So the verbs in these two kinds of sentences should belong to different categories. If we compare (13a) with (13b), we can get the difference between Experiencer and Affectee quite clearly.

(13) (a) Zhangsan ba le yi ke ya.
Zhangsan pull-out ASP one CL tooth
'Zhangsan has one of his teeth pulled out.'
<Affectee>

(b) Zhangsan xia le yi zhi . yanjing.
Zhangsan blind ASP one CL eye
'One of Zhangsan's eyes became blind.'
<Experiencer>

The subject *Zhangsan* in (13a) is Affectee and is affected by the action *ba ya* 'pull a tooth out'. This action should be performed by an Agent which is a covert one like *yisheng* 'doctor'. The subject *Zhangsan* in (13b), however, is an Experiencer, which means *Zhangsan* has experienced the event of his eyes becoming blind. This event is not performed by any Agent. Based on this difference, we would propose that (13a) and (13b) are different syntactic constructions. We would argue that (13a) is an unmarked (with no passive marker) passive sentence with a three-place unergative verb,

[1] Examples from (12) are from Huang (2007).

while (13b) is an active sentence with a two-place unaccusative verb.

II. Some Grammatical Properties of UPUC

In this section, we will describe the grammatical properties of the unmarked passivized unergative construction (UPUC) introduced in the previous section, and pave a way for the syntactic analysis in section 4.

A. The Verb in UPUC

The UPUC illustrated in (1)-(5) can be transformed into *gei* construction, shown in (6)—(10). In these counterpart constructions, the Agent-oriented verb of UPUC can take three arguments which are Agent, Affectee and Theme, shown in (14)-(18).

(14) Yisheng zai yiyuan gei Zhangsan jiancha le shenti.
doctor at hospital GEI Zhangsan check ASP body
'The doctor has checked Zhangsan's body in the hospital.'

(15) Lifashi gei Zhangsan li le fa.
barber GEI Zhangsan cut ASP hair
'The barber has cut Zhangsan's hair.'

(16) Mama gei xiaogou jian le mao.
mother GEI little dog trim ASP hair
'Mother has trimmed the hair of the little dog.'

(17) (a) Yayi gei Zhangsan ba le yi ke ya.
dentist GEI Zhangsan pull-out ASP one CL tooth
'The dentist has pulled out one of Zhangsan's teeth'

(b) Yayi ba le Zhangsan yi ke ya.
dentist pull out ASP Zhangsan one CL tooth
'The dentist has pulled out one of Zhangsan's teeth.'

(18) (a) Hushi gei Zhangsan chou le 20 haosheng xie.
nurse GEI Zhangsan take-out ASP 20 c.c. blood
'The nurse has taken-out Zhangsan's 20c.c. blood.'

(b) Hushi chou le Zhangsan 20 haosheng xie.
nurse take-out ASP Zhangsan 20 c.c. blood
'The nurse has taken-out Zhangsan's 20c.c. blood.'

The above sentences show that all UPUC can be transformed into *gei* construction. *Gei* construction in Mandarin can be a kind of double object construction (DOC) (Harley, 2003). Examples in (17b) and (18b) are DOC, which are similar with rob-type DOC. But we observed that being different from sentences in (17) and (18), the rob-type DOC does not have a counterpart of *gei* construction. Otherwise, the meaning will be contradictory. Comparing (19a) and (19b), we can see the latter change is very odd and it changes the original meaning, which is different from (18a) and (18b)

(19) (a) Daozei qiang le Lisi wubaikuai qian.
robber rob ASP Lisi $500 money
'Lisi's $500 was robbed by the robber.'

(b) * Daozei gei Lisi qiang le wubaikuai qian.
robber GEI Lisi rob ASP $500 money
'The robber robbed of $500 for Lisi.'

(c) Lisi qiang le wubaikuai qian.
Lisi rob ASP $500 money
'Lisi robbed $500.'

We know that *gei* has the meaning of 'do-for'. From semantic aspect, the meaning of *Daozei* 'robber' do robbing money for *Lisi* violates the original meaning. The verb *qiang* 'rob' in (19c) is an unergative verb with two place predicate while the verb in UPUC is three-place unergative verb. The subject NP *Lisi* performed the action *qiang le wubaikuai qian* 'robbed someone of $500'. So *Lisi* takes the thematic role of Agent. However, the subject NP of UPUC takes the thematic role of Affectee. So the rob type DOC like (19c) does not have its counterpart of UPUC.

B. UPUC and Ba Construction

The UPUC can be transformed into *ba* construction. Now let's look at the transformed *ba* construction of UPUC:

(20) Zhangsan zai yiyuan ba shenti jiancha le.
Zhangsan at hospital BA body check SFP
'Zhangsan has his body checked in the hospital.'

(21) Zhangsan zai lifadian ba toufa li le.
Zhangsan at barbershop BA hair cut SFP
'Zhangsan has his hair cut at a barbershop.'

(22) Zhangsan ba yi ke ya ba le.
Zhangsan BA one CL tooth pull-out SFP
'Zhangsan has one of his teeth pulled out.'

(23) Zhangsan ba xie chou le
Zhangsan BA blood take-out SFP
'Zhangsan has some of his blood taken out.'

(24) Zhangsan ba che xiu le.
Zhangsan BA car repaire SFP
'Zhangsan has his car repaired'

From semantic aspect, the Affectee in UPUC has intention of accepting the action which is denoted by the following VO sequence, so in *ba* construction the Affectee can be also understood as a causer. Actually, *ba* itself has the meaning of 'cause'. However, the Experiencer in the unaccusative construction does not have the intention of accepting the action denoted by the following VO. In other words, the Experiencer does not cause the event of his father dying. If the sentence containing two-place unaccusative verb is transformed into *ba* construction, then the derived sentence sounds very bad, shown in (25).

(25) (a) * Zhangsan ba yi zhi yanjing xia le
Zhangsan BA one CL eye blind SFP
'Zhangsan made one of his eyes blind.'

(b) * Wangmian ba fuqin si le
Wangmian BA father die SFP
'Wangmian had his father died on him.'

In Mandarin, the above sentences are ungrammatical ones. Therefore, the sentence containing two-place unaccusative verb cannot be *ba*-transformed.

C. The Obligatory Possession Relation between the Two Arguments

In UPUC, the possessive relation is obligatorily required between the Affectee and the Theme. However, in unaccusative construction, the possession relation between the Experiencer and the Theme is not necessary, which has been extensively argued in Huang's article (Huang, 2007). The details are illustrated in (26)[2].

(26) (a) Ta jia lai le xuduo yaofande.
he home come ASP many beggar
'Many beggars has arrived in his home.'

(b) Zhongguo chu le ge Mao Zedong.
China exit ASP CL Mao Zedong
'China emerged a Mao Zedong.'

(c) Zhangsan de erzi zhang chu le liang ke menya.
Zhangsan DE son grow exit ASP two CL tooth
'Zhangsan's son grew two front teeth.'

(d) Ta qi le yi shen jipigeda.
he rise ASP one body google pimple
'He rose a whole body-full of google pimples.'

In the above example, the subject assumes thematic role of Experiencer. The object assumes thematic role of Theme. There is no possessive relation between Experiencer and Theme.

D. The Beneficiary Subject of UPUC

The thematic role of the subject of UPUC must be beneficiary. In the previous discussion, we have compared (17) with (19) and claimed that in the transformed *gei* construction of UPUC, *gei* means 'do-for'. In (17), the Affectee *Zhangsan* is a beneficiary. The sentence means *Zhangsan* gets benefit from the event of pulling out his tooth. However, the Affectee *Lisi* in (19) is a loser and loses his money. (19a) cannot be transformed into *gei* construction with a benefit meaning. Let's compare (17) with another group of sentences, illustrated in (27) and (28). Example (17) is repeated here as (27).

(27) (a) Yayi ba le Zhangsan yi ke ya.
dentist pull out ASP Zhangsan one CL tooth
'The dentist has pulled out one of Zhangsan's teeth.'

(b) Yayi gei Zhangsan ba le yi ke ya
dentist GEI Zhangsan pull-out ASP one CL tooth
'The dentist has pulled out one of Zhangsan's teeth'

(28) (a) Tufei ge le Zhangsan yi zhi erduo.
bandit cut ASP Zhangsan one CL ear
'The bandit cut one of Zhangsan's ears.'

[2] Examples in (26) are from Huang (2007).

(b) * Tufei gei Zhangsan ge le yi zhi erduo.
bandit GEI Zhangsan cut ASP one CL ear
'The bandit cut one ear for Zhangsan.'
(c) * Zhangsan ge le yi zhi erduo.
Zhangsan cut ASP one CL ear
'Zhangsan cut one ear.'

(28a) is a kind of lose-type double object construction, which is different from the DOC with a benefit meaning shown in (27a). So in semantic aspect, the indirect object *Zhangsan* in (27a) is a beneficiary while the outer object *Zhangsan* in (28) is a loser. Only the uncanonical DOC with a benefit meaning can be transformed into *gei* construction like (27b). The canonical DOC with a "lose" meaning cannot be *gei* transformed because *gei* implies a benefit meaning which is equal to 'do-for'. Otherwise, the sentence meaning will be completely changed shown in (28b), which means the bandit cut one ear for *Zhangsan*. However, the sentence in (28a) can be understood as a kind of affective construction (Tsai, 2005). Tsai (2005) proposed that the lose type DOC belongs to the affective construction (Tsai, 2005). Tsai (2005) also discussed the *gei* marked affective construction and analyzed their passivized form in which *gei* is similar to a passive marker (Tsai, 2005), shown below:

(29) (a) Ta juran gei wo pao le
he unexpectedly GEI me run SFP
'He unexpectedly escaped from my hand.'
(b) Wo juran gei ta pao le.
I unexpectedly GEI him run SFP
'He unexpectedly escaped from my hand.'

So we can treat sentence in (29b) as the passivized affective construction. The Affectee *Ta* 'he' occupies the subject position which is affected by the following clause which denotes a bad event. So we can see that the DOC with benefit meaning in (27a) is different from the lose-type or rob-type DOC. Furthermore, the former has its counterpart of UPUC while the latter dose not. Otherwise, the sentence loses the original meaning, shown in (28c). The subject *Zhangsan* is not the beneficiary, which fails to meet the requirement of the UPUC.

In the following discussions we will focus on the syntactic structure and the derivation of UPUC.

III. Literature Review

The UPUC is a special construction, which has attracted more and more attention among the researches. The recent study about this construction is by Li (2007). In her study, she proposed that this construction contains a passive meaning and there is a possessive relation between the subject and object (Li, 2007). Her analyses mainly focus on showing the semantic and pragmatic properties of this construction. The underlying syntactic structure of the UPUC has not been dealt with in her study.

The typical unaccusative construction in (12a) is a similar one which has been discussed extensively in literature (Tan, 1991; Pan, 1998; Xu, 1999, 2001; Han, 2005; Shen, 2006). Generally speaking, the derivation of (12a) is different from the UPUC because they have different syntactic structures. Following Hole (2006) and Huang (2007), the argument structure of Chinese verbs can be modified by adding extra arguments (Hole, 2006; Huang, 2007). Hence intransitive unaccusative and unergative verbs can take two or more arguments.

A. The Introduction of Extra Argumentality

Hole (2006) proposed the syntactic functions of extra arguments (Hole, 2006). First, some extra arguments have the subject function. In such sentences, the main verbs are usually unaccusative verbs, shown as (30)[3]

(30) Che bao le yi zhi luntai.
car burst ASP one CL tyre
'The car burst a tyre.'

The direct object *luntai* 'tyre' should be the subject of the sentence with the intransitive verb *bao* 'burst'. The extra argument *Che* 'car' in the subject position in (30) and the more deeply embedded argument *luntai* 'tyre' constitute a part-whole relation. We can see that the extra argument in the subject position is not the topic of a sentence. This sentence is different from the Chinese topics because the topic sentence cannot exist in a question-answer sequence. But the sentence with extra argument can be in a question-answer pair.

(31) Q: Shui diao le yi gen bai toufa.
who drop ASP one CL white hair
'Who fell out one white hair?'
A: Ta diao le yi gen bai toufa.
She fall ASP one CL white hair
'She fell out one white hair.'

Second, the extra arguments in some sentences have the object function. The relation between the extra argument and

[3] Example in (30) is from Hole (2006).

Theme is called external possession, shown in (32):

(32) Xiao Wang chi le wo yi ge dangao.
little Wang eat ASP I one CL cake
'Little Wang ate one of my cakes.'

The direct object *dangao* 'cake' is part of or possessed by the extra argument *wo* 'I'. The main verb *chi* 'eat' is originally transitive, but in this sentence, the verb *chi* 'eat' is ditransitive. The ditransitive construction is typically found that the indirect object (extra argument) loses something, or that the indirect object is exempted from something. In (32), the extra argument *wo* 'I' lose *dangao* 'cake'. However, there are rarely sentences with verbs that have the indirect object coming into the possession of something, like *gei* (or *song*) 'give' sentences.

Hole (2006) further proposed that some *ba* constructions contain extra argument positions (Hole, 2006). We now should look at the typical *ba* construction which is derived from the transitive construction with a subject and a direct object, shown as (33):

(33) (a) Ta zuo wan le zuoye.
he do up ASP homework
'He finished his homework.'

(b) Ta ba zuoye zuo wan le.
he BA homework do up SFP
'He finished his homework.'

The direct object *zuoye* 'homework' moves to the preverbal *ba* position. Then the typical *ba* sentence shown in (33b) denotes a high transitive event. But this *ba* sentence does not involving extra argument.

In some *ba* constructions, there are retained objects following the verbs. We call it post verbal object. Hole (2006) proposes if the preverbal *ba* object co-occurs with the post verbal object, the extra argument position realizes in the *ba* construction (Hole, 2006), shown as (34)[4].

(34) (a) Zhangsan ba men shang le suo.
Zhangsan BA door put-on ASP lock
'Zhangsan put a lock on the door.'

(b) Tamen ba zhu fang le xie.
they BA pig release ASP blood
'They drained the pig of its blood.'

(c) Ta ba juzi bo le pi.
he BA orange peel ASP peel
'He removed the peel of the orange.'

The example in (34a) shows that something shown as *suo* 'lock' is added as a part to the whole shown as *men* 'door'. (34b) and (34c) show that the Theme ends up away from or detaches from the extra argument. So the part-whole relation exists between the extra argument and the Theme. Hole (2006) concludes that only when the more deeply embedded Theme argument is a functional or essential part of the extra argument, the *ba* construction can add extra argument position (Hole, 2006).

B. The Comparison between Unaccusative and Unergative Construction

Normally, unaccusative verbs and unergative verbs are two different types of intransitive verbs. An unaccusative verb takes an internal argument as the object in its underlying structure. The unaccusative verb does not have the ability to assign accusative case, so the internal argument moves from the object position to the subject position. The unergative intransitive verb takes an external argument as the subject. The thematic structures of these two different intransitive verbs are totally different, shown as (35) and (36).

<internal argument> (underlying structure)

(35) (a) [Zhangsan de yanjing]i xia le ti.
Zhangsan DE eye blind SFP
'Zhangsan's eyes became blind.'
<Theme>

<internal argument> (underlying structure)

(b) [Wangmian de fuqin]i si le
ti Wangmian DE father die SFP
'Wangmian's father died.'
<Theme>

<external argument>

(36) (a) Xiaoming ku guo le.
Xiaoming cry ASP SFP
'Xiaoming has cried.'
<Agent>

[4] Examples in (34) are from Hole (2006).

<external argument>

(b) Lisi xiao le.
doctor laugh SFP
'The doctor has laughed.'
<Agent>

In (35), *xia* 'blind' and *si* 'die' are one-place unaccusative verb. The argument *Zhangsan de yanjing* 'Zhangsan's eye' and *Wangmian de fuqin* 'Wangmian's father' originally occupy the internal argument positions in the underlying structures and both assume the thematic role of Theme. They move to the subject positions to fulfill the Case requirement. In (36), *ku* 'cry' and *xiao* 'laugh' are one-place unergative verbs. The subject *Xiaoming* and *Yisheng* 'doctor' occupy external argument both in underlying structure and surface structure. These two subjects assume the thematic role of Agent.

Second, we mentioned that the two types of intransitive verb can be transitivized by adding different arguments. A one-place unaccusative verb can become transitive verb with two-place predicate by adding an external argument. Whereas a one-place unergative verb can become transitive verb with two-place predicate by adding an internal argument. The different thematic structures between these two verbs are shown in (37) and (38).

<external argument> **<internal argument>**

(37) (a) Zhangsan xia le yi zhi yanjing.
Zhangsan blind ASP one CL eye
'One of Zhangsan's eyes became blind.'
<Experiencer> **<V>** **<Theme>**

<exteranl argument> **<internal argument>**

(b) Wangmian qi sui si le fuqin.
Wangmian seven year-old die ASP father
'When Wangmian was seven years old, his father died.'
<Experiencer> **<V>** **<Theme>**

<external argument> **<internal argument>**

(38) (a) Zhangsan xiao guo Lisi.
Zhangsan laugh ASP Lisi
'Zhangsan laughed at Lisi.'
<Agent> **<V>** **<Theme>**

<external argument> **<internal argument>**

(b) Zhangsan zhengzai ku ta siqu de fuqin.
Zhangsan just now cry he die DE father
'Zhangsan is crying for his father's death.'
<Agent> **<V>** **<Theme>**

The sentences in (37) are unaccusative constructions with two-place predicates. In (37a), the external argument *Zhangsan* assumes the thematic role of Experiencer. The sentence means Zhangsan experienced the event of eye becoming blind. In (37b), the intermediate argument *Wangmian* assumes the thematic role of Experiencer. *Wangmian* experienced the event that his father died. The sentences in (38) are unergative constructions with two-place predicates, which have the typical **Agent V Patient** structure meaning the Agent did something to the patient.

Third, the unaccusative and unergative verb can be applied to three-place predicates. Both three-place unaccusative and unergative constructions contain an external argument, an internal argument and an intermediate argument. In Mandarin Chinese, the give-type double object construction belongs to unaccusative constructions with two-place predicates. The rob-type double object constructions and the UPUC belong to unergative constructions with three-place predicates. The differences between the two constructions are shown in (39) and (40).

(39) Xiaoming song le Lisi yi ben shu.
Xiaoming give ASP Lisi one CL book
'Xiaoming gave Lisi one book.'
<Causer> **<Experiencer>** **<Theme>**

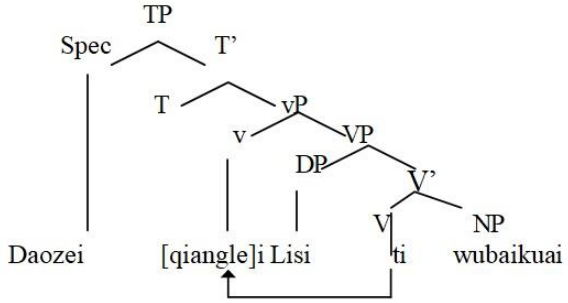
(40) (a) Daozei qiang le Lisi wubaikuai qian.
robber rob ASP Lisi $500 money
'Lisi's $500 was robbed by the robber.'
<Agent> **<Affectee>** **<Theme>**

(b) Yayi ba le Zhangsan yi ke ya.
dentist pull-out ASP Zhangsan one CL tooth
'The dentist has pulled out one of Zhangsan's teeth'
<Agent> **<Affectee>** **<Theme>**

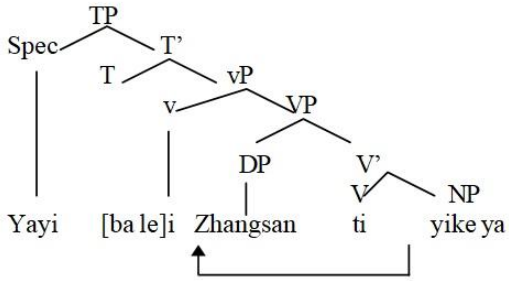
In (39), the unaccusative verb *song* 'give' means 'cause to have'. The intermediate argument *Lisi* assumes the thematic role of Experiencer. The sentence means Xiaoming caused Lisi to have a book. The sentences in (40) contain light verb positions in the underlying structures. Huang (2007) proposes this light verb can attract the main verb and

merge together (Huang, 2007). The tree diagrams are shown in (41):

(41) (a)



(b)



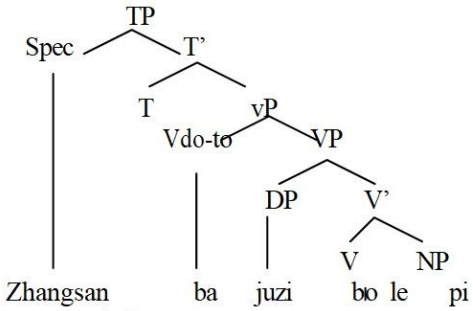
The intermediate argument *Lisi*/*Zhangsan* assumes the thematic role of Affectee. (41a) means the robber did the action of robbing $500 to *Lisi*. (41b) means the doctor did the action of pulling out teeth for *Zhangsan*.

Moreover, the underlying structure of *ba* construction with retained object and *gei* construction is similar to the underlying structure of the sentences shown in (42), but the light verb position is occupied by *ba* or *gei*, and the main verb does not move, shown in (42) and the tree diagrams are shown in (43).

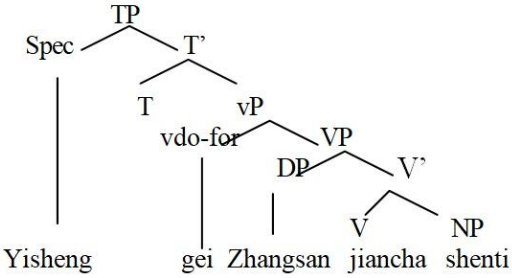
(42) (a)[5] Zhangsan ba juzi bo le pi.
Zhangsan BA orange peel ASP skin
'Zhangsan peeled the orange.'
<Agent> ba <Affectee> <V> <Theme>

(b) Yisheng gei Zhangsan jiancha le shenti.
doctor GEI Zhangsan check ASP body
'The doctor has checked Zhangsan's body.'
<Agent> gei <Affectee> <V> <Theme>

(43) (a)



(b)



In (43a), the Affectee *juzi* 'orange' has been affected by the action denoted in the following VP phrase. The sentence means *Zhangsan* did the action of peeling skin to oranges. In (43b), the Affectee *Zhangsan* gets benefit from the action denoted in the following vP phrase. The sentence means the doctor did the action of checking body for *Zhangsan*. In the previous discussion, we have analyzed that the *ba* sentence in (43a) contains an extra argument. The retained object *pi* 'peel' assuming the Theme is a functional or essential part of the extra argument *juzi* 'orange'. Here we observed that

[5] Example in (42)a is from Huang (2007).

the *gei* sentence in (43b) also contains an extra argument *Zhangsan*. Similarly, all the transformed *gei* constructions of UPUC shown in (14)-(18) are observed to contain extra arguments. We have discussed in section 2 that the preverbal *gei* object has inalienable possession with the Theme argument. Specifically, the Theme *shenti* 'body', *ya* 'tooth', *toufa* 'hair' or *xie* 'blood' is one part of the whole body. So the Theme argument has a functional or essential part-whole relation with the extra argument in the preverbal *gei* position.

C. The Affective Construction and UPUC

We have earlier discussed that UPUC can be transformed into *gei* construction or double object construction shown in (14)-(18). These constructions are similar to the affective construction proposed by Tsai (2005). He claimed that in the Chinese affective construction, the external argument takes the role of Affectee, which is affected by the event argument containing the main verb (Tsai, 2005). He analyzed that there is a null-operator in the underlying structure and it is co-indexed with the event argument (Tsai, 2005). They formed the complex predicate which takes the Affectee as the outer object of the vP phrase. The typical sentence among this kind of construction mentioned by Tsai (Tsai, 2005) is marked by *gei*, shown in (44)[6].

(44) [Ta]k juran gei wo [Opi [PROk pao le (Ei)]].
he unexpectedly GEI me run ASP
'He unexpectedly escaped from my hand.'

The PRO in the embedded vP is controlled by the subject *Ta* 'he'. The null-operator is co-indexed with event argument represented by E. They form a complex predicate and it selects the Affectee *wo* 'me' as the outer object.

Let's go back to the example (14)-(18). Take (15) as an example shown in (45):

(45) [Lifashi]k gei Zhangsan [Opi [PROk li le fa (Ei)]].
barber GEI Zhangsan cut ASP hair
'The barber has cut Zhangsan's hair.'

Being similar to the affective construction, the Affectee in the transformed *gei* construction of UPUC is affected by the following event argument. We can assume that this transformed gei construction also contains a null-operator which is co-indexed with the event argument.

Tsai (2005) also analyzed that the uncanonical double object construction shown in (46)[7] is a kind of covert affective construction (Tsai, 2005).

(46) (a) Ah Q qiang le xiao D webaikuai qian.
Ah Q rob ASP little D $500 money
'Ah Q robbed $500 from xiao D.'
(b) Ah Q yigong xiu le Wang jia san shan men.
Ah Q totally repair ASP Wang house three CL door
'Ah Q repaired totally three doors of Wang's house.'

In the above sentences, the external argument *xiao D* and *Wang jia* 'Wang's house' is affected by the event argument denoted by the embedded clause. The event which influences the Affectee can be either good thing or bad thing. (46a) shows a bad thing while (46b) shows a good thing.

Take the uncanonical DOC (17b) and (18b) as examples. Being similar to the example (46a), they can also be analyzed as covert affective construction. The event in the embedded clause only expresses good thing. The Affectee is a beneficiary in obligatory.

In sentence of UPUC, the Affectee occupies the external argument position and assumes to be affected by the action denoted in the following VP. From semantic aspect, this structure is very close to the passivized affective construction mentioned by Tsai (2005), shown in (47).

(47) Wo juran gei ta pao le.
I unexpectedly GEI him run ASP
'He unexpectedly escaped from my hand.'

Compared with (44), (47) conveys a passive meaning. The Affectee Wo 'I' occupies the external argument position. It is affected by the following event denoted by the clause *ta pao le* 'he escaped from my hand'. The sentence (48) is also a kind of passivized affective construction mentioned by Tsai (2005).

(48) Lisi gei Zhangsan ti jin le san ge qiu.
Lisi GEI Zhangsan kick enter ASP three CL ball
'Lisi kicked three balls into Zhangsan's goal.'

Tsai (2005) also proposed that some covert affective constructions have the passivized form such as rob type DOC and the DOC with the meaning of consumption (Tsai, 2005). The examples are shown in (49) and (50)[8]:

(49) (a) Ah Q qiang le xiao D wubaikuai qian.
Ah Q rob ASP little D $500 money
'Ah Q robbed $500 from xiao D.'

[6] Example in (44) is from Tsai (2005).
[7] Examples in (46) are from Tsai (2005).
[8] Examples in (49) and (50) are from Tsai (2005).

(b) Xiao D bei Ah Q qiang le wubaikuai qian.
little D BEI Ah Q rob ASP $500 money
'Xiao D's $500 was robbed by Ah Q.'

(50) (a) Ah Q zuotian he diao xiao D san ping pijiu.
Ah Q yesterday drink ASP little D three bottle wine
'Ah Q drank xiao D's three bottles of wine.'

(b) Xiao D zuotian bei Ah Q he diao san ping pijiu.
Little D yesterday BEI Ah Q drink ASP three bottle wine
'Little D's three bottles of wine was drunk by Ah Q yesterday.'

Tsai (2005) argues that only the indirect object which assumes the Affectee in the covert affective construction can become the external argument in the passive form (Tsai, 2005). We observed that the Affectee in the external argument position was affected by the following negative thing. These properties also fit for the UPUC in (4) and (5), repeated (4) here:

(51) Zhangsan chou le xie.
Zhangsan took-out ASP blood
'Zhangsan has some of his blood taken out.'

The difference is that the event denoted in the following VP expresses a good thing. Take sentence (4) as an example. The Affectee *Zhangsan* in the external argument position is affected by the following event *chou le xie* 'take out the blood'. The sentence means Zhangsan got benefit from the action of taking out some of his blood. We assume that the UPUC is a passivized form of *gei* construction or uncanonical double object construction, that is to say the UPUC is derived from unergative constructions with three-place predicates. The Affectee undergoes A-movement to occupy the external argument position. This passivized construction denotes a beneficiary meaning.

IV. The Derivation of UPUC

Before our analyses on the above assumption, we should first have a review on Chinese passivization process. In this section, we review three influential analyses.

A. Ting (1998)

Ting (1998) proposed that there are two different ways to derive short passives and long passives distinctively (Ting, 1998). The passive marker *bei* in the long passives is different from the one in the short passives. Specifically speaking, *bei* in the short passives selects a VP phrase as its complement whereas *bei* in the long passives selects a TP clause as its complement. The derivation of short passives undergoes A-movement. The long passives structure involves a null operator and its derivation undergoes A'-movement.

For the short passives, the subject theta-role is suppressed because the verb is passivized. And the verb immediately follows *bei* loses the ability of assigning Case to its object. Then the internal argument in object position moves to the subject position to get Case for the Case filter. This can be shown in (52a).

(52) (a) [Xiaoming de qian]i bei [VP PRO qiang le ti]
Xiaoming DE money BEI rob SFP
'Xiaoming's money was robbed.'

(b) [Xiaoming]i bei [VP PRO qiang le wubaiyuan qian ti]
Xiaoming BEI rob ASP $500 money
'Xiaoming's $500 was robbed.'

If the VP phrase contains a retained object (inner object) as in (52b), the head of VP combines it to form a complex verb. The passive marker *bei* selects this complex verb as complement and makes it fail to assign Case to the outer object. Then the outer object moves to the specific position of the structure.

For the long passives, Ting (1998) argued that the TP clause following *bei* is an infinite clause. *bei* has the ability of assigning case to the subject of the embedded clause (Ting, 1998). He analyzed that there is an A'-configuration with a null operator in the underlying structure (Ting, 1998). The embedded object NP moves to the subject position through A'-movement. And the null operator argument is co-indexed with the subject by A'-binding, shown in (53a).

(53) (a) [Xiaoming de wubaiyuan qian]i bei [Opi xiaotou qiang le ti]
Xiaoming DE $500 money BEI thief rob SFP
'Xiaoming was robbed by the thief.'

(b) [Xiaoming]i bei [Opi xiaotou qiang le wubaiyuan qian ti]
Xiaoming BEI thief rob ASP $500 money
'Xiaoming's $500 was robbed by the thief.'

The long passive structure contains a null operator co-indexed with the subject preceded by *bei*. Ting (1998) analyzed that the Chinese long passive behaves like the Complement Object Deletion in English. *bei* selects a clause as its complement (Ting, 1998). In the embedded clause, the object first moves to the null operator position, which is co-indexed with the subject. If the clause contains a retained object, the verb combines with it to form a complex predicate

as shown in (53b).

B. James Huang (1999)

Huang (1999) proposed that there are two ways to get passives. One way is for long passives, the other one is for short passives (Huang, 1999). The subject is base-generated because it is sometimes not purely patient or theme, which can be supported by subject-orientated adverb such as *guyi* 'intentionally' shown in the following example[9]:

(54) (a) Zhangsan guyi bei Lisi da le
Zhangsan intentionally BEI Lisi hit SFP
'Zhangsan intentionally got hit by Lisi.'

(b) Zhangsan guyi bei da le
Zhangsan intentionally BEI hit SFP
'Zhangsan intentionally got hit.'

First, let us look at the long passive. Huang (1999) argues that the object of the event denoted in the embedded clause is a null category so the long passive undergoes A'-movement of a NOP (Huang, 1999). The passivized main verb failed to assign case to its object so the object can move away. The moved object is a null category represented by NOP. The analysis of long passive is shown below:

(55) [Zhangsan]i bei OPi Lisi da le ti
Zhangsan BEI Lisi hit SFP
'Zhangsan got hit by Lisi.'

The passive marker *bei* is a two-place predicate which selects the Experiencer as its subject and the Event as its complement. This passive construction is similar to the tough construction in English. The relation between the NOP and the embedded object is a kind of movement. This movement is assuming A'-movement. The relation between the matrix subject and the NOP is a kind of control or predicate. Then, let's look at Huang's analyses about the short passive (Huang, 1999). Being different from the long passives, Huang (1999) argues that the short passive undergoes A-movement of a PRO (Huang, 1999). The object cannot get case from the passivized verb, so it moves to the specific position of VP. The moved object is an empty category PRO which is controlled by the base-generated subject. The analysis of short passive is shown below:

(56) [Zhangsan]i bei PROi da le ti
Zhangsan BEI hit SFP
'Zhangsan got hit.'

In the analyses of the indirect passives in Chinese, Huang (1998) proposed the 'outer object hypotheses' (Huang, 1998). Take the following sentence for example. It was analyzed as involving a complex predicate with an 'outer object':

(57) [Zhangsan]i bei OPi tufei ti shasi le PROi Fuqin
Zhangsan BEI bandits kill ASP father
'Zhangsan's father was killed by the bandits.'

In this sentence, the verb *shasi* 'kill' and its immediate object *Fuqin* 'father' forms a complex predicate that takes another object as the 'outer object'. The outer object controls the possessor PRO and eventually moves to the NOP position which is the spec position of the embedded IP. Then it is co-indexed with the subject Zhangsan. The complex predicate shasi one's father 'kill one's father' can be semantically transitive. The event indeed affects the person represented by the outer object who is the inalienable possessor of the father. The above example is about the indirect long passives. The analysis also applies to indirect short passives which involves PRO movement. Take the following sentence as an example:

(58) Ta bei PROi ti qiangzou le PROi wubaiyuan qian
he BEI rob ASP $500 money
'He was robbed of $500.'

The verb plus its object forms a complex predicate *qiangzou le wubai yuan qian* 'rob of $500'. It takes an outer object which moves to the spec position of the embedded VP. This outer object is controlled by the based-generated subject *Ta* 'he', while the possessor PRO is controlled by the outer object.

C. Tsai (2005)

In Tsai's analysis about the Chinese affective constructions, he also analyzed two different passive form of affective construction marked by *gei* (Tsai, 2005). He proposed that the passive marker *gei* selects an Event argument as its internal argument (Tsai, 2005). The first passive form contains a null-operator which is co-indexed with the Event argument represented by E, shown in (59a):

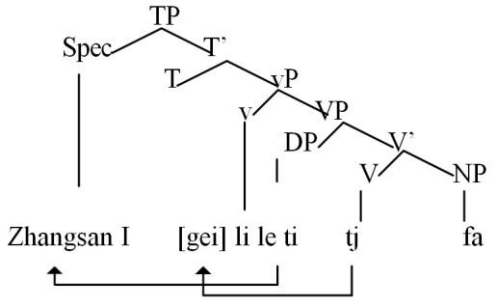
(59) (a) Xiao Li zuotian gei [Opi [Lao Wang tijin le san qiu (Ei)]]

[9] Examples in (54) are from Huang (1999).

Xiao Li yesterday GEI old Wang kick ASP three ball
'Lao Wang kicked three balls into Xiao Li's gate.'

(b) Xiao Li zuotian gei [Opi [Lao Wang sha le ei]]
Xiao Li yesterday GEI old Wang kill SFP
'Xiao Li was killed by Lao Wang yesterday.'

The second passive form shown in (59b) also contains a null-operator. The difference is that this null-operator is co-indexed with the internal argument which is an empty category. Based on the above analyses about the grammatical properties of UPUC discussed in Section 3, we claim that UPUC is a kind of beneficiary construction. We assumed that the UPUC can be analyzed as being derived from the *gei*-construction. One way of deriving the passivized unergative construction adopts the traditional method of passivization: A movement. According to Burzio's Generalization (Burzio,1986), the passivized *gei* fails to assign case to internal argument *Xiaoming*, so *Xiaoming* moves to the external argument position to get case. Then, the verb *li* 'cut' moves to the higher v position. It is incorporated into the passivized light verb *gei*. The tree diagram is shown below:



Through this way, we can get the sentence below:

(60) Zhangsan gei li le fa.
Zhangsan GEI cut ASP hair
'Zhangsan had his hair cut.'

Because the verb is incorporated into *gei* and they form one verb, so no element such as manner adverb is permitted to be inserted between *gei* and the verb.

(61) * Zhangsan gei qingqing de ba le yi ke ya.
Zhangsan GEI softly DE pull ASP one CL tooth
'One of Zhangsan's teeth was pulled out softly.'

We observed that the derived sentence as (60) looks like a passive sentence. There are many similar expressions in Mandarin Chinese, such as.

(62) Beizi gei da po le.
cup GEI beat break SFP
'The cup was broken.'

The other way of getting UPUC is similar to the Huang's and Ting's analyses of passive construction (Huang, 1999; Ting, 1998). In this passive construction, *gei* is the passive marker and the subject NP is base-generated. There is also a complex predicate which is composed by the verb and its immediate object. This complex predicate takes an outer object which controls the PRO in the embedded VP. Then the outer object moves to the spec position of the embedded IP. The moved object is a null category represented by OP and it is co-indexed with the subject. The outer object is affected by the embedded IP which denotes an event. Specifically speaking, the subject gets benefit from the event. The analysis of this structure is shown in (63):

(63) [Xiaoming]i gei OPi Lifashi ti li le PROi fa
Xiaoming GEI barber cut ASP hair
'Xiaoming has his hair cut.'

In this sentence, the subject *Xiaoming* is a beneficiary who gets benefit from the embedded event. The moved outer object is the possessor of the inner object because *Xiaoming* is the possessor of the *fa* 'hair'. This possession between the outer object and the inner object is inalienable for it is a kind of body-part relation. In this beneficiary construction, the passive marker plus the following NP phrase can be omitted. Then we get the construction with benefit meaning, which is an unmarked passive construction, shown in (65):

(64) Xiaoming OPi ti li le PROi fa
Xiaoming cut ASP hair
'Xiaoming has his hair cut.'

The Affectee occupies the subject position. It is co-indexed with the moved outer object OP and is affected by the following VP phrase which denotes a good event. This construction directly shows a beneficiary relation between the Affectee and the following event argument.

V. Conclusion

In Mandarin Chinese, the UPUC is a special construction with the thematic structure of 'Affectee V Theme'. It has unique grammatical properties and its syntactic structure is quite different with other similar constructions.

The verb in UPUC is a passivized unergative verb without passive marker. The demoted NP phrase is also omitted because the inalienable possessive relation exists between the Affectee and the Theme. Specifically speaking, the possessor and possessee have the body-part or kinship relation. In the UPUC which is shown in our example (1)-(5), the Affectee and the theme is typically body-part relation. The particular property of this construction is that it expresses a benefit meaning. That is to say the Affectee gets benefit from the event argument which denotes a good action. But the unaccusative verb cannot be passivized because it originally cannot assign case to its object. However, the rob type DOC can be passivized through the same process as the UPUC because the main verb is an unergative verb with three-place predicates. The passivized rob type DOC must contain passive marker *bei*. But in the UPUC which is passivized from the *gei* construction, the passive marker *bei* or *gei* as well as the following NP phrase appear as null phonetic form. The reason for this can be given basing on the above sections of analyses. In Section 3, we have proposed that the original *gei* construction contains an extra argument, and the preverbal *gei* object must have an inalienable possessive relation with the Theme object. Furthermore, the Theme object must be a functional or essential part of the extra argument. So only when the extra argument (Affectee) in *gei* construction has a functional or inalienable part-whole relation with the Theme argument, the passive marker *gei* in the UPUC can take a null phonetic form. But our preliminary analysis for this remained issue is still needed to be further considered and discussed.

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Grammaticalisation of Raħ in Dialectal Arabic: Generative Phases

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***Abstract*—The lexical item *raħ* has undergone two phases of grammaticalisation, from a lexical item used as a lexical verb to a temporal-functional particle T-*raħ*, and further to a discourse-functional particle D-*raħ*. Syntactic diagnostics show that both T-*raħ* and D-*raħ* have developed properties of head status, adopting conventional Minimalist and Cartographic principles (Chomsky, 2000; Rizzi, 1997; Frascarelli & Hinterhölzl, 2007), where evidence is deduced from the fact that movement of a head is sensitive to intervention effects in the course of the derivation (Rizzi, 2006). The novelty about *raħ* is that, in its first phase of grammaticalised T-*raħ*, while it has lost its φ-features input, in the sense that it doesn't spell out any agreeing suffix with the DP it marks, in its second phase of grammaticalised D-*raħ*, it has retained its φ-features, hence, an agreeing head. Further, this agreeing characteristic of D-*raħ*, with investigations of more articulated data, brings insight to the current research on discourse particles in that it goes against the widely-adopted characterization of discourse particles that postulates a non-agreeing property of discourse particles; discourse particles do not inflect for agreement. The syntactic properties shown by the grammaticalised *raħ* propose, on empirical groundings by movement considerations, that discourse particles externally merge in the course of the derivation, giving credence to the theory that the syntax of discourse particles has changed from Move to Merge (Hack, 2014).**

***Index Terms*—grammaticalisation, discourse particles, φ-features, agreement, movement**

I. Introduction

Grammaticalisation is a linguistic process by which a syntactic item loses its lexical meaning, getting its semantics bleached, and, instead, develops a functional property, including grammatical relations and discourse marking (Biberauer et al., 2014; Bayer & Trotzke, 2015; Bayer & Struckmeier, 2017; Jarrah & Alshamari, 2017a,b; Jarrah et al., 2020; Trotzke & Mayol, 2021). Under this view, grammaticalisation results in decrease in lexical meaning and increase in grammatical meaning of a syntactic item, where the consequence is that the syntactic item be re-endowered with functional information, in which case the grammaticalised item expresses functional information like Tense, or discourse information, in which case the grammaticalised item encodes discourse-marking like Focus, Topic and Modality (Coniglio, 2008; Struckmeier, 2014; Biberauer et al., 2014; Bayer & Struckmeier, 2017).

In association to this linguistically-theoretical consideration, it is widely argued in the literature that what is referred to as *particle*, a category that has functional or discourse information as its semantic import, is a produce of grammaticalisation (Biberauer et al., 2014; Zimmermann, 2011; Biberauer & Sheehan, 2011; Biberauer et al., 2014; Hack, 2014; Bayer & Struckmeier, 2017). One seminal study on the phenomenon of a *grammaticalised particle* is Hack's (2014) analysis of the Italian particle *po*. Investigating the use of *po* in a number of varieties of Dolomitic Ladin, Hack (2014) argues that *po* functions as an adverb (1a), having grammaticalised to a T-marker of futurity as used in (1b), and as a wh-question Focus marker as (1c) shows. Consider the data in (1) from Hack (2014, p.55-57).

(1) a. Amor se fesh **pa** na berta
Amor himself make.3SG PA a trick
'Then, Amor plays a trick on us.'
b. Al vegn **pa**
he come.3SG PA
'He will come.'
c. Can compr-i *(**pa**) n liber?
when buy.3pl-SCL PA a book
'When are they going to buy a book?'

The cases in (1) establish the fact that *po* has evolved from an adverb (1a) into a functional, Tense marker (1b) or a discourse marker (1c), providing empirical evidence for instantiating a *particle* in syntax. From a semantic perspective, the case of grammaticalisation in (1) demonstrates that syntactic items with lexical meaning can go through phases of semantic bleaching. From a generative, syntactic perspective, the conclusion reached in Hack's (2014) analysis, in

addition to other works (cf. Bayer & Trotzke, 2015), goes in line with the widely held assumption in the grammaticalisation literature that syntactic, lexical elements that undergo grammaticalisation are turned into syntactic heads (Roberts & Roussou, 1999; Hack, 2014). In more technical terms, the categorial structure of a grammaticalised syntactic, lexical item is turned from a phrasal category into a head category of a syntactic category on its own, being extra-linguistic and having contribution to the interpretation of the sentence (Bayer & Trotzke, 2015; Bayer & Struckmeier, 2017).

Consider the following German data from Bayer and Trotzke (2015, p.1), showing that a grammaticalised item co-occurs with its lexical, pre-grammaticalised counterpart (the adverb occurrence of *vielleicht* is italicised while the discourse particle occurrence is in boldface).

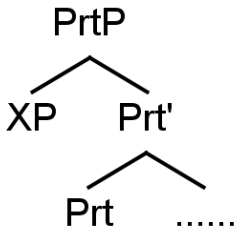
(2) a. Der ist *vielleicht* SÜSS.
this.MASC is perhaps sweet
'This one (e.g. coffee) is perhaps sweet.'
b. *Vielleicht* ist der SÜSS!
'Perhaps, this one is sweet.'

(3) a. Der ist **vielleicht** süß
This.one (e.g. a cute little dog) is PRT sweet
'My God, how sweet it is!'
b. ***Vielleicht** ist DER süß!
Intended meaning: 'My God, how sweet it is!'

Research on particles had concluded that particles fit into other syntactic categories like adverbs on the groundings that particles seemed to have derived from and developed properties of adverbs (Cardinaletti, 2011).[1] With rise of generative practice, reconsidering particles using syntactic movement as a criterion (Biberauer & Sheehan, 2011; Bayer & Struckmeier, 2017; Biberauer et al., 2014; Hack, 2014), it was observed that particles seemed to be merged in various syntactic positions and seemed to vacate their syntactic positions in some cases but remain unmoved in other cases. With movement considerations, particles have been assigned their own category, instantiating the own projections in syntax, PrtP (Bayer & Trotzke, 2015).

In this respect, data in (2-3) establish the argument that the syntax of adverbs is less constrained with respect to movement than discourse particles. When functioning as an adverb, *vielleicht* is free to occur clause-medially and clause-initially (2), while it is only legitimized in one position, in the middle field of the German sentence, when functioning as a discourse particle (3). This phenomenon tackled by Bayer and Trotzke (2015) has initiated the generalisation that grammaticalised items are functional, having developed entirely different semantics, which can be detected by the different syntactic peripeties they have developed, i.e., immobility in syntax (Struckmeier, 2014). Additionally, this generative conclusion has led to the argument that 'grammaticalised' discourse particles, unlike the adverbs from which they derive, are heads, an assumption evidenced by that fact that while adverbs move across the clause boundary, discourse particles are immobile, being frozen in their first merge position. In generative practice, the syntactic internal structure of a particle is recently is represented in (4) below.

(4)



This, in generative practice, has given ride to the assumption that grammaticalisation of a lexical item has impact on its syntax; while a lexical item can internally move, a grammaticalised item, i.e., a particle, has only one option: external Merge (Struckmeier, 2014).

This logic of immobility of discourse particles has been elaborated on by Struckmeier (2014). Taking into consideration the widely held assumption that particles are the output of grammaticalisation (Roberts & Roussou, 1999, 2003; Lucas & Willis, 2012; Hack, 2014), Struckmeier (2014) explains the issue of the immobility of discourse particles by saying that they need not move in syntax on minimalist groundings; i.e., discourse particles, once merged into the syntactic derivation, they accomplish their semantic scope, syntactically hosting, phonological spelling out and morphologically realizing discourse related features and information like Topic, Focus and evidentiality (Cruschina, 2009).

Holding the assumptions that: (i) grammaticalised items become particles, (ii) particles don't move and have rigid order in syntax, (iii) particles develop heads status in syntax and encode functional and discoursal functions at the

[1] Cardinaletti's (2011) view that discourse markers are not head category is based on the argument they don't show any intervention effects when verb moves to C across a discourse marker in German.

semantic-interface, the paper will examine the syntax of the NA lexical item *raħ*, exploring the phases of its grammaticalisation. It will argue that the lexical *raħ* grammaticalises into (i) a functional, T-marker and (ii) a discourse marker, which both derive from the lexical verb of the form *raħ*. Further, the analysis will explicate the fact that unlike the T-marker occurrence of *raħ*, the discourse occurrence of *raħ* develops an additional expressiveness property (Miyagawa, 2010), namely, showing overt agreement with DPs.

In the following sections, generative assumptions (Chomsky, 2000; Holmberg & Roberts, 2018) and cartographic assumptions (Rizzi, 1997), as models of grammar, will be reconciled to describe and explains, on theoretical groundings, the two phases of grammaticalisation process that *raħ* grammaticalisation has undergone. This involves the variable changes that have arisen to the morphosyntax of *raħ*, which have impact on its semantics and pragmatics, including the argument that grammaticalised particles don't internally move but externally merge (Hack, 2014). What is more, in addition to the rigid syntactic order the grammaticalised forms of *raħ* maintain, the investigation will advance an explanation to the phenomenon that the discourse occurrence of *raħ* shows overt agreement with DPs, in case it marks DPs.

II. Syntactic Position and Semantic Contribution of *RAH*

Before we launch our exploration to the syntax of *raħ*, let us highlight on its variable occurrences of *raħ*, shedding light on its lexical, functional/Temporal and discoursal uses. Consider the DA data in (5-7) (functional-discoursal occurrences of *raħ* are in boldface while the lexical occurrence of *raħ* is neutral).

(5) Firas **raħ** li-l-dikan
Firas go.PST.3SG.M to-DEF-supermarket
'Firas went to the supermarket.'

(6) a. Firas **raħ** j-ruːħ li-l-dikan
Firas **FUT** 3SG.M-go.PRS to-DEF-supermarket
'Firas will go to the supermarket.'
b.***** Firas **raħ** raħ li-l-dikan
Firas **FUT** go.PST.3SG.M to-DEF-supermarket
'Firas will go to the supermarket.'

(7) a. Firas **raħ** raħ li-l-dikan
Firas **PRT** go.PST.3SG.M to-DEF-supermarket
'Firas went to the supermarket (I'm surprised).'
b. *****Firas raħ **raħ** li-l-dikan
Firas go.PST.3SG.M **PRT** to-DEF-supermarket
Intended meaning: 'Firas went to the supermarket (I'm surprised).'

The DA data in (5-7) show that DA employs three instances of the linguistic item *raħ* in Najdi Arabic. In (5), *raħ* expresses the core of the proposition, represented by the lexical verb *raħ*, with the past form of morphological marking. In (6), *raħ* functions as a Temporal, Futurity marker, being obligatorily in a position immediately preceding and adjacent to the present tense form of the lexical verb *jruːħ*. In (7), the scenario is entirely distinctive; *raħ* expresses discourse value onto the proposition, SURPRISE value (Hack, 2014). In this case, *raħ* is employed in the syntax of NA as a discourse particle, which must precede the past tense form of the lexical verb *raħ*, as (7b) evidences.

With (7) in mind, it should be added that other constituents can intervene between the discourse particle occurrence of *raħ* (discourse particle *raħ*) and the lexical occurrence of *raħ* (the past tense form of the verb of *raħ*), with rigid order in syntax, as shown in (8) below.

(8) a. Firas **raħ** raħ li-l-dikan
Firas **PRT** go.PST.3SG.M to-DEF-supermarket
'Firas went to the supermarket (I'm surprised).'
b. Firas **raħ** **ʕad** raħ li-l-dikan
Firas **PRT** **PRT** go.PST.3SG.M to-DEF-supermarket
'Firas went to the supermarket (I'm surprised that he did and upset that he did).'
c.*****Firas **ʕad** **raħ** raħ li-l-dikan
Firas **PRT** **PRT** go.PST.3SG.M to-DEF-supermarket
Intended meaning: 'Firas went to the supermarket (I'm surprised that he did and upset that he did).'

It is clear from the scenario in (8) that other discourse-related items like the negative-speaker attitudinal particle *ʕad*, which expresses the speaker's negative attitude towards the propositional content of the state of affairs expressed by the clause (Alshamari, 2017), intervene between the discourse particle *raħ* and the lexical verb *raħ*, an observation which, as will be seen, calls for cartographic analysis and interface account, which will have contribution regarding the syntax of *raħ*.

In the following sections, we elaborate on the syntax of *raħ*, showing that it has undergone two phases of grammaticalisation, function (Temporal) and discoursal (SURPRISE). The paper will entertain generative and cartographic theoretical assumptions, taking derivational model of sentence structure into considerations (Chomsky,

2000), i.e., the structure of the sentence in natural language has three syntactic layers, one each associated to syntactic-semantic representation- vP, the lexical-structural argument domain, including the propositional content, dominated by TP, the tense domain where T-markers are merged and where tense information is expressed, dominated by CP vicinity, the discourse domain where discourse particles are merged and where discourse information is expressed. With this universal modelling of language, the next section will explicate how has grammaticalised, going through the three phases and how that can be associated to and explained by the rigidity of the syntactic layers as well as how each layer is constrained with respect to interface conditions.

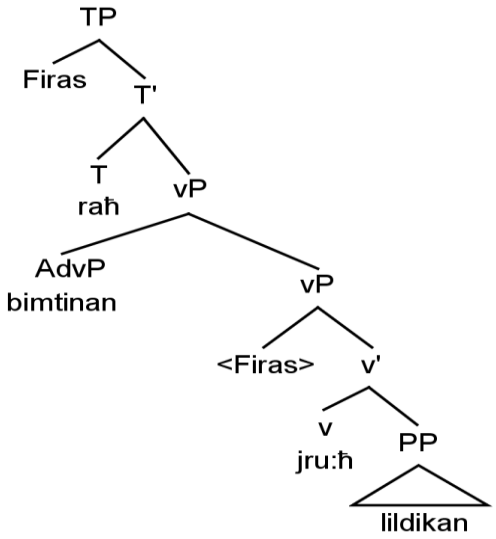
III. Grammaticalisation of *Raħ*

A. Temporal Use of Raħ: T-raħ

Let us first look into the case of T-*raħ*, with respect to its interaction with the clause internal material. In addition to the compelling evidence from the syntax of (6a), where the lexical verb follows the T-item *raħ*, there is conceptual and empirical evidence to propose that T-*raħ*, encoding Futurity, is located at the head T of TP. We represent the structure of (9) in (10).

(9) Firas **raħ** bimtinan j-ru:ħ li-l-dikan
Firas **FUT** gladly 3SG.M-go.PRS to-DEF-supermarket
'Firas will gladly go to the supermarket.'

(10)[2]



As (9) shows, merger of *raħ* at T has the consequence that the lexical occurrence of the present verb is stranded at v, not moving to T, which, in turn, is morphologically realised by the Temporal marker *raħ*. Further syntactic evidence for this direction is provided by the syntax of the vP-adverb *bimtinan* 'gladly', which marks the boundary between T, being lexically satisfied with the T-marker *raħ*, and the vP domain contain the vP remnant, the lexical verb and the object DP.

One issue to highlight here is that, as a consequence of *raħ* having grammaticalised from the lexical verb *raħ* to a T-*raħ*, *raħ* has lost not only the lexical-semantic import, its lexical meaning, but also a morphosyntactic property; its φ-features, in the sense that it doesn't spell out agreement with the DP it marks. This though is not in line with the morphosyntax of other T-markers like *kan*, which always spells out the φ-content of the DP it marks. Compare (11) and (12) below.

(11) a. Firas **raħ** j-ru:ħ li-l-dikan
Firas **FUT** 3SG.M-go.PRS to-DEF-supermarket
'Firas will go to the supermarket.'
b. Dilara **raħ** t-ru:ħ li-l-dikan
Dilara **FUT** 3SG.F-go.PRS to-DEF-supermarket
'Dilara will go to the supermarket.'
c. Firas w Dilara **raħ** j-ru:ħu:n li-l-dikan
Firas and Dilara **FUT** 3.PL-go.PRS to-DEF-supermarket
'Firas and Dilara will go to the supermarket.'

(12) a. Firas **kan-Ø** j-ru:ħ li-l-dikan

[2] Some internal structure is omitted.

Firas **PST.3SG** 3SG.M-go.PRS to-DEF-supermarket
'Firas was going to the supermarket.'

b. Dilara **kan-at** t-ru:ħ li-l-dikan
Dilara **PST-3SG.F** 3SG.F-go.PRS to-DEF-supermarket
'Dilara was going to the supermarket.'

c. Firas w Dilara **kan-u** j-ru:ħu:n li-l-dikan
Firas and Dilara **PST-3.PL** 3SG.M-go.PRS to-DEF-supermarket
'Firas and Dilara were going to the supermarket.'

As for syntax, one further syntactic characteristic the grammaticalised T-*raħ* has developed is that it cannot occur clause-initially (13a) nor can the lexical verb precede it. Consider the following set of data in (13).[3]

(13) a.***raħ** Firas j-ru:ħ li-l-dikan
FUT Firas 3SG.M-go.PRS to-DEF-supermarket
Intended meaning: 'Firas will go to the supermarket.'

b.*j-ru:ħ **raħ** Firas li-l-dikan
3SG.M-go.PRS **FUT** Firas to-DEF-supermarket
Intended meaning: 'Firas will go to the supermarket.'

The structure in (13a) is ungrammatical because it has *raħ* merged clause-initially. With more articulated DA structure involving movement of constituents across the clause, what seems to be the case is that, once overtly spelled out as *raħ*, T requires that its Spec position be filled by some material. In other words, T has an occurrence of [EPP] feature on it (Chomsky, 1995).[4] This can all be supported by evidence from (14), where the object (14a) or an adjunct (14b) (re)-merges at Spec TP, rendering the structure grammatical.

(14) a. li-l-dikan **raħ** j-ru:ħ Firas
to-DEF-supermarket **FUT** 3SG.M-go.PRS Firas
'Firas will go to the supermarket/it is to the supermarket that Firas will go.'

b. bukra **raħ** j-ru:ħ li-l-dikan Firas
tomorrow **FUT** 3SG.M-go.PRS to-DEF-supermarket Firas
'Firas will go to the supermarket tomorrow/it is tomorrow that Firas will go to the supermarket.'

Deduced from (13b), on the other hand, is the assumption that DA interface has a Universal Grammar-constraint that the lexical verb be disallowed to move across T-*raħ*, given that, derivationally, the former is below, asymmetrically c-commanded- the latter. This, as we will see, is attributed to the fact that T-*raħ* is a head item that blocks movement of the lexical verb, which is a head category.

The generalisation we could now formulate about the outcomes of the grammaticalisation process of *raħ* from lexical-V to functional-T that *raħ* has undergone derives from three main observations. Morphologically, *raħ* has grammaticalised from the lexical verb *raħ* into a T-marker *raħ.* Morphosyntactically, *raħ* has lost its φ-features. This in turn, has the impact on the syntax of *raħ*. Syntactically, as a result, *raħ* has a feature added to its featural grid, an [EPP], requiring that an XP category of some value be merged/remerged at its Spec position, Spec TP.[5]

Having laid out facts about the semantic contribution, syntax and morphosyntax of T-*raħ*, and keeping in mind the generalisation we have just formulated about those facts, let us now move to the D-*raħ*.

B. Discoursal Use of raħ: D-raħ

One property of D-*raħ* that makes it stand apart from T-*raħ* is that D-*raħ* spells out φ-features of the DPs it marks. Consider the data in (15), in which *raħ* marks a DP whose φ-content are *third singular feminine*.[6]

(15) a. Firas **raħ**-Ø raħ li-l-dikan
Firas **PRT** go.PST.3SG.M to-DEF-supermarket
'As for Firas, when did he go to the supermarket (I'm surprised).'

b. Dilara **raħ**-at raħ-at li-l-dikan
Dilara **PRT**-3SG.F go.PST-3SG.F to-DEF-supermarket

[3] (13) can be fixed in (x) below. However, we argue that the T-marker *raħ* and the lexical verb *jru:ħ* have both moved out of TP, to the left periphery, leaving the subject DP at Spec vP. Notice the Cleft-translation to (x).

(x). [CP **raħ** j-ru:ħ [TP Firas li-l-dikan
FUT 3SG.M-go.PRS Firas to-DEF-supermarket
'It is going to the supermarket that Firas will do.'

This takes pace as follow. T-marker *raħ* moves first from T to a C-head in the CP domain. This is followed by movement of the lexical verb to a lower C-head, since, the lexical verb cannot cross the T-marker *raħ* in syntax. Notice that in (x), in most cases, one of the moved items can bear contrastive stress.

[4] We though should stress that T, on theoretical groundings, doesn't have an EPP when it starts life, given that DA, like any Arabic variety, exhibits VSO word order. T, however, seems to get it from merger of material merged at T, *raħ* in this case.

[5] In current standard minimalist assumptions, movement is motivation only for some value that the moving item would eventually get, probably for discoursal-interpretive reasons (Boskovic, 2007; Holmberg et al., 2019). We, though, will not elaborate on this but the reader might consider a Topic or Focus interpretation for the moved item to the left of the T-*raħ*.

[6] Note that the subject DP is interpreted as an information-structural notion, Topic or Focus, given that it occurs to the left of a discourse marker *raħ* (and *ʕad*), in the left periphery, hence, the phrase *As for* in the translation line.

'As for Firas, when did he go to the supermarket (I'm surprised).'

c. Firas w Dilara **raħ**-u raħ-u li-l-dikan
Dilara and Dilara **PRT**-3.PL go.PST-3.PL to-DEF-supermarket
'As for Firas and Dilara, went to the supermarket (I'm surprised).'

We take this set of φ-features, spelled out on *raħ* in the manner of standard verb-subject agreement in Arabic (Ouhalla, 1997) as a consequence of an Agree relation (Chomsky, 2000) established between the D-*raħ* and the subject DP. Consider (8b), above, repeated below as (16).

(16) Firas **raħ** **ʕad** raħ li-l-dikan
Firas **PRT** **PRT** go.PST.3SG.M to-DEF-supermarket
'As for Firas, he went to the supermarket (I'm surprised and upset).'

D-*raħ* is positioned to the left of the discourse particle *ʕad*, a phenomenon mirrored by the assumption that D-*raħ* is in fact in the left periphery of the sentence, the CP domain (Rizzi, 1997), where information structure is expressed.

IV. Headedness Status and Merge Account of *Raħ*

Whether a functional item has the status of a phrase or a head and whether its syntax accounts for its real syntactic status is a long-disputed question in the literature (Coniglio, 2008). In what follows, we adopt a head analysis to *raħ*, arguing that its grammaticalised variants, T-*raħ* and D-*raħ*, are both heads, where our argument is based on generative considerations. In generative practice there are two main criteria that could on empirical grounds determine that a functional item is a head or a phrase.

A. Headedness of T-raħ

From a semantic view, *raħ* carries Futurity, Temporal information, so it is uncontroversial to assume that *raħ* is located on T. Two pieces of evidence support this direction, and this evidence derives from standard assumptions in the syntax of Arabic; the assumption that lexical verb moves to T since Arabic is rich in morphology (Ouhalla, 1988, 1991, 1992, 1994a). In structure involving past continuous tense, in which case PAST information is morphologically realised by the marker *kan*, and in structure involving futurity, in which case FUTURE is morphologically realised by the marker *sawfa*, Benmamoun (1999) argues that Tense in both cases is marked on the T-markers, *kan* and *sawfa*, and not on the lexical verb. As a consequence, he argues, the lexical verb remains in v, in which case its v-to-T movement is disallowed. We explicate these facts below.

1. The Case of T-kan

Consider the case of *kan* below (T-marker *kan* is in boldface while the adverb *bsjrʕah* is in italics font).

(17) a. l-walad **kan** j-elʕeb bi-l-bait
DEF-boy **PST**.3SG.M 3SG.M-play.PRS in-DEF-house
'The boy was playing in the house.'

b. l-walad **kan** bsjrʕah j-elʕeb bi-l-bait
DEF-boy **PST**.3SG.M quickly 3SG.M-play.PRS in-DEF-house
'The boy was quickly playing in the house.'

c. l-walad laʕab bsjrʕah fi-l-bait
DEF-boy play.PST.3SG quickly in-DEF-house
'The boy quickly played in the house.'

Some theoretical assumptions need to be laid here. It should first be noted that when the clause contains a T-marker preceding the lexical imperfective verb in the structure, the latter remains in v, not moving to T (cf. Jarrah & Alshamari, 2017). This is explained by the scenario in (17a), where *kan* precedes the lexical imperfective verb. Though, this still is not good evidence that T contains only *kan*; T might contain the lexical imperfective verb, too, on the basis that it has adjoined T later in the derivation, after merger of *kan* at T. The scenario, though, becomes clearer in (17b), where the vP-Adverb *bsjrʕah* intervenes between *kan* the lexical imperfective verb, suggesting that the former is indeed in T while the latter is in v. Empirical evidence for this direction is provided in (17c), in which case the clause contains an instance of perfective verb, which is the only syntactic item that has tense marked on it, and which must move to T in syntax (Ouhalla, 1994a, b, 1997). Having the vP-Adverb surfacing to the right of the perfective verb is strong evidence the perfective verb has indeed moved to T, and this is because T is void, not having a T-marker merged at it.

Given this, the generalisation we formulate at this point is that lack of movement of the lexical imperfective verb in the presence of *kan* in the derivation of (17a,b) is attributed to merger of *kan* at T. Upon these facts and observations, we conclude that *kan* is a T-category and is in T, and that v-to-T movement of the lexical verb that would have occurred, had T been void, is actually blocked because T is satisfied by merger of *kan*. From this, it follows that the verb moves as far as v, a restriction on v-to-T movement which is explained by the observation that T is filled with the T-marker

kan, formulating the assumption that *kan* is a head item that merges at a head position.[7] We extend this logic to *raħ* below.

2. T-raħ Is a Head Category

Needless to say, from the facts raised in 4.1.1 about the syntax of *kan*, *raħ* works in analogy of the syntax of *kan*. We propose that *raħ* is a head category. Consider (18).

(18) a. l-walad **raħ** j-elʕeb bi-l-bait
DEF-boy **FUT** 3SG.M-play.PRS in-DEF-house
'The boy will play in the house.'
b. l-walad **raħ** bsjrʕah j-elʕeb bi-l-bait
DEF-boy **FUR** quickly 3SG.M-play.PRS in-DEF-house
'The boy will play quickly in the house.'

Up to now, diagnostics have shown that the lexical verb moves as least to T, but this movement is blocked when T is morphologically realised with *raħ*, which can be explained by the fact that *raħ* causes intervention effects to movement of the lexical verb to T or C (Rizzi, 2006). Consider now the syntax of *raħ* in a clause containing a wh-phrase.[8]

(19) **raħ** wi:n l-walad j-elʕeb w j-xalus kalam
FUT where 3SG.M-play.PRS DEF-boy RES 3SG.M-stop talking
'Where will the boy play and so stop asking?'

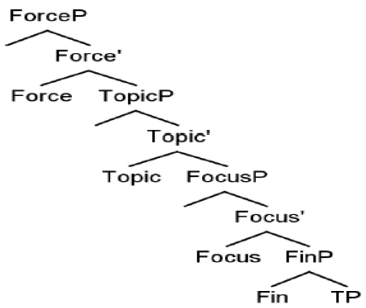
Recall that we have already argued in (13) above that *raħ* doesn't occur clause-initially, when *raħ* is in TP domain. However, this restriction seems to be loosened when *raħ* occurs clause-initially within the CP domain, hence, moving to a C-layer head in the CP vicinity is allowed while movement within TP domain is disallowed. With this in mind, the context of (19) can be a response-felicitous inquiry to a statement like (20) below.

(20) ʔxiran l-walad **raħ** j-elʕeb bi-l-bait
eventually DEF-boy **FUT** 3SG.M-play.PRS in-DEF-house
'The boy will eventually play in the house.'

At the utterance time of (20), the propositional content of (19) would have already been discourse-given: argument-structural components like clause arguments, the subject and the object, Temporal components like Futurity expressed by *raħ*, and other peripheral components like the locative PP. In (19), then, *raħ*, appears clause-initially, preceding all the components of the propositional content of the utterance, in the construction. This, within generative, cartographic mechanisms (Rizzi, 1997, 2006), is a syntactic strategy achieved by movement of the item that has a discourse-related value.

Given that futurity is part of the discourse-given components of the proposition of (20), we take *raħ* in the context of (19) to be discourse-given, a topic of the sentence (Reinhart, 1981), or one of the topics of the sentence (Frascarelli & Hinterhölzl, 2007) because it is already familiar to the conversation interlocutors, hence, it is information that is part of the common ground (Stalnaker, 2002). Thus, it moves and this movement results in its being clause-initial. The rest of the clause, including the wh-phrase *wi:n*, represents the new, non-discourse-given, non-presupposed information (Holmberg & Nikanne, 2002).[9]

In the syntax of (19), this means that *raħ* moves from T head of TP to ToP head of TopP, in a head-to-head manner, crossing FocP whose head has *wi:n* re-remerged at it. We represent this scenario in the schemata in (21).[10]



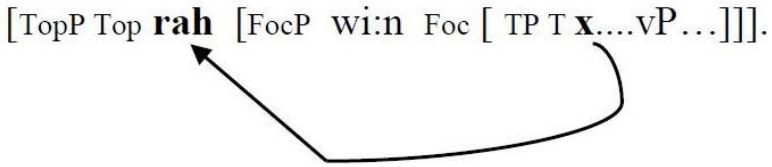
[7] See Boskovic (2007) for the argument that movement of the subject DP to Spec TP to is discourse motivated, and not simply triggered by EPP. EPP for Boskovic (2007) is a discourse device on its own.

[8] The discourse particle *w*, glossed as 'RES', functions as a resultative marker.

[9] The moved lexical verb *raħ* in (19) can well be interpreted as Shifting Topic (Frascarelli & Hinterhölzl, 2007), translated along the line of 'As for his going,…….'.

[10] We adopt Rizzi's (1997) Split CP model on of the domain of natural language. Represented by the notation mark *, the upper Top is recursive; it can have multiple occurrences per clause.

(21)



raħ moves crossing the wh-phrase *wi:n* 'where', which, entertain the Split CP model of Rizzi (1997), is evidence that *raħ* is now in the left periphery of the clause, re-merging at Top head of TopP, vacating the TP domain. *Raħ*, then, is a head category.

B. Headedness of D-raħ

We mentioned earlier that other discourse particles occur in the way between the lexical verb *raħ* and the discourse particle *raħ*. Consider (8) above, repeated as (22) below.

(22). a. Firas **raħ** raħ li-l-dikan
Firas **PRT** go.PST.3SG.M to-DEF-supermarket
'Firas went to the supermarket (I'm surprised that he did so).'

b. Firas **raħ** **ʕad** raħ li-l-dikan
Firas **PRT** **PRT** go.PST.3SG.M to-DEF-supermarket
'Firas went to the supermarket (I'm surprised and upset that he did so).'

c.*****Firas **ʕad** **raħ** raħ li-l-dikan
Firas **PRT** **PRT** go.PST.3SG.M to-DEF-supermarket
Intended meaning: 'Firas went to the supermarket (I'm surprised and upset that he did so).'

The data in (22) show that discourse particles maintain fixed, rigid order in syntax in multi-discourse particles constructions. This fact about discourse particles is widely adopted: discourse particles don't move in syntax (Struckmeier, 2014). This has since become a criterion, in the generative practice, for instance, to distinguish categories functioning as discourse particles from their homonymous counterparts that function as adverbs form which they drive.[11] That is, while adverbs change their positions within the clause, particles have fixed relative order. Therefore, Struckmeier (2014) locates those particles in what he calls *emergent functional heads* in the CP domain. Consider now (23).

(23) Firas **mar** **raħ** **ʕad** raħ li-l-dikan
Firas **PRT** **PRT** **PRT** go.PST.3SG.M to-DEF-supermarket
'As for Firas, he went to the supermarket (I'm surprised and upset that he did so).'

The discourse particle *mar* marks the entity expressed by the subject DP as topic (or probably Shifting Topic, S-Top, in the sense of Frascarelli & Hinterhözl (2007).[12][13] The discourse particle *raħ* colours the proposition with SURPRISE value while *ʕad* colours the proposition with UPSET value (Hack 2014). Given that Firas is a Topic, merged (or re-merged) at Spec TopP, which is a projection on top of the CP skeleton (Rizzi, 1997), let us turn the PP into a wh-phrase, moving it to Spec FocP, since wh-phrase are inherently Focused (Ouhalla, 1997; Holmberg, 1999, 2018; Holmberg & Platzack, 1995; Rizzi 2006). Consider (24), bearing in mind that the topmost TopP is recursive.

(24) Firas **mar** wi:n **raħ** **ʕad** raħ
Firas **PRT** where **PRT** **PRT** go.PST.3SG.M
'As for Firas, where did he go (I'm surprised and upset that he did so).'

We have already established in 4.1.2 that T-*raħ* can be Topicalised, in which case T-*raħ* moves to adjoin the head Top of TopP in the CP-domain, as explicated in (19) and (20). With regards to grammaticalisation of D-*raħ*, the scenario seems to be different. The D-*raħ* seems to have developed further different syntactic and morphosyntactic characteristics and properties: syntactic immobility and retaining overt agreement. We explicate these two characteristics in the following sub-sections, which are dedicated to touching on some syntactic and morphosyntactic phenomena the grammaticalised *raħ* displays, including immobility and overt agreement of D-*raħ* but lack of overt agreement on T-*raħ* on the one hand and proposing Merge account of the grammaticalised *raħ* the syntax of on the other hand.

V. Grammaticalisation Characteristics of *Raħ*

A. Syntactic Immobility and Overt Agreement of D-raħ

One characteristic that D-*raħ* has developed is that it never moves in syntax. Consider (25).

(25) Firas **mar** wi:n **raħ** raħ

[11] See Struckmeier (2014) for work on German discourse particles and Alshamari (2017a,b), Jarrah and Alshamari (2017a,b) and recently (Alshamari, 2021) for contribution on Arabic discourse particles.

[12] The subject DP *Firas* could be re-merged at the Spec position of TopP headed by mar (Alshamari & Holmberg, 2019a,b).

[13] Whether sentence Topic in the sense of (Rizzi, 1997) or S-Topic in the sense of (Frascarelli & Hinterhözl, 2007), in each case, the relevant instantiated TopP would be above FocP.

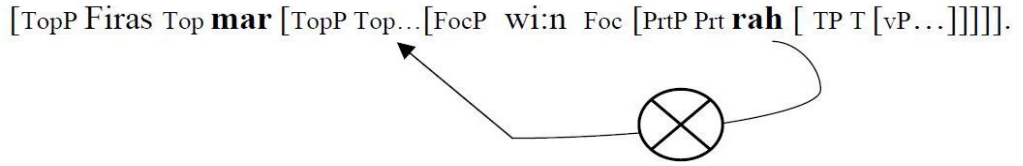
Firas **PRT** where **PRT** go.PST.3SG.M
'As for Firas, where did he go (I am surprised that he did so)?'

The subject DP is a topic, marked by *mar*, the scenario in which the subject DP *Firas* is at Spec TopP while *mar* is hosted by head Top of TopP, following Alshamari (2017a,b) and Alshamari & Holmberg (2019a,b). Being discourse-given in the common ground of the conversation, there is nothing in theory that bans *raħ* from being topicalised, in a par with the T-*raħ* in (20). Hence, the case in which in which the D-*raħ* would have moved to the CP-field, as the case of head movement for information structural constituents, like v-focalisation (Holmberg, 1999; Rizzi, 2004; Jarrah 2017a, 2017b, 2019). However, this cannot be legitimised, as (26) shows.

(26) *Firas **mar** **raħ** wi:n raħ
Firas PRT PRT where go.PST.3SG.M
'As for Firas, and me being surprised that he did so, where did he go?'

As we can see, comparing (26) to (25), we can see that the first merge position of *raħ* is to the immediate right of FocP, heading a discourse projection in a C-layer. But movement of *raħ* to a dedicated Top above FocP is disallowed, which cannot be plausibly explained on logic-related grounded, given that this Top is recursive (Rizzi, 1997). The story, though, lies in the fact that, following an important insight of Struckmeier (2014), in the generative account to the syntax of discourse particles, a discourse particle is an immobile item in syntax. Discourse particles don't move in syntax simply because they accomplish their semantic scoping in that position, and, under minimalist considerations, they need not move again for any discourse value. The scenario of (26) is schematised in (27) below.

(27)



This view on discourse particles is motivated by minimalist considerations (Struckmeier, 2014), on the basis that discourse particles are first merged in a syntactic position where they would semantically scope over a proposition (a clause) or parts of a proposition (certain constituents within a clause). They, then, would not need to move for another scope, hence, lack of movement, a restriction on syntactic operation that could be a constraint imposed by the interface for economy conditions (Chomsky, 2000). Under this view, discourse particles are merged in fixed positions in the structure, a property which provides evidence that discourse particles are heads that are merged at a certain head endowed with information-structural information in the spine of a functional structure (Bayer & Obenauer, 2011; Biberauer & Sheehan, 2011; Bayer, 2012; Biberauer et al., 2014; Struckmeier, 2014; Bayer & Trotzke, 2015). This is, why, in recent work on discourse particles, discourse particles are taken to be a signpost that maps syntax to discourse (Biberauer & Sheehan, 2011; Struckmeier, 2014). We now move on to the other, morphosyntactic characteristic the grammaticalised D-*raħ* maintains.

As for the overt agreement phenomenon displayed by D-*raħ*, notice that in all the data containing instances of D-*raħ*, unlike the T-*raħ*, D-*raħ* shows agreement in φ-features with certain constituents, provided that the relevant constituent is a DP. We have seen in (15) above that D-*raħ* marks an entity in the given discourse that is represented by a certain DP. Consider now the following set of data evidencing this morphosyntactic property of D-*raħ*, in which D-*raħ* marks the subject DP (28a,b,c), object DP (28d) or even an adjunct (28e).

(28) a. Firas **raħ**-Ø qara ʔr-risalah w ʔana mħeðr-uh
Firas **PRT** read.PST.3SG.M DEF-message while I warn.PST-3SG.M
'Firas read the message while I had warned him not to do (I'm surprised he did so).'

b. Dilara **raħ**-at qar-at ʔr-risalah w ʔana mħeðr-ah
Dilara **PRT-3SG.F** read.PST.3SG.M DEF-message while I warn.PST-3SG.F
'Dilara read the message while I had warned her not to do (I'm surprised she did so).'

c. Firas w Dilara **raħ**-u qar-u ʔr-risalah w ʔana mħeðr-uh
Dilara and Dilara **PRT-3.PL** read.PST.3.pl DEF-message while I warn.PST-3.PL
'Firas and Dilara read the message while I had warned them not to do (I'm surprised they did so).'

d. ʔr-risalah **raħ**-at qar-ah Firas w ʔana mħeðr-uh
DEF-message **PRT-3SF.F** read.PST-3SG.F Firas while I warn.PST-3SG.M
'The message, Firas read it while I had warned him not to do (I'm surprised he did so to **it**).'

e. bi-l-maktab **raħ** Firas qara ʔr-risalah
in-DEF-office **PRT** Firas read.PST.3SG.M DEF-message
'In the office, Firas read the message (I'm surprised he did **there**).'

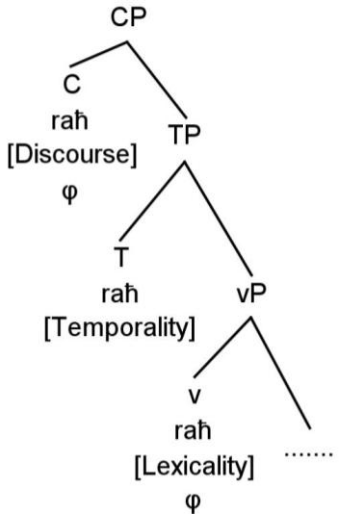
We can see that when the item marked by D-*raħ*, i.e, the item that has SURPRISE marked on it at the semantic-interpretive interface, is DP category, D-*raħ* agrees in φ-features with this DP; otherwise, D-*raħ* doesn't spell any agreeing suffix at its morphosyntactic form. We though have seen that this is not the case with respect to T-*raħ*, which consistently is void of any agreeing material. Within a semantic-interface view, this can be explained by the fact that

raħ in its discourse-grammaticalised form, D-*raħ,* has developed more expressiveness-related property, a property of agreement in natural language (Miyagawa, 2010). There is growing consensus in the literature of discourse particles that discourse particles don't inflect at the morphological level (Biberauer et al., 2014). The morphological import of D-*raħ*, though, with grammaticalisation as one of their properties, demonstrates that discourse particles can diachronically or synchronically develop more linguistic properties, which can be morphosyntactic, in the form of agreeing clitics (Alshamari, 2017a,b; Alshamari & Holmberg, 2019a,b) or as D-*raħ* displays, morphological suffixes.

B. Merge Account of Raħ

We can now propose the following logic for the domains *raħ* has been through during the grammaticalisation process it has undergone We represents this in the schemata in (29) below (Arrow indicates direct Merge from lexicon).

(29)



The generative-based natural language representation in (29), then, shows the phases that were induced in the grammaticalisation process the lexical item *raħ* has been through. *raħ* stated life in v, where it functions as a lexica verb. Then, *raħ* has grammaticalised into the T-*raħ*, the case in which it externally-merged (Chomsky, 2019) into T, being endowed with Futurity, Temporal information. Then, *raħ* has grammaticalised into the D-*raħ*, developing a conventionalized use as a discourse particle that marks SURPRISE information-structural value, the case in which it also externally-merged at C being endowed with discourse information SURPRISE. This being so, we can say that has developed the two functionalities, the Temporal function in TP and the discourse function in CP.

Though we argue that T-*raħ* and D-*raħ* derive from the lexical verb *raħ* and have grammaticalised from it, having, as consequence, an implications this research imposes on research of the theory of discourse particles is: what accounts for the existence of φ-features on D-*raħ* but lack thereof on T-*raħ*?

VI. Conclusion

In this paper, we have argued that lexical item *raħ*, functioning as a lexical verb, has undergone two phases of grammaticalisation: It first grammaticalised into a tense particle and then into a discourse particle. Entertaining Minimalist and Cartographic practices (Chomsky, 2000; Rizzi, 1997; Frascarelli & Hinterhölzl, 2007; Struckmeier, 2014), splitting the CP domain and holding movement and merger diagnostics, evidence is provided that the grammaticalised practices have developed properties of head status in syntax. One of the important insights this study shows is related to agreement; while both grammaticalised, T-*raħ* has lost the φ-features present on the lexical form of *raħ*, D-*raħ* has retained the set of φ-features, contra current assumptions (Biberauer et al., 2014). Hence, a phenomenon that calls for further research on linguistic operations that are activated within a grammaticalisation process. The other issue the paper elaborates on is the observation that Merge is a plausible account to the syntax of discourse particles (Hack, 2014), with evidence form movement.

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Systematic Literature Review: Investigating Speaking Challenges Among ESL Learners During the Covid-19 Pandemic

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***Abstract*—Effective verbal communication in the English language poses many challenges for Malaysian students. As English is not their first language, the average Malaysian finds it difficult to attain the required speaking proficiency. COVID has only exacerbated this problem. Moving from a traditional classroom setting to an online one limits cohesive and effective verbal communication between the spreader and listener (s). Both students and teachers had to switch from traditional classroom instruction to online classroom instruction with various devices and technologies as their main means of communication. As a result, this study provides a systematic review of pertinent existing research into Investigating Speaking Challenges among English Language Learners (ESL) in Online Classrooms. We concentrated on 51 articles from the year 2006 to the year 2021, from a few databases. Google Scholar, ERIC, Microsoft Academic, and ResearchGate were referred to. The review begins with a search and scanning of suitable articles related to this study before selection. Most of these articles disclosed speaking challenges and provided positive solutions to overcome them during the COVID-19 pandemic. Both students and teachers dealt effectively with psychological issues such as shyness, lack of confidence, and anxiety, as well as technological aspects. Overall, this review gave some insights into the difficulties that ESL students have when they speak, as well as many ways to deal with them when learning online.**

***Index Terms*—speaking challenges, speaking skill, ESL learners, online learning, Covid-19**

I. Introduction

Speaking is an important skill for every individual, from cradle to grave. For individuals who do not know English, Lingua Franca (ELF) refers to the use of English as a common language in teaching and learning. They do not need to be native English speakers to master the English language. Under the Malaysian education system, English is now taught in schools as a second language. According to (Leong & Ahmadi, 2016) learners should have English language abilities to engage with people comfortably and effectively. In Malaysia, mother tongue interference has become one of the major speaking problems that the students have to deal with. Thus, Malaysian schools have learned about the Common European Reference Framework for Languages, which is the most recent plan to improve English skills (CEFR).

Trim (2010) stated that all students want to communicate fluently in a second language. To accomplish this, they must first understand the required skills necessary to become a successful speaker. Fluency, vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation are the four speaking skills that students must master to become good speakers. Choosing and expressing the right words will help students improve their speaking skills. When an average student speaks with correct intonation, rhythm, and pronunciation, he or she becomes a good speaker, especially if they can completely capture the listeners' attention.

The COVID-19 pandemic forced Malaysian schools to replace all classroom instruction with online instruction. Students from elementary school through higher education benefit from online learning. What online learning is like for students and how it has transformed the teacher's position may be seen in this shift. The learner's willingness and ability to take charge, plan, implement, monitor, and evaluate his or her own learning with tasks created collaboratively and with the teacher's assistance (Tuan & Mai, 2015, as cited in Chen, 2019).

This systematic review examines a synthesis of contextual evidence from relevant studies conducted over the years on the speaking issues faced by ESL learners in online classrooms during the COVID-19 pandemic. This article will focus on two research goals:

1. to investigate the speaking challenges of ESL learners.
2. to search for new ways to overcome speaking challenges.

II. Literature Review

A. Speaking Skills

Speaking is one of the most important skills to develop when learning the English language. Dewi et al. (2016) added that it's important to communicate effectively with people and speak English since it's the most widely acknowledged language in the world, so it'll be extremely helpful for those who understand it not only to enhance their knowledge and abilities, but also make it easier for them to find a job. To communicate successfully, you must be fluent in the English language. Not only does speaking English improve their knowledge and talents, but it also helps them get a good job. According to (Rajendran & Yunus, 2021), speaking is a very intricate and productive skill that requires the use of many skills at the same time, which typically develop at different rates. Among the four language abilities (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), speaking skills are considered the most important. This is because the speaker is usually affiliated with a certain community. Repetition is the key to attaining English proficiency. Constant speaking with different individuals will enforce good vocabulary, varying the structure of the phrase in order for the listener to comprehend what was said.

B. Speaking Challenge among ESL Learners

Over the years, researchers have revealed many impediments faced by second language (L2) learners in terms of spoken language competency, which has a detrimental influence on their achievement at all levels. One of them is (Ferris, 1998), a study that found out that 768 ESL students at the university had the most challenging academic activities, whereas ESL students viewed oral presentations, full-scale debates, and note-making as less complex. Participants also expressed uncertainty about their English speaking and pronunciation abilities, as they struggle with pronouncing particular words correctly (Yanagi & Baker, 2016). In another situation, students claimed that their lack of ability to communicate in English was due to their fear of having an inadequate vocabulary, so they simply stopped speaking (Tokoz-Goktepe, 2014). Another study by (Kayaoğlu & Sağlamel, 2013) revealed that language anxiety is usually associated with situational anxiety since it is a particular language learning situation that triggers a learner to grow anxious.

Speaking problems are connected to negative consequences, such as fear of being laughed at, poor pronunciation, anxiety, lack of motivation, and not being used to speaking in the desired language. Teachers can help to mitigate these negative effects by altering classroom teaching techniques, offering positive support and motivation, developing well-planned lesson plans, and implementing engaging and pleasant activities that can reduce anxiety when taking part in public speaking activities. To help students overcome problems with learning to speak, teachers must figure out factors that affect their students' speaking performance (Tuan & Mai, 2015). Students may even be encouraged to give each other positive feedback both during and after a speaking task. Teachers, on the other hand, might get small gifts or souvenirs to thank them for their hard work and boost their self-esteem (Garrett, 2008).

The pandemic has forced students into online learning. Teachers and education administrators are now contemplating whether or not online teaching is effective. In response to increased demand, several online learning providers offer free access to their services. Some individuals worry that a rapid and hurried move to online learning without training would lead to a poor user experience, limited bandwidth, and poor planning, which could hinder long-term growth. Others believe that a new paradigm of learning offers enormous benefits (Roddy et al., 2017).The COVID-19 pandemic has revolutionised the way educators educate and enabled them to reach their pupils effectively and successfully via chat groups, video meetings, polling procedures, and document sharing. This research is one of the first studies to report the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on education disruption in 31 nations (Bozkurt et al., 2020).

Students struggle to take part in digital learning because they lack a dependable internet connection and/or technological facilities. This issue exists across nations and within the local community's economic levels (Sia & Adamu, 2021). Studying online can be more successful in a variety of ways for students who have access to technology. According to several studies, students remember more content when learning online compared to being in a classroom (Said et al., 2013; Suliman & Yunus, 2014). Most of this can be attributed to pupils' capacity to learn more quickly online. Furthermore, because students can study at their own pace, going back and re-reading, skipping, or speeding through subjects as they see fit, e-learning takes less time to study than traditional classroom settings (Stern, 2018). It also involves the educators' timely communication and clear instructions about exams, quizzes, and assignments (El Said, 2021).

In a face-to-face class, integrating social interaction increases participation through actual learning. It is especially beneficial for students who cannot function independently or who are accustomed to traditional classroom teaching and learning settings (Mustapha et al., 2010a; Mustapha et al., 2010b). In a classroom setting, the teacher may move the students around or organise them in various ways. Most online classrooms involve teleconference technology, which allows for breakout groups and diverse student groupings in the classroom. Language teachers should use a variety of methods to improve students' proficiency in the Oral Expression module, including group work, role-playing, and discussions that encourage students to take communicative initiatives (Namaziandost et al., 2019). Traditional and virtual learning have a lot of differences, but in the hands of a well-trained teacher, both methods can achieve the same goals.

III. METHODOLOGY

In order to fulfil this study's goals, 51 articles from a variety of sources were collected and evaluated. According to the methodology outlined by (Khan et al., 2003), conducting a systematic review consists of five stages, as shown in Figure 1. ***Stage one*** is the framing of the research questions. Issues should be addressed as explicit, unambiguous questions with a defined context. Amendments to the protocol can only be considered once the review questions have been developed. This study addresses two research topics that are of interest to ESL learners: investigating the speaking problems faced by ESL learners and finding innovative strategies to overcome these challenges.

Stage two comprises identifying and compiling relevant work in a chosen subject. To accomplish this, substantial study of a variety of sources is required. In this systematic study, peer-reviewed research databases, such as Educational Resources Information Centre, JSTOR, Elsevier, Cambridge University Press, and Google Scholar, were used to evaluate research articles and journals published five years ago. Over 5000 journals can be found on the websites above. Most of them are free to search for specific keywords and get automated suggestions.

The ***next step*** is to assess the quality of the chosen studies and evaluate if they meet certain pre-set criteria. Prior to the screening process, it is necessary to choose which criteria to include and which to omit. Once these items have been selected, they can be summarised if required. Many articles will be offered based on the keywords entered into search engines. This stage is important to prevent making mistakes while picking eligible articles. ***Table 1*** illustrates how keywords were utilised to discover relevant content.

Table 2 illustrates how the same technique was used to approve and reject articles based on various criteria employed to narrow down the search. This makes it easier to choose the precise papers that are needed for the literature review. To ensure that it fits the needed criteria and is easy to search for, journal articles, systematic literature reviews, and case study papers were chosen instead of books and book chapters. Due to the concentration on ESL learners, only articles written in English were included.

Using a table is the most effective way to summarise in ***stage four***. There's nothing better than highlighting the information you need in a table under a standard category when you're skimming and scanning the articles. This will ensure methodical analysis. To make it easier to calculate the overall data, binary codes of "0" and "1" are used in place of "Yes" and "No." Hamilton (2012) highlighted that utilising binary variables to code "Yes" or "No" data items may be a valuable tool for rapid and efficient analysis.

The ***final stage*** would be to interpret the findings. Compare the information obtained in this step by looking for discrepancies and similarities. The data is then assembled to make it easier to answer the research questions and preserve the data's quality. Tables and charts have been successfully constructed based on the five steps of creating the technique in the Systemic Literature Review in order to obtain an understanding of how many writers discuss "speaking problems" in their results.

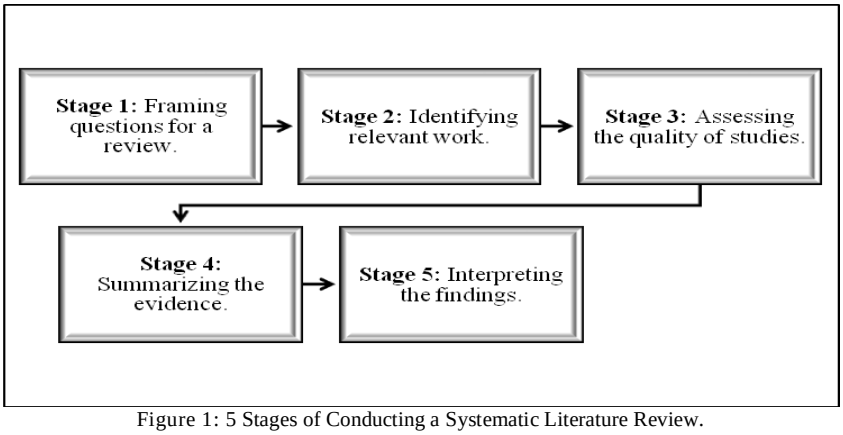

Figure 1: 5 Stages of Conducting a Systematic Literature Review.

TABLE 1
KEYWORDS USED TO FIND RELATED ARTICLES

Search Engines	Web address	Keywords
Google Scholar	https://scholar.google.com/	Speaking Challenges, Speaking Impacts, Speaking Difficulties, Speaking Problems, Improving Speaking Disability, Speaking Anxiety, Speaking: Lack of confidence
ResearchGate	https://www.researchgate.net/search/researcher	Online class, face-to-face class, Traditional classroom vs online classroom
Elsevier	https://www.elsevier.com/solutions/sciencedirect/journals-books	Exploring student's problems in speaking, improving speaking fluency, factors affecting student speaking.
PubMed	https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/	History of Covid-19 Pandemic, Covid-19 Pandemic, Effects of Pandemic.

TABLE 2
STANDARDS FOR ACCEPTANCE AND REJECTION

Standards	Acceptance	Rejection
Type of Study	Journal Articles Systematic Literature Review Case Study	Books Chapters of Book
Language	English	Non-English
Year	2006-2021	<2005
Methodology	Quantitative & Qualitative, Mixed Method, Survey, Case studies, interview, Observations.	Experiments, Participant and non-participant observation, Observational trials, Studies using the Delphi method.

IV. RESULT

Based on the research topics, 51 papers or articles from 2006 to 2021 were shortlisted after passing through the five phases of vetting. All the selected journal papers are linked to the speaking problems faced by ESL students in online and non-online classrooms during the COVID-19 Pandemic. The writers wrote about internal and external factors that contributed to ESL learners' ability to communicate effectively, which is shown in ***Tables 3 and 4***, respectively.

TABLE 3
INTERNAL FACTORS AUTHORS SPOKE ABOUT SPEAKING CHALLENGES IN THEIR PAPERS

INTERNAL FACTORS						
Author(s) / Year	**Psychological / Behavioural Problem(s)**					
	F	**A/N**	**LM**	**S**	**LC**	**O**
(Wold, 2006)	1	1	1	1	1	0
(Gan, 2012)	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Fakhro, 2013)	0	1	1	1	1	0
(Maryslessor et al., 2014)	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Mejilla et al., 2014)	1	0	0	0	0	0
(Fitriani et al., 2015)	0	1	1	0	0	1
(Rahayu, 2015)	1	0	0	0	0	0
(Tuan & Mai, 2015)	1	0	1	0	0	1
(Safaee, 2019)	0	0	0	1	1	0
(Alharbi, 2015)	0	0	0	0	0	1
(Rodrigues & Vethamani, 2015)	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Yanagi & Baker, 2016)	0	0	0	0	1	0
(Al-Roud, 2016)	0	0	0	0	1	0
(Yusuf & Zuraini, 2016)	0	0	1	0	0	0
(Musliadi, 2016)	0	0	1	0	0	1
(Afshar & Asakereh, 2016)	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Nakhalah, 2016)	1	1	1	1	0	0
(Abda, 2017)	1	0	1	0	0	0
(Narayan, 2017)	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Gabriel, 2017)	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Saeed Al-Sobhi & Preece, 2018)	0	0	1	0	0	0
(Al.kandari, 2018)	0	0	1	0	0	0
(Syaifudin, 2017)	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Leong & Ahmadi, 2016)	1	0	1	1	1	1
(Sabbah, 2018)	1	1	0	0	0	0
(Education & Training, 2018)	0	0	1	0	0	0
(Muslem et al., 2018)	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Ramasivam & Nair, 2019)	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Mofareh A., 2019)	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Prodhan Mahbub Ibna Seraj, 2019)	1	1	1	0	0	0
(Shen & Chiu, 2019)	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Alzahrani, 2019)	0	0	0	0	1	0
(Paneerselvam & Mohamad, 2019)	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Karataş & Tuncer, 2020)	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Ratnasari, 2020)	0	1	0	0	0	0
(Riadil, 2020)	0	0	1	1	0	0
(Wahyuningsih & Afandi, 2020)	0	0	1	0	0	0
(Getie, 2020)	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Sia & Adamu, 2021)	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Sankar et al., 2020)	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Aristovnik et al., 2020)	0	0	0	0	0	1
(Rahmi Fhonna et al. 2020)	0	0	0	0	0	1
(Amir et al., 2020)	0	0	0	0	0	1
(Selvanathan et al., 2020)	0	0	0	0	0	1
(Destianingsih & Satria, 2020)	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Aboubakare et al., 2021)	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Ratnasari, 2020)	0	1	0	0	0	0
(Al-Hassaani & Qaid, 2020)	1	0	0	0	0	0
(Yunus et al., 2021)	0	0	0	0	0	1
(El Said, 2021)	0	0	0	0	0	1
(Utami, 2021)	0	0	0	0	0	1

Indicator		
F	- Fear (Ridicule by peers)	***Binary Code:***
A / N	- Anxiety / Nervousness	
LM	- Lack of Motivation	1 - Yes
S	- Shyness	0 - No
LC	- Lack of Confidence	
O	- Other(s)	

TABLE 4
EXTERNAL FACTORS AUTHORS SPOKE ABOUT SPEAKING CHALLENGES IN THEIR PAPERS

EXTERNAL FACTORS							
Author(s) / Year	Environment / Surroundings Problem(s)						
	LP	L1	LTC	EO	UI/T	LR	O
(Wold, 2006)	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
(Gan, 2012)	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
(Fakhro, 2013)	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
(Maryslessor et al., 2014)	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
(Mejilla et al., 2014)	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
(Fitriani et al., 2015)	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Rahayu, 2015)	0	1	1	0	0	0	1
(Tuan & Mai, 2015)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Safaee, 2019)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Alharbi, 2015)	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
(Rodrigues & Vethamani, 2015)	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
(Yanagi & Baker, 2016)	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Al-Roud, 2016)	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Yusuf & Zuraini, 2016)	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Musliadi, 2016)	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
(Afshar & Asakereh, 2016)	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
(Nakhalah, 2016)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Abda, 2017)	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Narayan, 2017)	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
(Gabriel, 2017)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Saeed Al-Sobhi & Preece, 2018)	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
(Al.kandari, 2018)	1	0	0	1	0	0	1
(Syaifudin, 2017)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Leong & Ahmadi, 2016)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Sabbah, 2018)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Tridinanti, 2018)	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Muslem et al., 2018)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Ramasivam & Nair, 2019)	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
(Mofareh A., 2019)	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
(Prodhan Mahbub Ibna Seraj, 2019)	1	1	0	1	0	0	1
(Shen & Chiu, 2019)	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Alzahrani, 2019)	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
(Paneerselvam & Mohamad, 2019)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Karataş & Tuncer, 2020)	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
(Ratnasari, 2020)	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Riadil, 2020)	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
(Wahyuningsih & Afandi, 2020)	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
(Getie, 2020)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Sia & Adamu, 2021)	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
(Sankar et al., 2020)	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
(Aristovnik et al., 2020)	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
(Rahmi Fhonna et al. 2020)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
(Amir et al., 2020)	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
(Selvanathan et al., 2020)	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
(Destianingsih & Satria, 2020)	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
(Aboubakare et al., 2021)	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
(Ratnasari, 2020)	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
(Al-Hassaani & Qaid, 2020)	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
(Yunus et al., 2021)	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
(El Said, 2021)	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
(Utami, 2021)	1	0	0	0	1	1	0

Indicator		
LP	- Linguistic Problems	***Binary Code***
L1	- Mother tongue Interference	
LTC	- Limited to Classroom	1 - Yes
EO	- Exam Oriented	0 - No
UI/T	- Unstable Internet Connection / Technology	
LR	- Limited Resources	
O	- Other(s)	

Based on ***Tables 3 and 4***, the bar chart in ***Figure 2 (a)*** was tabulated to show the detailed result of the two main factors that contributed to ESL learners' speaking challenges, as analysed from 51 journal articles. Out of 51 authors, 65% said "Yes" and the rest, 35%, said "No" to internal factors. In contrast, 78% said "Yes" and 22% said "No" to external factors. This result has been tabulated and is presented in ***Figure 2(b)***.

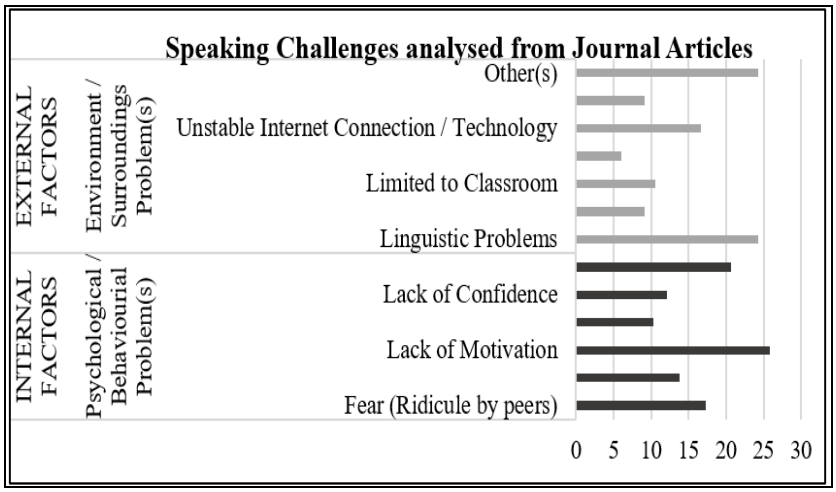

Figure 2 (a): Result From Analysed Journal Articles.

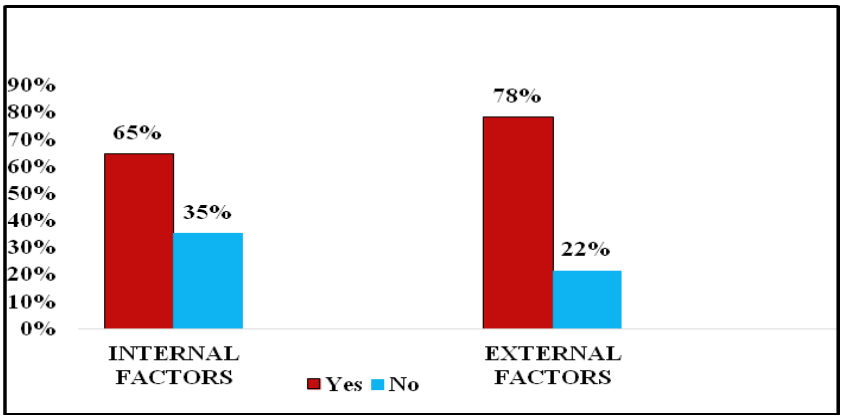

Figure 2 (b): The Percentage of Internal and External Factors

V. Discussion

The aim of this study is to investigate speaking challenges among ESL learners during the COVID-19 Pandemic. From the result, it has been found that two main factors contributed to the ESL learners' speaking challenges: first the internal factors, which focused on psychological factors, and second, the external factors, which focused on environmental and surrounding problems. The result is presented according to the two research questions: (i) To investigate ESL learners' speaking challenges; (ii) To seek new approaches to overcoming speaking challenges in online and offline classrooms.

A. To Investigate the Speaking Challenges of ESL Learners

A total of 51 papers were examined on the speaking problems among ESL learners during the COVID-19 pandemic. Researchers discovered that ESL students had and still face obstacles in speaking. 90% of the reasons pupils couldn't practise speaking either inside or outside the classroom were based on psychological issues such as fear of speaking, fear of being mocked by others, feeling anxious or uncomfortable, lack of motivation, shyness, and lack of confidence were some of the reasons discovered by the experts. The teachers' teaching style is also the reason it was difficult for them to speak English. The environment and its surrounds handle 98% of the external factors that create barriers. It was a lack of vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and other linguistic issues. Those whose family solely uses L1 as their primary language may experience mother-tongue interference.

Schools, colleges, and universities have been closing rapidly around the world due to the COVID-19 pandemic, and the authorities are undertaking the change to online learning programs (Clancy & Sentance, 2020). The "new norm" is being adopted by students, teachers, and parents alike. They are connected through online platforms, devices, and resources in distance learning programmes. Parents with one or two children might still supply appropriate devices or equipment for the online school. Unstable internet connections and the fact that some students do not have a communication device to engage in online classes accounted for 22% of the total. Saminathan (2021) claimed that students who transit from a face-to-face classroom to a computer-based virtual classroom encounter a fundamentally different learning process.

Many students lag in their virtual studies because they do not have access to sufficient bandwidth or a robust internet connection. Another 12% of the study reveals that there are relatively few resources, and the final 31% of external

factors include various speaking challenges such as education policy, students working part-time, time management, attempting to adjust from traditional classroom to online learning, and other minor issues.

B. To Search for New Ways to Overcome Speaking Challenges

Students are at risk of falling behind during this phase of transition. Many platforms, programmes, and software may be utilised for task-based activities as well as online interactive activities. Teachers want to guarantee that their students will be pleased and take part in their online teaching and learning. There are many free and paid platforms available for educators and students to engage in the learning process. The Malaysian Ministry of Education has developed a teaching and learning platform called DELIMa, which may be accessed by using the following website login address: https://sites.google.com/moe.edu.my/login/login. The portal provides links to Google Classroom and Microsoft teaching and training teams, computerised presentations, recordings (Eduweb TV/CikgooTube), and apps that enhance teaching and learning, such as Edpuzzle, a quiz (test game), and Kahoot (game-based learning platform). EDU-WEB Learner self-regulation is the principle that states that students should develop the strongest sense of accountability and control over how they learn.

Furthermore, various tools for teachers and learners can be used in online teaching and training, apart from the above websites and apps. Telegram, Google Meet, Zoom, WhatsApp, Facebook, Tick Tock, and many other applications are extensively used by our learners. Tiktok was introduced to the social media market in September 2016 (Dilon, 2020). Teenagers and young adults across the world are becoming increasingly interested in this application. The site 'Tiktoking' allows users to create 15-second-long videos, which are then run in a loop until the next film is posted. Students may use this programme to develop their speaking abilities as it helps them build their self-confidence and motivation. Researchers use the method of video chats and video conferencing tools on social media to carry out speaking lessons (Sevy-Biloon & Chroman, 2019). ***Table 5*** illustrates examples of apps that may teach speaking. Finally, teachers need to be able to use technical skills to meet the needs of their students over time.

TABLE 5
ONLINE APPLICATION TO TEACH SPEAKING SKILLS

Authors Name & Years	Title of the Article	Skill(s)	Review
(Jalaluddin, 2016)	Using YouTube To Enhance Speaking Skills in ESL Classroom.	Speaking	Speaking, listening, and reading abilities may be improved by using YouTube.
(Hussein, 2016)	The Impact of Utilising Skype as a Social Tool Network Community on Developing English Major Students' Discourse Competence in the English Language Syllables	Writing & Speaking	Students developed writing and speaking skills using Skype chat more efficiently and effectively.
(Muslem et al., 2017)	The Application of Video Clips: With Small Group and Individual Activities to Improve Young Learners' Speaking Performance.	Speaking	Video clips used in a small group activity to improve young learners' speaking performances.
(Yükselir & Kömür, 2017)	Using Online Videos to Improve Speaking Abilities of EFL Learners.	Speaking	Watching videos improved their speaking ability and scored good result.
(Xodabande, 2017)	The effectiveness of social media network Telegram in teaching English language pronunciation to Iranian EFL learners.	Speaking	Pronunciation of participants in the experimental group improved significantly compared to the control group.
(Young & West, 2018)	Speaking Practice Outside the Classroom: A Literature Review of Asynchronous Multimedia-based Oral Communication in Language Learning	Speaking	Asynchronous multimedia-based oral communication promotes language improvements in terms of fluency, accuracy, and pronunciation.
(Nilayon & Brahmakasikara 2018)	Using Social Network Sites for Language Learning and Video Conferencing Technology to Improve English Speaking Skills: A Case Study of Thai Undergraduate Students	Speaking	Lower-level participants improved significantly and might be a good remedial class of learners with lower English-speaking proficiency.
(Le, 2018)	Voice Recording in Second Language Outside the Classroom: Process and Product.	Speaking	The voice recording is to practise their speaking skills and improved their fluency and lexical complexity.
(Namaziandost & Nasri 2019)	The Impact of Social Media on EFL Learners' Speaking Skill: A Survey Study Involving EFL Teachers and Students	Speaking	Social media creates a relaxing context for learners to talk freely and express their ideas with no fear of embarrassment or lack of confidence.
(Sevy-Biloon & Chroman, 2019)	Authentic Use of Technology to Improve EFL Communication and Motivation Through International Language Exchange Video Chat.	Speaking	The program showed increased confidence in speaking, naturally motivated and increased fluency, and overall communication skills.

VI. Conclusion

Speaking is the hardest skill, as students need to communicate with one another orally. Therefore, they require a considerable amount of exercise. There are ample resources available online and offline, some of which come at an affordable price, and some are free. Teachers need to put in extra effort if they want to see some improvement in their students' speaking abilities in the ESL classroom. This systematic literature review investigated the speaking challenges among ESL learners during the COVID-19 pandemic. The result of the investigation comprises two main factors: physiological and environmental factors that impede the learning of speaking skills among these learners. Using technology in teaching and learning has a positive effect and experience for both teachers and learners. Most of the reviewed research found that speaking can be taught online or in a traditional classroom setting, and there is a lot of evidence that shows improvements in speaking proficiency. There are many ideas to adapt and a wide range of applications to choose from, as well as resources both in your area and around the world. There are also a lot of self-access and interactive activities that you can do on your own and through the world wide web. When regular face-to-face instruction is not available, education policy will briefly examine the role of students' attitudes toward learning in achieving the full potential of online education. Teachers can use this time to look at and use the different platforms that are available online to help students improve their speaking skills.

VII. Challenges and Limitations

In any research, challenges and limitations may arise, affecting the conclusions. Nonetheless, many researchers are hesitant to highlight how limited their study is in their papers, giving readers and reviewers the impression that it is worth less research. When the method of probability sampling was used to select a sample that did not reflect the population, sampling errors occurred. This prompted a search for articles relevant to the study. A literature review is built on quoting and referring to previous research studies, and these previous studies provide a theoretical underpinning for the research topic. Due to the recent pandemic's detection, the time frame for investigating speaking challenges was limited to two to four years; this provided an opportunity to identify new gaps in the existing literature and perform further development in the area of study.

VIII. Implication and Recommendation

According to Affendi and Aziz (2020), a few limitations were identified when performing the systematic review based on the research paper analysed. It might be worth resolving in the future if there are researchers that wish to further examine this matter. Foremost, the articles chosen for this study were stressed outside Malaysia; therefore, it could have been clustered on Malaysian ESL learners' backgrounds. It would be possible to perform research on Malaysian ESL learners' speaking skills in this pandemic. This study examined 51 ResearchGate and Google Scholar publications. Elsevier and PubMed databases also have comparable publications available. As a result, if the data is extended to more scholars, it may either improve findings and conclusions or reveal different outcomes with many other schools of thought. In addition, it was found that some teachers hated teaching speaking skills. Teachers with more experience declined to be watched in class, referring to the fact that they are focused on examinations and as needed by management. In reality, many of them did not know what their speaking abilities were. A significant recommendation would be for the management to move from an exam-oriented zone to a pleasant teaching and learning zone for both teachers and students in order to create a win-win scenario for everyone. In the long term, these children might profit from a lifetime of education and knowledge.

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A Socio-Pragmatic Analysis of the Speech Act of Advice in Selected Qur'anic Verses

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***Abstract*—This study investigates selected Qur'anic verses in terms of advice speech act. It answers the questions: what is the most common strategy used to perform the speech act of advice in the Holy Qur'an?, what is the most common type of sentence used to perform advice in the Holy Qur'an? and what is the impact of the social variables of distance and power on the choice of advice strategy? The study adopts Hinkel's (1994) classification of advice into direct, indirect, and hedged as its main theoretical framework. However, the study revealed that the interlocutors in the Holy Qur'an opted for significantly more indirect advice, and that the imperative was the most frequent sentence type used to perform the speech act of advice. Also, the study showed that the choice of advice strategy was greatly impacted by social distance and power between the speaker and the hearer. However, context was also a determining factor in many cases.**

***Index Terms*—Speech Act Theory, advice, social distance, social power, the Holy Qur'an**

I. Introduction

Advice-giving is defined as "telling you what is best for you" (Searle, 1969, p. 7). In pragmatic terms and in line with Searle's (1979) taxonomy of speech acts, advice belongs to the directive category of speech acts. As a directive speech act, the speaker would like the hearer to act in a certain way. To this effect, the speech act of advice is like suggestion, recommendation, and request. Yet, while a request is beneficial to the speaker, advice is beneficial to the hearer. Advice, however, is among the most important speech acts that are included in the Holy Qur'an - the noble Book of Allah revealed to Muslims by Prophet Mohammad, peace be upon him (PBUH). In fact, advice has played a key role in the spread of Islam, changing people's wrong beliefs, and improving morals, among other roles. However, the Qur'anic teachings take the form of religious discourse, which is produced in Classical Arabic and is characterized by using uncontested, elaborate, stylistic features and rhetorical devices.

A. Speech Act Theory

The Speech Act Theory, introduced by Austin (1962), is one of the most important theories of linguistics, particularly pragmatics. According to Austin (1962), the Speech Act Theory examines "the role of utterance in relation to the behavior of the speaker and hearer in interpersonal communication" (p. 61). In his remarkable work *How to Do Things with Words*, Austin (1962) explained that speech acts refer to how interlocutors use language to perform actions. Searle (1969, 1975, 1976, 1979), however, took further steps in developing the theory of speech acts. In this regard, Searle (1969) asserted that "all linguistic communication involves linguistic acts" (p. 42). This way, people intentionally carry out actions with certain functions when they produce utterances, or when they communicate with each other. These actions usually include several functions, such as inviting, offering, thanking, advising, threatening, and requesting, to name some. Such speech acts are defined by Searle (1969) as "the basic or minimal units of linguistic communication" (p. 42). Obviously, Austin and Searle agreed that a language is not only a tool for conveying information but also for doing things.

However, decoding the meaning of an utterance is not enough for understanding its content. Equally important, it is necessary to identify what speech act is performed by that utterance. In this regard, Yule (2016) highlighted that identifying speech acts requires to know how interlocutors use language to convey messages as the said words and phrases need to achieve specific functions that go beyond the words themselves. Interestingly, Austin (1962) pointed out that speech acts involve three levels, namely the locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary. The essential literal meaning of the speaker represents the locutionary act. Thus, a locutionary act refers to any utterance that produces meaning. According to Austin (1962), the illocutionary act refers to the communicative intention or force of an utterance. To perform any illocutionary act, the uttered utterances must have intended meanings that the hearers need to comprehend. To this effect, knowing illocutionary acts of utterances is essential as through which people can get insights into understanding intentions of the speakers. In this regard, Van Dijk (2006) asserted that meanings and intentions are significant issues as they imply social and cultural roles. The illocutionary force suggested by Austin (1962) implies that the speaker may perform the illocutionary act to make a threat, promise, assertion, etc. Also, Austin

(1962) highlighted the link between the locutionary and illocutionary acts when he argued that "it has, of course, been admitted that to perform an illocutionary act is necessarily to perform a locutionary act" (p. 113). Finally, the perlocutionary act refers to the impact of meaningful, intentional utterances on the hearer. Levinson (1983) explained that the perlocutionary act is "the bringing about of effects on the audience by means of uttering the sentence" (p. 236). In summary, an utterance starts with the locutionary act, having the utterance's basic meaning, moves to the illocutionary act, with the utterance's communicative intention, and ends up with the perlocutionary act, having the utterance's impact on the hearer.

B. Social Variables of Distance and Power

The social variables of distance and power are regarded as the main sociolinguistic variables that determine how the speakers interact. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), people's perception of these variables is culturally specific. Also, Spencer-Oatey (2011) emphasized the need to include perceptions for the social variables of distance and power in studying speech acts because different societies may have different norms and perceptions regarding these variables. However, the role of social power in communication, for Brown and Levinson (1987), would involve the interlocutors' ability to recognize each other's social position. Therefore, correctly recognizing the hearer's social power is essential for the speaker to be able to produce the most appropriate and suitable utterances, while interacting with others who belong to different cultural backgrounds. To this effect, the social variables of distance and power of the advisors can both impact on language use and determine what specific words or phrases are to be used as well. Also, the context of speech can give important information about the relationship between the interlocutors, that is, how familiar or close they are to each other, and how high or low their power in society is. In this regard, key resources of social power in society can include "age, sex, money, physical strength, and metaphysical power" (Nemani & Rasekh, 2013, p. 307). To look less offensive, people of low social power, for example, prefer to use indirect forms to give advice. In contrast, people of high social power are in favor of direct forms. According to Fairclough (2013), indirect forms of some functions, including advice, are employed to reduce the force of the face threatening act. Also, indirect forms of language are preferred by people who give advice to whom they do not know very well.

C. Aims and Questions of the Study

The basic aim of the current study was to investigate the speech act of advice with reference to selected verses of the Holy Qur'an. In particular, the study focused on the strategies that were used to perform the act of advice and the effect of the social variables of distance and power on the strategy choice. Following Searle's (1979) taxonomy of speech acts and Hinkel's (1994) model of advice, the researchers conducted a socio-pragmatic analysis of a sample of Qur'anic verses that included the speech act of advice. Through the analysis, the study sought answers to the following questions:

1. What is the most common strategy used to perform advice speech act in the Holy Qur'an?
2. What is the most common type of sentence used to perform advice in the Holy Qur'an?
3. What is the impact of the social variables of distance and power on the choice of advice strategy?

D. Significance of the Study

The study has two major significances, that is, practical and theoretical. Practically, the study is expected to help learners of Arabic improve their communicative and pragmatic competence with regards to effectively performing the speech act of advice. Theoretically, the current study is hoped to provide some useful insights into how advice is performed in the Holy Qur'an. The study also contributes to theoretical pragmatics as it sheds light on the universal principles, which govern the production of speech acts. Furthermore, the study helps bridge the gap identified in literature on the topic of the speech act of advice in the Holy Qur'an.

II. Literature Review

This section aims at placing available research in the context of existing knowledge concerning some socio-pragmatic notions, with focus on research related to the speech act of advice.

Complex speech acts, including advice, have received the attention of many researchers, including Brown and Levinson (1987), Hinkel (1994), and Goldsmith and Fitch (1997). For instance, Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) stressed that giving advice in the American culture is a complex, dynamic speech act that presents various linguistic challenges for interlocutors. In fact, advice-giving in some English-speaking societies is perceived and interpreted as an act of intrusion into one's own private affairs. In contrast, advice is perceived differently in other cultures, including the Arab culture, which view advice-giving as a tool for showing warmth, solidarity and support to each other. Brown and Levinson (1987) suggested a set of social factors, which are said to have impact on advice-giving. These included social distance, relative power, and politeness strategies considered proper in a particular culture. In fact, these social variables greatly affect and determine the speaker's choice of advice strategies. In the same vein, Holmes (1992) argued that both variables of relative power and social distance considerably affect the speaker's use of politeness strategies. Likewise, Locher and Hoffman (2006) put emphasis on the cultural context of advice and linked it to the notion of face. To this effect, they highlighted that advice-giving is viewed as a face-threatening act in Western cultures as it usually stirs doubts among people on the advisee's capability. In contrast, giving advice in some Eastern cultures is helpful and is

considered an effective tool or a means for building rapport. Accordingly, Locher and Hoffman (2006) suggested that giving advice is a process that needs to involve “mitigation rather than a straightforward realization” (p. 71). Similarly, Brown and Levinson (1987) as well as Hinkel (1994) stressed the connection between advice-giving, culture specificity, and face-threatening act. This way, the culture of society becomes the controlling factor in deciding whether advice is a face threatening act or not. However, the act of giving advice has its own advantages. For example, Hinkel (1994) stressed that the Chinese tended to recognize advice as a sign of warmth, sociability, and support. Also, Masuda (1989) suggested that the Japanese think positively of advice as they believe that offering advice "shows warm interest in the other's well-being" (p. 42). He, therefore, underlined the assumption existing among the Japanese: "what concerns one of us, concerns all of us" (p. 42). However, Vanderveken (1990) explained that “to advise is like to warn, except that the additional presupposition is to the effect that what is advised is good for the hearer” (p. 174).

A seminal study was conducted by Hinkel (1994), who investigated the speech act of advice in English native speakers and non-native speakers. The study examined the existence of a correlation between appropriate situations of advice-giving and their appropriate forms. The study intended to reveal how both groups of speakers of English can judge situations in which it is appropriate to give advice, and what forms can be used to give this advice. The study findings indicated that both groups had similar perceptions of the social distance. However, they differed significantly with regards to their choice of the best forms of advice. To this effect, non-native speakers chose to frequently advise superiors and peers and on topics that would not be considered appropriate in the American culture. The study also showed that both groups had different communicative goals concerning advice-giving. In addition, non-native speakers participating in the study appropriately benefited from their knowledge of politeness rules in their first language to compensate for lack of access to appropriate communicative strategies in English. Although advice-giving was viewed as an inherently face threatening act in the American culture, both groups of participants thought about the appropriateness of giving advice differently. Furthermore, the study findings revealed that both groups of speakers similarly identified the difference in social distance between peers and superiors. Yet, in both contexts, non-native speakers of English chose substantially more direct and hedged advice than did native speakers of English. In conclusion, Hinkel’s (1994) study established that non-native speakers of English opted to give direct and hedged advice to peers and superiors, and on topics considered inappropriate in the American culture. Also, social distance between the interlocutors was effectively recognized in interactions by both groups of speakers. The study concluded that while giving advice may be perceived as an expression of warmth, friendliness and interest in many cultures, it was considered inappropriate in some English-speaking cultures.

Goldsmith and Fitch (1997) examined the complex and dynamic speech act of advice in English in the USA. In their study, they relied on notes and interviews to identify challenges that the American society encountered in the process of giving, receiving, and requesting advice. In this regard, the study findings revealed that in advice there was a need to establish balance with regards to three dilemmas, that is, between being supportive and being honest, being helpful and being intrusive, and showing gratitude and retaining the right to make individual decisions. The study also found that in the American society both advisors and advisees were presented with various linguistic challenges because of the nature and complexity of advice speech act. In the terms of Brown and Levinson (1987), the speakers must avoid being intrusive to prevent threatening the hearers’ negative face, that is, their freedom to be independent and unimpeded by others. Concurrently, they did not want to be too honest with the hearers to avoid threatening their positive face, that is, the desire to be well liked by others. In fact, Goldsmith and Fitch’s (1997) work contributed to our knowledge regarding the figurative and stylistic dimensions of the speech act of advice. It also showed how advice can be employed to create communicative patterns of social support.

Strategies of advice-giving in Javanese and American culture were the focus of a cross cultural pragmatic study conducted by Yuli et al., (2017). The study findings showed that while advice-giving in Javanese culture tended to be direct, American culture largely employed indirect strategies. In this regard, the study suggested that Americans believe that indirect strategies reduce burdens on the hearers, and that these strategies are in line with the politeness principles. Also, the study revealed that advice in American culture mostly included common facts, a matter that helped to strengthen the illocutionary force of the speech act. In contrast, it was not essential for advice in Javanese culture to include facts. Accordingly, the benefit of advice in both cultures was different as advice-giving in Javanese culture was meant to comfort the hearers, whereas in American culture it was a tool for helping the hearers to solve their problems. In addition, the study classified advice in both cultures into the forms of support, suggestions, and prohibition. To this effect, Javanese speakers tended to choose the indirect strategy to perform advice which contained support, whereas the direct strategy was selected by American speakers. Regarding advice in the forms of suggestion and prohibition, it was mostly delivered directly in Javanese culture, whereas it was delivered by using the indirect strategy by American speakers. Moreover, the study findings revealed that advice in the form of support in Javanese culture was phatic, that is, language used for general purposes of social interaction. In fact, phatic utterances are usually used to show solidarity and support to others, but they do not contribute to the problem solving. However, though phatic advice was used in American culture, it was accompanied by problem solving.

Jenetto and Hanafi (2019) investigated the speech act of advice and its relation to three social variables, namely social distance, power, and rate of imposition. The study effectively identified advice forms, politeness strategies, as well as social factors that impacted the choice of form and strategy. The study found that the investigated social

variables greatly influenced advice-giving in terms of the forms and strategies selected to perform the act. The study also indicated that social distance was the most influential factor in the advice-giving process, followed by social power. In this regard, social closeness (or lack thereof) correlated with directness in advice-giving. That is, with close (or low) social distance between interlocutors, the advisor chose the direct form and direct politeness strategy. However, when both the speaker and the hearer had a far (or high) social distance, a more indirect form and indirect politeness strategy were selected, regardless of the hearer's power status. Finally, the study findings showed that the most dominant type of advice used by the study participants was hedging, and the positive politeness strategy was the dominant strategy.

As far as the researchers could investigate, studying the speech act of advice in the Holy Qur'an has not been studied before or is under-investigated, and thus it remains a gap in literature. Accordingly, the dearth of literature in this regard had been the impetus for the current study. Particularly, the present study investigated the application of the speech act theory to the Qur'anic discourse as revealed by Allah the Almighty, and thus it attempted to bridge the gap through answering the research questions. Finally, the researchers believed that further research on advice speech act was necessary, especially because advice interactions are very pervasive in everyday interactions.

III. Methodology

This section explains the adopted research design and analysis method, data source, data collection and sampling, framework of the study, and data verification and classification.

A. Research Design and Analysis Method

The present study adopted the explanatory sequential mixed methods research approach, a quantitative research method that includes the use of some statistical analysis, supported with a qualitative research method (Creswell, 2014). In fact, this method was more suitable as the researchers needed to diagnose the problem from two different angles. The first, quantitatively addressed, included three sequential steps: first, identifying and calculating the number of the speech acts of advice in the data; second, classifying and calculating the number and percentage of the strategy types used to perform these speech acts; and finally, identifying and calculating the number and percentage of sentence forms used in this regard. The second dimension, qualitatively performed, focused on investigating the impact of the social variables of distance and power on the strategy choice. In this way, examining advice speech acts in the data, their strategy types, and the sentence forms performing them in terms of number and percentage helped to answer the first two study questions. Also, building on the quantitative data results, the qualitative method was employed to explain in more detail the results with regards to how the strategy selection was impacted by the social variables of distance and power. In such manner, the researchers answered the third study question.

B. Data Source

As a matter of fact, the only source of data used in the analysis of the present study was the Holy Qur'an. This decision can be justified as the study mainly investigated the speech act of advice and its strategies in the Holy Qur'an.

C. Data Collection and Sampling

To answer the research questions, the researchers selected for analysis the first ten Qur'anic sections, equal to one third of the Holy Qur'an, which consists of 30 sections. The number of pages in each section typically ranges from 20 to 22 A4 pages. The researchers thought that the selected sample was adequate for achieving the aims of the study and for answering the research questions. In addition, the researchers consulted the valuable works of established commentators, such as Ibn-Kathir in *Tafsir Al Qur'an Al Atheem* (2009) and Al-Sabuni in *Safwat Al-Tafasir* (1997), to understand the meaning of Qur'anic utterances and to identify advice speech acts in the data. Also, the English translations of Qur'anic utterances were derived from Shakir (1974).

D. Framework of the Study

The study relied on Searle's classification of speech acts (1979) and the theoretical framework established by Hinkel (1994), in which advice was classified as a directive speech act performed via three strategy types: direct, indirect, and hedged. According to Hinkel (1994), direct speech act refers to the situation where the utterance includes a performative verb that directly reveals the kind of the speech act performed in the utterance, whereas indirect speech act refers to the situation where the utterance does not include such a performative verb, and thus the meaning is indirectly understood. However, hedged speech act refers to the situation where softeners or hedging devices are used.

E. Verification of Data and Classification

The study sample was thoroughly examined to identify all examples of advice speech acts. Initially, the number of examples before validation was 93. Based on Hinkel's (1994) model, the identified examples were then classified into three strategy types: direct, indirect, and hedged. To verify the validity of the material and its classification, the data were reviewed with two experts, specialized in the Arabic language and Qur'anic Interpretation '*tafsir*'. The feedback was twofold: first, to reclassify some examples in terms of the strategy type; and secondly, to exclude some other examples as they were considered not relevant. Therefore, the material was revisited and amended in line with the received feedback. The final list of advice speech acts that occurred in the data included 58 examples. However, this

final validated list was then reviewed with the experts, who confirmed that all these were true examples, and that their classification was true.

IV. Findings and Discussion

This section is intended to analyze some examples of advice speech acts identified in the data. The analysis works along four dimensions; first, identifying the speech acts of advice used in the data; second, exploring the advice strategy used to perform each speech act; third, identifying the sentence form used in performing each speech act of advice; and finally, investigating the impact of the social variables of distance and power on the strategy choice.

In this regard, a sum of 58 examples of advice identified in the data were classified into direct, indirect, and hedged advice. Table (1) highlights the number and percentage of these advice strategies in light of Hinkel's (1994) classification.

Table 1
Number And Percentage Of Advice Strategies

Strategy	Number	Percentage
Direct	6	10.3%
Indirect	48	82.7%
Hedged	4	7%
Total	58	100%

Table (1) shows that the indirect advice strategy had the highest number of occurrences, with 48 occurrences, accounting for a percentage of nearly 82.7% of the total. The second advice strategy was the direct, with 6 occurrences and a percentage of about 10.3%, whereas the hedged advice strategy had the lowest number of occurrences, with 4 occurrences, accounting for a percentage of about 7%.

However, advice in Arabic can be realized through different structures, including the imperative, declarative, interrogative, and conditional sentence forms. Table (2) shows the number and percentage of the different sentence types that were used to perform advice speech acts in the data.

Table 2
Type, Number And Percentage Of Sentence Forms Performing Advice Speech Act

Strategy	Sentence Type	Number	Percentage
Direct (6)	Imperative	0	0%
	Interrogative	0	0%
	Declarative	6	10.3%
	Conditional	0	0%
Indirect (48)	Imperative	33	56.9%
	Interrogative	2	3.5%
	Declarative	5	8.6%
	Conditional	8	13.7%
Hedged (4)	Imperative	2	3.5%
	Interrogative	0	0%
	Declarative	2	3.5%
	Conditional	0	0%
Total		58	100%

It can be seen from Table (2) that the six examples of the direct advice strategy identified in the data were realized by the declarative sentence type, accounting for nearly 10.3%. In contrast, the imperative was the most frequent sentence type used in giving indirect advice in the data, followed by the conditional. In this regard, the imperative form was used 33 times to perform indirect advice, constituting nearly 56.9%. Also, eight occurrences of the conditional sentence type were found to be employed in performing indirect advice, constituting about 13.7%. The declarative came third, with a percentage of about 8.6%, whereas the least frequent sentence type used in giving indirect advice was the interrogative, constituting a percentage of about 3.5%. However, giving advice through using hedging devices was the least frequent strategy in the data, with four occurrences, two of which were realized by the imperative form, whereas the other two were performed by the declarative form, each of which represented about 3.5%.

The following is a presentation and discussion of some examples of the three advice strategies that occurred in the data. The examples were discussed in detail, with focus on addressing the research questions presented earlier. However, it is worth mentioning that the discussed examples could be used as a means for understanding the unexplained ones that appeared in the data.

A. Direct Advice

In Arabic, the verb نصح /nasʕaħa/ 'advised', or any of its derivations, which have the same semantic meaning, can be used to perform direct advice speech acts. Examples (1) and (2) below illustrate this strategy further.

Example 1:

The Prophet Saleh, in the following Qur'anic verse, gave some direct advice to his people, who refused Allah's message to them. Saleh advised them to accept the message and to follow the right path of Allah. In this regard, the declarative sentence form was used to perform the function of advice. Also, the prophet used the past tense verb نصحت /nasˁaħtu/ 'advised' and the plural noun النَّاصِحِين /ʔnna:sˁiħiin/ 'advisors' to show his people that he had good intentions towards them, and that he had been a true advisor to them, though he said that they did not like advisors. However, the prophet made it clear to his people that what made him advise and guide them was fear and pity for them. Therefore, the benefit of this advice would go to the hearers. The relative power of the speaker, Saleh, as a messenger of Allah, was greater than that of the hearers, the non-believers. The advisor in this case was more powerful, a prophet who was supported by Allah with miracles. However, social distance between the interlocutors was low as both the speaker and the hearers were related to the same tribe, and Saleh was a member of that tribe. Obviously, social distance between the interlocutors was not the decisive factor in determining the choice of strategy in this context. Hence, the selection of direct advice strategy is justified, being based on the supposition that people with high power or authority tend to give advice directly.

Source Text	English Translation
"فَتَوَلَّى عَنْهُمْ وَقَالَ يَا قَوْمِ لَقَدْ أَبْلَغْتُكُمْ رِسَالَةَ رَبِّي وَنَصَحْتُ لَكُمْ، وَلَكِن لاَّ تُحِبُّونَ النَّاصِحِين". (الأعراف:79)	"Then he turned away from them and said: O my people I did certainly deliver to you the message of my Lord, and I gave you good advice, but you do not love those who give good advice". (Al-Araf:79, Shakir translation)

Example 2:

We have been informed in the following Qur'anic verse of the famous temptation story of Adam and Satan. In this regard, Allah the Almighty requested Adam to dwell with his wife in Heaven, and to eat thereof as they both wished, but not to approach a certain tree. Pretending that he was a true advisor, Satan incited Adam and his wife to eat from the Forbidden Tree. The declarative sentence form was used to perform the speech act of advice in this regard. In truth, Satan's advice was no more than an act of temptation and disobedience to Allah's instruction. To justify his direct advice, Satan claimed that Allah had ordered the couple not to approach the Forbidden Tree in order not to become two angels or become immortal. Satan stressed that his advice would bring benefit to Adam and his wife as they would attain immortality if they followed his advice. He even swore to them that he was a sincere advisor to them as he was in Heaven before them, and thus he had better knowledge of this place. In this regard, the direct advice strategy was employed though the advisor had less power than the advisee, who was supported by Allah. Also, social distance between the interlocutors was high as the speech of Satan was addressed to a social superior rather than to a peer acquaintance. Therefore, social distance between the interlocutors was not the decisive factor in determining the selection of the direct advice strategy in this context. However, the choice of the direct advice strategy can be justified, being based on the pretense of Satan that he had knowledge of the secret of the Forbidden Tree, which the hearer did not have. Knowledge in this sense is a source of power in society, and the advisor had knowledge, though it was false. This lends support to the notion that people with high power or authority tend to use the direct strategy in giving advice.

Source Text	English Translation
"فَوَسْوَسَ لَهُمَا الشَّيْطَانُ لِيُبْدِيَ لَهُمَا مَا وُورِيَ عَنْهُمَا مِن سَوْءَاتِهِمَا وَقَالَ مَا نَهَاكُمَا رَبُّكُمَا عَنْ هَـذِهِ الشَّجَرَةِ إِلاَّ أَن تَكُونَا مَلَكَيْنِ أَوْ تَكُونَا مِنَ الْخَالِدِينَ. وقَاسَمَهُمَا إِنِّي لَكُمَا لَمِنَ النَّاصِحِين". (الأعراف:20-21)	"But the Shaitan made an evil suggestion to them that he might make manifest to them what had been hidden from them of their evil inclinations, and he said: Your Lord has not forbidden you this tree except that you may not both become two angels or that you may (not) become of the immortals. And he swore to them both: Most surely, I am a sincere adviser to you". (Al-Araf:20-21, Shakir translation)

B. Indirect Advice

Unlike direct advice, indirect advice in Arabic can be performed without including the verb نصح /nasˁaħa/ 'advised', or any of its derivations, that have the same semantic meaning. In addition, indirect advice usually suggests a situation where the sentence form mismatches its discourse function. Examples (3) and (4) illustrate this advice strategy further.

Example 3:

Giving some advice and guidance to his people, the Prophet Shuaib in the following Qur'anic verse used four positive and negative (prohibitive) imperative verbs. In this regard, the imperative can be used in Arabic to advise the hearers to do something for their own benefit, and at the same time, they are not forced to follow the advice. Here, the prophet's use of the imperatives was intended to give guidance and indirect advice with regards to worshipping Allah, giving just measure and weight, not withholding from people the things that are their due, and finally doing no harm on the earth. However, the relative power of the speaker, as a messenger of Allah, was greater than that of the hearers, the non-believers. Also, social distance between the interlocutors was not high, as both relate to the same tribe, and Shuaib was a member of that tribe. Describing the relationship between the Prophet Shuaib and his people, Allah the Almighty

said that He sent them one of their own brothers. Referring to Shuaib as a brother to his people suggests a close and intimate relationship between the interlocutors. Interestingly, the advice of the Prophet Shuaib was beneficial not only to his people but also to all mankind. In this regard, this universal advice took into consideration some important economic issues. One of these was preserving the economic rights of all people, including the right not to be deceived in any purchasing transactions. The universality of advice in this Qur'anic verse accounts for the use of the indirect strategy in this context. The prophet's advice was very beneficial as it addressed some important financial and commercial transactions, and any breach of which would result in economic crises in the community. In addition, the use of the indirect advice strategy by the prophet is also justified, being based on the belief that indirectness implies optionality. To this effect, the indirect advice strategy was employed to reduce its force and to increase the hearer's optionality. This also lends support to the fact that in Islam mankind is distinguished from all other creatures by their free will.

Source Text	English Translation
"وَإِلَى مَدْيَنَ أَخَاهُمْ شُعَيْباً قَالَ يَا قَوْمِ اعْبُدُواْ اللّهَ مَا لَكُم مِّنْ إِلَـهٍ غَيْرُهُ قَدْ جَاءتْكُم بَيِّنَةٌ مِّن رَّبِّكُمْ فَأَوْفُواْ الْكَيْلَ وَالْمِيزَانَ وَلاَ تَبْخَسُواْ النَّاسَ أَشْيَاءهُمْ وَلاَ تُفْسِدُواْ فِي الأَرْضِ بَعْدَ إِصْلاَحِهَا ذَلِكُمْ خَيْرٌ لَّكُمْ إِن كُنتُم مُّؤْمِنِينَ". (الأعراف:85)	"And to Madyan (We sent) their brother Shu'aib. He said: O my people! serve Allah, you have no god other than Him; clear proof indeed has come to you from your Lord, therefore give full measure and weight and do not diminish to men their things, and do not make mischief in the land after its reform; this is better for you if you are believers". (Al-Araf:85, Shakir translation.)

Example 4:

The following Qur'anic verse, called the 'debt' verse, included four imperatives that were used to advise and guide the believers rather than to command them. In fact, the imperative can be used in Arabic to advise the hearers to do or to refrain from doing something for their own benefit. To this effect, the believers were requested in this verse to write debt contracts, which need to have witnesses present in order to avoid any unnecessary disputes in future. What proves that the imperatives were used to advise and guide, but not to command the believers, is that Allah the Almighty mentioned the benefits of writing debt contracts and having witnesses present. He stated in this regard that this act would help avoid questioning about the honesty of the parties involved in the debt process. In this regard, Allah advises and guides people to do what benefits them, but at the same time, He does not punish them for not following His advice. Therefore, there are some exceptional circumstances, where debt contracts are allowed not to be written. For example, dealers can choose not to write a contract, when they are on a journey and can find no one to write it down. As a matter of fact, power of the speaker, Allah the Almighty, was obviously greater than that of the hearers, and social distance between them was also high. Allah has power over people, and the advice here is meant to benefit all people with regards to worldly matters. However, the selection of the indirect advice strategy can be accounted for on the basis that indirectness is related to the idea of optionality, where the hearer's freedom of choice is increased and the force of advice is reduced. Again, this explanation lends support to the notion that in Islam mankind is distinguished from all other creatures by their free will.

Source Text	English Translation
"يَا أَيُّهَا الَّذِينَ آمَنُواْ إِذَا تَدَايَنتُم بِدَيْنٍ إِلَى أَجَلٍ مُّسَمًّى فَاكْتُبُوهُ وَلْيَكْتُب بَّيْنَكُمْ كَاتِبٌ بِالْعَدْلِ ...اسْتَشْهِدُواْ شَهِيدَيْنِ من رِّجَالِكُمْ ... وَأَشْهِدُوَاْ إِذَا تَبَايَعْتُمْ وَلاَ يُضَآرَّ كَاتِبٌ وَلاَ شَهِيدٌ..." (البقرة:282)	"O you who believe! when you deal with each other in contracting a debt for a fixed time, then write it down; and let a scribe write it down between you with fairness, …and have witnesses when you barter with one another, and let no harm be done to the scribe or to the witness…". (Al-Baqara:282, Shakir translation)

C. Hedged Advice

Finally, the speech act of advice can be performed by using hedging devices, which, according to Hinkel (1994), indicate the speaker's hesitation and uncertainty. Hedging devices in Arabic include words, such as عسى /ʔsa:/ 'perhaps',أخاف /ʔxa:f/ 'I fear', لعل /lʔʕlʔ/ 'maybe', أظن /ʔẓun/ 'I doubt', يبدو /jʔbduu/ 'it seems', and لكن /la:kin/ 'but'. Examples (5) and (6) illustrate this advice strategy further.

Example 5:

The speech act of advice was performed in the following verse by using the imperative sentence type and the hedging device عسى /ʔsa:/ 'perhaps'. Here, Allah the Almighty advised and guided husbands to live with their wives honorably and to treat them kindly. He also advised that if husbands dislike their wives, it may be that they dislike a thing and Allah the Almighty brings through it a great deal of good. The benefit of this advice would go to all men who have patience with their wives. The rule that people may dislike something, though it is good for them, may be applicable to many other things. Indeed, goodness is sometimes achieved in what one dislikes. However, power and status of the speaker, Allah the Almighty, were obviously high compared to those of the hearers, whose knowledge and power were very limited. Social distance between the interlocutors was also high. Yet, though social distance and power of the

speaker were higher than the hearers, the hedged advice strategy was used. The choice of the hedging strategy implies that the thought that people may dislike a thing, while Allah has placed abundant good in it, is not always applicable to all situations. There are some exceptions, which require the use of hedging devices, such as عسى /ʔsa:/ 'perhaps' in this context, a matter that implies the free will of people in Islam regarding the things they may like or dislike.

Source Text	English Translation
"يَا أَيُّهَا الَّذِينَ آمَنُوا لَا يَحِلُّ لَكُمْ أَنْ تَرِثُوا النِّسَاءَ كَرْهًا وَلَا تَعْضُلُوهُنَّ لِتَذْهَبُوا بِبَعْضِ مَا آتَيْتُمُوهُنَّ إِلَّا أَنْ يَأْتِينَ بِفَاحِشَةٍ مُبَيِّنَةٍ وَعَاشِرُوهُنَّ بِالْمَعْرُوفِ فَإِنْ كَرِهْتُمُوهُنَّ فَعَسَىٰ أَنْ تَكْرَهُوا شَيْئًا وَيَجْعَلَ اللَّهُ فِيهِ خَيْرًا كَثِيرًا." (النساء:19)	"O you who believe! it is not lawful for you that you should take women as heritage against (their) will, and do not straiten them in order that you may take part of what you have given them, unless they are guilty of manifest indecency, and treat them kindly; then if you hate them, it may be that you dislike a thing while Allah has placed abundant good in it." (An-Nisa:19, Shakir translation)

Example 6:

The speech act of advice, in the following Qur'anic verse, was performed by using the declarative sentence type, which included the hedging device عسى /ʔsa:/ 'perhaps', repeated twice. Allah the Almighty advised and encouraged the believers to fight in Jihad against their enemy, who transgressed against them and their religion. Though the believers disliked fighting because of its hardship, Allah guided them that it may be the case that they may dislike a thing which is good for them, and that they may like a thing which is bad for them. Allah then said that He knows, but the believers do not know whether things in general are good or bad for them. Indeed, Allah the Omniscient has knowledge of all things that can benefit or harm people. The benefit of this advice goes to all those who follow Allah's guidance. Apparently, power and status of the speaker were high compared to those of the hearers, whose knowledge and power were very limited. Also, social distance between the interlocutors was also high. However, the employment of hedging devices in this Qur'anic verse is justified, being based on the belief that conditions of true fighting were determined by Allah, who encouraged the believers to fight for the good they obtain from fighting if they fulfill its conditions. To this effect, not all fighters are entitled to the reward of fighting as fighting must be in the way of Allah, and within His prescribed limits. The rule that the believers may dislike fighting though it is good for them may apply to many other things in life. Surprisingly, goodness is sometimes achieved in what people dislike. However, always there are some exceptions to this rule, which require the use of hedging devices, such as عسى /ʔsa:/ 'perhaps', in this context. Also, the use of hedged advice implies the free will of people in Islam regarding the things they may like or dislike.

Source Text	English Translation
"كُتِبَ عَلَيْكُمُ الْقِتَالُ وَهُوَ كُرْهٌ لَكُمْ وَعَسَى أَنْ تَكْرَهُوا شَيْئًا وَهُوَ خَيْرٌ لَكُمْ وَعَسَى أَنْ تُحِبُّوا شَيْئًا وَهُوَ شَرٌّ لَكُمْ وَاللَّهُ يَعْلَمُ وَأَنْتُمْ لَا تَعْلَمُونَ." (البقرة: 216)	"Fighting is enjoined on you, and it is an object of dislike to you; and it may be that you dislike a thing while it is good for you, and it may be that you love a thing while it is evil for you, and Allah knows, while you do not know." (Al-Baqara:216, Shakir translation)

D. Summary of Findings

In summary, the analysis of the data revealed that the indirect strategy was the most frequent strategy used to perform the speech act of advice in the Holy Qur'an, compared to the other advice strategies. In addition, the analysis revealed that the hedged strategy was the least frequent advice strategy used in the data. These results suggest that the interlocutors in the Holy Qur'an opted for substantially more indirect advice. This can be well accounted for based on the notion that indirectness is related to the degree of optionality, as argued by Leech (1983). In this regard, the indirect illocution of advice in the Holy Qur'an was used to reduce its force and to increase the hearer's optionality. This conclusion, however, lends support to the premise that in Islam mankind is distinguished from all other creatures by their free will, an essential faith in Islam. Also, the scarcity of the use of hedged advice strategy in the data is justified, being based on the idea that hedging devices prevent direct communication, and religious discourse, including Qur'anic verses, usually tends to be very clear and intelligible to all mankind. The study findings also showed that indirect advice was mainly realized by the imperative sentence type, followed by the conditional. However, the least frequent sentence type used in giving indirect advice was the interrogative. In addition, the study revealed that direct advice was realized only by the declarative, and that none of the identified examples in this regard was of the imperative sentence form. This finding may suggest that there is a tendency in the Holy Qur'an to avoid using the imperative to perform the illocutionary act of advice, though the use of the imperative is believed to be the normal practice that is followed in giving direct advice. Moreover, the analysis revealed that two of the four identified examples of the hedged advice were realized by the imperative, and the other two were realized by the declarative sentence type. Furthermore, the study findings showed that the choice of strategy was greatly impacted by the social variables of distance and relative power between the speaker and the hearer, though context was a determining factor in some cases. Finally, the study indicated that advice given to a social inferior was substantially more frequent than that given to a social superior or a peer, and that relative power and social distance between the social superior, the inferior, and the peer acquaintance were all recognized by the speakers. Nevertheless, advice acts in the data differed from one context to another, depending on

power of the speaker and the hearer. In fact, advice speech acts occurred between people who had different position and power, usually the speaker of the advice had more power than the hearer of it.

V. Conclusion

This study provides a socio-pragmatic analysis of the speech act of advice in the Holy Qur'an. The analysis is based on Searle's (1979) classification of speech acts, and Hinkel's (1994) model of advice. The analysis revealed the following findings: the indirect strategy was the most common type of advice strategies used in the Holy Qur'an, the imperative form was the most frequent sentence type used to give indirect advice in the Holy Qur'an, the choice of strategy to perform advice speech acts was greatly impacted by the social variables of distance and power, and context of Qur'anic verses was a decisive factor for determining this impact in many cases.

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Understanding Putative *Should*: A Semantic Approach

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***Abstract*—Chinese learners of English have much difficulty in understanding putative *should*. This article attempts to find out the cause of this difficulty. It makes a semantic study of sentences with putative *should* used in *that*-clauses, discusses five distinctions between them, and presents a corpus-assisted study of the semantic constraint of factuality accompanying the emotive *should*. It finds that the learning difficulty results from the fuzzy nature of the term 'putative *should*', which fails to adequately describe and explain the five differences. It argues that the teaching and learning of putative *should* should focus on understanding its two distinct uses, the suasive *should* and the emotive *should*, in nominal *that*-clauses. The suasive *should* denotes obligation, applies to something yet to come, and goes with suasive key words in sentences in whose *that*-clauses the present subjunctive can be used instead. The emotive *should* denotes surprise, applies to a personal, psychological, subjective fact, and goes with an emotive element, linguistic or extralinguistic, in sentences in whose *that*-clauses the indicative can be used instead but the present subjunctive cannot. The emotive element can take the form of an emotive word, a negative expression, or even the tone of voice.**

***Index Terms*—putative *should*, suasive use, emotive use, subjunctive**

I. Introduction

'Putative *should*' conveys the notion of a putative situation, which is recognized as possibly existing or coming into existence (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 234,1014; Chalker & Weiner, 2001, p. 325). It is a popular grammatical term used extensively to explain the *should* in sentences like (1) and (2):

(1) It is *essential* that the ban *should* be lifted tomorrow.
(2) It is *strange* that Mary *should* be so late.

Chinese learners of English often have much difficulty in mastering it and distinguishing such sentences.

The three research questions of this article are as follows:

(a) What makes putative *should* difficult for Chinese learners?
(b) Does this term describe and explain adequately the *should* in sentences like (1) and (2)?
(c) If it does not, what term can be used instead?

By saying *describe and explain adequately* in (b), we are applying the two criteria proposed by N. Chomsky to justify a language grammar in *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965, pp. 24-27), namely *descriptive adequacy* and *explanatory adequacy*, to the evaluation of a technical term. We mean that a good technical term should be both descriptively and explanatorily adequate. It should offer an adequate description of and an adequate explanation for the intuition of the native speaker about a particular kind of linguistic phenomenon.

To answer these three research questions, this article will make a semantic study of such sentences as (1) and (2), bring to light five distinctions between them, and present a corpus-assisted study of the semantic constraint of the emotive *should* in the hope of enhancing understanding of its two distinct uses, the suasive *should* and the emotive *should*, in relevant *that*-clauses.

II. Current Description of Putative *Should*

Little adequate practical description could be found on the replaceability of putative *should* by the present subjunctive and the indicative in current English dictionaries and grammar books. They frequently rest content either with listing examples like (1) and (2) without any further explanation, or with labelling the *should* in their examples as 'putative *should*', a practice that may well lead readers to a wrong conclusion that (1) and (2) could each use either the present subjunctive or the relevant indicative instead.

Take *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (LDOCE) and *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (OALD) for example. They are two of the most popular dictionaries with Chinese learners of English. After saying that *should* can be used in British English in a clause beginning with *that* after particular adjectives and verbs, the latest online version of LDOCE gives the following three examples[1], leaving readers to themselves as to what these particular adjectives and verbs are:

[1] 'Should'. (2021). In *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English Online*. Retrieved on December 10, 2021 from http://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/should.

(3) It's *strange* that you *should* say that.
(4) It is *essential* that he *should* have a fair trial.
(5) The residents *demanded* that there *should* be an official inquiry.

Listing these three sentences alone will only adds confusion to readers because, as we will explain later, not only the *should* in them is used in different senses, but *strange* in (3) is quite different in semantic nature from *essential* in (4) and *demand* in (5) as well.

OALD's extended 4th edition says that *should* can be used in a *that*-clause after the adjectives *anxious*, *sorry*, *concerned*, *happy*, and *delighted*[2] (1997, p. 1396). Its latest, 10th edition says that *should* can be used after *that* after many adjectives that describe feelings, such as *anxious* and *astonishing*[3]. However, the lists of adjectives and examples given by OALD are confusing in that, as we will explain later, *sorry*, *astonishing*, and *delighted* are similar to one another in semantic nature but is quite different from *anxious* in syntactic use.

Grammar books are frequently misleading as well. They often present a confusing list of key words that can go with the present subjunctive *that*-clause. For example, Quirk et al (1985, pp. 1223-1224) include *natural* and *impossible*, and Chalker (1984, p. 128) includes *unthinkable*, in their list of adjectives that can take a *that*-clause with either the present subjunctive or putative *should*. Such lists will definitely lead readers to a wrong conclusion that such adjectives as *likely, unlikely, unimaginable, improbable, inconceivable,* and *incomprehensible* are similar to adjectives like *anxious* in semantic nature and syntactic use.

III. Discussion

A. Differences

(1) and (2) are two totally different kinds of sentences semantically in the following five respects.

First, the key words in their main clauses are semantically different. The key word in (1) and (4), *essential*, is in Quirk et al.'s words 'suasive' (1985, p. 1180). Suasive key words are intrinsically words of *wanting* in that they denote a sense of *wanting someone to do something* or *wanting something to be done by someone*. The key word in (2) and (3), *strange*, is emotive. Emotive key words express various personal emotional reactions.

Suasive or emotive, a key word may be an adjective, noun or verb. *Essential* and *anxious* are suasive adjectives. *Sorry*, *strange*, *astonishing* and *delighted* are emotive adjectives. *Demand* in (5) is a suasive verb. *Miracle* in (6) is an emotive noun:

(6) It's a *miracle* that rice *should* grow here.

Second, their *that*-clauses are semantically different. The *that*-clause in (1) is presented as an idea at the MOS (i.e. moment of speech). It is something theoretical and future, something yet to come or to be done. We can understand from (1) that the ban, still in effect now, is yet to be lifted. The *that*-clause in (2) is presented as a fact at the MOS. It is something already in existence or taking place (see 'Factuality' for more on *fact* vs. *idea*). We can understand from (2) that Mary is very late, which the speaker finds very strange. (6) suggests that rice grows here, a fact that the speaker finds both surprising and unexpected.

Third, the modal verb *should* does not mean the same in (1) and (2). In (1) it is suasive in meaning and denotes *obligation*[4]. We can conclude that the speaker thinks at the MOS that the ban *ought to* be lifted tomorrow. Or else the speaker wouldn't have said (1). In (2) it is emotive in meaning and denotes *surprise* on the part of the speaker. We cannot conclude that the speaker thinks at the MOS that Mary ought to be so late.

Unfortunately, this emotive lexical meaning, *surprise*, of putative *should* has not yet been separately identified in many contemporary English dictionaries. For example, OALD did not mention the emotive factor of *should* explicitly until its release of the seventh edition[5], which states that it is 'used after *that* after many adjectives that describe feelings'. In spite of the presence of the vague word *feelings*, it still fails to pinpoint the sense of *surprise*.

Oxford English Dictionary[6] (OED), the only dictionary we have found so far that pinpoints both the emotive use of putative *should* and the factual nature of its *that*-clause, explains that the emotive *should* is found 'in a noun-clause (normally introduced by *that*)' 'in expressions of surprise or its absence, approval or disapproval, of present or past fact'.

Fourth, not both *that*-clauses can take the present subjunctive. It is acceptable to use the present subjunctive instead in (1) but not in (2). In other words, *should* can be omitted before *be* in (1) but not in (2). While (7) is still good English, (8) is not:

(7) It is *essential* that the ban *be* lifted tomorrow.
(8) * It is *strange* that Mary *be* so late.

Quirk et al give a confusing explanation that 'putative *should* + infinitive' is often equivalent to the present subjunctive (1985, p. 234). Michael Swan is among the very few who have explicitly pointed out that 'subjunctives

[2] 'Should'. (1997). *Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary* (4th ed). The Commercial Press & Oxford University Press.
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[4] Cf. Quirk et al, 1985, p. 1015 note [c]; Leech, 1971, p. 109 note d.
[5] 'Should'. (2009). In *OALD Online*. Retrieved on April 18, 2010 from http://www.oup.com/oald-bin/web_getald7index1a.pl.
[6] Simpson, J.A. (2002). *Oxford English Dictionary: Single User Windows Version* (CD-ROM). Oxford University Press.

cannot be used' (2005, p. 513; 2017, section 24, entry 264) in sentences like (8).

Note that there seems to be a remarkable difference between American English and British English in the omission of *should* in (1). In American English, 'no modals or auxiliaries may be used' (Aronson, 1984, p. 76) in the *that*-clause of (7), and using suasive *should* in it is 'less common and may actually strike some people as strange to the point of being foreign' (Kahn, 1985, p. 55), and is considered an 'error' because this *should* is 'a superfluous word' (Lovinger, 2002, p. 400). In British English, where the subjunctive is generally considered formal and rather legalistic in style, '*should* + infinitive' is more often used instead (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 157, 235, 1013; Peters, 2004, p. 498, pp. 520-521). And apart from *should*, some other modals are also possible in British English:

(9) He *demands* that I *shall* tell him everything.

(10) Father's *orders* are that you *must* be home by 10 o'clock.

(11) She *petitioned* the king that her father *might* be pardoned.

To put this difference another way, American English would prefer (7) to (1) to the degree that TOEFL grammar, as in Aronson (1984, p. 76), treats (1) as incorrect, and British English would prefer (1) to (7), with (7), (9), (10) and (11) being equally correct.

Fifth, not both *that*-clauses can take the indicative. Using the indicative instead in the *that*-clause of (1), as in (12), is generally considered especially British English:

(12) I *recommend* that you *do not* disobey your officers.

Acceptable as it is in British English, some people may still consider (12) colloquial, restricted and only marginally acceptable (Quirk et al, 1985, p. 1223). In American English, the indicative in (12) may sound extremely unusual (Kahn, 1985, p. 55), not generally accepted (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1180) and practically considered wrong (Aronson, 1984, p. 76; Lim & Kurtin, 1982, p. 79). Garner (2003, p. 756) calls the indicative in (12) 'slippage' and Lovinger (2002, pp. 399-400) calls such use 'mistakes'.

With (2), however, the indicative in the *that*-clause is a very common alternative to putative *should*, as in (13):

(13) It is *strange* that Mary *is* so late.

There is no significant difference in meaning between (2) and (13) in many cases (Leech, 1971, pp. 108-109; Quirk & Greenbaum, 1974, p. 340).

There does exist a subtle difference of nuance, however, between the indicative (13) and the emotive putative (2). The indicative treats what is said in the *that*-clause as a plain, straight, known, or established fact. Any emotional reaction involved (surprise, regret, wonder, or whatever) is conveyed by the key verb, noun, or adjective in the main clause. In (13), only the key adjective, *strange*, expresses the speaker's surprise at Mary's being late. On the other hand, the presence of the emotive *should* adds extra force to the emotional reaction expressed in the main clause by conveying a sense of surprise and hinting that, judged from common sense, experience, morality, the usual way that something happens or is done, etc, there is an obligation, so to speak, for what is said in the *that*-clause to be otherwise. In (2), both *strange* and *should* combine to express the speaker's surprise at Mary's being late.

B. Factuality

Emotive *should* in sentences like (2) highlights what is said in the *that*-clause as a surprising fact that one is not expected to guess. This is not to say, however, that what is said in the *that*-clause in such sentences is itself necessarily a plain, straight, known, or established fact in its usual sense. It is only to be taken for an assumed or presumed fact. It is what the speaker assumes or presumes to be a fact. Such a fact is a psychological, subjective one, whose factuality may well vary from person to person:

(14) A: It is *strange* that John *should* have left without saying goodbye.

B: Well, he does sometimes act quite unsociably when he is in one of his moods.

(15) 'It is a *pity* that you *should* go back to work so soon,' he said half to himself. 'You are only just better; and it is easy to lose what one has gained.'(Harraden, 1893)

(16) 'In that case,' she went on, 'it is a *pity* that you *should* leave New York. However, I shall be delighted to have you with us. I understand, the difficulty is in closing.' (Grove, 1927)

(17) A: I'm *surprised* that Jack *should* have felt lonely when he was in California.

B: Well, he wasn't really lonely. He was only a bit nostalgic.

In (14), it may be regarded as a fact in its usual sense that John left without saying goodbye, a fact which speaker A finds strange but speaker B does not. In (15) the presumed fact that *you* (*Bernardine*) are going back to work soon is something that is yet to come but is accepted as true by *him* (*Robert Allitsen*) at the MOS. In (16) the presumed fact that *you* (*Mister Branden*) are leaving New York is something future but is again accepted as true by *her* (*Mrs. McMurchy*). In (17), the presumed fact in the eyes of speaker A that Jack felt lonely when he was in California is not accepted as true by speaker B.

C. Semantic Constraint of Emotive should *on Key Words*

What makes a presumed fact surprising, thereby justifying the presence of the emotive *should* in the above-mentioned *that*-clauses? The answer is whatever can render an utterance emotive!

Emotive nouns, verbs and adjectives can evidently do that because of their intrinsic emotive denotations. But opinions sometimes vary on words indicating likelihood, possibility, probability, credibility, comprehensibility, etc.

(especially those indicating unlikelihood, incomprehensibility, and incredibility), and words indicating what is usual, natural, or normal (especially those indicating what is not usual, natural, or normal). We find that they can also make a presumed fact surprising. They are emotive, or at least not suasive, in their actual present-day use. The reason may well be purely psychological: people tend to appear much surprised, dismayed, etc. when they encounter something unexpected or beyond their imagination or understanding.

Take *unthinkable* for example. We searched the British National Corpus (BNC) for *<w AJ0>unthinkable <w CJT>that* and found, as Table 1 shows, that none of its 33 sentences is present subjunctive. From the absence of the present subjunctive and the presence of the various modal structures, especially the modal perfective structures, we can safely conclude that the adjective *unthinkable* is not suasive in current use:

(18) We regard it as almost *unthinkable* that Parliament *should* have authorised the Serious Fraud Office to continue the exercise of inquisitorial powers against the accused not merely after he had been charged but also (as Mr. Pleming accepts and asserts) throughout his trial. (BNC. FBW. 310[7])

TABLE 1
Unthinkable That in BNC

Verb patterns in the *that*-clause	**Occurrences**
Present subjunctive	0
Should do	16
Would etc. have done	4
can etc. do	13
Indicative	0
Total occurrences in BNC	33

In (18), we can clearly feel that Parliament had done something much unexpected and surprising.

We had also searched the OED Corpus of Historical English once available at Prof. Mark Davies' personal website http://davies-linguistics.byu.edu/personal/ for *unthinkable that* long before, and found only two instances, neither of which suggests *unthinkable* has any suasive overtones:

TABLE 2
UNTHINKABLE THAT IN OED CORPUS OF HISTORICAL ENGLISH

1993	Warhammer 40,000: Space Mar...	**Unthinkable that** this anomaly might be due to a misspeaking of the orthodox surgical liturgy!
1998	Radical Pragmatism vi. 140	Teilhard felt it to be **unthinkable that** the hope for the future of noogenesis would be unfulfilled.

Some verbs, such as *believe*, *imagine*, *know*, *think*, and *understand*, are neither suasive nor emotive in themselves, but when used in the negative, they may carry similar emotive overtones to those of *unthinkable* and become emotive verbs:

(19) We *didn't expect* that she *should* come so early.

(20) I *don't think* that he *should* say so.

(21) We *never thought* that she *should* be the brave girl we have heard so much about.

The reason for their emotive connotations is still that people tend to appear much surprised, dismayed, etc. when they encounter something unexpected or beyond their imagination or understanding.

Even the tone of voice (or the more general term *context*) alone can also evoke a sense of surprise. Without any emotive key word discussed so far, the emotive *should*, not the suasive *should*, is found in the following exclamatory *that*-clauses[8]:

(22) Oh, that I *should* see a child of mine arrested for selling drugs!

(23) To think that I *should* ever do such a thing!

D. Leech and Others' Opinions on Semantic Constraint

Leech (1971, p. 109) points out that it would not be possible to say (24) and that (25) should be said instead:

(24) The fact that man *should* destroy his environment worries us deeply.

(25) The idea that man *should* destroy his environment worries us deeply.

He and quite a few other scholars argue that in (24) the use of the word *fact*, which indicates the *that*-clause is a fact, is semantically incongruous with the use of the word *should*, which indicates the *that*-clause is not a fact – according to them, putative *should*, suasive or emotive, invariably conveys that what is said in the *that*-clause is presented not as a *fact*, but as an *idea* (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 234, 1014; Ek & Robat, 1984, p. 276). Their argument might have hit the wrong note in the use of emotive *should*, and is highly implausible in the following two aspects.

[7] *FBW* is the text id; *310* is the sentence number.

[8] This use of the emotive *should* is often considered idiomatic in such exclamatory *that*-clauses in that the indicative cannot be used instead. It is similarly used, idiomatically, with questions and statements involving *wh*-words, to express surprise:

How should *I know?*

Why should *he think that?*

I turned round on the bus and who should *be sitting behind me but my ex-wife.*

On the one hand, it keeps too much to the letter of the lexical, literal difference between *fact* and *idea*, and fails to recognize that, as explained in 'Factuality' above, the emotive *should* applies to a psychological, subjective fact on the part of the speaker. Such a presumed fact may finally turn out to be a hard fact, and it also may not. Whether or not it turns out to be a hard fact does not play a decisive role in the use of the emotive *should.*

On the other hand, it fails to recognize that what makes the emotive *should* possible is the presence of an emotive element in the sentence. As explained in 'Semantic Constraint of Emotive *Should* on Key Words' above, this emotive element may take the form of an emotive key word in one way or another, or even of the tone of voice. It conveys a personal emotional reaction and intrinsically needs, if need be, a *that*-clause that is psychologically or subjectively factual on the part of the speaker. When people make an emotional reaction, they are reacting to what they see, feel, etc., what they assume or presume to be a fact. In both (24) and (25), what justifies the use of emotive *should* is the emotive verb *worry*. In (25), it is not the noun *idea* that justifies the emotive *should*.

Our corpus findings based on the BNC also show that (24) is just as acceptable. We searched for *<w AT0>the <w NN1>fact <w CJT>that*, with *should* on its right. Of all the 288 hits, 17 involve a *that*-clause with the emotive *should* (see Table 3 below). The fact that 16 of them are written English reminds us that the co-occurrence of *fact* and the emotive *should* is good English. In three of them, there is not even any emotive key word (EKW) available: the tone of voice, or the context, functions as the emotive element:

(26) First is the fact that the same person should be so highly regarded by one English department while being accused of engaging in 'discredited intellectual enquiry' in another; second is the fact that the failure to offer a tenured post to an English teacher at Cambridge should provide the occasion for such unparalleled radio, television, and newspaper coverage of English studies. (BNC. EWR. 1316)

(27) The fact that Opposition Members should regret the fact that my right hon. Friend is in Rome, shows how little attention they pay to defence and NATO matters. (BNC. HHV. 932)

(28) She guessed he was probably still staring after her, but she didn't care then about anything but the fact that he should have such a low opinion of her. (BNC. JY1. 1648)

TABLE 3
FACT WITH EMOTIV SHOULD IN BNC

Text ID	SN	EKW	Medium	Domain	Genre	Spoken
ANR	498	strike	BK	WOA	BIOG	FALSE
CE7	244	outraged	BK	WOA	NONA	FALSE
B1T	85	irony	BK	SOS	NONA	FALSE
B23	2104	hard	BK	SOS	NONA	FALSE
EWR	1316	/	BK	SOS	NONA	FALSE
H9F	415	surprising	BK	SOS	ACAD	FALSE
H9F	700	surprising	BK	SOS	ACAD	FALSE
HXG	939	surprising	BK	SOS	ACAD	FALSE
EF0	1210	remarkable	BK	BET	RELI	FALSE
H0A	1695	worry	BK	WRL	BIOG	FALSE
JY1	1648	/	BK	IMA	FICT	FALSE
JY5	968	resent	BK	IMA	FICT	FALSE
HHV	932	/	MP	WOA	HANS	FALSE
CC9	69	joy	MU	BET	MWRI	FALSE
CKL	581	irony	PE	WRL	LORE	FALSE
J39	503	deplore	PE	APS	MWRI	FALSE
HDU	268	irony		BIZ	SPEE	TRUE

Notes:
SN=Sentence No.; EKW=Emotive key word; BK=Book; MU=Miscellaneous unpublished; MP=Miscellaneous published; PE=Periodicals; False=Written English; True=Spoken English

IV. CONCLUSION

Where putative *should* used in *that*-clauses is concerned, Chinese learners' difficulty in mastering it lies in their failure to understand that there are two distinct uses of putative *should* and that there are five differences between such sentences as (1) and (2) in meaning and use. The term 'putative *should*' fails to adequately describe and explain those differences between them, which learners of English should know if they wish to master them. Putative *should* falls into two distinct uses, the suasive *should* as in (1) and the emotive *should* as in (2), in nominal *that*-clauses. The suasive *should* denotes obligation, applies to something yet to come, and goes with suasive key words in main clauses, in whose subordinate *that*-clauses the present subjunctive can be used instead. The emotive *should* denotes surprise, applies to a

psychological, subjective fact, and goes with an emotive element, either linguistic or extralinguistic, in main clauses, in whose subordinate *that*-clauses the indicative can be used instead but the present subjunctive cannot (but cf. note 8). The emotive element can take the form of an emotive word, a negative expression, or even the tone of voice. Therefore, we suggest that, in teaching and learning sentences like (1) and (2), the terms 'suasive *should*' and 'emotive *should*' be used instead of the term 'putative *should*'.

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A Study on Ameliorating Indian Engineering Students' Communication Skills in Relation With CEFR

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***Abstract*—In the globalized world, English is known as the International language. The engineering professionals have to possess good communication skills to be successful in their career. Communication skills have become one of the employability skills in current scenario. The communication skills of today's engineering professionals are considered to be in the beginner level (in Tamilnadu, India) in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) that is to test the ability of individual's language proficiency. This may be due to the lack of interest in enriching the listening and speaking skills. This study focuses on enhancing the standard of the communication skills by improving the listening and speaking skills.**

***Index Terms*—communication skills, CEFR level, grammar translation method, language proficiency, listening, speaking, and productive learning**

I. Introduction

"Communication" plays a significant role in the professional field. It has its influence in all fields and in our day- to-day lives. Communication a vital part plays a key role which is essential for an individual to survive. It is used to encourage, connect, share, knowledge gaining etc. If there is no clear communication there persist misunderstandings. In reality, the significance of communication is not known by many. If everyone is aware of the word 'Communication", they will realize its importance and impact. Communication means sharing of ideas, thoughts, information, etc, (Kumar Sanjay & Lata Pushpa, 2011). Without sharing, data analysis, survey, new invention, innovation etc. are not possible. That is without communication there is no progress in any field. Consequently, to be successful in life and career, one should possess good communication skill.

The language for communication has to be chosen according to the person to be communicated with. If one wants to go for a universal language, which leads to the worldwide opportunity and success, there comes the global language "English." Consequently, everyone wants to excel in communication. The same is the case of the budding engineers too.

This study has been made on the basis of the engineering syllabus of Anna University, Tamilnadu, India and also discusses how far it is helpful for the students to enrich their communication skills.

II. Literature Review

Grammar Translation Method (GTM) produces students with a good mastery of English grammar. But they may perhaps lack in using English effectively in oral communication. In contrast students speaking ability is lined up over grammatical competence in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Here the emphasis is on achieving both fluency and accuracy in communication (Hymes, 1966).

There is unanimity that English for Specific Purpose (ESP) course curriculum should be designed in light of a needs analysis (2016). Yet, astonishingly, there are very few discussions in light of data on the curriculum development and evaluation of the curriculum in ESP.

It is pointed out by Prensky (2001) that the present time learners are different from those of the past where current curricula, tools, and methods have not subsisted up to their changes and expectations.

Shelley et al. (2013), after analyzing the findings of 37 studies that have tested computer assisted language learning, concluded that technology-enhanced L2 teaching is equally effective when compared to L2 teaching without technology. Furthermore, the findings of some studies included in their meta-analysis have shown that technology-enhanced L2 teaching has resulted in better outcomes than L2 teaching without technology.

Second language acquisition refers the speaker‘s ability in using a second language effectively and functionally in a truthful communicative setting. ‘Functional ability would depend largely on context’ is agreed by Language scholars and linguists (Bagaric & Djigunovic, 2007).

To meet learners’ needs, the use of technology in education can be adjusted Crawford (2002). Research has shown that utilizing technology in L2 teaching and learning has provided evidence of effectiveness on language learning. Advanced solutions are there for several language learning issues.

Tarvin (2014) synthesizes the various interpretations of communicative competence into a single, contextually relevant, definition –the ability to use language, or to communicate, in an appropriate manner not only to make meaning but also to accomplish social tasks with efficacy and fluency through extended interactions. A non-native English speaker is judged to have acquired communicative competence if a person could convey his/her ideas correctly and fluently in culturally acceptable situations.

Alzeebaree and Hasan (2020) conclude that the broadly used language in the world is English. It is the language of Preeminence. Because of the rapidly increasing growth in science and technology, trade, and international relations, etc., the world has become a small city having English as its primary language

III. Importance of Communication Skills for the Modern Engineer

Many comparative analyses have shown the outcome of most graduates that they have analytical and problem solving skills, domain specific knowledge and key decision making abilities through their domain engineering degrees. Communication skills of many candidates had improved according to their engineering education (Marc, 2007). Due to the globalization of world markets, the emergence of English as the first language of engineering worldwide has required that graduate engineers be well equipped with not only technical knowledge but also communicative competence. This is because their success in their professions lies on them having a good command of English language (Rajprasit et al., 2014).

Moreover, as Sheth (2016) contended, employers are no more interested in looking for engineering nerds who would spend their working hours busy with calculators and machines. Rather, preference is given to those who are capable of using English for efficacious communication, expressing ideas clearly within the purview of workplace communicative events. However, many reports have shown that despite the expertise of graduate engineers in their practical oriented disciplines, a vast number of these professionals lack the English speaking skills necessary for technical discussions, business negotiations and daily conversations with foreign counterparts and customers (Gashaye 2015; Singh & Kaur, 2019).

How could the budding Engineers hone their communication skills? As communication is a valuable enhancer of their career, one has to pay key attention. Employers need engineers with congenial communication skills. The candidates who pursue engineering degree have technical proficiency to execute their career. The company expects the candidates to communicate their outcome with others in a diligent manner.

They assume most people who graduate with an engineering degree have the technical expertise to perform their jobs. In today’s world, it is essential for an engineer to acquire effective communication skills which is to be considered as one of the determiner of success in one’s professional career. To impress the employers the engineers should posses an effective communication skill to complete a task. To reach a good height in business and be successful effective communication is indispensible. To establish a strong rapport between employees, communication is needed.

A. Syllabus Designing

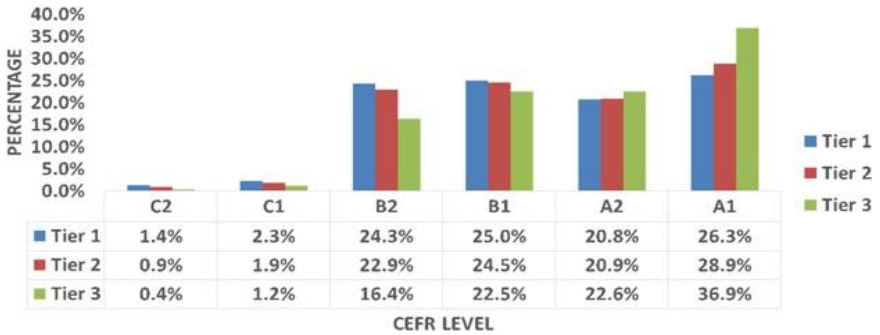
Helping students develop communication skills is one of the main focuses in engineering education. Because English has been adopted as the lingua franca in engineering, improving student scores on standardized English tests is often recognized as central for global communication education. In lieu of this, Engineering syllabus is designed after minded the problems faced by the engineers and the need for the effective communication skills. To explain, Anna University, Tamilnadu, India syllabus is taken here. In the present syllabus, students are having Communicative English and Technical English paper in their first two semesters and also have three English labs (Interpersonal Skills – Listening and Speaking, Advanced Reading and Writing, Professional Communication) in the following semesters in second and third year. Importance is given for the four macro skills- Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing (LSRW). Each unit has topics in Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing, Language and Vocabulary development. In the third semester, they are having Interpersonal Skills- Listening & Speaking lab, fourth semester Advanced Reading Skills and in fifth semester Professional Communication Lab.

The syllabus highlights the macro skills Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing. But, the students are still lacking in communication skills. Now a big ‘WHY’ appears in our mind? The reasons are: Though LSRW are included in the syllabus, there are no processes to evaluate and test Listening & Speaking skills during the end semester examination. It focuses much on Writing and Grammar. Reading skill has got a little focus too. Consequently, practicing the listening and speaking modules are procrastinated. The reasons for the lack of effective communication skills are explicit now. Urban students with their strenuous effort master in those skills. Majority of the students fail to excel the macro skills and they are not able to communicate effectively.

Even though the number of University, Colleges, and Programs are increasing, the lack of quality in education also exists. The way of imparting education usually differs according to the place of domicile (Tier 1 Company – Urban and Tier 2 Company – Semi-urban, and Tier 3 Company – Rural).

Basically the Tier 3 areas have the insufficient infra structure for developing specific knowledge in particular skills especially in Listening and Speaking Skills. Though the syllabus is being updated regularly by the Governing bodies for Education, the students lag in Communicative skills. Though Bloom's Taxonomy and performance indicators are encouraged in Teaching – Learning process, the students are not able to meet out the CEFR level particularly in Listening and Speaking Skills while they pursue their higher studies and go to work in abroad.

Due to the lack of communication skills, the students are not able to join in a reputed Multi National Corporation (MNC). As they have to communicate with international customers, lack of communication skills becomes a big obstacle in their career. In the same way soft skills are also ignored in educational institutions. To know more about the level of engineering students in CEFR level a survey was conducted by Times of India and is quoted below. A survey was conducted at 2019 among 1,50,000 students (India Today - 16).



	C2	C1	B2	B1	A2	A1
Tier 1	1.4%	2.3%	24.3%	25.0%	20.8%	26.3%
Tier 2	0.9%	1.9%	22.9%	24.5%	20.9%	28.9%
Tier 3	0.4%	1.2%	16.4%	22.5%	22.6%	36.9%

Figure 1 Indian Engineering Graduates Level in CEFR for Languages

B. Common European Frame Work of Reference (CEFR)

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) is to test the ability of individual language proficiency. The CEFR framework describes language communication competencies at six specific levels: A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2 which can also be categorized into three levels: Basic User (A1 & A2), Independent User (B1 & B2), and Proficient User (C1 & C2). Each level is described using a set of Can-do statements that specify what the learners of a language are capable of in particular situations and contexts where communication takes place. Such statements are also called descriptors. Can-do statements not only can be utilized to assess a learner's communication level in specified situations and contexts but they can also identify learner's communication goals that must be attained for particular situations and contexts. The six CEFR levels have been further subdivided into sublevels (for example, A1+ or B1+) in practical uses of CEFR-based references (Cambridge University Press, 2013). With the help of CEFR the employers and educational institutions can easily compare our qualifications to other exams in their country.

IV. Background of the Study

To explore the research lacuna between the syllabus designing and engineering graduates' communication skills, a pilot study has been made. For this study, Normative Survey Method has been used. Normative survey method analyzes and describes what exists at present. They are concerned with existing condition or relations, prevailing practices, beliefs and attitudes etc. Such investigations are termed in research literature as Descriptive Survey or Normative Survey. The term Normative implies the determinations of typical conditions and practices. The term survey suggests the gathering of evidences related to prevailing conditions or practices.

A. Research Objectives

The objectives of the study are:

1. To find out the reason for the students level in CEFR level by learning the prescribed syllabus.
2. To suggest with the suitable methods to improve the learning standard to meet the CEFR proficiency level.
3. To understand the influence of the Computer-Based Technologies in developing the sample respondents' language skills.

For the study, a questionnaire was prepared and was administered to the students of Engineering Colleges Affiliated to Anna University and Autonomous Engineering College under Anna University in different locality.

B. Research Hypotheses

For the analysis, two hypotheses are framed.

1. A significant relation exists between the effective use of English Language Lab and enhancing the LSRW Skills of the sample Respondents.

2. There is a significant relation between utilization of Computer-Based Technologies and acquiring English Language Skills (LSRW Skills).

C. The Questionnaire and Data Collection

For the study, a questionnaire was prepared and was administered to the students of Engineering Colleges Affiliated to Anna University and Autonomous Engineering College under Anna University in different locality. The questionnaire consists of 22 questions. The questions are about the sample respondents' personal details, their knowledge about CEFR level, their standard in LSRW skills, and the same with the utilization of English lab and Computer- based technologies. Nearly 500 respondents were selected for the study.

D. Data Analysis

After gathering the questionnaires the results of each respondent were checked. Out of 500 sample respondents 481 responses were received and 467 responses (97%) were taken into account for correlation. Pearson's product correlation is used to determine the significant relation between enriching students LSRW Skills and usage of CBT's and English Lab. The collected data was analyzed with SPSS software. For this paper data purification method implies that it has no missing data, no out layers and normality is between -1.96 to + 1.96. It has 95% confident interval.

E. Results and Discussion

To visualize the impact of English Lab and Computer-Based Technologies in enriching the LSRW Skills, the data collected from the sample respondents were analyzed on the basis of the hypothesis framed by the researcher.

N–Total number of sample respondents

To satisfy hypothesis 1, correlation has been made between question 20 that is about the utilization of English lab and the questions 9, 11, 13 and 15 which are about the LSRW skills. The table given below shows the correlation.

TABLE 1
IMPACT OF ENGLISH LAB ON LSRW SKILLS

		Capable of understanding classroom lectures	Capable to communicate in English	Ability to read and comprehend text books	Able to convert Lectures into notes
English Lab_ LSRW Skill	Pearson Correlation	.274**	.345**	.335**	.223**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	467	467	467	467
Note. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					

Pearson product correlation of lab utilization and output of understanding classroom lecture is found to be low positive and statistically significant ($r = .274$, $p < 0.001$). The correlation for the use of English Lab in enriching the capability to communicate effectively is found to be low positive and statistically significant ($r = .345$, $p < 0.001$). The correlation for the extended use of English Lab in enriching the ability to Read and Comprehend the text books are low positive and statistically significant ($r = .335$, $p < 0.001$). Pearson product correlation for the extended use of English Lab in enriching the Writing Skill – converting lectures into notes is also found to be low positive and statistically significant ($r = .223$, $p < 0.001$).

The correlation is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed). It is understood from the above table that the effective use of English lab enhances the sample respondents Listening, Speaking, Reading & Writing Skills. Hence H1 was accepted.

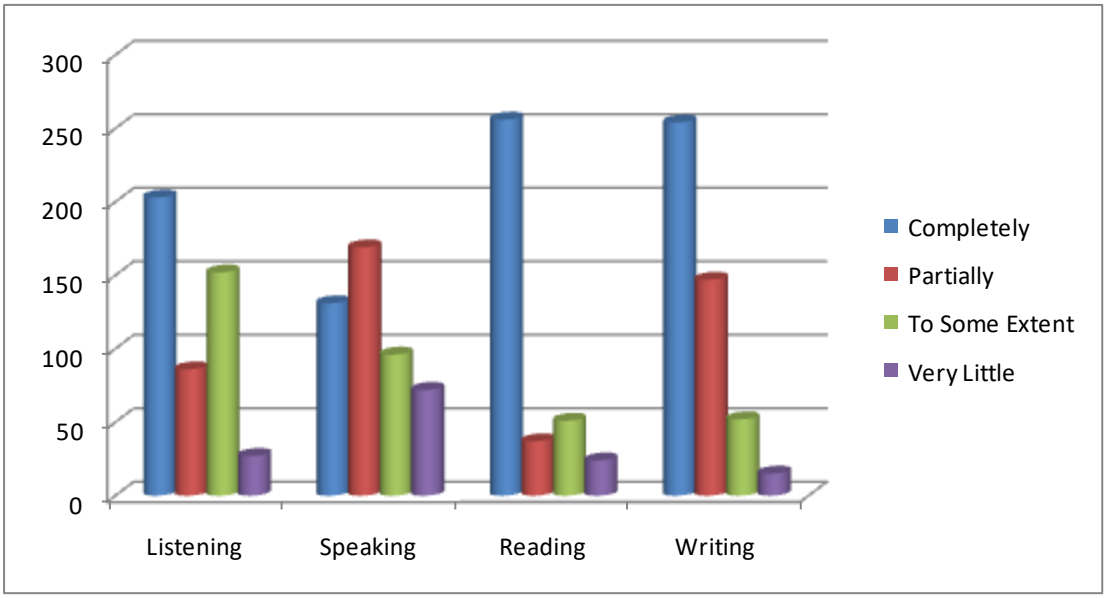


Figure 2 Respondents' Stand in LSRW Skills

The Figure 2 shows that the number of students who have given the responses completely and partially is low in listening and speaking skills when compared with reading and writing skills. At the same time, the responses for to some extent and very little are high in listening and speaking when compared with that for reading and writing. If the listening and speaking skills are enhanced with an extended and regular utilization of English lab, the responses of completely and partially for listening and speaking will also increase. This has been proved in the correlation too. It also results in rising of the student's level in CEFR.

To satisfy hypothesis 2, correlation has been made between question 19 that is about the effective use computer-based technologies and the questions 10, 12, 14 &16 which are about the LSRW skills. The table given below shows the correlation:

TABLE 2
RELATION BETWEEN CBT AND LSRW SKILLS

		CBT - Listening	CBT – Speaking	CBT - Reading	CBT - Writing
CBT_LSRW_Skill	Pearson Correlation	.162**	.383**	.235**	.267**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	467	467	467	467

The correlation of Computer – Based Technologies and output of Listening skill is low positive and statistically significant ($r = .162$, $p < 0.001$). The correlation with CBT in enhancing the Speaking Skill is found to be low positive and statistically significant ($r = .383$, $p < 0.001$). The Pearson product correlation for the CBT in enhancing the Reading Skill is low positive and statistically significant ($r = .235$, $p < 0.001$). Likewise, the correlation for the extended use of CBT in enhancing the Writing Skill is low positive and statistically significant ($r = .267$, $p < 0.001$). The correlation is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed). From the above table, it is inferred that the effective use of CBT's enhances the sample respondents Listening, Speaking, Reading & Writing Skills. Hence H2 was accepted.

Pearson product correlation clearly shows that the continuous use of Computer-based Technologies has a positive impact on the sample respondents in converting the classroom lectures into notes and found to be low positive and statistically significant.

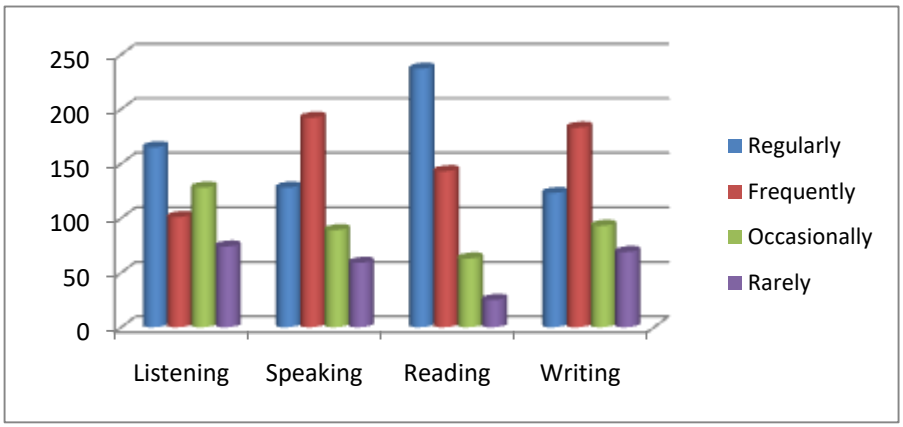


Figure 3 Sample Respondents' LSRW Skills With Relation to CBT

It is clear from Figure 3 that the responses for listening are less when compared with that of reading. The options completely and partially are high in reading and to some extent and very little are high in listening. It is inferred that much importance is given for reading and less is for listening. At the same time, the responses for speaking and writing are more or less same. Obviously, it is the result of the exercise varieties provided by CBT. It may be interesting to the students and attract them. If the practice for listening is increased, listening skill will be enhanced. Naturally, it results in the improvement of students' standard in CEFR level.

TABLE 3
ENGLISH LAB AND PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH

		English Lab	Proficiency in English
English Lab	Pearson Correlation	1	.365**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	467	467
Proficiency in English	Pearson Correlation	.365**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	467	467
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

It is known from the above table that English Lab plays an effective role in enriching the sample respondents' proficiency in English. The correlation is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Pearson product correlation clearly shows that the effective use of English Lab has a positive impact on the sample respondents.

TABLE 4
ENGLISH LAB IN ENRICHING THE VOCABULARY

		English Lab	Vocabulary
English Lab	Pearson Correlation	1	.365**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	467	467
Vocabulary	Pearson Correlation	.365**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	467	467
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

From the Table 4, it is clear that English Lab plays an effective role in enriching the sample respondents' vocabulary. The correlation is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed).Pearson product correlation shows that the effective use of English Lab has a positive impact on the sample respondents' vocabulary.

TABLE 5
ENGLISH LAB AND STUDENTS' ABILITY IN CLEARING THE ENGLISH COURSES

		English Lab	Clearance of English course
English Lab	Pearson Correlation	1	.066
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.152
	N	467	467
Clearance of English course	Pearson Correlation	.066	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.152	
	N	467	467

The table 5 explicit the efficient utilization of the English Lab has enriched students' ability in clearing the English Courses such as: BEC/IELTS/TOEFL since Pearson product correlation is significant (2- tailed).

The table 6 proves that most of the students were not aware of the CEFR level. They usually realize it when they go to abroad for higher study and work. Knowledge in using Computer-Based Technology will help them to improve their LSRW skills. The correlation is given below.

TABLE 6
CBT AND RESPONDENTS' CEFR LEVEL

		Computer-Based Technology	Awareness about CEFR
Computer-Based Technology	Pearson Correlation	1	.028
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.549
	N	467	467
Awareness about CEFR	Pearson Correlation	.028	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.549	
	N	467	467

As Pearson product correlation is significant (2- tailed), it can be assumed that Computer-Based Technology has a positive role in improving the students' level in CEFR level.

V. FINDINGS

The sample respondents' responses and the correlations made the researcher prove the fact that English Lab and Computer-Based Technologies have a positive impact on enriching the LSRW skills. Computer and Internet plays the dominant role in the English Lab. There students get a chance to learn at their own pace with the assistance of their faculty. Moreover, there are plenty of softwares which are useful to learn the communication skills such as Globarena and ODLL. These softwares are installed in the English Lab for the students. When students practice the exercises in these software's during their English Lab, they get a chance to enhance their communication skills. Apart from the regular classes, these softwares try to educate in a different and interesting way. Practice exercises are given in different forms. Drag and drop, choose the right one, True or False, Listen and catch the word, Listen and do the Role play, etc.

The modules have separate practices for Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing. Sample exercises are also given. The students can repeat the exercises for multiple times. As they learn in their own time and way, this may become interesting to them. That is the reason for the positive result that was attained in the correlation Table 1 and the Figure 2 explicit the same.

The same is the case of Computer-Based Technologies too. Once the students start using the Computer-Based Technologies for learning, thousands of materials and websites are available for them. They also become familiar with the up to date development and changes in the learning process. When compared to English lab, CBT can provide a variety of exercise modules. As softwares are installed for the English lab, students have to practice the same exercises again. In CBT, they may go for various websites and get variety of exercises. In this way, when looking for foreign opportunities for their higher studies and work, they naturally know about the CEFR for languages and means to reach the right level. Online learning modules, whether free or paid, are available for them. Thus, if they know how to utilize the Computer-Based Technologies in the apt way, they can easily be successful in their goal.

As discussed earlier the engineering syllabus has been designed to hone the students' communication skills. If every chain of the wheel runs smoothly, what may be the reason for the student's standard in CEFR level. Thinking ahead of this for a while is needed here. This may be due to the absence of efficiency in learning process.

One may realize this in many aspects. For example, Question paper pattern, the way of conducting lab exams, handling the English lab hours, etc. Let us see some facts in a detailed way. In English, topics are there for LSRW skills. At the same time, the question pattern for the end semester exam focuses only on writing, reading and grammar part only. As a result, the necessary focus is not given to listening and speaking skills. The main focus is obviously given to score good marks. Students attend the English lab with the mind set of scoring minimum marks. Most of the students are not interested to actively participate in the LSRW activities during the lab hours. For example, Listening – Listening for the main idea, Speaking – Participating in the conversation, Group Discussion, Reading – Reading the articles and providing the answer, Writing – Report writing, Letter writing.

This is the reason for the "Times of India report- 2019." They give their main focus for attaining marks instead developing communication skills. This becomes a big threat for them when they appear for the Tier 1 companies and applying for the foreign universities. As English is a second language, students try to neglect the opportunities for acquiring knowledge whenever the chance is available. To overcome this, the instructors may use interactive tasks, which can be implemented within a productive method of teaching to develop students' communication skills. The productive method is the method of teaching that involves usage of various interactive teaching technologies and electronic educational resources. In engineering the following interactive teaching technologies are applicable: problem-based discussions and debates, role-playing games, written tasks related to the future professional activities of students, storytelling, and collaborative learning.

VI. CONCLUSION

Based on the findings, this study recommends an effective use Computer-Based Technology and English Lab on communication skills for undergraduate students as a measure to fill in the identified communication vacuum between students with work place expectation and higher studies meet outs. There is a strong need for learning materials that are more in sync with the needs of the present generation engineering professionals. In the learning process, the topics prescribed in the syllabus are highly interactive and will trigger to meaningful communication. Here, equal importance is given for the LSRW skills. Instead of neglecting listening and speaking skills, if equal focus is given to the four skills, students' language skill will be improved and resulted in the hone up of effective communication. Hence, students' standard in CEFR level will be raised automatically.

APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Name of the student :
2. Gender : Male/Female
3. Medium of instruction up to Hr.sec :
4. Place of domicile : Rural/Urban/Semi-urban
5. Name of the college in which studying? : ----------
   Branch of study : ----------
   Year of study : ----------
6. Do you have a plan of pursuing your higher studies in abroad? Yes /No ☐ ☐
7. Are you aware of Common European Framework (CEFR) level? Yes/No ☐ ☐
8. Have you attempted /cleared any English Courses such as :BEC/IELTS/TOEFL.

Listening

9. To what extent are you capable of understanding classroom lectures?
   a) Completely c) To some extent
   b) Partially d) Very little
10. How often do you use Computer-Based Technologies to enrich your listening skills?
   a) Regularly c) Occasionally
   b) Frequently d) Rarely

Speaking

11. To what extent are you capable to communicate in English inside the classroom?
   a) Completely c) To some extent
   b) Partially d) Very little
12. How often do you make use of the technologies to enrich your speaking skills?
   a) Regularly c) Occasionally
   b) Frequently d) Rarely

Reading

13. To what extent are you able to read and comprehend your text books?
   a) Completely c) To some extent
   b) Partially d) Very little
14. How often do you attempt to read and understand Internet sources?
   a) Regularly c) Occasionally
   b) Frequently d) Rarely

Writing

15. To what extent are you able to convert the classroom lectures into notes?
   a) Completely c) To some extent
   b) Partially d) Very little
16. How often do you use computer for preparing essay/presentation/project typing?
   a) Regularly c) Occasionally
   b) Frequently d) Rarely
17. How confident are you about your proficiency in English?
   a) Regularly c) Occasionally
   b) Frequently d) Rarely
18. How confident are you about your vocabulary?
   a) Regularly c) Occasionally
   b) Frequently d) Rarely
19. What extent do the Computer-Based Technologies help you to acquire English language skills?
   a) Great extent c) Limited extent
   b) Some extent d) Not applicable
20. To what extent does the English Lab enhance your LSRW Skills?
   a) Great extent c) Limited extent

b) Some extent d) Not applicable

21. How far are you able to follow the online Practice test to enrich your LSRW Skills?

a) Great extent c) Limited extent

b) Some extent d) Not applicable

22.What do you think as the advantage of learning through Computer-Based Technologies?

a) Absence of teachers and fellow students c) Self-learning through repetitive drills

b) Learning at a convenient pace and time d) Not applicable

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Developing Tasks to Foster Thai Students' Willingness to Present in English

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***Abstract*—It is evident that there are many factors that influence degrees of willingness to present among second language (L2) learners. Within the current context, less proficient students have shown clear signs of reluctance to deliver presentations in English language classrooms. Based on the researchers' assumption and previous existing literature, there are two variables (i.e., topics for presentation and preparation time for presentation) central to the phenomenon situated. This article describes a pilot study which investigated to what extent a speaking task designed on the basis of two key factors (i.e., speaking topics relevant to students' background knowledge and extended preparation time) produces a positive impact on Thai students' degrees of willingness to present in English. Under study, 15 undergraduates in a Thai university were encouraged to deliver a presentation about a secret tourist attraction in their city. Flipped learning was also adapted and utilized as an approach that offered students more preparation time to deliver their presentations. Findings gained from students' written reflections and a willingness to present scale demonstrated that students' degrees of willingness to present were positively influenced by the task design. Pedagogical implications are also provided in this study.**

***Index Terms*— willingness to present, speaking tasks, flipped learning, L2 speaking**

I. Introduction

Speaking is considered to be a salient aspect of second language (hereafter L2) education as mastery of speaking skills facilitates the language learning process (Lee, 2019; Riasati, 2018; Shen & Byfield, 2019). Among many language learners, this key attribute brings about increased opportunity for L2 practice and authentic use of L2. Competence in English speaking skills also serves as a priority for many learners as they generally measure their degree of success based on their improvement in speaking proficiency (Riasati, 2018). Thus, it is of particular significance to encourage learners to communicate in English effectively.

Within the current context, it was observed that beginner learners at CEFR A2 level proficiency were less confident to make presentations in English communication skills course classrooms when presented with an opportunity. To elaborate, the students did not do well in their presentations. This evidence was witnessed in their presentation performance. Many students often gained 6 out of 10 points for their presentations practiced in English communication skills classrooms. Within the current context, the number situated above is considered an indicator of a low degree of willingness from students to give presentations (McCroskey, 1992).

It was also discovered that many students were reluctant to volunteer to talk in front of the class and to exchange ideas with their peers. Thus, the researchers used a scale of willingness to talk (see APPENDIX A for further details) adapted from McCroskey (1992) to lend support to this view. In the scale, there is a set of questions that allows the investigators to measure the students' degrees of willingness to present in English. The students' willingness to deliver English presentations was gauged by means of three levels: low, medium, and high. In this study, we employed these three levels as there is no concrete means of measuring students' willingness to make presentations available (McCroskey, 1992; Pattapong, 2013; Riasati, 2018). The best way to measure willingness to make presentations relies on student awareness of approaching or avoiding the initiation of making presentations. Therefore, we adapted the scale from the previous literature (i.e., McCroskey, 1992; Pattapong, 2013; Riasati, 2018) to measure willingness to deliver presentations in English of Thai students. In each level, we assigned 1 point to a situation in which students showed a low degree of willingness to present, 2 points to a situation in which they demonstrated a higher degree, and 3 points to a situation where they showed a very high degree. In this study, a mean score of 2.00 out of 3.00 was established as an

acceptable degree of willingness to give presentations among the students. From the scale, it was revealed that the students felt less willing to give presentations in English language classrooms (mean score 1.60 out of 3.00, SD 0.73).

It is assumed that there are two factors that influence students' willingness to deliver presentations in English language classrooms. Firstly, it was witnessed that some tasks originally designed to enhance students' speaking proficiency were not relevant to their background knowledge. As the students in this study came from the discipline of history, it is reasonable to claim that the topic discussed could be considered irrelevant to their background knowledge. Secondly, it was discovered that preparation time provided for students to perform a presentation task was quite limited. To elaborate, all students were given an opportunity to present an advertisement for a product within a 1 hour 30 minute period of time. In this regard, a group of three to five students had approximately 30 minutes to prepare for a 10-minute presentation. Obviously, this evidence suggests that two factors, namely presentation topics and planning time, may impede less proficient students' delivery of presentations in an English classroom context.

To alleviate the problem situated above, the aim of this study is to develop a task that takes into account familiar topics and preparation time to enhance degrees of willingness to present in English among Thai students. Previous literature (e.g., Riasati, 2018; Shen & Byfield, 2019) has supported that higher levels of willingness to deliver English presentations allow students to gain more exposure to practice in L2 English and authentic language use. Additionally, this key element assists in facilitating the learning process of L2 English students. This study aims to answer the following research question:

To what extent does the task designed, based on familiar topics and preparation time, contribute to the students' degrees of willingness to deliver presentations?

This study was conducted in the hope that findings will provide useful insights into how to promote L2 students' willingness to present, which is an important characteristic of effective communication (Riasati, 2018).

II. Literature Review

The purpose of this study is to examine whether tasks developed in accordance with two factors (i.e., preparation time and topics associated with students' discipline of history) foster the initiation of making presentations in English. In this section, theoretical concepts regarding the two attributes assumed to have influenced the students' willingness to present are thus discussed in detail. For convenience, relevant issues are structured and elucidated as follows.

A. Willingness to Deliver Presentations in English Classrooms

Willingness to present in English classrooms refers to a situation in which students are willing to approach the initiation of giving presentations and sharing ideas with their peers and teacher (McCroskey, 1992; Riasati, 2018). There are various characteristics of students' behavior that help identify their degrees of willingness to deliver presentations. In other words, students have higher degrees of willingness to deliver presentations when they volunteer to give a presentation in front of the class, answer when the teacher asks a question, help other classmates answer questions, or exchange ideas in class (McCroskey, 1992; Pattapong, 2013; Riasati, 2018).

There are many factors that contribute to willingness to present among L2 learners. Riasati (2018) proposed that topics of discussion and classroom atmospheres are largely attributable to students' motivation to talk in an English classroom context. A study by Lee (2019) revealed that L2 self-confidence and anxiety emerge as primary sources of influence on L2 learners' willingness to talk. Riasati and Rahimi (2018) further support that topics of discussion and classroom atmospheres are significant in enhancing students' degrees of willingness to deliver presentations.

Within the context of Thailand, Pattapong (2013) showed that Thai students' willingness to give presentations is due to various variables. She further demonstrated that task design is considered to be a salient aspect that influences L2 students' willingness to present. There are two key attributes that affect students' predisposition toward approaching or avoiding the initiation of making presentations. The first attribute involves the topic of a task. The other variable emerging as a key source of influence on students' willingness to present is the preparation time given for a task. Syed and Kuzborska (2019) also indicated that topics and opportunity are two important variables that influence L2 learners' willingness to present in a classroom context. In order to facilitate students' willingness to talk in English, it is important for teachers to take into account such variables. Therefore, from the studies reviewed above, it can be concluded that a particular task implemented in an English-speaking classroom affects students' willingness to present in English. In this study, it is assumed that students' levels of willingness to present are influenced by the task designed. More importantly, preparation time and topics provided for students to deliver presentations have the potential to facilitate degrees of willingness to present in an English language classroom. As such, the assumption under study is established based on this theoretical background.

B. Flipped Classroom Approach

This study developed a speaking task to facilitate higher degrees of willingness to present among Thai students. As noted earlier, two factors have been assumed to have influenced students' degrees of willingness to make presentations. The first factor involves insufficient preparation time, and the second factor deals with topics that influence students' willingness to deliver presentations in an English language classroom.

In this study, the flipped classroom approach has been adapted so that students are given more preparation time to deliver presentations on topics that are relative to their background knowledge. Thus, this study has provided discussion regarding the notion of the flipped classroom approach and how this approach produces a beneficial effect on learners' speaking ability.

The flipped classroom approach has gained popularity among L2 scholars in the past few years (Bergmann & Sams, 2012; Hung, 2017). Initially implemented in a chemistry course of Bergmann and Sams (2012), the flipped classroom has provided beneficial effects for many L2 educators (e.g., Chen Hsieh et al., 2016; Hung, 2017; Suranakkharin, 2017). Within the flipped learning condition, students are given exposure to various modes of classroom activities, while they are provided with video lectures for out of class time. Learning materials can be made available online by teachers or can be sourced from YouTube or other similar resources. In contrast, students under traditional approaches to instruction are engaged in lectures during class time. Students within the traditional classroom are assigned to do homework activities out of class time. Previous literature has shown that flipped learning proves to be highly beneficial to the language learning process (e.g., Hung, 2017; Suranakkharin, 2017). First, the flipped classroom offers students more time to engage in learning content. Second, the flipped learning provides teachers with more time to stimulate learners using a wider variety of interactive and enhanced classroom activities. Figure 1 provides a clearer account of the difference between the traditional and flipped classrooms.

Figure 1. Comparison Between Traditional Classrooms and Flipped Classrooms (University of Washington, n.d.)

As illustrated in Figure 1, students taught using the traditional approach are mainly exposed to a lecture during class time. However, students taught using the flipped classroom approach are engaged in a lecture delivered electronically. Homework activities designed for students in the traditional classroom are assigned to be completed outside of class time, whereas learners in the flipped classroom are provided more time to do interactive activities with their peers and teacher. This essential attribute allows teachers to spend less time delivering lectures and more time facilitating and supporting students (Bergmann & Sams, 2012; Hung, 2017).

In L2 pedagogy, previous literature has provided support for the success of employing the flipped classroom approach. A major reason for its benefits is that students are offered more time to learn the content outside of class time and to do interactive classroom activities with peers and teachers during class time. More time is allowed for students to learn content and to do classroom activities, which ultimately helps enhance the language learning process. Much previous research has lent support for the success of using the flipped classroom approach to facilitate students' speaking ability. For example, Wang et al. (2018) investigated the effects of using flipped instruction based on Massive Open Online Course (MOOC) on beginner Chinese learners' oral proficiency development. The findings revealed that learners taught using the flipped classroom approach showed significant progress in oral proficiency. Additionally, the students in the flipped classroom showed more out of class time investment in the learning process. These students had more positive attitudes toward the course taught through the flipped classroom approach. Therefore, it is clear that more outside of class time offered to students under flipped instruction helps develop their speaking proficiency.

A seminal investigation carried out by Hsieh et al. (2016) further supports the implementation of flipped instruction to promote students' speaking ability. Participants were exposed to learning English using the LINE smartphone application. The findings illustrated that flipped instruction motivated the participants to engage in oral interaction, which ultimately encouraged them to become more active speakers in class.

From the literature reviewed, it can be concluded that the flipped classroom approach provides more preparation time for students and is an important source of influence on their willingness to present. Accordingly, this study has taken into account the flipped classroom approach to facilitate the current students' levels of willingness to deliver presentations in English.

III. Methodology

Task design is regarded as an essential attribute for success in learning English (Kanoksilapatham & Suranakkharin, 2019). This study thus aimed to develop a speaking task that would allow students to gain higher degrees of willingness to present. The task under study was developed in accordance with two fundamental principles. First, a topic for the task was considered associated with students' background knowledge. This notion was proposed based on the assumption that speaking topics students are familiar with will foster higher degrees of willingness to give presentations (Pattapong, 2013). Second, the task offered students more preparation time before they had to deliver presentations in class. This

concept was framed within the flipped classroom approach. Previous literature (e.g., Hsieh et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2018) regarding L2 pedagogy has shown that flipped learning produces a positive impact on the language learning process. This study thus adapted flipped learning to provide students with more preparation time outside of class time to do the speaking task during class time.

To gain a thorough understanding of the methodology process, this section initially describes the participants of this study. Then, an explicit description is given of how the task was constructed. The section also explains the procedure for implementing the task in a flipped classroom. This section ends with a detailed account of the data collection and analysis.

A. Participants

In this study, 15 Thai sophomores from the discipline of history participated. The current participants' English language ability was specified as CEFR A2 Level. They signed up for the subject of English Communication Skills, which was designed to motivate them to communicate in English more effectively. This English course was offered on a 2 hours and 30 minutes per week basis. During class sessions, the students were encouraged to practice their speaking skills for approximately 1 hour 30 minutes. As discussed, preparation time given in a task is assumed to be a crucial factor that affects students' willingness to present. The topics for presentations are assumed to be less relevant to the students' background knowledge or their discipline of history.

This group of students was selected to take part in this study on the basis that the task designed with respect to previous literature would help them advance their speaking skills.

B. Instrument

In this section, the development and implementation of the task are explained. This study developed a task to promote students' willingness to deliver presentations in an English classroom. The task adapted from Hendra et al. (2019, p. 30) was administered for only a single period of time. In this study, a presentation topic that was related to students' background knowledge was selected. In this respect, the speaking topic *Secret Spot* was chosen for the participants. This topic was considered appropriate for the students because it is associated with their discipline of history. Figure 2 illustrates how the task was constructed.

Time to Speak
Secret Spot

(Hendra et al., 2019, p. 30)

Step 1 (During class time)
Discussion
Look at the pictures and talk in a group of 3-5 people. Do you think these places are popular with tourists? Which one would you like to visit the most? Why?

Step 2 (Outside of class time)
Research
In the same group, think of an interesting place in your city that tourists might not be familiar with. You can go online for ideas. Then, prepare a presentation about the interesting spot. Use the information below or any other information. Students are given approximately one week to prepare for this speaking task.

Further information includes:
How do you get there?
Is it important to make a reservation before you go?
Do you need to bring anything with you?
What is the best way to get there?
What activities should you do when you arrive there?

Step 3: (During class time)
Present: Give your presentation about the secret spot to the class (7-10 minutes). All students are encouraged to ask questions. This will help to promote higher degrees of willingness to give presentations among students.

Figure 2. The Speaking Task

This task was examined for content validity. That is, it was sent to two researchers in the fields of English language teaching and applied linguistics to determine whether it was relevant to the target students' background knowledge and thus was able to motivate them to present with more confidence.

The study adapted flipped learning as an instructional method that allowed students to perform the task with extended preparation time. As presented in Step 2 in the task above, the flipped classroom approach provided the students with more outside of class time to prepare for their actual presentation in the classroom. This group of students was thus given more time to give presentations and share ideas with their peers and teacher.

In this study, the students' written reflections (see questions for this instrument in APPENDIX C) were gathered as another source of data. The scale of willingness to give presentations was also employed to describe the students' degrees of willingness to present after the implementation of the task (see APPENDIX B for further details).

C. Data Collection and Analysis

This study aimed to investigate to what extent the task developed promoted students' willingness to make presentations in an English classroom. The participants were asked to answer questions designed specifically to measure their levels of willingness to present. The questions were grouped into two main themes: extended preparation time and topics for presentation. To measure the students' degrees of willingness to present, the scale adapted from previous studies (McCroskey, 1992; Pattapong, 2013; Riasati, 2018) was administered. The scale required the students to identify a level of low, medium, or high for a particular statement (see APPENDIX B for further details of the scale). An acceptable level of willingness to present was established as equal to a mean score of at least 2.00 out of 3.00. In this study, the researchers sought permission from the students. Specifically, the objective of this study was explained to the students, and they were informed that this study would not affect their final grades.

IV. Results and Discussion

This study aimed at developing a speaking task based on two variables (i.e., extended preparation time and familiar topics) to promote students' degrees of willingness to deliver presentations. The data were gathered from students' opinions toward their willingness to present after the implementation of the task. The willingness to present scale was also administered to measure the students' degrees of willingness to present in English. For convenience, the findings are organized as follows.

A. Students' Opinions toward Willingness to Give Presentations

In this part, the findings are categorized into two factors: preparation time and topics for presentation.

1. Preparation Time

Based on the findings, the students stated that they were provided with more preparation time to give a presentation. Preparation time is a key factor that encourages students in the classroom to speak in English with more confidence. As one student stated, "More preparation time for all speaking tasks help me speak English better. Because I am not good at English, I feel more motivated to speak English when I am provided with much preparation time." One student further expressed that "speaking tasks will be easier if I am given more preparation time. This will make me more confident in speaking English in the classroom." The findings seem consistent with Pattapong (2013) and Lam (2019) in that students feel more confident performing speaking tasks with extended planning time than those without extended planning time.

Under flipped instruction, more time allowed for students to learn content and do classroom activities ultimately aids in fostering the language learning process. Previous literature supports the success of employing the flipped classroom to enhance students' speaking ability. For example, Wang et al. (2018) revealed that students instructed using the flipped classroom approach demonstrate significant progress in speaking performance. Students in the flipped classroom also show more out of class time investment in the learning process. As discussed, it can be concluded that more out of class time provided for students in the flipped classroom helps enhance their speaking performance.

2. Topics for Presentation

The participants pointed out that the task design matched their backgrounds (i.e., proficiency and field of study). This also affected higher degrees of willingness to present among the participants.

As one participant indicated, "The task is interesting to do because the topic seems to be related to my field of study. Thus, I feel more confident in speaking English when doing the speaking task." Another participant expressed that "I enjoy doing a speaking task that I feel familiar with. I like to do speaking tasks relevant to my everyday life. And speaking tasks should be suitable to my proficiency, too." One of the participants also stated that "I do a speaking task better when it is not too difficult. Also, I do a speaking task quite well if it is related to my field of study." The findings concerning speaking tasks concur with those of Pattapong (2013) in that tasks designed in accordance with students' backgrounds (i.e., proficiency and a specific field of study) help establish higher levels of their willingness to deliver presentations.

B. Students' Degrees of Willingness to Give Presentations

In this study, 15 students were selected to provide opinions associated with their willingness to give presentations after the implementation of the task. Again, there were four questions embedded in the willingness to present scale (see APPENDIX B for further details). The first two questions encouraged the students to identify to what extent the task with extended preparation time fostered their levels of willingness to deliver presentations. The other two questions aimed at exploring whether the topic they were familiar with helped promote their willingness to give presentations. The findings are outlined as follows.

1. Preparation Time

The students were asked to identify a particular situation that best represented their level of willingness to present from a scale of low, medium, and high.

As discussed, there were two questions designed to measure whether preparation time was considered a key indicator of the students' willingness to deliver presentations. In this study, a mean score of at least 2.00 out of 3.00 was considered a good indicator of willingness to present among the students. The results showed that the current students were willing to present when they were prepared. Also, more preparation time motivated them to give presentations with confidence (a mean score of 2.67; SD 0.49).

The findings of this study are consistent with those of Lam (2019) in that students feel more comfortable to do speaking tasks with extended planning time than those without extended planning time. To elaborate, tasks that allow more preparation time help enhance students' motivation to present in English. In this study, the flipped classroom approach had been adapted to promote students' willingness to give presentations. The students were given more preparation time before they delivered actual presentations in the classroom. This evidence suggests that more preparation time outside the classroom plays a key role in supporting a higher degree of willingness to present among students. A study by Chen Hsieh et al. (2016) further supports the implementation of flipped instruction to promote students' speaking ability as they proposed that flipped instruction helps engage students in oral interaction, which ultimately motivates them to become more active speakers in an English language classroom.

2. Topics for Giving Presentations

Again, there were two questions specifically designed to investigate whether preparation time served as an important indicator of students' willingness to deliver presentations. The findings demonstrated that the students wanted to talk about a topic they were familiar with and interested in (a mean score of 2.60; SD 0.51). From the findings, it is suggested that topics for presentations play a pivotal role in promoting students' willingness to give presentations in an English classroom context. These findings have been supported by several other researchers. For example, Pattapong (2013) proposed that students' motivation to talk in English is affected by task design. More concisely, if students do not find the topic of a particular speaking task interesting or relevant to their lives, they are probably going to be reluctant to reach the initiation of giving presentations.

V. Pedagogical Implications

This study has pedagogical implications in several respects. First, this study provides insights into how to design a task that facilitates students' degrees of willingness to present in English language classrooms. As demonstrated in the findings, tasks with extended preparation time motivate students to give presentations in English. In addition, topics for presentations are considered to be a key source of influence on L2 students' willingness to deliver presentations. Therefore, teachers who encounter the same type of teaching problem may adopt the suggestions offered in this study to develop tasks that truly motivate students' willingness to present in an English language classroom.

Previous literature revealed that degrees of willingness to present are influenced by situational variables, for example, interlocutors, topics, and perceived opportunities (Syed & Kuzborska, 2019). Riasati and Rahimi (2018) further support that there are several factors (e.g., topics of discussion, effects of interlocutor, and classroom atmospheres) identified as having an impact on students' willingness to present. Thus, teachers may design speaking tasks based on such contributing factors to help promote students' willingness to present in English.

VI. Conclusion

This study developed a task with the aim of promoting students' willingness to give presentations. The task developed to enhance levels of willingness to present among the participants took into account two variables. The former variable involves preparation time given for students to give a presentation. The latter variable deals with topics for presentations. Specifically, the task topic of Secret Spot was deemed to be relevant to the students' background knowledge.

The data were collected through students' written reflections and the use of a scale that allowed them to identify their levels of willingness to present. The findings display that the task developed based on the factors of preparation time and topics for presentations has the potential to promote students' higher degrees of willingness to give presentations.

This study has some limitations. First, this study focused special attention on the effects of the task on the students' degrees of willingness to give presentations. Further studies should investigate whether the same task type produces an effect on students' speaking proficiency. Researchers could also examine how different types of tasks promote speaking

proficiency among L2 learners. This study was carried out on a single period of time basis. Replicating this study may bring about different research results. Specifically, researchers may spend an entire semester investigating the effects of this type of task on students' willingness to present or speaking ability. Previous research has identified the various benefits of using technology to promote learners' language learning. Thus, it is important for teachers to engage students in self-initiated use of technology to promote their willingness to present or their speaking proficiency outside of the classroom (Lai & Gu, 2011).

APPENDIX A. WILLINGNESS TO PRESENT SCALE (FOR TEACHERS)

Directions: This willingness to present scale intends to gain information regarding students' willingness to present in English. In each type of situation, indicate 'low', 'medium', or 'high' that best represents students' willingness to talk. It should be noted that Low = 1, Medium = 2, and High = 3.

Thematic questions	**Willingness to present scales**		
	Low = 1	Medium = 2	High = 3
1. Volunteer to talk in front of class			
2. Volunteer to answer when the teacher asks a question			
3. Want to help other classmates answer a question			
4. Want to present opinions in class			

APPENDIX B. WILLINGNESS TO PRESENT SCALE (FOR STUDENTS)

Directions: This willingness to present scale intends to gain information regarding your willingness to present in English. In each type of situation, indicate 'low', 'medium', or 'high' that best represents your willingness to talk. It should be noted that Low = 1, Medium = 2, and High = 3.

Thematic questions	**Willingness to talk scales**		
	Low = 1	Medium = 2	High = 3
Preparation time			
1. I want to talk about a topic when I am prepared.			
2. I want to talk about a topic with confidence when I am prepared.			
Total			
Speaking topic			
3. I want to talk about a topic I am familiar with.			
4. I want to talk about a topic I am interested in.			
Total			

APPENDIX C. AN OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONNAIRE

Directions: This set of questions has been prepared to gain your opinions toward your degree of willingness to present in an English classroom. Write answers for the following questions.

1. *Did the teacher give you more time to prepare for the task regarding the Secret Spot?*
2. *Do you think more preparation time allowed for a particular task motivates you to present in an English language classroom?*
3. *Did you find the task interesting to do? Does it match your field of study?*
4. *Does the task assigned encourage you to present in the classroom?*

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The Metaphorical Conceptualization of Love in English and Arabic Songs: A Contrastive Study

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***Abstract*—This study examined the metaphor of love conceptualization in English and Arabic emotional songs. It aimed to contrastively analyze the construct of the love metaphor in the two languages based on the theoretical framework of conceptual metaphor proposed by Lakoff (1987, 1993), Lakoff and Johnson (1980), and Turner and Lakoff (1989). Content analysis was applied to analyze a corpus of 200 songs was randomly chosen for various Arab and English singers, and all these songs were qualitatively and quantitatively analyzed. The study found that the conceptualization of the love metaphor is common in both English and Arabic. Also, 19 themes of love metaphor representation have been revealed. Structural metaphor topped other types of metaphor in which the themes of journey, magic, madness, and unity were found to be used most. Moreover, love as a nutrient, person, and captive had more occurrences in ontological metaphor. However, English songs have cited very limited cases of orientational metaphor, Arabic songs have not had any cases which might be contributed to the rarity of using place prepositions to reflect someone's orientation. Arabic songs have emphasized the themes of fluid, fire, and place compared to the English songs that have highlighted the themes of magic, madness, war, and game.**

***Index Terms*—English and Arabic songs, cognitive metaphor, contrastive analysis, love metaphor**

I. Introduction

Metaphor is not just superficial ornamentation of language but also a means for human beings to express thoughts hard to express ordinarily through domains of experience, i.e., abstract and concrete domain. Understanding how metaphor is used may help us understand better how people think, how they make sense of the world and each other, and how they communicate (Cameron, 2003, p. 2). Thibodeau et al. (2019) ascertain that metaphor is likely to assist people to comprehend complex topics, communicate effectively, and affect others. Also, Callies and Zimmermann (2002) add that these metaphors come from our daily experience and knowledge of the world around us. Quite research has been conducted on the construct of metaphor in the English language. However, there is a deer need to understand the construct of metaphor across languages to learn more of this figurative speech of language in terms of universality, variations of metaphor, fields of contrast, and justifications. To the researcher's best of knowledge, very limited contrastive research on the construct of metaphor across English and Arabic languages has been conducted. Therefore, the current study aims at understanding the metaphorical images in both Arabic and English love songs and finding out the similarities and differences between the two languages in using the metaphorical expressions. It also seeks to figure out whether the usage of these metaphors is universal or culture-specific.

II. Literature Review

In the cognitive linguistic view, metaphor is defined as understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain (Kövecses, 2003, p. 4). In their book: *Metaphors We Live By* 1980, Lakoff and Johnson were the pioneer linguists who gave decisive insights into the cognitive theory of metaphor. They explained that some verbal metaphors reflect conceptual metaphors. For example, ideas are food such as saying what she said left a bad taste in my mouth, the saying here is depicted as a thing that can be tasted which is a metaphor (Forceville, 2003). Besides, Lakoff (1993) defines metaphor as a poetic linguistic expression in which one or more concepts are utilized outside of their normal conversation meaning to express a similar concept. Reddy (1979), demonstrated that ordinary English is mainly metaphorical and used to conceptualize the world, while Barcelona (2000), added that metaphor is a cognitive concept in which one experiential domain is mapped onto another experiential domain and the second domain is understood based on the understanding of the first one.

Various views had been put forward for describing the concept of metaphor. For example, Aristotle considers it as a kind of decoration and adds nothing to the discourse (Gibbs, 1994, p. 74). Slingerland (2004) considers it as a special extraordinary language. By contrast, the new views of metaphor differ clearly from the old ones. That is, the current approaches look at metaphor as an authentic part of language and necessary in language and thoughts (Gibbs, 1994; Johnson, 1987; Lakoff, 1987; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Further, Katz (1996) explains that expressions could be

understood as metaphorical by the listeners when their deep or real meaning is different from the surface one, for example, this car is a beast.

According to Ortony (1979), there are three communicative functions for metaphor; the first one is that the metaphor can allow the person to express what he/she feels which is difficult to be expressed in literal uses of language; metaphor gives more space to one to express freely about what one wants to say. The second one is that metaphor might establish a principally compact means of communication. In addition, metaphors may succinctly convey much information. The third function of metaphor according to Ortony is that metaphor may help capture the vividness of the phenomenal experience because metaphors convey chunks of information more than the literal language does. In addition, metaphor can paint a richer and more detailed picture of our objective experience more than the linguistic units do. Metaphors have been studied as a part of everyday language and thought; ordinary people use metaphors unconsciously and automatically without noticing that they use them. Metaphors are like tools everybody uses them unconsciously with a little effort that hardly can be noticed; metaphors are an integral part of our everyday language and thought.

Some theories had been established over time about metaphors, and about how we interpret these metaphors. The first theory came out by Aristotle, who viewed metaphor based on objective similarities between the objects related by metaphors. He explained that metaphor is powerful when it emphasizes a subtle intrinsic similarity between two things that are not generically related. Aristotle's theory considered metaphor to be an elliptical simile which designates an X is Y can be directly transformed to an X is like Y. However the metaphors of this form of mapping are not interpreted as implicit similes, but they also involve more complex mapping between the source domain X and the target domain Y. Black (1985) presented the interaction theory; in this theory, the source and the target of metaphor are considered as a system of beliefs rather than an isolated word. In the same manner, Kittay (1990) presented the perspectival theory which assumes that metaphor operates when providing perspective on the target domain; the metaphor gives a perspective for understanding the target domain which is metaphorically portrayed. On other hand, Mack Cormac (1977) argued that the cognitive view of metaphor should combine speech acts, semantic, emotive, cultural, and contextual aspects into a metaphor theory. Moreover, metaphor consists of three layers: surface, semantic, and cultural levels.

We move now to the most common theories about metaphor by George Lakoff and Mark Johnson (1985); both of them did a lot of works about metaphor. They argue that many of the speakers' conceptual systems are inherently metaphorical, and the metaphorical nature of our activities could not be understood by using everyday linguistic expressions. They consider metaphor as means of understanding one domain of experience in terms of the conceptual structure of another domain. Lackoff (1985) explained that metaphor is not a matter of mere language, but it is a matter of thought and cognition. Lackoff abandoned the Aristotelian view of metaphor as an application of one thing of the name belonging to another. Moreover, Lackoff and Johonson (1985) argued that metaphors are an integral part of our knowledge and consequently cannot be easily explained in terms of our communicative competence.

Multiples studies have been conducted in the field of metaphors (Deignan, 2003; Hoffman & Kemper, 1987; Kövecses, 1991; Lakoff, 1987; Lakoff & Kövecses, 1983). The main claim of these attempts is that human emotions are strongly expressed by metaphorical expressions. However, this claim is based on English studies, and it is not confirmed to be universal or not. Thus, a comparison endeavor will be conducted between English and Arabic metaphorical expressions to either agree with this claim or not. In the same line, Ortony and Fainsilber (1987) added that it is difficult to achieve a clear description of some feelings by using only literal words and metaphorical expressions could provide quality manifestations of these expressions. Thu (2019) studied the metaphorical expressions of love in the late 20th century English songs, and findings showed that English metaphorical expressions are divided into three conceptual metaphors; structural, ontological, and orientational. Also, the analysis revealed that structural metaphors occurred in the highest frequencies while orientational was the least used metaphors.

The subject of metaphor has been the heart of many studies in the cross-cultural field, some of these studies investigated the ways of understanding the metaphorical expressions, and others studied the similarities and differences among cultures. However, the Arabic field of research still lacks a solid understanding of metaphor from a cognitive approach despite some previously achieved studies. Hence, this endeavor is trying to pave the way for better understanding Arabic metaphorical terms of conveying the emotions of love expressions compared to English counterparts. The objective of the study is going to be discussed based on the cognitive metaphor theory established by Lakoff and Johnson in 1980.

According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), conceptual metaphors are divided into three types: structural metaphors, orientational metaphors, and ontological metaphors. These types are explained as follows:

1. Structural metaphors structure a target domain in terms of a source domain. For example, I defended my argument; in this case, the argument is the target domain and war is the source domain. For more explanation, some examples for such this mapping are explained below:

The argument is war: I defended my argument
Life is a journey: He had a head start in life
Theories are buildings: We have to construct a new theory
Ideas are food: I can't digest all of these facts.

In these examples, we can notice and understand the formula easily by providing an example for each of the models which are considered as a correspondent between A and B.

2. Orientation metaphors; these metaphors are based on spatial orientations. That is, they are understood based on our experience in the space. For instance, happiness emotions always make the person feel up and sadness emotions make him feel down.

HAPPY is UP;
I'm feeling *up*.
SAD is DOWN
I'm feeling *down*.

Western culture considers the mind as a container for information so the information goes in the path inside the brain so the ''in'' orientation is considered as positive and out is negatively evaluated. More is up and less is down depending on the physical experience that shows a rising level of something like adding water to a glass or adding objects to a pile.

Examples:

This river is *over*200 meters wide
Profits are *below* expectations
The temperature has *gone up*

Here, the quantity can correlate with both the vertical and horizontal dimensions like adding sand to a pile will make the level of quantity extension vertical as well as horizontal, so the more is up and less is down serve and map only the part of the structure of physical space onto abstract domains.

3. The third type of metaphor is the ontological metaphor, which is when we give shape to an abstract notion such as time, idea, inflation, and emotion. The people's experience of the physical objects in life is the basis for picking out parts of these experiences and dealing with them as separate entities; which is the way of viewing activities, events, ideas as entities (Lackoff & Johnson, 1980). The next example (a mind is a machine) shows that the mind is treated as an entity which is the machine that grinds out things.

For example:

We're still trying to *grind out* the solution to this equation.
My mind just isn't *operating* today.

Based on the review of literature, there is very little research conducted on contrastively analyzing the construct of love metaphor in English and Arabic songs. Therefore, the current study aims at understanding the metaphorical images in both Arabic and English love songs and finding out the similarities and differences between the two languages in using the metaphorical expressions. It also seeks to figure out whether the usage of these metaphors is universal or culture-specific.

III. Methods

Data

A. Corpus-based Approach

The researcher adopts the corpus-based approach as a method of compiling the required data and as a basis of analysis and description due to its high popularity. This approach is known as corpus linguistics and is defined as the study of language through the use of the collection of texts or parts of texts (Meyer, 2002). This endeavor is conducted to compile corpora for providing authentic data which will, in turn, improve the description and analysis of the structures of language in a natural context. Internet is considered a wealthy and valuable resource to gather the data of the corpus. As for the size of the corpus, there are no ideal or fixed rules for determining the size of any corpus to achieve study objectives, However, the common rule is bigger corpus is more reliable and a smaller corpus is less reliable (Abdulrazaq, 2011). To ensure the representativeness of the corpus, 200 songs lyrics divided into 100 for English and 100 for Arabic songs were investigated. These songs lyrics were randomly gathered from online websites. These songs were chosen based on their love genre for various English and Arabic singers. The data were analyzed based on conceptual metaphor theory and following Barcelona's methodology (Barcelona & Soriano, 2004). This methodology works as a cross-cultural comparisons parameter for the metaphorical expressions in different languages.

B. Motif

Songs are chosen to be the data of this study due to some factors; first, these songs are the best medium to deliver the emotions of love, second, they are widely heard by a big ration of people not only youth since the corpus comprises of old and new song's lyrics. Reviewing some empirical background about metaphor, the next discussion will talk about the metaphor of love emotion, and explain how to love emotion is conceptualized in everyday life metaphorically. Kovecses (1988) conceptualizes love as a feeling of affection, enthusiasm, interest which is also depicted as heat. When we talk about love, we have to understand the models that govern the linguistic expressions of love emotion. According to Lackoff and Johnson (1987), some basic metaphorical models govern the language used to discuss any kind of emotion, here in the case of love emotions various models must be explained to understand how the love metaphor works. These models include love as a journey, patient, war, madness, physical force, unity, nutrient, fluid in the container, fire, commodity, pond metaphor, natural force. Also, the corpus of Arabic and English songs will be inspected for new models.

IV. Results

To accomplish the objectives of this study, 200 songs divided into Arabic and English were analyzed; 477 metaphorical expressions were located and categorized based on their types as illustrated in the following Table 1.

TABLE 1
CONTENT ANALYSIS OF LOVE METAPHORS IN ARABIC AND ENGLISH SONGS

	Conceptual Metaphors	Structural		Orientational		Ontological	
N	**Themes**	**A**	**E**	**A**	**E**	**A**	**E**
1.	Love as a journey	**27**	**30**				
2.	Love as magic	**14**	**20**				
3.	Love as a patient	**12**	**8**				
4.	Love as war	**10**	**15**				
5.	Love as madness	**15**	**25**				
6.	Love as unity	**19**	**18**				
7.	Love as game	**3**	**12**				
8.	Love as music	**5**	**2**				
9.	Love as a dream	**8**	**2**				
10.	Love as a physical force					**4**	**8**
11.	Love as a nutrient					**17**	**20**
12.	Love as a fluid in container					**15**	**9**
13.	Love as fire					**16**	**8**
14.	Love as a commodity					**12**	**9**
15.	Love as a person					**23**	**20**
16.	Love as a natural force					**2**	**5**
17.	Love as a captive					**16**	**19**
18.	Love as a place					**5**	**0**
19.	Love as possession					**13**	**15**
20.	Love as a deeper high/ low				**2**		
Total		**113**	**132**	**0**	**2**	**123**	**109**
		245		**2**		**232**	

Table 1 presents the sub-types of the conceptual metaphors used in Arabic and English songs. Clearly, the table shows that there is a variety between the usage of the metaphorical expressions between Arabic and English, however, not significant as it is attributed to the number of metaphor occurrences rather the themes. This might confirm that these emotional expressions are not culture-specific. These expressions were found to be existent in Arabic and English cultures. It is also noticed that 20 themes of the love metaphor have been found. Moreover, it is noticed that structural metaphors were found with the highest occurrences in both Arabic and English 51% followed by ontological metaphors 49% and the least used ones were orientational metaphors. Poets used figurative language to support the songs' value and give them the required depth and clarity.

Also, the analysis has revealed that 20 themes for the love metaphor have emerged. Love as a journey topped the structural metaphor with 57 occurrences (23%) followed by love as madness with 40 occurrences (16%). However, love as music scored the least with eight times. In the ontological metaphor, the theme of love a person scored the highest with 43 times (19%) followed by love as a nutrient with 37 times (16%). Love as a natural force scored last seven times. The orientational metaphor was revealed to have happened rarely in English where it scored only two times whereas zero orientational metaphor was observed in the Arabic songs. Also, it is observed that love as a place has been cited only in the Arabic language. Further, some themes of love metaphor are of more frequency between English and Arabic such as the themes of magic, madness, war, and game in the English songs. Also, the ontological metaphor of love has been noticeably more frequent in the themes of fluid, fire, and place in the Arabic language. This can be attributed to the cultural and geographical backgrounds of signers as well as people that may have influenced their knowledge. Following are some song excerpts:

Love Is a Journey

Let us begin with the most famous model about love, which is love is a journey by lackoff (1992). Lackoff explained that there is a principle that is a part of the conceptual system underlying English, and this principle is neither a part of English grammar nor a part of the English lexicon. This principle is for understanding the domain of love in terms of the domain of journey, and this principle can be stated as a metaphorical scenario, in which the lovers are the travelers on the journey together, with their common life goals with a destination to be reached. The relationship between the travelers is the vehicle that allows them to continue their journey, but the journey is not easy, and there will be some impediments and problems, and a crossword where the decisions have to be made to decide what direction the travelers will go. The metaphor could be understood as a mapping from a source domain which is a journey to a target domain which is love, and this mapping is better understood when the ontological correspondences are known according to which entities in the domain of love, such as the lovers, their common goals, their difficulties and problems (Antony & Witt, 1993).

Lackoff and Johnson (1980) elucidated the ontological correspondences as follows:

The lovers are travelers.

The love relationship is the vehicle.

In this case, it does not mean the mapping itself (love as journey) but we mean the set of ontological correspondences that characterize the epistemic correspondences by mapping knowledge about a journey into knowledge about love. To make it clearer let us suppose that two travelers are traveling to a common destination by vehicle, and this vehicle encounters some problems that hinder them from going on to their destination, in this case, the travelers have alternatives, either to try to fix this vehicle and move again or remain in this broken vehicle and give up or they can abandon the vehicle. Same ontological correspondences which constitute love as a journey map the ontology of journey into the ontology of love, here also the lovers have choices to deal with the bad relationship between them, either they try to move again and fix this relation or remain in the un-functional relationship and give up or abandon the relationship.

Ahrens (2002) proposed that the linguistic expressions that are used metaphorically can be analyzed in terms of the entities, qualities, and functions that can map between a source and a target domain. When these conventionalized metaphorical expressions have been analyzed, they are compared with the real-world knowledge that the source domain entails, and an underlying reason for these mappings is then postulated; these expressions include:

We're driving in the fast lane on the freeway *of love*

Our relationship has hit a dead-end street.

In addition, Lackoff and Johnson (1980) argued that these linguistic expressions about the love relation are from everyday usage of the language, and they are not poetic or used for special rhetorical effects. In addition to the above expressions, we have gathered some metaphorical expressions from the songs' lyrics which belong to the English corpus, these expressions fit with the theory of Lackoff and Johnson by describing love as a journey:

Not *moving down* into the *fast* lane

This is the part where the *end starts* to either walk a *path* of love or be crippled by our hate

All of these metaphorical expressions explain the relationship between the lovers and the events and the impediments that happen during this relation.

The love is journey metaphor is common in Arabic expressions too. It could be found in numerous metaphorical expressions. To cite one example:

انتهى المشوار

/*intaha ilmeshwar*/

(*Lit.* the journey is over).

Exp. The love relationship between lovers is over.

Here love is like a journey that the lovers were taking, and it was over when they broke up.

Love Is War

If I could close your wounds, let me be your shelter, let me be your light, you are safe

You see I've always been a fighter

In this example, the lover describes the love relation as if he was in a war with his beloved and he wounded her (emotionally) like the real wounds in the real world, and the lover asks his beloved to let him cure these wounds, which corresponds that the lover wants to fix the relation between him and his beloved.

Who knows I will win someday I will begin to reach my prime.

Here the lover is as if he is in a war and there is fighting, the fighting on the war between two sides, is like the fighting for love also between two sides, and in the end, one side will win the love of another person.

Deep in dark, you will surrender *your heart*

I will defend *I will* fight*, I will be the fire in your night*

There is an action of surrendering in this example, which means that the lover will obey his beloved and surrender to her just like the army soldiers surrender in the war.

These metaphorical expressions show that the person is ready to fight for another person whom he loves; here the fight is going on between two parts just like the war where we have a winner and loser. Love is partially structured, understood, and performed in terms of a war.

According to Lackoff (1980) "*We talk about love in that way because we conceive of it in that way and we act according to the way we conceive of things''*

The love is war metaphor is common in Arabic expressions too. It could be found in numerous metaphorical expressions. For example:

حبك احتلال أنساكي شيء محال

/*hobik ihtilal ?ansaki shai? mural*/

(*Lit.* Your love is an occupation, forgetting you is impossible.)

Exp. The love relationship between lovers resembles an occupation whose influence lasts forever and cannot be forgotten.

Love as Madness

In this case, the lover is conceptualized as crazy with his beloved one, and because the lovers love each other so much, they look as if they lose their minds in this love relation, and there is an ultimate lack of control. The following metaphorical expressions explain more;

Songs expressions:

You came along and then the sun did shine
When I'm not with you I lose my mind (Kövecses, 1991).

The love is madness is common in Arabic expressions too. It could be found in numerous metaphorical expressions. For example:

اتاريه الحب جالك طيرلك عقل بالك
/?tareh ilhob jalak taierlak caql balak/
(Lit. Love has come to you and made you fly away from your mind)

Exp. The love expressed in the Arabic example is like madness that makes the lover lose his mind when in love and become insane.

Love as Commodity

Love in this case is presented as concrete or touchable thing, in which the lovers can catch it and ask each other for giving much from it, the following expressions are song expressions.

You're all I'm thinking of I praise the Lord above,
For sending me your love, I cherish every hug,

Love is a commodity that is common in Arabic expressions too. It could be found in numerous metaphorical expressions. For example:

انطيني حب شوية. انسيك الدنيا
/anṯeeni ḥob shwaiah. Anaseek addonia/
(*Lit.* Give me some love, I make you forget the world.)

Exp. The love expressed in the Arabic example is like a commodity that the lover requests his beloved to give him some of it, and in return, he will make her forget the world.

Love as Magic

He cast her spell over me
I am charmed by him
He is bewitching

The above expressions explain the fascination between two persons and how they are entrenched to each other as magic, this metaphorical usage to how the great level of fascination between the man and the woman.

The love is magic metaphor is common in Arabic expressions too. It could be found in numerous metaphorical expressions. For example:

الحب غصبا عنك ما بياخذ إذنك
لحظة وحدة بغيرك وبينسيك حتى اسمك حتى اسمك
/ilḥob ghaṣbin canak ma biakhith ?idhnak/
/laḥTHa waḥdaḥ bighiarak w binaseek ḥatta ?ismak ḥatta ?ismak/
(*Lit.* Love is against you, does not take your permission. In a moment it changes you and makes you forget even your name, even your name)

Exp. The love expressed in the Arabic example is like a magical power that changes the lover and makes him/her even forget their names.

Love as Patient

The marriage is dead, it can't be revived
Their marriage is on the mend
It is a tired affair
It takes time to cure one's heart of mine Will never die

When the relationship between the two lovers has a problem, it is conceptualized as a sick person, who has problems in his life and cannot enjoy, so all of the above expressions sick and, tired belong to the patient, and in this case, love becomes like this patient when there are problems in the relation.

The love is patient is common in Arabic expressions too. It could be found in many metaphorical expressions. For example:

حبك وجع بعده معي
/ḥobak wajac bacdoh maci/
(*Lit.* Your love is pain still with me)

Exp. The love expressed in the Arabic example is like a pain that causes health problems for the lover.

Love as physical force

I could feel the electricity between us (Jewel, Absence of fear)

Love relation conceptualized here as a physical force that affects us unconsciously, like the gravity and the magnetic power that how that there is a kind of power behind all of these phenomena, same with love emotion when the level of love is very high between the lovers, it will have a great power that changes the things.

Love as a physical power is common in Arabic expressions too. It could be found in numerous metaphorical expressions. For example:

اللي جذبني لحبّك يا الحلو نظره

/illi jadhabni lihobak ya elhilo naTHrah /

(*Lit.* What gravitated me to your love is a look)

Exp. The love expressed in the Arabic example is like a magnetic force that has pulled the lover to his beloved in a just look because of the strong power of love.

Love as Natural Force

Here love is presented as, flood, storms, waves, to how the intensity of love between the lovers and the lack of control status for those who are in love

Waves of passion *came over* him.

He *was carried away* by love.

This is also common to the Arabic language where love as a natural force has been cited.

حبك مدوبني، مسهرني

مخليني أدوب واعشق

/hobak midawibni misaharni/

/mikhaleeni ?adoob w aʿ9shaq/

(*Lit.* Your love is melting me, is keeping me awake.)

Exp. The love expression in the Arabic example is like snow or ice that is melted because of heat. Also, love is like something that cannot allow the lover to sleep.

Love as Captive

Love is presented as a captive animal in which the person who is in love is like the captive for his beloved, and he/he cannot escape this captive, because the lover is so entrenched to his beloved.

I march in the parade of liberty

But as long as I love you I'm not free

The love is captive is also common in Arabic expressions. It could be found in numerous metaphorical expressions. For example:

صبوا العذاب ما شئتم على جسدي

/soboo Alcadhaba ma sh?itom cala jasadi/

(*Lit.* Pour the torment as much as you want on my body. There are no witnesses to the torture of my jailer.)

Exp. The love expressed in the Arabic example is like a torment that shows the problems that the people in love are experiencing, however; it seems that the lover is enjoying this taste of torture as it is coming from his beloved.

Love as a Game

Love is presented as a game between lovers regarding the nature of love relation, it is not always a clear relation, but there are some tricks and risks taken by the lovers during this relation.

Loving you is a losing game

Love is conceptualized as a game in which the lover feels that it is a loss.

Also, the love theme as a game is existent in Arabic and has been cited in some songs.

هوه الحب لعبه .. ولا الحبه لعبه

/hoa elhob licbah ..wala elhabah licbah/

(*Lit.* is love a game… or little is a game? You fight with me little and reconciles me little)

Exp. The love expressed in the Arabic example is like a game in which sometimes the lovers are either happy or sad.

Love as Possession

Here love is conceptualized as a possessive relation in which the lovers possess each other and relate to each other strongly.

You would always be mine

Your love is my home

Love is conceptualized as the lover's home where they feel safe and sheltered.

The love is possession is also common in Arabic expressions. It could be found in numerous metaphorical expressions. For example:

إنت لمين إنت إلي قلبي الك منه إلي

/?inta lameen ?inta ?ili qalbi ?ilak manoh ?ili/

(*Lit.* You belong to whom, you belong to me, my heart is yours, not mine.)

Exp. The love expressed in the Arabic example is like any possessive thing.

Love as Unity

Love is presented as something that unites the lovers, when the love relation is very strong, the lovers feel that they are related to each other and they cannot be separated as if they become one person.

We are one

He is my other/betterhalf

He is a perfect match

Love as unity is also common in Arabic expressions. It could be found in numerous metaphorical expressions. For example:

انـي وانت قلب واحد بالنفس نازل وصاعد

/?ani w int qalob wahid bilnafas nazil w sacid/

(*Lit.* I and you are one heart with breath up and down. I and you are one soul. My love for you increases every day).

Exp. The love expressed in the Arabic example is like any unity of heart and soul of the lovers.

Love as a Person

This case of personification defined by Lackoff as metaphors where the physical object is specified as being a person (Lakoff 1980) cited in Irina Popaditch (2005), for example:

Love can eat you up and go

It can give you hope

In these examples, love has been conceptualized as a person and can take and give just like the emotion of love that can affect the lovers either by making them happy or making them sad and upset.

The love is a person is also common in Arabic expressions. It could be found in numerous metaphorical expressions. For example:

وأنا أرى الحب محمولا بأكفاني

/W?ana ?ara Alhoba mahmolan bi?kfani/

(*Lit.* and I see love carried in coffins)

Exp. The love expressed in the Arabic example is like a person who is dead and carried in coffins which resembles the state of love effect on the lover.

Love Is Fire

Love is presented here as fire that burns the lovers, depending on the intensity of the relationship between the lovers.

I will be the fire in your nights

You turn the temperature hotter, I'm burning up burning up with you baby

The love is fire is also common in Arabic expressions. It could be found in numerous metaphorical expressions. For example:

حبك نار مش عايز أطفيها ولا أخليها دقيقة تفوتني ما أحسش بيها

/hobak nar mish cayez atfiha wala ?akhleeha daqiqa tfotni ma ?ahissh beeha/

(Lit: You love is fire. I do not want to put it out and miss it a minute without feeling it)

Exp. The love expressed in the Arabic example is like a fire that warms the lover.

Here in the above examples the fire corresponds to love, the thing burning is the person in love. The cause of the fire is the cause of love being burned by the fire is the frustration caused by love. The burning of the fire is the extent of love the intensity of the fire is the intensity of love the inability of the thing burning to function normally is the inability of the person in love to function normally. The love metaphor in these examples are like a fire that burns the lovers and makes pain for them, also love can hurt us and make us suffer and get us in pain

Love is conceptualized as a fire that has levels when the love is in normal condition. It is like a red flame but when its intensity raises and gets hotter, it becomes like a blue flame.

Love as Nutrient

Give me what I hungered for

I can't live *without your love*

Here the love is conceptualized as a nutrient or food which everybody needs to still be alive, upon this importance of love for the lovers, they describe it as a nutrient, and if they do not have this love, they will die just like those without food.

Love as a nutrient is common in Arabic songs too, For example:

خمره الحب اسقنيها هم قلبي تنسيني عيشه لا حب فيها

/khamrata alhobi isqineeha ham ma qalbi tnaseeni ceeshatan lahoba feeha/

(Lit: The wine of love let drink me, my heart's illness disappears and makes me forget life without love. I don't want to put it out and miss it a miniature with feeling it)

Exp. The love expressed in the Arabic example is like a drink that makes the lover unconscious.

Love as Fluid in a Container

The metaphor of love as in a container is figured as a fluid regardless of the substance.

Similarly, Arabic applies the same metaphor in conceptualizing love.

For example:

You *fill up* my senses like a night in a forest.

Love here is conceptualized as a fluid that is affected by the natural forces, like the first

For example, it is like snow which melts when it is exposed to heat, or like flow in the second example it is conceptualized as when you put fluid in the glass more than its natural level, it will flow.

The love of fluid in a container is also common in Arabic expressions. It could be found in numerous metaphorical expressions. For example:

حبك بحر ما له حدود

/hobak bahar ma loh hodood/

(*Lit.* Your love is a borderless sea)

Exp. The love expressed in the Arabic example is like a big container of water, sea, which is full of love feelings.

Love in the religious context is also cited in both the Arabic and English songs, and it is more common in Arabic, and it has been cited in numerous examples.

You water and nourish your people in love

Love here is a container that provides water to people in love with a god.

يرتوي بالحب قلبي حب خير رسل ربي

/Yartawi bilhobi qalbi hobo khayri rosoli rabee/

(*Lit.* My heart is watered by the love of the best messengers of God)

Exp. The love of the Prophet Mohammed is like water that waters someone's heart.

Love Is a Place

مدينة الحب أمشي في شوارعها

/madinat alhob ?amshi fi shawari iha/

(*Lit.* The city of love I walk in its street)

Exp. The love expression in the Arabic example is like a city where the lovers walk in its streets.

Love Is Music

Your love is music to my ears

Love here is conceptualized as music that pleases the lover's ears.

The love as music is also common in Arabic expressions too. It could be found in numerous metaphorical expressions. For example:

الحب ده غنوه كلها احلام

/Alhob dah ghonwah kolaha ahlam/

(*Lit.* Love is like a song full of dreams)

Exp. The love expression in the Arabic example is like a song that is full of happy dreams.

Love Is a Dream

If you love me
If you want me
Don't ignore me
'Cause I don't want to wake up alone

Love is like a happy dream that the lover is enjoying, and he does not want to get up as this love may disappear.

Love as a dream is more common in Arabic; it has been cited in numerous examples.

Exp. The love expression in the Arabic example is like a song that is full of happy dreams.

حبك حلم هربان

/hobak hilim harban/

(Lit. Your love is a running dream)

Exp. The love expression in the Arabic example is like a beautiful dream that keeps running away.

Love Is Deeper High/Low

I don't really know why, I've been feeling down

Here the love is conceptualized as something that is making the beloved so sad.

V. Findings and Discussion

The current study has examined the representation of the love metaphor in English and Arabic songs. The content analysis has revealed some major findings. First, the conceptualization of the love metaphor is found to be common in both English and Arabic. Also, 20 themes of love metaphor representation have been revealed. Moreover, new themes of love have emerged like love as a person, game, possession, place, magic, dream, and captive. Under structural metaphor, which has topped other types of metaphor, the themes of journey, magic, madness, and unity were found to be used most. In ontological metaphor, love as a nutrient, person, and captive have had more occurrences both into Arabic and English languages. However, although English songs have cited cases of orientational metaphor, Arabic songs have not had any cases which might be contributed to the rarity of using place prepositions to reflect someone's orientation. Also, the Arabic songs have cited examples of love as a place compared to the English songs in which love a place has not been cited. Moreover, Arabic songs have highlighted more cases on love metaphor in the religious context in the love of GOD and his Prophet, Muhammed as well as in the context of county love. Arabic songs have emphasized the themes of fluid, fire, and place compared to the English songs that have paid attention to the themes of magic, madness, war, and game. This variation could be explained by the cultural and geographical backgrounds of signers as well as people that may have influenced their knowledge. Osman (2018) ascertained this notion of the cultural differences that may affect the variation in the use of love metaphor themes. Also, Abdullah (2016) contributed the difference in love metaphor pictures such as blindness, medicine, and breath between English and Kurdih languages to a culture that has a big influence on metaphor conceptualization. Tri Endarto (2014) argued that the love metaphor is different between English and Indonesian languages in the theme of love as religion. This difference in the current study has been reported as a similarity.

The finding on the universality of love metaphor conceptualization in English and Arabic songs reported in the current study accords with previous research. For example, Osman (2018) confirmed the idea of the universality of love

metaphor across languages when attributed the similarities of some love metaphors such as love as a container, a fluid, and patient between English and Cairene. Also, Tri Endarto (2014) emphasized most of the metaphorical expressions collocating with the words of *cinta* and love in English and Indonesian languages are universal. Moreover, Abdullah (2016) highlighted that the conceptualization of the love metaphor such as war, fire, madness, a journey, unity, and rapture in English and Kurdih is rooted in the common physical and mental experiences of human beings. The finding on using structural metaphor more than other types of metaphor is in line with that by Thu (2019) who reported that structural metaphor was found to be more used in English love songs in the late 20th century whereas the orientational metaphor was least used. Under structural metaphor, which has topped other types of metaphor, the themes of journey, magic, madness, and unity were found to be used most. In ontological metaphor, love as a nutrient, person, and captive have had more occurrences.

VI. Conclusion

This paper has contrastively analyzed the metaphor of love in English and Arabic songs. Consequently, it has been found that metaphors are a very genuine part of our conceptual and linguistic systems that occurs unconsciously. Metaphors give our language a special taste and make us freely use the language to build comprehensible communication. Also, it has been noticed that some love metaphors like fluid, fire, and place are more emphasized in the Arabic language compared to the English language that cites more cases of different love metaphors like magic, madness, war, and game. In addition, the study has revealed new love metaphors such as love as a game, person, possession, dream, and magic. Moreover, findings have shown that many love metaphors are universally used by most cultures; however, some of these metaphors are culture-specific such as love metaphor as a place in Arabic, and orientation metaphor of love in English. In the light of the current study findings, it is recommended that future research is focused on analyzing the representation of specific love kinds like romance, God, family, animals, country, and things, especially in the Arabic language song context.

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An Analysis of the Recently Issued Language Policy in IOK: Process, Causes and Influences

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***Abstract*—The language policy in IOK (Indian occupied Kashmir, i.e. Jammu and Kashmir) has been changed recently and a new "five official languages" policy has been established. This paper untangles the three steps of the language policy change: modifying the Constitution, enacting *The Jammu and Kashmir Reorganisation Act, 2019* and passing *The Jammu and Kashmir Official Languages Act, 2020* and reveals the root causes of the change by collecting data from the media and historical documents. Results show that the language policy change in this area has been affected by many factors such as Hindu Chauvinism, the nation-state ideology, local identity, and issues of minorities' language right. This paper then makes a further analysis of the possible influences of the new policy: exacerbating religious disputes, aggravating separatism, and undermining social justice and complicating the regional situation. The implication can be made from the language policy change in IOK is that language policy should be made based on the language-as-resource orientation and a comprehensive analysis of the specific historical and social conditions of a country or an area so that it can promote social harmony.**

***Index Terms*—IOK, language policy, process, causes, influences**

I. Introduction

In 2019, The Indian government's attempt to change Kashmir's status by abolishing Article 370 of the Indian Constitution raised concerns. Constitutional change is just one step in a long line of actions, followed by a series of concrete measures. Among them, language policy, as an issue closely related to national status, identity, ideology, religious belief and people's rights, has also attracted the attention of Indian government. In September 2020, the Indian parliament passed *The Jammu and Kashmir Official Languages Act, 2020*. According to the act, Kashmiri, Dogri and Hindi will be added to the list of official languages in Indian-occupied Kashmir (IOK). The move provoked strong reactions from all sides, and conflicts over language issues quickly escalated in the region. Opposition parties and local Punjabis and Gujjars have expressed their dissatisfaction with the act, and protests have broken out even in the COVID-19 pandemic. Pakistan's government and academics also condemned the move. The introduction of this policy seems to be sudden, but in fact, it has been "brewing" for a long time.

By making a document analysis of relevant materials of the history, religion, ethnicity in IOK and investigating the media reports before and after the new language policy, this paper aims at seeking answers to the three following questions:

(1) How has India gradually changed the language policy in the region?
(2) What are the profound social causes of this new policy?
(3) What are the possible effects of this new policy?

II. The Establishment of the New Official Language Policy in IOK

The language policy change in IOK was made by the following steps: first, the Indian Constitution was amended and Article 370 was declared invalid, which withdrew the autonomy of the region and removed legal obstacles for subsequent measures; second, *The Jammu and Kashmir Reorganisation Act, 2019* was formulated and implemented, in which the principle of choosing official languages, the use of official languages were made clear in provisions; third, *The Jammu and Kashmir Official Languages Act, 2020* was introduced through official media campaigns and constant propaganda by politicians.

A. Abolishing Article 370 of Constitution and Revoking the Special Status of IOK

The first step in the language policy change is to abolish Article 370 of the Indian Constitution. Article 370 adopted by the Constituent Assembly in 1949 (which took effect on January 26, 1950) was made specifically for IOK, as a "temporary, transitional and special provision" that granted a high degree of autonomy for the region (while the power of defense, foreign affairs and communications belonged to the central government). On August 5, 2019, home minister Amit Shah announced in parliament that the "special status" of IOK would be revoked. The following day, after the relevant resolutions were passed by both houses of Parliament, the President of India formally issued a presidential decree declaring the nullification of Article 370, stating that all provisions of the Constitution would apply to the region. Abolishing Article 370 means India can treat the region as an ordinary administrative unit, and the administrative

structure of the region will be in line with other states. The central government can set policies for the region and order the regional government to implement them. Obviously, this created space for the adjustment of language policy.

B. Enacting The Jammu and Kashmir Reorganisation Act, 2019 to Establish the Principles for the Selection of Official Languages

Following the repeal of Article 370, *The Jammu and Kashmir Reorganisation Act, 2019* was quickly introduced and approved by the Parliament as the second step of the language policy adjustment. Article 47 and Article 48 of the new act clarify the principles of language legislation, making preparations for future steps. Article 47 of this regulation deals with the selection principle of official languages, providing that the legislative assembly of the region may recognize one or more languages or Hindi as the official language(s) of the region. The selected official language(s) shall, in principle, be used for all the affairs of the District Legislative Assembly. Article 48 mainly stipulates that regional legislative documents, relevant regulations and rules shall be translated into English. There are three points to note about these provisions: first, the act foreshadows the possibility of official language changes, paving the way for further action on language issues; second, the act makes no mention of Urdu, which along with English was previously the region's official language. Third, the act specifically points out that Hindi can be recognized as an official language, which is in sharp contrast to the situation of Urdu, reflecting that the act is consciously to pave the way for Hindi's inclusion in the official language list.

C. Passing The Jammu and Kashmir Official Languages Act, 2020 to Establish the "Five Languages" Policy

The third step in the region's language policy adjustment is to finalize the official language change in the form of a law. Before the final move, India had carried out several publicity campaigns. The authority first chose to campaign for Hindi. In October 2019, senior officials of the Bharatiya Janata Party (the current ruling party of India) publicly declared that Urdu would no longer be the first and official language of the region and Hindi would replace Urdu in the region (Babushahi Bureau, 2019). It was also reported that the High Court of India had received a "public interest lawsuit" seeking to establish Hindi as the official language of the region under Article 47 of *The Jammu and Kashmir Reorganisation Act* (Pargal, 2020). Officials also realized that promoting Hindi alongside Kashmiri and Dogri would reduce the resistance to policy change. Thus, while campaigning for Hindi, officials also stressed that the expansion of official languages is a long-standing demand of the people of the region that must be taken into account. Kishan Reddy, home minister of state, has directly expressed the idea of recognizing Kashmiri and Dogri as official languages, while pledging that the authority will also consider the status of Gujjar, Pahari and Punjabi (PTI, 2020). After nearly a year of publicity, on 22 September 2020, the ruling party of India and the Indian government formally presented an act on the issue of official languages in IOK. The act passed the Lok Sabha, the lower house of parliament on that day, and the Rajya Sabha, the upper house the next day. On September 26, *The Jammu and Kashmir Official Languages Act, 2020* was promulgated with the approval of the President. The act stipulates that Kashmiri, Dogri, Urdu, Hindi, English — the official languages of the region, should be used in all official occasions. All the businesses of the district legislative assembly shall, in principle, be conducted in the official language of the region. The act also encourages the development and promotion of languages such as Gujjar, Pahari and Punjabi, and calls for the strengthening of existing language development mechanisms such as the Institute of Arts, Culture and Languages. The act marked the completion of the change of the official language policy in IOK.

III. The Causes of Language Policy Change in IOK

Due to the ethnic and religious diversity, the language and cultural environment in IOK is very complicated. In addition to Urdu and English, the previous official languages of the region, India's most recent census (2011) revealed that more than 100 languages are spoken in the region. In terms of the number of native speakers, the most commonly spoken languages and their proportion in the population of the region are Kashmiri (53%), Dogri (20%), Gujjar (9.1%), Pahari (7.8%), Hindi (2.4%) and Punjabi (1.8%). [1]

Urdu, the official language of IOK before the recent language policy change, is considered the lingua franca of the entire region, although it is spoken by a small number of native speakers. It is also the medium of instruction in many local schools (Bhat, 2017).

English also has an important status in the region. Since the 21st century, English has been widely taught in schools, and a large number of young people in IOK have mastered this language (Ganie, 2019). In 2000, the local government changed the textbooks of all subjects in public schools to English versions for students above grade 6. In 2005, the government decided that English should be used as the language of instruction in public schools from grade 1 onwards (Bhat, 2017).

In terms of native speakers, Kashmiri ranks first in the region (with more than 6.5 million native speakers). The Kashmiri language is mainly used for daily oral communication, and the people, especially the young, have poor written Kashmiri language ability. Some Kashmiri-speaking Muslims have switched to Hindi and other languages to make a living.

[1] Source: https://censusindia.gov.in/2011census/C-16.html.

Dogri is the second largest native language in the region, with more than 2.5 million speakers. It is also recognized as a modern literary language and literary prizes have been awarded to writers writing in Dogri. The language is also taught in many local schools.

Pahari speakers live mainly near the ceasefire line between India and Pakistan. The Paharis are essentially a multi-religious group with inner diversity, who live in harmony with each other. Pahari has long been considered as a symbol of cultural diversity but has not yet entered the eighth Schedule of the Indian Constitution.

In addition, Gujjar, Punjabi, Hindi, Gujarati, etc. are also spoken by the inhabitants of the region. Some of these languages are important in other parts of India. For instance, Hindi is the official language of India, and Punjabi is the official language of Punjab. The speakers of these languages are relatively small in this region, but these languages are influential in other parts of India and thus also affect the language ecology in this region to a certain extent. For example, the recent language conflict and protest in India was initiated by the Punjabi community.

IOK is the only part of India with a Majority Muslim population. According to 2011 census data, Muslims make up about 68.3% of the total population of the area, followed by Hindus (28.4%), Sikhs (1.9%), Buddhists (0.9%) and Christians (0.3%).

It can be seen that IOK is an area with remarkable linguistic, ethnic and religious diversity. Language issues are intertwined with religion, politics, identity, rights and other factors, making language issues in the region very complicated. With the emergence of new situations in India in recent years, the fragile language ecology in India has been faced with new challenges. Conflicts about the language issue produced a variety of deep-seated social contradictions and profoundly changed the language life of the local people. These contradictions reflected the deep causes of the language policy change in IOK.

A. Religion: Hindu Chauvinism and the Marginalization of Urdu

Religious factors have played an important role in the language conflict in IOK, making a special impact on Urdu. Hindus and Muslims respectively make up 80.5 percent and 13.4 percent of India's population nationwide, according to statistics[2]. However, as mentioned earlier, IOK is the only region in India with a Majority Muslim population, and religious factors have been an important driving force of separatism in the region. At the beginning, Muhammad Ali Jinnah supported unification and later chose to lead an independent Pakistan. This division was a result of the great difference and divergence between Islam and Hinduism. Warikoo (1996) pointed out that the Muslim League led by Jinnah successfully established the corresponding relationship between Urdu and Muslim. Muslims in Kashmir, influenced by the intellectual elite and political figures, also saw Urdu as a symbol of Muslim identity. On the other hand, Gandhi's use of Hindi in congress and his campaign of civil disobedience in accordance with Hindu tradition also established the connection between Hinduism and Hindi to some extent. This had influenced the linguistic ideology and deepened the division between Muslims and Hindus in the region. Historically, Urdu, as a "neutral" language, was used to be the "glue" between different ethnic groups in IOK. However, with the formation of the corresponding relationship between language and religion, Urdu's status in IOK has been increasingly challenged by Hindus. This change is not only reflected in some people's consciousness, but also in the local social life. According to an article in *Kashmir Vision*, a ruling party official posted on social media a picture of a new sign at a newly built railway station in India, with the name of the station written in Sanskrit, Hindi and English, instead of Urdu. Sahil Ahmad Lone, the author of the article, noted that many of the social comments referred to Urdu as the language of Pakistan, and some even saw Urdu speakers directly as "unfriendly people" (Lone, 2020). Some Hindus claimed that Urdu was a tool of Islamic fundamentalists in IOK to promote their pan-Islamic identity and influence, and that Urdu symbolized the suppression, assimilation and erosion of the region's indigenous culture. What should be pointed out is that the maintenance and development of Urdu in the local area is the result of many factors such as society, culture, ideology, literature, religion, media and the language's neutrality in the complex and diversified language ecology in history. However, along with the changes in the political ecology of India, Hindu chauvinism has become more and more intense, and religious fanaticism has gradually turned into actual exclusion, and thus Urdu has been increasingly marginalized in the region.

B. Politics: Promotion of Hindi under the Concept of Nation-state

While the interweaving of language and religion affects the use and status of Urdu in IOK, resulting in the opposition of different beliefs and languages, political factors have played an important role in the promotion of Hindi, which has further intensified the language conflict in the region. The concept of nation-state has so tremendous impacts on Indian politics that Indian home minister Amit Shah publicly declared that there must be a language to represent the identity of the whole country, and this language should be Hindi. Those who hold the concept of nation-state believe that the homogenization of national language and public language is the core and fundamental principle of modernization (May, 2006, p.256). India has long implemented the "Three Language Formula" in the field of education, which stipulates that Hindi must enter the education system of all states. Its purpose is to establish the relation between Hindi and national identity. This way of promoting the only language to represent the country is actually a symbol of political ideology, ignoring the language use in real life. In fact, according to the 2011 census data, the proportion of native Hindi speakers in the population of this region is less than 3% (only about 300, 000). Before the repeal of Article 370 in 2019, the

[2] Source: https://www.fmprc.gov.cn/web/gjhdq_676201/gj_676203/yz_676205/1206_677220/1206x0_677222.

region enjoyed legal autonomy, while Hindi was not recognized as a "regional language" in the regional constitution. Therefore, the authority's promotion of Hindi in the region was opposed by local people, causing language conflicts. In order to cope with Muslims' resistance to Hindi, the Indian government has repeatedly encouraged Hindus to migrate from other regions of India to Kashmir in spite of the constitutional prohibition, so as to change the population structure and language situation in the region and reshape the politics there by changing the population boundary. The ultimate goal is to assimilate the region and bring it into the direct jurisdiction of the Federation. However, as Shamsa Nawaz, a researcher at the Strategic Research Institute in Islamabad, said, this unitary political path based on the concept of nation-state is deeply trapped in the vortex of Hindu nationalism, deviates from the reality of ethnic and religious diversity in the region, and will finally cause conflicts between people of different speech communities, nationalities and religious beliefs (Nawaz, 2017).

In fact, from a political perspective, it is not difficult to find that the authority has been not only creating language conflicts, but also reshaping and manipulating the politics and culture of the region through language issues. Through the propaganda of the official media, the appeal of government officials, and a series of other measures such as changing the population structure and promoting the teaching of Hindi, the authority not only intends to promote Hindi there, but also tries to construct the ideology among the local people that Hindi is the national language. Once this ideology is established, it means that the concept of nation-state will win a victory, and the authority can then achieve effective control over the region.

C. Identity: Dilemma of Regional Languages

Kashmiri is the most widely used language in this region (53% of the total population of the region speak this language). However, in terms of the social status, Kashmiri is obviously a "weak" language. The mismatch between the number of language users and the actual status of the language sows the seeds of language conflict. According to the "Three Language Formula", Kashmiri, as a language recognized by the eighth schedule of the Indian constitution and used by the majority of people in the region, should have been taught in the educational system. But the reality is that Urdu and English are mostly used in schools and other formal occasions. Facing the pressure of these "strong" languages, Kashmiri language users are in a dilemma between maintaining their loyalty to their mother tongue and switching to a language with more social functions. For economic reasons, many Kashmiri young people left their hometown. Their original language identity has been integrated into other language and cultural groups. Therefore, although Kashmiri seems to have an important position in the region, its use is actually limited to the Kashmir valley and surrounding rural areas.

The actual use of Kashmiri language has caused the identity dilemma among Kashmiri language users, and the uncertainty of Kashmiri writing system has exacerbated the division and conflicts within the Kashmiri language community. In fact, Kashmiri is regarded by many as a spoken language. People are divided on the issue of a common writing system. At present, in the Kashmiri community, Sharada script, Devanagari script and Perso-Arabic script are used and supported by different groups. Political and religious factors have exerted a great influence. Sharada and Devanagari are closely related to Sanskrit and Hinduism and the promotion of these two writing systems mostly reflects the intentions of the Indian government and Hindu chauvinists. On the contrary, the Perso-Arabic writing system is related to Islamic culture. Under the influence of these factors, Kashmiri language users' internal identity is becoming more and more chaotic. It can be seen that Kashmiri, like IOK, has become a social and political concept. In this context, although Kashmiri is the language spoken by most people in the region, it cannot be used to unite IOK.

D. Rights: The Debate on Minorities' Language Rights

In the complex language ecology, ethnic minorities in IOK have always been safeguarding their language rights, but this process is not easy. Many factors, such as pressure from the government, competition among ethnic groups and differences in language classification, have had impacts on the efforts of local ethnic minorities to pursue language rights. To a certain extent, these factors also make the relationship between different language groups worse, laying the seeds for language conflicts.

As the second widely used language, language users of Dogri have been committed to improving the status of the language. Dogri has a good literary tradition. There are many literary masterpieces written in Dogri, such as poetry, novels, plays and so on. Therefore, driven by a group of linguists, on August 2, 1969, the National Academy of Arts of India recognized Dogri as an independent modern literary language and agreed to grant awards to Dogri writers. Dogri people took an important step in the pursuit of language rights. By 1992, people launched a campaign to improve the constitutional status of Dogri. They applied to the Indian parliament, pointing out that Dogri bears a rich literary heritage and is widely used in the region, and stressed that the language uses the Devanagari writing system, which plays a positive role in safeguarding national unity. However, the central government ignored their voices. Their application was also blocked by Kashmiri politicians (Warikoo, 1996). It was not until December 2003, ten years later, after the unremitting efforts of the Dogri people, that Dogri officially entered the eighth schedule of the constitution. This was an important step in Dogri people's pursuit of language rights. The languages listed in the eighth schedule of the constitution are officially recognized and encouraged, and the government has the obligation to take measures to promote the development of these languages and help them become languages that can effectively disseminate modern knowledge. However, the discrimination towards Dogri can still be found: the government did not set up a special

Dogri TV channel, and there was no Dogri in the circulating banknotes. In addition, the Dogri community has always demanded that the language be a compulsory course for students in all grades, but there are still many difficulties in achieving this goal.

Aside from Dogri, speakers of Gujar, Pahari and Punjabi are also constantly making claims for language rights. In the extremely complex language ecology, the efforts of ethnic minorities to strive for their own language rights are restricted by the local administration and the central government. For political reasons, the authority often adopts strategies such as ignoring, obstructing and dividing to deal with the claims of local ethnic minorities, which often further escalates language conflicts.

IV. Possible Influences of the New Official Language Policy in IOK

The Indian government claimed that the formulation of a new official language policy for IOK responded to the long-standing demands of the people of the region. However, considering the complex language situation in the region and relevant factors such as religion, politics, identity and language rights, it can be seen that the Indian government's move was not really made based on full investigation of the attitudes and wishes of local people. Instead, it mainly reflected the intention of the government. The introduction of the official language act will stir up the nerves of various stakeholders, which may have rather a negative impact on the language ecology of the region and aggravate the conflict there.

A. Exacerbating Religious Disputes

Although Urdu is still listed as one of the official languages, there are signs that the new act will lead to the marginalization of Urdu. For the first time in the region, the regional budget was not released in Urdu in 2020. Senior officials of India's ruling party also publicly stated that Urdu will no longer be the first and official language of the region, and Hindi will replace it (Awasthi, 2019). Zareef Ahmad Zareef, a well-known local poet and writer, called the government's move a "conspiracy", the real intention of which is to erase the previous cultural identity in the region (Malik, 2020). Hindu chauvinists have always intended to assimilate the Muslim community, and language is an important tool they may choose to alienate Muslim culture and even change religious beliefs by excluding Urdu. It reflected a language ideology that forcibly connects language and religion. However, as an official language that has been used in the local area for more than 100 years, Urdu carries the local history and culture. As an “adhesive”, it has become an embodiment of the complexity and diversity of local culture. The lack of tolerance for other religious groups, and their language and culture, will not only make the slogan of the ruling party “Sabka Saath, Sabka Vikas” an empty talk, but also further aggravate the religious contradictions and disputes in the region.

B. Aggravating Separatism

The Jammu and Kashmir Official Languages Act, 2020 recognizes Kashmiri and Dogri as the official languages of the region, while the languages of other ethnic minorities such as Gujar, Pahari and Punjabi are excluded, which reflects that the authority does not really respect linguistic diversity and the linguistic rights of ethnic minorities. Gujar and Pahari were originally regional languages that were recognized in the regional constitution before the amendment of the constitution. After article 370 of the constitution was revoked, these languages lost their original status and were not officially recognized in the new policy. The new act only mentioned that Gujar, Pahari, Punjabi and other languages should be developed and promoted through the Institute of Art, Culture and Languages. However, the act has not mentioned whether the promotion mechanism of folk languages can really help the development of these languages. It can be seen that the official language act belittles these languages in a disguised way, which will inevitably lead to the dissatisfaction of ethnic minorities. On the other hand, the authority has favored one over the other and adopted different policies for different languages. In fact, it is a dividing strategy and will affect cultural diversity. Lateef-ul-Zaman Deva, a former government official, pointed out that the change in language policy will lead to language differentiation and more speech communities will put forward their own requests (Maqbool, 2020). In this sense, the chaos caused by the new act is probably just a beginning. The complex language issue will probably bring further uncertainty to the future of the region.

C. Undermining Social Justice and Complicating the Regional Situation

The newly promulgated official language act reflects the intention of the ruling party and the central government to suppress Urdu and promote Hindi. The authority has made Hindi, which lacks cultural and public foundation in this region, the regional official language. Critics have seen this as a manifestation of authoritarianism (Maqbool, 2020). The authority has deliberately listed Hindi as the official language, and the current language policy change is more like part of the government’s plan to remove Urdu from the region (Zargar, 2020). Human rights activists are worrying that replacing Urdu with Hindi in judicial and other activities may complicate the regional affairs and make justice no longer transparent; at the same time, the new language policy would violate the religious rights of Muslims, because most Islamic documents are only written in Urdu (Awasthi, 2019). It can be seen that the authority only paid attention to how to realize their will in the new act, but had not really considered the interests of the local people. The act defines Kashmiri and Urdu as official languages, ostensibly showing respect for the local languages, but it makes no mention of how to promote and develop these two languages (which are not highly “prestigious” in this region). Such a step may

undermine social justice and bring instability. If people further extend their attention to the situation in South Asia, they can also find that language policy change and a series of other measures implemented by the authority in IOK have aroused strong dissatisfaction in neighboring countries. The regional situation thus will become more complex.

V. Conclusions

IOK is in a special geographical position, where various factors such as language, religion and nationality are intertwined, bringing complex language and social problems. As the newly established language policy fails to consider the complex local language and social ecology, it seems that the goal of formulating the new policy is not likely to be achieved. The formulation of a language policy should comprehensively consider various factors such as history, politics, society, religion and nationality, and people's needs. Policy makers should establish the language-as-resource awareness, respect and protect language diversity and promote the development of all languages. To establish a good language and social ecology, maintain social stability and promote social harmony, any language policy change should fully consider voices from all walks of life, and it is also important to invite stakeholders at different levels into the decision-making process.

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On Morphology-Phonology Interface: Insights From Diminutives in Jordanian Arabic

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***Abstract*—This study explores the morphology-phonology interface to be found in the formation of diminutives in Jordanian Arabic (JA). As evident in a corpus of diminutives in Bedouin and urban varieties, the results demonstrate that JA mainly depends on a non-concatenative (discontinuous) patterning of diminutive structures. Intriguingly, diminutives in JA not only are derived from nouns and adjectives, but also from perfective verbs. The diminutive verb adheres to the $C_1VC_2VC_3$-eet template and is produced by children and by adults addressing children. Based on a rough frequency test, the most frequently used diminutive pattern in urban JA is $C_1aC_2C_2uuC_3$ whereas Bedouin JA enjoys a variety of diminutive structures. It is also reported that JA dialects vary in stress assignment with diminutive structures: urban JA mainly prefers the iambic CVC.'CVVC structure, while the Bedouin dialect demonstrates a variety of trochaic and iambic patterns. More importantly, although residues of transfer effects on diminutives were reported in Bedouin JA, no significant transfer effects have been found between diminutive and non-diminutive structures in urban JA. As such, it is concluded that diminutive formation in urban JA supports the root-based approach over the stem-based one.**

***Index Terms*—diminutive, Jordanian Arabic, Trochaic, Iambic, transfer effects**

I. Introduction

The linguistic term 'diminutive' refers to the smallness of something, or the smaller version of what nouns refer to (De Belder et al., 2014). Diminutives are derived primarily from nouns, followed by adjectives, adverbs and verbs (Barbaresi, 2003; Dahl, 2006; Watson, 2006; Mashaqba, 2015). Pragmatically, many connotative meanings of diminutives apart from the meaning of dimensional smallness are reported, including endearment, contempt, non-seriousness, affection, approximation, pejorativeness, pretence, playfulness, jocularity, and intensification (Jurafsky, 1996; Watson, 2006). The present work is an attempt to report on the interface between morphology and phonology in the *formation* of diminutive structures in Jordanian Arabic (JA) as mainly spoken in two varieties (Bedouin and urban) within a wider cross-linguistic overview. The paper then gives empirical data in support of how the representation of diminutives in JA contributes to the debate between root- vs word/stem-based derivation in Arabic, such a debate which is expected to go well beyond Semitic languages.

A. Diminutives in World Languages

Cross-linguistically, diminutive words undergo different morphological processes such as infixation as in San'ani Arabic *ʤaahil* 'child' > *tdʒajhal* 'to act like a child' (Watson, 2006, p.191) and Standard Arabic *ʤaʕ.far* > *ʤu.ʕaj.fir* [personal name] (Ismail, 2012, p.188), suffixation e.g., *-et*, *-ette* and *-ie* (*-i*, *-y*) in English (Hamid & Faiq, 2009, p.4), *-ino* in Italian, *-ito* in Spanish and *-on* in Modern Hebrew (De Belder et al., 2014, pp.151-154), prefixation e.g., *demi-*, *hemi-*, *micro-*, *mini-*, *mono-*, *semi-*, *sub-*, *under-*, *uni-* and *vice-* in English (Hamid & Faiq, 2009, pp.6-7), and reduplication as in Modern Hebrew *gezer* 'carrot' > *gzarzar* 'baby carrot' (Kreitman, 2003, p.102) and San'ani Arabic *dagg* 'to knock' > *dagdag* 'to knock lightly several times' (Watson, 2006, p.191). Data in (1), which was collected from a closed Facebook group called *Linguistics* (for details see Section II), give the diminutives of the noun '*dog*' formed through different morphological processes in over 26 languages:

(1)	Language	Non-diminutive form 'dog'	Diminutive form 'dog-dim.'
a)	Romanian	cățel	cățel-uș
b)	Modern Greek	skilos	skil-aki
c)	Italian	cane	cagn-etto
d)	Spanish	perro	perr-ito
e)	Turkish	köpek	köpek-çik
f)	Catalan	gos	goss-et
g)	Dutch	hond	hond-je
h)	German	hund	hünd-chen
i)	Austrian German	hund	hund-erl
j)	Armenian	shun	shun-ik
k)	Latvian	suns	sun-iitis
l)	Inuit	qimmiq	qimmi-ralaaq
m)	Galician	can	canc-iño
n)	Brazilian Portuguese	cachorro	cachorr-inho
o)	Lithuanian	šuo	šuni-ukas
p)	Hungarian	kutya	kuty-us
q)	Guarani	jaguar	jagua'i
r)	Polish	pies	pies-ek
s)	Cantonese	gou	gou-zai
t)	Yiddish	hunt	hint-ele
u)	Vietnamese	chó	chócon
v)	Modern Hebrew	kélev	klevlev
w)	Mandarin	gǒu	gǒu-gǒu
x)	Russian	sobaka	soba-chk-a
y)	Standard Arabic	kalb	kul-aj-b
z)	Chinese	gǒu	xiǎo-gǒu

Examples (1a-1u) include diminutives produced by suffixation, examples (1v-1w) include diminutives produced by reduplication, examples (1x-1y) show diminutives produced by infixation, and example (1z) includes a diminutive produced by prefixation. Cross-linguistically, most diminutives are formed by suffixation. Some of them are formed by suffixation to unchanged stem and some of them involve reanalysis of the base. In examples (1d), (1g), and (1e); *perrito*, *hondje* and *köpekcik* are the diminutive forms of the nouns *perro*, *hond* and *köpek* respectively. The diminutive suffixes *-ito*, *-je* and *-cik* are added to the stem with no change on the stem. Ketrez and Asku-Koç (2007) argue that the behaviour of *-cik* with common nouns and proper names differs from adjectives. In other words, the grammatical category of the stem and the diminutive suffix *-cik* can affect the behaviour of the diminutive formation. For example, the use of *-cik* with the common noun *balik* 'fish' > *balık-çık* 'little fish' and the proper name *dilek* > *dilek-cik* does not result in any change on the stem. While, the use of *-cik* with the adjective *küçük* 'small' > *küçü-cük* 'small-diminutive (dim).' results in a stem alternation where the final /k/ is deleted (Ketrez & Asku-Koç 2007, p.281).

In (1h), the diminutive form *hündchen* of the noun *hund* witnesses a sound change where the stem vowel /*u*/ umlauts to /*ü*/. This diminutive-formation property is referred to as umlauting. Ott (2011) found that 'the Standard German diminutive morphemes *-chen* and *-lein* and their dialectal variants consistently trigger umlaut on the stem they combine with' (p. 38). However, he argues that there is a difference between diminutive and purely hypocoristic (or ''endearment-conveying'') in using the suffix *-chen* in that it produces non-umlauted forms in hypocoristic structures. For instance, *katze* 'cat' > *kätz-chen* 'small cat' and *buch* 'book' > *büch-lein* 'booklet' are umlauted forms, while *Kurt* > *Kurt-chen* [proper name] is a non-umlauted form (Ott, 2011, p.39).

Kreitman (2003) found that the infixed reduplicant reduplicates the last syllable in the input in Modern Hebrew (p.125). Thus, the last syllable of the noun *kélev* 'dog' is reduplicated to form *klevlev* 'puppy' as shown in (1v). In example (1z), the prefix *xiǎo-* 'little' in Chinese is added at the diminutive beginning with no change on the base. The word *gǒu* 'dog' can be diminuted by two more morphological processes: the first one is by reduplication in Mandarin (1w); *gǒugǒu* and the second one is by suffixation in Cantonese (1s); *gǒu-zai*. In example (1y), *ku.lajb* which is the diminutive form of the noun *kalb* 'dog' in Standard Arabic, there is a change in the base form. In the traditional root-and-pattern grammar of Arabic, it is important to take into account the consonantal root of the noun. For example, the noun *kalb* 'dog' has a triconsonantal root {k-l-b}. The pattern $C_1uC_2ajC_3$ (in traditional Arabic grammar *fuʕajl*) is the typical pattern used for triconsonantal roots to produce a diminutive form, hence *kalb* is diminuted as *ku.lajb* (Hamid & Faiq, 2009). Accordingly, a template is interdigitated within the discontinuous root of the noun; therefore, Standard Arabic is one of the languages that undergo prosodic patterning to produce diminutives. This system of prosodic interdigitating roots and patterns is well formalised by McCarthy (1979, 1981) where morphological processes in Arabic depend on three main elements: consonantal root, syllabic template, and vocalic melody (see subsection C below for more details).

B. Background on Arabic Morphological System

Arabic is a Semitic language with a rich system of inflectional root-plus-pattern structures (Mashaqba et al., 2020a). For a long time, there has been some disagreement with regard to which approach Arabic morphology depends on (see Mashaqba & Huneety, 2017). Three major proposals were presented to understand the behaviour of Arabic morphology.

The first one suggests that Arabic morphology is *root-based* in which the triconsonantal root (an abstract discontinuous morpheme) is the basic morphological unit shared by the base and all the derived forms (McCarthy, 1979, 1981; Davis & Zawaydeh, 1999; Prunet et al., 2000). Basic verb form and the derived verb patterns serve as excellent evidence in support of this claim. Recall that the work of McCarthy and Prince (1990) is very essential to understand the root-and-template model of Arabic morphology, in which the derivation process in Arabic depends on three grammatical elements: consonantal root, syllabic template, and vocalic melody. The second group suggests that Arabic morphology is *stem-based*. Proponents of this viewpoint argue that the fully vocalized word/stem is the minimal form in the lexicon based on empirical data from doubled verbs, broken plural, diminutives, and imperfective in Standard Arabic (McCarthy & Prince, 1990; Ratcliffe, 1997, 1998; Benmamoun, 1999). The third group suggests that Arabic allows both approaches; their proposal stems support from empirical data on diminutives in San'ani Arabic (Watson, 2006), hypocoristic formation and aphasic errors (Idrissi et al., 2008), comparative structures in Egyptian Arabic (Gadoua & Davis, 2019), and causative/anticausative verbs in JA (Mashaqba et al., 2020b).

C. An Outline of Arabic Diminutives with Reference to McCarthy and Prince (1990)

Arabic diminutives are one of the morphological processes that have been studied by scholars to determine whether Arabic derivational morphology is root-based or stem/word-based. In particular, diminutive formation in Standard Arabic (henceforth SA) is presented by McCarthy and Prince (1990) as evidence of productivity of the iambic pattern, supporting the word-based approach and showing that Arabic derivation is incompatible with the root-based approach. In word-based approach, phonological properties of the diminutive structure are dependent on the base of the non-diminutive word where transfer effects occur. Transfer effect refers to the notion that the phonological form of the word base affects the phonological form of the derived templatic word (Alshammari & Davis, 2019). Such effect can be ascribed to phonological properties (such as vowel length and word length), morphological components (such as prefixes). According to McCarthy and Prince (1990), three transfer effects between diminutive and non-diminutive were reported, as follows:

i. The syllable structure of the base noun affects the syllable structure of the diminutive form in that: a diminutive comprises three syllables (as in 2a) unless the base noun is either monosyllabic (as in 2b) or bisyllabic beginning with CVCV sequence (as in 2c) in which cases the diminutive would comprise two syllables.
ii. The second consonant of the diminutive form is /w/ if the base noun begins with a CVV sequence (2d).
iii. The vowel length of the base noun affects the final syllable of the diminutive in that; if there is a long vowel in the base noun, the diminutive has a long vowel in the final syllable (2e). If there is a short vowel in the base noun, the diminutive has a short vowel in the final syllable (2f).

(2)

	Non-diminutive	**Diminutive**	**Gloss**
a)	ki.taab	ku.taj.jib	'book'
b)	ġuṣn	ġu.ṣajn	'branch'
c)	qa.lam	qu.lajm	'pencil'
d)	xaa.lid	xu.waj.lid	Proper name
e)	faa.nuus	fu.waj.niis	'lamp'
f)	kaw.kab	ku.waj.kib	'planet'

Given a very brief outline of transfer effects in SA diminutives which support the word-based approach, it is worthy to ask whether the formation of diminutives in JA is based on the phonological features of the stem noun or on the underlying discontinuous consonantal root morpheme. This question has been raised as processing of Arabic derivation is still debatable as illustrated in the literature review above. The remainder of this study is outlined as follows: in Section II, an overview of the methods used in collecting the data has been described. Section III, presents the part of speech concerned in JA diminutives and the morphological processes they undergo, their templates, and the stress patterns involved, followed by an examination of JA diminutives as of whether they are a root-based or stem/word-based motivated, and a test of any observed transfer effects (if there any) is discussed in Section IV.

II. Methodology

Although the development of JA varieties contains a diversity of local patterning where each one developed its own socially featured variety (Mashaqba et al. 2020b), they share many linguistic characteristics in common including some diminutive patterns. Data were collected from twelve JA-speaking people (six males and six females) who participated voluntarily in this study. Six of them were native speakers of Bani Ḥassan Bedouin Arabic and six were native speakers of ᶜAmmani Arabic. The ages of the participants ranged from 65 - 75 years old (M=69) to ensure that they speak their original dialects. Three out of six of Bani Ḥassan Arabic participants were academically uneducated and all lived in Al-ʕAluuk, Az-Zarqa and Al Manshiyah, Al-Mafraq. Two out of the six Ammani Arabic participants were academically uneducated and all lived in Khalda, Shmaysani, and Tabarbour, Amman. None of the participants had any hearing or articulation problems or deficiencies. To avoid research-bias, at the end of data collection task, a linguist, a native speaker of Bani Ḥassan Arabic, double-checked the recorded material and the transcription of Bani Ḥassan Arabic

diminutive data, and another linguist, a native speaker of Ammani Arabic, double-checked the recorded material and the transcription of ᶜAmmani Arabic diminutive data.

A list of 80 words of different syllable weights (monosyllabic, disyllabic, and trisyllabic) were collected, transcribed, analysed qualitatively, and presented in tables according to their syllable weights, syllable shapes, and consonantal roots (See the Appendix). Only selected examples in the discussions were translated into English. All of the words from the 80-word list were randomized and embedded in the phrase [šuu taṣġiir ____] 'what is the diminutive form of ____'. It turned out that some words do not have a diminutive form. So, in addition to the list of words that the participants were asked to give the diminutive form for, five participants recorded for (5-7) minutes a spontaneous speech on a variety of topics, such as traditional dishes, life experiences, and family relations in order to help the researchers to generate more data. Naturally occurring conversations or (spontaneous speech) was an excellent method to generate such type of data as Jordanian people tend to use diminutives abundantly in their everyday language.

Moreover, the researchers used social media platforms to collect data in other languages to provide a cross-linguistic analysis. A question was shared online via a private Facebook group called *Linguistics*. This group was created 14 years ago for the purpose of discussing any topic related to linguistics (language as phenomenon of culture and society). The group members are linguists and graduate students of linguistics, and they are from diverse nationalities and cultures. Two questions were posted on the group: (i) 'what are the diminutive and non-diminutive forms of the following nouns: dog, cat, fish, and bird in your mother language?' and (ii) what is the diminutive form of your name in your mother language?' After four days, the post had reached over 350 responses covering over 30 languages. This method was useful as it enabled the researchers to view a large number of responses in a short period of time. However, not all the participants offered the diminutive and non-diminutive forms of the full list required. The researchers had employed some of the data in the Introduction and Discussion sections to compare and contrast the diminutive formation cross-linguistically.

III. Diminutives in JA

Diminutives in JA involve internal modification of the non-diminutive stem, as in *naaṣiḥ* > *naṣṣuuḥ* 'fat/dim.' and *samra* > *smeera* ~ *sammuura* 'swarthy/dim.'. In terms of parts of speech, diminutives are found with proper names (e.g., *xaalid* > *xweelid* ~ *xalluud* 'Khalid/dim.'), animate nouns (e.g., *naḥle* > *naḥuule* 'bee/dim.'), inanimate nouns (e.g., *šams* > *šmeesa* ~ *šammuuse* 'sun/dim.'), adjectives (e.g., *rxiiṣ* > *rxajjiṣ* 'cheap/dim.'), unassimilated loanwords (e.g., *bank* > *bnajjik*; 'bank/dim.'; *talafoon* > *tleefiin* 'telephone/dim.'; *bikam* > *bkajma* 'pickup car/dim.'), and verbs (e.g., *ʔakalit* > *ʔakal-eet* 'I ate/dim.'; *ġassalit* > *ġassal-eet* 'I washed/dim.'). The latter set of verbs is produced by children and by adults (women in particular) addressing children in certain contexts. The pattern produced takes place as *stem-eet*-(v) in structures comprising perfective verbs with first and second persons. Otherwise, no diminutive verbs are produced; for instance, perfective verbs marking third person, and imperfective verbs do not have a diminutive reflex, as shown in (3) where words with the consonants {š-r-b} entail the sense of 'drink'.

		Perfective			**Imperfective**	
(3)	a.	ʔana šarabeet	'I drank Dim.'	h.	ʔana ʔašrab	'I am drinking'
	b.	ʔiḥna šarabeena	'we drank Dim.'	i.	ʔiḥna nišrab	'we are drinking'
	c.	ʔintu šarabeetu	'you p. drank Dim.'	j.	ʔintu tišrabu	'you p. are drinking'
	d.	ʔinti šarabeeti	'you f.s. drank Dim.'	k.	ʔinti tišrabi	'you f.s. are drinking'
	e.	ʔinta šarabeet	'you m.s. drank Dim.'	l.	ʔinta tišrab	'you m.s. are drinking'
	f.	huwwe širib	'he drank'	m.	huwwe yišrab	'he is drinking'
	g.	hiyya širbat	'she drank'	n.	hiyya tišrab	'she is drinking'

JA use of the discontinuous pattern as a diminution device requires a degree of productivity. The examples below illustrate the prosodic structure of JA diminutive patterns and their actual lexical distribution. The urban dialect in (4) presents one pattern, while the Bedouin dialect in (5) includes nine patterns.

(4) **Urban Dialect**

a) (Iambic) $C_1aC_2C_2uuC_3$ [ḥab.'buub] 'beloved-dim.'

(5) **Bedouin Dialect**

a) (Trochaic) C1C2ajjiC3 ['wlaj.jid] 'boy-dim.'
b) (Trochaic) C1C2eeC1C2a ['mšeem.ša] 'apricot-dim.'
c) (Trochaic) C1weeC2iC3 ['ʒwee.bit] 'officer-dim.'
d) (Trochaic) C1C2eeC3a ['ḥlee.wa] 'handsome-dim.'
e) (Trochaic) C1aC2C2a ['xaj.ja] 'sister-dim.'
f) (Trochaic) C1C2ajja ['bnaj.ja] 'daughter-dim.'
g) (Iambic) C1C2eeC3 +aat [ʕwee.'naat] 'eyes-dim.'
h) (Iambic) C1C2eeC3iiC4 [bnee.'ṭiil] 'trouser-dim.'
i)(Iambic) C1wajC3 +aat [ʤwaj.'ḍaat] 'good (plu.)-dim.'
j)(Monosyllabic) C1C2ajj [ṣbajj] 'boy-dim.'
k) (Monosyllabic) C1C2eeC3 [gleeb] 'heart-dim.'

The iambic C1aC2.'C2uuC3(e) pattern is an overwhelmingly favoured diminutive pattern in the urban JA with stress being assigned to the ultimate syllable as in (4a). It includes different stem shapes (monosyllabic, disyllabic, and trisyllabic) as well as different consonantal root types (triliteral root, reduplicated root, and quadrilateral root). The singular feminine diminutive is further marked by suffixing the vowel /e/. This pattern will be discussed with more details in (Section IV).

In Bedouin JA, diminutives enjoy a variety of stress patterns. In patterns presented in (5a-f), stress falls on the initial syllable presenting a trochaic pattern. In (5g-h), the iambic pattern CCVV.'CVVC with its two distinct vocalizations $C_1C_2ee.C_3$ +aat and $C_1C_2ee.C_3iiC_4$ takes place, with stress is assigned to the final CVVC (Watson, 2011; Mashaqba & Huneety, 2018). The iambic patterns CCVV.CVVC and CCVC.CVVC arise only from plurals and trisyllabic loan words. In the Bedouin dialect, plurals are diminuted by suffixation of the sound plural feminine suffix (+aat) to the diminutive form as in (5g) and (5i), while plurals in the urban dialect are diminuted by suffixation of the sound plural masculine suffix (+iin) and to a minor extent the sound feminine plural suffix (+aat) to the pattern CVC.CVVC (as in *šaaṭṭuur+iin* 'clever-dim. m. p.' and *šaaṭṭuur+aat* 'clever-dim. f. p.'). The monosyllabic patterns (5j-k) arise from monosyllabic and disyllabic stems. The trochaic CVCCV patterns in (5e-f) have a low level of frequency indicating their non-productivity. However, other trochaic patterns require a degree of productivity: CCVC.CVC and CCVV.CV patterns arise from monosyllabic and disyllabic stems. CCVVC.CV pattern is almost entirely limited to trisyllabic feminine nouns. CCVV.CVC pattern arises from disyllabic masculine nouns. CCVC.CV pattern arises from disyllabic and trisyllabic feminine stems. (See Appendix A for the complete list of data). In the next section, we offer a descriptive analysis of our data which contain different consonantal root types and different phonological features to show how diminutive formation is based on the underlying consonantal root rather than the phonological properties of the non-diminutive structures, and to note on the lack of systematic and significant transfer effects that McCarthy and Prince (1990) have indicated in their analysis for SA.

IV. Are There Transfer Effects in JA Diminutives?

In this section, the work considers the urban JA diminutive pattern $C_1aC_2C_2uuC_3$ as it exhibits a high level of productivity and predictability, and arises from non-diminutive words of different syllable structures, different parts of speech, and different consonantal roots (See Appendix B for the complete list of data). Diminutives illustrated in (6) are formed from triliteral roots. The root column in data in (6 and 8) is based on the traditional monolingual Arabic dictionaries (Mukhtar As-Sihah and Al-Mu'jam Al-Wasiṭ). Notice that the C-slots represent the three root consonants where the doubled second consonant of the root represents the geminate sound in the diminutive form $C_1VC_2C_2VVC_3$.

(6)

	Non-diminutive	Diminutive	Root	Gloss
a)	ḥa.biib	ḥab.buub	ḥ-b-b	'beloved'
b)	sam.ra	sam.muu.ra	s-m-r	'swarthy'
c)	naa.ṣiḥ	naṣ.ṣuuḥ	n-ṣ-ḥ	'fat'
d)	ta.maa.ra	tam.muu.ra	t-m-r	Proper name
e)	karš	kar.ruuš	k-r-š	'belly'
f)	ʕa.sal	ʕas.suul	ʕ-s-l	'honey'
g)	m-ʕaf.fin	ʕaf.fuun	ʕ-f-n	'smells bad'

First, with respect to vowel length, (6a) is an example where there is a long vowel in the base noun and its diminutive form has a long vowel in the final syllable. However, this cannot be considered as a transfer effect because other examples (6b-6f) do not witness any effects of vowel length. All non-diminutives having long or short vowels have the same vowel length in the diminutive form. Second, the feminine suffixation +a in (6b) and (6d) causes a three-syllable diminutive. Non-diminutives with one syllable (6e), two syllables (6a), and three syllables (6g) always have a two-syllable masculine diminutive or a three-syllable feminine diminutive or plural diminutive, as discussed previously in (Section III). Hence, the feminine suffix contributes to the resyllabification of the diminutive form. The word-final feminine suffix (typically a final vowel) can be found among different languages, consider the sequences in (7).

(7)

	Language	dog-dim. masc.	dog-dim. fem.	cat-dim. masc.	cat-dim. fem.
a)	Romanian	juklor(o)	juklor(i)	machkor(o)	machkior(i)
b)	Brazilian Portuguese	cachorrinh(o)	cachorrinh(a)	gatinh(o)	gatinh(a)
c)	[c]Ammani Arabic	kalluub	kalluub(e)	basbuus	basbuus(e)

Back to the data in (6), the consonants in the diminutive form are always a reflection of the underlying consonantal root. The CVV sequence in (6c) for example, does not predict any certain consonant in the diminutive form. A rather clearer case of reflection of the underlying consonantal root is illustrated in (8). Where non-diminutives in (8a-8c) have quadrilateral roots resulting in $C_1VC_2C_3VVC_4$ and non-diminutives in (8d-8e) have reduplicated roots resulting in $C_1VC_2C_1VVC_3$.

(8)

	Non-diminutive	Diminutive	Root	Gloss
a)	ḍif.daʕ	ḍaf.duuʕ	ḍ-f-d-ʕ	‘frog’
b)	ʔar.nab	ʔar.nuub	ʔ-r-n-b	‘rabbit’
c)	ṯaʕ.lab	ṯaʕ.luub	ṯ-ʕ-l-b	‘fox’
d)	dubb	dab.duub	d-b-b	‘bear’
e)	baṭ.ṭa	baṭ.buu.ṭa	b-ṭ-ṭ	‘duck’

One may argue that diminutive forms like (8d) and (8e) are formed by reduplication similar to some other Semitic languages which use reduplication in diminutives derivation. Consider the examples in (9).

(9) Diminutive in Modern Hebrew (De Belder et al., 2014, p.152).

	Non-diminutive	Diminutive	Gloss
a)	xazir	xazarzir	‘pig’
b)	bacal	bcalcal	‘onion’
c)	xatul	xataltul	‘cat’
d)	géver	gvarvar	‘man’

Modern Hebrew use of reduplication as a diminution device has high levels of frequency indicating productivity. The rule is to reduplicate the last syllable of the non-diminutive to form a diminutive. Some may think of this reduplication as a type of transfer effect between non-diminutive and diminutive as McCarthy and Prince (1990) consider the reduplication in broken plural formation as a transfer effect between the singular and the broken plural. For instance, in *zal.za.la* ‘earthquake sg.’ > *za.laa.zil* (McCarthy & Prince, 1990, p.219), they claim that the reduplication in the broken plural form results from the reduplicated root of the singular form and that the consonantal root of the base is /z-l/. However, our intention here is to indicate that the reflection they found in the broken plural is that of the underlying reduplicated consonantal root /z-l-l/ not /z-l/. Likewise; it is the reduplicated root /d-b-b/ and /b-ṭ-ṭ/ that are reflected in the diminutive form *dabduub* and *baṭ.buu.ṭa* respectively following the pattern $C_1VC_2C_1VVC_3$. Much work should be devoted to revise the reality of bilateral vs. triliteral roots since some serious arguments were in favour of the biliterality of $C_1C_2C_2$ and $C_1C_1C_2$ roots (e.g., Lowenstamm, 2010).

V. Conclusion

As a conclusion, diminutive discontinuous patterns are used in JA as a productive diminution device while the majority of other languages use suffixation and reduplication to form diminutives. The feminine diminutive in JA is further marked by a final vowel, and the plural diminutive uses the sound plural suffixes [iin] and [aat]. Diminutive verbs (CVCVC-eeC) in JA comprise a fixed structure as they are produced by children and by adults addressing children. In such a case, the diminutive pattern is produced in structures comprising perfective verbs with first and second persons. Different stress patterns are found in JA diminutive containing trochaic and iambic patterns. The pattern CVC.'CVVC indicates no transfer effects between diminutive and non-diminutive which supports the root-based approach.

Appendix

A. Bedouin Dialect Data

Root	Non-diminutive	Syllable shape	Pattern	Diminutive	Syllable shape	Pattern
w-l-d	wa.lad	CV.CVC	CaCaC	wlaj.jid	CCVC.CVC	CCaCCiC
f-ṭ-m	faaṭ.ma	CVVC.CV	CaaCCa	fṭaj.jim	CCVC.CVC	CCaCCiC
š-b-b	šabb	CVG	CaG	šbaj.jib	CCVC.CVC	CCaCCiC
ġ-z-l	ġa.zaal	CV.CVVC	CaCaaC	ġzaj.jil	CCVC.CVC	CCaCCiC
ḥ-b-b	ḥa.biib	CV.CVVC	CaCiiC	ḥbaj.jib	CCVC.CVC	CCaCCiC
ṯ-w-b	ṯoob	CVVC	CooC	ṯwaj.jib	CCVC.CVC	CCaCCiC
z-j-n	zeen	CVVC	CeeC	zwaj.jin	CCVC.CVC	CCaCCiC
ṣ-ḥ-n	ṣa.ḥan	CV.CVC	CaCaC	ṣḥaj.jin	CCVC.CVC	CCaCCiC
g-ṣ-r	gi.ṣiir	CV.CVVC	CiCiiC	gṣaj.jir	CCVC.CVC	CCaCCiC
r-x-ṣ	rixiiṣ	CCVVC	CiCiiC	rxaj.jis	CCVC.CVC	CCaCCiC
g-r-b	gi.riib	CV.CVVC	CiCiiC	graj.jib	CCVC.CVC	CCaCCiC
ṣ-w-t	ṣoot	CVVC	CooC	ṣwaj.jit	CCVC.CVC	CCaCCiC
loan w.	bank	CVCC	CaCC	bnaj.jik	CCVC.CVC	CCaCCiC
h-l-l	hi.laal	CV.CVVC	CiCaaC	hlaj.jil	CCVC.CVC	CCaCCiC
s-m-r	sam.ra	CVC.CV	CaCCa	smee.ra	CCVV.CV	CCeeCa
ʕ-j-š	ʕaaj.ša	CVVC.CV	CaaCCa	ʕwee.ša	CCVV.CV	CCeeCa
ḥ-l-a	ḥi.lu	CV.CV	CiCu	ḥlee.wa	CCVV.CV	CCeeCa
š-w-r	šaa.ra	CVV.CV	CaaCa	šwee.ra	CCVV.CV	CCeeCa
š-m-s	ša.mis	CV.CVC	CaCiC	šmee.sa	CCVV.CV	CCeeCa
z-j-n	zeen	CVVC	CeeC	zwee.na	CCVV.CV	CCeeCa
m-h-r	muh.ra	CVC.CV	CuCCa	mhee.ra	CCVV.CV	CCeeCa
f-l-l	fi.lifl.la	CV.CVC.CV	CiCiCCa	fleef.la	CCVVC.CV	CCeeCCa
m-š-š	mi.šim.ša	CV.CVC.CV	Ci.CiC.Ca	mšeem.ša	CCVVC.CV	CCeeCCa
s-m-m	sim.si.ma	CVC.CV.CV	CiCCiCa	smees.ma	CCVVC.CV	CCeeCCa

x-l-d	xaa.lid	CVV.CVC	CaaCiC	xwee.lid	CCVV.CVC	CCeeCiC
t-ʤ-r	taa. ʤir	CVV.CVC	CaaCiC	twee. ʤir	CCVV.CVC	CCeeCiC
ẓ-b-ṭ	ẓaa.biṭ	CVV.CVC	CaaCiC	ẓwee.biṭ	CCVV.CVC	CCeeCiC
š-ʕ-r	šaa.ʕir	CVV.CVC	CaaCiC	šwee.ʕir	CCVV.CVC	CCeeCiC
ʤ-ʕ-d	ʤaa.ʕid	CVV.CVC	CaaCiC	ʤwee.ʕid	CCVV.CVC	CCeeCiC
ṭ-r-b	muṭ.rib	CVC.CVC	CuCCiC	mṭee.rib	CCVV.CVC	CCeeCiC
ṯ-ʕ-l-b	ṯaʕ.lab	CVC.CVC	CaCCaC	ṯʕee.lib	CCVV.CVC	CCeeCiC
s-n-n	snaan	CCVVC	CCaaC	snee.naat	CCVV.CVVC	CCeeCaaC
ʕ-j-n	ʕjuun	CCVVC	CCuuC	ʕwee.naat	CCVV.CVVC	CCeeCaaC
w-l-d	wlaad	CCVVC	CCaaC	wlee.daat	CCVV.CVVC	CCeeCaaC
g-r-š	gruuš	CCVVC	CCuuC	gree.šaat	CCVV.CVVC	CCeeCaaC
ġ-r-ẓ	ġraaẓ	CCVVC	CCaaC	ġree.ẓaat	CCVV.CVVC	CCeeCaaC
loan w.	ta.la.foon	CV.CV.CVVC	CaCaCooC	tlee.fiin	CCVV.CVVC	CCeeCiiC
loan w.	ban.ṭa.loon	CVC.CV.CVVC	CaCCaCooC	bnee.ṭiil	CCVV.CVVC	CCeeCiiC
ʕ-m-m	ʕam.ma	CVC.CV	CaCCa	ʕmaj.ma	CCVC.CV	CCaCCa
ḥ-n-n	ḥa.nuu.na	CV.CVV.CV	CaCuuCa	ḥnaj.na	CCVC.CV	CCaCCa
loan w.	bi.kam	CV.CVC	CiCaC	bkaj.ma	CCVC.CV	CCaCCa
b-n-j	bi.nit	CV.CVC	CiCiC	bnaj.ja	CCVC.CV	CCaCCa
ṣ-b-j	ṣa.bi	CV.CV	CaCi	ṣbajj	CCVG	CCaG
b-n-j	ʔi.bin	CV.CVC	CiCiC	bnajj	CCVG	CCaG
š-j-ʔ	šajj	CVG	CaG	šwajj	CCVG	CCaG
g-l-b	ga.lib	CV.CVC	CaCiC	gleeb	CCVVC	CCeeC
š-w-g	šoog	CVVC	CooC	šweeg	CCVVC	CCeeC
ʤ-w-d	ʤaj.daat	CVC.CVVC	CaCCaaC	ʤwaj.daat	CCVC.CVVC	CCaCCaaC
s-n-n	snaan	CCVVC	CCaaC	snaj.naat	CCVC.CVVC	CCaCCaaC
ʔ-x-a	ʔuxt~ ʔaxt	CVCC	Cu/aCC	xaj.ja	CVC.CV	CaCCa

B. Urban Dialect Data

Root	**Non-diminutive**	**Syllable shape**	**Pattern**	**Diminutive**	**Syllable shape**	**Pattern**
n-ṣ-ḥ	naa.ṣiḥ	CVV.CVC	CaaCiC	naṣ.ṣuuḥ	CVC.CVVC	CaCCuuC
ʕ-f-n	mʕaf.fin	CCVC.CVC	CCaCCiC	ʕaf.fuun	CVC.CVVC	CaCCuuC
k-r-š	karš	CVCC	CaCC	kar.ruuš	CVC.CVVC	CaCCuuC
ʔ-r-n-b	ʔar.nab	CVC.CVC	CaCCaC	ʔar.nuub	CVC.CVVC	CaCCuuC
h-b-b	ḥa.biib	CV.CVVC	CaCiiC	ḥab.buub	CVC.CVVC	CaCCuuC
k-l-b	kalb	CVCC	CaCC	kal.buub	CVC.CVVC	CaCCuuC
ḍ-f-d-ʕ	ḍif.daʕ	CVC.CVC	CiCCaC	ḍaf.duuʕ	CVC.CVVC	CaCCuuC
ʕ-s-l	ʕa.sal	CV.CVC	CaCaC	ʕas.suul	CVC.CVVC	CaCCuuC
š-t-r	šaat.ra	CVVC.CV	CaaCCa	šat.tuu.ra	CVC.CVV.CV	CaCCuuCa
ḥ-z-r	ḥuz.zee.ra	CVC.CVV.CV	CuCCeeCa	ḥaz.zuu.ra	CVC.CVV.CV	CaCCuuCa
t-m-r	ta.maa.ra	CV.CVV.CV	CaCaaCa	tam.muu.ra	CVC.CVV.CV	CaCCuuCa
n-ṣ-ḥ	naaṣ.ḥa	CVVC.CV	CaaCCa	naṣ.ṣuu.ḥa	CVC.CVV.CV	CaCCuuCa
b-ṭ-ṭ	baṭ.ṭa	CVC.CV	CaCCa	baṭ.buu.ṭa	CVC.CVV.CV	CaCCuuCa
s-m-r	sam.ra	CVC.CV	CaCCa	sam.muu.ra	CVC.CVV.CV	CaCCuuCa
t-m-r	tam.ra	CVC.CV	CaCCa	tam.muu.ra	CVC.CVV.CV	CaCCuuCa
ṣ-b-r	ṣab.ra	CVC.CV	CaCCa	ṣab.buu.ra	CVC.CVV.CV	CaCCuuCa
n-t-f	nit.fe	CVC.CV	CiCCe	nat.tuu.fe	CVC.CVV.CV	CaCCuuCe
b-n-j	bi.nit	CV.CVC	CiCiC	ban.nuu.te	CVC.CVV.CV	CaCCuuCe
ʤ-d-l	ʤa.dii.le	CV.CVV.CV	CaCiiCe	ʤad.duu.le	CVC.CVV.CV	CaCCuuCe
š-m-s	šams	CVCC	CaCC	šam.muu.se	CVC.CVV.CV	CaCCuuCe
f-t-n	faa.tin	CVV.CVC	CaaCiC	fat.tuu.ne	CVC.CVV.CV	CaCCuuCe
ḥ-n-n	ḥa.niin	CV.CVVC	CaCiiC	ḥan.nuu.ne	CVC.CVV.CV	CaCCuuCe
ʔ-m-l	ʔa.mal	CV.CVC	CaCaC	ʔam.muu.le	CVC.CVV.CV	CaCCuuCe
ʔ-k-l	ʔak.le	CVC.CV	CaCCe	ʔak.kuu.le	CVC.CVV.CV	CaCCuuCe
ḥ-m-d	ʔaḥ.mad	CVC.CVC	CaCCaC	ḥam.muu.de	CVC.CVV.CV	CaCCuuCe
d-b-b	dub.be	CVC.CV	CuCCe	dab.duu.be	CVC.CVV.CV	CaCCuuCe

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Science and Society: The Impact of Science Abuse on Social Life in Well's *The Invisible Man*

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***Abstract*—This article explores the relationship between science and society in *The Invisible Man* and elaborates the impact of science abuse on social life conveyed in H. G. Wells's *The Invisible Man.* This article uses the qualitative method and sociology of literature approach by Alan Swingewood and Diana Laurenson. The study result shows that the science abuse act committed by the main character later leads to social rejection and anger toward him. As the consequence, people hunted and murdered him.**

***Index Terms*—science, abuse, society, The Invisible Man, Wells**

I. Introduction

Advances in Science and Technology have changed the way of thinking in this era (Arafah & Hayim, 2019). Science development has a major impact on society by drastically changing how to live and how to believe. It continues to flow in all aspects of human life (Arafah et al., 2021). It makes human life easier and gives the chance to expand societal concerns such as education, and ethics; create culture; and improve human conditions (Burke et al., 1983, p.1). The rapid development of science made human life easier. Humans use science and technology in their daily lives. For example, the internet has become the most important medium of communication (Arafah & Hasyim, 2022). Social media has been inseparable from modern people where they use it to communicate and update their lives to each other without being limited by space and time, even taking part in democracy in the advanced situation (Hasjim et al., 2020; Arafah et al., 2021).

There are many reasons why few great scientific discoveries are kept to be classified and concealed to the public (Tudge, 1999). One of them is to minimize the chance of science abuse by unreliable people who might exploit and use it to harm others. Rozell (2020) in the preface of his book *Dangerous Science* argued that even some people believe scientists are free from the responsibility about how their discoveries are used, yet the potential use of the discovery can be difficult to predict (p. x). Tudge (1999) added that even though science should be value-free, the idea might be interrupted in harmful ways. When science knowledge flows into society and is influenced by certain values, on that occasion, science would appear dangerous. Without moral control, science would become hazardous and irresponsible (Hammond, 1979, p. 90).

Science is like a double-edged sword. It can invent a cure for a deathly disease but also can make the deathly disease itself. It is beneficial but also destructive, depending on who is using it. Because of its versatility, science also can be abused by certain people to fulfill their benefit. Science abuse is an act of manipulating science to meet personal interests and gain benefits, not only by a person but also can be in a massive scenario (Mooney, 2005, p. 1). At their best, scientist represents the best in humanity as an epitome of human intelligence and curiosity. However, the possibility of using their knowledge in the wrong way is always still there.

In the Victorian era, Science development grew rapidly and often adapted in Art and Literature (Gahatraj, 2021). Literature is a written piece of work containing aesthetic merits produced by authors, (Arafah et al., 2021) and often regarded as mere imagination (Ardiansah et al., 2019). People are spending their leisure time and enjoying the literary work for the scenes, plots, and characters (Sunardi et al., 2018). However literary work is also called a social product

because it is reflecting on life at one period (Irmawati et al., 2020). It can be considered as a culturally valued text reflecting human life (Arafah et al., 2020). Literary works contain information on history, culture, and morals existing in the particular society (Andi & Arafah, 2017; Arafah & Kaharuddin, 2019). Therefore, Art and Literature can be used as reliable tools to promote an individual's responsibility and awareness (Arafah et al., 2021). The imitation of life reflection in literary works is usually identified by describing a piece of descriptions the author presented in form of text on pages, chapters, and parts of the novel (Purwaningsh et al., 2020). An author of a literary work also uses utterances on the text that have rich meaning and interpretation based on how the reader will interpret it to give more experience in reflecting the human real life while reading (Yulianti et al., 2022).

Science in Literature is classified in a different genre called Science Fiction or Sci-Fi. Science Fiction is regarded as Literature of Change because of its distinct characteristic (Gunn, 2020, p. xii). It has its fictional device called *the novum*. This fictional device contains the premise that inserts the significant difference between the fictional world and the real world (Roberts, 2016). There are countless works in this genre, Jules Verne and H. G. Wells are regarded as pioneers of Science Fiction.

This study explores the impact of science abuse on social life based on character performance in *The Invisible Man*, a novel of scientific romance written by H. G. Wells. It shows how a scientific discovery caused a negative reaction after it had been applied to society with harmful intentions. Regardless of the benefits human gained from science, it is important to acknowledge how scientific creativity can lead to destruction if it used non-ethical choices (Thomas, 2013, p. 42).

II. Literature Review

A. The Invisible Man: A Scientific Romance

The Invisible Man (1897) by H. G. Wells is one of the modern science privileged works that is honored in Victorian Literature (Gahatraj, 2021). *The Invisible Man* has given various film adaptations since it was released, The Invisible Man (1933), Abbott and Costello Meet the Invisible Man (1951), Memoirs of an Invisible Man (1992), Hollow Man (2009), and The Invisible Man (2020). The most obvious meaning of this novel is its moral warning about one's individual desire to go beyond human boundaries with science as a tool. *The Invisible Man* represents various perspectives about the possibilities of science and its place in society (Sirabian, 2001). Wells examines the impact of science on society through the eyes of various characters. It presents how science has been viewed from an essentially societal point of view (Singh, 1984).

The idea of invisibility alone is tempting enough to draw the attention and curiosity of readers. It is fascinating but also terrifying. Anyone with this ability could easily escape from people's notice and be free from social criticism and social pressure. Tons of benefits could be gained from invisibility. One who possessed this could easily go entering an unlocked room, eavesdrop on information, and secretly monitor people. Invisibility in literature itself exists for a long time ago. Some references come from Roman and Greek mythology. One of the earliest is "Ring of Gynges" by Plato (Williams, 2010).

The Invisible Man is Wells's third work. As a young man, he got a scholarship to the Royal College of Science in England. This formal education in science linked Wells's great works of science fiction (McDonell et al., 1982). He got a degree in zoology and published several scientific essays and educational journals aside from his science fiction works. Wells said that "he is simply a storyteller who happens to be a student of science" (McLean, 2009). McLean (2009) added that *The Invisible Man* is Wells's first scientific romance that shows "a recognizable society". The significance of the novel is more in exploring the potential complexities in the relationship between science and society rather than just focusing on the scientific aspect.

The Invisible Man tells about a brilliant scientist named Griffin, who made a discovery in physiology and made him invisible. He later turned into a megalomaniac driven by his fierce ambition and became a parable of the dangerous power of science. Griffin felt superior after obtaining such an ability and used it to create terror in society. With his ability, he committed several crimes such as robbery and violations, even casually murdering innocent people in the process of creating his "Reign of Terror." After being such a nuisance, he later being hunted by society and beaten to death.

The story implied that science is powerful and humans should be wise in the application. *The Invisible Man* portrays the image of a mad scientist who abuses his knowledge and uses it for his greed. Singh (1984) noted that "Wells affirms the scientist has a moral and social commitment which he cannot abdicate under any circumstance." Griffin remains the portrayal of a self-doomed scientist because of his selfishness.

B. Sociology of Literature by Alan Swingewood and Diana Laurenson

The sociological approach in the study of literature has a long history. This approach believed that literature is a social product because it cannot be separated from the fact that literature has a relation with society. This approach helps people to see how people interact and socialize in a community then see the relationship between a literary work with the social condition where the story was written (Fadillah et al., 2022). This theory has different approaches by many scholars, one of them is Alan Swingewood and Diana Laurenson. Alan Swingewood was born in 1938, in

Staffordshire, England. He was a lecturer in Sociology at the London School of Economics and Political Science. He had an impressive sociological career and has published several works on the sociology of literature, sociology theory, and culture. In early 1972, he co-authored a book with Diana Laurenson which became one of the most influential works in the Sociology of Literature approach (Jadhav, 2014).

Diana Laurenson was a lecturer at North East London Polytechnic. She has co-authored a book with Alan Swingewood entitled *The Sociology of Literature*. This book presents the approaches and methods to analyze literary works from the societal point of view (Swingewood & Laurenson, 1972).

Swingewood and Laurenson (1972) believe that the relationship between sociology and literature has been very close and inseparable. They share similar conspectus at the most basic level regardless of being in a quite distinct area of research. With the sociology approach, literature is concerned with man's world, including the adaptation, and the desire to change it. Thus, the literary works can be considered as a faithful attempt in re-creating the social world (Swingewood & Laurenson, 1972).

The book *The Sociology of Literature* has concluded three ways in approaching a literary work. The first one is the most popular approach that adopts the documentary aspects of literature. This approach considered literary works as the mirror of the age. The second one moves away to the production side, which deals with the author. This approach believes that the social situation of the author has a consequent impact on his work regarding style and content. The last is tracing how a literary work is received by a particular society in a specific period (Swingewood & Laurenson, 1972).

Sociology of Literature focuses on people's relations and society. It seeks the relationship between literary work and social reality from various perspectives and dimensions. Spector and Kitsuse (1977) state that literary works usually reveal situations or problems that occur in social life. Sociology of Literature describes reality and social fact by using language through the authors' imagination to deliver to the readers (Afiah et al., 2022). The existence of literature cannot be separated from the social reality which occurs in society.

Based on the elaboration of the theory, it can be concluded that analyzing the novel *The Invisible Man* by H. G. Wells from the perspective of sociology will reveal the social problems in the story.

III. Methodology

This research was conducted by using the descriptive qualitative method. The data were chosen from text and clustered by using library research. The writer collected data through the novel *The Invisible Man* written by H. G Wells as the primary source, and from books, articles, and other reliable material related to research. In analyzing data, the writer uses the sociology of literature by Laurenson and Swingewood to examine the impact of science abuse on social life as reflected in Wells's *The Invisible Man.*

IV. Findings and Discussion

Most of Wells's work portrays science-based stories such as time machines, alien invasion, and a mad scientist. His novel stands as one of the foundational works of science fiction (Sayeau, 2005). Well's *The Invisible Man* explores the horrible potential that would happen if science fell into the wrong hand. In this novel, the main character named Griffin did a secret experiment and succeed transform himself into the Invisible Man. With the new ability he obtained from long research and countless experiments, he terrorized the entire village and became a social nuisance.

From the very first day after he got the invisibility, Griffin realized the extraordinary advantage he got. "My head was already teeming with plans of all the wild and wonderful things I had now impunity to do" (Wells, 2019, p. 142). This sentence implied Griffin's undesirable act he planned to do using his invisibility of him. Singh (1984) also sensed the growing urge of self-importance and ill intentions. Griffin committed several crimes, such as robbery, violations, terrorization, and murder. Science development is crucial, however, it needs to consider the implications on society (Sekar, 2018).

A. Social Rejection

This novel had a setting in rural Sussex, England, in the 1890s. The people there are mostly country folks who focus on their land and weather. Well's portrayal of those country folk comes off noisy, extraverted, opinionated, and loud. They are also close-minded and superstitious. Like any rural people who like gossip and preying around people's business, the villager of Iping is tremendously turned off by Griffin's elitism, and his suspicious secrecy. They despise his cold act and individualism. Well's portrays Iping as "a tight-knit community: everybody knows everybody else, and indeed everybody minds everybody's business" (Cantor, 2010).

From the first day he arrived in Iping, and stayed in Mrs. Hall's inn, he already attracted the villager curiosity because of his grotesque appearance. Many speculations arise about his overtime.

The stranger did not go to church, and indeed made no difference between Sunday and the irreligious day, even in costume. Communication with the other world beyond the village he had none (Wells, 2019, p. 30)

The early chapters of *The Invisible Man* contain the finest recognizable societal point of view. The story was narrated through the various perspectives of different individuals from Iping society (Bergonzi, 1961, p.116). As typical rural people in a small village, a religious matter is important to them. The church is considered as one of the socializing

places aside from bars and not seeing him in none makes them curious. Their curiosity starts growing into suspicion and they judge him silently. They observe his activities and openly discuss them in the bar. Most of the topic is about his occupation, wild speculations about Griffin spark here and there, from being a fugitive to a heretic. The entire village hated him, children feared him and called him *Bogey Man* (Wells, 2019, p. 32).

Because of the intense rumors circling the village, Mrs. Hall, the inn lady, provoked Griffin and complained directly to him. The complaint occurs because of the violations of social norms and failing to meet social expectations (Arafah & Kaharuddin, 2019). Griffin's hostile image and delayed accommodation pay made Mrs. Hall angry and demanded the answer. She provoked him to tell the truth about himself. He responded with “who I am or what I am. I’ll show you. By Heaven! I’ll show you” and started taking off his clothes (Wells, 2019, p. 51).

After stripping his disguised in front of people, Griffin presented himself as the Invisible Man. As the result, the culprit of robbery in Vicarage came to light, Griffin being chased out from Iping. His cover blew up, and the story about the Invisible Man came into the newspaper. People are aware of his ability. He can trespass, rob, and escape easily. “He could walk through a cordon of police officers as easy as me or you could give the slip to a blind man!” (Wells, 2019, p. 91). Griffin, who no longer welcomed in Iping, left the village and went to another village named Port Burdock. Griffin met his old colleague, Kemp, there and asked him to be his partner in crime and create “A Reign of Terror” together, but he got rejected by Kemp. Griffin’s had a self-concept as superior to humans. Self-concept is the view of someone to himself (Arafah et al., 2020). The negative self-concept he had produced negative energy in him led to hostile intentions and being a social nuisance that was rejected everywhere. He branded himself as "A Terror" and made it his identity, personality, and image (Hasyim et al., 2020).

B. Hunted by Society

Kemp is Griffin's old college mate. McLean (2009) described Kemp as "much closer to adhering to Wells's ideal scientist as a hero and is the perfect anti-thesis to Griffin's egotistical ambitions" (p. 82). After hearing Griffin's story and his proposal to create "A Reign of Terror", Kemp realized how dangerous Griffin could be.

> "He is mad," said Kemp; "inhuman. He is purely selfish. He thinks of nothing but his advantage, his safety, I have listened to such a story this morning of brutal self-seeking. He has wounded men. He will kill them unless we can prevent him. He will create panic. Nothing can stop him. He is going out now-furious!"
> “He must be caught,” said Adye.
> “But how?” cried Kemp, and suddenly became full of ideas. “You must begin at once. You must set every available man to work; you must prevent his leaving this district. Once he gets away, he may go through the countryside as he will, killing and maiming. He dreams of a reign of terror! A reign terror, I tell you. You must set a watch on trains and roads and shipping. The garrison must help. You must wire for help.”
> “I tell you, Adye, he is a danger, a disaster, unless he is pinned and secured, it is frightful to think of the things that may happen” (Wells, 2019, p. 177-178).

Through the dialog above, it shows the horror of Kemp, and he quickly joined hands with the police to stop the terror Griffin caused. The “inhuman” term identified Griffin as a social threat (Handcock, 2013). Kemp, as the ideal image of the scientist as a hero and also as society representative, took a lead to hunt Griffin down. The whole village noticed the existence of the Invisible Man. Police officers and civilians worked together and guard the village. All doors were locked so the Invisible Man cannot get rest or food, powdered glass has been spread to limit his movement, also closed the station and port to prevent his leaving. The hunt was a success and caught Griffin. However, because of the uncontrollable anger of the people, he was beaten to death by mass.

V. Conclusion

The Invisible Man has offered a fascinating glimpse of the potential relationship between science and society. Science often associated with goodwill can be dangerous on the wrong hand. Even though it should be value-free, the implications on society should be guided so it would not be harmful. Griffin’s brilliance and his scientific discovery were corrupted by his selfish ambition of abusing science. He was identified as a social nuisance and seen as a threat to society because of the chaos he bought. The result of scientific abuse is damaging society and the individual. This paper highlights the impact of science abuse on social life that will be a good example of promoting awareness in science application and the impact on society.

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Interconnection of Nature and Yoruba Traditions in Okri's Trilogies

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***Abstract*—Africa's history and ecology were shaped by colonization. The European invasion of eastern nations had a significant influence on the environment. The technical advancements due to colonization have been both beneficial and detrimental to the colonized countries. The harmful consequences have prompted several researchers and African writers to conduct a critical examination of the interaction between humans and their environment in terms of race, culture, economy, power, and belonging. Ben Okri is an internationally acclaimed poet, writer, artist, and public speaker. In his trilogies *The Famished Road*, *Songs of Enchantment*, and *Infinite Riches* Okri has depicted the repercussions of colonization and the process of decolonization on the individual and the environment in order to understand the African reality. This paper highlights the interconnection of nature and culture which is considered as one of the main tenets of African culture and tradition. Okri employs magical realism as a literary method to emphasize the interplay between the human and natural worlds. Okri has included vivid imagery of verdant forest that has been deforested and wounded. According to the Yoruba mythology, the forest is frequently associated with magic and the supernatural world, in keeping with West African customs. Therefore, the exploitation of the natural world has led to the abandonment of traditional values which is well depicted. Further, the paper attempts to examine the effect of colonialism in eroding the spirit world and the physical world in terms of social structure and the degrading culture and its relationship with the environment.**

***Index Terms*—environment, culture, colonialism, spirit world, Yoruba tradition**

I. Introduction

Postcolonialism is more often concerned with hybridity and displacement and conservation of animals and the environment that has been side-lined. The postcolonial era has led to the rise of modern developments and materialistic world leading to the exploitation of the environment. Literature and arts, therefore, have been focusing on the interplay of humans and their relationship with nature. This had turned many writers and critics to voice the adverse effects of colonization in the name of civilization. The postcolonial ecocritical movement was widely spread in the year the 1960s which gave rise to a lot of literary works ranging from fictional to non-fictional works sketching the human relations to the environment. Alier (2009) observes that the rise of environmental education in the literary world is restricted not only to academics but also to livelihood. The postcolonial ecocriticism created a new space to share perspectives in regard to environment and its challenges with colonialism. It is said that environmentalism is seen as "White movement" in Africa. Thus, the tension in Africa in terms of postcolonial ecocriticism rises in concern with the human values and its global concerns. Travis et al (2014) comments that, "Environmental justice attempts to balance both social and environmental interests with a clear understanding that the health of a community depends on the two negotiated together and responds to the exploitation of disenfranchised cultures and classes that are too frequently represented by Indigenous peoples" (Travis et al., 2014, p.1).

This paper attempts to study on the degrading environment of the African society which has a huge impact on culture. The African landscape with its rich natural resources was exploited by the European colonization. It is believed that the rapid colonization of the African continent has led to urbanization which in turn influenced and attracted many Africans. The detachment of the Africans and seizure of their livestock led the Europeans to colonize and offer an economic justification leading to disrupted African system socially, economically as well as ecologically.

Ben Okri is an internationally acclaimed poet, writer, artist, and public speaker who was born in Minna west-central region and has lived in London ever since the 1970s. Okri in his trilogies *The Famished Road*, *Songs of Enchantment*, and *Infinite Riches* depict the various African traditions and the Yoruba myths and its traditions in particular. Okri not only tries to voice out the effects of degrading environment and but also tries to create awareness about the degrading environment which is affected by the Western epistemologies and uneven political eruptions. He tries to integrate the role of forest, the lush green environment, and also animals concerning African culture and economy. The author through his trilogies had tried to bring out the co-relation among the forest, the supernatural world, and the African

economy.

Okri portrays the richness of African natural resources in his novels through vivid images. Okri through the Spirit child Azaro echoes on the devastating effects on the environment due to the technological advancements in the novel. The trilogies *The Famished Road, Songs of Enchantment,* and *Infinite Riches* depict the intrusion of humans and exploitation of the natural world and the response of nature in return. The trilogies portray the importance of advocating oneself with nature to bring changes in political and social structure. In the book 'Landscape, environment and technology in colonial and postcolonial Africa', Ogunfolabi (2012) comments Okri's depiction of nature thus: "The author's sustained conceptualization of nature as a vigorous actor, where humans may be at the center of the narrative, but they are inevitably vulnerable to nature and its ability to mete out its reprisal in unforeseen ways" (Ogunfolabi, 2012, p.14). The critic also expresses Okri's strong concern towards environmentalism and his efforts in restoring nature to its truest place.

II. The Wrecked Wilderness

The novel *The Famished Road* exemplifies the drastic effects of the environment due to the rise of technology. The author tries to make one understand the environmental consciousness through the degradation of the environment due to modernization. Okri vividly pictures the changes of the wilderness thus: "I had emerged into another world. All around, in the future present, a mirage of houses was being built, paths and roads crossed and surrounded the forest in tightening circles, unpainted churches and the whitewashed walls of mosques sprang up where the forest was thickest…I heard the ghostly wood-cutters axing down the titanic irokos, the giant baobabs, the rubber trees, and obeches. There were birds nests on the earth and the eggs within them were smashed . . . the little birds within the cracked eggs half-formed and dried up, dying as they were emerging into a hard, miraculous world" (Okri,1991, p.187). Therefore, these lines highlight the destruction of trees and modernization which act as a threat to human and animal life. It exposes the continuous effect of colonization on natural resources. Okri enlightens and creates awareness among his readers on how humans have exploited the natural world. In one of the scenes in the novel, Azaro's father tries to tell him that the house is not surrounded by forest anymore. "Sooner than you think there won't be one tree standing. There will be no forest left at all. And there will be wretched houses all over the place. This is where the poor people will live …. This is where you too will live" (Okri, 1991, p.37). Therefore, throughout the novel, the author tries to bring out the environmental degradation and loss of their connection to nature.

Okri uses graphic descriptions of murder of the trees. He writes "Red liquid dripped from its stump as if the tree had been a murdered giant whose blood wouldn't stop flowing" (Okri, 1991, p.24). Red liquid in the lines of Okri is personified to the blood of the plant where the act of deforestation turns out to be powerful imagery where destruction of trees can be considered as a murder "The tree was mighty, its trunk gnarled and rough like the faces of ancient warriors. It looked like a great soul dead at the road's end" (Okri, 1991, p.94). James (2013) thus comments, "The personifying depiction of the trees, trees turn into giants and the sap flowing from the stump of the tree represents blood" (James, 2013, p.271). Later in the novel, the spirit child Azaro, laments that as he approached to the edge of the forest the trees groaned as they were cut down and he could hear the groans of the trees as it fell on neighbours. "I listened to trees being felled deep in the forest and heard the steady rhythms of axes on hard, living wood" (Okri, 1991, p.112). Thus, depicting the exploitation of the environment "Every day the forest thinned a little, Azaro explains that the trees I got to know so well were cut down and only their stumps, dripping sap, remained" (Okri, 1991, p.116). Thus, these lines help one to understand that the communities were involved in activities such as deforestation and causing harm to the environment which relatively had adverse effects on the limited access to food and other essentials.

The transformation of the forest and rivers into a plain land implies the abolishment of certain religious practices related to farming. The farmers had to clear the forest and colonization had its demands of palm oil and issues of land ownership which eventually led to depredations of land as well as the religious practices. For example, the myriad spirits are associated with hills, mountains, rivers, rocks and lakes etc.…It is considered as a groove according to the Yoruba belief. Any devastation of the environment symbolizes the destructions of the spirits that dwelled in the forest. Highfield (2012) explains his connection between the felling of trees and lack of food. "A great deal of agriculture in West Africa was agroforestry, in which cultivated crops were grown alongside a variety of tree species" (Highfield, 2012, p.144). The forest was a place where the characters were able to connect themselves more than the real world as the real world was filled with struggles and turmoil. Azaro finds a haven in the forest where he finds happiness and peace. "Sometimes I played in the forest. My favourite place was the clearing. In the afternoons the forest wasn't frightening ... I wandered through the forest, collecting rusted padlocks, green bird-eggs, abandoned necklaces, and ritual dolls" (Okri, 1991, p.116). Therefore, Okri through his novels manifest a celebration of nature through the characters in the novel. Alice walker through her environmental theories explores three main factors such as environmental consideration, celebration, and reclamation, and these features are also adhered to by Okri in his trilogy where he tries to figure out and reclaim the environment through the characters in every possible way.

Okri registers the beauty of the African wilderness through the lines, "There was music everywhere, and dancing and celebration rose from the earth. And then birds with bright yellow and blue feathers, eyes that were like diamonds and with ugly scavenging faces, flew at me..." (Okri, 1991, p.189). The Animals are considered equal to human beings according to the Yoruba traditions and they are considered sacred as they are connected to human emotions and

traditions. For example, "The bar had moved deep into the forest and all her customers were animals and birds. I sat on a bench which was really the back of a goat and I drank off the back of a bull. A massive chicken without feathers strode into the bar, sat next to me, and ordered palm-wine and pepper soup. Madame Koto didn't want to serve the chicken, but Dad said: 'Serve him!'" (Okri, 1991, p.55). Babalola (1973) and Ojo (1973) comments Yoruba folktales show a deep connection between animals and human and moreover, depict how the animals interact with humans, eat and freely connect with each other without any boundaries. Though the consciousness and emotions of animals are similar to humans it turns out to be controversial according to Dawkins (2003) "It implies that emotional awareness is evolutionarily very old and possibly very widespread in animal kingdom" (Dawkins, 2003, p. 887). Thus, implies that animals have feelings and emotions with respect to its circumstances and situations. Therefore, one must consider its importance in the global world.

III. The Urbanized Africa

When Okri registers the riches of the Yoruban culture and their affinity towards their bioregion on one side, he claims the destruction of the environment on the other. Azaro dreams of the future world that is urbanized and modern "Skyscrapers stood high and inscrutable besides huts and zinc abodes. Bridges were being built; flyovers, half-finished, were like passageways into the air, or like future visions of a time when cars would be able to fly" (Okri, 1991.p.93). Thus, these lines focus on urbanization and the future of Africa with various stages of modern technology. The author through his text portrays the transitional period. Okri's depiction of skyscrapers beside the huts and zinc abodes shows the half-finished process of development. "The forest loses its war against progress: it seems that the trees, feeling that they are losing their battle with human beings, simply walk deeper into the forest: I heard the great spirits of the land and forest talking of a temporary exile" (Okri, 1991, 459). Thus, through these lines, Okri portrays the exploitation of colonial power over the land as Africans fight for their independence. "In forest regions communities have long and deep relationships to the forest that predate the colonial and neo-colonial eras. Those relationships vary widely, but most local communities across West Africa lost significant control over forest resource use in the late colonial period, a situation that continued after independence" (Highfield, 2012, p.151). Hence Okri tries to bring out the postcolonial disillusionment through his novels.

The Trilogy not only focuses on deforestation but also creates an awareness that the forest is depleting and its consequences on the character's life. Through the second book *Songs of Enchantment*, the author tries to bring in different perceptive of seeing the world anew he tries to bring out the changes that can be made in political, social, and ecological scenarios through the narrator. Especially, in the novel *Songs of Enchantment*, he tries to represent both the physical and the spiritual world where spirituality can lead to abdicating social influences and responsibility.

Okri through this novel not only emphasizes the loss of environment but also the loss of connection between the humans and the forest. "The trees were being felled every day in the forest. We heard the stumps screaming in the evenings. The word went around that the spirits of the forest had turned vengeful. No one was supposed to go there at night…And because the forest gradually became alien to us, because we feared the bristling potency of its new empty spaces, we all became a little twisted" (Okri, 1993, p.68). According to Constantini (2013) "the spreading deforestation exposes the people's inability to restore a sustainable harmony with their environment" (Constantini, 2013, p.93). The author uses animals, lizards, birds, monsters to connect to Abiku fantasy world. The destruction of the forest also symbolizes the loss of animals and the imaginary world of the humans in novel. Thus, the consequences of deforestation on human life disturb them psychologically through hallucinations and nightmares. For example, Characters like dad, Azaro and old woman turn out to be terrified because of their lost sense of hope to restore the environment as they are culturally and ancestrally associated with the forest. Thus, the Okri beautifully exposes the local people's inability to restore the environment.

Okri's depiction of the old woman in *Infinite Riches* showcases on her survival despite her seclusion from society as she looked frightening with her disease the old woman looked different from others with her twisted eyes. The landlords refused to give rooms for rent and the society did not accept her so she retreats to the forest wherein she lives a life of a hermit and sees the changes that happen in the society. The old woman cared for animals and plants; she turns out to be someone who cured the disease of many people but she retained her ugliness. Through the portrayal of the old woman, the author tries to depict the sacredness of the forest and its connections to the culture. The forest was considered as a place of celebration and music and as crowded as the marketplace that was never silent and people trained themselves to fight at the forest "they were birds asleep on the roof everywhere on the grounds outside the hut they were white eggs on her wooden bed they were black eggs." (Okri, 1993). Therefore, the lines suggest the survival of human beings through natural resources. Okri exhibits the abiding power of nature and its political associations with dehumanizing systems and corrupt politics. The visions of Okri are an integration that links humans and their surroundings.

In the third part of the trilogy, the *Infinite Riches* the author depicts the consequences of deforestation which leads to wide barren areas and landscapes which portrays emptiness and the control of colonial authorities over the land. "The forest once represented the beginnings of dreams, the boundary of our visible community, the dreaming place of spirits, the dwelling place of mysteries and innumerable old stories that reincarnate in the diverse minds of human beings…" (Okri, 1998, p.61). Thus, the forest was associated with spirits and elves were the spirits wove spells of 'mischief and delight' (Okri, 1998, p.61). The destruction of forest created emptiness and a wound in the life of humans. Through

Okri these lines reclaim the beauty of the forest and the effects of colonization over the land and its traditions. Deforestation has brought disaster; the gentle winds have gone instead bad wind started blowing. “There are certain trees that seem worthless but when gone leave empty spaces through which bad winds blow. There are other trees that seem useless but when felled worse things grow in their place” (Okri 1998, p.214).

Frantz Fanon in ‘Wretched of the Earth’ explains that the success of colonization lies when the ‘indocile nature is being tamed’. Thus, globalization had led to the loss of forest resources and it is what Rob Nixon (2012) calls as ‘slow violence’ (Nixon, 2012, p.257). The violence of forest is caused by the political thugs in the society which exemplifies contemporary Nigeria at the hands of globalization and colonial empowerment. “Madame Koto cries out that she ‘cannot cut down old trees’ because ‘they give shade to two thousand caravans of spirit's” (Okri, 1998, p.29). Therefore, the crisis of deforestation is not just ecological but also cultural as the characters like Koto lose their connections to spirits, magic, or neither communal to the indigenous belief. Unlike, Koto, Azaro focuses on the new nation that is born with new realities in the world he sees the spaces created due to colonization on a positive note. “Widening the spaces for better realities’ (Okri, 1998, p.196) and ‘extending the womb of the world” (Okri, 1998, p.196).

The political growth in African society led to the violation and destruction of the environment. The distribution of poisoned milk causes food poisoning which reveals the scarcity of food over the nation and its starvation which leads to various issues and health problems. The decline of the forestry and development of buildings causes agroforestry. Okri reveals the transition of forest to buildings through his character Madame Koto. Therefore, the change in society can be viewed in two different perspectives it can be seen as an obsession with advancement in society and also as exploitation of the wilderness carried out by the western invaders. Madame Koto poignantly points out the transition “Our area filled up with strangers who came to the city from their villages deep in the country. There were no houses for them and sometimes ten of them lived in one room and when the diseases began to visit us from the forest many people died while the trees fell one by one. Things changed rapidly and at night all kinds of animal cries kept us awake” (Okri, 1998). Okri depicts the loss of trees, animals, and human lives due to the wake of colonialism.

According to Mahmutovic “The topos of the road which changes while crossing natural places is a symbol of the myth of progress viewed from a Yoruba perspective” (Mahmutovic, 2010, p.5). The exploitation of the forest and livelihood of people and the constant changes in the road symbolizes the Yoruba perspective where the road is associated with the myth of progress hence embodying modernization and technological developments leading to exploitation of nature by the colonial rule.

IV. Conclusion

The article foregrounds the human encroachment of nature and its resources. Okri’s novel tries to deal with ecological issues as an antidote and also highlights the Yoruba culture, a culture that is rich in its views on global discourse and postcolonial studies. A culture that projects the development of nature. Okri’s Trilogy draws much from Yoruba and African folklore traditions through the fragmented stories in the novels. The novels depict the transition of the society to an urbanized land due to colonial empowerment and transition causes environmental degradation which also leads to the loss of African traditions. The author also portrays the aspects of politics in the environment and he tries to exhibit the power of nature over human life and its impact. The paper emphasizes on environmental degradation and the instability of the land with regards to its modern growth and on the other hand the degradation of the land exhibited through political thugs in the novel. Okri tries to figure out new ways of seeing the world anew through his novel. Therefore, through the spirit child Azaro and other characters such as the old woman and Madame Koto he envisions the disappearing forest in postcolonial society and its forgetfulness of visions and imaginations. The trilogy can be seen as transformative, a breakthrough, and as an emergence of new dreams and creativeness.

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Effects of Teaching Styles on Chinese University Students' English Language Abilities

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***Abstract*—Teaching styles play critical roles in students' English-as-a-second/foreign-language (ESL/EFL) learning. Yet, the relationship between teaching styles and students' English language abilities is still under-explored. The present study endeavored to explore the predictive power of teaching styles on Chinese university students' English language abilities. A total of 1,318 English learners from a university in China were recruited. Perceived teaching styles of English teachers were assessed using the Students' Perceived Teaching Styles Inventory (SPTSI), while English language abilities were measured based on the English Language Ability Self-Assessment Scale (ELASS). Findings indicated that teaching styles positively predicted English language abilities, and the predictive powers of Type I teaching styles on English language abilities were basically greater than that of Type II teaching styles. Pedagogical implications for university English teaching are discussed.**

***Index Terms*—English language abilities, teaching styles, Chinese university students**

I. Introduction

Teachers are keystone species in the learning ecosystem (Lei, 2016) who play an essential role in education. Teaching styles, "a teacher's preferred way of solving problems, carrying out tasks, and making decisions in the process of teaching" (Fan & Ye, 2007, p. 256), have an impact on the effectiveness of teaching (He, 2008) as well as students' learning and development (Zhang, 2009a). However, the association between teaching styles and student achievement is under-explored (Zhang, 2017). The present study aimed to explore the effects of the Chinese university students' perceived teaching styles of their English teachers on their English language abilities.

A. Teaching Styles

Based on the theory of mental self-government (Sternberg, 1988, 1990), Grigorenko and Sternberg (1995) categorize teaching styles into seven types from the perspective of thinking styles, including legislative style, executive style, judicial style, global style, local style, liberal style, and conservative style. As can be seen in Table 1 (adapted from Grigorenko & Sternberg, 1995; Zhang & Sternberg, 2005), teachers with different teaching styles prefer different ways of processing information and dealing with tasks.

TABLE 1
TEACHING STYLES AND PREFERENCES

Teaching Styles	Preferences
Legislative	tasks requiring creative strategies; formulation of one's own activities
Executive	tasks with clear instructions and structures; implementation of activities structured by others
Judicial	tasks allowing for one's evaluation; judging others or the product of others' activities
Global	dealing with the overall picture and abstract ideas
Local	dealing with concrete details
Liberal	tasks involving novelty and ambiguity
Conservative	tasks allowing one to adhere to the traditional rules and procedures

Zhang and Sternberg (2005) propose a threefold model of intellectual styles, re-conceptualizing the 13 thinking styles (Sternberg, 1997) into three types. In terms of the above seven teaching styles, legislative style, judicial style, global style, and liberal style are labeled as Type I teaching styles, while executive style, local style and conservative style are labeled as Type II teaching styles. None of the above seven teaching styles is classified into Type III teaching styles.

Zhang (2017) claims that Type I teaching styles are superior to Type II teaching styles for the following four reasons: (1) Teachers with Type I teaching styles tend to adopt the conceptual-change teaching approach, whereas teachers with Type II teaching styles are more likely to use the information-transmission teaching approach (Prosser & Trigwell, 1997; Zhang, 2001); (2) Teachers with Type I teaching styles generally have more positive perceptions of the teaching environment, the student quality, their own teaching competence, and teaching efficacy, etc. (Henson & Chambers, 2003; Prosser & Trigwell, 1997; Zhang, 2001, 2007; Zhang & Sternberg, 2002); (3) Teachers with Type I teaching styles are more willing to embrace modern teaching technology in their teaching (Chambers et al., 2003; Purcell &

Wilcox, 2007); and (4) Teachers with Type I teaching styles pay more attention to critical thinking and creative thinking (Emir, 2013; Houtz et al., 1994). In addition, studies investigating students' preferred teaching styles have shown that students favor Type I teaching styles over Type II teaching styles (Zhang, 2006; Zhang et al., 2005; Zhang & Sternberg, 2001; Zhu, 2013). Zhang et al. (2005) found that university students in both Hong Kong and the United States preferred the legislative teaching style and liberal teaching style, both of which were Type I teaching styles. Zhang (2006) and Zhu (2013) also found that students from mainland China preferred teachers with Type I teaching styles.

B. Studies on Teaching Styles in the Field of ESL/EFL Education

In the field of ESL/EFL education, most previous studies on teaching styles focus on the match or mismatch between teaching styles and learning styles (e.g., Akbarzadeh & Fatemipour, 2014; Felder & Henriques, 1995; Lee, 2018; Peacock, 2001). These studies are motivated by the belief that matching teaching styles with learning styles could enhance student learning outcomes (Zhang, 2017). Felder and Henriques (1995) define several dimensions of learning styles relevant to foreign and second language education (i.e., sensing and intuitive learners, visual and verbal learners, active and reflective learners sequential and global learners, inductive and deductive learners), identify learning styles that are favored by the teaching styles of most language teachers, and suggest a multistyle approach to foreign language education. Peacock's (2001) study supported Reid's (1987) hypothesis that a mismatch between teaching and learning styles caused students' learning failure and frustration, suggesting that EFL teachers should teach in a balanced style so as to accommodate different learning styles. However, a number of studies (e.g., Saracho, 1991; Saracho & Dayton, 1980; as cited in Zhang, 2017) found that it was the level of a particular teaching style, rather than the match or mismatch between teachers' and students' styles, that mattered in students' academic performance. Zhang's (2006) study revealed that the relationship between student-teacher style match/mismatch and students' achievement was complex, and that style match/ mismatch did not always matter for students' achievement. However, what teaching styles uniquely contribute to the students' English language abilities are yet to be explored.

C. The Present Study

The present study investigated the effect of teaching styles on English language ability in a sample of university students in China. Based on the previous studies, the following hypotheses were proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Teaching styles would positively predict English language abilities.

Hypothesis 2: The predictive power of Type I teaching styles on English language abilities would be greater than that of Type II teaching styles.

II. METHOD

A. Participants

Data were collected from a convenience sample of 1381 students from a national key comprehensive university in China. Among these participants, 26.9% were male and 73.1% were female. In addition, 49.1% majored in English (365 sophomores and 282 seniors), while 50.9% were majoring in 75 other subjects (671 sophomores), e.g., philosophy, economics, engineering, agriculture, etc. Participants were all informed of the research purpose and their right to withdraw from participation in the research at any time.

B. Measures

Two self-report inventories, the Students' Perceived Teaching Styles Inventory (SPTSI) and the English Language Ability Self-Assessment Scale (ELASS) were used to measure the students' perceived teaching styles and their English language abilities respectively. Participants were asked to indicate how accurate each statement was concerning their perceived teaching styles or their English language abilities on a 7-point Likert scale, with "1" representing "extremely inaccurate" and "7" "extremely accurate". In addition, they also responded to some demographic survey questions about their ages, genders, hometowns, majors, etc.

1. Students' Perceived Teaching Styles

Students' perceived teaching styles were measured by the SPTSI which was developed based on the Thinking Styles in Teaching Inventory (TSTI, Grigorenko & Sternberg,1993). The TSTI is a 49-item inventory that is used to measure the seven styles in teaching, i.e., the legislative style, the executive style, the judicial style, the local style, the global style, the liberal style, and the conservative style.

In previous studies, the TSTI has been proved to be reliable for identifying teachers' teaching styles in the USA (Sternberg & Grigorenko, 1995), Hong Kong (Zhang, 2001; Zhang & Sternberg, 2002), Beijing (Zhang & Jing, 2014), and Shanghai (Fan & Ye, 2007). In Sternberg and Grigorenko's (1995) study, the internal consistency of the TSTI ranged from .66 (global) to .93 (judicial). In Zhang's (2001) study, the internal consistency of the TSTI ranged from .61 (global) to .81 (executive). In Zhang and Jing's (2014) study, the internal consistency of the TSTI ranged from .73 (liberal) to .81 (legislative).

In Li's (2016) study, only two Type I (i.e., the legislative and liberal) styles and two Type II (i.e., the executive and conservative) styles were measured for the purpose of obtaining findings with better interpretability and comparability,

because the legislative style was directly opposite of the executive style, and the liberal style was directly opposite of the conservative style (Zhang, 2008). For the same reason, items of the TSTI measuring these four teaching styles were selected and adapted to measure the student's perceived teaching styles.

Different from previous studies in which the TSTI was used to measure teachers' perception of their own styles, the present study aimed to measure students' perception of their teachers' teaching styles. Hence, 16 items (4 items for each subscale) selected were reworded, and examples are listed in Table 2.

TABLE 2
SAMPLE ITEMS OF THE TSTI AND THE SPTSI

Subscales	Samples Items of the TSTI	Reworded Version for the SPTSI
Legislative	I want my students to develop their own ways of solving problems.	Our English teachers lay stress on developing our ability to solve problems in our own ways.
Executive	A good student always listens carefully to directions.	Our English teachers always require us to listen carefully to directions.
Liberal	I am glad when a student expresses disagreement with an opinion I present and explains why.	Our English teachers are glad when we express disagreement with their opinions.
Conservative	I like teaching according to established rules and procedures.	Our English teachers always teach according to established rules and procedures.

2. English Language Abilities

The students' English language abilities were measured by the ELASS which was developed based on the Self-Assessment Grids of China's Standards of English Language Ability (SCE). The SCE was developed for the purposes of defining the English language abilities of Chinese English learners and users, describing the features of their English abilities at each level, and providing reference for English learning and teaching (Liu, 2019). Zhou (2021) validated the Self-Assessment Grids of the SCE, finding that the Self-Assessment Grids could reliably distinguish students' English proficiency levels. The present ELCSS consists of five subscales: (1) listening ability (5 items, e.g., "I can understand puns or metaphors used by fast English speakers"); (2) speaking ability (4 items, e.g., "I can express my ideas clearly on social issues in English without preparation"); (3) reading ability (5 items, e.g., "I can understand key information when reading English scientific and technical articles"); (4) writing ability (5 items, e.g., "I can use rhetorical devices to make my English writing more effective"); and (5) pragmatic ability (4 items, e.g., "I can express gratitude and sympathy appropriately in English on formal occasions").

C. Data Analysis

Estimates of internal consistency and factor analysis were conducted to validate the two inventories used in this study. Before conducting factor analysis, the data collected were divided randomly but evenly into two groups. Group A data (n=659) were used for exploratory factor analysis (EFA), whereas Group B data (n=659) were used for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) via Amos 21.0. Correlations were conducted to examine the relationships between students' perceived teaching styles and their English language abilities. Multiple regressions were conducted to predict English language abilities from teaching styles with demographic factors (i.e., gender, hometown, grade, and major) being controlled.

III. RESULTS

A. Preliminary Data Analysis

1. Psychometric Properties of the Students' Perceived Teaching Styles Inventory

In the present study, the alpha coefficients of the four-scale SPTSI ranged from .80 (conservative) to .88 (legislative). However, should Item 3 in the scale for conservative teaching style be deleted, the alpha coefficient of this scale would raise from .80 to .82. Hence, this item was deleted before conducting EFA using Group A data (n=659). The PCA with varimax rotation was performed with the number of factors extracted a priori set to be four. The KMO value reached .89 while Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (df=105; $p<.001$), indicating that the data set was suitable for factor analysis. However, one item of liberal teaching style cross-loaded on two factors with factor loadings values being .45 and .62. After deleting this item, EFA was conducted again. The KMO value was .87 while Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (df=91; $p<.001$), indicating that the data set was still suitable for factor analysis. All the remaining 14 items loaded on factors as theoretically expected. The four factors accounted for 73.18% of the variance in students' perceived teaching styles. CFA was conducted on the Group B data (n=659) via Amos 21.0. Results of the CFA indicated that model fit indices were basically in the acceptable range, x2/df =2.43, GFI=.97, AGFI=.95, CFI=.98, RMR=.07, RMSEA=.05.

2. Psychometric Properties of the English Language Ability Self-assessment Scale

Alpha coefficients of the five-scale ELASS ranged from .89 (pragmatic ability) to .91 (speaking ability). However, the alpha coefficient of the scale for listening ability would raise from .90 to .91 if Item 1 in this scale was deleted.

Hence, before conducting EFA using Group A data (n=659), this item was deleted. An EFA using PCA via varimax rotation was performed to extract five factors. The KMO value reached .96 while Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (df=210; p＜.001), indicating that the data set was suitable for factor analysis. However, there were cross-loaded items. One item deleted at a time, a series of EFA tests were conducted using the same method until all the remaining items loaded on factors as theoretically expected. A total of five items were deleted. In the final round of the EFA test, the KMO value was .96 while Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (df=136; p＜.001), indicating that the data set was still suitable for factor analysis. Approximately 78.41% of the variance in students' perceived English language abilities was explained by this factor structure. CFA was conducted on the Group B data (n=659). Results indicated that model fit indices were acceptable, x2/df =2.26, GFI=.95, AGFI=.93, CFI=.98, RMR=.05, RMSEA=.05. Because some items were deleted, estimates of internal consistency were calculated again. Alpha coefficients of the 17-item ELASS ranged from .85 (pragmatic ability) to .91 (speaking ability).

3. Intercorrelations among Teaching Styles and English Language Abilities

Table 3 reports the intercorrelations among students' perceived teaching styles and the English language abilities. As can be seen, three dimensions of the teaching styles (i.e., legislative, executive, and liberal) were found to be significantly and positively correlated with all the English abilities (all ps＜.001), with correlation coefficients ranging from .12 to .27. The conservative teaching style was significantly and positively correlated with the listening ability (r=.12, p＜.001), the speaking ability (r=.08, p＜.01), and the writing ability (r=.10, p＜.001). The correlations between the conservative teaching and the other two English language abilities (i.e., reading ability and pragmatic ability) were not significant.

TABLE 3
INTERCORRELATIONS AMONG TEACHING STYLES AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE ABILITIES

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Legislative	1								
2. Executive	.32***	1							
3. Liberal	.70***	.31***	1						
4. Conservative	-.28***	.19***	-.31***	1					
5. Listening	.19***	.15***	.16***	.12***	1				
6. Reading	.27***	.16***	.27***	.01	.65***	1			
7. Speaking	.25***	.16***	.20***	.08**	.73***	.70***	1		
8. Writing	.19***	.14***	.13***	.10***	.68***	.63***	.75***	1	
9. Pragmatic	.25***	.12***	.24***	-.03	.59***	.63***	.66***	.62***	1

* P＜.05， ** P＜.01， *** P＜.001

B. Effects of Teaching Styles on English Language Abilities

Four demographic variables (i.e., gender, hometown, grade, and major) were controlled for in multiple regressions of English language abilities on students' perceived teaching styles. Results from multiple regressions showed that students' perceived teaching styles were significantly contributory to their English language abilities in a statistical sense (Table 4). The amount of variance in English language abilities that was explained by teaching styles ranged from 5% (listening ability and writing ability) to 8% (reading ability). These results supported Hypothesis 1 that teaching styles would positively predict English language abilities.

Specifically, significant predictive relationships were identified as follows. First, the legislative teaching style (Type I) statistically predicted all the five English language abilities. Compared with the other three teaching styles, its predictive power for the speaking ability (β=.15, p＜.001), and writing ability (β=.16, p＜.001), were the greatest. Second, the liberal teaching style (Type I) statistically predicted four of the English language abilities, and its predictive power for the reading ability (β=.15, p＜.001) and the pragmatic ability (β=.13, p＜.001) were comparatively great than other teaching styles. Third, executive teaching style (Type II) statistically predicted four of the English language abilities. However, its predictive powers were comparatively weaker. Fourth, conservative teaching style (Type II) statistically predicted three of the English language abilities. Its predictive power for the listening ability was the greatest. These results partly supported Hypothesis 2 that the predictive powers of Type I teaching styles on English language abilities would be greater than that of Type II teaching styles, with the exception of the predictive power of the conservative teaching style on the listening ability.

TABLE 4
PREDICTING ENGLISH LANGUAGE ABILITIES FROM STUDENTS' PERCEIVED TEACHING STYLES (N=1318)

	Listening	Reading	Speaking	Writing	Pragmatic
R^2_{total}	.26	.22	.29	.26	.23
$R^2_{demographics}$	.21	.14	.23	.21	.17
$R^2_{teaching\ styles}$	.05	.08	.06	.05	.06
F	56.51***	51.60***	68.03***	57.15***	55.33***
df	8,1309	7,1310	8,1309	8,1309	7,1310
$\beta_{legislative}$	.11**	.11**	.15***	.16***	.11**
$\beta_{executive}$	.07*	.09***	.08**	.07*	
$\beta_{liberal}$	.10**	.15***	.09*		.13***
$\beta_{conservative}$	.12***		.09***	.09***	

* P < .05, ** P < .01, *** P < .001

IV. DISCUSSION

Results from multiple regressions indicated that students' perceived teaching styles positively predicted their English language abilities (Hypothesis 1) and that the predictive powers of Type I teaching styles on English language abilities were basically greater than that of Type II teaching styles (Hypothesis 2). These findings are in line with results obtained from studies on the relationship between teachers' intellectual styles and their students' performance on tests of basic skills (e.g., Saracho & Dayton, 1980; as cited in Zhang, 2017). In addition, this finding supported Zhang's (2017) claim that Type I intellectual styles are superior to Type II intellectual styles.

Teachers with Type I teaching styles were found to prefer adopting the conceptual-change teaching approach while those with Type II teaching styles tended to adopt the information-transmission teaching approach (Prosser & Trigwell, 1997; Zhang, 2001, 2009b). Conceptual change is a learning process that changes an existing conception, for instance, belief, idea, or ways of thinking (Davis, 2001). Teachers adopting the conceptual-change teaching hold that learning takes place when students change, develop or reconstruct their original concepts (Yuan, 2003). Hence, they tend to encourage their students to develop their intellectual autonomy, evaluate different viewpoints, and focus on the bigger picture of the issues encountered in their learning tasks (Zhang, 2001). On the contrary, teachers adopting the information-transmission teaching approach value the transmission of information to their students. Teachers in favor of this teaching approach tend to lecture about facts and require their students to reproduce what they have learned in detail (Zhang, 2001). In other words, teachers with Type I teaching styles are more likely to conduct student-centered teaching, whereas teachers with Type II teaching styles tend to teach in a teacher-centered way (Zhang, 2017). Compared with teacher-centered teaching, student-centered teaching usually brings about better learning results (Preston, 2007). In the Chinese ESL/EFL teaching context, studies investigating the effects of teaching models advocating student-centered learning also yielded findings supporting the effectiveness of student-centered approaches (e.g., Lei, 2018; Lv, 2016; Wang et al., 2018).

However, unlike what was expected, the conservative teaching style (Type II) was found to have the greatest predicted power on listening ability. This result suggests that some traditional teaching approaches or tasks are by no means without merit. For example, dictation is a typical traditional task requiring students to write down exactly what teachers/ recordings say, which is generally followed by accuracy checking and error correction. Labeled though as old-fashioned or teacher-centered, dictation was found to be an effective way of enhancing students' listening ability (Liu, 1994; Yang, 2009).

V. CONCLUSIONS

Two major conclusions can be drawn. First, Chinese university students' English language abilities can be predicted by their perceived teaching styles. Second, the predictive powers of Type I teaching styles on English language abilities were basically greater than that of Type II teaching styles. The theoretical contribution of the present study is the exploration of the relationship between the teachers' teaching styles perceived by their students and the students' English language abilities. This study has also validated two inventories (the SPTSI and the ELASS) that can be used to measure students' perceptions of their teachers' teaching styles and their self-assessed English language abilities.

The findings of the present study bear practical implications. First, since teaching styles play an important role in teaching, teachers are advised to gain more knowledge about teaching styles and identify their own teaching styles. As indicated by He (2008) that many teachers are not aware of their own teaching styles, teachers are suggested to measure their own teaching styles using established inventories of teaching styles. Second, because of the greater positive effects of Type I teachings styles on the students' English language abilities, English teachers can adopt the following strategies suggested by Zhang and Sternberg (2002) to exhibit Type I teaching styles: (1) using more group projects to assess students' academic achievement; (2) using more new teaching materials; (3) taking an active role in deciding what to teach; (4) showing more confidence in students; and (5) expanding experiences beyond the school setting.

Despite its contributions, the present study has several limitations. First of all, the sample of the present study was from one key comprehensive university in China. Therefore, data had better be collected from more universities of different levels in future studies. Second, this study only assessed students' perceptions of their teachers' teaching styles

and their self-assessments of their English language abilities, so the data collected are thus subjective. Hence, in future studies, data should also be collected from interviews, classroom observations and English language tests.

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Independent and Subordinate Subjunctive Phrases and Theta-Marking in Arabic Syntax: A Minimalist View

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***Abstract*—The objective of this work is to specify the actual structures of independent and dependent subordinate subjunctive clauses visible with the complementizer *?an* 'that' at spell out and exclude mandative phrases in Modern Standard Arabic. The problems: There is a confusion to specify the actual structures of such phrases whether they are complementizer phrases [C"s] or tense phrases [T"s]. It is also difficulty to decide whether the phrases constitute arguments to check theta roles or not in the absence of a predicate. The theory: this issue is analyzed with reference to Chomsky's minimalist's views (1995), Radford's (1988) and Jalabneh (2007, 2011, 2017). The conclusions: The structures are syntactically proved to be [C"s] but not [T"s] whether the complementizer *?an* 'that' is overt at spell out or covert at PF; [C"s] as syntactic units do not constitute arguments for any predicate; thus; they do not check theta roles in Arabic syntax. The analysis shows also that whether the complementizer*? an* 'that' is overt or covert, its syntactic effect is obvious on the morphology of the internal verb. In other words, it is marked with the subjunctive marker [a] at all levels of syntax.**

***Index Terms*—theta roles, spell-out, LF, independent subjunctive, dependent…etc.**

I. Introduction

Subjunctive is a common syntactic phenomenon in languages. Typologically, it is different from language to another in relation to a conjunctive or some other entities. In non - inflectional languages, as English, it is categorized as an unmarked structure that expresses certain attitudes towards something to be said. However, in Arabic syntax, Wright (1984) argued that subjunctive clause occurs either independent clause after *?an* 'that' as in [*lan yadkhula al-bayta aḥadun* 'no one (that) shall enter the house'], or as a clause that occurs in the subordinate as in [*j?tuka li (?an) ?aqra?a* 'I came to thee (that) to read'] (p. 22 and 28, Vol, III). Abdulhamid (1999) claimed that the subjunctive clause occurs either in a simple independent clause or in a complex clause in the subordinate to indicate a dependent act similar to that of the adverbial clause which has a future sense in the subordinate position. Maghalsih (2007) argued that subjunctive, in Arabic, is marked by the conjunctions, namely, *?an* 'that', *?an lla / ?alla* 'that not', *la?an/ lan* 'not that', *kai / likai (?an)* 'to that', *kaila / likaila (?an)* ' to that not', *ḥatta (?an)* 'until that', *?idh?an* 'then that' and finally *li(?an)* 'to that' They initiate either an independent clause as in the specimen (i) [*lan ?aḍriba al-walada* 'not that I will hit the boy'] or a clause that occurs in the subordinate position as in the example [*?ataitu li (?an) ?alᶜaba* 'I came to play] (p. 65).

The focus of this study is merely on both subjunctive structures that occur as independent and in the subordinate position. However; mandative structures are not involved in this study.

II. Problem of the Study

The problem of this study is that it is difficult to specify the actual structures of both structures whether they are complementizer phrases [C"] or finite tense phrases [T"]. The other part of the problem is that whether they constitute arguments that get theta roles or not in Arabic syntax.

III. Objectives and Questions of the Study

There are certain objectives which are to be achieved in this article; thus, the following questions are proposed: 1. What are the actual structures of both phrases in X-bar syntax? 2. Do they form arguments or not and why? 3. Does the complementizer *?an* 'that' change the structure from a maximal projection to another in Arabic syntax and how?4. Does it have the same syntactic significant whether overt or covert at all levels of syntax?

IV. Hypothesis of the Study

A complementizer X whether overt or covert must head [C"] but not [T"] at all levels of syntax.

V. Theoretical Views

Chomsky (1995) argued that semantic characteristics are the semantic selections and the thematic properties of the lexical verb. The argument structure of the verb illustrates the number of arguments it licenses and indicates what semantic role each argument receives. Selectional restrictions specify intrinsic semantic features of the complements and subjects. Thus, a verb with no Θ - role to assign to a complement will not be able to project a complement in the argument structure. However, a verb with obligatory theta roles to assign will have to occur in a configuration with enough arguments to receive Θ - roles. Hence, semantic selectional restrictions are determined by thematic properties. To get a Θ - role, the inherent semantic features of an argument must be compatible with that role. The complementizer phrase [C"], in X-bar syntax, is headed by a complementizer [C] and a specifier; but it must have tense clause [T"] of the matrix verb as a complement. It has the structure of [$_{C"}$ Spec [$_{C'}$ C [$_{T"2}$ Spec [$_{T'}$ T V"]]]]. A specifier of [Spec, C"] is optional; thus, it is a non - argument position in X-bar syntax. Θ - theory is a module of grammar that accounts for the assignment of Θ - roles to arguments determined by the lexical properties of the head verb. According to X-bar syntax, the lexical verb governs its internal complements in [V"] in which Θ - roles are assigned. A determiner phrase [D"], prepositional phrase [P"], tense phrase [T"] and complementizer phrase [C"] are Θ - role bearers; while, adjective phrase [A"], adverb phrase [Adv"], prepositions [Ps] and verbs [Vs] are non Θ - role bears in syntax. Arguments must occupy Θ - a positions in the argument structure to bear Θ - roles. They assign Θ - roles such as 'agent', 'patient', 'experiencer', 'goal', 'path', instrument and 'location'. Chomsky (1995) also argued that the distinction between subjunctive phrase [C"] and [T"] is related to the nature of [T], which has the value of [± Tense], where [+Tense] stands for finite [T"] and [- Tense] for infinitival [T"]. Thus, a subjunctive phrase consists of [C" and T"] while tense phrase has only [T"].

Radford (1988) argued that finite clauses that contain an overt complementizer [C], in fact, must have a finite [I]; thus, a subjunctive clause with [C] must have an overt finite [I]. An assumption given by Radford (p. 307) says: "Any clause which contains C contains a compatible I". Thus, a subjunctive clause requires an overt complementizer and any clause that contains [C] also contains an [I]. It follows that a subjunctive complement clause contains [I] node as complement of [C']. And since [I] constituent does not appear overtly in such structures, the obvious solution to be followed over here is the empty tense theory of [I] that assigns the nominative case at the correct level.

Jalabneh (2007, 2011 and 2017) argued that though Arabic is typologically categorized as VSO at PF, it is dealt with, in this work, as SVO at spell-out and VSO at PF due to a number of reasons. Firstly, all conditions of checking theory are met. Secondly, all conditions of case theory, namely, adjacency parameter and case filter are met. Thirdly, thematic relations are also met for correct semantic interpretation in this approach. Fourthly, V-movement is essential to get grammatical sentences to meet word order of Arabic at PF.

VI. Discussions and Results

A. Independent Subjunctive Phrases in Arabic Syntax

The phrases are visible with the items *la?an /lan* 'not that' and *?idhan* 'then that'; the former consists of the negative polarity item *la* 'not' and the complementizer *?an* 'that'. While, the latter is composed of the adjunct *?idh* 'then' and the complementizer *?an* 'that'. The analysis starts with *la?an / lan* that heads a complementizer phrase; it must be overt at spell out and other subsequent levels of syntax as in (1).

PF

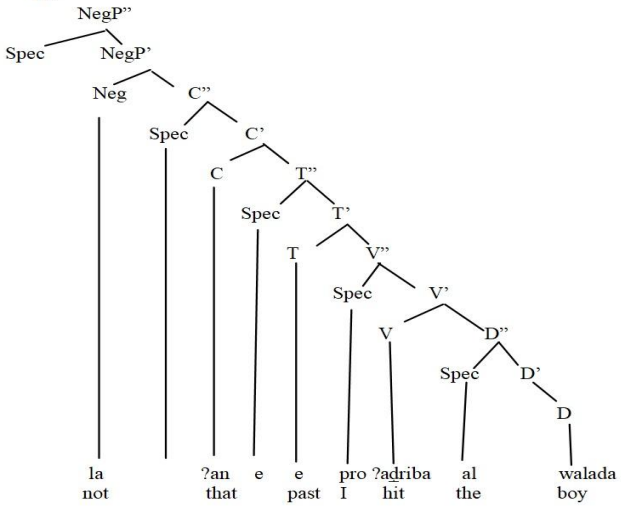
1a.	la	?an	?adrib -	pro	0	a	al-	walada
	not	that	hit	I	past	subj.	det	boy

'That I will not hit the boy.'

(1b) is the spell-out tree diagram representation for (1a).

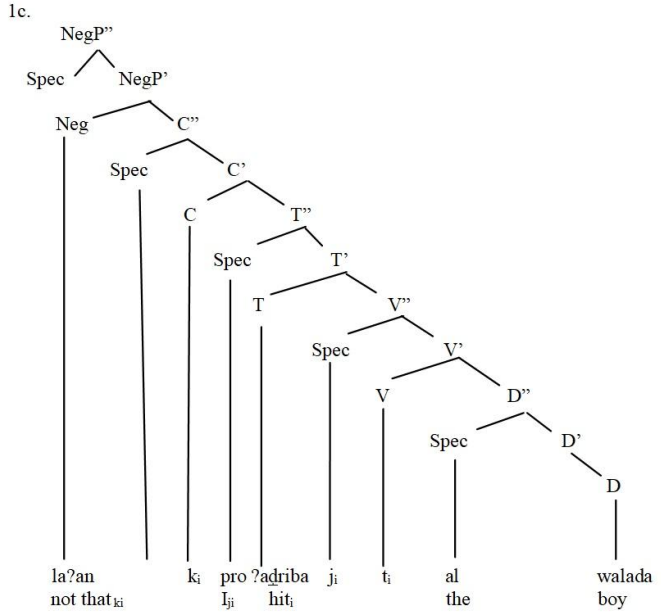
Spell-out

1b.



The sentence (1b) is discussed in terms of two issues, namely, the actual structure of the phrase [C”] and whether it forms an argument to get a theta role or not and why. It is evident that the complementizer *?an* ‘that’ heads [C”] [*?an e e pro ?adriba al-walada* 'that past I will hit the boy'] but not the [T”][e e *?adriba pro al-walada* ' past I hit the boy']. It is obvious that this kind of subjunctive phrase is unique in Arabic syntax, and it is different from other subjunctive structures in the sense that it occurs as an independent phrase. In it, neither the negative item *la* ‘not’ nor the complementizer *?an* ‘that’ can be deleted at any level of syntax in relation to (1a) as in [**?an pro ?adriba al-walada* 'that I will hit the boy'] and [* *la pro ?adriba al-walada* 'not I will hit the boy'] respectively. As far as theta theory is concerned, [C”], in (1b), does not constitute an argument to be assigned a theta role because it is neither selected by a verb nor occupied a theta position. However, as a separate independent phrase that involves a predicate and arguments in syntax, *pro* in [Spec, T”] position is assigned the theta role of agent as it wells the action by [V”] [*pro ?adriba al-walada* ‘I hit the boy']; likewise, the argument [D”] *al-walada* ‘the boy’ that occurs in the argument object position of [V’] is assigned the theta role of patient as it undergoes the act of the causative verb *?adriba* in [V]. To get the PF (1a), the verb *?adriba* ‘hit’ must move from [V, V’] to [T, T’] to check the empty past marker. The category *pro* ‘I’ must move to [Spec, T”] to get the nominative case by the empty tense marker in the tree diagram; then, it is dropped at interface before PF. The complementizer *?an* ‘that’ merges with *la* ‘not’ at [Spec, C”] at PF as it is obvious in (1c).

1c.



However, *?idhan* 'then that' is composed of the adjunct *?idh* ‘then’ and the complementizer *?an* ‘that” which can head the independent phrase [C”] in Arabic syntax as in (2).

PF

2a. ?ana	?aatii-	ka	ghadan.					
I	come will	you	tomorrow					
2b. ?idh-	?an	[	?ukrim-	pro	0	-	a	ka].

then that treat with respect I pres subj. you

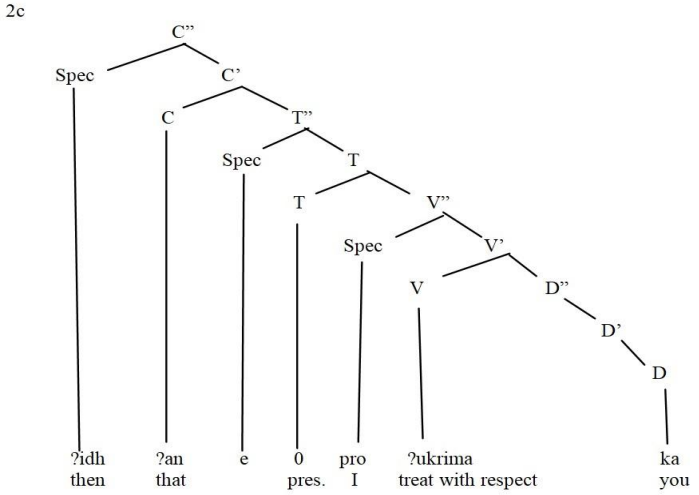
(cf., Wright, p. 33,1984, Vol, ii,)

'I will come to you tomorrow.' 'That I will treat you with respect.'

(2c) is the spell out tree diagram representation of (2b).

Spell-out

2c



In (2c), *?an* 'that' occupies the head position [C, C'] of [C"] [*?an e 0 pro ?ukrimaka* 'that pres. I treat with respect you' but not the head position [T, T'] of [T"] [e 0 *pro ?ukrimuka* 'pres. I treat with respect you' because [T] is occupied by the empty category [e] at spell-out. [C"] does not form an argument of any verb in the super phrase; thus, it cannot check a theta role. As a separate phrase, it has the verb *?ukrima* 'treat' which selects *pro* 'I' as the subject and *ka* 'you' as the object argument. The former has the theta role of agent while the latter has the theta role of goal. To get PF (2b), the verb moves to [T, T'] to check zero tense marker to head the sentence at PF. The category *pro* 'I' must move to [Spec, T"] to get the nominative case by the empty tense marker in the tree diagram and then to be dropped at interface before PF. The complementizer *?an* 'that' merges with *?idh* 'then' at [Spec, C"] at PF similar to (1c) above.

In short, the complementizer *?an* in [C, C'], in (1-2), heads [C"] but not [T"]; it cannot be deleted at all levels of syntax.

B. Subjunctive Subordinate Phrases in Arabic Syntax

These types of phrases are headed by *?anla / ?alla* 'that not', *kai / likai (?an)* 'in order to that', *ḥatta (?an)* 'until that', and finally *li (?an)*'to that' that occur as dependent subordinate ones. The sentence (3) illustrates the point.

PF

3a. ji?tu- ka ?an la ta- ḍrib- pro - a zaidan]

came I you that not 2nd, sg, masc. hit you subj. Zaid

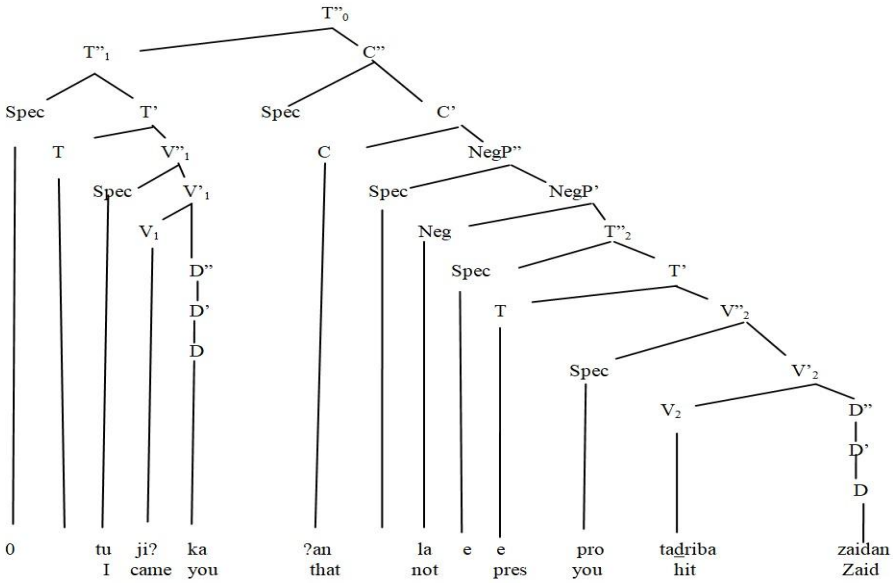
(cf., Abdullhamid, p. 8, 1999, iv.)

'I came to you that you do not hit Zaid'

(3b) is spell-out tree diagram representation for (3a).

Spell out

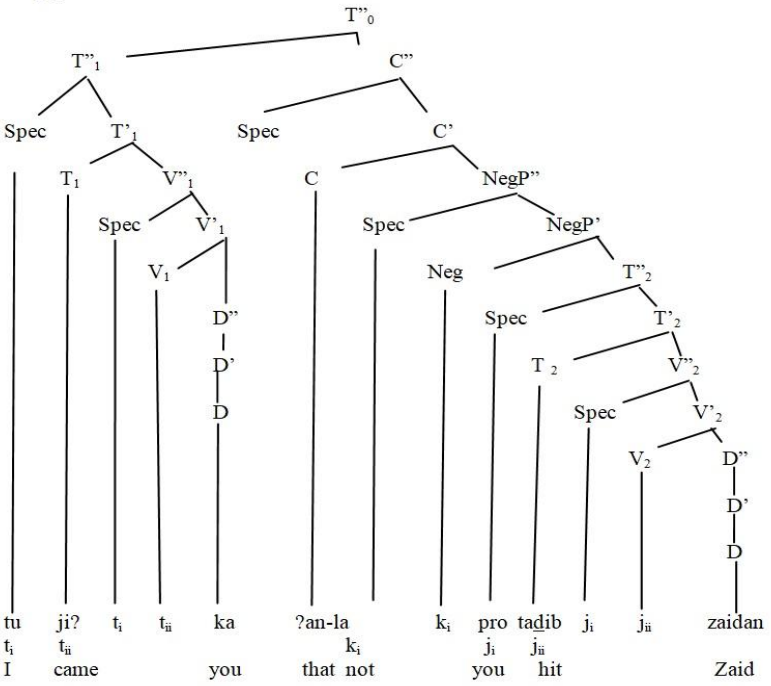
3b.



(3b) shows that the complementizer *?an* 'that' in [C, C'] heads [C"] but not [T"]; as [C"] is not projected by any verb, it does not constitute an argument. It is a clear example of a subjunctive structure that occurs in the subordinate position because [C"] is projected from [$T"_0$] but not from the matrix verb *ji?* 'came in [V_1, V'_1]. In [C"], *?an* 'that' occurs as the head of the subjunctive clause [*?an la e e pro tadriba zaidan* 'that not pres. you hit Zaid' but not the head of [T"] [*e e pro tadriba zaidan* 'pres. you hit Zaid'. As a dependent phrase, the verb *tadriba* 'hit' selects *pro* as the subject 'I' and *zaidan* 'Zaid' as the object argument. The former checks the theta role of agent but the latter the theta role of patient. It is evident that *?an* cannot be deleted in relation to (2a) or else the sentence is incorrect in Arabic as in [* *ji?tuka -0- la tadrib zaidan* 'I came to you not hit Zaid']. However, the negative polarity item *la* 'not' can be deleted without causing any fault to the grammaticality of the structure as in [*ji?tuka ?an tadriba zaidan* 'I came to you that you hit Zaid']. To get (3a), we may look at (3c).

PF

3c.



(3c) illustrates that, in [$T"_1$], the attached pronoun *tu* 'I' must move from caseless position of [Spec, $V"_1$] to case position of [Spec, $T"_1$] to get the nominative case by empty marker tense as it is a finite independent clause (cf., Radford, 1988). The verb *ji?* 'came' must move to [T_1, T'_1] to check zero tense marker and in a cyclic movement it has to move higher to [Spec, C"] in the same clause in syntax to initiate the sentence at LF (the node C" is not visible in T_1

due to lack of space). However, in [C"], the empty category *pro* 'you' must move from the caseless position of [Spec, $V"_2$] to the case position of [Spec, $T"_2$] to get the nominative case by the empty tense governor [e] and then to be dropped at interface as Arabic is a pro- drop language. The verb *tadriba* 'hit' must move to [T_2, T'_2] to check empty tense and remains there at LF (cf., Jalabneh, 2011 for V-movement).

Similar complementizers that initiate [C"] in the subordinate positions are: *hatta (?an)* 'until that', *kai / or likai (?an)* 'in order to that' and finally *li (?an)* 'to that'. The following examples (4-6) illustrate their occurrences following the formula: [$_{C"}$ Spec [$_{C'}$ C [$_{T"}$ Spec [$_{T2}$ Spec, T' T V"]]]].

PF

4b. sir-	tu	hatta	?adkhul-	a	al-	qaryata].	
walked	I	until	enter into	I subj.	det	village	

'I walked until I entered into the village'

Spell out

4b. sir-	tu	[$_{C"}$ Spec [$_{C'}$	hatta	C	?an	[$_{T"2}$	?adkhul-	pro-	a	al-	qaryata].
walked	I		until		that		enter into	I	subj.	det	village

'I walked until that I entered into the village'

The sentence (4a) illustrates that the complementizer *?an* 'that' is covert at PF. However, in (4b), it is overt and the structure is [C"] but not [T"]. Thus, the structure is [C"] whether it is overt or covert because it is a part of numeration in the lexicon. The phrase cannot bear a theta role because it occurs in the dependent clause [*?an ?adkhul- pro-a al-qaryata* 'that enter into I-subj. the village'] headed by the adverbial adjunct item *hatta* 'until'; thus, the verb *sir* 'walked' occurs in the independent clause [*sir-tu* 'I walked']. Therefore, it is an intransitive verb and is unable to select a complement as an argument with a theta role.

PF

5a. ?atai	-na	kai	na-	drus	-a]	
came	we	to	we	study	subj.	

'We came in order to study'

Spell out

5b. ?atai	-na	[$_{C"}$ Spec [$_{C'}$	kai	[C	?an	[$_{T"2}$	na-	drus	-a]
came	we		to		that		we	study	subj.

'We came in order to that study'

The sentence (5a) illustrates that the complementizer *?an* 'that' is covert at PF. However, in (5b), it is overt and the structure is [C"] but not [T"]. Thus, the structure is [C"] whether it is overt or covert because it is a part of numeration in the lexicon. The phrase cannot bear a theta role because it occurs in the dependent clause [*?an na-drus-a* 'that we study – subj.'] headed by the adverbial adjunct item *kai* 'to'; thus, the verb *?atai* 'came' occurs in the independent clause [*?atai- na* 'we came']. Therefore, it is an intransitive verb and is unable to select a complement as an argument with a theta role.

PF

6a. jalas-	na-	li	na-	?akul-	a.	
sat	we	to	we	eat	subj.	

'I invited you to eat'

Spell out

6b. jalas-	na-	[$_{C"}$ Spec [$_{C'}$	li	C	?an	[$T"_2$	na-	?akul-	a.
sat	we		to		that		we	eat	subj.

'I invited you to that eat'

The sentence (6a) illustrates that the complementizer *?an* 'that' is covert at PF. However, in (6b), it is overt and the structure is [C"] but not [T"]. Thus, the structure is [C"] whether it is overt or covert because it is posited in the lexicon. The phrase cannot check a theta role because it occurs in the dependent clause [*?an na-?akul-a* 'that we eat subj.'] headed by the adverbial adjunct item *li* 'to'; thus, the verb *jalas* 'sat' occurs in the independent clause [*jalas-na* 'sat we.'] and it is an intransitive and cannot project a complement.

In short, the examples (4-6) prove that the complementizer *?an* 'that is a part of numeration in the lexicon at spell out; thus, it initiates [C"] but not [T"]. It is significant to notice that the complementizer has a direct syntactic effect whether it is overt or covert; it visible on the morphological inflection of the embedded verbs in the subjunctive as in (4a, 5a and 6a).

To sum up: the instances (1-6) prove that the actual structure of the independent and subordinate subjunctive clauses is [C"] but not [T"]. [C"] does not form an argument; thus, no theta role is checked. The study confirms that as the occurrence of the complementizer *?an* 'that' is a part of numeration in the lexicon in Arabic syntax, the structure is always [C"] and it can never be [T"]. These results are clear answers to questions (1 and 2). This issue is confirmed in the second result of the analysis which shows that whether the complementizer *?an* 'that' is overt or covert, its syntactic effect is obvious on the morphology of the internal verb. In other words, it is marked with the subjunctive marker [a]. Thus, the questions (3 and 4) are answered correctly. Finally, the study proves that the hypothesis: "each

complementizer X whether overt or covert must head [C"] but not [T"] at all levels of syntax" is proved to be correct in such structures in Arabic syntax.

VII. Conclusions

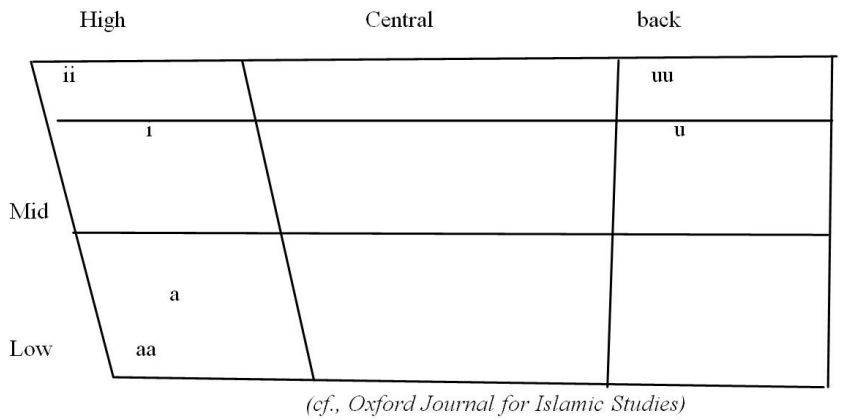
This study proved that the actual structure of the independent and subordinate subjunctive phrases, in (1 -6), is [C"] but not [T"] in X-bar hierarchy. This [C"] cannot constitute an argument; thus, it does not bear a theta role. This syntactic fact is obvious in the presence of the complementizer *?an* 'that' which theoretically changes the structure from [T"] to [C"] in X- bar hierarchy. It is because its compulsory occurrence in the lexicon as a part of numeration confirmed by the overt occurrences of morphological realizations of subjunctive at the end of embedded verbs in the sentences. The study proved also that whether the complementizer is compulsory overt at spell out and PF as in (1 - 3) or compulsory overt at spell out and optionally at PF as in (4 – 6), its syntactic effect remains the same at all levels of syntax. The theoretical perspectives followed in this work are needed to discuss such phrases in a number of ways: (i) the theory of X-bar syntax made the analysis simple in the sense that the complementizer *?an* 'that' of subjunctive phrases head [C"] but not [T"] in syntax, (ii) theta theory interacts in syntax to decide that not every [C"] is an argument to check a theta role. It also helps us decide that [C"] can project [T"] as a complement but [T"] can never project [C"] as a complement in such types of phrases, (iii) the theory of empty tense is helpful because the verb in such phrases do not overt have tense markers at all though they are finite ones; thus, the mechanism of empty [e] in [T, T'] is to check the nominative case by the subject to meet both case - filter and adjacency parameter and (iv) treatment of Modern Standard Arabic as SVO at spell-out is significant in the sense that all requirements of checking theory are met in a very optimal manner. All arguments in [C"] have checked their respective theta roles as per X-bar syntax. V-movement is essential as the verb in the course of derivation checks necessary features in the course of derivation in a cyclic movement before it lands at [Spec, C"] to initiate the phrases in this study.

Appendix I. Transliteration Symbols of Arabic Consonants Phonemes

Arabic	Transliteration	Arabic	Transliteration
أ	ʾ?	ض	d̲
ب	b	ط	t̲
ت	t	ظ	z̲
ث	th	ع	ʿ
ج	j	غ	gh
ح	ḥ	ف	f
خ	kh	ق	q
د	d	ك	k
ذ	dh	ل	l
ر	r	م	m
ز	z	ن	n
س	sh	و	w
ص	ṣ / s̲	ي	y

Notice : the researcher has a reference to the transliteration symbols while writing the Arabic phonemic segments in the text. (cf., Oxford Journal for Islamic Studies)

Appendix II. Transliteration Symbols of Arabic Vowels Phonemes



(cf., Oxford Journal for Islamic Studies)

APPENDIX III. ABBREVIATIONS

Adv": Adverb Phrase
Adv: Adverb
Agrs' / Agrs: Agreement subject
Agrs"P: Agreement phrase
Agrs: Agreement
C: complementizer
CP/C": Complementizer phrase
D": Noun phrase
Det: Determiner
D" : Determiner phrase
e : Empty
I": Inflectional phrase
I: Inflection
LF: Logical form
Masc. : Masculine
Neg''P : Negative phrase
SVO: Subject, Verb, Object,
Sg.: Singular
Spec: Specifier
subj: Subjunctive
T": tense phrase
T: tense
V": Verb phrase
V: Verb
VSO: verb- subject- object

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